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GST- ITS IMPACT IN INDIA

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ABSTRACT

Goods and Services Tax is an indirect tax levied in India on the supply of goods and services. GST is levied at every step in the production process, but is meant to be refunded to all parties in the various stages of production other than the final consumer. The Act came into effect on 1st July 2017. Goods & Services Tax Law in India is a comprehensive, multi-stage, destination-based tax that is levied on every value addition. In simple words, Goods and Service Tax (GST) is an indirect tax levied on the supply of goods and services. In this paper discuss about history, benefit, calculation types and impact of GST in India.

KEYWORDS: GST, CGST, SGST, IGST, UTGST, Economic Growth, Business, India.

INTRODUCTION

India is currently going through major reforms in its overall economic sectors. The growth trajectory of India is so high that it is poised to become the third-largest economy of the world by 2030. Government is taking significant initiatives to boost the overall economic growth of the country. Introduction to GST and its 3 types- CGST, SGST, IGST AND UTGST are effectively supporting such major economic development programs. GST stands for Goods and Services Tax. It is considered as the biggest taxation reform in the history of Indian economy. It will subsume multiple taxes like VAT, Service Tax, CST, excise and additional excise duty, entertainment and luxury tax, etc. It is a single uniform taxation system which will help in eliminating time, cost and effort. The GST council has fitted over 1300 goods and 500 services under four tax slabs of 5%, 12%, 18% and 28% under GST. This is aside the tax on gold that is kept at 3% and rough precious and semi-precious stones that are placed at a special rate of 0.25% under GST.

7% goods and services fall under this category. Some examples of GST/HST zero-rated goods and services are: Basic groceries. This category includes meat, fish, poultry, cereals, dairy products, eggs, vegetables (fresh, frozen, canned), coffee, tea, etc. (but does not include items not necessary for dietary needs, such as snack foods, liquor, sodas, candy, etc.) The recent country to implement GST is Malaysia. The goods and services tax (GST) is a comprehensive value-added tax (VAT) on goods and services. France was the first country to introduce this system in 1954. Today, it has spread to over 140 countries.

HISTORY

Several nations across the world have already implemented GST. To name a few - Canada replaced the Manufacturer's Sales Tax with GST in the year 1991, Australia replaced the Federal Wholesale Tax with GST in the year 2000 and New Zealand replaced their sales taxes for some goods and services with GST in the year 1986. India implemented its dual GST system (a Central Goods and Services Tax (CGST) and a State Goods and Services Tax (SGST)) in 2017 to cut red tape and increase tax revenues, which in turn would fuel economic growth.

The Vajpayee Government, in the year 2000, began talks on GST and set up a committee, headed by Asim Dasgupta, Finance Minister of the West Bengal Government. The committee was given the responsibility of designing the GST model and managing the IT back-end preparedness for its rollout. In Budget 2006-07, Union Finance Minister Shri P. Chidambaram proposed implementation of Goods and Services Tax (GST) by April 1, 2010. The committee of State Finance Ministers, however, only released its First Discussion Paper on the tax regime in November, 2009.

The new tax regime finally came into effect on July 1, 2017. Here is a look at the timeline of 'one nation, one tax' system:

- 2000: The Vajpayee Government begins talks on GST. An empowered committee is set up, headed by Asim Dasgupta, Finance Minister of the West Bengal Government.
- 2003: A task force is formed under Vijay Kelkar to suggest tax reforms.
- 2004: Vijay Kelkar recommends replacing the existing tax regime with GST.

- 2006: In Budget 2006-07, Union Finance Minister Shri P. Chidambaram proposed implementation of Goods and Services Tax (GST) by April 1, 2010.
- 2008: The Empowered Committee hands over a report on the roadmap of GST in the country.
- 2009: The committee presents a discussion paper on GST, welcoming debate. Finance Minister Pranab Mukherjee announces the basic structure of GST.
- 2010: Finance Ministry commences mission-mode computerization of commercial taxes in states. GST postponed to April 1, 2011.
- 2011: Congress party introduces Constitution (113th Amendment) Bill to implement GST. After protests by the opposition, the Bill is passed to a Standing Committee.
- 2012: Meetings held with state finance ministers. Deadline for issues to be resolved set at 31 December, 2012.
- 2013: In his Budget speech, Chidambaram, makes provision for Rs. 9,000 crore to compensate states for losses suffered due to GST.
- 2014: Standing Committee clears GST Bill, however, lapses as Lok Sabha dissolves. Finance Minister, Arun Jaitley, introduces the Constitution (122nd) Amendment Bill at the Lok Sabha.
- 2015: New deadline for rollout of the new tax regime set as April 1, 2016. GST bill passed in Lok Sabha, but not Rajya Sabha.
- 2016: Rajya Sabha passes the Constitution Amendment Bill. GST Council agrees on four slab tax structure (5%, 12%, 18% and 28%) along with an added cess for luxury as well as sin goods.
- 2017: Final GST implemented on July 1, 2017. Four supplementary GST bills passed.

GST CALCULATION

Under GST regime, goods and services tax is levied where goods and services are consumed. Hence, GST is also known as destination based tax. GST calculation. $\text{GST amount} = \text{Product of the actual cost of an item and the percentage of GST imposed is divided by 100. Net price} = \text{Actual cost} + \text{GST amount.}$

Add GST:

$$\text{GST Amount} = (\text{Original Cost} \times \text{GST}\%) / 100$$

$$\text{Net Price} = \text{Original Cost} + \text{GST Amount}$$

Remove GST:

$$\text{GST Amount} = \text{Original Cost} - [\text{Original Cost} \times (100 / (100 + \text{GST}\%))]$$

$$\text{Net Price} = \text{Original Cost} - \text{GST Amount}$$

BENEFITS

The Goods and Services Tax (GST) is imposed on the supply of products and/or services within the country. GST offers benefits to the government, the industry, as well as the citizens of India. The price of goods and services is expected to reduce under the new reform, while the economy will receive a healthy boost.

- Creation of a unified common market.
- Tax structure simplified with lesser exemptions.
- Eliminates cascading effect of tax. Consumer gets the end-product at cheaper rates.
- Taxpayers will have a common portal (GSTN).
- Helps build a transparent tax administration.
- Uniformity in SGST and IGST rates reduces tax evasion to a large extent.

- Buying input goods and services for production from other states becomes cheaper.
- Boost to the economy in the long run. Increased supply and demand of goods and services.
- Elimination of Multiple Taxes. The biggest benefit of GST is an elimination of multiple indirect taxes.
- Saving more Money.
- Ease of business.
- Easy Tax Filing and Documentation.
- Cascading Effect reduction.
- More Employment.
- Reduction in Tax Evasion.

TYPES

Central Goods & Service Tax (CGST) As per the Central Goods & Services Tax Act 2016, CGST is the centralized part of GST that subsumes the present central taxes and levies- Central Sales Tax, Central Excise Duty, Services Tax, Excise Duty under Medical & Toiletries Preparation Act, Additional Excise Duties Countervailing Duty (CVD), Additional Custom Duty and other centralized taxes. CGST is applicable on the supply of goods and services of standard services and commodities which can be amended periodically by a specialized body under the central government. The revenue collected under CGST belongs to the central government. The input tax is given to the state governments which they can utilize only against the payment of CGST.

State Goods & Services Tax (SGST) SGST is an important part of GST. It stands for State Goods & Services Tax as per the 2016 GST bill. Various taxes and levies under the state authority are subsumed by SGST as one uniform taxation. It includes the amalgamation of State Sales Tax, Luxury Tax, Entertainment Tax, Levies on Lottery, Entry Tax, Octroi and other taxes related to the movement of commodities and services under state authority through one uniform taxation- SGST. Revenue collected under SGST belongs to the State Government. However, the mainstream framework of the state governing body will be supervised by the central government. Each state will be having their own State Authority to collect SGST.

Integrated Goods & Services Tax (IGST) GST focuses on the concept of one tax, one nation. IGST stands for Integrated Goods and Services Tax which is charged on the supply of commodities and services from one state to another state. For example, if the supply of goods and services occurs between Gujarat and Maharashtra, IGST will be applicable. Under Article 269A of the Indian Constitution, the inter-state trade and commerce activities that involve the movement of commodities and services shall be levied with an integrated tax (IGST) under the GST regime. The Government of India will collect the revenue under IGST. Further changes can be made by the Goods and Services Tax Council of India.

Union Territory Goods & Services Tax (UTGST) As we have already learned about CGST and SGST which are intra-state taxes and IGST which is inter-state, the union territories in India are accounted under a specialized taxation called Union Territory Goods and Services Tax as per the GST regime 2016. It will subsume the various taxes, levies and duties with one uniform taxation in Union Territories as well. Delhi (India's Capital Territory), Chandigarh, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep and Puducherry are the

provisions union territories in India, UTGST will increment for all the taxpayers under these union territories in India. The parliament is looking forward to implement a separate act to impose and improve GST in Union Territories under the name of UTGST act. The bill will be presented in respective union territories for further changes in the implementation of GST.

IMPACT OF GST

Footwear & Apparels/Garments Footwear costing more than INR 500 will have a GST rate of 18% from an earlier rate of 14.41 rate but rates for the footwear below INR 500 has been reduced to 5%. So, you need to shell out more for buying a footwear above INR 500. And with respect to the ready-made garments, the rates have been reduced to 12% from an existing 18.16% which will make them cheaper.

Cab and Taxi rides Now, taking an Ola or an Uber will be cheaper because the tax rate has come down to 5% from an earlier 6% for a cab booking made online.

Airline tickets Under the GST, tax rate for economy class for flight tickets is set at 5% but the tax for business class tickets will have a higher tax rate of 12%.

Train Fare There will not be much of an impact. The effective tax rate has increased from 4.3% to 5% in GST. But, passengers who travels for business trips can claim Input Tax Credit on their rail ticket which can help them to reduce expenses. People travelling by local trains or in the sleeper class will not be affected, but first-class & AC travellers will have to pay more.

Movie Tickets Movies tickets costing below INR 100 will be charged a GST rate of 18% but prices above INR 100 will have a higher tax rate of 28%.

Life Insurance Premium The Premium Amounts on policies will rise, with an immediate impact can be seen on your term and endowment policy premiums as the rates have been increased under GST across life, health and general insurance.

Mutual funds Returns GST impact on your returns from mutual funds investments will largely be marginal as the GST will be charged on the TER i.e. Total Expense Ratio of a mutual fund. The TER is commonly called as expense ratio of a mutual fund company, and the same is set to go up by 3%. The return what you get as an investor will be reduced to that extent unless the respective mutual fund company i.e. AMC absorbs it but that anyhow will be a marginal difference.

Jewellery The gold investment will become slightly expensive because there will be 3% GST on gold & 5% on the making charges. The earlier tax rate on gold was around 2% in most of the states and the GST is increased from the existing rate to around 2% to 3%.

Buying a Property Under construction properties will be cheaper than read-to-move-in properties. The GST rate for an under-construction property is 18% but the effective rate on this kind of property will be around 12% due to input tax credits the builder will avail of.

Education & Medical Facilities Education and Medical sectors have been kept outside the GST ambit and both the primary education & healthcare is exempt from GST. It means a consumer will not pay any tax for the money you spent on these services. But due to increase in the rate of taxes for certain goods & services as procured by these organisations, they may pass on the additional tax burden to the consumers.

Hotel Stay For your hotel stay, if your room tariff is less than Rs 1,000, then there will be no GST, but anything above Rs 5,000 will attract 28% tax.

Buying a Car Most of the cars in the Indian market will become slightly cheaper, except for the hybrid cars because the GST rate will be 28% tax on all the vehicles irrespective of their make, engine capacity or model. However, over and above this 28%, an additional cess will be levied which can be either 1%, 3% or 13 %, depending on the particular car segment.

Mobile Bills People will have to pay more on mobile phone bills as GST on telecom services is now 18%, as opposed to the earlier tax rate of 15%. However, telecom companies may absorb this 3% rise due to fierce competition.

Restaurant Bills/EATING OUT Your restaurant bill would depend on whether you dined at an AC or Non-AC establishments which do not serve alcohol. Now dining at five-star hotels will be charged at 18% GST rate and the Non-AC restaurants will be charged 12% and a 5% GST will be charged from small hotels, dhabas and restaurants who do not cross an annual turnover of INR 50 Lakh.

IPL & other related events Events like IPL i.e. sporting events will have a 28% GST rate which is higher than the earlier 20% rates. This will increase the price of your tickets. And the GST rate for other events like theatre, circus or Indian classical music shows or a folk dance performance or a drama show will be at 18% GST rate, this is lesser than the earlier tax rate.

DTH and cable services The money you pay towards your DTH (Direct-To-Home) connections or to your cable operator will reduce a bit as the rate is fixed at 18%, which is lower than the earlier taxes which were comprising of entertainment tax in the range of 10% to 30%, apart from the service tax of 15%.

Amusements Parks The ticket price for amusement parks and theme parks will increase as the earlier service tax of 15% will become 28% under the GST.

Here's is a list of some items which are completely exempt from the GST regime:

- The unprocessed cereals, rice & wheat etc.
- The unprocessed milk, vegetables (fresh), fish, meat, etc.
- Unbranded Atta, Besan or Maida.
- Kid's colouring book/drawing books.
- Sindoor/Bindis, bangles, etc.

CONCLUSION

GST will transform Indian economy turning it into one common market based on a uniform taxation system. It will enhance the ease of doing business in India. Industries will make substantial savings in terms of logistics and supply chain due to GST. Some companies will benefit more as the GST rate will be lower than the current taxation. On the other hand, few sectors will have to pay more tax as GST will replace the old taxes uniformly, which may increase the rate respectively. The overall impact of GST on India's economy is expected to be positive. GST will surely boost the country's economic growth and ease of doing business in overall industrial sectors. The significant types- CGST, SGST, IGST and UTGST will provide a smooth mechanism of tax collection for the respective central, state and union territory governments of India. It will begin a new phase in India's economy by providing logistics and supply chain efficiency and state-based parity that the country requires the most.

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07

An Overview of Dowry System in India

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Abstract

Dowry is a social evil in society that has caused unimaginable tortures and crimes towards women and polluted the Indian marital system. Dowry is payment made in cash or kind to a bride's in-laws at the time of her marriage. Today the government has come up with many laws and reforms, not only to eradicate the dowry system, but also to uplift the status of the girl child by bringing in many schemes. However, owing to the social nature of this problem, the legislation has failed to produce the desired results in our society. In order to get rid of this problem, appealing to the social and moral consciousness of the people, providing education and economic independence for women, and effective enforcement of legislation against the dowry system, can help. In this paper mainly focus on dowry system in India - Origin, Definitions, Causes and Impacts.

Introduction

In the social setting of the Indian culture, the dowry system is an influential vice that has created its distinctive space within several communities. With the masses adopting the dowry system, which once served as a matri-

monial ceremony, it has now turned into an atrocious practice in society. A gift exchange that once brought harmony between the families of the bride and the groom has now ruthlessly amended itself into a monetary extraction from the bride's family. Dilapidating into a social evil, this phenomenon has struck and shattered the foundation on which relationships were once built for the families of the bride and the groom. Be it cash, gold, or property rights, the additional financial responsibility is proving to be burdensome on the brides' families in India.

History of Dowry

Originating from the Medieval, Latin word, *dotarium*, dowry has evidently existed for a long time in society. Dowry refers to the cash, property, and valuable goods that the family of the bride gives the groom, and the family of the groom, as a condition for their engagement. Whether it is in cash or kind, the nature of the gifts include, but are not limited to, gold, jewelry, household appliances and items, furniture, and vehicles.

Dowry system started even before the British period. In those days, society does not use to consider dowry as a "Money" or "Fee" you have to pay to be brides parents. The idea behind the dowry system was, to make sure the bride will be financially stable after getting married. The intentions were very clear. Brides parents used to give money, land, assets to the bride as a "Gift" to make sure their daughter will be happy and independent after marriage. But when British rule came into the picture, they restricted women to own any property. Women were not allowed to buy any property, land or assets. Hence, men started owning all the "Gifts" given to the bride by her parents. This rule changed pure dowry system into a mess! Now parents of the bride were looking at their bride as a source of income. Parents started hating their daughters and wanted only sons. They started demanding money as a dowry. Women were suppressed since they did not

have equal rights as men. And since then, grooms parents follow this rule to their advantage.

Definition of Dowry

Historically, dowry has been an integral and institutionalized aspect of traditional arranged Hindu marriage. Over hundreds of years, however, the definition of the term has evolved from the ceremonial and voluntary gift giving of the bride's family to a form of monetary extortion demanded by the groom's family. Studies on the origins of the tradition postulate that dowry originally and ideally denoted gifts of *kanyadana*, such as ornaments, expensive clothes and other precious items referenced in ancient texts on marriage ritual, voluntarily presented to both the bride and groom's families during the time of marriage. Moreover, the practice was derived from the high cultural and spiritual merit accorded to gift givers and gift giving in the Vedas and other Hindu literature. As such, dowry was originally used as a means to both sanctify material wealth and also enhance social status in marriage.

The modern phenomenon of dowry, however, reflects a change in the system such that the presentation of gifts no longer remains a voluntary process. Presently in India, bride's families are often compelled to provide dowry in the name of gift giving. Evaluated in terms of total cash value, the amount of the dowry is negotiated by the groom's family based on their social and economic status. The higher the socioeconomic status of the groom's family, the higher the dowry demanded. The exact negotiation for dowry is often done through a mediator so that the marriage retains some semblance of sanctity and does not appear to be an entirely monetary transaction. The modern practice of dowry, therefore, is characterized by a shift from voluntary to forced gift giving, as well as the primary role of the groom's family in determining the demand for gifts from the bride's family. In the way it is currently understood, the

term dowry is a broad reference to the totality of assets transferred from the bride's family to the groom's at the time of a marriage.

The total transfer can be broken down into three basic parts. Firstly, there are the property transfers to the bride, which according to Indian law should legally be under her name and control. Second, there are those gifts that continue to be part of the ceremonial aspect of the marriage and symbolize union between the two families. Ideally, these would be matched by reciprocal gifts of equal value from the groom's family. Finally, there are those assets that can be called "marriage payments" and are given "with the explicit understanding that without them the marriage contract will be voided (Sen 78)" in an economic analysis, it is this final aspect that constitutes the actual significant economic cost of dowry for a bride's family, and is perhaps the most costly among the three aspects of the dowry.

Causes

Social Status

In India, losing a marriage proposal is detrimental to the status of a bride's family in society. Therefore, regardless of their financial status, they strive to give exceptional gifts as their social status is exposed through these noteworthy offerings.

Greed

The expectation that a dowry will be given at the time of the bride and groom's engagement is to compensate for the groom's education, career, and wealth. The bride's education, career, and wealth are completely disregarded, as she is not given equal societal status to a man. Therefore, the expectations of a dowry can be justified through the influence of greed for material and monetary benefits. Unfortunately, if the demands are not met, either the marriage is called off or the bride experiences dowry-related violence.^[21]

Weak Implementation of Anti-Dowry Laws

Over many decades, the Indian govern-

ment has drafted several legislatures to control and counteract the dowry system. These include The Dowry Prohibition Act of 1961 and Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act of 2005. However, the implementation of such laws is ineffective due to the mass participation in this social vice. Under the veil of a marriage proposal, Indians pay no heed to the anti-dowry laws and surely exploit the dowry system to gain material and monetary benefits. Consequently, the demands are ignorantly made, and the bride's family suffers at the expense of the masses.^[11]

Lack of Education

Being from a segment of society, which is not comprised of highly educated individuals, it is valid to consider that the lack of education is a cause of this evil phenomenon. The bride's family, unaware and unknowledgeable of the laws and legislations, face outrageous financial ultimatums, which when not met, lead to the mistreatment of their daughters.

Advantages of Dowry System in India

Though the practice of dowry is publicly condemned, legally banned and morally despised of in practice it still persists as some of the supporters of this system argue that this practice has its advantages. Some of the arguments in favour of dowry by the supporters of this system are discussed here under.

Dowry helps newly married couple to establish their family

The advocates of the practice of dowry say that the dowry, money, utensils and other household articles that a bride brings at the time of marriage help the newly married couple to establish their new home and also enables them to furnish their home with necessary accessories.

It makes marriage of ugly looking girl easy

Practice of dowry makes the marriage of ugly looking, uneducated and aged girl easy as huge amount of dowry acts as effective and useful method for luring suitable bride groom

issue if the dowry is not up to their satisfaction. This accounts for an explosive situation such as bride burning and many other atrocities actively against women in our society. Women are ill treated, disrespected, manhandled, tortured and subject to all sorts' cruelties in the name of dowry. Newly married girls are always the victims of harassment, violence, murder and suicide. Dowry is demanded as though it is fundamental right of the bridegroom. Violence against women who bring less dowry or no dowry includes physical battering, emotional neglect, torture, verbal abuse, refusal of sufficient food, imposition of heavy physical work and so on. In spite of the varied legislation to ban the practice of dowry, the regret is that it still persists. Demands for dowry have even caused dowry death. For every 17 minutes one dowry death occurs in our society. Further some girls, who remain unmarried due to dowry system, take decision to carry on illegal sexual relations in order to satisfy their sexual urge and there by pollute the whole society.

Dowry practice lowers the status of women

A girl is considered a liability in her own natal home due to prevalence of the custom of dowry practice. Some parents are unwilling to give higher education to their daughter as they have to search for highly educated boy for marriages and better educated boy will demand more dowries which creates unnecessary problem, for parents. Dowry is thus a great impediment in the progress of education of girls and girls being deprived of higher education are unable to raise their status. In middle class family boy is always given more importance in respect of food, dresses, medical care and education only due to practice of dowry. Besides, the boy who receives huge amount of dowry may think of himself as more dignified as having a higher status greater prestige and more respectful than the girl. Subsequently the girl develops inferiority complex. Dowry system lowers the status of women in another way. Some greedy boys want to marry several women to get monetary benefit in the form of dowry. This naturally affects the status of the women.

Dowry system makes imbalance in the sex ratio

Parent of poor families kill their daughter from their very birth or at the stage of foetus in their mother's womb. The practice of female infanticide and feticide has led to an imbalance in the sex ratio in our society.

Dowry practice enhances psychological tension

Many marriages breakdown due to dowry practice and increases the tension of both parents and daughters. Besides, parents always remain worried and tensed in arranging money required to pay in dowry for daughter's marriage. In some cases girls with self dignity may refuse to marry a boy who demands dowry and may be forced to remain spinsters throughout their lives. Forcible suppression of sex urge may make them to become irritable, frustrated disgusted and pessimistic. They may even develop neurotic diseases and get involved in an emotional problem. In many cases, girls are ill-treated even after the payment of dowry. So they spoil their mental peace and cause continuous irritation though they resist this treatment. Many times just for the sake of dowry parents fix up their son's marriage without taking his consent which finally leads misunderstanding and unhappiness between married couple. Despite rapid globalization, liberalization and privatisation dowry has become the greatest social evil today. Both legislative and non – legislative measures are to be taken for the eradication of dowry practice.

Total number of reported dowry death cases in India from 2005 to 2019

Year	No. of Cases Reported
2005	6,787
2010	8,391
2011	8,618
2012	8,233
2013	8,083
2014	8,455
2015	7,634
2016	7,621
2017	7,466
2018	7,166
2019	7,115

for the bride

Supports the Higher Education of poor boys

The practice of dowry solves the financial problem of poor young bachelors and gives support for higher education to prospective bridegroom.

Raises the status of women in family

Supporters of this system think that marriage is a girl's life insurance and the dowry is the premium. A girl earning with her huge amount of dowry feels confident while entering her in laws house and is given greater attention and importance in laws family where a girl without dowry feels uneasy and apprehensive. Besides, it enables for a lower Class / Caste women to marry an upper class/ caste boy through which she can be able to raise her status in the society.

Promotes Inter-caste, inter religion and inter-state marriage

Dowry helps to find a suitable bridegroom from other cast, religion or form other state. Dowry is practically helpful when in a particular caste we are not able to find a suitable and qualified boy for a suitable girl.

Disadvantages of Dowry System in India

In modern times this custom has taken magnified proportion and has emerged as contemptible social evil because this system has more disadvantages than advantages. Practice of dowry which assumed the form of an institution over the years has caused lots of hardship to large number of people in the Indian society. It reduces the sacred institution of marriage to business transaction. It has degraded a young maiden to the level of a saleable commodity. Dowry has virtually become a menace in the Indian society. Its practice leads to various evil consequences among which the following may be noted.

Dowry causes great economic burden on bride's family

Dowry has become a great economic burden to the middle and lower class families.

These people live hand to mouth. They rarely save money. They spend their resources to meet their necessary want, for children's education and in meeting various social obligations. Hence they have to borrow money or sell a piece of their property or mortgage valuable articles of the family to give dowry in daughter's marriage which becomes ultimately a great economic burden for parents to repay the borrowed amounts after marriage. Therefore Gandhiji has stated that one, who makes dowry a pre-condition for his marriage, not only shows disrespect to women but also humiliates his own nation, education and womanhood and such young person's should be socially boycotted.

Increases corrupt attitude of parents

Many parents develop their corrupt attitude to collect money for paying dowry. They accept all sorts of briberies. They undertake unsocial activities like smuggling or earn by unfair means. Thus dowry practices forces some parents to be corrupt.

Lowers the standard of living

Each marriage of daughters leads the drainage of money from brides' side due to dowry practice and breaks the backbone of the family by lowering the standard of living, if of course the family earns by legal means.

Dowry leads to some immoral practices

In order to escape from the menace of dowry, some young girls prefer to undertake jobs to earn huge amount of money to meet the dowry expenses and thereby reduce the dowry tension of their parents. In the process some innocent girls are carried away by the false promises of the young boys and are often sexually cheated to be made pregnant. Subsequently such girls are socially defamed and finally they are forced to commit suicide finding no alternatives. At times girls are bound to commit suicide when their in-laws forced them to bring more and more dowry form parents. Even the husband along with his parents or other family members do not hesitate to take away the life of bride on dowry



Conclusion

There are many evils in our society. The dowry system is one of them. The practice of dowry is not only illegal but also unethical. Therefore, the conscience of society needs to be fully awakened to the evils of the dowry system so that the demand for dowry itself should lead to 'loss of face' in society for those who demand it. It has become a problem today. Almost every family has a girl. So every family has to suffer sooner or later. We 'as the citizens of India, marching towards the new millennium, should also strive for the discontinuation of this evil practice. Dowry is a black spot on the bright face of the country. But it cannot be done away by the elderly people. Only the younger generation can do it.

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Impact of COVID-19 in the Agricultural Sector –An Overview of post-pandemic Strategy of Recovery

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Abstract

The novel Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic has rapidly spread across the world, adversely affecting the lives and livelihoods of millions across the globe. India reported its first infection on 30 January 2020, prompting the authorities to soon initiate various measures to contain the spread of the epidemic. Given that the disease is highly contagious, the much-needed nation-wide lockdown was enforced starting 25 March 2020 in order to contain the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. COVID-19 pandemic has disrupted the Indian agricultural system extensively. Nevertheless, the recent quarterly GDP estimates post-COVID scenario showcase robustness and resilience in Indian agriculture, the only sector to register a positive growth of 3.4% during the financial year (FY here after) 2020–21. The pandemic wreaked a substantial physical, social, economic and emotional havoc on all the stakeholders of Indian agricultural system. Seizing the crisis as an opportunity, the state announced a raft of measures and long-pending reforms. We propose a 10-point strategy ranging from social safety nets, family farming, monetizing buffer stock, staggered procurement to secondary agriculture to revive and prosper post-pandemic.

Keywords : COVID-19, agricultural system, food system, COVID impact, post-pandemic recovery strategy.

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Introduction

The novel Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic has rapidly spread across the world, adversely affecting the lives and livelihoods of millions across the globe. COVID-19, originating from Wuhan, China – the epicentre – has eventually spread through the whole world and emerged into a pandemic. India has already become a hotspot for the virus, next to the USA, infecting 9.6 million (14.6% of global infection) as of December 6th, 2020 which has resulted in a decline of 23.9% gross domestic product in quarter 1, FY 2020–21. A pandemic shock can have a greater significance on economies due to lost human lives compared to a weather shock such as drought or flood or a trade embargo.

India reported its first infection on 30 January 2020, prompting the authorities to soon initiate various measures to contain the spread of the epidemic. Given that the disease is highly contagious, the much-needed nation-wide lockdown was enforced starting 25 March 2020 in order to contain the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. During the initial few weeks, the restrictions were strict and all non-essential activities and businesses, including retail establishments, educational institutions, places of religious worship, across the country were prohibited from operating. Subsequently, these restrictions are being gradually eased in a phased manner in most parts of the country. As the restrictions imposed due to the lockdown are being lifted, it is an opportune moment to analyse the impact of COVID-19 on different sectors of the economy. A number of reports have pointed towards the possibility of contraction of Indian GDP in 2020-21. This is a worrisome indication, since a higher GDP contributes immensely towards achieving better living standards, reduced poverty as well as improvement in other socio-economic indicators. While other sectors are reported to be under significant stress, it is important to analyse the impact on agricultural and allied sectors which provide livelihood to majority of the population in India.

The agricultural & allied sector carries immense importance for the Indian economy. It contributes nearly one-sixth to the Indian national income and provides employment to nearly 50% of the workforce. It is fundamental for ensuring food security of the nation and also influences the growth of secondary and tertiary sector of the economy through its forward and backward linkages. The performance of agricultural sector greatly influences achievements on many other fronts. For instance, World Development Report 2008 released by World Bank emphasises that growth in agriculture

is, on average, at least twice as effective in reducing poverty as growth outside agriculture. Agricultural growth reduces poverty directly, by raising farm incomes, and indirectly, through generating employment and reducing food prices. In other words, a thriving agricultural sector is a boon for most sectors of the Indian economy.

Undoubtedly, all these shocks affect agricultural systems; however, pandemic shocks affect all the sectors of an economy. The pandemic disrupts demand and supply of food impacting the global supply chain; while droughts tend to be localized affecting only the associated sector or stakeholders. Similarly, shocks due to a trade embargo affect a particular sector and can be corrected in the short-term with suitable policy measures. For instance, in case of supply shortage due to droughts, globally linked wholesalers and retailers procure from other sources to avoid adverse effects. On the contrary, pandemic impact may be far-reaching and harsher and may even plunge a country into recession.

Impact of agricultural system: Production, Marketing and Consumption

Uncertainty imposed by the crisis, restrictions on inter-state movements and absence of transportation disrupted the food supply chains and spiked food prices and affected farm operations. Our analysis using the official time series price data of 284 days spanning from 01.11.2019 to 10.08.2020⁹ of major food commodities indicated that the wholesale and retail prices of pulses, wheat flour and milk was 1–5% higher a month post-lockdown; prices of edible oils and staple cereals (rice and wheat) were 4–9% lower because of removing import restrictions and government interventions like free distribution of food grains. Vegetable prices rose with tomato prices increasing by 77–78% in a week and 114–117% a month post lockdown. Markets saw increased arrivals in May owing to distress sale and market reforms insulated farmers from lower prices. Smaller cities and rural areas saw higher price rises than the urban areas.

Survey results indicated that three-fourths of the consumers reported a price rise in food commodities during the lockdown. The concern is that the skyrocketing prices might lead to social unrest; however, the Government of India has managed the situation deftly with timely market reforms and social safety nets for the poor, migrants and farmers. Looking at the scale of COVID-19 spread and the panic created, food prices were quite resilient (except for vegetables). Resilience of the sector might be partly due to timely short term policy support and therefore we are nowhere near a price spike yet..

COVID-19 induced lockdown in India disrupted food markets which forced consumers to alter their consumption patterns. Consumers prioritized what they wanted and what they really needed. Various surveys report that individuals lost their jobs or their income decreased during lockdown. The lockdown coupled with sudden negative income shock posed serious concerns about food and nutrition security in India. In a survey of 2250 migrant youth, 32% reduced their daily food intake. Consumers changed their behaviour patterns by reducing consumption of non-essentials, reduced market visits, stocking and consumption behaviour changed equally across intensity of incidence *viz.*, green, orange and red.

Strategy of post COVID-19

Our aforementioned discussion on the impact of COVID-19 on the Indian agricultural system enabled us to arrive at a 10-point strategy for strengthening the sector against the crisis and sustainability issues posed by the pandemic.

Social safety nets:

The imminent shut down stopped production leading to job and income loss and demand recession. The pandemic also led to food loss and wastages that affected the food and nutrition security especially of the vulnerable sector, though briefly, and can have lifelong impacts on capabilities. The government and private interventions should warrant managing the food loss and waste, reviving the demand and food intake. To manage the food waste at household level, implementation of good food management practices like preparation of shopping lists and planning the course of meals are advocated. India's employment guarantee scheme – Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) could employ migrants who have come back to their own villages and direct transfers could put cash into the hands of poor who do not have access to MGNREGA. Government expenditures should thus be towards increased funding for MGNREGA (employment), PM-KISAN (cash transfer to farmers under the Prime Minister-Farmer Honour Fund) and PDS (offering nutri-rich foods through public distribution system). Alternatively, distribution of 'food coupons' or 'combo packs' comprising a basket of goods especially biofortified foods like zinc and iron rich cereals and millet will facilitate the nation towards the pathway in ensuring nutrition security.

Price and revenue risk management:

COVID-19 had less or negligible effect on food prices (except for vegetables). However, food prices are plagued by high volatility which translates into price risk to farmers. The Government should consider setting up a price stabilization fund to insulate farmers from the price risk. Further, crop insurance in India generally covers only the yield risk; COVID-19 has presented the government an opportunity to transform the crop insurance scheme which covers the revenue (yield and price) risk of farmers. Alternatively, farmers and consumers can avail the benefits of futures trading to buy/sell the standardized commodity contracts at a pre-decided price for delivery in the future. To meet the contract size set by the commodity exchanges, Farmer Producer Companies (FPCs) can transform themselves into aggregators.

Shifting the focus from primary to secondary agriculture:

COVID-19 induced lockdown has disrupted agricultural labour markets that witnessed huge reverse migration. A survey reports that 45% of the migrants returned home during lockdown. Structural weakness in the system should be addressed to enable recognition of farming as an enterprise. Processes which add value to primary agricultural production systems and enterprises which source raw materials from crop residues, by-products and waste from primary agriculture should be promoted. For instance, cotton stalks have a wider and untapped scope for use as soft and hard boards, paper and pulp manufacture. Accelerating research on high-end secondary agriculture products is urgently needed. Development of fruit-based ice cream, converting bamboo or wood waste to fancy decoration, preparation of sweets from bovine milk, use of natural fibres and culled potato to prepare bio-plastics, pectin extraction from fruit peeled wastes and bio-ethanol production are some examples. Further, innovations in the post-harvest technologies of medicinal and aromatic plants which supply raw materials to herbal medicines, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, and food flavour industries could increase export potential and create employment.

Family farming:

In strategizing to strengthen the agricultural sector, we must pay attention to the concept of sustainability. Nothing comes closer as family farming to the exemplar of

sustainable food production. Family farmers not only produce food; they save biodiversity, produce nutritious and local foods, develop new strategies and develop innovations to tackle social, economic and environmental challenges (FAO and IFAD, 2019). FAO suggests affirmative policies to support family farmers as a solution to the unsatisfactory world food system in which one-third of the food produced goes to waste.

Collective farming:

Crop farmers should heed the successful cases like dairy cooperatives to increase productivity and profits. Unlike cereals, pulses and vegetables, milk prices were not affected by the lockdown (Cariappa et al., 2020a). The procurement, processing, and distribution network of dairy cooperatives resisted the exogenous shock. Crop farmers should come together either as cooperatives or farmer producer organizations (FPOs) or farmer producer companies (FPCs) and work in the network of the international food system. Through aggregation (of inputs used and output produced), economies of scale can be ensured. Nudging by the union government on the principles of cooperative federalism (as done for Goods and Services Tax) is required for land reforms and contract farming. These steps together will have the potential to overcome challenges of production and marketing risks of the farmers.

Investment in agricultural research and development:

The estimated annual growth (in real terms) from 2014–15 to 2018–19 in agriculture and allied sectors was 2.9%. While the Indian economy contracted by 23.9% in the first quarter of 2020–21, agriculture was the only sector to register a positive growth of 3.4%. It is time to realize that agriculture sector could keep the growth engine sputtering when other sectors fail to rise to the occasion despite the farmers facing enormous amount of production and marketing risks even during normal times. Undoubtedly, inclusion of the private sector increases the investment flow as well as efficiency in functioning of the system. Private and government investments in agricultural research and development, insurance, finance, mechanization, cold storage, logistics, automation, digital procurement and distribution (e-marketing) should be taken up as a priority.

Buffer stock:

Monetizing the excess stock in the buffer could be a potential source of revenue for the union government. The stock held by the Food Corporation of India has in store more than double the buffer stock norms and is worth at least ₹ 1,50,000 crore (US\$205 billion). Monetizing the surplus besides revenues, may also reduce huge maintenance and logistics costs. This amount could be invested in promoting rural agriculture enterprises or capacity building, drought proofing, etc. Again, to reduce wastage through scientific storage is urgently needed.

Staggered procurement and pricing:

During pandemic situations which disrupt logistics, markets, storages, etc. the government can opt for a staggered procurement and pricing strategy which accounts for the threshold level in cost of storage especially for staples like rice and wheat produced and consumed by millions. This would also encourage farmers to store the commodities at farm level, providing storage is available, against distress selling.

Reforms in agricultural finance:

Access to cheap loans has to be enabled, especially for small and marginal land holders to revive the sector. Restructuring agricultural loans and repayment schedules, withholding the declaration of long-term loans as non-performing asset (NPA), interest subvention on availed loans during the moratorium period etc. should be implemented to safeguard the livelihoods and welfare of the poor.

Stakeholder partnerships:

Concerted efforts and inter-institutional partnership (regional as well as global) are inevitable as envisaged in the Sustainable Development Goal 17 to strengthen the weaker and vulnerable sections of the society. Stakeholder partnerships help to bridge the information and knowledge gaps by creating awareness, leveraging Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) including social media platforms. The idea here is to educate people not to opt for panic buying and hoarding essential items, to maintain hygiene of market functionaries, and to sanitize market yards in addition to social

distancing which are essential for smooth functioning of the markets *in lieu* of COVID-19 crisis.

Conclusions

The novel Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic has rapidly spread across the world, adversely affecting the lives and livelihoods of millions across the globe. India reported its first infection on 30 January 2020, prompting the authorities to soon initiate various measures to contain the spread of the epidemic. While other sectors are reported to be under significant stress, it is important to analyse the impact on agricultural and allied sectors which provide likelihood to majority of the population in India. The agricultural & allied sector carries immense importance for the Indian economy. It contributes nearly one-sixth to the Indian national income and provides employment to nearly 50% of the workforce. It is fundamental for ensuring food security of the nation and also influences the growth of secondary and tertiary sector of the economy through its forward and backward linkages. The economic shock will likely be much more severe for India, for two reasons. First, pre-COVID-19, the economy was already slowing down, compounding existing problems of unemployment, low incomes, rural distress, malnutrition, and widespread inequality. Second, India's large informal sector is particularly vulnerable. Out of the national total 465 million workers, around 91% (422 million) were informal workers. Lacking regular salaries or incomes, these agriculture, migrant, and other informal workers would be hardest-hit during the lockdown period. The lockdown has choked off almost all economic activity. In urban areas, leading to the widespread loss of jobs and incomes for informal workers and the poor. Estimates by the Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy show that unemployment shot up from 8.4% in mid-March to 23% in the first week of April. In urban areas, unemployment soared to 30.9%. The shutdown will cause untold misery for informal workers and the poor, who lead precarious lives facing hunger and malnutrition.

The pandemic led crisis has wreaked havoc on both the Indian and global agricultural system. A global food security crisis is in potentially looming that cannot be countered without understanding the impacts of COVID-19 on the agricultural system, especially of the developing countries. Initial investigation in India shows that restriction on movement, transportation problems and reverse labour migration have disrupted domestic supply chains which ultimately contributed to rises in wholesale and retail prices

of a few commodities like pulses, wheat flour, milk and vegetables. More than 90% of consumers across all the regions have changed their shopping behaviour. As the pandemic continues to threaten the global food system, the role of state becomes much more pertinent. In order to protect and safeguard the livelihoods of millions of people associated with the agricultural system, the state should increase spending on social safety nets immediately and take up other short and medium term strategies. Raising revenue by offloading excess buffer stock and increased credit to the agriculture sector should be the top priority for post-pandemic economy restoration.

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E-BANKING AND E-MONEY: AN OVERVIEW

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Abstract

The new era in banking has started on account of information technology. This technology has a significant influences on banking operations through the innovative products and technology, such as Net banking, Mobile Banking, ATM's, Bill Payments and 24x7 branches banking at door steps etc. are the buzzwords that banks are using to attract the customers.

INTRODUCTION

Banking being the key sector of any economy, its heartiness and vitality indicate the health and prosperity of any nation. After the announcement of New Economic Policy on 24th June 1991 and the initiation of Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (LPG) process in India, banking sector underwent a new challenges and responded favourable to reform measures. The reduced restrictions on banking business, tightening of prudential norms and gradual convergences with international standards have resulted in a noticeable improvement I the performances of banks in India during post-reforms.

The new era in banking has started on account of information technology. This technology has a significant influences on banking operations through the innovative products and technology, such as Net banking, Mobile Banking, ATM's, Bill Payments and 24x7 branches banking at door steps etc. are the buzzwords that banks are using to attract the customers.

The Indian banking system had gone through a series of crisis and consequent bank failures and thus its growth was quite slow during the first half of the 20th century. But after independence, the Indian banking system has recorded rapid progress. In 1950-51, there were 430 commercial banks but the number of banks declined rapidly due to RBI's policy of mergers

CHAPTER

1

Professor Amartya Sen's Thoughts in Welfare Economics

C. DHANDAPANI AND G. JAYASANKAR

Professor Amartya Sen is one of the World's most important and influential intellectuals, one of its foremost thinkers. The award of the 1998 Nobel Prize for Economics to the great economist was the best thing that happened to the Nobel Prize in this field. This long-overdue award was for Sen's contributions to welfare economics and, among other things, for restoring "an ethical dimension to the discussion of vital economic problems". Prof. Amartya Sen's contributions to welfare economics, the basic theory of how societies make choices that are both fair and efficient, have become part of every graduate student's training in economic theory.

Welfare economics is closely related to social choice distribution of goods, services, benefits and poverty. Amartya Sen made several key contributions to the research on fundamental problems in welfare economics. The contribution vary from axiomatic theory of social choice, over definitions of

welfare and poverty indexes, to empirical studies of famine. Prof. Sen was chosen for Nobel Prize in Economics in 1998 for his intellectual message starting from 1970. His message is to be seen in giving priority to education, health, nutrition, women's well-being and other aspects of welfare economics and human development.

Prof. Amartya Sen is a humanist and he believed that ethics, morality and humanism, value judgement should be the fundamental principles of economics. Welfare of men, women and children must be taken into consideration by the economist, planners and policy-makers. The Government and the state must have a positive role in the economic development. Development means eradication for clothings, shelters and above all freedom. This is the philosophy of Sen in welfare economics. This paper also discuss about the Prof. Sen's social choice, welfare distribution, and poverty. Sen's Ten propositions in welfare economics and Sen's intellectual views.

SOCIAL CHOICE, WELFARE DISTRIBUTIONS, AND POVERTY

Prof. Amartya Sen has made several key contributions to the research on fundamental problems in welfare economics. His contributions range from axiomatic theory of social choice, over definitions of welfare and poverty indexes, to empirical studies of famine. They are tied closely together by a general interest in distributional issues and a empirical studies of famine. They are tied closely together by a general interest in distributional issues and a particular interest in the most impoverished members of society. Sen has clarified the conditions which permit aggregation of individual values into collective decisions, and the conditions which permit rules for collective decision-making that are consistent with a sphere of rights for the individual. By analyzing the available information about different individuals' welfare when collective decisions are made, he has improved the theoretical foundation for comparing different distributions of society's welfare and defined new, and more satisfactory, indexes of poverty. In empirical studies, Sen's applications of his

theoretical approach have enhanced our understanding of the economic mechanisms underlying famines.

INDIVIDUAL VALUES AND COLLECTIVE DECISIONS

When there is general agreement, the choices made by society are incontrovertible. When opinions differ, the problem is to find methods for bringing together different opinions in decisions which concern everyone. The theory of social choice is preoccupied precisely with this link between individual values and collective choice. Fundamental questions are whether—and, if so, in what way—preferences for society as a whole can be consistently derived from the preferences of its members. The answers are crucial for the feasibility of ranking, or otherwise evaluating, different social states and thereby constructing meaningful measures of social welfare.

MAJORITY RULE

Majority voting is perhaps the most common rule for making collective decisions. A long time ago, this rule was found to have serious deficiencies, in addition to the fact that it may allow a majority to suppress a minority. In some situations it may pay off to vote strategically (i.e. by not voting for the preferred alternative), or to manipulate the order in which different alternatives are voted upon. Voting between pairs of alternatives sometimes fails to produce a clear result in a group. A majority may thus prefer alternative a to alternative b whereas a (second) majority prefers b to c; meanwhile, a (third) prefers c to a. In the wake of this kind of "intransitivity", the decision rule cannot select an alternative that is unambiguously best for any majority. In collaboration with Prasanta Pattanaik, Amartya Sen has specified the general conditions that eliminate intransitivities of majority rule.

INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS

A self-evident prerequisite for a collective decision-making rule is that it should be "non-dictatorial"; that is, it

should not reflect the values of any single individual. A minimal requirement for protecting individual rights is that the rule should respect the individual preferences of at least some people in at least some dimension, for instance regarding their personal sphere. Sen pointed to a fundamental dilemma by showing that no collective decision rule can fulfil such a minimal requirement on individual rights and the other axioms in Arrow's impossibility theorem. This finding initiated an extensive scientific discussion about the extent to which a collective decision rule can be made consistent with a sphere of individual rights.

INDEXES OF WELFARE AND POVERTY

In order to compare distributions of welfare in different countries, or to study changes in the distribution within a given country, some kind of index is required that measures differences in welfare or income. The construction of such indexes is an important application of the theory of social choice, in the sense that inequality indexes are closely linked to welfare functions representing the values of society, Serge Kolm, Anthony Atkinson and somewhat later—Amartya Sen were the first to derive substantial results in this area. Around 1970, they clarified the relation between the so-called Lorenz curve (that describes the income distribution), the so-called Gini coefficient (that measures the degree of income inequality), and society's ordering of different income distributions. Sen has later made valuable contributions by defining poverty indexes and other welfare indicators.

POVERTY INDEXES

A common measure of poverty in a society is the share of the population, H , with incomes below a certain, predetermined, poverty line. But the theoretical foundation for the kind of measure was unclear. It also ignored the degree of poverty among the poor; even a significant boost in the income of the poorest groups in society does not affect H as long as their incomes do not cross the poverty index: $P = H [I + (1-I)G]$. Here, G is the Gini coefficient, and I is a measure (between

0 and 1) of the distribution of income, both computed only for the individuals below the poverty line. Relying on his earlier analysis of information about the welfare of single individuals, Sen clarified when the index can and should be applied; comparisons can, for example, be made even when data are problematic, which is often the case in poor countries where poverty indexes have their most intrinsic application. Sen's poverty index has subsequently been applied extensively by others. Three of the axioms he postulated have been used by those researchers, who have proposed alternative indexes.

WELFARE INDICATORS

A problem when comparing the welfare of different societies is that many commonly used indicators, such as income per capita, only take average conditions into account. Sen has developed alternative, which also encompass the income distribution. A specific alternative—which, like the poverty index, he derived from a number of axioms—is to use the measure $y \cdot (1-G)$, where y is income per capita and G is Gini coefficient.

Amartya Sen has pointed out that all well-founded ethical principles presuppose equality among individuals in some respect. But as the ability to exploit equal opportunity varies across individuals, the distribution problem can never be fully solved; equality in some dimension necessarily implies inequality in other. In which dimension we advocate equality and in which dimensions we have to accept inequality obviously depends on how we evaluate the different dimensions of welfare. In analogy with his approach to welfare measurement, Sen maintains that capabilities of individuals constitute the principle dimension in which we should strive for equality. At the same time, he observes a problem with this ethical principle, namely that individuals make decisions which determine their capabilities at a later stage.

WELFARE OF THE POOREST

In his very first articles Sen analyzed the choice of production technology in developing countries. Indeed, almost

all of Sen's works deal with development economics, as they are often devoted to the welfare of the poorest people in society. He has also studied actual famines, in a way quite in line with his theoretical approach to welfare measurement.

ANALYSIS OF FAMINE

Sen's best known work in this area is his book from 1981 : "Poverty and Famines: An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation". Here, he challenges the common view that a shortage of food is the most important (sometimes the only) explanation for famine. On the basis of a careful study of a number of such catastrophes in India, Bangladesh, and Saharan countries, from the 1940s onwards, he found other explanatory factors. He argues that several observed phenomena cannot in fact be explained by a shortage of food alone, e.g. that famines have occurred even when the supply of food was not significantly lower than during previous years (without famines), or that famine stricken areas have sometimes exported food.

CONCLUSION

Prof. Sen has taken an active research interest in the Indian economy and Indian society since 1950's. In an article on India's achievement over 50 years of independence, he expressed the view that perhaps the biggest achievement of independent India was the maintenance despite threats of political democracy in the country, and urges that this be seen not only as an achievement in itself but be used as an instrument of political struggle for social and economic progress. *Prof. Sen* goes on to say that some contrast.

The "*Biggest failure*" in India, *Sen* says, is social inequality. It takes its toll both directly—in terms of the quality of life—and indirectly—in terms of reducing the economic opportunity that people have. *Prof. Sen* says it is illiteracy the lack of health care, the absence of land reforms, the difficulty in getting micro-credit if you belong to the rural poor and the pervasive gender bias between men and women that make the problem of social inequality so large in India.

Prof. Amartya Sen's welfare contributions are significant relevance in modern India, he is a idealist. His welfare economic thoughts is basically sound and is relevant to our modern times. Prof. Amartya Sen belongs to the future, and not the past.

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 **KISANWORLD**

MEDICINAL VALUES OF TRADITIONAL FOODS

V.J.R. Emerson Moses

OVERVIEW

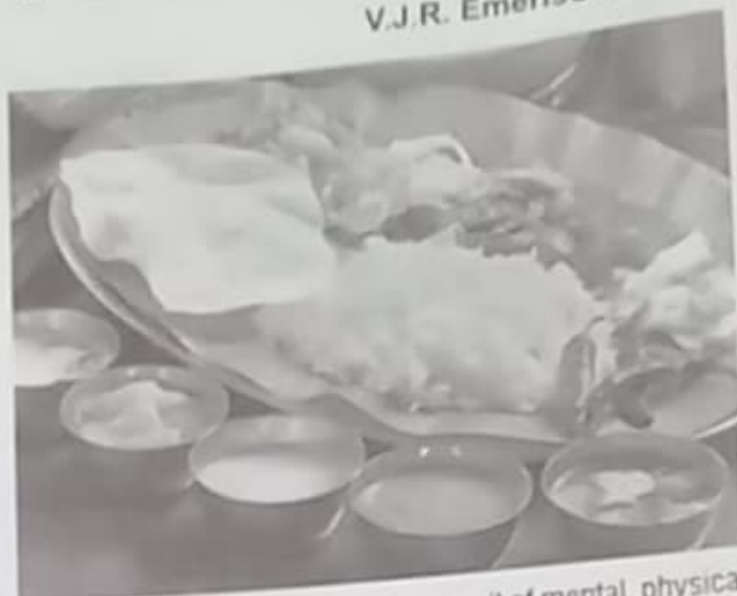
Advice given 2,500 years ago by Hippocrates, the father of modern medicine "Let food be thy medicine and medicine be thy food" is being followed today with renewed vigour as consumers are thinking more holistically about their health. Today's consumers want to control and improve their health and reduce disease risk using natural methods. With this in mind, researchers are investigating many foods valued in traditional medicine for medicinal value, either to complement existing ways of healing or as alternatives to drugs. The popularity of functional foods is on the rise.

In 3700 B.C. Egyptians worshipped garlic and fed it to slaves to keep them disease-free. Egyptian writings list 22 remedies containing garlic, including those for heart disease, ear infections, tumours and insect bites. Garlic's chemical, allicin, may lower cholesterol, increase HDL blood levels, break down clots, improve blood circulation, and enhance the immune system.

Traditional Food as Medicine is a global overview of wild and semi-domesticated foods and their use as medicine in traditional societies. Important cultural information, along with extensive case studies, provides a clear, authoritative look at the many neglected food sources still being used around the world today.

With the growing interest in do-it-yourself therapies, people are turning to traditional healing rooted in religious and philosophical beliefs. Many foods and spices have been used historically as remedies: ginger, to aid digestion and treat nausea, cassia in 4th century B.C. China to treat depression and aid in blood circulation, and honey by Egyptians to dress wounds. The Greeks ate onions for their curative qualities, the Romans used garlic for strength, and the Mesoamerican civilizations valued chilli peppers for treating headaches and pain.

Foods are not used haphazardly in traditional healing, but are frequently part of a "holistic health system." Whether Ayurveda, Chinese traditional medicine, folk medicine, Mayan healing or Unani, traditional healing emphasizes



disease prevention through one's pursuit of mental, physical and emotional harmony with the environment, including foods and dietary practices. Also, traditional dietary healing takes into account the individual's personality, age and metabolism, along with seasonal issues, to achieve optimum health. Ingredients, cooking techniques and meal presentation are significant tools in traditional medicine.

Today, plants such as guarana, maca and echinacea are growing in popularity as functional foods. South American Guarani Indians dry and roast the seeds of guarana, a red berry grown in Venezuela and northern Brazil, and make it into a thick beverage with water and flavorings. They drink it to cure digestive problems, promote mental alertness and regain strength. Orinoco Indians make this drink with water and cassava and allow it to ferment. Unlike coffee, which gives stimulation in a sudden rush, guarana beverages give a slow and prolonged energy release. Guarana contains up to 5% guaranine (caffeine-like), tannin, saponins, theobromine and theophylline, which provide a stimulating effect.

Maca, a root vegetable related to the potato, originates in the Andes Mountains. Peruvians have used it not only as food, but to increase libido, fertility, energy and stamina. Maca is dried, ground and made into soups and beverages. The plant's leaves are brewed for tea. Today, athletes use maca to increase energy and stamina.

INDIAN TRADITIONAL FOODS

Indian cooking is based on the therapeutic principles of ayurvedic medicine — **ayu meaning life and veda meaning knowledge**. In a standard ayurvedic meal, ingredients are chosen not only for taste but also to assure physical and emotional harmony. Food preparation and presentation creates desired healing effects.

Ayurveda categorizes foods into six tastes, or *rasas*: sweet, salty, sour, pungent, bitter and astringent. Many foods and spices contain more than one taste. These are balanced so as not to adversely affect the functioning of the organs. For example, fennel contributes a sweet *rasa*, tamarind, sour; fenugreek, bitter; tomatoes, sweet and sour; chickpeas, sweet and astringent; and mango, sour and sweet.

To maintain perfect balance and nourishment, all six *rasas* should be incorporated into every meal. This explains the complex spice combinations and flavour depth experienced with Indian foods. To harmonize the body, these tastes must be balanced in the meal according to each person's constitution, or *dosha*, frame of mind, time of day and season. Illnesses and diseases occur when food and a person's constitution are imbalanced.

Foods are also classified as hot, cold, moist, dry, heavy or light. Hot foods speed digestion. Cold foods slow it. Every meal is well-balanced between hot and cold foods, with different tastes and textures to promote digestion and avoid illnesses. Potatoes, for example, are eaten to decrease blood pressure, cauliflower to reduce stomach and colon cancers, tomato to improve blood circulation and pickled mangoes for colds.

Spices stimulate the secretions of digestive enzymes, which help digestion and provide hot or cold properties. Fennel, a sweet spice, is also considered a cooling spice that brings down fevers and treats nausea; black pepper, a pungent and hot spice, is thought to cure colds and flu. Similarly, mace is used to treat stomach pains, mustard oil to increase blood flow, and asafoetida to relieve gas.

Turmeric, called *haldi* or *manjal* in India, is a popular spice that provides colour and flavour to curries and other foods. Indians also use it to treat stomach disorders, obesity and menstrual problems, and to heal the uterus after childbirth. In recent years, evidence has been found that turmeric's components, curcumin and curcumene, increases bile flow, break down dietary fats, prevent blood clots, treat gallbladder disease and inhibit tumour initiation and promotion.

Ginger, from the Sanskrit word *shringavera*, is called "medicine for the stomach." It has been used to soothe digestion, treat nausea and improve blood circulation. Ginger ale generally is consumed as a home remedy for an upset stomach. Its component gingerol also may have some benefit in the cardiovascular system, lowering cholesterol. Its shogaol and gingeberane content is effective against motion sickness and vomiting. Grated ginger with honey is added to soups or teas to relieve coughs and cold symptoms.

SUMMARY

Traditional foods are those which indigenous peoples have access to locally, without having to purchase them, and within traditional knowledge and the natural environment from farming or wild harvesting. A synchronized plan for both the conservation and judicious utilization of food related resources involves working with indigenous communities to document traditional knowledge of edible plants, food processing, and medicinal value of local animal and plant resources. The tribal communities in India are a good example of indigenous populations with a vast cultural diversity, traditions, and environments. There is a rich habitat of natural foods in Indian tribal environments that could possibly be used to promote food security, nutrition, and health. However, multiple factors including those related to geography, available agricultural technology, socio-cultural practices, and conditions in the community may lead to poor nutrition and health in these communities.

Around the globe, there is a growing body of research into traditional foods for dietetic and pharmacological qualities. In Japan, foods that have proven medical and nutritional benefits are licensed as FOSHU (Foods for Specified Health Use). In Germany, the safety and efficacy of herbs are published in Commission E Monographs. In the United States, although functional foods are a growing market, they are still ill-defined, not legally recognized or sometimes poorly regulated as to health claims. Moreover, with Western medicine, scientists generally seek to isolate the specific chemical or chemicals in foods that provide the nutrition or physiological healing effect. We take capsules, tablets, extracts or food products containing the bioactive ingredient, assuming they will give the same effect. Traditional Food as Medicine is an essential research guide and educational text about food and medicine in traditional societies for educators, students from undergraduate through graduate levels, botanists, and research specialists in nutrition and food science, anthropology, agriculture, ethno ecology, ethno botany, and ethno biology.

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HEALTHY CHILDREN FOR WEALTHY NATION

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Abstract

Early Childhood care and education can help the stage for lifelong development. Recent research in neuro-sciences has now established that around 80% of brain development takes place by the time a child is five years old. With the first three years seeing the maximum growth. Clearly, the environment and experiences during this early childhood years has a great deal to do with a children future development and growth. In Tamil Nadu 44% of children are malnourished out of which 0.2% severely, 6.4% moderately, 37.4% mild malnourished. The Government of India and Tamilnadu have launched several Programs to eradicate mal nutrition Free State. The Integrated Child Development Services Scheme (ICDS) was launched initially (with the assistance from Government of India) in three pilot areas in the state in 1976. At present there are 116 General ICDS projects in the state, of which 67 are in rural areas, 2 in tribal areas and 47 in urban slums. In addition, there are 318 WB-ICDS III projects, all in rural areas. Totally, there are 42279 centers (22779 Angawadi Centers(AWCS)under General ICDS III and 19500 under WB ICDS III project) functioning in Tamil Nadu serving a population of 1.17 covers and feeding 9.56 lakhs children and 4.99 lakh adults. In a situation of higher share of children in Tamilnadu are malnourished and undernourished. In this paper analyzed child care situations in Tamilnadu. The programs and policies of State and Central Governments are analyzed. The ICDS program implemented by the central government came to panacea for the problem of malnutrition. However, the success of the program depends on the level of awareness and the cooperation of the public and society.

Introduction

The health of a nation is an essential component of development, vital to the nation's economic growth and internal stability. Assuring a minimal level of health care to the population is a critical constituent of the development process. Health is wealth, like education, health and nutrition are bound to generate positive externality. Example cited includes individual who is vaccinated, thus protecting others as well from the spread of a contagious disease. Since health and nutrition have a positive spillover benefit, a free competitive market results in too little output. Therefore, the positive externality may be internalized by the provision of subsidy.

Child Malnutrition Problems

Around a billion people are currently suffering malnourished in the world. The World Bank estimates that India is ranked second in the world of the number of children suffering from malnutrition, after Bangladesh, where 47% of the children exhibit a degree of malnutrition. The prevalence of underweight children in India is among the highest in the world. According to the World Food Program and the M.S. Swaminathan

Research Foundation (MSSRF), "Over the past decade there has been a decrease in stunting among children in rural India, but inadequate calorie intake and chronic energy deficiency levels remain steady."

Child Malnutrition in Tamil Nadu

In Tamil Nadu 44% of children are malnourished out of which 0.2% severely, 6.4% moderately, 37.4% mild malnourished. For implementing the policy for malnutrition free state, moderately and severely malnourished children in the age group of 6 months to 24 months, now getting complementary weaning food daily viz 50 gms and 100 gms respectively in the an anganwadi centers are given additional weaning food of 50 gms and 100 gms, once a week on take home ration basis. Eradication of malnutrition shall be made a people's movement through a state wide IEC campaign reaching all sections of society. Various steps such as opening of new ICDS projects, purchase of vessels, medicines, weighting scales for the anganwadi centers, civil works, and scheme for adolescent girls and motivation to functionaries have been under taken.

Objectives of the Study

- To analyze the performance and progress of ICDS scheme in Tamil Nadu.
- To Find out the child health achievement through ICDS in Tamil Nadu.
- To lay the foundation for proper psychological, physical and social development of the child.
- To reduce the incidence of mortality, morbidity, malnutrition and school dropout.
- To enhance the capability of the mother to look after the normal health and nutritional needs of the child through proper nutrition and health education.

Various Nutritional Schemes in Tamilnadu

Tamilnadu has a history of feeding programs of children dating back to the mid-1950s with as many as 25 nutrition programs in operation in the early 1980s. These schemes were mainly to combat hunger and the focus was not so much on the nutritional aspect. Table-1 Explain the various nutritional schemes in Tamil Nadu.

Integreated Child Development Service Scheme (ICDS) in Tamil Nadu

The Integrated Child Development Service Scheme (ICDS) was launched initially (with the assistance from Government of India) in three pilot areas in the state in 1976. At present there are 116 General ICDS projects in the state, of which 67 are in rural areas, 2 in tribal areas and 47 in urban slums. In addition, there are 318 WB-ICDS III projects, all in rural areas. Totally, there are 42279 centers (22779 Angawadi Centers(AWCS)under General ICDS III and 19500 under WB ICDS III project) functioning in Tamil Nadu serving a population of 1.17 corers and feeding 9.56 lakh children and 4.99 lakh adults. If the 41.379 school center are added, the coverage under direct nutrition intervention is 77.62 lakh beneficiaries through 83658 centers. The following Table-2 explain the details of ICDS Scheme coverage and total number of beneficiaries in Tamil Nadu.

Table 1 Various Nutrition Schemes in Tamil Nadu

Sl. No.	Scheme	Beneficiaries	Services Provided	Year of Starting or Termination
1	Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS)	Children in the age group of 0 to six years and pregnant and nursing women	Supplementary nutrition, pre-school education, health check up, immunization, health education and referral services	1975-76
2	Puratchi Talaivar M.G.R. Nutritious meal Program (PT-MGR-NMP)	Children in the age group of 2+ to 4+	Nutrition, education and health care	1982
		Children in the age group of 5+ to 9+	Nutrition and education	1982
		Old age pensioners, ex-servicemen	Nutrition	1983
		School students in the age group of 10 to 15 years	Nutrition and Education	1984
		Pregnant Women	Nutrition	1995
3	Tamilnadu Integrated Nutrition Project (TINP)-I	Children below 3 years	Selective supplementary nutrition, growth promotion for child below 3 years and educating the family and the mother on feeding practices	1981-1989
4	Tamilnadu Integrated Nutrition Project-II	Children below 3 years, children 3-5+ years and pregnant and nursing mothers	As in TINP-I plus immunization, micronutrient supplementation and education for preschool children(3-6 years)	1991-1997
5	WB-ICDSIII	Children below 3 years, children 3-6 years, pregnant and	As in TINP-II plus nutrition and health education, health services by health personnel,	1998-2003

		nursing mothers, adolescent girls	referral services and training to adolescent girls for self development and skill formation	
6	National Program of Nutritional Support to Primary Education	Children studying in class I to V	Cooked food equivalent to 100gms of rice for 10 academic months	1995

Source: Ministry of Social Welfare, Chennai – 5.

Table 2 Integrated Child Development Service Scheme Coverage in Tamil Nadu

District	ICDS		
	No. of Anganwadi Centers	No. of Children Covered (6-36 months)	No. of Antenatal & Postnatal Women
1. Chennai	1345	26705	16725
2. Kanchipuram	2267	40311	24036
3. Thiruvallur	1996	41812	22549
4. Cuddalore	1852	35303	22364
5. Villupuram	2788	62118	31695
6. Vellore	2724	51695	32343
7. Tiruvannamalai	1901	38293	22309
8. Salem	2517	53549	33449
9. Namakkal	1515	24780	13995
10. Dharmapuri	1305	23136	14443
11. Krishnagiri	1515	29941	16402
12. Erode	2457	47272	19875
13. Coimbatore	2511	52365	24518
14. The Nilgiris	441	7673	3681
15. Tiruchirappalli	1553	34229	16574
16. Karur	1056	19475	8977
17. Perambalur	1185	24160	13727
18. Pudukkottai	1504	35716	18328
19. Thanjavur	1626	38448	19540
20. Nagappattinam	1175	25229	14917
21. Thiruvarur	1065	23745	10347
22. Madurai	1831	41686	22808
23. Theni	1053	19494	11672
24. Dindigul	1948	41288	21140
25. Ramanathapuram	1371	25130	10463
26. Virudhunagar	1383	28831	14088
27. Sivagangai	1436	22111	10465
28. Tirunelveli	2420	38855	17797
29. Thoothukudi	1334	21605	12037
30. Kanniyakumari	1359	24692	11641
Total	50433	999647	532905

ICDS outlay during the period of Tenth and Eleventh Five Year Plan in Tamil Nadu

The outlay approved by the Union Planning Commission was Rs: 400 cores. However, in view of unforeseen additional requirement for the 10th plan (2002-2007), the outlay was re-estimated at Rs.736.00 Crores. The actual expenditure incurred during the period was Rs.2956.37 Crores Total outlay for the Eleventh Five year Plan in Proposed at Rs:5791.60 Crores of which Rs:5513.71 Crores would be provided for ongoing scheme and Rs:277.89 Crores for new schemes. The following table-3 explain the amount sanctioned for general ICDS and WB-ICDS schemes during the period of 2000-2001 to 2005-2006 in Tamil Nadu.

Table 3 Amount Sanctioned and Actual Expenditure for 2000-2001 to 2005-2006 (Rs. in Crores)

Name of the Scheme	Year	Amount Sanctioned	Actual Expenditure
General ICDS and WB- ICDS	2000-01	207.78	207.78
	2001-02	169.95	169.95
	2002-03	187.48	187.48
	2003-04	253.70	253.70
	2004-05	211.09	211.09
	2005-06	295.93	295.93
	2015-16	900.00	853.00

Source: Commissioner of ICDS, Chennai-113.

The following services provided through ICDS in Tamil Nadu

- Immunization
- Supplementary nutrition
- Health checkup
- Referral services
- Pre-school non formal education
- Nutrition and Health information

Impact of Intergrated Child Development Service Scheme in Tamil Nadu and India

By end of 2010, the programme is claiming to reach 8.06 million expectant, pregnant and lactating mothers along with 39.35 million children (under 6 years of age). There are 6,719 operational projects with 1,241,749 operational

Anganwadi centres. A study in states of Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka demonstrated significant improvement in the mental and social development of all children irrespective of their gender. A 1992 study of National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development confirmed improvements in birth-weight and infant mortality of Indian children along with improved immunization and nutrition.

However, World Bank has also highlighted certain key shortcomings of the programme including inability to target the girl child improvements, participation of wealthier children more than the poorer children and lowest level of funding for the poorest and the most undernourished states of India

Suggestions and Conclusion

Integrated Child Development Service Scheme (ICDS) in Tamil Nadu is today the largest community based outreach programme for human development. It is a crucial link between disadvantaged communities better health care and education system. ICDS scheme is a pioneer scheme taken welfare of the mother and child. Through the Integrated Child Development Scheme, Tamil Nadu has improved overall nutrition and health status of its children. The ICDS has only partially succeeded in preferentially targeting girls and lower castes. Urgent changes are needed to bridge the gap between the policy intentions of ICDS and actual implementation. This is probably the single biggest challenge in international nutrition on human development and economic growth.

The following suggestions can be made and urgent for well functioning of ICDS in Tamil Nadu.

- There is urgent need to reform and strengthen the delivery of ICDS.

- The NAC recommendations table above several important policy pronouncements are adapted
- Several deficiencies in the implementation of ICDS have been identified.
- An in rigorated and well-funded ICDS programme can, within a short period of five years, yield substantial nutritional and other benefits to children.
- Improving the content of the food provided at the anganwadis.
- Initiating an extensive programme of take-home rations for children under three.
- Ensuring that every anganwadi has a well-designed building of its own and all the essential equipment.
- Revamping all the training, supervision and monitoring arrangements.
- Increase the allocation of funds for ICDS.
- Create Closer Supervision
- Expanded health services.

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Effects of Globalisation on Indian Society

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INTRODUCTION

Globalization is a significant factor in competitive world that integrate and mobilize cultural values of people at global level. In the age of rapid technical progression, many countries are unified and transformed due to the process of globalization. Globalization has a huge impact on cultural, social, monetary, political, and communal life of countries. Abundant theoretical studies demonstrated that globalization intercedes in a cultural life of populace that raises numerous critical issues (Robertson, 1992). In broad sense, the term 'globalization' means combination of economies and societies through cross country flows of information, ideas, technologies, goods, services, capital, finance and people. Globalization is described by theorists as the process through which societies and economies are integrated through cross border flows of ideas, communication, technology, capital, people, finance, goods, services and information.

Aspects of Globalisation

Cross country incorporation has several aspects and can be political, cultural, social and/or economic, all which equal globalization.

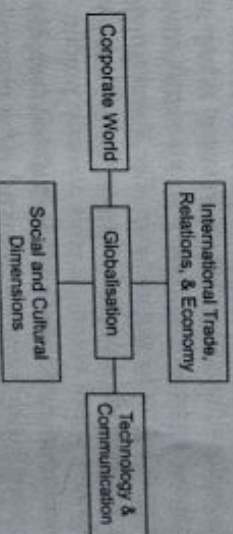
Nevertheless, financial integration is the most common aspects. Economic integration involves developing a nation's economy into an international economy. After World War I and II the early trends of globalization decreased throughout the world due to many barriers which restricted the movement of goods and services. In fact, cultural and social integration are even more than economic integration. Globalization increases competitiveness at company level and national level, which leads company management and governments to embrace strategies designed to increase labour effectiveness with reference to productivity, quality and innovation.

Generally, globalization involves economies that are opening up to international competition and that do not distinguish against international capital. Consequently, globalization is often accompanied by a liberalization of the markets and the privatization of productive assets. But globalization also leads to unemployment, increasing casual employment and weakening labour movements. Theoretical literature denotes that Globalization has made countries to realize that they can share their cultural values and economic exchanges to promote business and gain competitive advantage. The fervour of globalization has even enforced Governments to be tuned to the merits of a Global economy. Management studies have defined the process of globalization. Fraser (2007) explained that Globalization is a word on every commentator's lips nowadays, but is very difficult to define satisfactorily, for it arises in so many different contexts like economic, sociological, political, cultural and environmental. Akteruzzaman Md, 2006 stated that globalization is the interconnectedness of nations and regions in economic domain, in particular, trade financial flows and multinational corporations.

Concept of Globalisation

The concept of globalization means that the world is getting smaller as well as bigger. Akteruzzaman Md, 2006 described that globalization can contribute to develop pattern of cross border activities of firms, involving international investment, trade and strategic alliances for product development, production, sourcing and marketing. These

international activities companies to enter new markets, to exploit their technological and organizational advantages and to reduce business costs and risks. Other theorists stated that globalization is a social phenomenon that defines the geographical boundary in terms of many different issues. According Brinkman, 2002, globalization as a triumphalism light, as the penetration of capitalism into every corner of the world, bringing with it the possibility for all of the world's population to participate in the fruits of the international division of labour and market economy. AIL, 2015 explained the globalization as a process of rapid economic, cultural, and institutional integration among countries. This association is driven by the liberalization of trade, investment and capital flow, technological advances, and pressures for assimilation towards international standards. Globalization has reduced barriers between countries, thus resulting in strengthening of economic competition among nations, dissemination of advanced management practices and newer forms of work organization, and sharing of internationally accepted labour standards.



Challenges of Globalization and its Effects

Many theorists asserted that change in environment has both positive and negative aspects (Harris, 2002). These stimulate driving or resisting forces toward the change of the status quo. This is most obvious relative to both globalization, and the resulting spread of the global organization. There are four factors that accelerate globalization.

The market imperative: Impact on national economies of larger, transnational markets characterized by free, convertible currencies, open access to banking, and contracts enforceable by law.

The resource imperative: Growing interdependence of nations and their activities on one another, fostered by the depletion of natural resources, misdistributions of arable land, mineral resources, and wealth, as well as overpopulation. The undeveloped nations need the capital, technology, and brainpower of the wealthier countries, while the First World economies are progressively dependent on the natural and human resources of the developing nations.

The IT imperative: Modernizations in glob communications, science and technology contribute toward universalization or planarization.

The ecological imperative: Globalization does have great effect on the ecologies and environments of nations which need to safeguards that lessen the negative effects rather than exploiting without regard to such concerns.

India was main mover of globalization. The government of India made major modifications in its economic policy in 1991 by which it allowed direct foreign investments in the country. As a result of this, globalization of the Indian Industry occurred at large scale. In India, economic expansion was observed in nineteenth century due to major crisis led by foreign exchange. The liberalization of the domestic economy and enhanced incorporation of India with the global economy helped to step up gross domestic product (GDP) growth rates which made good position in global scale. Effects of globalization in Indian Industry are observed as this process brought in large amounts of foreign investments into the industry especially in the BPO, pharmaceutical, petroleum, and manufacturing industries. As a result, they boosted the Indian economy quite significantly. The benefits of the effects of globalization in the Indian Industry are that many foreign companies set up industries in India, especially in the pharmaceutical, BPO, petroleum, manufacturing, and chemical sectors and this helped to offer great opportunities for employment to Indian people. Also this helped to reduce the level of unemployment and poverty in the country. It is observed that the major forces of globalization in India has been in the development of outsourced IT and business process outsourcing services. Since last many years, there

is an increase of skilled professionals in India employed by both local and foreign companies to service customers in the US and Europe.

In terms of export and import activities, Many Indian companies have expanded their business and became famous at global level such as fast food, beverages, and sportswear and garment industries. Records indicated that Agriculture exports account for about 13 to 18% of total annual export of the country. In 2000-01, agricultural products valued at more than US\$6 million were exported from the country of which 23% was contributed to the marine products alone. Marine products in recent years have emerged as the single largest contributor to the total agricultural export from the country accounting for over one fifth of the total agricultural exports. Cereals (mostly basmati rice and non-basmati rice), oil seeds, tea and coffee are the other prominent products each of which accounts for nearly 5 to 10% of the countries' total agricultural exports. Globalization speeded export of food items in India in the form of increased consumption of meat, western fast food, sodas and cool drinks, which may result in public health crisis. The rich biodiversity of India has yielded many healthy foods prepared from locally available entities. But the marketing by MNCs with large advertisement campaigns lead the people to resort to their products (Mascarenhas, 2003).

Technological and Cultural Impact of Globalization in India

With the process of globalization, there is an access to television grew from 20% of the urban population (1991) to 90% of the urban population (2009). Even in the rural areas satellite television has a grown up market. In the cities, Internet facility is everywhere and extension of internet facilities even to rural areas. There is an increase of global food chain / restaurants in the urban areas of India. Excessive Multiplex movie halls, big shopping malls and high rise residential are seen in every cities. Entertainment sector in India has a global market. After economic liberalization, Bollywood expanded its area and showed a major presence in the global scale. The industry began to explore new ways to become more global and modern. In India, modernity is observed with the West. Therefore, Western philosophy

began to be incorporated into Bollywood films. As these new cultural messages began to reach the Indian population, Indian moviegoers were pushed to re-evaluate their traditional Indian cultural ideology. Bollywood movies are also distributed and accepted at international level. Big international companies (Walt Disney, 20th Century Fox, and Columbia Pictures) are investing on this sector. Famous International brands such as Armani, Gucci, Nike, and Omega are also making investment in the Indian market with the changing of fashion statement of Indians.

Impact of Globalization on Education in India

There are immense effects observed in educational sector due to globalization such as literacy rate become high and Foreign Universities are collaborating with different Indian Universities. The Indian educational system faces challenges of globalization through Information technology and it offers opportunities to evolve new paradigms shifts in developmental education. The distinction between formal, non-formal and informal education will vanish when move from industrial society to information society takes place. Globalization promotes new tools and techniques such as E-learning, Flexible learning, Distance Education Programs and Overseas training.

It is observed in current Indian society that through globalization, women have gained certain opportunities for job options and to recognize women's rights as a part of the human rights. Their empowerment has given considerable opportunities and possibilities of improving employment conditions through global solidarity and co-ordination. It is found that the growth of computer and other technologies enabled women with better waged, flex timings, and capacity to negotiate their role and status in home and at corporate level.

There are some negative impact of globalization such as this process made disparity between rural and urban Indian joblessness, growth of slum capitals and threat of terrorist activities. Globalization increased competition in the Indian market between the foreign companies and domestic companies. With the foreign goods being better than the Indian goods, the consumer preferred to buy the foreign goods. This

reduced the amount of profit of the Indian Industry companies. This happened mainly in the pharmaceutical, manufacturing, chemical, and steel industries. The negative Effects of Globalization on Indian Industry are that with the coming of technology the number of labour required are decreased and this resulted increasing unemployment especially in the arena of the pharmaceutical, chemical manufacturing, and cement industries. Some section of people in India that are poor do not get benefit of globalization. There is an increased gap between rich and poor that lead to some criminal activities. Ethical responsibility of business has been reduced. Another major negative effect of globalization in India is that youngsters of India are leaving their studies very early and joining Call centres to earn fast money reducing their social life after getting habituated with monotonous work. There is an increase of every daily usable commodity. This has an adverse effect on cultural aspect. The institution of marriage is breaking down at fast rate. There are more people approaching divorce courts instead of maintaining marital life. Globalization has considerable impact on the religious situation of India. Globalization has brought about raising a population who is agnostic and atheist. People visiting places of worship are reducing with time. Globalization has reduced nationalism and patriotism in country.

It can be said that Globalization is motivating factor in current business environment. There are few challenges for companies due to globalization such as Migration, relocation, labour shortages, competition, and changes in skills and technology. Globalization powerfully influences the social partners' attitudes since traditional labour relations have to cope with completely new and very dynamic situations. In political field, globalization helps to eradicate poverty, malnutrition, illiteracy, ill-health and fighting cross border terrorism and global terrorism. Globalisation in context of status of women implicates the relegation of the stereotypic pattern of duties of the women like rearing and caring the children to the back ground and taking up the various diversified occupation and thus making their living quite vibrant and alive. Globalisation of goods has developed enthusiasm in India for western brand names. A consumerist mentality has been carefully fostered. This leads to an adversative impact on the

tendency to save or the domestic accumulation of capital. Lastly, in Indian scenario, globalization developed a consumer credit society. Today, people can buy goods and services even if they do not have sufficient purchasing power and the prospect of raising a loan has become easy in the age of globalisation. Credit cards have given boost to consumerism and pushed many households into indebtedness. At the same time globalization has unfavourable impact on mass-media in India. Currently, realistic coverage of events and happening doesn't receive much importance because it doesn't determine the standing of a newspaper or TV channel. Globalisation has brought violation of journalistic ethics in India.

CONCLUSION

To summarize, the process of globalization has changed the industrial pattern social life of global people and it has immense impact on Indian trade system. The globalization of the economic, social and cultural structures happened in all ages. Previously, the pace of process was slow. Today with the start of the information technology, new ways of communication have made the world a very small place. With this process, there is a big market place. Globalization has resulted in increase in the production of a range of goods. MNCs have established manufacturing plants all over the world. It has positive effects and India will overcome many obstacles and adopt global policies to expand business at international scale. India is gaining international recognition and strengthening in economic and political areas.

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Impact of Globalization on Rural Livelihoods: Illumination and Gloom - An Overview

Kosalram.J and Sasirekha.M.P

INTRODUCTION

The concept of globalization by integrating states within the theme work of World Trade Organization (WTO) is an alternation version of the "Theory of Comparative Cost Advantage" propagated by the classical economists for assuming unrestricted flow of between the countries for mutual benefit especially from Great Britain nations gained much at the cost of the colonial countries. However, the advocates of globalization, especially from the developed countries purposely limit the definition of globalization to only three components, i.e., unrestricted trade flow, capital flow and technology flows. They do not want to include the free flow labour within the parameter of globalization set by them.

One can understand globalization to be a complex set of dynamics offering many opportunities to better the human condition, but also involving significant potential threats. Contemporary globalization manifests itself in various ways, three of which are of particular relevance to policy-makers. They also comprise significant environmental opportunities and risks. Globalization has transformed virtually all aspects of modern life like our jobs, our culture, and our

relationships with one another. It brings new stresses, new challenges and new opportunities.

Illumination (Positive Impacts)

The world economy globalizes as national economies integrate into the international economy through trade: foreign direct investment; short-term capital flows; international movement of workers and people in general; and flows of technology' between countries. Globalization has opened the economy to global players in the industry and service sectors. New products and services are being introduced continuously with improved quality and customer focus.

As a result of rapid technological change makes skills obsolete very quickly and demands higher levels of initiative and more frequent retraining.

Globalization helped their new manufacturing industries to compete in the world market; it also exposed the weaknesses in their economic fundamentals to improve their competitive strength into the international level. It enables the greater productivity and flexibility as well as workers with updated skills and more independent. India has become the international hub for the skilled manpower in all fields in the world. The impact of globalization on Indian and rural life has a tremendous influence. The farmers in the Indian village now have access to the advanced equipments for agriculture, which leads them to better yields and in turn it helps the economy of the country. Globalization also provides better exposure to the agricultural produces and ensures the farmers that they get the correct value for the produces due to globalization.

Globalization has made a positive impact to the health care service in India. The prospects of medical tourism have stimulated further growth in this sector by introducing an increasing number of joint ventures and collaborative deeds. In India, several specialty corporate hospitals are being built in collaboration between Indian and foreign companies. India has emerged as a leading destination for quality health care services. After globalization, India has the potential to become a 'global health destination'.

Apart from Trade, Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) also increases from 1991 onwards. Besides, there has also been an increase in the number of foreign firm's presence in our country. They are well aware of the presence of a large pool of skilled brains power and the advantage that would accrue out of it. India is getting global recognition and slowly moving forward to become a major economic and political strength.

Improved infrastructure facilities, economic liberalization, renewed emphasis on agribusiness and small industries, fast changing agricultural technology, scope for commercialization of agriculture, greater budgetary provision for rural people are few reasons to mention. Moreover, various socio-cultural, psychological and political aspects of rural life are also changing.

Gloom (Negative Impacts)

Globalization has resulted in many new challenges to the technical education system. Till recently technologies were mostly imported and the training needed for these technologies were generally carried abroad. It has also placed pressures on the global environmental and on natural resources, straining the capacity of the environment to sustain itself and exposing human dependence on our environment.

The actual experience, most of the organized and unorganized sectors, as their record speaks for itself, are found to exhibit the weaknesses in stick on to the time-bound schedules of production of goods and services through efficient methods to enable the poor 'to protect, sustain and enrich their livelihoods' in India.

Rural areas are facing major challenges today which arise mainly from globalization, demographic change and the rural migration of young, well-trained people. As a result, very few have skills and ability to move to other forms of employment opportunities, even if they can resist the social rigidities. They are still at the bottom of traditional rural society, finding employment in the lowest occupation and having little access to education.

India's real culture is still preserved in rural life even though the advancement of technology has much influence in rural areas.

Moreover, various socio-cultural, psychological and political aspects of rural life are also changing. Meanwhile the villagers have awareness and culture is touched and affected by western influence. As a result of globalization our regional identity and traditional values are bringing up the rear in gradually.

The promoters of globalization claim that it has the potential to enrich everyone in the world, particularly those who are developing and the sufferings occurred during the transformation from closed economy to open economies is a necessary part of the pain, which has to be undergone to become a successful market economy. Policies for rural areas aim to contribute to recognizing and making use of strengths and opportunities.

Lack of employment opportunities in the non-farm sector and primitive nature of agriculture also translate into the pattern of employment. A majority of them continue to stay in self-employment and casual employment. It has reduced the job security and created more transitional unemployment in the job market in India. As a result of globalization, Indian companies start to face growing competition from the free flow of products produced by MNCs. Unequal competition between the domestic companies and mighty MNCs has resulted shutting down the tiny and traditional industrial units.

The benefits of globalization are not yet reached to all the sections of the economy. It may be correct to articulate that many developing nations are still in the center of struggle to find out acceptable home grown solutions for ushering in structural and institutional reforms, and if there are delays, these are often mistaken as their fears and concerns about globalization. This has created new opportunities for many, but not for all.

CONCLUSION

Globalization has materialized as a boom to developing economies. India after acceptance of LPG program has perceived the beginning of gigantic changes resulting from the sectoral reforms initiated in different sectors of the nation. The various empirical studies found

that massive opportunities have emerged during last twenty five years, resulting from reforms in various sectors of economy. Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization policy adopted by Government of India in early nineties, Indian economy has witnessed tremendous growth. This resulted in structural change and fast growth in Indian economy. But behind positive and affluent aspects there situate downbeat growth aspects in India too.

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Accessibility of Water and Sanitation in India

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Abstract

This paper discuss about water and sanitation condition in India. Water and sanitation most important fundamental elements of households amenities. This paper is based on secondary data of Census of India. According to 2011 census of India 43.5 percent of Indian household access tap water facility and 46.9 percent of household access sanitation facility. 30.8 percent of rural households and 70.6 percent of urban households have access tap water facility. 30.7 percent of rural households and 81.4 percent of urban households have sanitation facility. This data indicated most of the Indian households still not access basic water and sanitation facility. This paper divided four section first section provide on water condition in India, second section describe state level water and sanitation facility, third section rural and urban water and sanitation facility and fourth section conclusion.

Key words: Water, Sanitation, Households, Rural, Urban.

Introduction

There is direct relationship between health, drinking water and sanitation. Safe drinking water and better scientific toilet facilities as one of the major social determinants of health of the households. The improved piped water and good sanitation facilities such as latrine facilities sharply reduced diarrhea morbidity. Water and sanitation facility in India continue to be inadequate. In India 18 percent of account for world population and about only have 4 percent of world water resources, it was very low level compare to other countries. (Tariq Ahanad Bhat 2014). According to Water Aid (2017) India is the second most populous country in the world and 63 million people lacking in access to safe water. 732 million people lack access to improved sanitation, almost 344 million people practice open defecation. The World Bank and World Health Organisation (2015) evaluation that 21 percent of transmissible infection in India related to unsafe water, sanitation and poor hygiene practices. More than 321 children below the age of 5 die each day from diarrhea in India alone.

Majority of households in not access the adequate drinking water and sanitation facilities. However, National Water Supply and Sanitation Programmes was introduced by Government of India in 1954, Minimum Need Programme in fifth five year planning and in 1986 Central Rural Sanitation Programmes was launched. In addition to this state and local government also distributed major segment of their resources to safe drinking water and sanitation facilities. While, in rural household 51.9 per cent were using hand pump and tube well water as the main sources of drinking water in 2001. In urban area, 70.5 percent of households had to access

the tap water facility, but the quality was very poor compared to developed countries. In 2001, 39 percent only had accessibility of water within the premises which has increased to 46.6 percent in 2011.

At the same period the availability of drinking water in India 'away' from the households has also increased from 17 percent in 2001 to 18 percent in 2011. Still most of rural people are going very long distance (outside 100 meter in urban areas and outside 500 meters in rural areas) for bringing drinking water, cooking and other household task. Census of India 2001, 64 per cent of total households in India had no toilet facility within premises and more than sixty per cent of population was contributing open defecation in 2011 Census of India, data depict that 53 percent of households in India had no toilet facility within premises and nearby 50 per cent. At the all India, 49.8 per cent of households were contributing open defecation Indian population 600 million were contributing open defecation it was largest share in the world. Through, improvement had been observed in percentage of households with toilet facility within the premises from 36.4 percent in 2001 to 47 percent in 2011. In this context, this study explore the drinking water and sanitation condition in India. This paper as organized as follows. After introduction, second part of the paper is sources of data, third part deals on sources of drinking water, fourth section of the paper deals on sanitation facilities and final section of the paper provide on conclusion.

Data

Generally there three sources provided information on household amenities India. This sources are Census of India, National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), and National Family Health Survey (NFH). Among these sources Census covered all geographical place of India than NSSO and NFH. This NSSO and NFH used sample survey method and failed to cover all geographical areas of India. Household amenities in the Census enumerated on housing facility, sources of drinking water facility, toilet facility, different sources of cooking facility, and sources of lighting. In this study to explore the different sources of drinking water and availability of toilet facilities of the households. In this context, this study used Census report of 2011.

Sources of Drinking Water

For only 43.5 per cent of households in India had the sources of tap water, 42.0 per cent were used hand pump or tube well sources, 11.0 per cent were used well water and 3.5 per cent were other sources (see table 1). In the regional perspective, southern zone state had tap water sources, followed by west zone, north zone, northeast zone and central zone. At the state, level top five Indian state access tap water facilities had Himachal Pradesh (89.5 per cent) Goa (85.4 per cent) Sikkim (85.3per cent) Tamil Nadu (79.8 per cent) Andhra Pradesh (69.9 per cent). Bottom five Indian state access tap water facilities Bihar (4.4 per cent) Assam (10.5 per cent) Jharkhand (12.9 per cent) Odessa (13.8 per cent) Chhattisgarh (20.7 per cent).

For hand pump or tube well as the second major drinking water in India (42.0 per cent). At the state level, Bihar had the highest proportion (89.6 per cent) and other major hand pump states were Uttar Pradesh (67.9 per cent), West-Bengal (66.8 per cent), Chhattisgarh (65.6 per cent) and Odisha (61.4 per cent). Major

well water sources state were Kerala (62.0 per cent), Jharkhand (36.5) and north east states also depend on well as one of the major sources of drinking water.

Spatial Accessibilities of Drinking Water

Rural and urban accessibilities of different sources of drinking water indicated that 70.5 per cent of urban household was accessed on tap water and rural areas was 30.08 per cent (see figure 1). For well water, 13.3 per cent were accessed in rural area and 6.2 per cent in urban areas. In the hand pump or tube well, 51.9 per cent were accessed in rural and 20.08 per cent in urban. For other sources of water access, 4 per cent in rural and 2.5 per cent in urban.

Sanitation Facilities

Table 2 provide on percentage of household not have toilet facilities and on the basis 53 per cent of households had no toilet facilities in India as per 2011 Census. In the rural urban variations, 69 per cent of rural households and 18.6 per cent of urban households had no toilet facilities. At the state level, Jharkhand 78 per cent, Odisha 78 per cent, Chhattisgarh 75.4 per cent and Madhya Pradesh 71 per cent. Further, not have toilet facilities in rural area were 92.4 per cent in Jharkhand, 87 per cent in Madhya Pradesh, 86 per cent in Odisha, 85.5 per cent in Chhattisgarh, 82.4 per cent in Bihar and 78.2 per cent in Uttar Pradesh. The interesting fact the highest proportion of having the facilities of toilet was registered in the state of Kerala. West zone states and south zone state had comparatively higher proportion of toilet facilities in India. Urban area had better toilet facilities than rural areas.

Overall India 46.9 percentage household have toilet facility available within premises (see table 3). It distributed 12 percent piped sewer system, 22.2 percent septic tank system, 2.3 percent other system, 7.6 percent pit toilet with slab, 1.8 percent pit latrine without slab, 0.5 percent night soil disposed into open drain, 0.3 percent night soil removed by human and 0.2 percent night soil serviced by animal. Overall India 53.2 percentage of household has toilet facility not available within premises. It divided 3.2 percent of household used public toilet and 49.8 percent of household used open defecation. Kerala state is a highest percentage of household have toilet facility available within premises almost 95.2 percentage. Jharkhand is a highest percentage of household not have toilet facility within premises almost 78 percentage.

Conclusion

Scarcity of drinking water in India as miss management of demand and supply. This miss management rose due to population pressure, failure of monsoon and urbanization. This above analysis reveals that deprivation of basic needs in India and this deprivation worst in rural area than urban. At the state level, western region state and southern region state were better accessibility of safe drinking water and had more proportion of toilet facilities. However, over the periods sources of drinking water and sanitation facilities had increased due to various public policy framed by union, state and local government. This deprivation level as varied between rural and urban, different religion, caste deserve further examination. Further, this study used 2011 Census and this data failed to recent development of household amenities. The poor quality of water supply and sanitation has led to more

dysentery and diarrhea morbidity in India, particularly child health. Unavailability of toilet facilities in the households adversely affected women than men. Women cannot open space deification in day time and use they prefer to before sunrise and after sunset. This make more health problem for women. In recent decades, India has introduced many programmes on drinking water and toilet schemes. Recent NFH 4 will be used to examine the present condition of drinking water and available of toilet facilities for further examination.

Table - 1

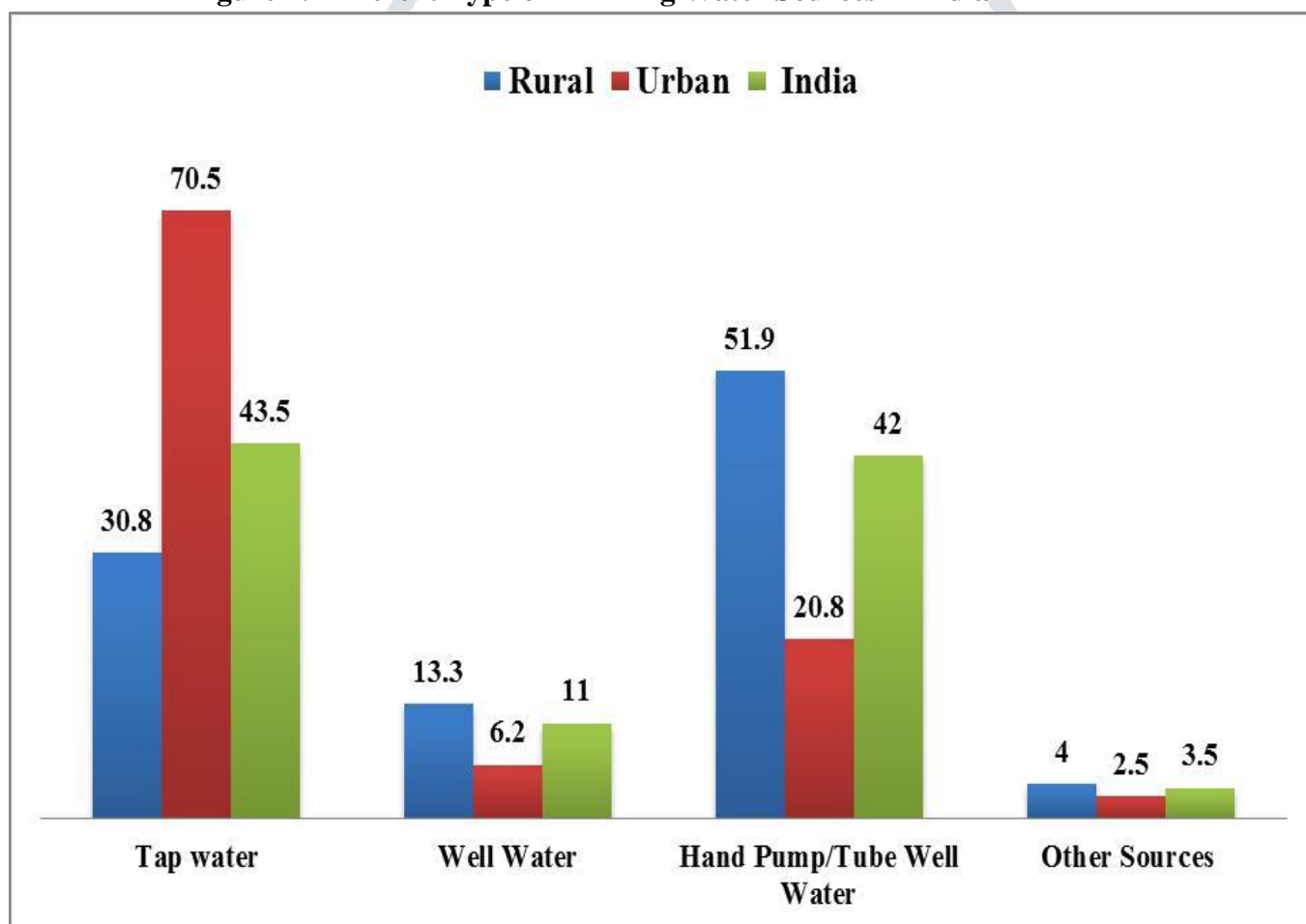
Different Source of Drinking Water in 2011

S. No	India/ State/ UT *	Total Household (in Number)	Tap Water (%)	Well Water (%)	Hand pump/ Tube well Water (%)	Other Sources of Water (%)
	India	24,66,92,667	43.5	11.0	42.0	3.5
North Zone						
1	Haryana	47,17,954	68.8	3.0	25.0	3.2
2	Himachal Pradesh	14,76,581	89.5	2.9	4.2	3.4
3	Jammu & Kashmir	20,15,088	63.9	6.5	12.8	16.7
4	Punjab	54,09,699	51.0	0.4	46.6	2.0
5	Rajasthan	1,25,81,303	40.6	10.8	37.5	11.1
6	Uttarakhand	19,97,068	68.2	1.1	24.0	6.7
Central Zone						
7	Chhattisgarh	56,22,850	20.7	11.4	65.6	2.3
8	Madhya Pradesh	1,49,67,597	23.4	20	54.6	2
9	Uttar Pradesh	3,29,24,266	27.3	4	67.9	0.9
East Zone						
10	Bihar	1,89,40,629	4.4	4.3	89.6	1.7
11	Jharkhand	61,81,607	12.9	36.5	47.3	3.4
12	Odisha	96,61,085	13.8	19.5	61.4	5.2
13	West Bengal	2,00,67,299	25.4	6.0	66.8	1.7
North East						
14	Arunachal Pradesh	2,61,614	65.5	5.7	13.1	15.7
15	Assam	63,67,295	10.5	18.9	59.4	11.3
16	Manipur	5,07,152	38.6	7.5	6.8	47.1
17	Meghalaya	5,38,299	39.3	25.4	5.4	29.9
18	Mizoram	2,21,077	58.7	4.7	1.7	34.9
19	Nagaland	3,99,965	47.2	25.7	6.7	20.5
20	Sikkim	1,28,131	85.3	0.6	0.1	14.1
21	Tripura	8,42,781	33.2	27.4	34.3	5.1
West Zone						
22	Goa	3,22,813	85.4	11.1	0.3	3.2
23	Gujarat	1,21,81,718	69.0	7.1	21.2	2.7
24	Maharashtra	2,38,30,580	67.9	14.4	15.5	2.1
South Zone						
25	Andhra Pradesh	2,10,24,534	69.9	6.4	20.6	3.1
26	Karnataka	1,31,79,911	66.1	9.0	21.5	3.5
27	Kerala	77,16,370	29.3	62.0	4.2	4.4

28	Tamil Nadu	1,84,93,003	79.8	5.1	12.8	2.4
Union Territory*						
29	A & N Islands *	93,376	85	7.3	0.5	7.1
30	Chandigarh *	2,35,061	96.7	0.1	2.6	0.6
31	Dadra & Nagar Haveli*	73,063	46.5	7.2	45	1.3
32	Daman & Diu *	60,381	75.2	0.7	23.5	0.5
33	Lakshadweep *	10,703	20.3	71.7	2.5	5.5
34	NCT of Delhi *	33,40,538	81.3	0.1	13.7	4.9
35	Puducherry *	3,01,276	95.3	1.9	2.5	0.3

Sources: Census of India 2011

Figure 1: Different Type of Drinking Water Sources in India



Source: Census of India 2011

Table 2: Percentage of Household Not Having Toilet Facility in 2011 Census

S. No	Indian State/UT *	Total Households	Rural	Urban	Total
	India	24,66,92,667	69.3	18.6	53.1
North Zone					
1	Haryana	47,17,954	43.9	10.1	31.4
2	Himachal Pradesh	14,76,581	33.4	10.9	30.9
3	Jammu & Kashmir	20,15,088	61.4	12.5	48.8
4	Punjab	54,09,699	29.6	6.6	20.7
5	Rajasthan	1,25,81,303	80.4	18.0	65.0
6	Uttarakhand	19,97,068	45.9	6.4	34.2
Central Zone					
7	Chhattisgarh	56,22,850	85.5	39.8	75.4
8	Madhya Pradesh	1,49,67,597	86.9	25.8	71.2
9	Uttar Pradesh	3,29,24,266	78.2	16.9	64.4
East Zone					
10	Bihar	1,89,40,629	82.4	31.0	76.9
11	Jharkhand	61,81,607	92.4	32.8	78.0
12	Odisha	96,61,085	85.9	35.2	78.0
13	West Bengal	2,00,67,299	53.3	15.0	41.2
North East					
14	Arunachal Pradesh	2,61,614	47.3	10.5	38.0
15	Assam	63,67,295	40.4	6.3	35.1
16	Manipur	5,07,152	14.0	4.2	10.7
17	Meghalaya	5,38,299	46.1	4.3	37.1
18	Mizoram	2,21,077	15.4	1.5	8.1
19	Nagaland	3,99,965	30.8	5.4	23.5
20	Sikkim	1,28,131	15.9	4.8	12.8
21	Tripura	8,42,781	18.5	2.1	14.0
West Zone					
22	Goa	3,22,813	29.1	14.7	20.3
23	Gujarat	1,21,81,718	67.0	12.3	42.7
24	Maharashtra	2,38,30,580	62.0	28.7	46.9
South Zone					
25	Andhra Pradesh	2,10,24,534	67.8	13.9	50.4
26	Karnataka	1,31,79,911	71.6	15.1	48.8
27	Kerala	77,16,370	6.8	2.6	4.8
28	Tamil Nadu	1,84,93,003	76.8	24.9	51.7
Union Territory*					
29	A & N Islands *	93,376	39.8	12.9	29.9
30	Chandigarh *	2,35,061	12	12.4	12.4
31	Dadra & Nagar Haveli *	73,063	73.5	18.7	45.3
32	Daman & Diu *	60,381	48.6	14.6	21.8
33	Lakshadweep *	10,703	1.9	2.3	2.2
34	NCT of Delhi *	33,40,538	23.7	10.2	10.5
35	Puducherry *	3,01,276	61.0	18.0	31.6

Sources: Census of India 2011

No. 3 Availability of Different Types of Toilet Facility in India

S.NO	Indian State/Union Territory*	Distribution of Households by Type of Toilet Facility												
				Flush/Pour Flush latrine connected to			Pit Latrine		Other Toilet			Toilet Not available within Premises		
0	India	246692667	46.9	12	22.2	2.3	7.6	1.8	0.5	0.3	0.2	53.1	3.2	49.8
North Zone														
1	Haryana	4717954	68.6	21.9	25.4	3.1	14.5	2.9	0.7	0	0.1	31.4	1.5	29.8
2	Himachal Pradesh	1476581	69.1	7.4	51.6	1.7	7.1	1	0.2	0	0	30.9	1.2	29.7
3	Jammu & Kashmir	2015088	51.2	10	17.7	5.3	3.3	2.2	3.2	8.9	0.7	48.8	2.7	46.1
4	Punjab	5409699	79.3	28.3	27.7	3.3	16	3.2	0.5	0.1	0.2	20.7	1.2	19.5
5	Rajasthan	12581303	35	7.2	18.6	1.9	4	2.5	0.8	0	0.1	65	0.7	64.3
6	Uttarakhand	1997068	65.8	11.8	40	1.4	11.3	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.1	34.2	1.1	33.1
Central Zone														
7	Chhattisgarh	5622850	24.6	2.5	16.6	1.9	2.1	1.3	0.1	0	0.1	75.4	1.4	74
8	Madhya Pradesh	14967597	28.8	5.8	19.1	1.3	1.7	0.7	0.3	0	0.1	71.2	1.2	70
9	Uttar Pradesh	32924266	35.7	8.1	19.9	1.8	3.4	0.7	0.5	1	0.2	64.4	1.3	63
East Zone														
10	Bihar	18940629	23.1	1.8	16	2.3	1.7	0.8	0.2	0.1	0.2	76.9	1.1	75.8
11	Jharkhand	6181607	22	3.7	15.7	1	1.1	0.3	0.2	0	0.1	78	1	77
12	Odisha	9661085	22	2.5	13.6	1.6	2.1	1.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	78	1.4	76.6
13	West Bengal	20067299	58.9	5.6	20.7	5.6	22.3	3.2	0.4	0.7	0.4	41.2	2.5	38.6

North East Zone														
14	Arunachal Pradesh	261614	62	6	22.4	10	4.4	14.4	0.7	0.4	3.7	38	3.2	34.8
15	Assam	6367295	64.9	5.2	14.9	8.4	10.5	24.2	0.9	0.4	0.6	35.1	1.9	33.2
16	Manipur	507152	89.3	6.1	24.7	15.9	15.7	19	5.5	2	0.6	10.7	1.8	8.9
17	Meghalaya	538299	62.9	5.8	23.7	8.6	6.9	16.4	0.3	0.4	0.8	37.1	2.8	34.3
18	Mizoram	221077	91.9	5.7	48.4	6.7	15.1	15.5	0.3	0.1	0.3	8.1	1.5	6.6
19	Nagaland	399965	76.5	3.3	34.4	10	11.2	16.4	0.3	0.2	0.6	23.5	7	16.5
20	Sikkim	128131	87.2	11.8	59.8	3.4	6.6	5.5	0.1	0	0.1	12.8	1.5	11.3
21	Tripura	842781	86	3.5	14.2	7.2	44.8	15.4	0.5	0.1	0.4	14	2.5	11.5
West Zone														
22	Goa	322813	79.7	14.5	56.5	3.3	3.7	0.7	0.2	0	1	20.3	3.9	16.4
23	Gujarat	12181718	57.4	29	22.8	0.8	4.2	0.3	0.2	0	0	42.7	2.3	40.4
24	Maharashtra	23830580	53.1	18.4	23.5	1.6	8.3	0.5	0.7	0	0.2	46.9	12.9	34
South Zone														
25	Andhra Pradesh	21024534	49.6	12.4	29.7	1	5	0.5	0.8	0.1	0.3	50.4	2.5	48
26	Karnataka	13179911	51.2	22.7	13	1.2	13.2	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.2	48.8	3.8	45
27	Kerala	7716370	95.2	12	50.3	4.4	27.6	0.7	0.2	0	0	4.8	1.1	3.8
28	Tamil Nadu	18493003	48.3	14.4	25.7	1.1	5.7	0.3	0.8	0.2	0.1	51.7	6	45.7
Union Territory*														
29	A & N Islands *	93376	70.1	2.6	62.5	1.9	0.5	2.4	0.2	0	0.1	29.9	2.5	27.5
30	Chandigarh *	235061	87.6	85.9	1	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	0	0	12.4	9.1	3.2
31	D & N Haveli *	73063	54.8	4.9	48.2	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.2	0	45.3	5.3	40
32	Daman & Diu *	60381	78.2	5.3	71.5	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.1	0	0	21.8	11.3	10.5
33	Lakshadweep *	10703	97.8	2.4	94.6	0.4	0.4	0	0	0	0	2.2	0.4	1.8
34	NCT of Delhi *	3340538	89.5	59.3	25.5	0.9	1.6	0.2	2.1	0	0	10.5	7.2	3.3
35	Pondicherry *	301276	68.5	14	53.1	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.2	0	0	31.6	4.4	27.1

Source: Census of India 2011

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THE ENTRY OF FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT IN INDIA'S RETAIL SECTOR IS INEVITABLE - A STUDY

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I. INTRODUCTION

India is the fifth largest economy in the world and has the third largest GDP in the entire continent of Asia. It is also the second largest among emerging nations. (These indicators are based on purchasing power parity). India is also one of the few markets in the world which offers high prospects for growth and earning potential in practically all areas of business. Lot of countries is looking at India for investments. The reason being the political and economic stability in this country.

Retail in India has changed radically to become one of the sunrise sectors in the economy. It gained importance in terms of employment generation and business opportunity. Retailing in India is gradually inching towards becoming the next boom industry. The whole concept of

shopping has altered in terms of format and consumer buying behavior, ushering in a revolution in shopping in India. Modern retail has entered in India in the form of sprawling shopping centers, multi-storeyed malls and huge complexes offering shopping, entertainment and food all under one roof. In the era of globalization the whole economy is opening up gradually. The Indian retail sector has also not remained untouched. India has already allowed 51 per cent FDI in single-brand retail and 100 per cent FDI in cash-and-carry or wholesale trading.

The retail industry contribute 11% to the national GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and employing 8% of the country's total workforce, and with approximately 21 million retailers having the highest density of retail shops across the world.

Thus the retail industry in India is currently growing at a fast pace and valued US\$1100 billion in 2015-2016.

Almost 95 per cent of India's retail trade is dominated by the traditional retailers and organized retail just accounts for remaining 5 per cent. Most of the retail stores in India are small family run businesses (Mom & Pop Shops) utilizing predominantly household labour. Therefore retail industry is definitely one of the pillars of the Indian economy. Most of the retailers of the unorganized retail market have their shops in the front or the back of their houses. The Indian retail sector is one of the fastest growing sectors, with several domestic and international players entering into retail market.

Division of Retail Industry – Organized and Unorganized Retailing

The retail industry is mainly divided into:-

1) Organized and 2) Unorganized Retailing
Organized retailing refers to trading activities undertaken by licensed retailers, that is, those who are registered for sales tax, income tax, etc. These include the corporate-backed hypermarkets and retail chains, and also the privately owned large retail businesses.

Unorganized retailing, on the other hand, refers to the traditional formats of low-cost retailing, for example, the local kirana shops,

owner manned general stores, paan/beedi shops, convenience stores, hand cart and pavement vendors, etc.

The Indian retail sector is highly fragmented with 97 per cent of its business being run by the unorganized retailers. The organized retail however is at a very nascent stage. The sector is the largest source of employment after agriculture, and has deep penetration into rural India generating more than 10 per cent of India's GDP.

Retail FDI Regulations in India

An important aspect of the current economic scenario in India is the emergence of organized retail backed by foreign direct investment. As there has been considerable growth in organized retail business in India, major Indian industrial houses have entered in retail sector and have announced very ambitious future expansion plans. Transnational Corporations are keen to enter in India and set up retail chains in collaboration with big Indian companies. However, opinions are divided on the issue of the impact of the 'Foreign Direct Investment' on the traditional Indian retail sector which is highly fragmented and the major source of employment after agriculture. Concerns have been raised that the foreign direct investment in retail sector may have an adverse impact on retailers in the traditional retail sector. It has also been argued that FDI in retailing will yield

efficiencies in the supply chain, enabling better access to markets to the producers (including farmers and small producers), higher prices to farmers and lower prices to consumers. In the context of divergent views on the impact of foreign direct investment on Indian retail sector, it is essential to examine the possible effects of FDI on Indian retail sector.

India has allowed 51 per cent FDI in single-brand retail trade, and 100 per cent in cash-and carry wholesale trading. The Govt. of India on 24 January 2006, opened-up FDI in 'single-brand retailing'. This was done with a primary motive of giving a boost to organized retailing in India. FDI up to 51 per cent is permitted in Indian companies engaged in retail trade of single-brand products with prior government approval (FIPB) subject to following riders mentioned in the Press Note 3 (Press Note DIPP, 2006):

- Only single-brand products would be sold (i.e. retail of goods of multi-brand even if produced by the same manufacturer would not be allowed).
- Products should be sold under the same brand internationally.
- Single-brand products retail would only cover products which are branded during manufacturing.

- Any addition to product categories to be sold under "single-brand" would require fresh approval from the government.

It is interesting to note that the Government of India has reviewed the extant policy on FDI and decided that FDI, up to 100%, under the government approval route, would be permitted in Single-Brand Retail effective from April 2012 (Press Note DIPP). Again government revised its FDI policy and in September 2012, 51 per cent FDI in multi brand retail trade (MBRT) is allowed subject to following conditions:

- a minimum investment of US\$ 100 million by each player,
- 50 per cent of it in back-end infrastructure
- 30 per cent procurement from micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMES) and
- the governments right to procure the farm produce first. Further, the permission for MBRT has been granted for cities with a population of one million or more,

Determinants of FDI Inflows

The volume and the quality of FDI in a country depend on the following factors:

- Natural Resources
- National Markets
- Availability of Cheap Labor
- Socio-Economic Conditions
- Political Situation

- Rate of interest
- Government Policies

Indian Retailing Trends

The retail industry in India is of late often being hailed as one of the sunrise sectors in the economy. AT Kearney, the well-known international management consultancy, recently identified India as the second most attractive retail destination globally from among thirty emergent markets. It has made India the cause of a good deal of excitement and the cynosure of many foreign eyes. With a contribution of 14% to the national GDP and employing 7% of the total workforce (only agriculture employs more) in the country, the retail industry is definitely one of the pillars of the Indian economy.

- Modern retail formats - The growth of western-style malls is changing the way urban consumers shop. We're seeing many bigger box, value based formats setting up shop. The size of these stores is about 50,000 square feet, a departure from the smaller mom & pop-type store that dominates the local retail landscape.
- Shoppers' Stop - department store format.
- Westside - emulated the Marks & Spencer model of 100 per cent private label, very good value for money merchandise for the entire family.
- Giant and Big Bazaar - hypermarket/cash & carry store.

- Food World and Nilgiris - supermarket format.
- Pantaloons and The Home Store - specialty retailing.
- Tanishq has very successfully pioneered a very high quality organized retail business in fine jewellery. A new entrant in the retail environment is the 'discounter' format. It is also known as cash and-carry or hypermarket. These formats usually work on bulk buying and bulk selling. Shopping experience in terms of ambience or the service is not the mainstay here.

FDI in Retail Industry

FDI in retail industry means that foreign companies in certain categories can sell products through their own retail shop in the country. At present, foreign direct investment (FDI) in pure retailing is not permitted under Indian law. Government of India has allowed FDI in retail of specific brand of products. Following this, foreign companies in certain categories can sell products through their own retail shops in the country.

India's retail industry is estimated to be worth approximately US\$411.28 billion and is still growing, expected to reach US\$804.06 billion in 2015. As part of the economic liberalization process set in place by the Industrial Policy of 1991, the Indian government has opened the retail sector to FDI slowly through a series of steps:

1995: World Trade Organization's General Agreement on Trade in Services, Which includes both wholesale and retailing services, came into effect.

2011: 100% FDI in single brand retail permitted. The Indian government removed the 51 percent cap on FDI into single-brand retail outlets in December 2011, and opened the market fully to foreign investors by permitting 100 percent foreign investment in this area.

Government has also made some, albeit limited, progress in allowing multi-brand retailing, which has so far been prohibited in India. At present, this is restricted to 49 percent foreign equity participation. The specter of large supermarket brands displacing traditional Indian mom-and-pop stores is a hot political issue in India, and the progress and development of the newly liberalized single-brand retail industry will be watched with some keen eyes as concerns further possible liberalization in the multi-brand sector. In this Paper, Author discusses the policy developments for FDI in these two retail categories, with a focus on the details of the multi-brand retail FDI discussion.

FDI in "Single-Brand" Retail

While the precise meaning of single-brand retail has not been clearly defined in any Indian government circular or notification, single-brand retail generally refers to the selling of goods under

a single brand name. Up to 100 percent FDI is permissible in single-brand retail, subject to the Foreign Investment Promotion Board (FIPB) sanctions and conditions mentioned in Press Note 3[8]. These conditions stipulate that: Only single-brand products are sold (i.e. sale of multi-brand goods is not allowed, even if produced by the same manufacturer). Products are sold under the same brand internationally

- Single-brand products include only those identified during manufacturing
- Any additional product categories to be sold under single-brand retail must first receive additional government approval FDI in single-brand retail implies that a retail store with foreign investment can only sell one brand. For example, if Adidas were to obtain permission to retail its flagship brand in India, those retail outlets could only sell products under the Adidas brand. For Adidas to sell products under the Reebok brand, which it owns, separate government permission is required and (if permission is granted) Reebok products must then be sold in separate retail outlets.

FDI in "Multi-Brand" Retail

While the government of India has also not clearly defined the term "multi-brand retail," FDI in multi-brand retail generally refers to selling multiple brands under one roof. Currently, this

sector is limited to a maximum of 49 percent foreign equity participation.

These are positive step and it will encourage international brands to set up shop in India. On the other hand, this will also lead to competition among Indian players. It will be the consumers who stand to gain," This would not change the market dynamics immediately as it will take some time for these plans to fructify. The growing dominance of multinational companies in the country's \$200 billion retail business, had warned that any move to increase FDI in the retail sector would ruin the business of small and medium traders scattered over the country. Organized retailers in India are opposing the entry of MNCs in retail trading because of their predatory pricing strategy that wipes out competition, when the Government decides to allow foreign players to enter the retail space, it should first restrict them to lifestyle products segment before permitting them to spread their wings into other areas like grocery marketing that has a direct impact on 'kirana stores'. FDI in retail trade has forced the wholesalers and food processors to improve, raised exports, and triggered growth by outsourcing supplies domestically. The availability of standardized products has also boosted tourism in these countries. FDI in retail sector has been a key driver of productivity growth in Brazil, Poland and Thailand. This has resulted in

lower prices to the consumer, more consumption and higher profit for the producer.

Advantages of FDI in Retail

- Opportunities Galore
- Benefits for the Farmers
- Improved Technology And Logistics
- Impact on Real-Estate Development

Disadvantages of FDI in Retail

Opponents of the FDI feel that liberalization would jeopardize the unorganized retail sector and would adversely affect the small retailers, farmers and consumers and give rise to monopolies of large corporate houses which can adversely affect the pricing and availability of goods. They also contend that the retail sector in India is one of the major employment providers and permitting FDI in this sector can displace the unorganized retailers leading to loss of livelihood.

- The entry of large global retailers such as Wal-Mart would kill local shops and millions of jobs.
- The global retailers would collude and exercise monopolistic power to raise prices and monopolistic (big buying) power to reduce the prices received by the suppliers. Hence, both the consumers and the suppliers would lose, while the profit margins of such retail chains would go up.
- It would lead to lopsided growth in cities, causing discontent and social tension

elsewhere. However, these arguments can be overruled in the light of the ICRIER study conducted in India in 2008, which showed that although unorganized retail suffered initially with the opening up of organized retail in their vicinity, this effect significantly weakened over time. The rate of closure of unorganized retail shops in gross terms was found to be 4.2 % per annum, which was much lower than the international rate of closure of small businesses. Similarly, the rate of closure on account of competition from organized retail was found to still lower, at 1.7 per cent per annum. This was achieved through competitive response from traditional retailers and through improved business practices and technology up gradation.

The foreign direct investment (FDI) in the Indian retail sector should be allowed in a phased manner so that it could serve the purpose of much-needed capital and bring boom in the sector, according to Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) Chairman Kishore Biyani says.

- FDI should be gradually allowed first in relatively less sensitive sectors like garments, lifestyle Products, house ware and entertainment."
- Alternative funding mechanisms and investment opportunities should be considered like FIIs and venture capital in the primary

market, besides FDI. Hence they should be legalized and encouraged in the primary market.

- Industry needs time for capital formation, which would take at least two-three years. The gradual inflow of FDI should not be a hindrance for the growth of the retail sector.

II. FUTURE SCOPE

The sentiment towards 100 percent FDI in retail sector is gathering pace. Currently, the UPA has a majority in the house and it seems quite possible that they will be able to pass the bill, making FDI in multi-brand retailing, a reality. Moreover, with state governments like Punjab working with modern retailers in furthering improvement of trade, there is a possibility that support will flow in from other state governments as well.

However, the opposition led by the BJP is not in favor of this move and has presented a report recently to the Parliament recommending a complete ban on FDI in retail.

The proposed FDI norms will open up strategic investment opportunity for global retailers, who have been waiting to invest in India. This may have a significant impact on the current arrangement of foreign players. This policy will require investment from retailers in areas of supply chain, especially for perishable products, thus helping farmers to get better income leading to an

inclusive growth in the country. Given the large number of SKU's that retailers stock Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) sector is also set to gain from this move due to preference given by retailers to private label brands. The move will also encourage smaller suppliers to take their products to a national platform that they could not previously manage due to lack of an organized supply chain of their own. This policy will also open up avenues for attracting, developing and retaining talent. Contract manufacturers would also benefit from these policy changes. With the global economy still recovering, investment in India is lucrative to a retailer attributable to strong consumerism, rising disposable income, growing middle class population, favorable macro and micro economic indicators supplemented by a stable government.

III. CONCLUSION

In the final analysis, for India, FDI in multi-brand retail should be seriously considered by the government and, as with many other sensitive sectors (like defense); a gradual opening up could be made possible. Despite country wide speculation on the plight of various Stakeholders, trading associations, politicians, etc. have given various arguments for and against FDI in retailing. However, such arguments are largely based on perception and there has not been serious academic research in this area. India needs to take a lesson

from China where organized and unorganized retail seem to co-exist and grow together. Further, India's local enterprises will potentially receive an up gradation with the import of advanced technological and logistics management expertise from the foreign entities. In our view, the government has an opportunity to utilize the liberalization for achieving certain of its own targets:

- improve its infrastructure;
- access sophisticated technologies;
- generate employment for those keen to work in this sector

FDI would lead to a more comprehensive integration of India into the worldwide market and, as such, it is imperative for the government to promote this sector for the overall economic development and social welfare of the country. If done in the right manner, it can prove to be a boon and not a curse.

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ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

Problems and Issues



Dr. M. Rajakumar
Dr. R. Sampath

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SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Solid waste management is a term that is used to refer to the process of collecting and treating solid wastes. It also offers solutions for recycling items that do not belong to garbage or trash. As long as people have been living in settlements and residential areas, garbage or solid waste has been an issue. Waste management is all about how solid waste can be changed and used as a valuable resource. Solid waste management should be embraced by each and every household including the business owners across the world. Industrialization has brought a lot of good things and bad things as well. One of the negative effects of industrialization is the creation of solid waste.

DEFINITION

According to Britannica, "Solid-waste management, the collecting, treating, and disposing of solid material that is discarded because it has served its purpose or is no longer useful. Improper disposal of municipal solid waste can create unsanitary conditions, and these conditions in turn can lead to pollution of the environment and to

outbreaks of vector-borne disease—that is, diseases spread by rodents and insects."

TYPES OF SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT

Some of the major types of solid waste management are as follows: a. Municipal Solid Waste (MSW), b. Hazardous Wastes, c. Industrial Wastes, d. Agricultural Wastes, e. Bio-medical Wastes, f. Waste Minimization.

The combined effects of population explosion and changing modern living standard have had a cumulative effect in the generation of a large amount of various types of wastes. Solid waste can be classified into different types depending on their sources:

A. MUNICIPAL SOLID WASTE (MSW):

The term municipal solid waste (MSW) is generally used to describe most of the non-hazardous solid waste from a city, town or village that requires routine collection and transport to a processing or disposal site. Sources of MSW include private homes, commercial establishments and institutions, as well as industrial facilities.

However, MSW does not include wastes from industrial processes, construction and demolition debris, sewage sludge, mining waste or agricultural wastes. MSW is also called as trash or garbage. In general, domestic waste and MSW are used as synonyms.

Municipal solid waste contains a wide variety of materials. It can contain food waste (like vegetable and meat material, leftover food, eggshells etc, which is classified as wet garbage as well as paper, plastic, tetra-pack, plastic cans, newspaper, glass bottles, cardboard boxes, aluminum foil, metal items, wood pieces, etc., which is classified as dry garbage. The different types of domestic wastes generated and the time taken for them to degenerate is illustrated in the table given below.

The country has over 5,000 cities and towns, which generate about 40 million tonnes of MSW per year today. Going by estimates of

The Energy Research Institute (TERI), this could well touch 260 million tonnes per year by 2047.

B. HAZARDOUS WASTES:

Hazardous wastes are those that can cause harm to human and the environment.

Characteristics of Hazardous Wastes:

Wastes are classified as hazardous if they exhibit any of the primary characteristics based on physical or chemical properties such as toxicity, reactivity, ignitability and corrosivity.

1. Toxic wastes:

Toxic wastes are those that are poisonous in small or trace amounts. Some may have acute or immediate effect on human and animals. Carcinogenic or mutagenic causing biological changes in the children of exposed people and animals. Examples: pesticides, heavy metals.

2. Reactive wastes:

Reactive wastes are those that have a tendency to react vigorously with air or water are unstable to shock or heat, generate toxic gases or explode during routine management. Examples: Gun powder, nitro glycerin.

3. Ignitable waste:

Are those that burn at relatively low temperatures ($< 60^{\circ}\text{C}$) and are capable of spontaneous combustion during storage transport or disposal. Examples: Gasoline, paint thinners and alcohol.

4. Corrosive wastes:

Are those that destroy materials and living tissues by chemical reactions? Examples: acids and base.

5. Infectious wastes:

Included human tissue from surgery, used bandages and hypoderm needles hospital wastes.

Sources of Hazardous Wastes:

Chemical manufacturing companies, petroleum refineries, paper mills, smelters and other industries. Plastic industries thousand of chemicals are used in industries every year. When used incorrectly or inappropriately they can become health hazards.

PCBs (Polychlorinated biphenyls) are resistant to fire and do not conduct electricity very well, which makes them excellent materials for several industrial purposes. Rainwater can wash PCBs out of disposal areas in dumps and landfills thus contaminating the water.

PCBs do not break open very rapidly in the environment and thus retain their toxic characteristics. They cause long-term exposure problems to both human and wildlife. Many household chemicals can be quite toxic to humans as well as wildlife.

Most of the dangerous substances in our homes are found in various kinds of cleaners, solvents and products used in automotive care. When these products are used incorrectly they have the potential to be harmful.

Effects of Hazardous Wastes:

As most of the hazardous wastes are disposed off or in land, the most serious environmental effect is contaminated ground water. Once ground water is polluted with hazardous wastes, it is very often not possible to reverse the damage. Pesticides form residues in the soil that are washed into streams which then carry them forward.

The residues may persist in PCBs (poly chlorinated biphenyls) are concentrated in the kidneys and liver and cause damage; they cause reproductive failure in birds and mammals. The soil or in the bottom of lakes and rivers.

Exposure can occur through ingestion, inhalation and skin contact, resulting acute or chronic poisoning. Lead, mercury and arsenic

Hazardous substances which can often refer to as heavy metals. Most of the lead absorbed by people is stored in the bones. Lead can affect red blood cells by reducing their ability to carry oxygen and shortening their life span. Lead may also damage nervous tissue resulting in brain disease. Mercury is used in production of chlorine as a catalyst in the production of some plastics.

Mercury build up in body over long period of time is known to cause brain damage. Minamata disease occurs due to mercury poisoning. Vinyl chloride is a chemical that is widely used in plastic manufacture. A long continuous exposure in humans it can cause deafness, vision problem circulation disorders and bone deformities.

Control of Hazardous Wastes:

Common methods for disposing of hazardous wastes are land disposal and incineration. Industries need to be encouraged to generate less hazardous waste in the manufacturing process. Although toxic wastes cannot be entirely eliminated, technologies are available for minimizing recycling and treating the wastes.

Integrated pest management practices (IPM) reduce the usage of pesticides. Substitute the use of PCBs and vinyl chloride with chemicals that are less toxic. Polyvinyl chloride use can be lowered by reducing the use of plastics.

C. INDUSTRIAL WASTES:

These contain more of toxic and require special treatment.

Source of Industrial Wastes:

Food processing industries, metallurgical chemical and pharmaceutical units, breweries, sugar mills, paper and pulp industries, fertilizer and pesticide industries are major ones which discharge toxic wastes. During processing, scrap materials, tailings, acids etc.

Effects of Industrial Wastes:

Most common observation is that the health of the people living in the neighborhood of dumping sites is severely affected. The exposure may cause disorders of nervous system, genetic defects, skin diseases and even cancer.

The liquid effluents discharged by the industries contain inorganic and organic pollutants and they enter into water bodies causing destruction of fish, formation of sediments, and pollution of ground water and release of foul odours.

Control of Industrial Wastes:

Waste minimization technologies have to be developed. Source reduction recycling and reuse of materials need to be practiced on a large scale. Hazardous waste should not mix up with general waste. Source reduction involves altering the design, manufacture or use of products and materials to reduce the amount and toxicity of materials that get thrown away.

Local communities and voluntary organizations should educate the industrialists as well as the public about dangers of pollution and the need to keep the environment clean. Land filling, incineration and composting technologies to be followed. Biogas is obtained from solid waste treatment of industrial and mining waste is done for the recovery of useful products.

D. RESIDENTIAL

Residences and homes where people live are some of the major sources of solid waste. Garbage from these places include food wastes, plastics, paper, glass, leather, cardboard, metals, yard wastes, ashes and special wastes like bulky household items like electronics, tires, batteries, old mattresses and used oil. Most homes have garbage bins where they can throw away their solid wastes in and later the bin is emptied by a garbage collecting firm or person for treatment.

Commercial facilities and buildings are yet another source of solid waste today. Commercial buildings and facilities in this case refer to hotels, markets, restaurants, go downs, stores and office buildings. Some of the solid wastes generated from these places include plastic food wastes, metals, paper, glass, wood, cardboard materials, special wastes and other hazardous wastes.

F. INSTITUTIONAL

The institutional centers like schools, colleges, prisons, military barracks and other government centers also produce solid waste. Some of the common solid wastes obtained from these places include glass, rubber waste, plastics, food wastes, wood, paper, metals, cardboard materials, electronics as well as various hazardous wastes.

G. AGRICULTURAL WASTES:

Sources of Agricultural Wastes:

The waste generated by agriculture includes waste from crops and live stock. In developing countries, this waste does not pose a serious problem as most of it is used e.g., dung is used for manure, straw is used as fodder. Some agro-based industries produce waste e.g. rice milling, production of tea, tobacco etc. Agricultural wastes are rice husk, degasses, ground nut shell, maize cobs, straw of cereals etc.

Effects of Agricultural Wastes:

If more C: N ratio wastes like paddy husk or straw may cause immobilization of nutrients if applied on the fields. It occupies to large land areas if not properly disposed.

Management of Agricultural Wastes:

1. Waste to energy:

(i) Gasification:

It is the process in which chemical decomposition of biomass takes place in the presence of controlled amounts of oxygen, producing

a gas. This gas is cleaned and used in an internal combustion engine to produce electric power.

Without clean up also, the gas can be used in boilers to produce electric power. This technology is highly suited to generate electric power from agricultural wastes like rice husks, groundnut shells etc.

(ii) Pyrolysis:

It is similar to gasification except that the chemical decomposition of biomass wastes takes place in the absence or reduced presence of O_2 at high temp. Mixtures of gases result from decomposition including H_2 , NH_4 , CO , CO_2 depending on the organic nature of waste matter. This gas used for power generation.

2. Biogas production:

Animal wastes, food processing wastes and other organic matter are decomposed anaerobically to produce a gas called biogas. It contains methane and CO_2 . The methane can provides gas for domestic use. The byproduct of this technology is slurry, settled out the bottom of the digester. This can be used as manure.

3. Agricultural waste like corn cobs, paddy husk, bagasse of sugarcane, waste of wheat, rice and other cereals, cotton stalks, coconut wastes, jute waste etc. can be used in making of paper and hard board.

H. BIO-MEDICAL WASTES:

Bio-medical waste means any waste, which is generated during the diagnosis, treatment or immunisation of human beings or animals or in research activities pertaining thereto or in the production or testing of biological.

Segregation, Packaging, Transportation and Storage:

1. Bio-medical waste shall not be mixed with other wastes.

2. bio-medical waste shall be segregated into containers/bags at point of generation prior to its storage, transportation, treatment and disposal. The containers shall be properly labelled.
3. Notwithstanding anything contained in the Motor Vehicles Act, 1988, or rules there under, untreated biomedical waste shall be transported only in such vehicle as may be authorized for that purpose by the competent authority as specified by the government.
4. No untreated bio-medical waste shall be kept stored beyond a period of 48 hours. Provided that if for any reason it becomes necessary to store the waste beyond such period, the authorized person must take permission of the prescribed authority and take measures to ensure that the waste does not adversely affect human health and the environment.

I. WASTE MINIMIZATION:

Waste production can be minimized by adopting the 3R principle: Reduce, Reuse, and Recycle.

- Reduce the amount and toxicity of garbage and trash that is discarded.
- Reuse containers and try to repair things that are broken.
- Recycle products wherever possible, which includes buying recycled products i.e., recycled paper books, paper bags etc.

These are processes that involve integrated waste management practices (IWM). They can reduce the wastes generated by approximately 50%.

Reduce (Waste Prevention):

Waste prevention, or "source reduction," means consuming and discarding less, is a successful method of reducing waste generation. Backyard composting, double sided copying of papers, purchasing durable, long-lasting environmentally friendly goods; products and

packaging that are free of toxics, redesigning products to use less raw material production and transport packaging reduction by industries are the normal practices used and have yielded substantial environmental benefits.

Source reduction prevents emissions of many greenhouse gases, reduces pollutants the need saves energy, conserves resources, and reduces wastes for new landfills and combustors. It reduces the generation of waste and is generally preferred method of waste management that goes a long way toward saving the environment.

Reuse

Reuse is the process, which involves reusing items by repairing them, donating them to charity and community groups, or selling them. Reusing products is an alternative to recycling because the item does not need to be reprocessed for its use again. Using durable glassware, steel using cloth napkins or towels, reusing bottles, reusing boxes, purchasing refillable pens and pencils are suggested.

Recycling

The process of recycling, including composting, has diverted several million tons of material away from disposal. Recycled materials include batteries, recycled at a rate of 93%, paper and paperboard at 48%, and yard trimmings at 56%. These materials and others may be recycled through drop off centers, buy-back programs, and deposit systems.

Recycling prevents the emission of many greenhouse gases that affect global climate, water pollutants, saves energy, supplies valuable raw materials to industry, creates jobs, stimulates the development of greener technologies, conserves resources for our children's future, and reduces the need for new landfills and combustors. For example, by recycling of solid waste in 1996, the United States prevented, the release of 33 million tons, of carbon into the air roughly the amount emitted annually by 25 million cars.

Recycling can create valuable resources and it generates a lot of environmental, financial, and social benefits. Materials like glass, metal, plastics, and paper are collected, separated and sent to processing centers where they are processed into new products.

The advantages of recycling are it conserves resources for future generation, prevents emissions of greenhouse gases and pollutants, saves energy, supplies valuable raw materials to industry, stimulates the development of greener technologies, reduces the need for new landfills and incinerators.

CONCLUSION

In summary, proper solid waste management is an integral part of environmental conservation that should be observed by individuals and companies globally. This will keep the environment clean and reduce health and settlement problems.

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Socio-Economic Empowerment Of Women Shg's Through Micro Credit In Kalasapakkam Taluk Of Tiruvannamalai District

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ABSTRACT

The concept of microfinance can be best described by the title of F.A.J. Bowman's book (1990), "Small, Short and Unsecured", micro finance is the provision of very small loans that are repaid within short periods of time and is essentially used by low income individuals women groups and households who have few assets that can be used as collateral. The micro finance has been practiced in different forms in different countries. There are various models for delivers of financial products under micro finance. The successful experiences in the gram men bank Bangladesh founded by Prof. Mohammed Yunus inspired the formation of a unique credit delivery system in India. Micro finance and women SHG's linkages to banking with achieve the objectives of ensuring access to credit virtually at their doorstep.

KEY NOTES: Micro finance.

1. INTRODUCTION

The micro finance system not only credit, most important input for development to the poor section of the society, also aimed for their capacity building. It has also been observed that the group lending has distant advantages in the form of excellent recovery rate and improvement in income level. The phenomenal growth of the society and also capable to sharpen their micro entrepreneurial skills with the help of their own savings and additional bank credit as needed. At this point micro finance and SHG's integration could be the way out for overall rural development and alleviate rural poverty in my study area are explained in my research paper. The micro finance is a programme for the women's development. It is implemented as per the guidelines given by the central and state Government. In my research paper analyze empowerment women SHG's through micro finance and bank-linkage programmes in Kalasapakkam block and Tiruvannamalai district.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Celine Sunny (2006), said in his published research paper, connects the Women SHG's and rural development and clearly has reported about the activities of SHG's, effects of SHG's like socio-economic and political development. "Self -Help Groups have grown to be an effective organization that ensures the overall development of the community and village. The rural communities have risen to conquer the horizons of socio-economic progress bearing the lit candles

of empowerment through the path shown by the Self-Help Groups". The author opines that this is a step to include the so called excluded i.e., the rural women in the process of development planning.

CHANDRA(1997) Empowerment, in its simplest form, means that challenges patriarchal ideology and the male domination. It is transformation of the structures or institutions that reinforces and perpetuates gender discrimination. It is a process that enables women to gain access and control of material as well as information resources. The concept of women's empowerment, throughout the world, has its roots in women's movement. It is since the field of development, especially with reference to women.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

For the economic upliftment of Indian women, several programmes have been implemented. Of which, the SHG is landmark programme. This pushes the beneficiary women into the development orbit. SHG undertakes such economic bustle suited up their skills and resources. Such groups are formed to improve their financial status by developing linkages with financial institutions to get micro credit. Micro finance is the important source of SHGs. The growth of SHGs leads to growth of economy and the micro finance sector has experienced and development banks. There is reasonable like government, loan through this sector and positive changes in the policies affecting the micro finance sector is observed. The Government of Tamil Nadu is providing micro credit to the poor people through the rural banks. On the basis of above fact in the research has analysed impact of micro finance on empowerment of women in Kalasapakkam Taluk of Thiruvannamalai district.

3. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

1. To analyze the socio-economic conditions of women SHG's in the study area.
2. To study the socio-economic advantages of women SHG's after joining in the study area.
3. To access problems faced by women SHG's in the study area.
4. To study the Govt. rules and regulations, policy and programme for formation of SHG's and bank-linkage programme in Kalasapakkam taluk of Tiruvannamalai district.

4. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

These research studies focus on the socio-economic conditions of women Self Help Group members in Kalasapakkam taluk. A detailed enquiry was made on the savings and lending patterns, living status of women self-help members and other related aspects. Hence, the study has covered and the indications of development like women literacy status, income and expenditure pattern, saving behaviors, awareness of government programmes etc., the major findings of the present study may be helpful to policy makers, planners and administrators.

NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The role of women SHGs is very significant in the present day context both in motivating women to save at least some money regularly and to use the amount as investment in income generating activities. Thus, women empowered by economic independence can contribute to society and at the same time improve their standard of living and self-esteem can be

demonstrated and taken to logical and where an empower women folk will take their right full place in the path of progress.

5. METHODOLOGY

This research study consists of both primary and secondary sources of the data. The collection of primary data related to the general information about SHGs members, income, expenditure, saving and loan schemes etc., SHGs financial management awareness programme also available to women SHG members of Kalasapakkam taluk in Tiruvannamalai district. The study also used participation observation method as programme coordination in the process of achieving the objective of the programme.

ASPECTS OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Women empowerment could be broadly classified into five different aspects such as **political, social, economic, legal and cultural.**

SOCIAL EMPOWERMENT

The social aspects of women empowerment nobody could deny the role of education, as it is powerful instrument since it enables women to gain more knowledge about the outside world, skill, self-image and self-confidence. Education is a major force in redefining women's role and status and it is an important aspect for increasing bettering the changes of women employability and empowering women to think for themselves, so as to become confident and also induce them to develop the capability of recognizing more accurately the area of exploitation. Greater exposure of women to education results in an increased sharing of responsibility within the family, continuous employment in jobs, lower fertility patterns and greater participation in social and political activities. Moreover, it opens up an area in which women can compete with men and prove their identity.

ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Employment, the base for economic empowerment of women not only provides economic independence but also enables women to move out of their homes, express their, ideas, exchange views on their problems and evaluate their position vis-à-vis men in many areas of social life. Economic independence or access to an inherited or self-generated income of women, is the worst form of dependence.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN SHG'S MEMBERS IN KALASAPAKKAM TALUK

In Tiruvannamalai district there are ten taluks, they are Chengam, Thandarampet, Tiruvannamalai, Kilpenathur, Kalasapakkam, Polur, Chetpet, Arani, Cheyyar and Vandavasi. The Kalasapakkam taluk is located in the central part of the Tiruvannamalai district, this taluk located in Cuddalore to Chitthur National Highway. This taluk is one of the new taluk in Tamil Nadu. Kalasapakkam is a Special Grade Village Panchayat and this Village Panchayat Union was established during the British rule period.

In the present study analyse the working of microfinance on empowerment of women in Kalasapakkam taluk, the data was collected from 100 Self Help Group members of Kalasapakkam taluk. Information collected through direct questioner method before and after joining status of women SHGs members in the study area. Based on the 2011 census total population of

Kalasapakkam block is 107943 out of this male population is 54261 and female population is 53682. Based on 2017-18 statistical data there are 49 revenue villages, 579 Women Self Help Groups and 10,127 women members are actively participated in Kalasapakkam taluk.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC IMPACT OF SHG'S WOMENS IN KALASAPAKKAM TALUK.

There are more than 10,127 women's are actively participated in women SHGs in Kalasapakkam taluk. In my research study select 100 women member and collect various social and economic statuses of these women members. My study analyze the age of the respondent, literacy level of the respondent, income and expenditure pattern of this members, saving habits and standard of living before and after joining of SHG. The following impacts are found out my study after the interpretation of the data.

- To create the savings habit of the women
- To meet out the internal credit by themselves
- To repay the credit properly
- To improve standard of living of the family by earning of SHGs women
- To make arrangements to avail the bank loan and benefits from Government schemes
- To create self confidence among the women
- To create social awareness among the women
- Improve their situation
- Raise the awareness on women and children's rights, health and environment issues.
- Mobilization for identification of locally available resources and services for effective utilization
- To know the ways and means for marketing of products
- Organize women at the community level groups and create group saving for facing future problems.

SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION

Our former president of India **Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam** said that, "Empowering women is a prerequisite for creating a good nation, when women are empowered, society with stability is assured. Empowerment of women is essential as their value system lead to the development of a good family, good society and ultimately good nation." Empowerment is the one of the key factor in determining the success of development in the status and position of women in the society. This means that the neglect of women in the development process of any country constitutes a human resource waste.

DETERMINANTS OF SOCIAL EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

- Literacy level
- Health status

- Nutritional level
- Availability of Housing and Shelter
- Environmental facility

DETERMINANTS OF ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

- Poverty Eradication
- Availability of Micro Credit
- Women and the Economy
- Globalization
- Women and Agriculture
- Women and Industry and
- Women Support Services

The above social and economic determinant are achieved the Women SHGs members of Kalasapakkam taluk after joining Self-Help Group. The following suggestions are made to SHGs members, bankers and government.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE SELF-HELP GROUPS

1. There should be rotation of group leadership, so that all the members of the group get an opportunity to play managerial role.
2. The SHGs members have to select their activities keeping in mind the availability of raw materials, sufficient financial assistant, marketing facilities and also the demand for their products
3. The members should undergo some sort of training in order to educate themselves about the utilization of money properly
4. The members should be trained to rotate the money for the benefit of meeting emergencies of the needy rather than sharing equally among themselves.
5. Co-operation among the members and proper repayment of loan is the only way to get success in their scheme.
6. The SHG members are advised to utilize the amount only for the carrying out the assigned task.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE BANKERS

1. Banker have to inform the SHGs about the new plans or schemes
2. Formalities may be simplified
3. Individual loan, housing loan etc., should be provided to the members of the Self Help Groups
4. The banks need not insist on the members to submit "No Dues" certificate in order to get new loans. Instead, they may go by taking into account the nature of activity and the progress of the group.

SUGGESTION TO THE GOVERNMENT

1. Government should encourage and support NGOs to attempts group approach and crate favorable policy environment for SHGs to open their bank account

2. Government should come with a special policy to create a separate cell for solving problems of SHG
3. Government should encourage export of goods which are produced by the group members
4. Government should bear the discount amount which is allowed by the groups on the sale of their products

“Empowerment of women is a modern Mantra of the Society” this is achieved through Micro Credit and Women Self-Help Groups in Kalasapakkam taluk of Tiruvannamalai district.

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AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION IN TAMIL NADU

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Abstract

This paper examine the growth of agricultural production in the state of Tamil Nadu, India. This paper analysis growth of food crops and non-food crops during 2000-01 to 2018-19. Agrarian economy of Tamil Nadu has under crises in the last two decades due to fragmentation of landholdings, reduction of public spending on agriculture, withdrawal of subsidy. Majority of farmers were marginal and small landowners have failed to achieve profitable in agriculture. In this context, this study demonstrations agricultural production in Tamil Nadu.

Introduction

Agriculture play a significant role in human life through food security and the growth of agriculture is guarantee equitable distribution to the society. India, growth of agriculture in 1960s was based on High Yielding Variety (HYV), seed-fertilizer and technology. Growth of agriculture in India has based on planned development for four decades (since independence) from 1950s to 1990s and in the two and half decades policy diverted to market economy. In 1990s the core economic ideas as changed in New Economic Policy. This new economic policy consist of Liberalization, Privation and Globalization (LPGs). This LPGs as change macroeconomic policy of country like fiscal, monetary and trade policy and it result change in comportment of agriculture. Consequently, drastic change in cropping pattern in India. In this context, this study examine the change in production of food and non-food crops in India and this study exclusively examine the agricultural production in Tamil Nadu. This study not examined all India perspective of change in agricultural production.

The share of agriculture in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has registered a steady decline from 36.4 percent in 1982-83 to 12.78 percent in 2018-19. State Gross Domestic Product (SGDP) of Tamil Nadu has Rs. 150,791,798 crore in 2018-19 at current price. The proportion of agricultural sector is 12.78 per cent (Rs. 19,273,545 crore), secondary sector is 32.98 per cent (Rs.49, 738,001 crore) and service sector is 54.23 per cent (Rs.81, 780,252 crore). However, the percentage of workforce engaged in agriculture has remained somewhat unchanged. The agricultural workers in Tamil Nadu has 60.35 per cent and this is a combination of 31.13 per cent of cultivators and 29.21 per cent of agricultural labour. Thus, change in agricultural production lead to influence in income of the agricultural workers. In this context, this study examine the performance of agricultural production since 2000 to 2017-18. The second part of the paper deals on methodology Third section of the paper deals on production of food crops and fourth section deals on non-food crops. Final section of the paper deals on conclusion.

Methodology

This study based on secondary sources likes Season and Crop Reports and Tamil Nadu Economic Appraisal. The period of study is 2000 to 2018-19. The annual growth rate is calculated for production of food grains and non-food grains. Food grains consists of (i) rice, (ii) coarse cereals, and (iii) pulses. Non-food crop consist of (i) oil seeds, (ii) Cotton, (iii) sugarcane and (iv) rawjute

Production of Food Crops

Total agricultural production in Tamil Nadu has 2777.2 thousand tonnes in 2018-19 and this is combination of food production and non-food production. Taking the period of 18 years from 2000-0 to 2018-19, production of food grain in Tamil Nadu has increased and at the same time fluctuated (see table 1). Food production was 8616.8 thousand tonnes in 2000-01 to 10402.6 thousand tonnes in 2018-19. In addition, food production declined in 8 years out of 18 years during 2000-01 to 2018-19. The declined years were 2001-02, 2002-03, 2005-06, 2007-08, 2012-13,

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2016-17, and 2018-19. Among the food production, the major food items is rice, followed by coarse cereals and pulses and these were also increased over the period of 2000-01 to 2018-19.

For rice production, 7366.3 thousand tones in 2000-0 and to 6454.7 thousand tonnes in 2018-19. The rice declining year and declining total food crops years also similar. This means that declining rice production effect to declining the general food crops in Tamil Nadu. Coarse cereals had increased three and half time from 2000-01 to 2018-19. Cereals production was 937.8 thousand tonnes in 2000-01 and to increased 3380.6 thousand tonnes in 2018-19. For pluses production indicated that slow growth rate than rice, and cereals. In 2000-01, 312.7 thousand tonnes and to increase to 567.3 thousand tonnes in 2018-19.

In terms of annual growth rate, total food production and rice have registered negative growth rate in 8 years out of 18 years. Growth rate of coarse cereals registered negative growth rate in 10 years out of 18 years and for pluses, negative growth rate registered in 7 years out of 18 years.

Table 1: Production of Food Crops in Tamil Nadu

Year	Food Crops (Thousand Tonnes)				Per cent of Growth			
	Food-grains	Rice	Coarse cereals	Pulses	Food-grains	Rice	Coarse cereals	Pulses
2000-01	8616.8	7366.3	937.8	312.7				
2001-02	7731.9	6584.0	834.0	313.9	-10.3	-10.6	-11.1	0.4
2002-03	4442.1	3577.1	682.8	182.2	-42.5	-45.7	-18.1	-42.0
2003-04	4406.6	3222.8	983.0	200.8	-0.8	-9.9	44.0	10.2
2004-05	6175.8	5062.2	868.0	245.6	40.1	57.1	-11.7	22.3
2005-06	6127.2	5220.0	730.2	177.0	-0.8	3.1	-15.9	-27.9
2006-07	8263.0	6610.6	1361.9	290.5	34.9	26.6	86.5	64.1
2007-08	6582.3	5040.2	1357.1	185.0	-20.3	-23.8	-0.4	-36.3
2008-09	7102.3	5182.7	1755.1	164.5	7.9	2.8	29.3	-11.1
2009-10	7511.4	5665.2	1642.0	204.1	5.8	9.3	-6.4	24.1
2010-11	7594.9	5792.4	1556.5	246.0	1.1	2.2	-5.2	20.5
2011-12	10151.8	7458.7	2323.8	369.3	33.7	28.8	49.3	50.1
2012-13	5592.8	4049.9	1333.0	209.9	-44.9	-45.7	-42.6	-43.2
2013-14	8783.2	5349.8	2819.7	613.8	57.0	32.1	111.5	192.4
2014-15	9460.2	5839.0	2974.0	647.2	7.7	9.1	5.5	5.4
2015-16	11478.5	7517.1	3406.6	554.8	21.3	28.7	14.5	-14.3
2016-17	4141.6	2369.4	1345.2	427.1	-63.9	-68.5	-60.5	-23.0
2017-18	10713.6	6638.9	3518.4	556.3	158.7	180.2	161.6	30.3
2018-19	10402.6	6454.7	3380.6	567.3	-2.9	-2.8	-3.9	2.0

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, 2019

Production of Non-Food Crops

Production of non-food grain in Tamil Nadu has declined 34949.6 thousand tonnes in 2000-01 to 17384.6 thousand tonnes in 2018-19. This declined sharped in the last four years from 2014-15 to 2018-19. Among the non-food crops, sugarcane is the major crop in Tamil Nadu. Sugarcane production was 33188.0 thousand tonnes in 2000-01 to 16207.6 thousand tonnes in 2018-19. Second major non-food crop is oil seeds, production of oil seeds in Tamil Nadu had highly vacillated over the period of 2000-01 to 2018-19. Production of oil seeds was 1441.7 thousand tonnes in 2000-01 to declined 908.0 thousand tonnes in 2018-19. In the production of cotton, 316.6 lint to declined

269.0 lint during 2000-01 to 2018-19. The raw jute production in Tamil Nadu has insignificant. For growth rate of non-food crop registered negative in 12 years out of 18 years during 2000-01 to 2018-19. Oil seed registered negative of 11 years out of 18 years, cotton registered 7 years out of 18 years and sugarcane registered 12 years of out 18 years.

Table 2: Production of Non-Food Crops in Tamil Nadu

Year	Non-Food Crops(Thousand Tonnes)					Growth Rate			
	Non-Food Grains	Oilseeds	Cotton (Lint)	Sugarcane	Raw Jute & Mesta	Non-Food Grains	Oilseeds	Cotton (Lint)	Sugarcane
2000-01	34949.6	1441.7	316.6	33188.0	3.3	-	-	-	-
2001-02	34260.7	1313.0	326.1	32620.0	1.6	-2.0	-8.9	3.0	-1.7
2002-03	25012.8	760.0	83.5	24165.4	3.9	-27.0	-42.1	-74.4	-25.9
2003-04	18745.8	963.6	122.7	17656.0	3.5	-25.1	26.8	46.9	-26.9
2004-05	24653.0	1061.1	194.8	23396.0	1.1	31.5	10.1	58.8	32.5
2005-06	36472.7	1152.9	213.3	35106.5	0.0	47.9	8.7	9.5	50.1
2006-07	42428.4	1083.5	220.9	41124.0	0.0	16.3	-6.0	3.6	17.1
2007-08	39418.4	1146.7	200.7	38071.0	0.0	-7.1	5.8	-9.1	-7.4
2008-09	34035.1	1043.0	187.7	32804.4	0.0	-13.7	-9.0	-6.5	-13.8
2009-10	30910.2	939.6	225.0	29745.6	0.0	-9.2	-9.9	19.9	-9.3
2010-11	35634.9	933.1	450.0	34251.8	0.0	15.3	-0.7	100.0	15.1
2011-12	40139.4	1113.7	450.0	38575.7	0.0	12.6	19.4	0.0	12.6
2012-13	35236.1	816.9	500.0	33919.2	0.0	-12.2	-26.6	11.1	-12.1
2013-14	33826.3	964.2	408.0	32454.1	0.0	-4.0	18.0	-18.4	-4.3
2014-15	26214.5	961.1	786.0	24462.8	4.6	-22.5	-0.3	92.6	-24.6
2015-16	26795.3	932.2	369.0	25494.1	0.0	2.20	-3.0	-53.1	4.2
2016-17	19950.7	604.1	359.0	18987.6	0.0	-25.5	-35.2	-2.7	-25.5
2017-18	18637.0	1038.0	445.0	17154.0	0.0	-6.6	71.8	24.0	-9.7
2018-19	17384.6	908.0	269.0	16207.6	0.0	-6.7	-12.5	-39.6	-5.5

Source:Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, 2019

Conclusion

The above analysis found that the agricultural production in Tamil Nadu has declined sharply. This declining occurred both food crop production and non-food crop production. The non-food crops production fall sharply than food crops. In the decomposition of food crops like rice data indicated fall in production, coarse cereals and pulses has increased. Thus, the corroborate evidence shows that the cultivation of paddy is not viable in terms of cost and price. Decomposition of non-food crops data shows that all the crops likes, oil seeds, cotton and sugarcane as declined. Policy maker is to reconsider the agricultural policy and to guarantee food security to the societies.

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NON-PERFORMING ASSETS IN PUBLIC SECTOR BANKS IN INDIA:

A TREND ANALYSIS

J. Jayanthan*

Dr. A. Antony Joseph**

ABSTRACT

The Indian banking system plays a vital role in the development of its sound economy. Non-performing assets are one of the major concerns for public sector banks in India. The paper highlights the most significant factors contributing towards the problem of non-performing assets from the point of view of public sector banks. The study is based on the secondary data. The present study has focused on the trends in various components of non-performing assets of public sector banks. Three assets classification is: Standard assets being the good quality of loan assets, on the other hand, sub-standard assets, doubtful assets, and loss assets put together constitutes Non Performing Assets. The study found that there is a minor improvement in the asset quality reflected by a decline in the diverse NPA percentage. The securitization and reconstruction of financial assets and enforcement of security interest act (SARFAESI Act) contributed to about near 80 % of the total recovered amount in 2012-13, followed by debt recovery tribunals (DRTs). Another important result of this paper the recovery of bad loans supervisor is to control the NPA level of public sector banks due to willful default.

Key Words: NPA, Public Sector Banks, Recovery

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Introduction

Banking in India has a long history and it has evolved over the years passing through various phases. The Indian banking system has undergone noteworthy transformation following financial sector reforms, and at present, it is passing through a decisive phase. The failure of the banking sector may have an adverse impact on

other sectors. Non-performing assets are one of the major concerns for public sector banks in India. NPAs reflect the performance of banks. A high level of NPAs suggests a high probability of a large number of credit defaults that affect the profitability and net-worth of banks and also erodes the value of the asset. India is adopting international best practices in the area of regulation and supervision with a view to strengthening the banking sector.

A non-performing asset (NPA) is the money lent to an individual that does not earn income and full payment of principal and interest is no longer anticipated, and payment in full has not been made (Boudriga et al 2009). The issue of non-performing assets has, therefore, gained increasing attention since the immediate consequence of a large amount of NPAs in the banking system is a cause of bank failure. Thus deregulation has opened up new avenues for banks to augment income; it has also exposed the sector to greater risk of nonperforming assets. It is obvious as a result of banking sector reforms the opportunities and challenges in the banking sector have augmented. Classification of what an NPA has changed with tightening of prudential norms. Currently, an asset is "non-performing" if interest or installments of principal due remain unpaid for more than 180 days.

Statement of Problem

The study relates to the credit advances and recovery of loans by banks and financial institutions. The problem of non-performing assets is the main problem for the entire public sector banks. There are different reasons for Non-performing assets for different banks. The main reason for a high percentage of NPA's is the target-oriented approach, which deteriorates the qualitative aspect of lending. Apart from this, some defaults are willful, ineffective supervision of loan accounts and lack of technical and managerial expertise on the part of borrowers. The paper highlights the most significant factors contributing towards the problem of non-performing assets from the point of view of public sector banks.

Methodology

The study is based on the secondary data. The present study has focused on the trends in various components of non-performing assets of public sector banks, the performance of various bank groups on their non performing assets during the study period 2003 to 2013. For analysis of the data, important statistical tools viz. percentage and compound growth rate have been used to arrive at conclusions in a scientific way.

Analysis and Discussions

Table 1 shows the trend in gross and net NPA from 2007-2013. As would be observed there has been a sharp and significant decline in *gross* NPA period 2010-11. The more significant feature of the decline is that the gap between GNPA and NNPA has also narrowed down.

Table-1

**Trends of Non Performing Assets in Public Sector Banks (2007-2013)
(Amount in Billions)**

Year	Gross NPA	Gross NPA Ratio (%)	Net NPA	Net NPA Ratio (%)
2007-08	404.52	2.2	178.36	1
2008-09	449.57	2.0	211.55	0.9
2009-10	599.26	2.2	293.75	1.1
2010-11	746.00	2.4	360	1.2
2011-12	1172	3.3	591	1.7
2012-13	1650	4.1	900	2.0

Source: Report on Trend and Progress of Banking in India for the Year End 2013

Categories of Assets

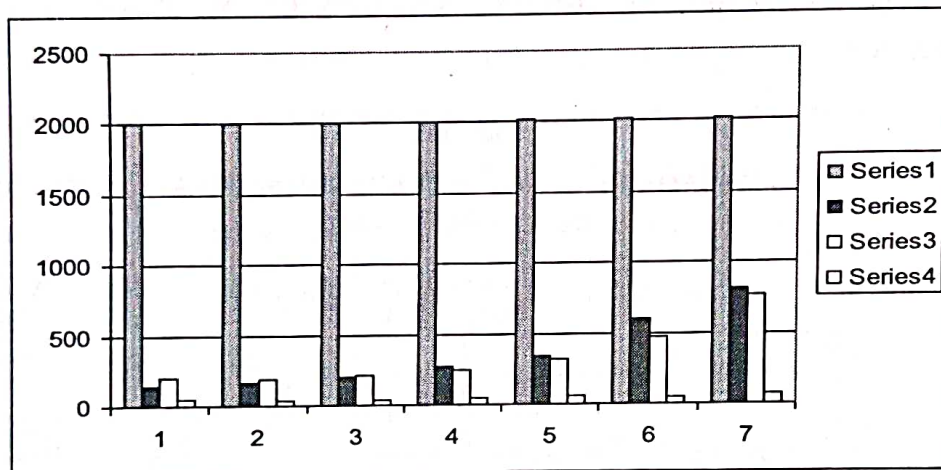
Loan assets of banks are classified into four categories i.e. standard assets, sub-standard assets, doubtful assets, and loss assets. Standard assets being the good quality of loan assets, on the other hand, sub-standard assets, doubtful assets, and loss assets put together constitute Non Performing Assets.

Table-2

Classification of Assets of Public Sector Banks (2007-2013) (Amount in Billions) (Rs.)

Years	Sub-Standard Assets	Doubt Assets	Loss Assets
2007	139.45	199.70	45.10
2008	168.70	190.68	36.68
2009	195.21	207.08	38.03
2010	276.85	246.79	49.28
2011	336.12	319.55	55.14
2012	603.76	470.75	50.37
2013	815.00	761.00	68.00

Source: Department of Banking supervision, Reserve Bank of India 2013.



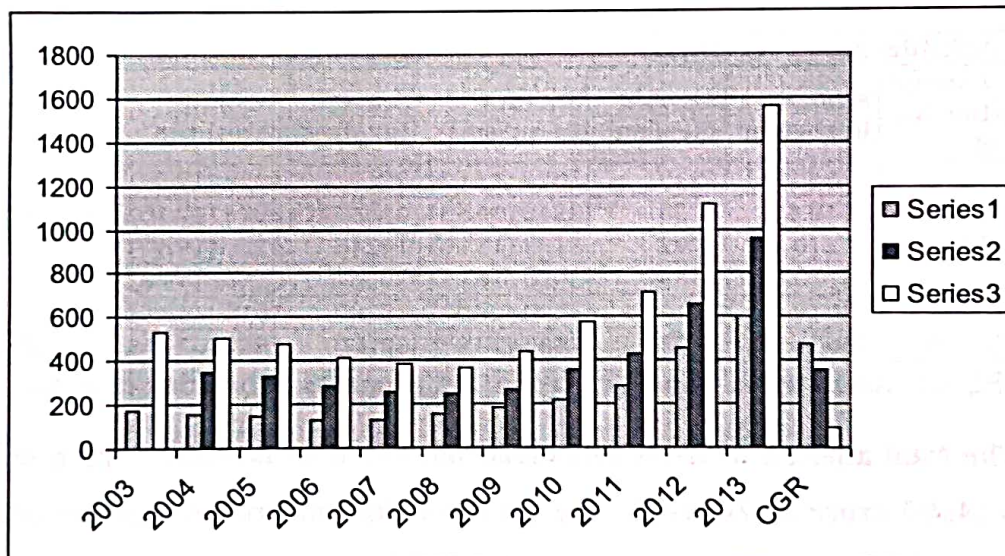
In Table-2 Substandard Assets showed an increase from the year 2007 to 2013. Doubtful Assets showed a decrease in 2007 to 2008 but further increased to 17.60 in 2009. Loss Assets showed a decrease from 8.42 in 2008 to 2007. This indicates an up and down trend of financial soundness of Public Sector Banks.

Table-3

NPAs in Public Sector Banks 2003-2013 (Amount in Billions) (Rs.)

Years	Category		
	State Banks & its Associates	Nationalized Banks	Public Sector Banks
2003	169.58	358.49	528.07
2004	151.59	349.90	501.49
2005	148.09	328.88	476.97
2006	131.94	281.85	413.79
2007	125.56	257.49	383.05
2008	152.21	243.80	369.01
2009	178.74	261.62	440.36
2010	218.30	354.63	572.93
2011	281.40	429.41	710.81
2012	456.95	659.69	1116.64
2013	599.18	959.00	1558.63
CGR	476.98	352.638	90.909

Source: Department of Banking Supervision, Reserve Bank of India 2013CGR-compound growth rate



An analysis of the NPA of public sector banks was over the period from 2003 to 2013 (Table.3). As is evident from the above figure, the NPAs in public sector banks were declining from 2003 to 2008. From 2009 onwards this was reversed.

Loan Restructuring and Various Recovery Channels

The rising NPAs in the recent period can be attributed to the effects of the Indian recession coupled with internal factors like the slowdown in the domestic economy which had adversely affected the performance of agriculture as well as small and medium farmers, leading to a negative impact on credit quality. In the recent past, there has also been a rapid increase in the retail loans segment, combined with some deterioration in NAPs of retail assets.

The recent year's banks restructuring of bad loans has been one of the important means to contain NPAs. The RBI had issued guidelines on restructuring of advances in August 2008 according to which banks were allowed to restructure accounts classified as standard, substandard and doubtful viable entities. As per the January 2009 guidelines of RBI, banks have been permitted to retain their standard asset classification after restructuring, provided certain conditions are fulfilled.

Table - 4: NPAs Recovered Through Various Channels (Amount in Crore)

Year	Lok Adalats		DRTs		SARFAESI		Total	
	Amount Involved	Amount Recovered	Amount Involved	Amount Recovered	Amount Involved	Amount recovered	Amount Involved	Amount Recovered
2007-08	2142	176 (0.76)	5819	3020 (13.02)	7263	4429 (19.09)	15224	7625
2008-09	4023	96 (0.41)	4130	3348 (14.43)	12067	3982 (17.16)	20220	7426
2009-10	7235	112 (0.48)	9797	3133 (13.50)	14249	4269 (18.40)	31281	7514
2010-11	5254	151 (0.65)	14092	3930 (16.94)	30604	11561 (49.83)	49950	15642
2011-12	1700	200 (0.86)	24100	4100 (17.67)	35300	10100 (43.53)	61100	14400
2012-13	6600	400 (1.72)	31000	4400 (18.97)	68100	18500 (79.74)	10580	23200

Source: RBI, various issues of report on trend and progress of banking in India

The total amount of NPAs recovered increased to Rs.23200 crore in 2012-13 from Rs.14400 crore in 2011-12. The securitization and reconstruction of financial assets and enforcement of security interest act (SARFAESI Act) contributed to about near 80 % of the total recovered amount in 2012-13, followed by debt recovery tribunals (DRTs). The SARFAESI Act has been the most effective way to recover NPAs followed by DRTs. Recoveries made through Lok Adalats, in contrast, remained dismal throughout the period under review.

Conclusion

The study conducted on the topic "Non-Performing Assets in Public Sector Banks in India: A Trend Analysis", found that there is a minor improvement in the asset quality reflected by a decline in the diverse NPA percentage. But even then the quantum of NPAs is alarming with public sector banks in India since NPA being as an important parameter for assessing the financial performance of banks. The level of NPAs will deter the financial health in terms of profitability, liquidity, and economies of scale in operation. The bank has to take timely action against the humiliation of good performing assets. Another important result of this paper the recovery of bad loans supervisor is to control the NPA level of public sector banks due to willful default; the supervisor will choose a lower level of loan capacity. However, such a policy of the supervisor will also exercise a downward pressure on the profit level of the public sector banks. So, the supervisor faces a transaction between higher incidence of willful default and higher profit of the public sector banks.

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A STUDY ON NON-PERFORMING ASSETS IN KURUNJIPADI BLOCK OF CUDDALORE DISTRICT, TAMIL NADU

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ABSTRACT

India is an agriculturally predominant country where about 75 percent of the population is dependent on it. Since the breakthrough in agricultural production technology, farm credit comprising of about 60 percent short-term credit and 40 percent term credit played a crucial role in stepping up agricultural production and employment in India. NPAs are classified under three categories-Substandard, Doubtful and Loss. The present study is an attempt to examine the short-term agricultural credit in an agriculturally important district of Tamil Nadu. The study is based on primary data collected from 120, 50 marginal and 70 small randomly selected from 6 villages in kurunjipadi block in Cuddalore district. The data pertain to the agricultural year 2012-2013. To analysis was attempted to examine the requirement, availability and short-term agricultural credit from different lending agencies. The credit included the interest charges paid by borrower cultivators, opportunity value of time spent in getting a loan. The short-term loans, the marginal and small farmers obtained seeds, irrigation and fertilizer alone and not for the purchase of tractor and land. The repayment is high in non-institutional banks as compared to institutional banks. The government has to encourage the farmers to repay the loans by offering some discounts/Zero interest. For the farmers those repay regularly must have given some priority in sanction of more loans without delay.

Key Words: NPAs, Agricultural Credit, Institutional and Non-Institution

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INTRODUCTION

India is an agriculturally predominant country where about 75 percent of the population is dependent on it. Since the breakthrough in agricultural production technology, farm credit comprising of about 60 percent short-term credit and 40 percent term credit played a crucial role in stepping up agricultural production and employment in India. The opening up of thousands of branches of commercial banks after the nationalization of commercial banks in 1969 has helped not only in the expansion of rural credit supply but also mobilization of rural savings. The development agriculture depends upon the new technologies which in turn, depend on the massive use of capital. The capital has become one of the crucial factors in determining the kinds, quantity, and quality of agricultural production of a country. However, it is felt that with increasing involvement of credit institutions the lending quality is diluted and credit increased.

In India, NPAs are characterized under three classifications Sub-standard, Doubtful and Loss on the premise of the quantity of months the sum is late for. India proposed to move from 180 days to a 90-day past due to order standard for NPA distinguishment viable March 2004. The RBI has characterized the expression "resolved defaulter" preparing for banks to obtain possessions of defaulting organizations through the Securitisation Ordinance and lessen their NPAs quicker. As indicated by the RBI a stubborn defaulter is one who has not utilized bank reserves for the reason for which it was taken and who has not reimbursed advances in spite of having satisfactory liquidity. Universal credit score office Standard & Poor has evaluated that the level of horrible dangerous holdings in India can move into the 35-70 for every penny go in the occasion of a subsidence. It has likewise assessed that the level of non-performing Assets (NPAs) in the framework to be at 25 for every penny, of which just 30 for every penny might be recuperated. On the off chance that all endeavors of up-degree and rebuilding of NPA records fall flat, banks use distinctive strategies for the recuperation of credits. Contingent upon the fleeting credits and underlying security, banks take suitable recuperation measures. The example of the conclusion of recuperation endeavors gives a sign as to the viability of every mode of recovery.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Small and marginal farmers need agricultural credit since their capital is locked up in their loans and stock. To need funds to meet their operational expenses. Their agricultural credit need is high at the time of crop season. Due to these reasons they depend mostly on credit even for normal agricultural operations and have to pay a part of their income by way of interest later. The problems and requirements for agricultural credit arise largely from the seasonal cycle of agricultural production which is superimposed on a largely perpetual and steady pattern of continuous consumption. The present study on short-term agricultural credit for marginal and small farmers in Kurunjipati block of Cuddalore district, Tamil Nadu.

The RBI defines the provisioning requirement for impaired assets as a function of time and security. An illustration of the difference in accounting for NPA is that for Indian banks, an asset is reckoned as NPA when principal or interest are past due for 180 days as compared with 90 days. The problem of NPAs is a danger to the banks because it destroys the healthy financial conditions of them. The trust of the people would not be anymore if the banks have higher NPAs. So, the problem of NPAs must be tackled out in such a way that would not destroy the operational, financial conditions and would not affect the image of the banks. Recently, RBI has taken number steps to reduce NPAs of the Indian banks. To aims at the intensive coverage of selected areas for meeting the priority sector agricultural credit, needs, especially the agricultural credit requirements and ensuring effective supervision over the use of lending in institution and non-institution. Cuddalore district has a number of villages and possesses large areas of agricultural lands. Agricultural is the main occupation of the rural population in the district. So, an in-depth analysis of these problems and issues becomes essential. This is the reason for selecting the short-term agricultural credit for marginal and small farmers in Cuddalore district.

METHODOLOGY

The present study is an attempt to examine the short-term agricultural credit in an agriculturally important district of Cuddalore Tamil Nadu. The study is based on primary data collected from 120 farmers, that is, 50 marginal and 70 small farmers from Kurunjipati block in Cuddalore district. The data pertain to the agricultural year 2012-2013. The tabular analysis was attempted to examine the requirement, availability and short-term agricultural credit borrowing from two agencies (institutional and non-institutional). Institutions are commercial banks and SBI bank and non-institutions are chit funds, moneylender, relative and friends.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

1. Credit Disbursement:-

The marginal and small farmers have availed loan from institutional and non-institutional banks. In total, Rs. 13, 93,180 is received from institutional banks and 93 farmers benefited from the loan (see table-1). In particular, 56 farmers from the Commercial bank and 37 from SBI and associate banks availed the loan. Commercial banks have given more amounts of loan and small farmers availed more amounts. Regard to non-institutional banks, Rs. 13, 59,910 is borrowed by the farmers in total and there is no wide variation in approaching an institutional and non-institutional bank for a loan by the farmers. From relatives and friends, 79 farmers have borrowed more (Rs. 8, 49,480) as compared to money lenders and chit funds.

Table-1

Institutional and Non- Institutional Credit Disbursement [in Rs.]

Category	Marginal Farmers	Small Farmers	Total
Institutional Banks	(n=50)	(n=70)	(N=120)
Commercial Bank	345360 (22)	422550 (34)	767910 (56)
SBI and Associate Bank	275800 (16)	349470 (21)	625270 (37)
Total	621160	772020	1393180
Non-Institutional Banks			
Moneylender	115400 (21)	175580 (26)	290980 (47)
Chit funds	98750 (14)	120700 (19)	219450 (33)
Relative and Friends	360700 (32)	488780 (47)	849480 (79)
Total	574850	785060	1359910

Source: Computed

Note: Figure in parentheses denotes the no. of the farmer not repaid the loan.

2. Non Performing Assets:-

Table-2 gives the details of non-performing assets of the surveyed farmers. For the institutional banks, Rs. 8, 59,390 has to be repaid and 76 farmers have not paid the amounts. In the case of non-institutional banks, Rs. 1, 02,640 has to be repaid and 25 farmers have to repay the same. Thus, it is evident that the repayment is high in non-institutional banks as compared to institutional banks. The farmers expect that the government may waive the loans in future and refuse to repay the same. But, in the case of non-institutional banks, the farmers have to repay where the interest rate is high.

Table-2

Non Performing Assets of the Surveyed Farmers

Category	Marginal Farmers	Small Farmers	Total
Institutional Banks	(n=50)	(n=70)	(N=120)
Commercial Bank	215700 (18)	296450 (21)	512150 (47)
SBI and Associate Bank	113450 (12)	233790 (17)	347240 (30)
Total	329150	530240	859390
Non-Institutional Banks			
Moneylender	11800 (5)	26290 (4)	38090 (9)
Chit funds	2450 (3)	2500 (2)	4950 (5)
Relative and Friends	22750 (7)	36850 (4)	59600 (11)
Total	37000	65640	102640

Source: Computed

Note: Figure in parentheses denotes the no. of farmer's not repaid the loan

3. Percentage of Non Performing Assets:-

Table-3 gives the percentage of non-performing assets in the surveyed regions. In total, the repayment is high (more than 80%) in institutional banks whereas it is low (less than 20%) in non-institutional banks. Thus, it is confirmed that the repayment is poor among the farmers and it depends upon the banks. The farmers have a dual financial transaction in repayment of the loan. The non-performing assets are high for Institutional as compared to non-Institutional banks.

Table-3

Percentage of Non-Performing Assets of the Surveyed Farmers

Category	Marginal Farmers			Small Farmers			Total		
	Credit Received	Non-Payment	%	Credit Received	Non-Payment	%	Credit Received	Non-Payment	%
Institutional Banks									
Commercial Bank	22	18	81.8	34	29	85.3	56	47	89.3
SBI and Associate Bank	16	12	75.0	21	17	80.9	37	30	86.5
Non-Institutional Banks									
Moneylender	21	5	23.8	26	4	15.4	47	9	19.1
Chit funds	14	3	21.4	19	2	10.5	33	5	15.2
Relative and Friends	32	7	21.9	47	4	8.5	79	11	13.9

Source: Computed

CONCLUSION AND POLICY SUGGESTIONS

Commercial banks have given more amounts of loan and small farmers availed more amounts. There is no wide variation in approaching an institutional and non-institutional bank for a loan by the farmers. The repayment is high in non-institutional banks as compared to institutional banks. The farmers expect that the government may waive the loans in future and refuse to repay the same. But, in the case of non-institutional banks, the farmers have to repay where the interest rate is high. The government has to encourage the farmers to repay the loans by offering some discounts/ Zero interest. For the farmers those repay regularly must have given some priority in sanction of more loans without delay. If this is mandated, the farmers may come forward to repay regularly and level of non-performing assets may come down drastically.

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NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF AGRICULTURAL LABOUR MIGRATION: A STUDY OF SITHERI VILLAGE IN VILUPPURAM DISTRICT OF TAMIL NADU

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Abstract

This paper examined the causes, nature, place and days of employment of out-migration of agricultural labourers in the Sitheri Village of Kanai block of Viluppuram district. The total sample size of agricultural labourers was 115 and the simple random sample was used in the study. This paper examined the causes, nature, place and days of employment of out-migration of agricultural labourers in the Sitheri Village of Kanai block of Viluppuram district. The total sample size of agricultural labourers was 115 and the simple random sample was used in the study. The main focus of the study was to examine the characteristics of migration of agricultural labourers. The migrant workers were migrating to rural to urban and majorities were migrated to Chennai, followed by Thiruchy and Pondi. Urban migrant worker were mostly occupied in the construction sectors, load man in urban areas, and service provider in the restaurant/hotels. During the course of study, it was observed that the male members only migrated and female and child were resided in the same village.

Introduction

This paper examined the causes, nature, place and days of employment of out-migration of agricultural labourers in the Sitheri Village of Kanai block of Viluppuram district. The total sample size of agricultural labourers was 115 and the simple random sample was used in the study.

Migration of Agricultural Labour

Related to the migration six questions were asked to agricultural labour. First question, are you migrated for seeking agricultural employment in adjacent villages and second question was searching employment to other than agricultural employment in outside the villages. Third question was place of migration, fourth question was nature of employment, fifth question was days of employment and finally wage rate. For searching agricultural employment in outside the villages/neighboring, the result revealed that 82 per cent of agricultural labourers were regularly moved to adjacent villages and 18 per cent were worked within the village (see table 1). Agricultural labourers were moved to adjacent villages for agricultural employment during the slack season in the native villages as normal in the study villages.

Table 1: Migration of Agricultural Employment

Migration	Number of Agricultural Labourers	Percent
Yes	94	81.79
No	21	18.21
Total	115	100.00

Source: Field Survey

Causes of Migration

There were different causes of migration, which were lack of employment, lack of income, low wage, and preference for non-agricultural workers. The table 2 given below shows that, nearly 49 per cent of agricultural workers were reported that the lack of agricultural and non-agricultural employment in the village causes push to migrate. 22 per

cent of agricultural labourers had stated that lack of income was the causes to migrate, 19 per cent reported low wage was the causes to migrate and 9.57 per cent of workers reported to that they prefer for non-agricultural work in the outside of the villages.

Table 2: Causes of Migration

Causes of Migration	Number of Agricultural Labourers	Percent
Lack of Employment	46	48.93
Lack of Income	21	22.34
Low Wages	18	19.14
Preference for Non-agricultural Work	9	9.57
Total	94	100.00

Source: Field Survey

The question was seeking employment other than agricultural employment in nearest town or cities. The result revealed that the out of 115 sample respondents 37.39 per cent of workers were migrated for non-agricultural employment during the slack seasons in agriculture (see table 3).

Table 3: Migration for Non-Agricultural Employment

Migration	Number of Agricultural Labourers	Percent
Yes	43	37.39
No	72	62.61
Total	115	100.00

Source: Field Survey

Place of Migration

For place of migration for employment the place was Chennai, Pondicherry, and Thiruchy. Out of 43 migrant workers, nearly 40 per cent of workers were seasonally migrated to Chennai, 27.91 per cent were migrated to Pondicherry and 32.56 per cent were migrated to Thiruchy.

Table 4: Place of Migration

Place of Migration	Number of Agricultural Labourers	Percent
Chennai	17	39.53
Pondicherry	12	27.91
Thiruchy	14	32.56
Total	43	100.00

Source: Field Survey

Nature of Employment of Migrant Workers

Among the agricultural migrant workers were occupied in casual workers in construction activities, load man, service provider in hotel. Among the 43 migrant workers, 72 per cent were engaged in construction work, 16.28 per cent were load man and 12 per cent were worked as service provider in hotel industry.

Table 5: Nature of Employment of Migrant Workers

Occupation	Number of Agricultural Labourers	Percent
Construction Workers	31	72.09
Load Man	7	16.28
Service Provider in Hotel	5	11.62
Total	43	100.00

Source: Field Survey

Days of Employment and Wage of Migrant Workers

Table 6 depicts the days of employment in the last one year. Among the out migrant, 28 per cent of workers were migrated to 31 days to 40 days, 21 per cent were between 41 days to 50 days 16.28 per cent were 51 days to 60 days, 14 per cent were 71 days to 80 days, 9.30 per cent were less than 30 days and nearly 5 per cent were above 81 days. The survey found that they were not continuously stayed in migrant place and they were frequently visited the home village. For wage rate, all the construction workers reported that per day wage was Rs.220. But in the load man reported that wage rate was not fixed, it depend upon the number of Lorries come in the market place. The load man reported that sometime earned Rs.1000 and sometime Rs.200. Service provider in the hotel reported that per day wage was Rs.200 and in addition to this free food and accommodation were arranged.

Table 6: Days of Employment

Days of Employment	Number of Agricultural Labourers	Percent
Less than 30 Days	4	9.30
31 Days to 40 Days	12	27.90
41 Days to 50 Days	9	20.93
51 Days to 60 Days	7	16.28
61 Days to 70 Days	3	6.97
71 Days to 80 Days	6	13.95
Above 81 Days	2	4.65
Total	43	100.00

Source: Field Survey

Conclusion

The main focus of the study was to examine the characteristics of migration of agricultural labourers. This study village witnesses the lack of employment opportunities in agriculture and non-agriculture employment with in and neighboring villages. The migrant workers were migrating to rural to urban and majorities were migrated to Chennai, followed by Thiruchy and Pondi. Urban migrant worker were mostly occupied in the construction sectors, load man in urban areas, and service provider in the restaurant/hotels. During the course of study, it was observed that the male members only migrated and female and child were resided in the same village.

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ECONOMIC CONDITION OF LANDLESS AGRICULTURAL LABOUR IN INDIA: A CASE STUDY OF VILLAGE IN TIRUVANNAMALAI DISTRICT OF TAMIL NADU

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Abstract

This study examine the socio-economic condition of landless agricultural labour in Tamil Nadu. This study explore preset economic status of the rural labour particularly agricultural labour. This paper highlighted on educational, employment, income and household amenities of agricultural labour in recent time period. This study indicated well-being of rural working class

Key Word: agricultural labour-rural labour

Introduction

As per 2011 Census, total number of workers in India has 481.9 million and among this half million (54.6 per cent) workers were agricultural workers (263.1 million). This agricultural workers were classified into cultivators and agricultural labour. The number of cultivators was 11.8 million (45.1 per cent) and agricultural labour was 144.3 million (54.9 per cent). Consumption expenditure of the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSOs) reports reported that the lowest consumption expenditure in the rural household as agricultural labour. In this context, this present study examine the socio-economic conditions, employment, wage and income of the agricultural labour household in Munivanthangal village of Thiruvannamalai district of Tamil Nadu. This paper as follows, after the introduction, second section provided on methodology, third section deals on socio-economic conditions, fourth section deals on employment and wage and final section present conclusion.

Methodology

This study was based on primary data and this data collection from Munivanthangal Village in Polur taluk, Tiruvannamalai district of Tamil Nadu. Census was conducted in the village in January to March in 2019. The Census found 240 household in the village. Among the household, cultivators 71, non-agricultural labour households 33, agricultural labour with landholding 69 and landless agricultural labour 67. On the above basis this study covered all landless agricultural labour households.

Social Background of Landless Labour in the Study Village

Social background of the sample respondents is shown in the table 1. Out of 67 landless agricultural labour, male was 38.81 per cent and female was 61.19 per cent. This clearly evidence that the agricultural labour market in the village is feminized. Religion and caste is the important social factors to determine the supply of agricultural labour in India. In the context, researcher exposed composition of religion and caste. Majority were Hindus (83.58 per cent) and followed by Christian (16.42). For caste composition, Scheduled Castes were 45 per cent, followed by Most Backward Castes (M.B.Cs) were 48 per cent, and Backward Castes (B.Cs) were 8 per cent. For marital status of the sample respondents, 88 per cent were married and 12.0 per cent were widow.

Table 1: Social Background of the Agricultural Labour

Social Background	Number of Respondents	Percent
Gender		

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Male	26	38.81
Female	41	61.19
Religion		
Hindu	56	83.58
Christian	11	16.42
Caste		
SCs	30	44.77
M.B.Cs	32	47.76
B.Cs	5	7.47
Marital Status		
Married	59	88.05
Widow	8	11.95

Source: Field Survey

Age of the Agricultural Labour

Age of the workers is determined the supply of agricultural labour and on the basis the workers age were classified into five categories (see table 2). Majority of the agricultural labour were positioned in the age of 31 to 50, the age group of above 50 and below age of 30 registered lower percentage. Around 39 per cent of respondents were in the category of 41-50 age group, followed by 27.0 per cent in the age group of 31-40 per cent, 18.0 per cent were in the age group of 51-60, 12.0 per cent in the age group of 21-30 and 4.47 per cent in above the age of 60.

Table 2: Age of the Agricultural Labour

Age	Number of Respondents	Percent
21-30	8	11.94
31-40	18	26.86
41-50	26	38.80
51-60	12	17.93
Above 60	3	4.47
Total	67	100

Source: Field Survey

Literacy and Educational Status of the Agricultural Labour

Educational status determined the occupational mobility of the workers. In the study villages(see table 3), 12 per cent were illiterate, under primary education was 25.37 per cent, high school 51 per cent, higher secondary 7.48 per cent, degree around 3 per cent and diploma holders 1 per cent. This clearly evidence that the agricultural labour was illiterate and lower level of educational status

Table 3: Level of Education

Education	Number of Respondents	Percent
Illiterate	8	11.94
Primary (1st-5 th Standard)	17	25.37
High School (6 th -10 th Standard)	34	50.74
Higher Secondary (11th-12 th Standard)	5	7.48
Degree	2	2.98
Diploma	1	1.49
TOTAL	67	100

Source: Field Survey

Function of Labour Market in the Study Village

Agricultural labour in the study village have involved two types of labour: (a) casual labour and (ii) contract labour or piece rate workers. Casual labour received wage on daily basis from the employers or cultivators or landowners. The wage rate fluctuates on season to season, different agricultural occupation, such as transplanting of paddy, weeding, repair and harvesting. On the other hand, contract labour, worked on two or more than two person joined together or form a group to do work. Before doing a particular work total wage amount is fixed and the total wage amount is distributed among the group workers. In the contract labour system there is no fixing hours and in the casual labour system workers were hired on fixed time .Generally working time in the village has 7.30 am to 1.30 pm.

Occupational Mobility of the Agricultural Labour

Out of 67 respondents, 97 per cent reported that they entered this work before marriage and only 3 per cent reported that they enter the labour market after marriage. So, marriage is not obstacle to enter in the agricultural labour market. Further, researcher exposed the different type of occupation in the occupational history of the respondents revealed 96 per cent reported that this present occupation is the first occupation and only 4 per cent reported that other occupation such as construction work, bullock cards, toddy taping as the first occupation.

In the inter-general mobility of the sample respondents revealed that 86 per cent reported that their father occupation as cultivators and 14 per cent reported that their father as agricultural labour. For mother occupation, all the respondents reported that their mother as agricultural labour.

Employment and Wage

Availability of employment in the study villages is limited and therefore labour moved to neighboring villages to search employment. But the wage rate is same in all surrounding villages in the same occupations. In the days of employment (see table 4), 73 per cent of labour reported that they worked between 180 days to 200 days. 17.9 per cent of labour reported in between 150 days to 179 days and 9per cent of labour reported to work less than 150 days.

Table 4; Days of Employment in the Study Village

Days of Employment	Number of Respondents	Percent
Less than 150 Days	6	9.0
151 Days to 179 Days	12	17.9
Above 180 Days	49	73.1
TOTAL	67	100

Source: Filed Survey

Wage rate varied from male and female for different operation. The entire plough operation in the study village based on tractors and the other agricultural work rate as follows in the table 5. The rate of wage clearly indicated discrimination against women workers.

Table 5

Wage Rate for Male and Female in the Study Village (per day)

Different Operation	Male	Female
Transplanting	Rs.180	Rs.150
Weeding	Rs.100	Rs.80
Harvesting	Rs.150	Rs.130
Digging	Rs.200	-
Fertilizers	Rs.200	-
Pesticides	Rs.350	-

Source: Field Survey

Annual Income Agricultural Labour

Income of the agricultural labour was classified into 4 categories; out of 67 respondents, 57 per cent were reported to earn the income between Rs.10,001 to Rs.20,000, followed by 22.39 per cent were in Rs.20,001 to Rs.30,000, 17.92 per cent were below Rs.10,000 and 2.98 per cent were in above Rs.30,001.

Table 6: Annual Income Agricultural Labour

Annual Income	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Below Rs.10,000	12	17.92
Rs.10,001 to Rs.20,000	38	56.71
Rs.20,001 to Rs.30,000	15	22.39
Above Rs.30, 001	2	2.98
Total	67	100

Source: Field Survey

Household Amenities

All the respondents reported that they have own houses and the quality of house varied. Out of 67 respondents, 33 per cent reported that they have thatched house, 21 per cent reported tiles house and 46.27 reported concrete house. All the respondents reported that they have connected electricity, 97 per cent reported to access piped water near the house, 82 per cent reported to have LPG as cooking, 44 per cent reported they have bathroom facilities, and 28 per cent have toilet facilities. In addition to this, all the respondents have ration card, adhar card and bank pass book, 41 per cent reported chief minister health insurance card.

Conclusion

On the basis of above discussion in the paper shows that socio-economic factors determined the supply of agricultural labour market. Agricultural labour is coming from so called low caste groups. They are low educational background and as result poor labour mobility. This study revealed that female is paid less wage than male. This study clearly demonstrations that their annual income is insufficient to full fill their basic needs. In order to improve the economic conditions of agricultural labour through implementation of minimum wage, strengthen social security measures and to promote livestock, non-farm self-employment

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Inequality of Access to School Education among Social Groups in Tamil Nadu and India: A Comparative Analysis

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Abstract

This paper examines the level literacy of different social groups in India and state of Tamil Nadu. This study highlights present condition of literate in SCs, STs and other social groups in India and Tamil Nadu. This study also highlights on school enrollment, gender disparities, locational disparities and dropout rate of India and Tamil Nadu.

Keywords: Literacy, SC, ST, Tamil Nadu, India.

1. Introduction:

India has one of the most illiterate in the world and at the same time the level of literacy in India had increased considerably due to different policy of union and state government since independence. Constitution of India ensures free and compulsory education for all children at the age of 14. As a result, level of literacy was 36.39 per cent in 1961 has increased to 80.33 per cent in 2011. Nevertheless, the growth of literacy have uneven development among different region and different social groups. In this context, this study examines the educational development in general and particularly focus on different caste and regional perspectives. In the caste compositions Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), general and gender perspective of literacy and regional level Tamil Nadu to compare with all India perspectives.

As per 2011 Census, total population in Tamil Nadu has 72147030 and at the all India level, 5.9 percent of population in Tamil Nadu. Among the total population of Tamil Nadu, 51.60 per cent were lived in urban areas and 48.40 per cent in rural areas (see table 1). Nonetheless, India has 68.85 per cent were lived in rural areas and 31.15 per cent lived in urban

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areas. This clearly evidenced that the urbanization of Tamil Nadu has higher than all India level. Tamil Nadu has one of the state have better Human Development Index than all India level and Tamil Nadu has third rank in terms of Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) next to Maharashtra and Gujarat. However, across social groups existence in educational inequality.

In the social composition of population in Tamil Nadu, SCs were 1, 44, 384, 45 and STs were 7, 946, 97, which constitute 16.52 per cent and 0.90 per cent respectively. In the spatial distribution, majority of SCs and STs were lived in rural areas. For SCs, 65.62 per cent in rural areas 34.38 per cent in urban areas and STs, 83 per cent in rural areas 16.92 per cent in urban areas in Tamil Nadu. At the all India level, the proportion of SCs were 13.27 per cent and STs were 6.89 per cent. Majority of SCs (76.40 per cent) and STs (90.0 per cent) were lived in rural areas Thus, among the social groups, majority of STs were lived in rural areas, followed by SCs and other social groups.

This paper is organized as follows. After the introduction, second part provides sources of data on school education. Third section on present level of literacy among different social groups in all India and Tamil Nadu. Fourth section discuss on school enrollment at primary level among different social groups in India and Tamil Nadu. Fifth section discuss on gender inequality at the primary education level in India and Tamil Nadu. Sixth section on present different causes of dropout of school and different level of magnitude among social groups in India and Tamil Nadu. Final section provides conclusion.

2. Data:

The major sources of data in the study as Census reports, National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSOs), Ministry of Human Resources Development, and Educational Survey by National Council of Educational Research and Training.

3. Level of Literacy among Different Social Groups:

Generally there are two sources to measure the level of literacy in India; Census report and NSSO report. The Census report provide only for SCs, STs and general category and NSSO provided on one more category of OBCs. As per as Census (see table 1), the proportion of literacy of general, SCs and STs had increased at all India and Tamil Nadu. Tamil Nadu had

better position than all India level in general and SCs category and STs had less than all India level. STs Literacy rate in Tamil Nadu had 41.5 per cent in 2001 and 54.3 per cent in 2011 and on the other hand, at all India level 47.1 per cent and 59.0 per cent in the above respective period.

Table 1
Level of Literacy in 2001 and 2011

State/Country	2001 Census			2011 Census		
	General	SC	ST	General	SC	ST
Tamil Nadu	73.5	63.2	41.5	80.1	73.3	54.3
India	64.8	54.7	47.1	73.0	66.1	59.0

Sources: Census of India 2001 and 2011

NSSO data also revealed that the level of literacy of Tamil Nadu had better position than India (see table 2). In the gender perspective of all India and Tamil Nadu indicated female were less than male and in gender gap shown that the higher level of SCs and OBCs category than STs and others. This also exposed that STs Male and female in Tamil Nadu were lag behind than any other social groups in Tamil Nadu and all India level.

Table 2
Level of Literacy among Different Social Groups

Social Groups	Tamil Nadu				All India			
	Person	Male	Female	Gender Gap	Person	Male	Female	Gender Gap
STs	68	73	62	11	67	75	67	8
SCs	75	82	67	15	69	78	60	18
OBCs	82	89	76	13	75	84	66	18
Others	93	96	93	3	85	90	79	11

Source: 71st Round of NSSO, Report No.575

4. School Enrollments at Primary School:

According to the 8th All India Educational Survey revealed that the 1st Standard of enrollment at the national level was 12,40,19,536 boys were 51.65 per cent(6,40,51,724) and girls 48.35 (5,99,67,812) per cent. At the Gross Enrollment ratio was 94 per cent. In the social composition, SCs at primary stage was 18 per cent of total enrollment and these rural was 18.75 per cent and urban was 15.45 per cent. For STs children, total enrollment was 10.76 per cent and rural was 12.67 per cent and urban was 4.32 per cent. For O.BCs, the total enrollment was 40.02 per cent and in rural areas was 40.91 per cent and 37.77 per cent in urban. The educationally backward minorities' communities' enrollment was 10.08 per cent and among these 9.08 per cent in rural

and 13.40 per cent urban (Eight All India Educational Survey Report 2016)

At the total enrollment of primary level (1 to 5th standard) at all India level has 22,682,122 and Tamil Nadu has 12,280,408 (see table 3). Different social groups at the all India level indicated that general category as 54.19 per cent, followed by other social groups was 29.31 per cent, SCs was 11.42 per cent and ST was 5.07 per cent. At the state level of Tamil Nadu has the total number of enrollments has 12280408. In the different social category, general has 52.69 per cent, others have 33.01 per cent, SCs has 13.46 per cent and STs has 0.84 per cent.

Table 3
Primary Education (I-V) Enrollments among Social Groups

Social Groups	Region	Number			Per cent		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Gender Gap
Tamil Nadu							
General	Rural	1891358 (29.71)	1759318 (29.75)	3650676 (29.73)	51.8	48.19	3.61
	Urban	1461611 (22.96)	1358744 (22.98)	2820355 (22.97)	51.85	48.17	3.68
	Total	3352969 (52.67)	3118062 (52.73)	6471031 (52.70)	51.81	48.18	3.63
SC	Rural	551815 (8.67)	522726 (8.84)	1074541 (8.75)	51.35	48.64	2.71
	Urban	298327 (4.69)	279936 (4.73)	578263 (4.71)	51.59	48.4	3.19
	Total	850142 (13.36)	802662 (14.00)	1652804 (13.46)	51.43	48.56	2.87
ST	Rural	42729 (0.67)	36789 (0.62)	79518 (0.65)	53.73	46.26	7.47
	Urban	12233 (0.19)	10817 (0.18)	23050 (0.19)	53.07	46.92	6.15
	Total	54962 (0.86)	47606 (0.80)	102568 (0.84)	53.58	46.41	7.17
Others	Rural	1177828 (18.50)	1088395 (18.40)	2266223 (18.45)	51.97	48.02	3.95
	Urban	930669 (14.62)	857113 (14.49)	1787782 (14.56)	52.05	47.94	4.11
	Total	2108497 (33.12)	1945508 (33.00)	4054005 (33.01)	52.01	47.98	4.03
All	Rural	3663730 (57.55)	3407228 (57.61)	7070958 (57.58)	51.81	48.19	3.63
	Urban	2702840 (42.46)	2506610 (42.39)	5209450 (42.42)	51.88	48.12	3.77
	Total	6366570 (100)	5913838 (100)	12280408 (100)	-51.84	48.16	3.68
India							

General	Rural	49589101 (41.10)	43508859 (40.98)	93097960 (41.04)	53.26	46.73	6.53
	Urban	15773462 (13.07)	14043879 (13.23)	29817341 (13.15)	52.91	47.09	5.82
	Total	65362563 (54.17)	57552738 (54.21)	122915301 (54.19)	53.17	46.82	6.35
SC	Rural	11161946 (9.25)	9712770 (9.15)	20874716 (9.20)	53.47	46.52	6.95
	Urban	2648055 (2.19)	2381061 (2.24)	5029116 (2.22)	52.65	47.34	5.31
	Total	13810001 (11.44)	12093831 (11.39)	25903832 (11.42)	53.31	46.68	6.63
ST	Rural	5585480 (4.63)	4761881 (4.49)	10347361 (4.56)	53.97	46.02	7.95
	Urban	619199 (0.51)	548269 (0.52)	1167468 (0.51)	53.03	46.96	6.07
	Total	6204679 (5.14)	5310150 (5.01)	11514829 (5.07)	53.88	46.11	7.77
Others	Rural	25753302 (21.34)	22880756 (21.55)	48634058 (21.44)	52.95	47.04	5.91
	Urban	9532381 (7.90)	8323826 (7.84)	17856207 (7.87)	53.38	46.61	6.77
	Total	35285683 (29.24)	31204582 (29.40)	66487265 (29.31)	53.07	46.93	6.14
All	Rural	92089829 (76.32)	80864266 (76.17)	172954095 (76.25)	53.25	46.75	6.49
	Urban	28573097 (23.68)	25297035 (23.83)	53870132 (23.75)	53.04	46.96	6.08
	Total	120662926 (100)	106161301 (100)	226821227 (100)	53.20	46.80	6.39

Source: 8th Round of All India School Education Survey

In the spatial distribution of enrollment of primary education show that 76 per cent in rural area and 24 per cent in urban area at the all India level. However, Tamil Nadu has 58 per cent in rural area and urban area has 42 per cent. Among the social groups in all India rural enrollment indicated that 41 per cent for general, 9.20 per cent in SCs, 4.56 per cent in STs and 21.44 per cent in others. On the other hand, in urban enrollment 13.15 per for general, 2.22 per cent for SCs, 0.51 per cent for STs and 7.81 per cent for others. State of Tamil Nadu, urban enrollment for general 29.73 per cent, followed by 8.75 per cent in SCs, 0.5 per cent in STs and 18.45 per cent in others. Rural enrollment of social groups in Tamil Nadu has 22.97 per cent for general, 4.71 per cent for SCs, 0.91 per cent for STs and 14.56 per cent in others. It has been observed that rural enrollment of STs was higher proportion than SCs, general and other social groups.

Gender analysis, in all social categories both at the all India level and in the state of Tamil Nadu the proportion of girls enrollments has lower than boys both in rural and urban areas. Among different social groups, STs has the higher proportion of gender gap than any other social groups. At the all India level, 7.77 per cent for STs, followed by 6.63 per cent of SCs, 6.35 per cent of general, 6.14 per cent for Others. At the Tamil Nadu, 7.17 per cent in STs, followed by 4.03 per cent in others, 3.63 per cent in general and 2.87 per cent in SCs, Thus SCs has lower proportion of gender disparities than all other groups. In the spatial distribution of gender disparities revealed that different pictures. At the all India level, rural has higher proportion than urban in all social groups except other social category. In Tamil Nadu has contrast to all India level, urban disparities as higher proportion in general and SCs category and on the STs and Others registered rural disparities has higher than urban.

5. Gender Inequality:

School education as classified into four categories; (i) primary refer to 1st standard to 5th standard, (ii) upper primary is 6th standard to 8th standard, (iii) secondary is 9th standard and 10th standard and (iv) 11th and 12th standard. An examination of gender parity index shows that lower level at the stage of primary level of school than upper primary, secondary and senior secondary both in Tamil Nadu and all India level (see table 4). The gender gap has gradually widen from primary to senior secondary level in all social groups both in Tamil Nadu and all India. Among the social groups, STs were low level of gender parity index than SCs and other social groups in all level of primary education in Tamil Nadu and as well as at India level. But at the senior secondary level of SC, STs, and others revealed that the state of Tamil Nadu higher level of gender disparities than all India level.

Table 4
Gender Parity Index Comparison among Social Groups

Category	Primary		Upper Primary		Secondary		Senior Secondary	
	2014-15	2015-16	2014-15	2015-16	2014-15	2015-16	2014-15	2015-16
Tamil Nadu								
Overall	1.01	1.01	1.03	-	1.04	1.05	1.23	1.22
SC	1.00	1.00	1.02	1.03	1.04	1.04	1.26	1.25
ST	0.98	0.97	1.03	1.05	1.07	1.10	1.09	1.18
India								
Overall	1.03	1.03	1.09	-	1.01	1.02	0.99	1.01
SC	1.02	1.03	1.09	1.10	1.03	1.04	1.03	1.04
ST	0.98	0.98	1.02	1.03	1.01	1.02	0.95	0.97

Source: Educational Statistics at a glance 2018, MHRD, Govt. of India

6. School Dropout Rate:

There are many reasons for school dropout and the major reason as economic and socio-cultural play a significant role to determine the discontinuation of education. In addition to this school related factors, lack of interest in studies, lack of motivation of students or parents, economic opportunity cost of children, availability or demand of child labour in and surrounded area, curriculum, teacher attitude, pupil-teacher ratio, teacher religion, caste, gender form of discrimination, availability and accessibility of school in the villages etc. The recent dropout report of DISE 2014-15 reported shown in the below table 5. At the all India level, primary level of education (I-V standard), girls dropout rate has less than boys in all social category. However, after primary girls dropout has higher than boys in all social category. Among the social category, STs were higher proportion of dropout than SCs and general category. The state of Tamil Nadu has different picture and dropout rate in Tamil Nadu has less than all India level in all standard of school education. The interesting fact that the dropout rate of STs in Tamil Nadu has higher than all India level in VI-VIII standard. STs, in Tamil Nadu substantial level of dropout in all standard of school education.

Table 5
Annual Average Dropout Rate for the year 2014-15

Educational Level	Groups	Tamil Nadu			India		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
(I-V)	General	*	*	*	4.36	3.88	4.13
	SC	0.23	0.10	0.17	4.71	4.20	4.46
	ST	4.89	4.94	4.91	7.02	6.84	6.93
(VI-VIII)	General	*	*	*	3.49	4.60	4.03
	SC	1.69	1.61	1.65	5.00	6.03	5.51
	ST	13.52	13.33	13.43	8.48	8.71	8.59
(IX-X)	General	11.67	4.36	8.10	17.21	16.88	17.06
	SC	15.46	7.75	11.65	19.64	19.05	19.36
	ST	22.58	16.12	19.48	24.94	24.40	24.68
(XI-XII)	General	4.59	2.34	3.41	0.25	*	*
	SC	6.31	3.88	5.01	3.34	3.09	3.22
	ST	8.17	2.25	5.29	*	*	*

Source: DISE 2014-15, NUPEA, New Delhi, Note: * represents drop-out rate have not been reported. -represents negative drop-out rate have not been reported.

7. Conclusion:

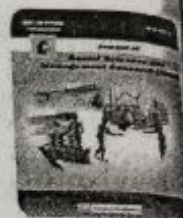
Tamil Nadu has one of the better formed state in both economic and social development. The performance of literacy rate in Tamil Nadu had improved over the decades and reduce the gender, caste, location disparities. Nevertheless,, SC and other social groups literacy level in Tamil Nadu has higher all India level but STs in Tamil Nadu lag behind in all India level. This clearly evident that educational policy of Tamil Nadu excluded in STs. Still exist in gender, caste and locational disparities in Tamil Nadu. Hence, policy intervention is necessary to reduce disparities through exclusive policy frame work for STs Children and general girl children. This policy will be addressed both children and adults of all social groups. To improve the level of literacy of children through enhanced accessibilities of primary school at village level and for STs Children to access increased residential schools. At the same time to reduce teacher absenteeism and to improve the economic conditions of STs and SCs ensure to reduce dropout and to enhance school enrollment.

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AGRICULTURAL LABOUR AND WAGE RATES IN ANDHRA PRADESH: AN INTER-DISTRICT ANALYSIS

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Introduction

The undivided Andhra Pradesh represents first rank in the proportion of agricultural labour. The Census of India reported that the proportion of cultivators had declined and the proportion of agricultural labour had increased. According to 2011 Census, the total workforce in Andhra Pradesh (divided Andhra Pradesh total population 4, 93, 867, 99) has 46.51 per cent (2, 29, 69,906). Among total workers, main workers were 83.72 per cent (1, 92, 31,167), marginal workers were 16.27 per cent (37, 38739) and non-workers were 53.49 per cent (2, 64, 16,893). Among the main workers, cultivators were 15.97 per cent (30, 70,723), agricultural labourer were 44.50 per cent(85,57,567), household industry were 2.74 per cent(527857), and other workers were 36.79 per cent(70,75,020). The present study attempts to deal with the proportion of agricultural labour in inter-district analysis and also explore wage rate of these workers. This study explores different agricultural occupational wage rate of agricultural labourers for male, female and child at district level. This paper divided into five sections. The second section deals on sources and methodology. Third section provided the proportion of agricultural labours at district level. Fourth section presents agricultural wage rates likes' field labour wage rate, other agricultural labour wage rate and heads man wage rate. The final section presents conclusion.

Section II

Sources and Methodology

For agricultural labour, the Primary Abstract of Census Report of the district level data was used in the study. For wage rate of agricultural labours there are five major sources; (i) Agricultural Wages in India (AWI), (ii) Rural Labour Enquiry Reports (RLP), (iii) National Sample Survey Organization (NNSO) reports, (iv) Wage Rate in Rural India (WRI), and (v) Cost of Cultivation Survey of Committee on Agricultural Cost and Prices (CACP). These different sources used different methodology for collection data at the ground level. In the present study AWI was used. The methodology of the AWI had criticised by many scholars and even though, it is full comprehensive data at the district level. Only AWI supply to different occupations likes plough man, transplanting, weeding, repair and harvest, other agricultural labour, heads man. This AWI also provided male, female and child labour for monthly wise from June to July since 1950. The AWI provided field labour, other agricultural labour and herdsman for Andhra Pradesh. In this study explore the real wage rate from 2000-01 to 2013-14 and the compound annual growth rate was calculated. The money wage rate was converted with facilitate of the deflator of Consumer Price Index of Agricultural Labourers (CPIAL) on the basis of 1986-87 base year.

Section III

Agricultural Labour

Table 1 shows the number of number of agricultural labour and proportion of agricultural labour in Andhra Pradesh. Among the main workers, 44.50 per cent of workers were belong to the agricultural labour, which was 24.38 per cent was male and 20.12 per cent were female. Out of 13 districts, West-Godavari district represents highest proportion of agricultural labourers (57.93 per cent), followed by East-Godavari (50.23 per cent), Kurnool (49.45 per cent), Prakasam (49.30 per cent), Guntur (49.16 per cent), Srikulam (47.24 per cent), Krishna (46.60 per cent), Vizianagram (43.99 per cent), Nellore (42.41 per cent), Anantapur (38.89 per cent), Cuddapa (36.88 per cent), Chittor (36.24 per cent) and Visakhapatnam (25.42 per cent). For gender perspectives, out of 13 states, four states correspondingly higher proportion of female agricultural labourers, which were Guntur, Prakasam, Kurnool, and Anantapur districts.

Table 1: Number and Proportion of Agricultural Labour in Andhra Pradesh (Main Workers Only)

Districts	Agricultural labourers			Percent		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Srikakulam	2,41,086	2,01,209	4,42,295	25.75	21.49	47.24
Vizianagaram	2,12,812	2,06,527	4,19,339	22.33	21.67	43.99
Visakhapatnam	2,11,094	1,65,479	3,76,573	14.25	11.17	25.42
East Godavari	6,48,809	2,29,275	8,78,084	37.11	13.12	50.23
West Godavari	5,64,273	3,24,542	8,88,815	36.78	21.15	57.93
Krishna	4,47,722	3,65,415	8,13,137	25.66	20.94	46.60
Guntur	5,08,448	5,27,121	10,35,569	24.14	25.03	49.16
Prakasam	3,47,300	3,74,212	7,21,512	23.73	25.57	49.30
Nellore	2,58,347	1,98,245	4,56,592	24.00	18.41	42.41
Cuddapa	2,04,157	1,94,148	3,98,305	18.91	17.98	36.88
Kurnool	4,10,120	4,58,954	8,69,074	23.34	26.11	49.45
Anantapur	3,14,818	3,38,344	6,53,162	18.74	20.14	38.89
Chittoor	3,19,664	2,85,446	6,05,110	19.14	17.09	36.24
Total	46,88,650	38,68,917	85,57,567	24.38	20.12	44.50

Sources and Note: Primary Census of India, 2011 Census, and Percent calculated on the basis of total main workers in the respective districts.

Section IV

Agricultural Wage Rate

This section analysis the trends, magnitude and growth rate of field labour, other agricultural labour and heads man from the period of 2000-01 to 2013-14 for male, female and child at district level. The money wage rate was higher than the real wage rate in all operations for male, female and child. In this study, the presents for real wage rate and not for money wage rate.

(1) Filed Labour Wage Rate

The field real wage rate of male, female and child is presented in the table 2. For male filed wage rate in 2000-01, the highest real wage rate was registered Rs. 17.21 in Krishna district and the lowest wage rate was Rs.11.70 in Chittoor district. In the same period, the highest female wage rate was Rs.15.34 in Prakasam district and the lowest wage rate was Rs. 8.94 in Vijianagram district. In the case of child wage rate was Rs. 12.62 and Rs.5.91 for highest and lowest wage rate in Nellore district and Kurnool district respectively. In 2013-14, the highest wage rate for male was Rs.37.1 and for female was Rs.27.9 in Visakhpatnam and Guntur respectively. For

child labour, there was absence of report after 2010-11 in all operations. For growth rate, all the districts represent positive growth rate form male and female. For male highest growth rate was registered in the Guntur district and for female was Kurnool, which was 10.03 per cent and 9.61 per cent respectively. The lowest wage rate of male was Rs.4.89 and female was Rs. 5.02, which was Krishna district and East Godavari district respectively. The reporting child labour growth rate is meaningless due absence of wage rate subsequent to 2010-11.

(2) Other Agricultural Wage Rate

In 2000-01, the highest male real wage rate was registered in East Godavari district (see table 3), which was Rs.17.48 For female and child was Rs.14.46 in Chittoor district. The lowest wage rate of male was Rs.9.57, female was Rs. 7.68, child was Rs.5.34 in Vijianagaram district. During 2013-14, the highest real wage rate was Rs, 37.26 for male in Cuddapha district. For female was Rs.23.25in West-Godavari district. The lowest wage rate was Rs.21.85 in Vijianagaram district for male and for female was Rs. 18.29 in Srikakulam, Krishna, Kurnool and Anantpur district. For growth rate, the entire district reported positive growth rate for male and female. However, female growth rate were highest in three districts. The highest growth rate for male was 10.03 per cent in Guntur district and for female was 9.61 per cent in Kurnool and West Godavari district. The lowest growth rate of male was 4.87 per cent in Srikakulam district and for female was 4.24 per cent in Nellore district.

(3) Headsman Wage Rate

The highest male and female headsman real wage rate was registered in Nellore and Guntur district (see table 4), which was Rs, 15.77 for male and for female was Rs. 12.62 in 2000-01. The lowest wage rate was Rs.5.78 for male in Vijianagram district and female was Rs.4.73, child was Rs.3.15 in Kurnool district. During 2013-14, the highest real wage rate was registered in Srikakulam district for male, which was Rs.24.51 and female was Rs, 22.40 in Anantapur district. The lowest real wage rate was Rs, 13.11 in Vijianagram district for male and Rs.18.29 for female in West Godavari district. For growth rate, the highest growth rate was registered for male was 13.26 per cent in Anantpur district and female was 12.07 per cent in West Godavari district. The lowest growth rate was registered for male in Guntur district and for female in Krishna district, which was 3.45 per cent and -28.04 per cent respectively,.

Section V

Conclusion

An agricultural worker in Andhra Pradesh has 60.47 per cent and 39.5 per cent of workers were non-agricultural workers, which was 15.91 of cultivators and 44.50 per cent was agricultural labour. The wage rates of agricultural workers have increased for both money wage rate and real wage rate. The money wage rates have to a great extent than real wage rate in all operations for male and female. In the inter-district analysis report states that the wage disparity have sustained and gender difference have extend in all operation and all districts.

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Table 2: Field Labour Real Wage Rate- 2000-01 to 2013-14.

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	Growth Rate
Srikakulam															
Male	170.9	15.52	16.88	19.12	17.74	16.62	19.12	22.09	23.24	28.83	28.61	28.61	35.81	33.1	6.56
Female	101.2	9.70	9.57	10.35	10.85	11.79	12.26	14.15	14.12	18.42	20.73	19.63	20.01	19.7	7.12
Child	7.49	6.93	5.18	6.00	9.34	11.79	12.26	14.15	14.69	16.91					12.87
Vijianagara															
Male	118.3	12.20	13.69	13.83	13.96	16.17	15.79	20.06	21.41	18.12	20.2	22.38	24.53	22.6	5.77
Female	8.94	9.76	9.65	10.09	9.85	10.89	9.77	15.41	17.30	14.49	17.79	15.34	18.71	15.4	5.92
Child	6.26	8.40	9.04	10.09	9.80	10.22	8.94	9.30	10.93	7.25					1.83
West Godavari															
Male	126.2	12.20	11.70	15.85	17.97	23.47	24.00	25.10	18.85	29.44	38.6	37.72	32.91	31.5	9.54
Female	9.99	9.15	8.77	11.53	13.77	17.74	19.01	18.12	13.86	21.59	27.44	28.72	26.32	25.0	9.61
Child	6.31	6.10	5.85	8.65	9.22	8.76	9.35	11.59	8.01	13.06					7.58
Krishna															
Male	172.1	21.06	19.37	17.29	16.81		17.46	21.90	27.20	24.00	30.4	32.23	29.33	27.6	4.89
Female	10.9	13.86	10.23	10.95	12.14		9.98	12.60	13.77	17.74	21.42	21.21	20.20	20.4	5.98

	0															
	10															
Child	.9 0	9.1 5	10. 23					9.9 8	11. 63	13. 77	11. 47				4.01	
Guntur																
Male	12 .7 6	13. 58	14. 62		13. 54			20. 99	20. 93	26. 26	27. 93	30. 54	37. 25	37. 77	36 .4	10.03
Female	10 .6 1	10. 95	11. 70		10. 74			19. 33	11. 05	17. 39	19. 76	30. 45	27. 39	27. 85	27 .9	9.49
Child	9. 32	9.4 2	10. 23		10. 50			15. 79	11. 05	13. 71	18. 12					6.54
Prakasam																
Male	15 .6 4	16. 49	15. 02		21. 94	20. 66		12. 00	23. 47	33. 06	28. 62	27. 27	32. 69	36. 53	33 .7	7.31
Female	15 .3 4	14. 83	13. 56		21. 85	16. 17		10. 13	17. 97	27. 27	25. 00	23. 95	24. 1	23. 64	26 .9	5.22
Child	9. 46	10. 81	10. 63		17. 93	13. 48		9.9 8	13. 32	21. 49	18. 84					6.93
Nellore																
Male	14 .2 0	13. 72	13. 82		14. 10	13. 48		14. 96	14. 53	18. 08	21. 21	29. 02	27. 73	25. 69	32 .2	7.26
Female	12 .6 2	12. 20	11. 70		11. 20	10. 78		9.9 8	11. 24	14. 46	15. 02	20. 73	20. 65	21. 08	27 .0	6.28
Child	12 .6 2	11. 36	8.7 7		8.4 0	8.0 9		9.9 8	6.9 8	7.7 5	10. 04					-3.25
Kurnool																
Male	11 .9 6	10. 12	9.5 7		11. 90	14. 85		12. 93	12. 11	18. 94	23. 40	24. 6	28. 57	27. 8	25 .7	9.45
Female	9. 20	7.7 6	5.8 5		5.4 9	9.0 7		7.2 1	5.8 1	13. 43	17. 36	17. 55	19. 91	18. 52	15 .2	9.61
Child	5. 91	3.0 5	2.9 2		5.2 5	5.3 9										4.14

Chittoor																
Male	11.70	15.24	14.62	15.61	14.01	14.82	15.38	17.44	18.60	18.87	28.05	33.43	27.91	30.6		7.53
Female	11.70	15.24	13.56	15.61	14.01	13.93	13.30	15.70	16.53	15.40	22.94	25.82	20.46	24.2		5.03
Child	9.46	10.67	10.23	11.29	11.20	10.78	9.98	12.26	12.40	10.87						1.71
East Godavari																
Male	15.64	14.83	15.02	14.41	14.59	14.49	15.08	15.50	26.86	29.89	30.96	28.52	33.3	30.3		7.78
Female	13.54	12.33	12.09	11.65	12.02	11.79	12.58	12.21	18.77	17.21	18.93	16.44	22.52	22		5.02
Child	10.12	9.84	9.44	9.49	9.22	9.10	10.09	8.91	14.63	13.29						3.15
Anantpur																
Male		13.30	11.56			11.23	12.24	12.16	16.70	22.64	27.02	22.73	30.99	29.1		9.65
Female		12.33	10.23			9.77	9.75	9.69	11.54	15.40	20.94	17.05	20.13	20.4		6.70
Child		9.84	8.77			9.10	8.50	8.33	8.78	9.06						-0.83
Cuddapha																
Male							19.64	19.38	20.40	20.09	22.94	28.29	32.32	31.7		8.72
Female							15.38	17.73	16.96	16.47	19.35	21.25	19.1	23.1		4.94
Child							8.10	7.95	8.26	7.91						-0.35
Visakhapatnam																
Male							17.56	20.54	23.42	20.83	27.36	30.03	39.43	37.1		11.98
Female							12.12	14.14	15.15	11.11	15.15	18.18	24.24	20		8.48

								57	53	50	78	34	61	35	.6	
Child									11.63	13.09	10.51					-4.94

Sources: Derived from Money Wage Rate of AWI.

Table 3: Other Agricultural Real Wage Rate-2000-01 to 2013-14

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	Growth Rate
Srikakulam															
Male	17.09	15.38	16.88	17.89	17.39	17.52	18.70	21.71	21.52	27.17	28.2	27.88	27.29	24.39	4.87
Female	10.2	9.15	8.77	9.37	9.92	11.46	11.33	13.57	14.81	16.30	20.3	19.46	21.83	18.29	7.59
Child	7.49	6.10	5.36	5.64	7.47	11.01	11.33	13.57	14.81	16.30					13.11
Vijianagaram															
Male	9.57	10.25	9.73	10.09	11.67	12.13	11.64	20.35	22.73	23.70	23.2	21.15	23.59	21.85	8.88
Female	7.68	8.07	7.71	8.65	10.27	11.01	10.60	15.79	18.60	17.81	17	16.04	18.19	15.85	7.86
Child	5.34	5.93	6.22	6.34	8.87	9.32	7.90	9.59	10.85	9.89					7.97
West Godavari															
Male	12.49	10.67	8.90	12.05	16.22	23.81	24.00	23.93	17.48	27.32	30.2	30.62	27.58	27.21	9.14
Female	9.99	9.15	7.31	10.57	13.07	18.08	17.35	17.93	14.03	18.12	18.7	34.73	19.29	23.25	8.74
Child	6.44	6.10	5.98	8.29	8.40	9.66	8.94	12.40	8.87	12.41					7.89
Krishna															

Male	14 .6 3	15. 24	17. 54	17. 87	17. 97		10. 66	21. 32	25. 65	22. 57	33. 5	37. 43	30. 7	32. .5 2	7.49
Female			8.7 7	10. 95	12. 84		7.8 2	12. 40	13. 77	11. 40	26. 5	29. 44	18. 19	18. .2 9	8.89
Child							7.8 2	11. 43	13. 77	10. 57					11.51
Guntur															
Male	15 .3 4	18. 85	12. 43		13. 31		16. 83	23. 26	20. 66	26. 87	24. 7	25. 72	23. 87	25. .4 7	5.72
Female	12 .6 2	17. 46	9.5 0		10. 15		12. 26	11. 05	16. 53	18. 12	16. 6	20. 02	18. 76	18. .2 9	4.51
Child	11 .9 0	16. 77	8.0 4		9.8 0		11. 43	10. 99	10. 33	18. 12					1.78
Prakasa															
Male	13 .5 4	15. 24	13. 56		15. 41	13. 93	11. 22	16. 28	19. 80	19. 93	19. 9	21. 89	33. 42	36. .5 9	7.02
Female	12 .6 2	12. 33	10. 63		12. 14	11. 23	9.9 8	12. 40	15. 67	16. 30	16. 6	18. 53	20. 19	21. .3 4	5.14
Child	10 .6 5	9.2 8	7.7 1		8.4 0	8.0 9	9.0 4	10. 08	13. 60	13. 59					4.04
Nellore															
Male	13 .0 1	10. 39	17. 54		11. 20	10. 78	19. 95	17. 05	18. 60	17. 96	24. 9	27. 65	26. 05	34. .1 5	8.20
Female	11 .8 3	9.9 8	11. 70		11. 20	10. 78	19. 95	12. 40	9.8 1	7.2 5	16. 6	18. 96	20. 56	20. .1 2	4.24
Child	10 .6 5	9.1 5	8.9 0		6.7 4			9.9 7	10. 33						-0.49
Kurnool															
Male	15	15.	15.		13.	14.	12.	12.	20.	22.	24.	28.	27.	25	5.76

	.7 7	24	95		07	13	74	40	14	80	6	29	74	.2 8		
Female	9. 73	9.1 5	8.7 7		7.4 7	7.3 9	7.4 0	5.8 1	14. 12	17. 51	17. 6	19. 89	19. 78	18 .2 9	8.03	
Child	6. 31	6.1 0	6.3 8		5.6 0	4.3 1									-6.11	
Chitto or																
Male	17 .3 5	18. 29	16. 75	17. 29	16. 11	15. 72	14. 96	16. 28	16. 87	19. 02	27. 6	33. 43	40. 93	36 .5 9	6.63	
Female	14 .4 6	15. 24	13. 82	14. 41	14. 24	13. 48	12. 47	13. 76	14. 63	15. 40	22. 4	25. 45	22. 74	20 .7 3	4.13	
Child	14 .4 6	15. 24	14. 29	14. 41	14. 01	12. 69	12. 47	12. 60	12. 40	10. 87					-3.09	
East Godav ari																
Male	17 .4 8	16. 08	15. 82	15. 73	15. 87	15. 27	14. 85	19. 57	25. 48	30. 19	31. 8	23. 5	29. 27	34 .8 9	6.60	
Female	13 .9 3	13. 03	13. 02	13. 09	13. 07	12. 69	12. 13	15. 89	17. 73	20. 68	19. 5	18. 09	23. 53	18 .7	4.41	
Child	9. 94	9.5 6	9.9 7	10. 09	10. 27	10. 22	9.1 8	10. 47	13. 60	9.5 1					1.24	
Anant pur																
Male		10. 53	10. 23			17. 81	12. 47	14. 34	19. 11	21. 89	27	23. 48	29. 9	31 .7 1	9.43	
Female		9.0 1	8.9 0			9.6 1	10. 49	9.8 8	14. 98	16. 30	20. 3	15. 18	19. 1	18 .2 9	7.86	
Child		8.8 7	8.7 7			8.4 2	9.9 8	9.3 0	11. 54	10. 87					3.26	
Cudda pha																
Male								19. 95	18. 60	16. 53	14. 49	18. 5	24. 28	34. 11	37 .2 6	11.05

Female							14.96	13.95	12.40	10.87	14.5	17.03					1.82
Child							7.48	6.98	7.06	6.34							-4.73
Visakhapatnam																	
Male							23.79	26.07	26.69	23.19	29.6	32.44	40.61	33.87			6.79
Female							17.56	18.31	16.87	14.31	19.5	18.71	19.78	19.51			2.09
Child								9.30	10.33	10.87							8.10

Sources: Derived from Money Wage Rate of AWI.

Table4: Herdsman Real Wage Rate-2000-01 to 2013-14

Distric ts	20 00 - 01	200 1- 02	200 2- 03	200 3- 04	200 4- 05	200 5- 06	200 6- 07	200 7- 08	200 8- 09	20 0- 10	201 0- 11	201 1- 12	201 2- 13	20 13 - 14	Grow th Rate
Srikakulam															
Male	12.62	12.33	14.62	14.41	15.41	18.64	16.83	14.73	17.05	21.29	23.2	19.46	20.24	24.51	4.77
Vijianagara m															
Male	5.78	6.10	6.38	6.34	6.91	7.19	7.27	11.82	13.95	10.87	10.6	11.98	13.3	13.11	7.57
Female												5.99			
Child	4.84	5.18	5.37	5.19	5.72	6.38	6.07	7.36	8.52	6.34					5.02
West Godavari															
Male	9.73	10.39	8.77	8.77	12.02	14.82	13.72	12.11	9.56	10.95	14.9	16.23	15.63	19.63	4.72
Female	8.			8.6							12.	18.		18	12.07

	15			5							4	71		.2	
Child	4.86	4.57	4.39	5.11	8.75	9.43	8.73	22.67	7.23	8.45					9
Krishna															11.58
Male		9.15		10.09	14.01		18.45		10.33					18.19	21.14
Female				5.76	5.60							37.43	17.58	19.38	-
Child		6.10													28.04
Guntur															
Male	15.77	15.24	14.62		14.01		15.79	20.93	20.66	18.04	24.2	22.33	21.15	18.29	3.45
Female	12.62	12.20	11.70		11.20		11.85	11.05	10.33	14.49					-0.08
Child	10.75	10.53	10.23		10.15		11.85	26.55	10.33	9.06					2.25
Prakasam															
Male	8.62	9.28	8.77		16.81	15.95	9.98	17.05	19.80	19.93	19.9	22.08	19.1	19.92	7.49
Female	7.47	7.48	7.31												-1.05
Child	6.83	6.24	5.85		11.20	10.78		9.30							8.68
Nellore															
Male	15.77	15.24	14.62		14.24	12.58	9.98	16.47	15.67	12.76	16.6	16.77		20.43	1.79
Female	12.62	12.20	10.37		8.40	8.20		8.91	8.26	8.76	13.3	14.97			0.25
Child	12.62	12.20	9.04		5.60	5.39	9.98	6.59	8.09	6.94					-5.60

	2															
Kurnool																
Male	6.31	6.10	6.51		12.25	11.84	10.87	10.14	12.14	14.72	15.2	17.24	22.17	22.28		10.55
Female	4.73	4.57	4.52		9.15	9.14	8.17	7.58	7.69							8.65
Child	3.15	3.05	3.06													-1.56
Chittoor																
Male			11.70	11.53	11.20	11.46	10.08	15.12	18.60	16.30						6.75
Female			9.75	8.65	9.10	11.01	9.98	13.57	16.53	14.49			40.93			8.84
Child			8.77	8.65	8.40	8.98	8.31	8.91								0.09
East Godavari																
Male	6.23	6.10	5.85	5.76	5.60	5.39	4.99	4.65	9.81	12.39	11.6	17.65	19.78	20.12		11.30
Female				4.61			3.99						19.1			
Child	5.68	4.88	4.68		4.48	4.31	3.99	3.72	4.41	9.96						1.65
Anantpur																
Male		7.62	7.31			7.19	6.23	5.81	6.37	5.89	33.2	31.59	24.67	23.17		13.36
Female		7.62	7.31			6.90	6.23	5.81	5.17	5.59	24.9	30.84	25.32	22.4		12.71
Child		7.62	7.31			6.74	6.23	5.81	5.17	4.53						-5.92
Cuddapha																
Male									10.33	9.06	8.29	14.97			21.95	21.17
Female							9.98	9.30	8.26	7.25	6.63	10.48			18.2	8.81

														9	
Child							7.4	6.9	7.1	6.3					
Visakh apatna m							8	8	5	4					-4.61
Male							9.7	12.	16.	16.	14.	13.	23.	21	
							7	16	87	30	5	97	74	.9	
Female							6.2	7.7	10.					5	10.43
							3	2	33						
Child								9.3	10.	10.					
								0	16	87					8.10

Sources: Derived from Money Wage Rate of AWI.

Socio-Economic Condition of Agricultural Labour: A Study of Three Villages in Tamil Nadu

Sivasankar Vedi and S. Hemanathan

The number of total workers in agriculture (cultivators and agricultural labourer) increased from 97.2 million in 1951 to 235 million in 2001 and to 263.02 million in 2011. This includes 118.69 million cultivators and 144.33 million agricultural labourers. The agricultural labourers were the lowest income category in rural households. The present study examined the socio-economic conditions of agricultural labour on the basis of three villages studied in northern Tamil Nadu. The study expresses contemporary employment and wage pattern, income and indebtedness conditions and household amenities of agricultural labour households. This paper divided into IV sections; section II deals on methodology, section III, provides, social background, agricultural labour market, employment, wage, indebtedness, income, household amenities and different welfare measures and section IV provides conclusion.

METHODOLOGY

This study used multi-stage sampling method. In the first stage, district was selected. In the second stage taluk was selected and third stage block was selected. In the fourth stage, village was selected within block and in the final stage, cultivators were selected. First stage district was selected and on the basis Villupuram district was selected, due to highest number of agricultural workers (cultivators and agricultural labourers). According to 2011 Census, district of Villupuram registered the highest proportion of agricultural labour in Tamil Nadu. In addition to this, Villupuram district has a semi-arid region and well irrigation is intensively used for agriculture. During off-seasons, the cultivators and agricultural labourers go to nearby cities such as Bangalore and Chennai to seek employment in the construction industry. Besides the backwardness of the district, the migratory character of the labour in the district influenced the selection of Villupuram district for this study.

In the second stage, taluk was selected. Villupuram district consists of eight taluks namely, Villupuram, Gingee, Tindivanam, Vanur, Tirukkovilur, Sankarapuram, Kallakurichi, and Ulundurpettai. Among taluks Villupuram taluk the higher number of main workers and agricultural labourers. Therefore Villupuram taluk was selected. Moreover, the following reasons justify the selection: it is a traditional paddy belt, agro-industries, particularly modern rice mills are emerging, considerably higher mobility of seasonal out-migrant labour takes place, the mixture of fertile and dry lands, absence of other industrial units except modern

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rice mills, and it has large number of medium and small farmers and above all it hasn't been explored so far in research studies.

In the third stage block was selected. There were 22 blocks in Villupuram district and 1104 panchayat villages. Among the block Kani block was selected. In the fourth stage and in the Kani block, three villages of Semmedu, Sitheri, and Velleripattu were selected. This is based on the criteria of highest number of agricultural labourers and cultivators in the block and village respectively. Finally, in the selected three villages, a census-type survey was used and to identified the cultivator households. Among these, simple random sampling was used. Subsequently, an in-depth study was carried through interview method with the help of structured interview for 115 agricultural labour households were interviewed in March to June 2013.

SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF THE AGRICULTURAL LABOUR

Out of the 115 agricultural labourers, 95.65 per cent were male and 4.35 per cent were female. For marital status, 95.65 per cent were married, 3.47 per cent were unmarried and 0.86 per cent was widow. Out of 115 sample respondents, 86.09 per cent were Hindus and 13.91 per cent were Christians. In the classification of caste of the agricultural labourers were identified as *Mudhaliyar*, *Yadhavar/Konar*, *Nadiu*, *Chettiyar*, *Vaniyar* and *Adi-Drivadar*. Among these caste categories, *Mudhaliyar*, *Yadha/Konar/Idaiyar*, *Nadiu* and *Chettiyar* were belong to Backward Caste (B.C). *Vaniyars/Gounders* are belonged to Most Backward Caste (MBC) and *Adi-Drivadar* are belong to Scheduled Castes (SCs). Among these caste, *Adi-Drivadar* were 42 per cent, followed by *Vaniyar* were 31 per cent, *Nadiu* were 8 per cent, *Yadavar* were 6 per cent and *Mudhaliyar* were 7.82 per cent. Correspondingly Backward castes (B.Cs) were 26.93 per cent, Most Backward Castes (M.B.Cs) 31.30 per cent and Scheduled Castes (S.Cs) were 41.73 per cent.

The age of the sample agricultural labour age were classified into five categories; (i) below the age of 30, (ii) between the age of 31-40, (iii) between the age of 41-50, (iv) between the age of 51-60 and (v) above the age of 60. Among the agricultural labourers, 10.4 per cent were in the age group of below 30, 33 per cent were belonged to the age group of 31-40, 27 per cent were in the category of 41-50 age group, 15.7 per cent were in the 51-60 age group, and 13.9 per cent were in the age groups of above 61. This study found that the younger age group had hesitated to enter into the agricultural labour market.

AGRICULTURAL LABOUR MARKET

Traditional system of attached labour system has completely vanished in the study villages and in the entire region. Only two type of labour system exist in the study villages; casual or daily coolies and contract labour system. In the study villages there were two types of agricultural labour markets: (1) casual labourers (or) daily labourers (or) them self-called 'daily coolies' and (2) contract labour or group labour. The casual labour was daily laborers and they were hired by landowners on daily basis. This casual labour enters into contract labour activities with land owners. It means two or more than two workers enter into oral

agreement with landowners for a particular piece of activities. For one group 15 to 20 women workers were involved in agricultural activities. For male group, 5 to 10 members were hired to do work. Male group workers were engaged into sugarcane cutting and female group workers were engaged in sugarcane sapling, paddy transplanting and paddy harvesting. The total wages were equally distributed among them.

The agricultural wage labour entered into agricultural employment, non-agricultural employment and MNEGRA employment with in the villages and outside of the village boundaries. Exclusively enter into agricultural employment as presented in table 1. Out of 115 sample respondents, nearly 22 per cent of agricultural labour worked 101 days to 125 days, 20.86 per cent were worked in 51 days to 75 days, 18 per cent were worked in 76 days to 100 days, 13 per cent of workers worked in 126 days to 150 days, 10.43 per cent of workers worked in 26 days to 50 days, 6 per cent of workers worked 151 days to 200 days, 4 per cent of workers worked in less than 25 days and 5 per cent of workers worked more than 201 days, and the non-farm employment was lacking. The availability of non-farm employment was construction activities of private housing, and any other public work activities. Out of 115 agricultural labour households only 26 had reported to access to non-farm employment. Among these, 65 per cent of agricultural labour reported to get employment within 10 days to 25 days and 35 per cent reported that 26 days to 50 days.

Table 1
Days of Agricultural Wage Employment

Days of Agricultural Employment	Number of Agricultural Labourers	Percent
0-25 Days	11	4.35
26 Days to 50 Days	19	10.43
51 Days to 75 Days	24	20.86
76 Days to 100 Days	31	18.26
101 Days to 125 Days	25	21.73
126 Days to 150 Days	5	13.04
Total	115	100.0
Non-Agricultural Wage Employment		
10 Days to 25 Days	17	65.38
26 Days to 50 Days	9	34.61
Total	26	100.0

Source: Field survey

MGNREA EMPLOYMENT

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREA) was introduced in the district and also in the study villages in 2006. In the study villages, out of 115 sample respondents 98 (85.21 per cent) reported that they participated in MGNREA and nearly 15 per cent were not participating. Among the 98 MNERGA participant 60 per cent of agricultural labour reported that the days of employment participation were 26 days to 50 days, 23.46 per cent participated in 11 days to 25 days, 13 per cent reported that 51 days to 75 days and 3 per cent participated less than 10 days.

The above available information clearly provides evidences that the non-farm em. and MGNREA employment were supplement to agricultural wage employment for agr. labourers. All the agricultural labour reported that MGNREGA wage were not high rate. Because, MGNREGA wage lower than the agricultural wage rate in the study villa. The implementation of MGNREGS can adjust the working hours. Traditionally, labour prefer to work in the morning time rather than afternoon. MGNREGS induce the supply of workforce particularly the landholding household's women member, few upper caste women, and old age persons enter into labour market. However, those who entering in the MGNREGS work do not entered into agricultural work.

The ploughing operation in the study villages were using tractors and only small piece of cultivators hired manual ploughing. Therefore, it reduces the demand of male agricultural labourers in the ploughing operation. Absentee employers have preferred to change the cropping pattern of low requirement of labour and at the same time increasing area under paddy to increase the demand for labour. The increasing areas under sugarcane increase the demand for male agricultural labour than female agricultural labour. Increasing area under paddy, flowers, cotton, and sugarcane increased again where more female labour than male labour were engaged. Therefore, feminizations have occurred in the study villages. The increasing family labour, particularly Backward Caste and Most Backward caste women to work in their own fields instead of hired labour. However, this increasing family labour not affected the increasing wage rate of the female agricultural workers. Nevertheless, high proportions of agricultural labourers were *Dalits* rather than other caste.

WAGE

The wage rate of the casual rate as represented in the below table 2. The work like ploughing, performance of fertilizers and pesticides were exclusively male workers and female were not engaged in these activities. Usually, tractors were used to plough the land and in an infrequent environment only manual ploughing was used. The manual plough working time was 6.00 am to 12.30 pm with breakfast of Rs.350. For performing fertilizer and pesticides wage rate was Rs.150 and working time was 8.am to 12.30 pm. For sugar cane sapling wage rate for male was Rs. 150 and female was Rs.120, paddy transplanting for male was Rs.90 and female was Rs.90 and however, employer prepare for female workers than male workers in paddy transplantation. For weeding operation was Rs.90 for male workers and Rs.80 for female workers. For paddy harvesting work was Rs.120 for male and Rs. 100 for female.

Table 2
Casual Wage Rate in the Study Villages

Different Operation	Male	Female
Plough With Bullock	350	
Plough Without Bullock	250	
Fertilizers	150	
Pesticides	150	
Sapling	150	120

Work Operation	Male	Female
Paddy Transplanting	90	90
Weeding	90	80
Paddy Harvesting	120	100
Total	115	100.0

Source: Field Survey

For contract or group work wage rate for transplanting the female wage rate was Rs. 2500 for one acre within the village and Rs. 2800 for outside the village. For harvesting, Rs. 2000 for one acre for female and male was used casual in harvesting. In the harvesting operation the males prepare bundles and bring the paddy bundle to outside the field.

In the study villages, the demand for labour is increased with regard to female labour rather than male agricultural labourers. As a result, male labourers have migrated to out of villages for both agricultural work and non-agricultural work. The nature of agricultural works clearly shows segmented labour market in the study villages. Female agricultural workers performed in paddy transplantation, weeding, threshing and cotton picking, flower picking etc. However, for male labourers engaged in ploughing (plough operation mostly through tractors), bunding, irrigations, inter-cultivation, reaping and harvesting, sugarcane cutting and loading. In recent years, group or contract labour system emerged for both male and female. The five or more than five female members join together to form a group and performed task. The cultivators also preferred group labourers rather than casual labour in order to avoid supervising. In addition to this, wages have paid through monetization and slowly the disappearance of wages in kind systems.

The researcher asked the question on wage fluctuations of agricultural workers for different seasons. The result revealed that 42 per cent of workers reported that wage fluctuation was occurred in their villages and 58 per cent of workers reported there was no wage fluctuation. The wage rate was the identical in the entire seasons. For wage payment received in advance, 11.3 per cent of workers reported that they received in advance and only 4.3 per cent of workers were aware of the minimum agricultural wage rate. There was absence of agricultural labour trade union activities in the study villages.

The study posed certain questions to the agricultural labourers with regard to how wage rates were fixed (see table 5) and results revealed that 22.6 per cent of workers shared that the cultivators had raised the wage rate depending upon the demand and supply of labour. On the hand, 46 percent of labourer's voiced that during the peak season there is a withdrawal of the labour and as a result cultivators routinely rise the wage. In this circumstance, cultivators add to the wage rate and not the reverse. This is the general strategy adopted by agricultural labour side. There was an opinion of 31.3 per cent that both cultivators and agricultural labourers were responsible to raise the wage rate. In the study villages, there was no role of trade union and minimum wage Act. There was absence of knowledge of minimum wage Act at labour side and cultivator side.

Generally, during the busy season when the demand for agricultural labour was high and this advantage to the wage rate for agricultural labour particularly for

female agricultural labourers than for male agricultural labourers. During the slack seasons, male labourers migrated to farm employment and non-farm employment in nearby villages and urban centres. However, female labourers were doing not migrated and as result wage rate was stagnant.

INDEBTNESS OF THE AGRICULTURAL LABOUR

For indebtedness of the agricultural labourers, out of 115 sample workers nearly 81 per cent were indebted and 19 per cent reported to absence of debt. Among the indebted workers they were classified into three groups; (a) below Rs.1, 00, 000, (b) between Rs.1, 00,001 to Rs.2, 00,000 and (c) above 2, 00,001. Out of 93 indebted workers, 46 per cent of workers were in the debt amount of below Rs. 1,00,000, 32.2 per cent of workers were in the range of Rs.1,00,001 to Rs.2,00,000 and 21 per cent of workers reported that the amount of debt was above Rs.2,00,001. Purpose of debt for agricultural labourers, 40 per cent of agricultural labourers were indebted for the purposes/ reason of construction of houses, 32 per cent were indebted for marriage purpose of their children or close relatives, 21 per cent were indebted for their children education, 18 per cent were indebted for business purposes, 12 per cent were indebted for religious activities and 6 per cent were indebted for purchase of livestock.

Family Income

The family income consists of agricultural wage income, non-agricultural wage income, and livestock income of the agricultural labour households. In additions, to this the supply of labour (family size) also determines the total family income. The monthly income were classified into four categories (1) less than Rs.5000, (2) Rs.5001 to Rs.7000, (3) Rs.7001 to Rs.10,000 and (4) above Rs.10,001. Out of 115 agricultural labour households, 15.65 per cent were reported that their income was less than Rs.5000, 28.69 per cent reported that their income were between Rs.5001 to Rs.7000, 35.65 per cent were between Rs.7001 to Rs.10000 and 20 per cent were reported that their income was above Rs.10,001

Household Amenities among Agricultural Labourers

The household amenities were examined and these were the ownership of housing, type of house, availability of electricity, availability of drinking water, sources of drinking water and sources of cooking. Out of 115, agricultural labour, 93 owned houses and only 7 per cent were in rented houses. In the type of houses, 68 per cent were living in concrete house, 11 per cent were in thatched house, and 21 per cent were living in hut. For availability of electricity, 95 per cent of agricultural labourer households had connections and among them 15 per cent were utilizing government free electricity schemes. For availability of drinking water in nearby residence, 75 per cent reported yes and 25 per cent reported no. For different sources of drinking water, 4 per cent used own sources, 21 per cent used public bore well with connected tap and 86 per cent used public tap as a sources. For sources of cooking, 57 per cent were used traditional sources of cooking like firewood; nearly 9 per cent were using Kerosene and 34 per cent used LPG. Supplementary to these household

amenities, household items like bi-cycle, two wheeler, television, fan, refrigerator, mobile phone, laptop and computer also indicated the economic condition of agricultural labour. Out of 115 sample agricultural labour, and household items for 43 per cent had bi-cycle, 25 per cent had two-wheeler, 93 per cent had television, 75 per cent had fan, 10 per cent had refrigerator, 81 per cent had mobile phone and 10 per cent had laptop.

Welfare Measures

There are various welfare measures provided by Tamil Nadu state government for rural people. Out of 115 sample agricultural labourers, 41 per cent of agricultural labourer have agricultural labour card, and 83.5 per cent of workers have chief minister health card. For ration card, 95 per cent of workers have ration card. For marriage assistance, 10 per cent of labourer reported to be benefited by the scheme, in case of maternity benefit schemes 12 per cent of labour reported to be benefited and similarly 12 per cent of sample workers reported to receive the old age pension benefits schemes. For government housing schemes 38.3 per cent reported to attain the benefit and 14.8 per cent of workers reported to put on free electricity in their housing. Only 6 per cent of sample agricultural labourers have membership in Co-operative banks and 77 per cent had commercial bank pass book.

CONCLUSION

The above analysis reveals that there are several changes that have taken place in the employment relations and patterns, wage conditions over the period of time. The growth of non-farm employment in near urban centre, migration, well connected transportation had positive change in labour mobility. However, labour mobility affected cultivators due to the shortage of labour in the peak seasons and this can be compensated through mechanization of agriculture. This increasing mechanization led to expand area under cultivation and increasing crop intensity. This process again increasing demand for labour and it push the wage rate. In addition to this, MGNREGA, effective public distribution system covering free rice and subsidized rate of wheat, sugar and other items through ration card, expanding health facilities in rural areas, free school education, chief minister health card, free housing schemes, old age pensions and other welfare schemes of the Tamil Nadu government had definitely increased socio-economic conditions of the agricultural labour households. In general there was an increase in economic conditions due to various welfare measures of the state government.

In the agricultural labour market, women work participation is higher than male work participation. Male work participation is higher in non-agricultural employment than female. This found results contrary to the official report of census work participation of women workers in the study villages. Generally, the work participation rate has increased in both cultivation and in agricultural labourer households. Further analysis reveal, that the recent NSSO reports suggested that withdrawal of women workers due to increasing women education and also with increased economic improvements. This is also contradictory in the study field villages, where male workers were migrating seasonally and as a result, women

workers were entering into the agricultural work. Consequently, feminizations of agricultural labour market have taking place in the study villages. Gradually disappearance of kind wage payment to agricultural labourers. Previously, the payment of paddy harvest was only in kind and at present only in cash payment. This had happed due to efficient universal public distribution system in Tamil Nadu. MGNREGA had its impact in every household in the study villages and it altered the working time, labour relations, and wage rate. The number of old aged workers, women, across caste and class participated in MGNREGA work. However, MGNREGA have not confirmed to reduce gender wage gap in the study villages.

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Trends Growth and Wage Differential of Agricultural Labour in Andhra Pradesh

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Introduction

The proportion of agricultural sector contribution in GDP has declined and at the same time agricultural sector has the indicator of the rural livelihood status in India. There is a strong interlinkage between growth of real agricultural wage and the reduction of poverty in rural areas. The poorest poor the rural segment is agricultural labour. The state of Andhra Pradesh has 59.51 workers were agricultural workers. Among this, cultivators were 16.47 per cent and agricultural workers were 43.04 per cent and among the agricultural labour, male was 33.62 per cent and female was 58.00 per cent (Census of 2011). Thus, Andhra Pradesh has the first rank in women agricultural labourers. The first objective of the study is to examine the trend of agricultural wage rate and particularly field labour wage and other agricultural labour wage rate. The second objective is the growth of agricultural wage rate and third objective is to examine the gender gap of wage differential of male and female agricultural workers in the same operations. The second section of the paper deals on methodology, third section provide trend and growth rate of field labour, fourth section provides trend, growth rate of other agricultural labour, and final section provide conclusion.

Methodology

There are three major sources of agricultural wage; (1) National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO), (2) Season and Crop Reports and (3) Agricultural Wage of India (AWI). Among these sources, this present study used the sources of AWI. AWI provided monthly wages of different agricultural operations at district level. In this study, this monthly wages were converted into annual average and this called annual money wage rate. This annual money wage rate can be deflated through consumer price index of agricultural labourers (CPI of AL) of Andhra Pradesh in the respected years. This study covered the period from 2000-01 to 2013-14 and simple annual average growth rate is calculated in the study.

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Trend and Growth Rate of Field Labor

The trend of male field labour wage rate across districts of Andhra Pradesh since 2000-01 to 2013-14 has been brought out table 1. The highest male field labour real wage rate was Rs.17.21 in Krishna district, followed by Srikakulam district, which was Rs. 17.09 in 2000-01. For lowest wage rate was Chittoor and Kurnool district, which was 11.70 and 11.96 respectively in 2000-01. A noticeable feature is that the out of 10 districts, six districts had fall in real wage rate and remaining four districts had increasing trend in 2001-02 to compare with previous year of 2000-01. After 2005-06, the declining real wage rate district had fallen and majority of district had increasing trend. In 2009-10, the highest wage rate was registered in East Godavari district and West Godavari district, which was Rs.29.89 and Rs. 29.44 per cent respectively. The lowest wage rate was registered in Chittor district and Vijianagaram district, which was Rs.18.87 and Rs.18.12 respectively. In 2013-14, the highest wage rate was Rs.36.4 and lowest wage rate was Rs. 25.7, which was Guntur district and Kurnool district respectively.

Table 2 shows the trend of female filed labour agricultural wage rate. For female field labour, the highest wage rate was Rs.15.34 in Prakasam district followed by East Godavari was Rs.13.54 and the lowest wage Rs.8.94, which was Vijianagaram in 2000-01. The noticeable observation was that the 9 districts out of 11 districts real wage rate had fallen in 2002-03 to compare to 2001-02. In 2009-10, out of 13 districts majority (9 districts) of districts real wage rate had increased to compare the previous year of 2008-09. The highest wage rate was Rs.25 and lowest wage rate was Rs.11.78, which were Prakasam and Visakhapatnam districts respectably in 2009-10. In 2013-14, the highest wage rate had registered in Guntur district and lowest wage rate had registered in Kurnool district, which was Rs.27.9 and Rs.15.2 respectively.

For growth rate of male field labourers (see table 1) indicated positive growth rate from the period of 2000-01 to 2013-14. During the period, the highest growth rate was 11.98 per cent and lowest growth rate was 4.89 per cent, which were Visakhapatnam and Krishna districts respectively. The main observation is that the Visakhapatnam district wage rate reported only after 2006-07 and therefore comparison of Visakhapatnam district to other district not relevant. The districts like Guntur (10.03 per cent), Kurnool (9.45 per cent), West Godavari (9.54 per cent) and East Godavari (7.78) had indicated considerable growth of field real wage rate of male. In the case of female growth rate (see table 2) highest wage rate was 9.61 per cent in the districts of West Godavari and Kurnool. The lowest growth rate was 5.02 per cent in East-Godavari district and Chittor district registered 5.03 per cent. Generally, the growth rate of male field labour wage rate was higher than female growth rate. The noticeable observation was that the only five district had reported that the female growth rate higher than male growth rate. These districts were Srikakulam (male growth rate was 6.56 per cent and

female growth rate was 7.12 per cent), Vijianagaram (male growth rate was 5.77 per cent and female growth rate was 5.92 per cent), West Godavari (male growth rate was 9.54 per cent and female was 9.61 per cent) and Kurnool (male growth rate was 9.45 per cent and female was 9.61 per cent).

Other Agricultural Labour

For male other agricultural operations (see table 3), the highest wage rate was Rs.17.48 in East Godavari district and lowest wage rate was Rs.9.57 in Vijianagaram in 2000-01. Followed the next year (2001-02), out of 10 districts, 5 districts had increasing trend and other 5 districts had declining trend. In 2006-07, the highest wage rate had registered in the district of West-Godavari and lowest wage rate was registered in the district of Krishna, which was Rs.24.00 and Rs.10.66 respectively. In 2013-14, the highest wage rate was Rs.37.26 in Cuddapha district and lowest wage rate was Rs.21.85 in Vijianagaram districts. The major observation is that over the periods increasing trend of other agricultural wage rate.

The rising trend of female other agricultural wage rate from 2000-01 to 2013-2014 in all districts (see table 4). In 2000-01, the highest wage was registered in Chittoor district and lowest wage rate was registered in Vijianagaram, which was Rs.14.46 and Rs.19.73 rate respectively. In 2006-07, the highest wage rate was Rs.19.95 in Nellore district and lowest wage rate was Rs.7.40 in Kurnool district. During 2013-14, the highest wage rate was Rs.23.25 and lowest wage rate was Rs.15.85, which were West Godavari and Vijianagram districts respectively.

For growth rate of male (see table 3), the highest growth rate was 11.05 per cent in Cuddapha district and lowest growth rate was 4.87 per cent Srikakulam district. The other districts were Anantapur was 9.43 per cent West Godavari was 9.14 per cent, Vijianagaram was 8.88 per cent, Nellore was 8.20 per cent, Krishna was 7.49 per cent, Prakasam was 7.02 per cent, Chittoor was 6.63 per cent, East Godavari was 6.60 per cent and Guntur 5.72 per cent. For female growth rate (see table 4), the highest growth rate was 8.89 per cent in Krishna district, followed by 8.74 per cent in West Godavari district, 8.03 per cent in Kurnool district, 7.86 per cent in Vijianagram district, and 7.59 per cent in Srikakulam district. The lowest growth rate was registered in 4.13 per cent in Chittoor district followed by 4.41 per cent in East Godavari and 4.51 in Guntur. The district of Visakhapatnam registered 2.09 per cent and Cuddapha district had registered in 1.82 per cent and however, it covered the period of 2006-07 to 2013-14. Only three districts female other agricultural growth rate had higher than male growth rate, which were Srikakulam district (male growth rate was 4.87 per cent and female was 7.59 per cent), Krishna district (male growth rate was 7.49 per cent and female was 8.89 per cent) and Kurnool district (male growth rate was 5.76 per cent and female was 8.89 per cent).

Gender Wage Gap

The trend in male-female wage differential arises over the periods. There was no clear pattern of wage differential between male and female because of fluctuation of wage. However, wage differential arises from the period of 2000-01 to 2013-14 in all districts of Andhra Pradesh for field labour and other agricultural labour operations. For field operation (see table 5), the highest wage differentials were registered in Srikakulam district and lowest had Prakasam district, which was 40.78 per cent and 1.92 per cent respectively. In 2013-14, the highest wage difference was 40.86 per cent in Kurnool district and lowest was 16.5 per cent in Nellore district. For other agricultural wage operation (see table 6), again Srikakulam and Prakasam districts registered highest and lowest wage difference, which was 40.78 per cent and 6.79 per cent respectively. In 2013-14, the highest wage difference was 46.40 per cent in East Godavari district and lowest was 25.01 per cent in Srikakulam district. Among the two operations like field work and other agricultural work, the wage gap was wider in field work than other agricultural work between male and female.

Conclusion

The trend analysis shows that both male and female wage rate of field labour and other agricultural labour had increased in all districts of Andhra Pradesh. The rising trend had more for male than female in all operations. For growth rate, majority of districts indicated male growth rate had higher than female growth rate. Only five districts growth rate had higher for female than male in the field operation and for other agricultural operations only three districts growth rate had higher for female than male. Therefore, the major finding of the present papers is that rural labour market and particularly agricultural labour market is

dominated by male than female. The wage gap had increased over the periods and it clearly indicated that all government policy had failed to fill the gender wage gap including MGNREGP. Many studies reported that the positive impact of the MGNREGP had reduced wage gap and this study demonstrated that contradictory.

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Table 1: REAL WAGE RATE OF FIELD LABOUR MALE- 2000-01 to 2013-14

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	Growth Rate
Srikakulam	17.09	15.52	16.88	19.12	17.74	16.62	19.12	22.09	23.24	28.83	28.61	28.61	35.81	33.1	6.56
Vijianagaram	11.83	12.20	13.69	13.83	13.96	16.17	15.79	20.06	21.41	18.12	20.2	22.38	24.53	22.6	5.77
West Godavari	12.62	12.20	11.70	15.85	17.97	23.47	24.00	25.10	18.85	29.44	38.6	37.72	32.91	31.5	9.54
Krishna	17.21	21.06	19.37	17.29	16.81	NA	17.46	21.90	27.20	24.00	30.4	32.23	29.33	27.6	4.89
Guntur	12.76	13.58	14.62	NA	13.54	NA	20.99	20.93	26.26	27.93	30.54	37.25	37.77	36.4	10.03
Prakasam	15.64	16.49	15.02	NA	21.94	20.66	12.00	23.47	33.06	28.62	27.27	32.69	36.53	33.7	7.31
Nellore	14.20	13.72	13.82	NA	14.10	13.48	14.96	14.53	18.08	21.21	29.02	27.73	25.69	32.2	7.26
Kurnool	11.96	10.12	9.57	NA	11.90	14.85	12.93	12.11	18.94	23.40	24.6	28.57	27.8	25.7	9.45
Chittoor	11.70	15.24	14.62	15.61	14.01	14.82	15.38	17.44	18.60	18.87	28.05	33.43	27.91	30.6	7.53
East Godavari	15.64	14.83	15.02	14.41	14.59	14.49	15.08	15.50	26.86	29.89	30.96	28.52	33.3	30.3	7.78
Anantpur		13.30	11.56	NA	NA	11.23	12.24	12.16	16.70	22.64	27.02	22.73	30.99	29.1	9.65
Cuddapha							19.64	19.38	20.40	20.09	22.94	28.29	32.32	31.7	8.72
Visakhapatnam							17.56	20.54	23.42	20.83	27.36	30.03	39.43	37.1	11.98

Sources: Agricultural Wages of India and Authors Calculations

Table 2: REAL WAGE RATE OF FIELD LABOUR FEMALE - 2000-01 to 2013-14

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	Growth Rate
Srikakulam	10.12	9.70	9.57	10.35	10.85	11.79	12.26	14.15	14.12	18.42	20.73	19.63	20.01	19.7	7.12
Vijianagaram	8.94	9.76	9.65	10.09	9.85	10.89	9.77	15.41	17.30	14.49	17.79	15.34	18.71	15.4	5.92
West godavari	9.99	9.15	8.77	11.53	13.77	17.74	19.01	18.12	13.86	21.59	27.44	28.72	26.32	25.0	9.61
Krishna	10.90	13.86	10.23	10.95	12.14		9.98	12.60	13.77	17.74	21.42	21.21	20.43	20.4	5.98
Guntur	10.61	10.95	11.70		10.74		19.33	11.05	17.39	19.76	30.45	27.39	27.85	27.9	9.49
Prakasam	15.34	14.83	13.56		21.85	16.17	10.13	17.97	27.27	25.00	23.95	24.1	23.64	26.9	5.22
Nellore	12.62	12.20	11.70		11.20	10.78	9.98	11.24	14.46	15.02	20.73	20.65	21.08	27.0	6.28
Kurnool	9.20	7.76	5.85		5.49	9.07	7.21	5.81	13.43	17.36	17.55	19.91	18.52	15.2	9.61
Chittoor	11.70	15.24	13.56	15.61	14.01	13.93	13.30	15.70	16.53	15.40	22.94	25.82	20.46	24.2	5.03
East Godavari	13.54	12.33	12.09	11.65	12.02	11.79	12.58	12.21	18.77	17.21	18.93	16.44	22.52	22.0	5.02
Anantpur		12.33	10.23			9.77	9.75	9.69	11.54	15.40	20.94	17.05	20.13	20.4	6.70
Cuddapha							15.38	17.73	16.96	16.47	19.35	21.25	19.1	23.1	4.94
Visakhapatnam							12.57	14.53	15.50	11.78	15.34	18.61	24.35	20.6	8.48

Sources: Agricultural Wages of India and Authors Calculations



Table 3: REAL WAGE RATE OF OTHER AGRICULTURAL LABOUR MALE- 2000-01 to 2013-14

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	Growth Rate
Srikakulam	17.09	15.38	16.88	17.89	17.39	17.52	18.70	21.71	21.52	27.17	28.2	27.88	27.29	24.39	4.87
Vijianagaram	9.57	10.25	9.73	10.09	11.67	12.13	11.64	20.35	22.73	23.70	23.2	21.15	23.59	21.85	8.88
West Godavari	12.49	10.67	8.90	12.05	16.22	23.81	24.00	23.93	17.48	27.32	30.2	30.62	27.58	27.21	9.14
Krishna	14.63	15.24	17.54	17.87	17.97		10.66	21.32	25.65	22.57	33.5	37.43	30.7	32.52	7.49
Guntur	15.34	18.85	12.43		13.31		16.83	23.26	20.66	26.87	24.7	25.72	23.87	25.47	5.72
Prakasam	13.54	15.24	13.56		15.41	13.93	11.22	16.28	19.80	19.93	19.9	21.89	33.42	36.59	7.02
Nellore	13.01	10.39	17.54		11.20	10.78	19.95	17.05	18.60	17.96	24.9	27.65	26.05	34.15	8.20
Kurnool	15.77	15.24	15.95		13.07	14.13	12.74	12.40	20.14	22.80	24.6	28.29	27.74	25.28	5.76
Chittoor	17.35	18.29	16.75	17.29	16.11	15.72	14.96	16.28	16.87	19.02	27.6	33.43	40.93	36.59	6.63
East Godavari	17.48	16.08	15.82	15.73	15.87	15.27	14.85	19.57	25.48	30.19	31.8	23.5	29.27	34.89	6.60
Anantpur		10.53	10.23			17.81	12.47	14.34	19.11	21.89	27	23.48	29.9	31.71	9.43
Cuddapha							19.95	18.60	16.53	14.49	18.5	24.28	34.11	37.26	11.05
Visakhapatnam							23.79	26.07	26.69	23.19	29.6	32.44	40.61	33.87	6.79

Sources: Agricultural Wages of India and Authors Calculations

Table 4: REAL WAGE RATE OF OTHER AGRICULTURAL LABOUR FEMALE - 2000-01 to 2013-14

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	Growth Rate
Srikakulam	10.12	9.15	8.77	9.37	9.92	11.46	11.33	13.57	14.81	16.30	20.3	19.46	21.83	18.29	7.59
Vijianagaram	7.68	8.07	7.71	8.65	10.27	11.01	10.60	15.79	18.60	17.81	17	16.04	18.19	15.85	7.86
West Godavari	9.99	9.15	7.31	10.57	13.07	18.08	17.35	17.93	14.03	18.12	18.7	34.73	19.29	23.25	8.74
Krishna		8.77	8.77	10.95	12.84		7.82	12.40	13.77	11.40	26.5	29.44	18.19	18.29	8.89
Guntur	12.62	17.46	9.50		10.15		12.26	11.05	16.53	18.12	16.6	20.02	18.76	18.29	4.51
Prakasam	12.62	12.33	10.63		12.14	11.23	9.98	12.40	15.67	16.30	16.6	18.53	20.19	21.34	5.14
Nellore	11.83	9.98	11.70		11.20	10.78	19.95	12.40	9.81	7.25	16.6	18.96	20.56	20.12	4.24
Kurnool	9.73	9.15	8.77		7.47	7.39	7.40	5.81	14.12	17.51	17.6	19.89	19.78	18.29	8.03
Chittoor	14.46	15.24	13.82	14.41	14.24	13.48	12.47	13.76	14.63	15.40	22.4	25.45	22.74	20.73	4.13
East Godavari	13.93	13.03	13.02	13.09	13.07	12.69	12.13	15.89	17.73	20.68	19.5	18.09	23.53	18.70	4.41
Anantpur		9.01	8.90			9.61	10.49	9.88	14.98	16.30	20.3	15.18	19.1	18.29	7.86
Cuddapha							14.96	13.95	12.40	10.87	14.5	17.03			1.82
Visakhapatnam							17.56	18.31	16.87	14.31	19.5	18.71	19.78	19.51	2.09

Sources: Agricultural Wages of India and Authors Calculations



Table 5: WAGE GAP OF FIELD LABOUR - 2000-01 to 2013-14

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14
Srikakulam	40.78	37.50	43.31	45.87	38.84	29.06	35.88	35.94	39.24	36.11	27.54	31.39	44.12	40.48
Vijianagaram	24.43	20.00	29.51	27.04	29.44	32.65	38.13	23.18	19.20	20.03	11.93	31.46	23.73	31.86
West Godavari	20.84	25.00	25.04	27.26	23.37	24.41	20.79	27.81	26.47	26.66	28.91	23.86	20.02	20.63
Krishna	36.66	34.19	47.19	36.67	27.78		42.84	42.47	49.38	26.08	29.54	34.19	30.34	26.09
Guntur	16.85	19.37	19.97		20.68		7.91	47.20	33.78	29.25	0.29	26.47	26.26	23.35
Prakasam	1.92	10.07	9.72		0.41	21.73	15.58	23.43	17.51	12.65	12.17	26.28	35.29	20.18
Nellore	11.13	11.08	15.34		20.57	20.03	33.29	22.64	20.02	29.18	28.57	25.53	17.94	16.15
Kurnool	23.08	23.32	38.87		53.87	38.92	44.24	52.02	29.09	25.81	28.66	30.31	33.38	40.86
Chittoor			7.25		0.00	6.01	13.52	9.98	11.13	18.39	18.22	22.76	26.69	20.92
East Godavari	13.43	16.86	19.51	19.15	17.61	18.63	16.58	21.23	30.12	42.42	38.86	42.36	32.37	27.39
Anantpur		7.29	11.51			13.00	20.34	20.31	30.90	31.98	22.50	24.99	35.04	29.90
Cuddapha							21.69	8.51	16.86	18.02	15.65	24.89	40.90	27.13
Visakhapatnam							28.42	29.26	33.82	43.45	43.93	38.03	38.24	44.47

Sources: Authors Calculations

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Table 6: WAGE GAP OF AGRICULTURAL LABOUR - 2000-01 to 2013-14

Districts	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-2014
Srikakulam	40.78	40.51	48.05	47.62	42.96	34.59	39.41	37.49	31.18	40.01	28.01	30.20	20.01	25.01
Vijianagaram	19.75	21.27	20.76	14.27	12.00	9.23	8.93	22.41	18.17	24.85	26.72	24.16	22.89	27.46
West Godavari	20.02	14.25	17.87	12.28	19.42	24.07	27.71	25.07	19.74	33.67	38.08	-13.42	30.06	14.55
Krishna			50.00	38.72	28.55		26.64	41.84	46.32	49.49	20.90	21.35	40.75	43.76
Guntur	17.73	7.37	23.57		23.74		27.15	52.49	19.99	32.56	32.79	22.16	21.41	28.19
Prakasam	6.79	19.09	21.61		21.22	19.38	11.05	23.83	20.86	18.21	16.58	15.35	39.59	41.68
Nellore	9.07	3.95	33.30		0.00	0.00	0.00	27.27	47.26	59.63	33.33	31.43	21.07	41.08
Kurnool	38.30	39.96	45.02		42.85	47.70	41.92	53.15	29.89	23.20	28.46	29.69	28.70	27.65
Chittoor	16.66	16.68	17.49	16.66	11.61	14.25	16.64	15.48	13.28	19.03	18.84	23.87	44.44	43.35
East Godavari	20.31	18.97	17.70	16.78	17.64	16.90	18.32	18.80	30.42	31.50	38.68	23.02	19.61	46.40
Anantpur		14.43	13.00			46.04	15.88	31.10	21.61	25.54	24.81	35.35	36.12	42.32
Cuddapha							25.01	25.00	24.98	24.98	21.62	29.86		
Visakhapatnam							26.19	29.77	36.79	38.29	34.12	42.32	51.29	42.40

Sources: Authors Calculations

Vulnerability of Informal Workers: A Case Study of Waste Pickers in Vellore Town of Tamil Nadu

(21)

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Abstract

This study presents socio-economic conditions of waster pickers in Vellore town of Tamil Nadu. This study based on primary data collection of 105 waste pickers in Vellore. This study examine the literacy, caste, religion, marital status, age, nature of employment, income, environment and health problem, utilization of health care and household amities.

Key Word; Urban poor-Waste pickers, urban informal workers.

Introduction

The labour markets in developing counties are functioned at dualistic such as modern and traditional. This dualistic model grows due to unequal distribution of technical progress. In the modern labour market in developed economy is to high level of labour productivity and it lead to high level of employment and income. On the other hand traditional labour market in developing economy is to low level of productivity, mass level of unemployment and underemployment and low level of income. But, the modern sector in developing counties has low percentage of employment and low level of labour productivity. This is the common phenomenon in developing countries. This type of economic dualism has been expressed in formal and informal in developing countries. The majority of labour are reside in the informal sectors. Labour worked in the informal sectors is describes informal labour. There is no unique definition for formal and informal labour in the universe. The definition had change nation to nation. In the context, this study examine the function of informal labour market in developing economy and it particularly observant to waste pickers.

The waste pickers are indispensable in urban economy and particularly in the solid waste management in urban environmental problems. They collected urban solid waste such as paper and plastic. This two items of paper and plastic contributed major urban environment problems and these waste are detached by waste pickers However, the society not valued the waste pickers and their occupation is not reorganized. In the circumstance this study examine five main objectives as: (i) the socio-economic condition of waste pickers, (ii) pattern of

employment and working conditions, (iii) labour mobility, working hours and income (iv) health status and health access of the waste pickers and (v) household amenities. This paper divided into six section followed by introduction, second section provided methodology, third section provided socio-economic condition, fourth section deals on employment and labour mobility, fifth section provided health status and health access and sixth section provided conclusion.

Section - II

Methodology

This study is based on primary data with simple random sampling of method. The total numbers of waster pickers in the study were 105 respondents. This interview scheduled was prepared on the basis of pilot study. This pilot study completed through personal interview scheduled and group discussion among 15 waste pickers in Vellore town. The interview scheduled was prepared to collect information on socio-economic background of the waste pickers, nature of employment, labour mobility and different social security measures.

Study Areas and Methodology

This study was completed in Vellore town of Tamil Nadu, Inida. Vellore city is the headquarters of this district. The Vellore city Municipal Corporation was established as early as 1866, this municipality was upgraded to first grade in 1947 and to selection grade in 1970. It was then upgraded to a special grade in 1979. Further, it was upgraded as corporation in 1.8-2008. The corporation of Vellore consists of 60 wards and this corporation is divided into 4 Zones with 15 wards each. Katpadi (Tharapadavedu) has 1 to 15 wards, Sathuvachari has 16 to 30 wards, Old Corporation has 31 to 45 wards, and Shenbakkam has 46 to 60 wards. The below map show Vellore location and its urban agglomeration (see Map 1). It had a population of 3,477,317 as of 2011. It is 37.62 per cent urbanized. The district has a literacy of 73.06 per cent, slightly below the state average. The Vellore city has been short listed by Ministry of Urban development as one of the 98 smart cities in India.

For data collection, mixed method of sampling was used. In the mixed method accidental sampling and snow ball technique was used to identify the waste pickers in Vellore town. On the basis the study areas were Bagayam, fort back side, Alangar Theatre back side, Sathiya Nagar, Old Town, Shenbagam, Virupachipuram and Konavattam in Vellore Corporation. The total number of waste pickers was 105 and this study was under taken October to December 2017. The structure interview scheduled was used to collect information on socio-economic profile, employment, income and utilization of health care and their health status.

Section - III

Socio-Economic Profile

The gender wise distribution of the respondents indicated that the 71.4 percent were female and 28.6 percent were males (Table 1). The age wise classification of the waste pickers were classified in to five categories: (i) 20 to 30 age (ii) 31 to 40 age (iii) 41 to 50 age (iv) 51 to 60 age and (vi) above 61 age. Out of 105 respondents, the 28.6 percent were in the age group of 41-50 years and followed by 27.6 percent were in the age group of 51-60, 19 percent in 31- 40 years and 16.2 percent were in age group of 20 – 30 years and only 8.6 percent were above 61 years of age. Among these waste pickers, 61.9 percent were married and 31.4 percent were widows and 6.7 percent were unmarried. This clearly indicated that generally married women entered in the occupation and unmarried are negligible. In the religion and caste composition indicated that 87.6 per cent were Hindus, 6.7 per cent were Christian and 5.7 per cent were Muslim. In the caste composition obviously shows that lower caste groups were engaged in the waste picking occupation. The Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Most Backward Castes (MBCs) groups were represented in the sample. For the SC¹s were 68.6 per cent, M.B.C²s were 25.7 and 5.7 per cent were Backward Caste (B.Cs)³

¹ SCs were Adi Drivadar

² MBC were Boyar and Vanniyar. The Boyar are Telegu has the mother tang

³ The Labai category of Muslim were come under Backward Caste.

Table 1: Social Background

Gender of the Respondents		
Gender	Number of Respondents	Percent
Male	30	28.6
Female	75	71.4
Age of the Respondents		
Age	Number of Respondents	Percent
20-30	17	16.2
31-40	20	19.0
41-50	30	28.6
51-60	29	27.6
Above 61	9	8.6
Marital Status of the Respondents		
Marital Status	Number of Respondents	Percent
Married	65	61.9
Unmarried	7	6.7
Widow	33	31.4
Religion of the Respondents		
Religion	Number of Respondents	Percent
Hindu	92	87.6
Muslim	6	5.7
Christian	7	6.7
Caste of the Respondents		
Caste	Number of Respondents	Percent
SCs	72	68.6
M.B.Cs	27	25.7
B.Cs	6	5.7

Source: Field Survey

Section - IV

Education and Nature of Employment of the Waste Pickers

Generally, educational status determined the level of skill. The skill determined the level of earnings. The waste pickers in Vellore town indicted low levels of skill due to majority of waste pickers were illiterate (see table 2). Among the sample respondents, 79 per cent were illiterate and 21 per cent were literate. Among literate, 9.5 per cent were in the class of 1st to 5th standard, 10.5 per cent were in the class 6th to 10th standard and 1.0 per cent were in 9th to 10th standards. The researcher explored the nature of migration and the result found that the migration of waste pickers reported that 90.5 per cent were not migrated and only 9.5 per cent were migrated from other areas. The migrated were from Chittoor district of Andhra Pradesh and the neighboring district of Thiruvanamalai. The sample respondents reported that the reasons for choosing the present occupation due to not capable to find other jobs (9.5 per cent), lack of skill to do other work (64.8 per cent), and family occupation (25.7 per cent). Further, 75.2 per cent of waste pickers reported that the main occupation was waste picking and they were not engaged (part time or seasonal) in other occupation. The 25.8 per cent of waste pickers reported that they also occupied with other occupation such as clearing work at marriage or any other function, paid domestic workers, stone cutting, etc., .The researcher explored the age of waste pickers at the time of enter in the labour market. The result revealed that the 46.7 per cent of workers reported that they entered in the labour market at the age of below 15 years, 31.4 per cent of workers reported at the age of 16 to 20 years, 14.3 per cent of workers entered at the age of 21 to 25 years and 7.6 per cent of workers reported that above the age of 26. There is a corroborative evidence that the level of education and to enter in the labour market. The low level of education was the main reason to enter at the early age of labour market. Year of experience of waste picker shows that 27.6 per cent of respondents reported that they engaged in the occupation more than 25 years, 24.8 per cent of respondents reported that they have the work 16 to 20 years, 23.8 per cent of respondents reported that they work less than 10 years, 12.4 per cent reported that they work 11 to 15 years and 11.4 per cent reported that they work as 21-25 years.

Table 2: Education and Nature of Employment

Literacy Status of the Respondents		
Level of Literacy	Number of Respondents	Percent
Illiterate	83	79.0
Primary School (1-5)	10	9.5
Pre-Secondary School (6-8)	11	10.5
Secondary School (9-10)	1	1.0
Reason for choose this job		
Reasons	Number of Respondents	Percent
No other Employment	6	5.7
Don't know other work	68	64.8
Family Situation	27	25.7
No education	4	3.8
Age at time of enter the Work		
Age	Number of Respondents	Percent
Below 15 years	49	46.7
16-20	33	31.4
21-25	15	14.3
Above 26	8	7.6
Year of Experience		
Work Experience	Number of Respondents	Percent
Less than 10 years	25	23.8
11-15	13	12.4
16-20	26	24.8
21-25	12	11.4
Above 25 years	29	27.6

Source: Field Survey

Occupational Mobility

Table 3 show an occupational mobility of waste pickers. For the occupational mobility of the waste pickers reported that 69.5 per cent of workers reported that the first occupation and present occupation of waste picking were same. 12.4 per cent of workers

reported agricultural labour as the first occupation, 10.5 per cent of workers reported that construction work was the first occupation, 2.9 per cent were reported vegetable vending as the first occupation and home workers respectively and 1.9 per cent reported as worked in shoe factory. The horizontal and vertical mobility of the waste pickers were completely absent due to low level of education.

For inter general mobility of waste pickers as follows; 31.0 per cent of the waste pickers reported that their father occupation also waste picking, 20.8 per cent reported that the father occupation was stone cutting, 12.0 per cent reported that the father occupation was beedi making, 18.2 per cent were reported that the father occupation was rickshaw pulling, 8 per cent of workers reported that the father occupation was bullock cart driver, 10 per cent of workers reported that the father occupation was agricultural workers. For mother occupation, among the 105 sample respondents, 63.8 per cent were worked and 36.2 per cent were not engaged in any occupation. Among the worked mothers, 56.7 per cent of waste picker's mother also the same occupation in the previous generation. 23.8 per cent of workers reported that the mother occupation was agricultural labourer, 16.4 per cent of workers mother were worked as stone cutting and 14.9 per cent of workers reported that the mother occupation was domestic workers.

Husband occupation of the women workers indicated that 33 worker were widow out of 75 women workers and remaining 42 women respondents reported that load man in the market or bus stand (19.5 per cent), earth digging work or soil work (21.9 per cent), goat/sheep shepherd (19.5 per cent), drama worker (14.6 per cent), stone cutter (17.1 per cent) and auto driver (9.8 per cent). Among the male respondents wife were identified 4 major work; same waste picker (37.5 per cent), daily wage worker (29.1 per cent), domestic workers (16.7 per cent) and stone cutter (16.7 per cent).

Table 3: Occupational Mobility

Nature of enter in the First Work		
Enter the first work	Number of Respondents	Percent
Collect Garbage	73	69.5
Agriculture labour	13	12.4
Vegetable seller	3	2.9
Construction labour	11	10.5
Home worker	3	2.9
Shoe company	2	1.9
Occupation of the Father		
Father Occupation	Number of Respondents	Percent
Stone cutter	16	20.8
Beedi Worker	9	12.0
Bullock Cart Driver	6	8.0
Rickshaw Driver	14	18.2
Garbage Collection	24	31.0
Agriculture labour	8	10.0
Occupation of Mother		
Mother Occupation	Number of Respondents	Percent
Garbage Collection	38	56.7
Agriculture labour	10	14.9
Domestic Worker	8	11.9
Stone cutter	11	16.5
Occupation of Husband		
Load Man in the Market	8	19.5

Soil Worker	9	21.9
Goat/Sheep Shepherd	8	19.5

Stage/Drama worker	6	14.6
Stone Cutter	7	17.1
Auto Driver	4	9.8
Occupation of Wife		
Wife's Occupation	Number of Respondents	Percent
Taking garbage	9	37.5
Daily Coolie	7	29.1
Domestic Worker	4	16.7
Stone Cutter	4	16.7
Total	24	100.0

Source: Field Survey

Working Hours and Income of the Waste Pickers

The working hours of the male and female had different in waste picking. Generally male waste pickers started their work at the time of morning to after noon. But the female workers were started their work afternoon to evening. The male workers were out of their residence to 7 a.m or 8 a.m and female workers were out to residence 11. a.m or 12. p.m and to return 5 p.m or 6 p.m. The working hours were different person to person. Although, the researcher explored the working hours of the waste pickers as follows. The minimum working hours of waste pickers were 5 hours and maximum 10 hours per day. Out of 105 respondents, 19.0 per cent waste pickers reported that they worked 5 hours per day, 23.8 per cent reported 7 hours per day, 17.1 per cent reported 8 hours per day, 21.0 per cent reported 9 hours per day and 19.0 per cent reported 10 hours per day.

The working hours determined the quantity of garbage likes paper and plastic collection. As per the respondents reported (at the time of interview date) that the minimum weight of waste collection per day was 3 k.gs and maximum was 8 k.gs. (see table 4). Out of 105 respondents, 14.3 per cent of respondents reported that the collection of paper and plastic per day was 3 k.gs, 22.9 per cent of waste pickers reported that the collection was 4 k.gs per day, 35.2 per cent reported that 5k.gs per day, 12.4 per cent reported that 6 k.gs per day, 5.7 per cent reported that 7 k.gs per day, 9.5 per cent reported that 8 k.gs per day.

This collection of quantity of waste determined the level of income of the waste pickers. During at the time of interview period, the waste paper price was differing from Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 and the plastic price was differing from Rs. 8 to Rs.25. These prices depend upon the quality of paper and plastic. Therefore, working hours, collection of garbage, price of

paper and plastic determined the income of the respondents. As per income were classified into four categories; majority of the respondents (60 per cent) were under the income category of Rs.300 to Rs.399, followed by 21 per cent of respondents reported that they earned per day of Rs.200 to Rs.299, 10.5 per cent of respondents reported that Rs.400 to Rs.499 and 8.5 per cent of respondents reported that above Rs.500 (see table 4).

Table 4: Working Hours and Income

Working Hours of the Respondents		
Working Hours	Number of Respondents	Percent
5	20	19.0
7	25	23.8
8	18	17.1
9	22	21.0
10	20	19.0
Collection of paper & plastic per day		
Quantity in Kilograms	Number of Respondents	Percent
3 Kgs	15	14.3
4 Kgs	24	22.9
5 Kgs	37	35.2
6 Kgs	13	12.4
7 Kgs	6	5.7
8 Kgs	10	9.5

Income	Number of Respondents	Percent
Rs. 200 – Rs.299	22	21.0
Rs. 300 – Rs.399	63	60.0
Rs. 400 – Rs.499	11	10.5
Rs. 500 and Above	9	8.5

Source: Field Survey

Section - V

Health Status and Health Access

Socio-economic conditions and nature of employment determined the health status of the waste pickers. Out of 105 respondents, 89.5 per cent (94 respondents) of respondents reported some of health problems. The details of health problem reported by workers shown in the below table 5 and found 21 different kind of health problems. Majority of respondents reported that (29.3 per cent) hand/leg/and joint pain was the main health problems. Body pain, cold and cough, malaria, tuberculosis, asthma, breathing problems, skin diseases were common among the waste pickers.

Table 5: Diseases Affected by the Respondents

Name of the diseases	Number of Respondents	Percent
Cholera	8	7.6
Diarrhea	8	7.6
Typhoid	2	1.9
Jaundice	5	4.8
Hand/Leg/Joint pain	67	63.8
Skin Diseases	5	4.8
Eye Irritation	8	7.6

Malaria	16	15.2
Tuberculosis	18	17.1
Menstrual Problem	3	2.8
Embryo	6	5.7
Headache	3	2.8
Cold and Cough	16	15.2
Body Pain	23	21.9
Stomach Pain	8	7.6
Hair Falling	4	3.8

Asthma	7	6.7
Chest Pain	5	4.8
Breathing Problem	9	8.6
Allergic	2	1.9
Blood Pressure	4	3.8

Source: Field Survey

For sources of taking treatment revealed that the out of 94 health problems waste pickers, 77.6 per cent reported to take treatment and 22.4 per cent reported that not taking any treatment for their health (see table 6). Out of 73 respondents 67 per cent of respondents to take treatment in Christian Medical College (CMC) rural health centre, 21.9 per cent of respondents were to take treatment in private doctors/clinic and 10.9 per cent of respondents reported in Government health centers/hospital. This is obviously pointed that people faith in the quality of health care in government hospitals were deteriorated. The researcher asked the question on illness of the respondents to admit in hospital during the last one year (at the time of interview). Out of the 73 respondents, 19.2 per cent reported that to admit hospital for taking treatment.

Table 6: Utilization of Health Care

Taking Treatment	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Not Taking Treatment	21	22.4
Taking Treatment	73	77.6
Different Sources of Seeking Treatment		
CMC Rural Health Centre	49	67.2
Private Doctors/Clinic	16	21.9
Government Hospitals	8	10.9
Illness of Respondents Admitted in Hospitals		
Different Sources	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Yes	14	19.2
No	59	80.8
How long take Treatment in Hospital		
No. of Days	Number of Respondents	Percent
3	3	21.4
5	7	50.0

6	2	14.3
7	2	14.3
Health Expenditure		
Amount	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Less than Rs.3000	14	19.2
Rs.3001 to Rs.4000	23	31.5
Rs.4001 to Rs.5000	27	37.0
Above Rs. 5001	9	12.3

Source: Field Survey

Related to the above admitted respondents, the researcher explored how long to admit in hospitals for taking treatment. The answer was minimum 3 days and maximum seven days. Out of 14 respondents, 21.4 per cent (3 respondents) reported to admit in 3 days, 50.0 per cent of respondents reported 5 days (7 respondents), and 14.3 per cent of respondents were admitted in 6 days and 7 days respectively. In addition to this, researcher explored the medical expenditure of the respondents in the last one year. This includes consulting fees, medical examination such as blood test, X ray, ECG cost etc., and cost of drugs. Out of 73 respondents, 19.2 per cent reported that they incurred the amount of less than Rs. 3000, 31.5 per cent of respondents were reported to spend on Rs. 3001 to Rs. 4000, 37.0 per cent of respondents reported Rs. 4001 to Rs. 5000 and 12.3 per cent of respondents reported above Rs. 5001.

Section - VI

The public provision such as ration card, housing condition, bath room and toilet facilities, sources of drinking water, electricity, sources of cooking, etc. indicated the economic conditions. In the context, this study found that out of 105 respondents 81.9 per cent of respondents reported to have ration card. In the ration card is exceptionally helpful to purchase of free rice, subsidized price of wheat, sugar, dhal, cooking oil, etc., For housing, all the respondents having house, 69.5 per cent reported owned houses and 30.5 per cent were rented houses. All the respondents having owned houses have pucca houses. For bath room facilities, 76.2 per cent owned bath room and toilet facilities 28.6 per cent. All the household have electricity. For different sources of drinking water facilities, 96.2 per cent used corporation water (public tap water as the sources), 1.9 per cent were used bore well and 1.9 per cent used can water (paid water) for drinking purposes. For different sources of cooking fuels, 54.3 per cent used firewood as the sources of cooking, 36.2 per cent used LPG as the sources and 9.5 per cent used Kerosene as the sources. Finally, the household amenities likes cycle, two wheelers, fan, television, refrigerators and mobile phone. Out of 105 respondents, 24.8 per cent reported to have cycle, 30.5

per cent reported to have two wheeler, 89.5 per cent reported to have fan and television, 10.5 per cent have refrigerators and 80 per cent have the mobile phone.

Conclusion

This paper examined the health status of waste pickers in Vellore town of Tamil Nadu. This paper found the life of urban waste picker in Vellore and it based on primary data on collected from different urban localities. This obviously evidence that non-economic factors such as illiteracy and caste play a dominant role to determine the occupation. Educational level is one of the major determination to engage the waste picking. Health sector in India has developed in recent year. But the proportion of private health care developed rapidly than public sectors. The public health sectors in Tamil Nadu much inclusive for informal workers than other states. The number of primary health centre, easily access to drugs, Chief Minister Health Insurance Schemes, and various institutional agencies supported to ensure the better health access for informal workers in Tamil Nadu. Therefore, the access of overall health care both public and private health care is better in Tamil Nadu. Nevertheless, Governments should recognize the existence of the occupation and the important environmental, social, technical and economic role played by waste pickers. Governments should also invest in resource recovery/ protection programs and laws/policies that ensure stability in the occupation and decent livelihoods for waste pickers at the bottom of the recycling chain. They should promote policies that improve workers' conditions in the recycling industry—and not adopt technologies that displace large numbers of workers. Most importantly, local governments should adopt a holistic approach to solid waste management that recognizes the economic and environmental benefits of including informal waste pickers in waste management and planning.

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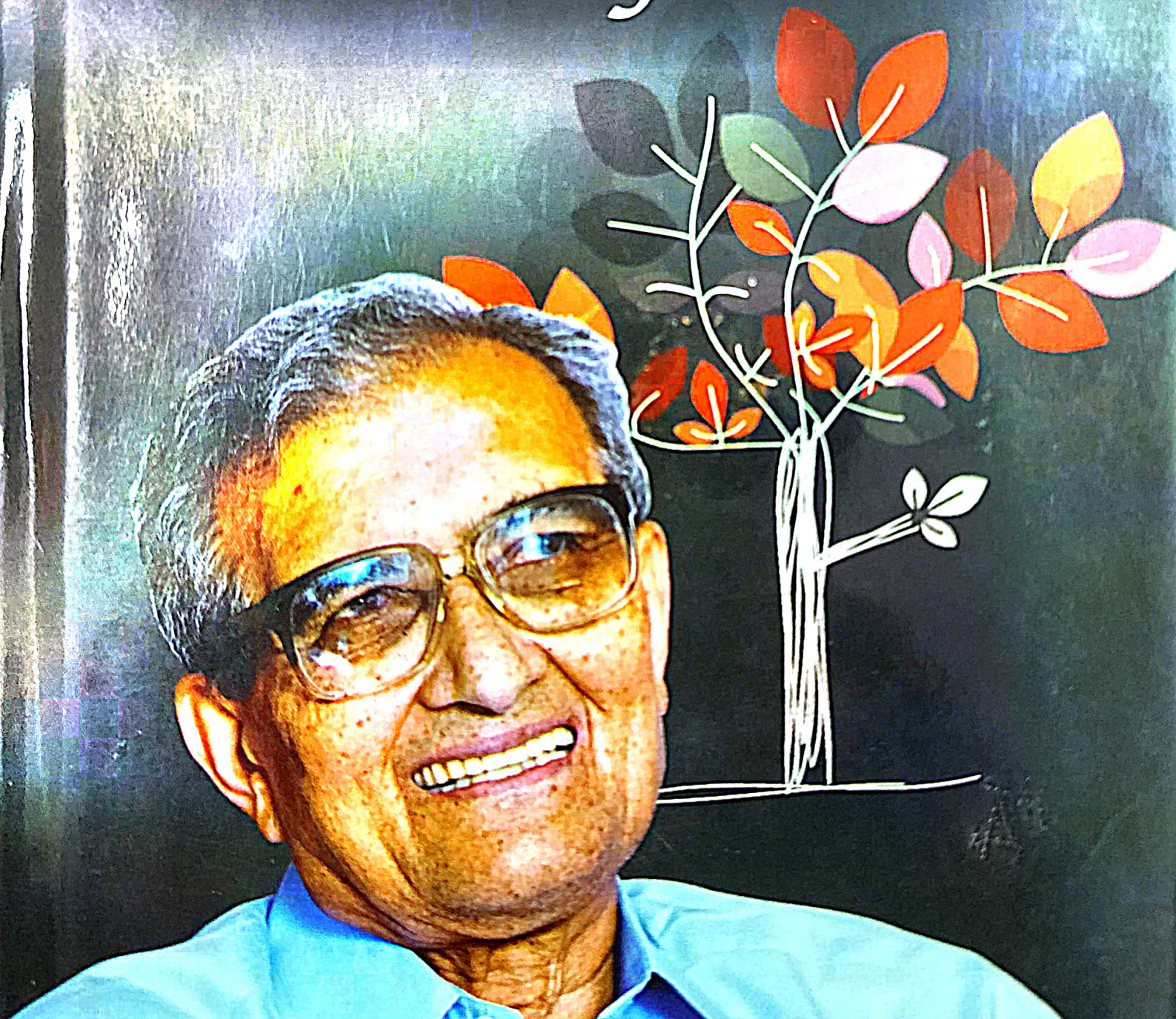
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Economic Thoughts of Amartya Sen



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CHAPTER

1

Professor Amartya Sen's Thoughts in Welfare Economics

C. DHANDAPANI AND G. JAYASANKAR

Professor Amartya Sen is one of the World's most important and influential intellectuals, one of its foremost thinkers. The award of the 1998 Nobel Prize for Economics to the great economist was the best thing that happened to the Nobel Prize in this field. This long-overdue award was for Sen's contributions to welfare economics and, among other things, for restoring "an ethical dimension to the discussion of vital economic problems". Prof. Amartya Sen's contributions to welfare economics, the basic theory of how societies make choices that are both fair and efficient, have become part of every graduate student's training in economic theory.

Welfare economics is closely related to social choice distribution of goods, services, benefits and poverty. Amartya Sen made several key contributions to the research on fundamental problems in welfare economics. The contribution vary from axiomatic theory of social choice, over definitions of



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CHAPTER

10

Development and Challenges of Indian Economy after Globalisation

Thirunavukkarasu.M

INTRODUCTION

Globalization generally means integrating economy of our nation with the world economy. The economic changes initiated have had a dramatic effect on the overall growth of the economy. It also heralded the integration of the Indian economy into the global economy. The Indian economy was in major crisis in 1991 when foreign currency reserves went down to \$1 billion. Globalization had its impact on various sectors including Agricultural, Industrial, Financial, Health sector and many others. It was only after the LPG policy i.e. Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization launched by the Finance Minister Man Mohan Singh that India saw its development in various sectors.

Advent of New Economic Policy

After suffering a huge financial and economic crisis Dr. Man Mohan Singh than finance minister has brought a new policy which is known as Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization Policy (LPG Policy) also known as New Economic Policy, 1991 as it was a measure to come out of the crisis that was going on at that time.