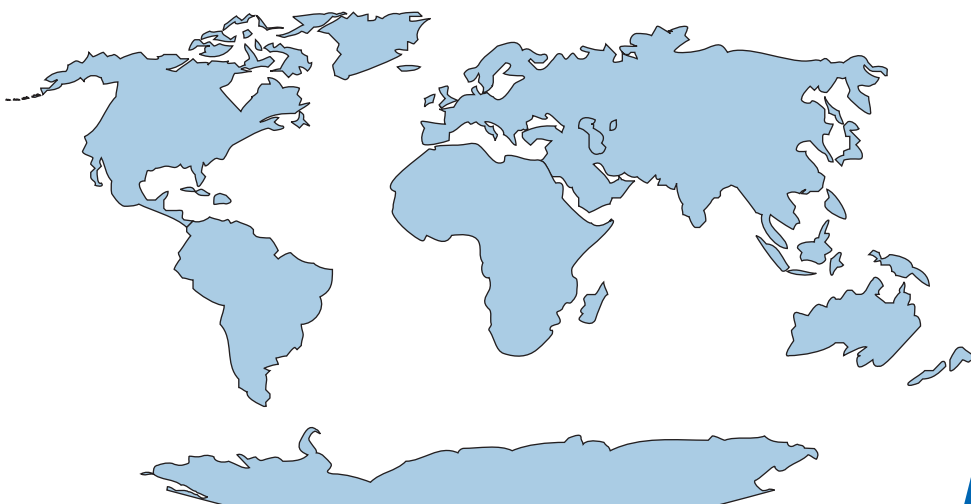


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EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION BY ENHANCEMENT OF SYSTEM OF 360° FEEDBACK**Dr. Aradhna Yadav**

Faculty, Department of Management Studies, New Horizon College of Engineering, Bangalore

ABSTRACT

Performance of the employees directly or indirectly results in growth of the organization. It is important to rate employees on timely basis and take measures to improve it. This study is undertaken to know if the employees are satisfied with the current performance appraisal methods and practices. This study has been conducted on employees of BOSCH. The performance appraisal system is one of the most critical areas in the field of human resource management. Despite the increasing research done by behaviour scientists, man still remains a very complex person, however, at the same time capable of extremely high performance levels, given the proper environment and motivation.

Key words: Performance appraisal methods, Behaviour scientists, Motivation

INTRODUCTION

Employees aspire to grow and expect this growth to take place at frequent intervals. Achievement of organisational goal, increased productivity and fulfilment of corporate objectives can be possible only if the employees are feeling satisfied. To achieve this there is a requirement for a well thought out system of career and succession planning in an organisation.

Performance Appraisal is defined as the process of assessing the performance and progress of an employee or a group of employees on a given job and his / their potential for future development. It consists of all formal procedures used in working organizations and potential of employees. According to Flippo, "Performance Appraisal is the systematic, periodic and an important rating of an employee's excellence in matters pertaining to his present job and his potential for a better job."

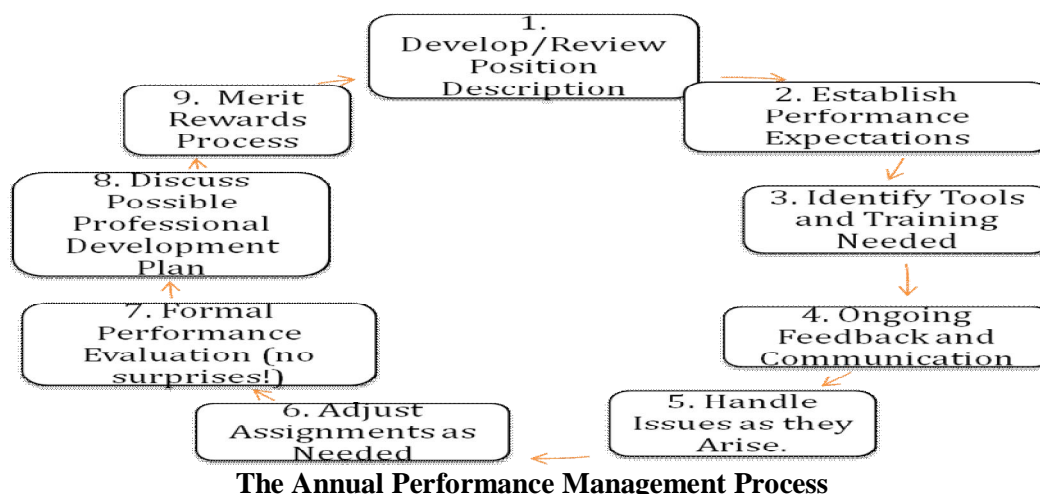
This aspect has given a new dimension to performance appraisal system. These are not merely an exercise of reporting of an individual's performance once a year but also should serve as an instrument of motivation. A sound appraisal system is, therefore, an individual assets in human resource management.

It helps in understanding the employees work culture, involvement, and satisfaction. It helps the organization in deciding employees promotion, transfer, incentives, pay increase. Performance appraisal must be seen as an intrinsic part of a manager's responsibility and not an unwelcome and time-consuming addition to them. It is about improving performance and ultimate effectiveness.

Performance of the employees directly or indirectly results in growth of the organization. It is important to rate employees on timely basis and take measures to improve it. This study is undertaken to know if the employees are satisfied with the current performance appraisal methods and practices undertaken in BOSCH

SIGNIFICANCE OF PERFORMANCE PLANNING

Provide a link between work planning for individual staff members and overall department and Division goals. Help staff members understand their job responsibilities and improve job performance. Recognize and reward staff member contributions, and foster professional development and career growth. Increase productivity and correct problems. Required in the determination of merit increases.



CONCEPT OF ENHANCEMENT OF THE SYSTEM OF 360° FEEDBACK

A 360° performance review is a formalized process whereby an individual receives feedback from multiple individuals or “raters” who regularly interact with the person being reviewed, commonly referred to as “the learner”. The objective is to provide the learner with feedback on their performance behaviors and outcomes as well as their potential, while identifying and establishing development goals. As a result of this feedback, the learner is expected to be able to set goals for self development which will support the advancement of their careers and in turn benefit the organization. The raters typically represent the learner’s boss, peers, subordinates, customers and sometimes even their significant others. Their own self assessments complete the circle. *An organization needs to decide up front if the purpose of the feedback is developmental only, or if it will be evaluative and linked to promotion and reward.* A 360 degree process is most often used as an assessment tool for personal development rather than evaluation and experts warn that linking 360° degree feedback to administrative actions such as selection or pay could skew the feedback and become detrimental to the process. (Alimo-Metcalf, 1998) For example, if the results of a 360° degree process are tied to an employee’s eligibility for advancement either in pay or position, the raters, who may see themselves as competitors, may become motivated to provide negative feedback. The process would be seen as a control tool, negatively impacting its reliability and validity within that organization.

Raters respond to a variety of standardized questions evaluating the learner’s competencies, performance behaviors and performance outcomes either by inputting feedback into a computerized system or by recording responses using a paper format. Although the learner actively selects who the raters are, the author of the specific feedback is anonymous. The feedback is typically collected and compiled into a report for the learner, breaking the feedback down into a series of ratings and scores on a numerical scale indicating areas of strengths and opportunities for development. The role of the feedback coach is to assist the learner with interpreting the report and to ultimately assist with identifying areas to be developed, so an effective plan for improvement can be established. A feedback coach may be anyone internal or external to the organization, which has been properly trained in this area. Often times it is a Human Resource professional, a manager, or someone in a leadership position within that organization. Some organizations discount the need for a feedback coach believing that simply providing feedback is enough to motivate a learner to change. There is existing empirical data however that shows the importance of a feedback coach to this process. Proper training of the feedback coach is critical to its success. Coaches need to understand how to analyze the data and must be trained in the skill of delivering feedback. Lack of training or ineffective training of the feedback coach can lead to the program’s loss of credibility and can sabotage future efforts.

The effective interpretation and delivery of feedback is undoubtedly a specialized skill, which explains the importance of the role a “feedback coach” plays in the 360° process. An experienced feedback coach is familiar with many of the typical reactions to feedback and can assist the learner with handling their reactions appropriately. A feedback coach can assist with the interpretation of the feedback through open dialogue with the employee over a period of time. These coaching sessions usually focus on encouraging the learner to; look within themselves to examine the behaviors that might be triggering the feedback; reflect on their interactions with others; examine their own performance level; be honest with themselves about the development needed.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study is a part of analysis done on ascertain the impact of 360° performance appraisal system . This study has been conducted by responses received from employees of BOSH in Bangalore . The objective of the study has also been

1. To determine the satisfaction level of an employee after performance appraisal.
2. To find improvement in performance appraisal system which could lead to better employee satisfaction.

The study is done on certain assumptions such as

The scope is narrow as it concentrates only on the sample size.

The study has been planned and performed in systematic way by designing a structured questionnaire to meet the objectives.

The study will be helpful in positive contribution towards enhancing performance of the organization.

Research Background

- 1 .This research is a structured *enquiry that utilizes acceptable scientific methodology to solve problems and create new knowledge that is generally applicable.*
2. Classification and interpretation of data based on response from employees of BOSH in Bangalore .

3. Total Sample size of 100 respondents were considered for this study.

4. Techniques of simple random sampling was adopted.

This study has taken few Hypothesis and subsequently tested them.

Respondents analysis : 92% of the employees agree and believe that performance appraisal helps in setting meaningful goals and only 8% of the employees disagree . 61% of the employees feel that performance appraisal helps in evaluation of employees and only 6% of employees feel performance appraisal helps to motivate employees.

Mapping of performance appraisal in the organization is not based on believe that it helps in setting meaningful goals: Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.597a	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	19.543	4	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.148	1	.076
N of Valid Cases		100	

This leads to the conclusion that Mapping of performance appraisal in the organization is not based on believe that it helps in setting meaningful goals:

The performance of employees improve due to 360° performance appraisal system Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	54.614a	16	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.626	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.252	1	.615
N of Valid Cases		100	

This leads to the conclusion that performance appraisal is not based aiming at improving employees performance due to 360° degree system.

Promotions are strictly based out of the outcome of promotion appraisal

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.448a	8	.001
Likelihood Ratio	25.476	8	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.050	1	.014
N of Valid Cases		100	

This leads to the conclusion that opinion of performance appraisal is not based on that fact that promotions are strictly out of appraisals .

The study also shows only 6% of employees feel that appraisals are intended to motivate employees . This paper emphasizes on the outlook of appraisal, and a need to reconsider our existing system for better motivation of our workforce.

FINDINGS

- 1) Employees are able to understand the objectives of the performance appraisal system and they are able to relate with it.
- 2) Employees feel that promotion in the company should always happen based on performance Appraisal.

- 3) There is further scope of enhancing the system of 360° performance appraisal for better employee performance.
- 4) The system of 360° has helped to increase their organization effectiveness.
- 5) 78% of the employees are motivated through monetary benefits.
- 6) Superiors interaction with subordinates on a daily basis helps in better performance of individuals .
- 7) Performance appraisal should be used as a tool to upgrade the skill of employees in the organization . This is important as a end result of the entire PMS system .

SUGGESTIONS

- I. The management has to take few measures to make the employees know about the importance of their contribution towards work which will help them to achieve the organizational goal.
- II. The 360° degree Appraisal System must be reviewed on a regular bases for betterment of employee motivation and performance.
- III. The management must take necessary steps to send employees for training and development after the appraisal this in turn helps the employees to perform better in future and the organization to achieve its objectives
- IV. The management also must ask employee participation on defining the Organization Performance appraisal methods for better acceptance.

CONCLUSION

The employees are great asset of the organization. Every organization needs to concentrate more on the performance appraisal system especially 360°o performance appraisal system. The officers must also keep an eye on the performance appraisal and change in according to the ever-changing circumstances.

360° Performance appraisal is one of the significant tools of the modern personal management, which yields high return, when it is done in a systematic and just a manner, with minimum errors. Many of the function of personal management like promotion, transfer, demotion, increments, training and development are performed having the performance appraisal as the basic foundation. 360°o Performance appraisal an important application in the area of motivation, good mechanics to maintain superior subordinate relationships and instrument to direct employee's abilities to overall organizational objectives . The system of 360° degree appraisal should be enhanced by using the results of employee's performance and making decision purely based on its results.

By doing or following the above statements which will help in increasing more employee and job satisfaction.

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HARD RESULTS OF DELICACY**Dr. Madhu Sharma**Assistant Professor, School of Business Studies, Sharda University, Greater Noida

ABSTRACT

The larger message of this paper is to discuss role of various soft skills(delicacies) required for making oneself more employable in the competitive job market and successful in his/her career. Soft skills predict success in life, that they casually produce that success. It cannot be expressed adequately how important soft skills are and how they can position a candidate for success in the work place. Soft skills help the job seeker as well as employer also in their everyday tasks. These skills can benefit to make work place better and more productive environment.

Key Words: Soft Skills, Success, Ability, Communication

INTRODUCTION

A study conducted by the Stanford Research Institute and Carnegie Mellon Foundation involving Fortune 500 Chief Executive Officers found that 75% of long term job success depended on people skills and only 25% on technical knowledge. In short, technical skills often have little value if one has poor soft skills. In today's ever competitive job market the measure of an individual's career success is the ability to adapt to any assignment. Recruiters look for not only educational and employment history but there is a wide range of other qualities that recruiters look for in potential candidates. These are referred to as 'Soft Skills'. Soft skills fulfil an important role in shaping an individual's personality. It is of high importance for every student to acquire adequate skills beyond academic or technical knowledge. . Soft skills will enable students with a strong conceptual and practical framework to build, develop and manage teams. They play an important role in the development of the students' overall personality, thereby enhancing their career prospects.

WHAT ARE SOFT SKILLS?

Before going any further in debating the importance of soft skills we have to clarify the question "What exactly are soft skills?" This basic question is not easy to answer, because the perception of what is a soft skill differs from context to context. A subject may be considered a soft skill in one particular area, and may be considered a hard skill in another. Now-a-days employers want more from employees, particularly those that qualify as graduates. They want individuals who possess a good amount of "Soft Skills", what are these soft skills? They are aspects of personality that are coming to the forefront as professional assets-problem solving, teamwork and adaptability to change. This is also a truth that we have transitioned to a society where it is important to have knowledge but also critical to have the skills to deal with people, find solutions to problems and be adaptable in a world that is shrinking rapidly to melt more multiculturalism at the work place. Soft skills provide a way to get the highest return on investment when considering human capital. They can build great people. On top of it the understanding of what should be recognised as a soft skill varies widely. Knowledge in project management for instance is "nice to have" for an electrical engineer, but it is a "must to have" for a civil engineer. Training in cultural awareness might be useful for a chemist, but it is an absolute necessity for public or human resources management in societies of diverse cultures. Interesting enough the internationally renowned encyclopaedias have little to say about soft skills. The online encyclopaedia "Wikipedia" gives a very broad definition of soft skills, which leaves much room for discussion: "Soft skills refer to the cluster of personality traits, social graces, facility with language, personal habits, friendliness, and optimism that mark people to varying degrees. Soft skills complement hard skills, which are the technical requirements of a job." (Wikipedia, 2007)

Examples of soft skills:

- Communication skills
- Critical and structured thinking
- Problem solving skills
- Creativity
- Teamwork capability
- Negotiating skills
- Self-management

- Time management
- Conflict management
- Cultural awareness
- Common knowledge
- Responsibility
- Etiquette and good manners
- Courtesy
- Self-esteem
- Sociability
- Integrity / Honesty
- Empathy
- Work ethic
- Project management
- Business management

WHY ARE SOFT SKILLS IMPORTANT?

Why they are considered as being so important is still open. There are numerous reasons for having a critical look at a person's soft skills. One straightforward reason is today's job-market, which in many fields is becoming ever increasingly competitive. To be successful in this tough environment, candidates for jobs have to bring along a "competitive edge" that distinguishes them from other candidates with similar qualifications and comparable evaluation results. And where do they find this competitive advantage? In bringing along additional knowledge and skills, added up by convincing personal traits and habits. This sounds familiar. Understandably, employers prefer to take in job candidates who will be productive from a very early stage on. If a graduate from university first has to be trained on putting more than three sentences together, how to do a proper presentation, or how to chat in a pleasant and winning manner with colleagues and customers, this graduate will not qualify as a quick starter. Also basic knowledge in business management, project management and general economy will improve the chances of a job candidate considerably. Already during the job interview itself good communication skills are invaluable. They can even serve to successfully cover up weaknesses on the hard skills side.

The advantages of displaying positive traits like courtesy, honesty, flexibility, common sense, flawless Soft skills are shaping human beings' personality. Any educator's dream is that graduates, especially from tertiary education institutions, should not only be experts in a certain field but matured personalities with a well balanced, rounded off education. However, this characteristic is reflected in soft skills, not in hard skills during a job.

Soft Skills impart to fine-tune the student's attitudes, values, beliefs, motivation, desires, feelings, eagerness to learn, willingness to share and embrace new ideas, goal orientation, flexibility, persuasion, futuristic thinking, comparison, diplomacy and various skills sets of communication, manners and etiquette so that they will be able to deal with different situations diligently and responsibly. Soft skills strengthen them from within. These skills empower them to understand "Who They are" and how best they can come across as competent individuals in any given situation. Soft Skills have two parts. One part involves developing attitudes and attributes, and the other part involves fine-tuning communication skills to express attitudes, ideas and thoughts well. Crucial to successful work is the perfect integration of ideas and attitudes, with appropriate communication skills in oral, written and non-verbal areas. Attitudes and skills are integral to soft skills. Each one influences and complements the other.

WHERE CAN SOFT SKILLS BE ACQUIRED?

We can identify two methods of learning or improving soft skills. One way is enrolling for formal training, e.g. taking evening classes on Rhetoric, languages, presentation skills, conflict or cultural management. This is a well-proven concept with the advantage of having some kind of certificate at the end of the course, which might come in handy for job applications. The other way of acquiring soft skills we looked at is self-training, usually based on books. As we saw earlier, changing of personal traits often requires long-term practice. Additionally,

during the last decade another method of self training has become increasingly popular: Electronic Learning, usually abbreviated to e-learning. The article “Yes, Web Based Training Can Teach Soft Skills” (Horton,2007) emphasises the practicality of this approach. A very pleasant way of self-training one’s soft skills is frequent socialising with friends, colleagues and other members of society. This may sound astonishing, but meant here is socialising consciously, i.e. with the purpose in mind to enhance certain soft skills. We know already that in this way we can improve our small talk capabilities, but there are a lot more soft skills especially related to Communication skills, which can be practiced while chatting and discussing with others in an informal manner: e.g. language proficiency in general, listening, discussing, etiquette, self-esteem, or body language. Hopefully, at most education institutions at all levels teaching methodology has been changed or will be changed towards more student centred learning. Such a shift goes hand in hand with embedding soft skills into the teaching of hard skills.

WHAT CAN TEACHERS DO TO ENHANCE THEIR STUDENTS’ SOFT SKILLS?

A first step in improving soft skills of students is to raise their awareness about the importance of soft skills and the consequences of shortcomings in this regard. Students should be encouraged to enhance their soft skills by applying the methods e.g. reading dedicated books, attending courses, and joining clubs or societies to broaden their horizon. A formal approach to the problem would be to incorporate soft skills subjects into a programme’s curriculum. On lower levels a course that requires students to do a bit of research and to present their results to the class afterwards has been proven as being quite effective. On graduate level a course on management skills, including e.g. some communication skills together with the management of time, conflict, cultural issues, and of major importance, oneself, should be well received by students. However, very often the curricula are already overloaded with hard skills courses, making it almost impossible to add or substitute courses. A very elegant way of offering soft skills training to students is to embed it into the teaching of hard skills. This way, no changes to a programme’s curriculum are necessary; instead the change will be reflected in the teaching methodology.

CONCLUSION

Considering the fact that during the last decades in society the perceived importance of soft skills has increased significantly, it is of high importance for everyone to acquire adequate skills beyond academic or technical knowledge. This is not particularly difficult. Once a shortcoming in a certain area of soft skills has been identified at oneself, there are numerous ways of rectifying such a deficiency. Educators have a special responsibility regarding soft skills, because during students’ School and University time they have major impact on the development

of their students’ soft skills. A very effective and efficient way of doing this is to include soft skills training into the teaching of hard skills. As a positive side effect the lessons will become more attractive, which in turn will increase the success rate of learners. Soft skills fulfil an important role in shaping an individual’s personality by complementing his/her hard skills.

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IMPOSSIBILITY AND ABANDONMENT IN CRIMINAL ATTEMPT**Aparajita Dutta**Assistant Professor, Centre for Juridical Studies, Dibrugarh University

ABSTRACT

The mens rea as a device to ascertain its dimension in criminal responsibility if viewed with interest visualize the microcosm with its specific character. Mental element assumes paramount importance in criminal attempt. Criminal intent must be formed before the act and must unite with the act. It does not have to exist for any given length of time before the act; the intent and the act can be as instantaneous as simultaneous or successive thoughts. A jury may be permitted to infer criminal intent from facts that would lead a reasonable person to believe it existed. The paper tries to highlight the difficulties related with the law of criminal attempt and to analyze the various aspects of criminal attempt. Impossibility and abandonment are the defenses of criminal attempt which are the focal concern of this paper.

Key Words: Impossibility, abandonment, mens rea, actus reus.

INTRODUCTION

An attempt to commit a crime is an act done with intent to commit that crime and forming part of series of acts which would constitute its actual commission if it were not interrupted. An attempt to commit a crime is essentially a direct movement towards the commission of the crime. Neither a mere intention howsoever blameworthy it may be, to commit a crime nor do the means arranged, howsoever effective they may be, to commit it, therefore, amount to an offence unless some steps believed to be necessary as far as the doer is concerned, are taken to accomplish the intended crime. It is an intentional preparatory action which fails to achieve its object because of the intervening circumstances. Inchoate crimes, which are also referred to as incomplete crimes, are acts involving the tendency to commit, or to indirectly participate in a criminal offense, without achieving the desired result. In every crime, there is first, an intention to commit it, secondly preparation to commit it, thirdly, attempt to commit it. If the third stage, that is, attempt is successful, then the crime is complete. If the attempt fails, the crime is not complete, but law punishes the person attempting the act.¹

In the past, several inchoate crimes like attempt or abetment used to be regarded as minor offenses. However, in recent times, several inchoate offenses are considered serious crimes. Attempt to commit a crime is the inchoate crime which is considered the closest to actually carrying out the crime. Attempt to commit a crime involves trying to commit the crime but failing to complete the intended actions. Threats and challenges can also be considered as an attempt to commit a crime. Conspiracy to commit a crime involves agreeing to commit a crime. A conspiracy to commit a crime can be charged in addition to the crime itself. Therefore, a person can be charged with murder and conspiracy to commit murder at the same time. Solicitation to commit a crime is the crime of asking another person to commit a crime. Even if the person who is solicited does not commit the crime, the person soliciting may be charged with solicitation. The person who actually commits a crime is called the principal, and a person who helps the principal in committing the crime is called the accomplice. An accessory may help a principal or accomplices before or after a crime. An accessory or accomplice to a crime is also considered to have committed an inchoate crime.

Following are general rules regarding inchoate crimes:

- a) A person cannot be charged with an inchoate offense and the actual crime at the same time. For example, a person cannot be charged at the same time with attempted murder as well as murder. The person can only be charged with one or the other at the same time. However, conspiracy is an exception to this common rule. Accordingly, a person can be charged with murder and conspiracy to commit murder at the same time.
- b) To be convicted of an inchoate crime, it must be proven that the person to be convicted had the specific intent (*mens rea*) to commit or contribute to the actual crime.
- c) Inchoate crimes must involve some outward action or a substantial step in the completion of the crime. The person to be convicted should have done some act in furtherance of the crime.

Impossibility: At common law, legal impossibility is a defense, factual impossibility is not. "Factual impossibility" exists when a person's intended result constitutes a crime, but he fails to consummate the offense because of an attendant circumstance unknown to him beyond his control.

The intent or *mens rea* aspect of attempt has two elements to it. The first is that the defendant must have intent to commit an act that is necessary for the commission of a crime or an act that will result in the commission of

the crime. The second is that the defendant must have the intent for the result of the crime itself. To commit a crime of intent, a defendant must actually desire the criminal result to come about, e.g. 'A' is a homeless man who lives on the streets. During one particularly cold winter night he decides to break into the basement of B's house and spend the night there. A approaches B's house and begins to pry open a basement window but is arrested as he is doing so. In this case, A cannot be convicted of attempted burglary. Attempted burglary requires both the intent to commit the acts that make up the burglary (which are the breaking and entering of the dwelling of another at night) and the intent necessary for the actual burglary which is the intent to commit a crime once inside the dwelling. Here, A does satisfy the first element of the *mens rea* test because he did intend to break and enter B's house at night. However, he did not meet the second element because he never intended to commit a crime once inside the house. In other words, A intended to commit the acts constituting a burglary but he never intended to commit the actual burglary. Therefore, he cannot be convicted of attempted burglary.

There are several possible defenses that can be employed if a defendant is charged with an attempt to commit a crime. The first is impossibility. In a situation where the defendant believes he can commit a crime but, for reasons that are not known to him, it is impossible to actually commit the crime, actions that would ordinarily be enough for a conviction may, in some circumstances, not constitute attempt because of the impossibility of actually committing the crime.

Theory of impossibility is a debatable issue in the field of criminal attempt. At one time the rule was that it would be no crime if a man attempted to do that which in fact was impossible to perform. The rule was laid down in *Queen v. Collins*² case where it was held that if A puts his hand into the pocket of another with an intention to steal but finds nothing he cannot be convicted of an attempt to steal. Similarly in *R. v. Mc. Pherson*³, the court observed that a person cannot be held guilty for breaking and entering a building and attempting to steal goods which were not there. *Bramwell, J.* cited an illustration in *R. v. Mc. Pherson* case that if A mistaking a log of wood for B and intending to murder B, strikes the log of wood with an axe. A has not attempted to murder B. *R. v. Dodd*⁴ was also decided on the above lines where it was held that a person could not be convicted of an attempt to commit an offence which he could not actually commit. In *R. v. Brown*⁵ it was said that the above cases were decided on a mistaken view of the law for attempting to steal from the hand bag of a woman although there was nothing in the bag. Illustration (b) to Section 511 of the Indian Penal Code is law. The above cases were overruled in *R. v. Ring*⁶ wherein the accused was convicted based on this decision.

The general rule is that if the impossibility is a "legal" impossibility, the defendant can mount an impossibility defense. However, if the impossibility is only a "factual" impossibility he cannot mount the defense.⁷ Legal impossibility is basically where the defendant sets out to commit an act that he thinks is criminal. However, his actions are not, in fact, illegal. In this case the defendant's misunderstanding concerns the law itself. In other words, he mistakenly believes that the law criminalizes his actions when in fact it does not. In such a case the defendant will be able to mount an impossibility defense. Factual impossibility is where the defendant sets out to commit an act that, if successful, would constitute a crime but, because of certain factors that the defendant does not know about, it is impossible for him to actually commit the crime. In this situation the defendant's mistake is not in regard to the actual law but, rather, in regard to the factual circumstances surrounding his actions. This is considered factual impossibility, and factual impossibility is not a defense to a charge of attempt. However, the criminality must be manifest to convict the offender in case of any factual impossibility showing the character of his dangerousness. But it will be a defense in case of physical impossibility also if the criminality is not manifest, e.g. putting sugar in a cup of tea thinking it to be arsenic. Whereas, harmless dosage of cyanide will not be a defense as the criminality is manifest in these types of cases, showing clearly his dangerous character.

Abandonment: The second possible defense against a charge of attempt is abandonment or withdrawal. Doctrine of *Locus Penitential* has played a very important role in administration of criminal justice. A person attempting an offence may abandon it at any stage before completion though initially he had the intention. Voluntary abandonment is a defense. Repentance expressed by the perpetrator through the voluntary withdrawal from an already criminal attempt coupled with the utmost exertion to oust the harm, never did constitute an exculpation at common law but a California Court has recognized it which is based on sound and commendable penal policy.⁸ If a person freely and voluntarily abandoned the idea of committing the crime then he cannot be punished. In *Malkiat Singh v. State of Punjab*⁹ the Supreme Court taking recourse of the doctrine of locus penitential ordered acquittal of the driver and helper of truck convicted of attempting to smuggle paddy out of Punjab. The accused driver and cleaner were intercepted at *Samalkha* barrier post in Punjab, which is about 14 miles from Punjab-Delhi border, driving a truck, containing 75 bags of paddy. They along with others were charged with the offence of attempting to export paddy in violation of the Punjab (Export) Control Order

1959. The Supreme Court observed:

"The test for determining whether the act of the appellants constituted an attempt or preparation is whether the overt acts already done are such that if the offender changes his mind and does not proceed further in its progress, the acts already done would be completely harmless."

The time for giving necessary thought to effect change of mind is a consideration which cannot be lost sight of.¹⁰ Theory of change of mind is propounded with reference to particular facts of a case and not as a general rule. Otherwise, in every case where an accused is interrupted at the last minute from completing the offence, he may always say that when he was interrupted he was about to change his mind.¹¹ However, the Model Penal Code and the statutes that are based on it allow withdrawal to be used as a defense so long as two conditions are met.

First, the withdrawal or abandonment of the attempt must be entirely voluntary. This means that the withdrawal cannot be based on any circumstances regarding the difficulty of actually committing the crime or the chances of being caught that the defendant was unaware of when he began his attempt. For example: P decides to rob the State Bank of India. He then proceeds to case out the bank and gather special drilling tools that he will use in breaking into the bank's vault. However, he eventually realizes that the security at the bank is better than he initially thought it would be and so he abandons his plan to rob the bank. In this situation, although P has withdrawn from his attempt to rob the bank, he can still be convicted of the attempt because his withdrawal was not completely voluntary. Rather, it was based on circumstances that initially he was unaware of the difficulty of successfully committing the crime. But if he abandoned his idea to rob because of the realization that stealing is not the right thing to do, his abandonment is voluntary and offer him a legitimate defense to a charge of attempted robbery.

Second, in order for the withdrawal to be valid, the withdrawal must be complete. That is to say, the defendant must completely cancel his plans to commit the crime. If he only postpones his plans to commit the crime it is not considered a complete withdrawal and he can still be charged with the attempt. As far as the penalty for attempt is concerned, at common law attempt is punishable by a lesser penalty than the actual completed crime. However, the Model Penal Code allows for the same penalty to be handed down for both the attempt and the completed crime. Another important point regarding attempt is that an attempt to commit a crime "merges" with the completed crime. The effect of this is that an individual cannot be convicted of both an attempt to commit a specific crime and the completed crime. Thus a defendant who shoots and kills a victim cannot be charged with both the murder of the victim and the attempted murder of the victim, even though, technically, he has satisfied the elements of both the murder and the attempted murder.

CONCLUSION

Law of criminal attempt is itself is a difficult area of criminal law. The main objective of law of criminal attempt is to nip violence in the bud. It is worthwhile to note that an attempt to commit a crime is a "lesser included offense" of the completed crime. Therefore, a defendant who is prosecuted and punished for an offence cannot later be put on trial for attempting that same offence. Since one offence is a lesser included offence of the other, putting the defendant on trial for both would violate the Constitutional norm, i.e. "double jeopardy" under Article 20 clause (2) of the Constitution of India.

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MIGRATION AND MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS: A ROAD MAP FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**Sunil Kumar**Assistant Professor, Amity Business School, Amity University Gurgaon, Manesar, Haryana

ABSTRACT

Migration is considered as a significant feature of livelihoods in developing countries to pursuit better living standards. Central to the understanding of rural- urban migration flow is the traditional push-pull factors. Push factor refers to circumstances at home that prevent; examples include famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, unemployment etc. while pull factor refers to those conditions found elsewhere that attract migrants. It has been considered that migration from rural areas to urban areas may affect Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in the world economy. This paper is an attempt to establish relationship between migration and MDGs.

Keywords: migration, development, MDGs, economic development

INTRODUCTION

At first sight, international migration, despite its growing scope and magnitude, does not feature prominently in the original framework of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The relationship between migration and the MDGs has not been widely explored, although both the migration and development communities are becoming increasingly aware of the link between international migration and development.

Integrating migration into development policy agendas is taking on a new importance in many countries. Several governments of states that are primarily countries of destination for migrants, such as the United Kingdom, Sweden, Denmark and the Netherlands, have started to move in this direction. Similarly, more and more governments of developing countries with substantial emigration flows are establishing policies to strengthen the involvement of their Diasporas in national development processes.

There is a noticeable gap in research and analysis on how migration is linked to attaining the Millennium Development Goals. However as the available evidence shows, there is clearly no simple cause and effect relationship between migration and the achievement of the MDGs. Migration may have a direct and positive influence on the achievement of the MDGs, however it can equally constitute a challenge which needs to be addressed in order to move further towards their attainment.

The United Nation's *Road map towards the implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration* mentions migration only as one of the causes of the worsening global malaria problem, and migrants as victims of discrimination, racism and intolerance.

Furthermore, the Road Map states that strategies for moving forward to achieving the MDGs include: *continuing United Nations work to provide technical advice and training and to lead dialogue on specific policies dealing with migration issues and their implications.*

Migration is also only briefly mentioned in some of the Millennium Project Interim Task Force Reports, where it is noted mainly for its potentially negative impact on development. Health-related reports, for instance, stress that the brain drain of health professionals impacts negatively on the health situation of the population as well as on the general development situation in countries of origin. In the report on improving the lives of slum dwellers (Task Force 8), migration is described as a phenomenon that needs to be understood in order to achieve the MDG targets in this regard.

Some of the more recent Task Force reports of the UN Millennium Project do contain references to migration with respect to the specific issue areas they address. Some highlight the relevance of taking into account migration-related questions, such as the report of the Task Force on Trade and Development, which stresses the importance of a multilateral trading system, leading, inter alia, to a further liberalization of services, including the temporary movement of people. Other reports mostly focus on potential challenges migration presents to development efforts, such as the report of the Task Force on Health, which deals extensively with the negative impacts of the emigration of health workers from developing countries and the ensuing human resource shortages. Similarly, some of the country progress reports mention migration, although more along the vein of migratory movements being a concern since many administrative and registration systems are unable to cope with extensive population movements.

The January 2005 final report of the UN Millennium Project, entitled “Investing in Development: A Practical Way to Achieve the MDGs” discusses migration in various contexts. While it points to the challenges arising from the increasing migration from rural to urban areas, as well as from the outflow of professionals, it also mentions remittances as a possible positive effect of migration, and emphasizes the necessity of comprehensive approaches to migration management in the context of poverty reduction.

INTER-LINKAGES BETWEEN MIGRATION AND MDGS

While migration cuts across all or most MDGs, there are stronger links with some goals than with others. This paper looks briefly at the inter-linkages between migration and the MDGs, in particular Goal 1 (Poverty Reduction), Goal 3 (Gender Equality), Goal 6 (Prevention of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other Infectious Diseases), Goal 7 (Environmental Sustainability), and Goal 8 (Creation of Global Partnerships for Development).

The inter-linkages between migration and the MDGs are complex and can be both positive and negative. Most of the linkages identified in this paper have the potential both to challenge and to support the achievement of the MDGs. These complexities need to be taken into account when formulating strategies for the achievement of the MDGs.

In those areas where migration can be identified as a challenge to achieving the MDGs, the international community needs to develop migration management strategies in order to address the negative effect of migration on attaining the goals. Simultaneously, governments, development agencies and international organizations should develop strategies to enhance the positive impact of migration on the achievement of the MDGs. Above all, the complex relationship between migration and the MDGs must be explored further. Migration, as is increasingly recognized, cannot be excluded from development agendas but must be incorporated in all development policies and programmes. Although it is difficult to obtain reliable data and statistics on migration, increased and focused research on the topic will be crucial in the process of realizing the MDGs. The thorough assessment, development of comprehensive and coherent strategies and responsible implementation will be able to advance this process.

Skeldon (2008) discussed that with migration being one of the most obvious consequences of globalisation; it is understandable that international migration has emerged as one of the key areas in the global policy and development debate at the beginning of the 21st century. The Global Commission on International Migration, launched in 2003, the High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, convened by the then secretary general of the United Nations in 2006, and the ongoing state-led Global Forum on International Migration and Development, have been just three of many activities giving migration a high profile, nationally and internationally.

Yet, despite all the attention to the topic, the real impact of migration on development and of development on migration is still poorly understood. Certain things do appear clear:

- To reduce poverty, migrate can be helpful
- If the population is not moving then it seems that economies are stagnant and population are poor
- The frequency if poor are not frequent

However, whether policy intervention can influence migration in a way that can bring about development is not so clear. What can be said with some degree of confidence from the available evidence is that migration and development are positively correlated, that is, as levels of development rise; the volume of migration also rises. Hence, any idea that by promoting development in areas of origin the amount of out-migration will cease is misplaced. Over the longer term, as fertility declines, the volume of migration may slow; but over the short term, as levels of welfare and prosperity rise, migration also tends to increase. While development is therefore clearly a driver of migration, whether migration can be a driver of development is not so apparent.

MIGRATION AS AN MDG

Migration is not a MDG and it is right that migration is not a MDG. International agreements on targets for migration would have been unlikely in the way that targets for reducing poverty, infant or maternal mortality, gender inequalities or increasing primary enrolment could be achieved. Nevertheless, it is virtually impossible to envisage progress towards achieving the existing MDGs without some kind of migration. Studies of households in village communities in the developing world show the importance of incorporating additional *resource niches* away from the traditional rural way of life. Among the poorest, minimising risk rather than maximising return will help to achieve better welfare, and such an “off-farm” strategy helps to reduce the

vulnerability of poor households. Activities range from seasonal work on commercial agricultural estates to longer-term work in cities.

Ratha (2013) discussed that even as the US media is in frenzy about comprehensive immigration reforms - long overdue, but in terms of detail, still more forest than trees - there is another sense of urgency about how migration feature in the post-2015 development goals might. One reason for the urgency is the upcoming High-Level Dialogue on Migration and Development at the UN in early October 2013: this meeting could successfully advocate the crucial role played by migration in impacting global development, and it could even suggest one or two goals or metrics for the post-2015 development goals.

He attended a series of meetings on this topic at the UN (for example, the second roundtable organized by the IOM, UN DESA and UNFPA). He made the following points:

1. South-South migration is larger than South-North migration, implying that even developing countries (the so-called South) have large immigrant stocks and their economy and society are impacted significantly by both emigration and immigration. Thus migration is a serious force for development globally.
2. Migration significantly impacts development. Through remittances, skill transfers, and investments.
3. Development also impacts migration. The developmental gap between regions/countries is the most important driver of internal and international migration..
4. Currently the MDGs are country-specific and ignore migrants who have left the country.
5. Reducing migration cost can be a useful long-term goal, and perhaps some analytic work ought to be initiated to develop a clear, simple and quantifiable indicator of migration costs.
6. The KNOMAD (Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development) is shaping up nicely.

CONCLUSION

As it has been discussed that migration and MDGs have no proper cause and effect relationship. And there is not much research on the relationship between migration and MDGs. But migration can have both positive and negative effects on MDGs. As positive effect, if population is migrating from rural areas to urban areas, it may reduce poverty, generates source of income for poor people, industry gets labour power as low wage, migrants may get quality education etc. On the other hand, the negative effect of migration on MDGs can be over population in urban areas, pollution, stagnant development of rural areas etc. There should be proper policies to handle rural to urban migration, for example development of infrastructure in rural areas, proper source of earning in rural areas, quality education in rural areas. This type of policy framework will help to achieve MDGs.

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PERCEIVED HRM SYSTEM STRENGTH: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY**M. Srimannarayana**Professor, XLRI, Jamshedpur

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to assess HRM system strength using the scale developed by Delmotte, Winne, & Sels (2012). The overall HRM system strength is measured based on the perceptions of employees on the constructs such as visibility of HRM practices, their relevance, validity, consistent message about HRM content, agreement among principal HR decision makers, procedural justice and distributive justice. The data collected from 260 employees in Dubai form the basis for the study. The study concludes that the overall perceived HRM strength in Dubai is moderate. It is observed that the perception of employees on agreement among principal HR decision makers is relatively better. However the perception on procedural justice is found to be low. Overall, it may be stated that HRM system is not evolved and matured to a substantial degree in Dubai.

INTRODUCTION

The studies which have established relationship between HRM and firm performance have focused on HRM content. But they have not answered the process through which this occurs (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). The features of HRM those are necessary to facilitate these linkages have not been well addressed. Therefore, Bowen & Ostroff (2004) have proposed the integration of HRM content and process. They have argued that the contribution of HRM to firm performance is determined not only by the choice of HR contents or practices, but also by features of HR process.

HRM SYSTEM STRENGTH

Using social cognitive psychology and social influence theories, Bowen & Ostroff (2004) define HRM system strength as a set of characteristics that allow HRM system to create strong situations in which unambiguous messages are communicated to employees about what is appropriate behavior. These characteristics refer to the *process* by which a consistent message about HRM content can be sent to employees. By process, they refer to how the HRM system can be designed and administered effectively by defining meta-features of overall HRM system that can create strong situations in the form of shared meaning about the content that might ultimately lead to firm performance. Delmotte, Winne, & Sels (2012) define HRM processes as the set of activities aimed at developing, communicating, and implementing HR practices. According to Bowen & Ostroff (2004) these HRM processes should send signals to employees that allow them to understand the desired and appropriate responses and form a collective sense of what is expected. If HRM processes succeed in this objective a strong HRM system is created. As rightly observed by Mueller (1996), although HRM practices can be easily copied by competitors, the processes surrounding these HRM practices are not easy to copy.

FEATURES OF HRM SYSTEM STRENGTH

Distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus are the main features of HRM system strength. (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Distinctiveness of the situation generally refers to features that allow it to stand in the environment, thereby capturing attention and arousing interests. However distinctiveness alone is not likely sufficient enough for people to view the situation uniformly and respond to the message sent by the set of HRM practices. This should be supported by consistent pattern of instrumentalities across HRM practices. Consensus is another important major dimension, which is distinct from consistency, but interrelated concept. Agreement among principal HRM decision makers and fairness of HRM system as perceived by employees reflect consensus. Using the conceptual framework proposed by Bowen & Ostroff (2004) on the features of strong HRM system, Delmotte, Winne, & Sels (2012) have developed a scale to measure perceived HRM system strength after redefining the concepts more precisely for item generation. They have used two constructs such as procedural and distributive justice to assess fairness perception. They argue that if the perceptions of line managers and employees regarding each of these constructs are positive, the likelihood that they help the HR department in effectively installing a strong climate increases. Subsequently, the likelihood of successful strategy implementation and a positive impact of HRM on firm performance increase.

PERCEIVED HRM SYSTEM STRENGTH SCALE

Delmotte, Winne & Sels (2012) have conducted validation studies for development of a scale to assess perceived HRM system strength with a sample of line managers and trade union representatives. This resulted in creating theoretically grounded and empirically valid scale to assess HRM system strength. The constructs of HRM system strength are as follows:

A) Distinctiveness

1. *Visibility*: The degree to which internal customers have a clear idea of HR practices, know which HR programs are implemented, and what can and cannot be expected from the HR department.
2. *Relevance*: The degree to which HR initiatives and practices are perceived as useful, significant, and relevant (supporting achievement of organizational goals) and HR is capable of anticipating on daily problems and needs.

B) Consistency

3. *Validity*: The degree to which there is an agreement between what HR practices purport to do and what they actually do.
4. *Consistent of HRM Message*: The degree of compatibility between HR practices (Baron and Kreps 1999), of continuity and stability of HR practices over time and of agreement between words and deeds.

C) Consensus

5. *Agreement among principal HR decision makers*: The degree to which HR decision makers share the same vision and are on the same wavelength.
6. *Procedural justice*: The degree to which the process by which decisions are reached or outcomes are allocated is fair (Folger and Cropanzano 1998).
7. *Distributive justice*: The degree to which the allocation of benefits and resources (the result of a decision) is fair (Folger and Cropanzano 1998).

THE OBJECTIVE AND THE SETTING OF THE STUDY

Using the scale created by Delmotte, Winne&Sels (2012), the present study makes an attempt to assess the perceived HRM system strength in Dubai. This country has long been recognized as the leading regional trading hub of the Middle East (Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, 2001). Trading, manufacturing, tourism, banking, insurance, transport, storage, communication, real estate, government service, construction, food, tourism etc. are non-oil business activities in Dubai. One can find diverse workforce in business organizations in Dubai because in addition to its native population, Dubai is inhabited by a mixture of Arab nationals as well as Asians, Europeans, etc. Based on the data collected from banking, insurance, food, trading tourism and shipping companies in Dubai, it is found that that a moderate human resource development climate prevails in Dubai organizations (Srimannarayana, 2007). Motivating employees, cost control, ethics in work place, recruitment, and performance management are the top five HR issues for managers in Dubai (Srimannarayana & Santosh, 2011). An attempt is made in the present study to find out HRM system strength in this country using the scale developed by Delmotte, Winne&Sels (2012).

SAMPLE

The data collected from 260 employees in Dubai form the basis for the study. A single largest group (41.54 %) of respondents has above ten years of experience. This is followed by the respondents with five to ten years of work experience. With respect to positions, the respondents are by and large distributed equally among the cadres of managerial, supervisory and associate level positions. Qualification wise, a majority (61.15%) of the respondents are graduates, followed by post-graduates (31.54%). With regard to gender wise classification of the respondents, it is observed that an overwhelming majority (88.46%) of them are men. The respondents are associated with different organisations involved in different nature of businesses such as infrastructure development, manufacturing, banking software development, trading, telecommunications, and insurance. As Dubai economy is predominately operated by expatriates, nationality wise, the respondents belong to different nationalities such as Indians, Pakistanis, Filipinos, Sri Lankans, Europeans, Americans, Lebanese, Malaysians, Iranians, Bangladeshis, and Italians. However, an overwhelming majority of the respondents are Indians representing the demography of working population in corporate sector in Dubai.

DATA ANALYSIS

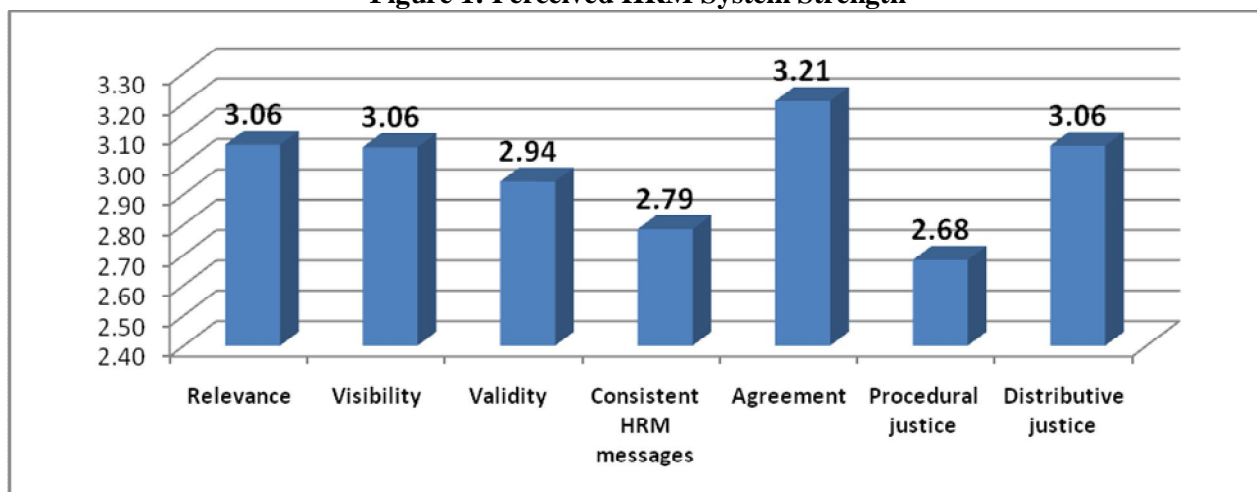
Cronbach's Alpha test was conducted for all items of the questionnaire to examine the reliability of the data collected. Overall reliability value is 0.854 (Cronbach's alpha value). Thus it is found that the data collected is reliable. The mean scores and standard deviation (S.D) for each item of the questionnaire were calculated. Calculation of grand mean is also carried out. Person correlation is carried among various constructs to find out the association of the constructs of HRM system strength. One-way ANOVA test was carried out to find out association between perceived HRM system strength and factors such as experience, position, and qualifications.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 presents the mean scores of the constructs of HRM system strength. It can be observed that *visibility* has secured a moderate mean score. This reflects that the respondents perceive that the employees don't have a

clear idea of HR practices. They also clearly don't know which HR programs are implemented, and what can and cannot be expected from the HR department. As there is not much clarity on HR policies, procedures and practices, it can be stated that the visibility of HR is only at moderate level. Another construct, *relevance* also has secured moderate score mean. This indicates that the usefulness, significance and relevance of HR initiatives to achievement of organizational goals is doubtful. To some extent, HR department is capable of anticipating on daily problems and needs of employees. The construct, *consistent HRM messages* has got a mid way score indicating that the respondents perceive that the HRM messages are not that much consistent. There is no clear consistency of HRM message between words and deeds of HR department. This also reflects discontinuity and instability of HR practices, to some extent, over time. HR Policies programs and practices are expected to be consistent. They should sound consistent signals to employees. The *validity* construct too has secured moderate mean score indicating the dubious nature of validity of HR department. This reflects that the policies and procedures developed by HR department are not that much contributing to the expected results. This also indicates a gap between intended and actual effects of HR initiatives. The mean score of *agreement* construct reflects the perception of the respondents on the agreement among principal HR decision makers is 'to some extent' level. HR Management is the collective responsibility of HR department and line management. Top management, line managers and HR departments are expected to have an agreement in making and implementing HR policies and procedures. The mean score of *procedural justice* construct indicates that the respondents' perception of procedural justice followed in their respective organisations is 'to some extent'. HR department is expected to take decisions without any favoritism and bias. It seems that there is much scope here to improve. The procedures established and implemented should be fair. The construct *distributive justice* also has secured moderate score indicating that the respondents are not much happy with the distributive justice. Employees expect that distribution of monetary benefits and rewards should be fair. They should be related to performance. In comparison, it is observed that the construct, agreement among principal HRM decision makers, has secured relatively better position than others and the construct, procedural justice. But has secured the lowest score. The overall HRM system strength covering all mean score of all the constructs is calculated as 2.99. This indicates that HRM system is not much evolved and matured in Dubai.

Figure 1: Perceived HRM System Strength



Pearson Correlation test was conducted to find out association within the constructs of HRM system strength. As presented in Table 1, perception of relevance of HR initiatives and practices is associated with perception on agreement with among principal HR decision makers. It can also be seen that there is a correlation between perception of visibility of HR practices and validity of HR practices. It is significant to note that perception of procedural justice is associated with the perception of consistent HRM messages. Finally, it can be observed that perception of distributive justice is correlated with perception on agreement with among principal HR decision makers.

Table 1: Pearson Correlations of the Constructs for HRM System Strength

1. Relevance	1.00					
2. Visibility	0.487	1.00				
3. Validity	0.462	.532*	1.00			
4. HRM messages	0.406	0.267	0.424	1.00		
5. Agreement	.530*	0.413	0.276	0.332	1.00	

6. Procedural justice	0.453	0.31	0.499	.612**	0.37	1.00	
7. Distributive justice	0.475	0.297	0.31	0.34	.522*	0.28	1.00
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							

One-way ANOVA test results are presented in table 2. The results indicate that length of service of the respondents is associated with the perception of consistent HRM messages, and distributive justice. It is found that the respondents with less than five years on experience have rated consistent HRM messages and distributive justice more positively than their counter parts. It can be seen that position of the respondents is associated with the perception on procedural justice. The respondents in managerial position have given better rating on this when compared to associates and supervisors. The perception on validity of HR practices is associated with qualifications. Graduates have given better rating to this construct than the postgraduates.

Table 2: One-way ANOVA Test Results

Experience	Below 5	5 to 10	Above 10	f-Statistics	Sig
Relevance	3.26	3.17	3.22	0.575	0.564
Visibility	3.17	3.09	3.09	0.447	0.64
Validity	3.14	2.98	3.07	0.828	0.438
Consistent HRM messages	3.44*	3.17	3.25*	2.687	0.07
Agreement	3.2	3.15	3.18	0.11	0.896
Procedural justice	3.35	3.21	3.3	0.845	0.431
Distributive justice	3.25*	2.95	3.04*	2.598	0.076
Position	Associate	Supervisory	Managerial	f-Statistic	Sig
Relevance	3.19	3.22	3.23	0.139	0.871
Visibility	3.07	3.14	3.13	0.302	0.74
Validity	3.11	2.96	3.10	1.091	0.337
Consistent HRM messages	3.21	3.23	3.35	1.04	0.355
Agreement	3.19	3.11	3.22	0.546	0.58
Procedural justice	3.16*	3.25*	3.44*	3.667	0.027
Distributive justice	3.00	2.99	3.17	1.522	0.22
Qualification	Secondary	Graduate	Postgraduate	f-Statistic	Sig
Relevance	3.25	3.22	3.18	0.255	0.775
Visibility	3.25	3.12	3.05	1.087	0.339
Validity	2.95*	3.16*	2.88*	4.079	0.018
Consistent HRM messages	3.18	3.28	3.25	0.215	0.807
Agreement	3.13	3.14	3.26	1.004	0.368
Procedural justice	3.30	3.28	3.27	0.016	0.984
Distributive justice	3.04	3.10	2.99	0.526	0.592
* Significant at .05 level					

CONCLUSION

The analysis presented earlier leads to the conclusion that HRM system in Dubai is not much strong. The major factors that have contributed for this situation are perception on procedural justice, and consistency in HRM messages. Preferential treatment to the employees might be one major contributing factor for this perception. Asians working in Dubai believe that local people, Europeans and Americans get better monetary benefits, career progression, and better employment conditions when compared to Asians. However, a majority of working population in this country are Asians. That is why the Asians working in this country, a majority of the respondents of this study, have perceived that the HR policy keep on changing, HR department takes decisions with two shapes and sizes, and feel HR department takes decisions based on favoritism. In the ultimate analysis, it can be stated that HRD departments in Dubai need to improve HRM processes with the support of top management to strengthen the HRM system.

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REMOVAL OF ENTRY LOAD ON MUTUAL FUND SCHEMES – IMPACT ON NET NEW MONEY**Dr. Shivaji Waghmare¹ and Dr. Ravichandra Reddy²**Professor¹, Department of Commerce, Gulbarga University, GulbargaProfessor², Department of Management Studies, New Horizon College of Engineering, Bangalore

ABSTRACT

Retail investors have nice time to enjoy the initiation taken by the market regulator SEBI i.e. removal of entry load on all mutual fund schemes. In any case this norm does not affect the investment style of investors who invest more than Rs. 5 crores but truly bring change in the investment style of retail category. This act by market regulator brings in certain amount of advantages as well as disadvantages to the core participants say investors, distributors, government and obviously mutual fund. This study basically proposes to analyze the impact of removal of entry load on NNM of mutual fund industry as a whole because NNM is the prime barometer for any scheme. In order to understand whether the removal of entry load has significant impact on NNM or insignificant, ANOVA and Levene statistic have been used to test the assumption and found that removal of entry load does not have significant impact on the Net New Money.

Key words: Retail Investors, Entry Load, NNM, SEBI and Mutual Fund

INTRODUCTION

Assets Under Management (AUM) is the term used by all mutual funds to weight how much money they are actively managing. AUM would be the appropriate parameter to evaluate their relative performance with their competitors in their market. It is also defined as the market value of all assets managed by a mutual fund on behalf of their investors. The Net New Money (NNM) is the term used to understand the difference between the redemptions and sales made by the funds during specific period.

The entry load is a cost to the investors at the time of investing in mutual fund schemes. Entry load may vary from 2.25 per cent to 2.75 per cent depending upon the style of investment and investment objective of the scheme. Especially when any global FOF or Thematic funds are floated that would certainly attract 2.75 per cent as entry load. This entry load is charged in order to compensate the distributors who basically market the mutual fund products as well as basically the investor's services like switching, closure etc. if the mutual fund offers a NFO, which has a property of lock-in period for about 3 years, the mutual fund may waive off the entry load but it is not common to all schemes. On 1st August 2009, the market regulator SEBI demolished the entry load charged on all the mutual funds investments. This initiative affects:

1. The interest of distributors to market MF schemes
2. Overall profitability of mutual funds
3. Service tax collections etc.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

SEBI chief Mr. M Damodaran (2013) said if the stock market regulator has its way, investors could walk into the office of a mutual funds firm, but any of its funds and walk out without paying any kind of entry load. SEBI proposes to waive the entry fee for direct applications received by mutual fund companies either through their investor service centers or the internet. SEBI's argument is that since the entry charge is utilized by fund firms towards meeting the distributor's commission, investors making direct investments shouldn't be asked to pay this charge. If implemented, the plan can bring down the cost of investing in mutual funds.

Mr. Dharendra Kumar, CEO, value research India Pvt, Ltd, a Delhi – based mutual fund research house (2013), said the current norms have been unfair to the do-it-yourself kind of investor who thinks he doesn't need guidance or advice of the distributors. But these investors have no incentive for going to the fund company as he still had to pay the entry fee.

Mr. Rajesh Saluja, CEO and Managing Partner, ASK Wealth Advisors (2013), mentioned SEBI's decision is both in the interest of investors and wealth managers. It leads to transparency with no involvement of hidden cost like load structure. Under this scenario, advisory is the only way forward.

Mr. Krishnan Sitaraman, Head, FundService, Crisil (2013), said, as a concept the move is very good as it links loads (fee) to the extent of service rendered by the distributors, but the key issue is implementation. With poor financial awareness among investors, operational difficulties would always be there with this norm. Mutual fund investors, at present pay an entry load (commission) of 2.5 per cent to the distributors. Besides that, asset

management companies pay a commission of anything between 50 basis points and 3.5 per cent to their distributors.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To analyze the removal of entry load on mutual fund schemes and its short-term impact on New Net Money of all fund houses.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Currently Indian mutual fund industry consisting of 38 Asset Management companies offering multiple schemes that would cater to the needs of various category of investors. Among 38 AMC's only NNMs' of 34 fund houses have been taken into consideration for analysis and apparently 4 AMCs' namely:

1. Axis mutual fund
2. Goldman Sachs mutual fund
3. Religare AEGON mutual fund
4. Shinsei mutual fund

have been discarded from analysis on account of their recently entry into the market. The NNM various fund houses have obtained from Association of Mutual funds in India (AMFI) for 14 months period that would exactly split the NNM for 7 months period.

Period I – Before removal – January'13 to July'13

Period II – After removal – August'13 to February'13

Hypothesis

H₀: The norm of removing entry load does-not significantly affect the NNM of the mutual funds.

i = Average Net New Money, σ^2 = Variance of Net New Money

$$i_{After} = i_{Before}$$

$$\sigma^2_{After} = \sigma^2_{Before}$$

H₁: The norm of removing entry load significantly affects the NNM of the mutual funds

$$i_{After} \neq i_{Before}$$

$$\sigma^2_{After} \neq \sigma^2_{Before}$$

One – Way ANOVA:

The one-way ANOVA procedure produces a one-way analysis of variance for a quantitative dependent variable by a single factor (independent) variable. Analysis of variance is used to test the hypothesis that several means are equal. This technique is an extension of two-sample 't' test.

LEVENE'S STATISTIC

Levene's test is an inferential used to assess the equality of in different samples. Some common statistical procedures assume that variances of the populations from which different samples are drawn are equal. Levene's test assesses this assumption. It tests the null hypothesis that the population variances are equal. If the resulting p-value of Levene's test is less than some critical value (typically 0.05), the obtained differences in sample variances are unlikely to have occurred based on random sampling. Thus, the null hypothesis of equal variance is rejected and is concluded that there is a difference between the variances in the population.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Analysis: 1 – Descriptive statistics Table No: 1

Sl. No.	Parameter	Value
1	Average Net New Money	Rs. 21,670.07 Crores
2	Standard Deviation of NNM (Before)	Rs. 91,702.46 Crores
3	Standard Deviation of NNM (After)	Rs. 1,08,588.66 Crores
4	Serial (Auto) Correlation coefficient	-0.48 (First Lag)
5	R-Squared	0.23

It is evident from the table that the standard deviation of NNM is too high and thus indicates that the removal of entry load on mutual fund schemes and much impact on the Net New Money of the mutual fund schemes. Though there was increment in the value, this could be possibly because of enhanced investment from the

investors end. The auto correlation coefficient signifies that there is a low degree of negative correlation between current NNM and the lagged NNM to the extent of -48% from January'13 till February'14 and apparently to the extent of 23% variation in the current NNM be explained by the previous months' NNM. In order to have perfectly fit model, the R-Squared value should have to be more than 90%, but according to current model this would not be perfectly fit since the coefficient determination value is only 23%. Thus, the extent of 77% variation in the NNM would be because of the removal of entry load on all mutual fund schemes.

Analysis: 2 – Levene statistic (Test of homogeneity of Variances of NNM before and after removal of entry load)

Group – I = NNM of all mutual funds for Period – I (7 months)

Group – II = NNM of all mutual funds for Period – II (7 months)

This exact bifurcation has been ascertained to have equality in number of observations in order to test the hypothesis. The maximum probability that the researcher would like to have risk is 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$). This would be the probability of rejecting null hypothesis when it is true.

COMPILED DATA FROM THE ANALYSIS

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
0.266	1	12	0.615

*significant at 5% LOF.

From the above analysis it is prudent that the significant value is greater than the probability, hence the researcher accepts the null hypothesis at 5% level of significance and concludes that the norm of removing the entry load is insignificant and variance of NNM before and after removal of entry load in equal.

Analysis: 3 – ANOVA (Test of equality of Average NNM before and after removal of entry load)

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	3003338057.79	1	3003338057.79	0.271	0.612
Within groups	133119870559.14	12	11093322546.60		
Total	136123208616.93	13			

*significance @ 0.05

From the above analysis, it is evident that the significant level is greater than the probability at which the researcher would like to assume risk and apparently we cannot reject the null hypothesis at 5% level of significance. It signifies that despite the change in policy the average Net New Money (before) and Net New Money (after) remains the same.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The removal of entry load on all mutual fund schemes would be attractive from the investors view point but still the portfolio management charges certainly exist. Probably, one would say, a portion of cost to investors has been off loaded. The market watchdog SEBI emphasized that even the marketing and distribution charges incurred by AMC's cannot be recovered from the investors this leading to reduction in the overall profitability of the fund and directly affecting the NAV of the respective fund. The analysis enumerates that the initiation has been brought in by SEBI significantly did not affect the NNM of mutual funds to a great extent. The variation in NNM could have happened on account of the following reasons.

1. Investors would have thought of to exploit the opportunity given by SEBI.
2. AMC's would have thought of to introduce more schemes in order to enhance their asset base to cater various needs of investors. (Eleven fresh NFO came with in less than 30 days from 18th June'13 to 15th July'13 and more)

But one should understand that the incentives are getting transferred from one pocket to another pocket. We should be aware that all the expenses whether it is charged in the beginning or later, obviously get adjusted while determining the Net Asset Value (NAV). Thus, this would be two-person Zero-Sum game.

This initiative perhaps badly hits the service tax collections and poses serious threat to the tax authorities because earlier the mutual fund directly deducts the tax at source on the commission payable to the distributors and paid the service tax directly to Government and now on account of removal entry load the commission

would not be paid by the mutual fund and apparently commission comes from the investors, hence service tax should have to be paid by the distributors directly to the Government, lead to complications in determining the amount of service tax even perhaps lead to tax evasion. In the previous year Rs. 250 crore has been collected from the mutual funds in the form of service tax but this year it may hit the service tax collections.

The incentive earned by the distributors from the mutual fund is collected in the form of entry load by the mutual fund from the investors. Since, the entry load has been discarded, most of the distributors may perhaps not be interested in floating the MF schemes aggressively as they were earlier, leading to marketability risk.

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RISING GLOBAL DEBT: AN ALARMING SIGNAL (A SPECIAL REFERENCE TO INDIAN DEBT MARKET)

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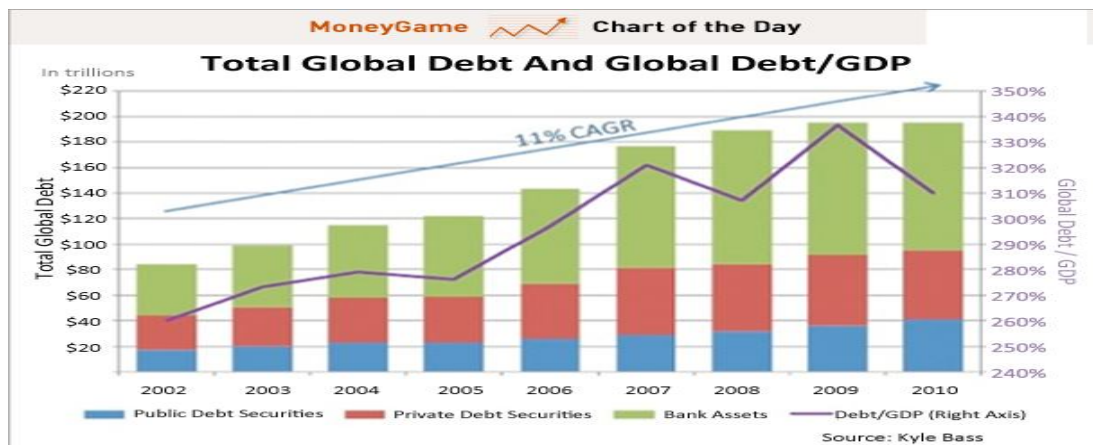
ABSTRACT

The paper is outlining the complete global debt market and the GDP for the last 10 years. Here we can know the various debt ratios of both developed and developing countries. The concentration is more been drawn towards Asian countries a special with reference of India. The two major players of the market are China and Japan. The researchers have given the recommendation to overcome the debt scenario.

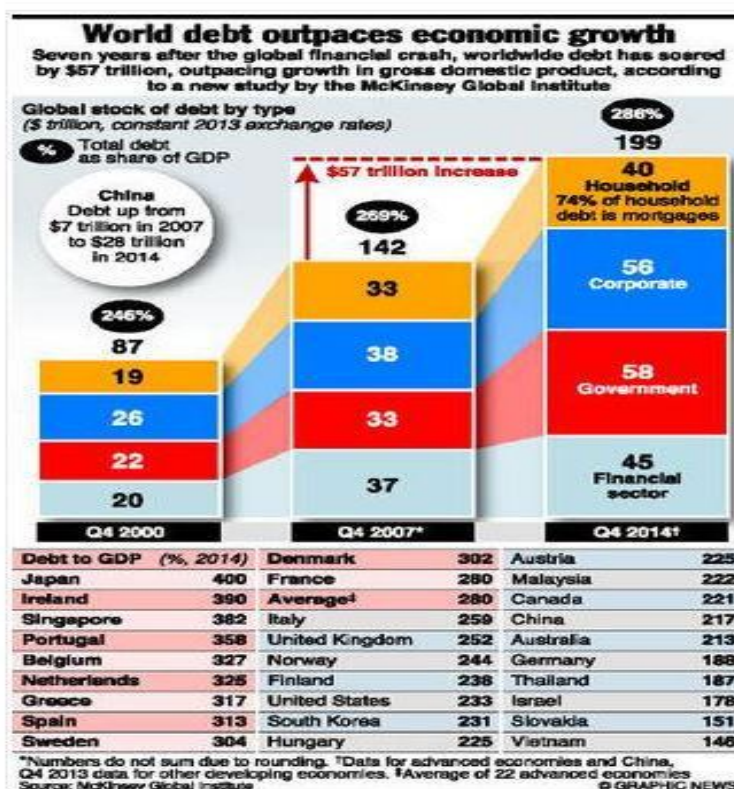
INTRODUCTION

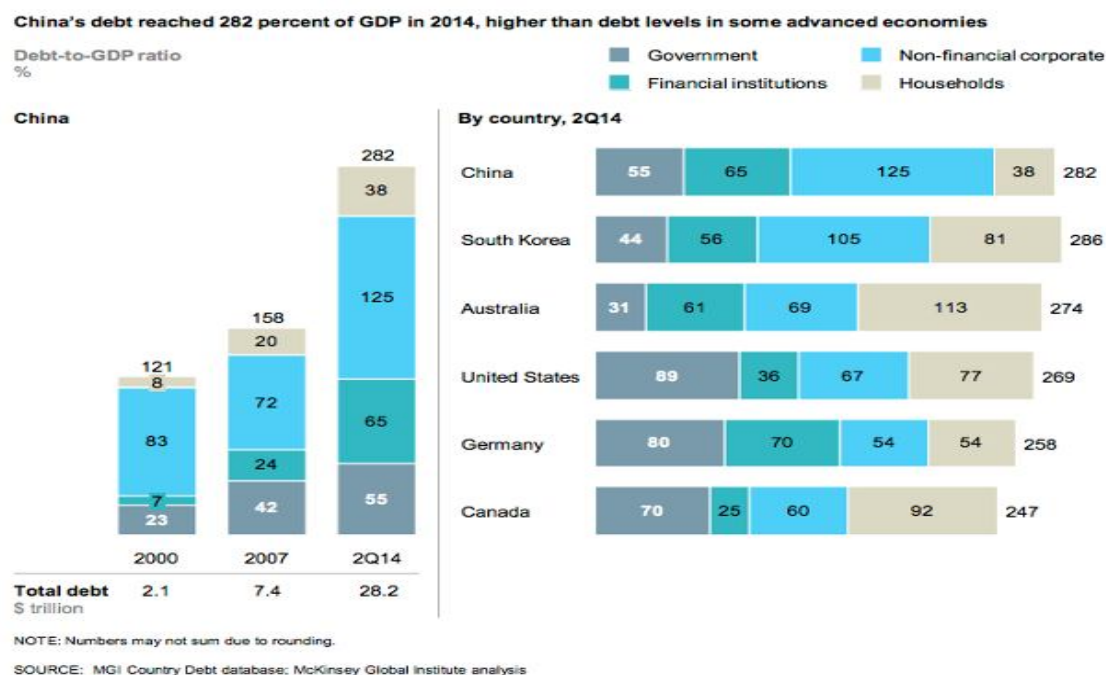
Global debt has grown by \$57 trillion to reach \$199 trillion in the seven years following the financial crisis - a 40.1% rise, according to a new report. All major economies are now recording higher levels of borrowing relative to gross domestic product (GDP) than they did in 2007.

Total debt as a share of GDP stood at 286% in the second quarter of 2014 compared with 269% in the fourth quarter of 2007.



Ratio of Total Debt to Economic Output Has Declined of the Respective Countries (Source: McKinsey report)





1. An economy should be able to vibration along just fine whether a country's citizens have a great deal of debt or none. A company's ability to produce things depends on the workers and machines it employs, not the composition of its balance sheet, and the same can be said of nations.
2. High debt increases the plenty of economic swings. To think of it in terms of the corporate metaphor, high reliance on borrowed money may not affect a company's level of output in theory, but makes it a great deal more vulnerable to bankruptcy.
3. Researchers compiled data on the full range of debt that countries owe - not just their governments, but corporations, banks and households, as well. The results: Since the start of the global financial crisis at the end of 2007, the total debt worldwide has risen by \$57 trillion, rising to 286 per cent of global economic output from 269 per cent.
4. As we learned during the financial crisis, a country with high debt levels can get into economic trouble regardless of whether its debts are most heavily owed by the government (Greece, Italy), households (Spain, the U.S.), or financial institutions (Ireland, Britain).
5. The ratio of total debt to economic output has declined in only a handful of smaller countries, such as Romania, Saudi Arabia and Israel. In all of the world's economic powerhouses, total debt has risen. While some of the places with the steepest increases are European countries that were enmeshed in that continents debt crisis, Ireland, Greece and Portugal with Spain and Italy just behind others are a bit more surprising.

TWO ASIAN GIANTS

China has seen its ratio of debt to economic output rise by a whopping 83 percentage points since 2007. 217 per cent of GDP, with increases in government, corporate, and household debt.

Chinese government has skilfully managed a slowdown in economic growth, and there are signs of a housing boom reaching its end. Whether it will be able to avoid a sharper correction is one of the great questions hanging over the global economy.

Then there is Japan, the most indebted country in the world, at 400 per cent of GDP. Debt is up 64 percentage points since 2007. Its fiscal challenges are almost entirely from government debt, and they long predate the financial crisis. Its borrowing costs remain astoundingly low, reflecting ultra-low inflation and strong domestic demand for Japanese government bonds. But it is hard to look at the balance sheet of the world's third-largest economy and not wonder how this can end well.

U.S. While total debt for the real economy is up by 16 percentage points in the U.S. to 233 per cent of GDP, household debt is actually down by 18 percentage points and corporate debt by 2 percentage points. And perhaps most promising for the U.S., our financial institutions have become significantly less leveraged, with financial-sector debt falling by 24 percentage points of GDP.

INDIAN DEBT MARKET

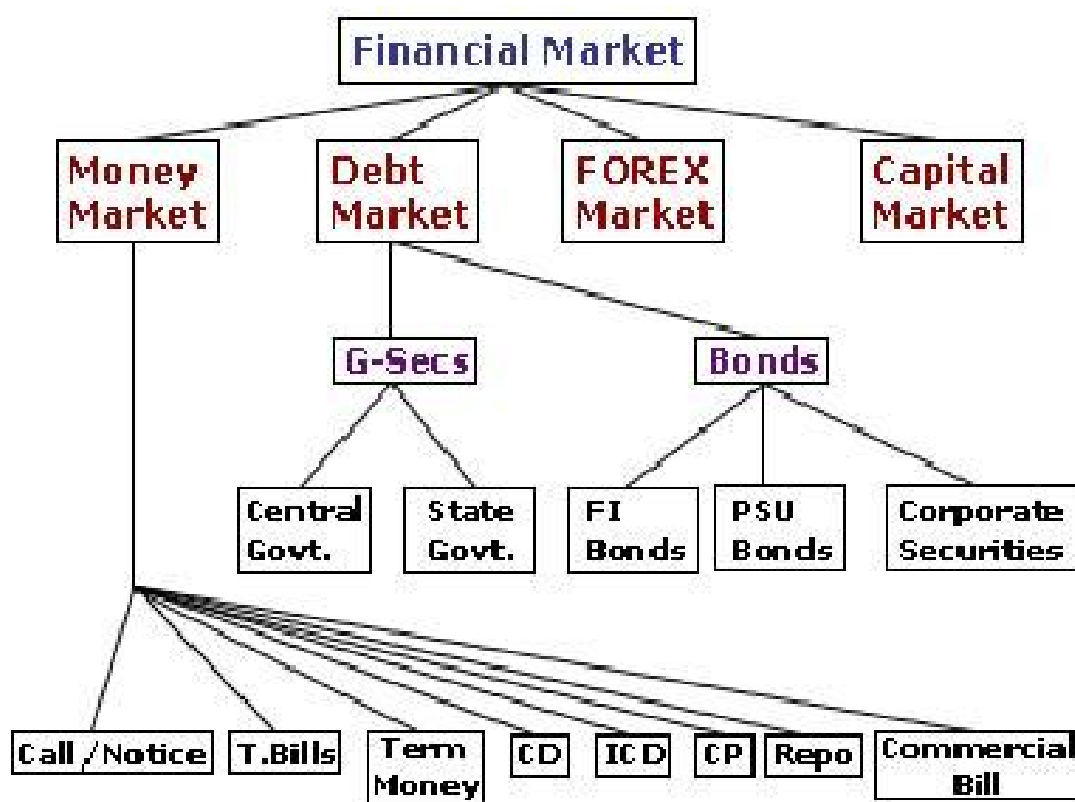
The capital markets in India are more synonymous with the equity markets – both on account of the common investors' preferences and the oft huge capital gains it offered – no matter what the risks involved are. The investor's preference for debt market, on the other hand, has been relatively a recent phenomenon – an outcome of the shift in the economic policy, whereby the market forces have been accorded a greater leeway in influencing the resource allocation. Indian Bond Market has been traditionally dominated by the Government securities market. The reasons for this are

1. The high and persistent government deficit and the need to promote an efficient government securities market to finance this deficit at an optimal cost,
2. A captive market for the government securities in the form of public sector banks which are required to invest in government securities a certain per cent of deposit liabilities as per statutory requirement¹,
3. The predominance of bank lending in corporate financing and
4. Regulated interest rate environment that protected the banks' balance sheets on account of their exposure to the government securities.

DEBT MARKET

Debt market as the name suggests is where debt instruments or bonds are traded. The most distinguishing feature of these instruments is that the return is fixed i.e. they are as close to being risk free as possible, if not totally risk free. The fixed return on the bond is known as the interest rate or the coupon rate. Thus, the buyer of a bond gives the seller a loan at a fixed rate, which is equal to the coupon rate. Debt Markets are therefore, markets for fixed income securities issued by:

1. Central and State Governments
2. Municipal Corporations
3. Entities like Financial Institutions, Banks, Public Sector Units, and Public Ltd. companies.

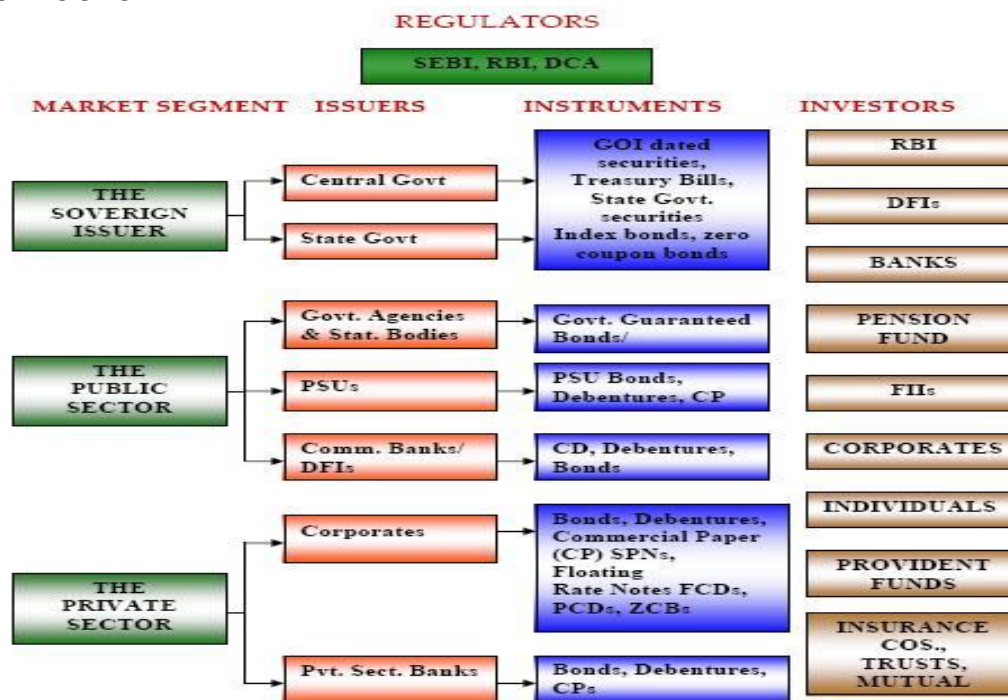


SEGMENTS OF DEBT MARKETS

There are three main segments in the debt markets in India,

1. Government Securities,
2. Public Sector Units (PSU) bonds and
3. Corporate securities.

MARKET STRUCTURE



PARTICIPANTS

1. Central Governments,
2. Reserve Bank of India,
3. Primary Dealers,
4. State Governments,
5. Public Sector Units
6. Public Sector Financial Institutions
7. Banks
8. Mutual Funds.
9. Foreign Institutional Investors
10. Provident Funds
11. Corporate
12. Charitable Institutions, Trusts and Societies

DEBT MARKET INSTRUMENTS

Issuer	Instrument	Maturity	Investors
Central Government	Dated Securities	2-30years	RBI, Banks, Insurance Companies, Provident Funds, Mutual Funds, PDs, Individuals
Central Government	T-Bills	91/182/364 days	RBI, Banks, Insurance Companies, Provident Funds, PDs, Mutual Funds, Individuals
State Government	Dated Securities	5-13 years	Banks, Insurance Companies, Provident Funds, RBI, Mutual Funds, Individuals, PDs.
PSUs	Bonds, Structured Obligations	5-10 years	Banks, Insurance Companies, Corporate, Provident Funds, Mutual Funds, Individuals
Corporates	Debentures	1-12 years	Banks, Mutual Funds, Corporates, Individuals
Corporates, PDs	Commercial paper	7 days to 1 year	Banks, Corporate, Financial institutions, Mutual Funds, Individuals, FIIs
Scheduled Commercial Banks	Certificates of Deposit (CDs)	7 days to 1 year	Banks, Corporations, Individuals, Companies, Trusts, Funds, Associations, FIs, NRIs
Financial Institutions		1 year to 3 years	
Scheduled Commercial Banks	Bank Bonds	1-10 years	Corporations, Individual Companies, Trusts, Funds, Associations, FIs, NRIs
Municipal Corporation	Municipal Bonds	0-7 years	Banks, Corporations, Individuals, Companies, Trusts, Funds, Associations, FIs, NRIs

REMEDIES TO OVERCOME GLOBAL DEBT

- Developed countries' policies should aim at renewed monetary and fiscal stimulus instead of trying to regain the confidence of the financial markets;
- Developing countries also face considerable downside risks and should aim at maintaining mildly expansionist macroeconomic conditions domestically, while trying to contain external disruptions;
- Re-regulation of financial markets is a requirement to reduce herd behaviour and eliminate the problems associated with too-big-to-fail institutions;
- Developing countries should use capital controls, foreign reserve accumulation and foreign exchange management to reduce the risk of financial crises;
- Adjustment of real wages in line with productivity to promote domestic consumption is necessary for a sustainable recovery in developed countries;
- Monetary policy could then reduce its focus on price stability and pay greater attention to securing low-cost finance for investment in real productive capacity.

CONCLUSION

The rapid recovery of Asian economies after the crisis, in particular China and India, and the relatively fast recovery of commodity prices have helped developing countries maintain their growth momentum. However, many developing countries continue to face considerable downside risks and the danger of a negative external shock cannot be completely ruled out, given the volatility of commodity prices, the continuous crisis in Europe or their exposure to significant short-term capital flows, which tend to exert an upward pressure on their currencies and damage their export industries. In other words, even though growth in several developing countries has come to rely more on domestic forces rather than on exports, it remains vulnerable. Thus developing countries should aim at maintaining stable macroeconomic conditions domestically and containing external disruptions.

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ROLE OF ECOFEMINISM VIS-À-VIS JUDICIARY FOR THE PROTECTION OF ENVIRONMENT IN INDIA**Dhwajen Sonowal**Research Scholar & Assistant Professor, Centre for Juridical Studies, Dibrugarh University, Assam

ABSTRACT

In the context of India or any other developing/under developed countries, ecofeminism is vital to unveil the exploitations and invasions over our mother environment and its resources by the developed countries in the name of globalization, urbanization and development. Ecofeminism believes that an ideology and movement i.e. the oppression of women are interlinked to the oppression of nature with the similar masculine centred attitudes and practices concerning to the patriarchal society.

This paper will explore the elementary tenets of ecofeminism in India. In Indian there is growing protests against environmental destruction and struggles for survival and existence have highlighted the interconnections of feminist perspectives along with natural environment. This paper will try to conceptualize the debate within the environmental movement and would attempt to see whether the issue of environment has been taken up by the Indian women's movement for the protection of environment and at the same time it is also analyzed, whether Judiciary in India is proactively protecting the environment and to give environmental justice.

Key words: Ecofeminism, environmental movement, environmental justice, role of judiciary.

INTRODUCTION

Gender equality or gender egalitarianism is the view that men and women should receive equal treatment and should not be discriminated against based on gender. A movement for equal rights between men and women has been expanding at a very fast pace in India as more women are realizing that they have the power to make a change. India is ranked 127th out of 152 on the Gender Inequality Index in 2014 Human Development Report.¹

The movement for gender equality has been fueled by passionate feminists who fight to achieve equality, dignity, rights and freedom for women to control their lives and bodies both within their home and outside. There are many forms of feminism which vary in their approach such as liberal feminism, Marxist feminism, socialist feminism, radical feminism and ecofeminism.

The ecofeminism is very unique as it believes that the attitudes and values of women are differ from men because they possess the qualities of creativity, sensitivity and caring. The ecofeminists see connections between the domination of nature and exploitation of women as a dualistic structure. Women and Earth also share certain characteristics and are both exploited by men in similar fashions.² For example, according to ecofeminism, women and nature are both producers of life and they both are exploited by men. Hence, this type of feminist believes that a paradigm shift is needed in terms of male gender roles. Women in India are also more dependent on their natural environment than men and it has been seen that women also suffer disproportionately from environmental degradation than men.³ This degradation is mainly caused by men.

OBJECTIVES

From the above backdrop the present paper aims to sketch the ecofeminist movement in India for the protection of natural environment which is directly related to right to life. Moreover, it attempts to highlight the various provisions of law for the protection of environment and the role of Judiciary for environmental justice. In addition to these, it tries to suggest for the protection of environment from the feminist perspective.

MEANING OF ECOFEMINISM

Etymologically, the term 'ecofeminism' is defined as a philosophical and political theory and movement which combines ecological concerns with feminist ones, regarding both as resulting from male domination of society.

According to Webster's New World Encyclopedia, "Ecofeminism is a movement or theory that applies feminist principles and ideas to ecological issues".⁴

According to Mary Mellor, "Ecofeminism is a movement that sees a connection between the exploitation and degradation of the natural world and the subordination and oppression of women. It brings together elements of the feminist and green movements, while at the same time offering a challenge to both. It takes from the green movement a concern about the impact of human activities on the nonhuman world and from feminism the view of humanity as gendered in ways that subordinate, exploit and oppress women".⁵

It is one of the forms of feminism which has emanated through the amalgamation of feminism and environmentalism. The said term was coined by the Francoise d'Eanbonne in 1974. She used it "to call upon women to lead an ecological revolution to save the planet". She describes how the human race could be saved by women initiating an ecological revolution, as a way to counter the oppression of women that is one and the same as the oppression and destruction of nature. Ecofeminism is ecological because the preservation of ecosystems is a prime objective and feminist on the basis that it offers up ways to recognize and counter male favoritism.

In Indian cosmology, nature is known as '*Prakriti*' and women are an intimate part of nature which is symbolized as the embodiment of the feminine principle and is nurtured by the feminine to produce life and provide sustenance.⁶ In other words, nature naturalizes women and women feminize nature. Besides, the nature is also known as *Mother Earth* because it is a giver and supporter of life as well as the image of disorder with storms, droughts and other natural disasters. *Mother Earth* is used to be seen as alive and sensitive in Indian culture and it is unethical to use violence against her. For example, when mining, people believed that minerals and metals ripened in the uterus of Earth; they can compare mines to *Mother Earth's* vagina and metallurgy is an abortion of the metal's natural growth.⁷

According to Vandana Shiva, Indian ecofeminist, prakriti is worshipped in various ways, "as the primordial vastness, the source of abundance, as adishakti, the primordial power".⁸ Unlike the western concept of passive or objectified nature, in Indian philosophy, nature is active and diverse. The nature is everywhere in the form of stone, tree, pool, fruit or animal.⁹

ECOFEMINIST MOVEMENT IN INDIA

In the context of India or any other developing or under developed countries, ecofeminism is vital to unveil the exploitations and invasions over our ecology and its resources, by the developed countries in the name of globalization, urbanization and development. Vandana Shiva, in her book, *Staying Alive: Women, Ecology and Survival in India*, criticizes the western ideology of development and its negative impacts on women and nature in the third world countries. She calls this patriarchal western concept of development as 'mal development' as it is least concerned with the well-being of all human beings deprived of their position in the society.

History reminds us an environmental exploitation which significantly affected the lives of women was on December 2nd, 1984 when 40 tons of toxic gas was released from the Union Carbide pesticide plant in Bhopal. This disaster resulted in the death of 3000 people and the suffering of 4, 00,000 others who were exposed. It is the women who were the most severely affected as well as the most persistent in demanding justice.

Now days, women are participating equally with men in all fields. They are ahead of men particularly in the matter of prevention of pollution and protection, preservation and conservation of environment. This can be proved by the participation of women in various environmental movements as discussed as hereunder.

The origin of ecofeminist theory in India undisputedly remains the Chipko Tree hugging movement of the 1970s. It is because, in Indian philosophy, the forest has been worshipped as Aranyani, the Goddess of the Forest, who is the primary source of life and fertility. Indian civilization has formed principles around the diversity, harmony and self-sustaining nature of forest. As the primary source of Earth's fertility and productivity, the forest is considered to be closely connected to women. In Indian tribal communities, women gather more than half their food from forests. Even in non-tribal areas, forests provide food and livelihood through critical inputs to agriculture, through soil and water conservation and through inputs of fodder and organic fertilizer.¹⁰

The origin of Chipko movement can be trace back to the Bishnois.¹¹ On Tuesday (the 10th day of the month of Bhadrapad, according to Indian lunar Calendar) in 1730, biggest KHADANA (events of sacrifice) took place when King Abhay Singh of Rajasthan needed fire wood to burn lime to construct his palace in Jodhpur. His advisors advised him that nowhere in the desert wood can be found other than in Bishnoi villages. Then the King order to cut the Khejri (*Prosopis Cineraria*) trees accompanied by soldiers and workers. Amrita Devi along with 363 ladies who were sacrificed their lives for the protection of Khejri trees. Recognizing Amrita Bishnois sacrifice, the Government of India (Ministry of Environment & Forest) has instituted the national award "Amrita Devi Bishnoi Wildlife Protection Award".¹²

In 1970's the Chipko movement was took place in Garhwal region of Uttaranchal in Uttar Pradesh. The Chipko initially began as protests to protect land and forest rights for the local people, especially to utilize local forest produce. Later, Garhwal witnessed organized protest against commercial exploitation of forests by outside contractors. The conception of tree hugging was adopted to curb activities such as deforestation, lumbering and

mining. This movement was a consequence of severe turmoil emanating in local women who were influenced the most by state-level verdicts leading to environmental deterioration.

Recently, other women who have done pioneer work for environmental issues are Medha Patkar, Mahasweta Devi, Arundhati Roy and C.K. Janu. Medha Patkar is involved in Narmada Bachao Andolan, a socialist movement against the Sardar Sarovar dam being built across the Narmada River in Gujarat in the mid-1980s. Arundhati Roy also openly supported and joined in the said Andolan.

Maneka Gandhi is also a self-described environmentalist and animal rights leader. She started an organization "People for Animals" in Uttarakhand in 1992 and it is the largest organization for the protection of animal rights and welfare. She is also a patron of International Animal Rescue.

In 2001, C.K. Janu, leader of Adivasi Gothra Maha Sabha, launched an agitation that propelled a tribal movement for land to the centre stage of political discourse in Kerala. Her movement was against the infringed agreement between the Adivasis and state government to grant 500 acres of land to each Adivasi family.

ENVIRONMENTAL JUSTICE

The main motto of ecofeminism in India is to fight for 'environmental justice', which is a broad concept to define political actions to stop the victimization. It is a multifaceted movement that includes laws and policies from civil rights, distributive justice court decisions, public participation equality issues, social justice ethics, and actions by the global sustainability movement. Sustainability interacts with issues of justice. It attempts to eliminate harmful impacts such as pollution rather than redistribution them. It also attempts to find ways to ensure access to resources such as water and energy that are equitable but do not harm the environment. It promotes the precautionary principles as a way to avoid inequitable environmental burden.¹³

PRINCIPLES OF ENVIRONMENTAL JUSTICE

There are certain principles which were adopted by delegates of the First National People of Color Environmental Justice Summit in 1991. These principles were developed to serve as a "guide for organizing, networking, and relating to government and nongovernmental organizations."¹⁴

1. Environmental Justice affirms the sacredness of Mother Earth, ecological unity and the interdependence of all species, and the right to be free from ecological destruction.
2. Environmental Justice demands that public policy be based on mutual respect and justice for all peoples, free from any form of discrimination or bias.
3. Environmental Justice mandates the right to ethical, balanced and responsible uses of land and renewable resources in the interest of a sustainable planet for humans and other living things.
4. Environmental Justice calls for universal protection from nuclear testing, extraction, production and disposal of toxic/hazardous wastes and poisons and nuclear testing that threaten the fundamental right to clean air, land, water, and food.
5. Environmental Justice affirms the fundamental right to political, economic, cultural and environmental self-determination of all peoples.
6. Environmental Justice demands the cessation of the production of all toxins, hazardous wastes, and radioactive materials, and that all past and current producers be held strictly accountable to the people for detoxification and the containment at the point of production.
7. Environmental Justice demands the right to participate as equal partners at every level of decision-making, including needs assessment, planning, implementation, enforcement and evaluation.
8. Environmental Justice affirms the right of all workers to a safe and healthy work environment without being forced to choose between an unsafe livelihood and unemployment. It also affirms the right of those who work at home to be free from environmental hazards.
9. Environmental Justice protects the right of victims of environmental injustice to receive full compensation and reparations for damages as well as quality health care.
10. Environmental Justice considers governmental acts of environmental injustice a violation of international law, the Universal Declaration On Human Rights, and the United Nations Convention on Genocide.

11. Environmental Justice must recognize a special legal and natural relationship of Native Peoples to the U.S. government through treaties, agreements, compacts and covenants affirming sovereignty and self-determination.
12. Environmental Justice affirms the need for urban and rural ecological policies to clean up and rebuild our cities and rural areas in balance with nature, honoring the cultural integrity of all our communities, and provided fair access for all to the full range of resources.
13. Environmental Justice calls for the strict enforcement of principles of informed consent, and a halt to the testing of experimental reproductive and medical procedures and vaccinations on people of color.
14. Environmental Justice opposes the destructive operations of multi-national corporations.
15. Environmental Justice opposes military occupation, repression and exploitation of lands, peoples and cultures, and other life forms.
16. Environmental Justice calls for the education of present and future generations which emphasizes social and environmental issues, based on our experience and an appreciation of our diverse cultural perspectives.
17. Environmental Justice requires that we, as individuals, make personal and consumer choices to consume as little of Mother Earth's resources and to produce as little waste as possible; and make the conscious decision to challenge and reprioritize our lifestyles to ensure the health of the natural world for present and future generations.

CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS FOR PROTECTION OF ENVIRONMENT

Constitution is the mother of all laws. The Constitution of India established some provisions for the protection of environment and these are the main source of ecofeminist movement. These are as follows-

Article 48-A provides that the State shall endeavour to protect and improve the environment and to safeguard the forests and wild life of the country. Hon'ble Supreme Court remarked that whenever a problem of ecology was brought before the court, the court was bound to bear in mind Articles 48-A and 51-A (g).¹⁵

Article 51-A (g) provides that every citizen shall be the duty to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wildlife and to have compassion for living creatures. It is fundamental duty with respect to environment is intended to promote people's participation in the protection of environment. Further, it is important to note that the protection of environment is a matter of constitutional priority. Neglect of it is an invitation of disaster.

Article 21 provides that no person shall be deprived of his life or personal liberty except according to procedure established by law. This Article is the heart of the fundamental rights and has received expanded meaning from time to time after the decision of the Supreme Court. This Article guarantees a fundamental right to life- a life of dignity to be lived in a proper environment, free of danger of disease and infection. Thus, right to live in a healthy environment is a part of Article 21.

ROLE OF JUDICIARY FOR THE PROTECTION OF ENVIRONMENT

The Judiciary wing has been proactively engaged in dealing various environmental issues. The Supreme Court of India has developed environmental jurisprudence. The Court has laid down various principles to protect the environment, re-interpreted environmental laws, created new institutions and structures, and conferred additional powers on the existing ones through a series of directions and landmark judgments.

In *Kamal Nath v. Union of India*,¹⁶ the Supreme Court evolved the doctrine of 'Public Trust' which envisages that all the Government lands and public places belong to the people i.e. the public property. The public property vested in the Government for safe custody. Therefore, the Government is shouldered with the responsibility to protect the environment and public places.

In *Indian Council for Enviro-legal Action v. Union of India*,¹⁷ the Court laid down the Polluters Pay Principle which imposes dual liability on the person/industrialist, who caused the environmental pollution. According to this principle, the polluter is not only liable to pay compensation to the victims (of the environmental pollution) but also to restore the environment to its original position.

In *Vellore Citizens' Welfare Forum v. Union of India and Others*,¹⁸ the Supreme Court recognized twin principles, i.e. 'Polluters Pay Principle' and 'Precautionary Pay Principle'. The precautionary principle aims to take necessary measures to protect the environment from a substance or activity causing environmental pollution.

The right to a wholesome environment is a fundamental right under Article 21 of the Constitution. In *Rural Litigation and Entitlement Kendra, Dehradun v. State of UP*,¹⁹ the Apex Court, for the first time interpreted that the right to life and personal liberty includes the right to a wholesome environment. It held that right to live is not a real right to live that it should accompany with free and pure air, land, water. It is expansive and creative judicial interpretation of the word 'life' in Article 21 which has led to the statutory development of an environmental jurisprudence in India.

For the improvement and awareness of environmental protection, in *Ganga Pollution Case*,²⁰ the Supreme Court held that under Article 51-A (g), it is the duty of the Central government to introduce compulsory teaching of lessons at least for one hour in a week on protection and improvement of natural environment in all the educational institutions of the country. It directed the Central Government to get text books written on that subject and distribute them to the educational institutions free of cost. In such way the Apex Court plays an important role for the development of environment protection in India.

CONCLUSION

In sum, we can say that ecofeminist theory from India has tended towards being a harsh critique of modernity, development, colonialism and with it modern science, technology, capitalism and patriarchy. Protest movements against environmental destruction and struggles for survival highlight the fact that the poor, lower class and lower caste, the peasant and tribal women, who are worst, affected and hence, they are most active in the ecofeminist movement. Thus, women cannot be harmonized into the category, either within the country or across the globe.

There is growing recognition of the need to strengthen women's capabilities to participate in environmental decision making by increasing their access to information and education, particularly in the area of science, technology and economics. Women's lack of access in development planning and policy formulation has also had a negative effect on long-term management and protection of the natural environment and the promotion of sustainable development.

Science and technology innovations for sustainable development recognize women's environmental needs and involved the promotion of sustainable livelihoods, the protection of the natural environment and women's equitable participation and conceptual authority in environmental decision making. Environment and gender issues need to be taken together and the new social movements in India seem to provide the ray of hope for change.

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SOCIAL MUTATION AND LOST NEIGHBORHOODS IN ATHENS, GREECE**Bakogiannis E¹, Kyriakidis C.², Siti M.³, Siolas A.⁴ and Vassi A.⁵**Urban Planner¹, Urban and Regional Planner², Surveying Engineer³, Professor⁴ and Surveying Engineer⁵
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ABSTRACT

Recent discussions on the smaller urban units have led us to consider some social phenomena related to the transformation of urban space. The smallest urban unit, in the administrative level, is considered to be the neighborhood. Lot of research aimed at the definition of the neighborhood; not only in urban planning terms but also in geography, economics, sociology and history. Over the last 150 years the alterations in elements that constitute the neighborhood's space, such as the street, the courtyard, the local coffee shop and the restaurants are tied with deep economic, social and political changes resulting from events and development in the Greek environment. The attempt to reconstitute the elements, which characterize the neighborhood on the basis of historical precedent and emotional attachment alone, is considered utopic. It would be more useful to try and establish the changes as occurred in the built space; and relate them to social change. Our study deepens on the definition of the contemporary concept of neighborhood, and also explores the way in which social life fits the various levels of spatial organization. Based on historical analysis and research on the neighborhood's evolution, we attempt to identify the ideal backbone on forms of the new neighborhoods.

The future planning of Athens should be seen between the small neighborhood level and metropolitan planning, using the pre-existing administrative and managerial boundaries, however encountering further the current geographies and new urban data. The overall processed data can add on the discussion of the city's identity, while also respond to the crucial question for the city: How social life can be balanced within the numerous levels of spatial organization. Mitscherlich (1970) reports that people in cities create their own vital space, where they express themselves in various ways, but cities also impact and shape the social character of their residents.

Key Words: Athens, neighborhood, planning unit, social life.

INTRODUCTION







Questioning the concept of the neighbourhood, the dilemma that commonly rises among researchers, urban planners, politicians and many times residents, is whether it is utopic notion or a reality well founded in the contemporary urban discourse. The question addresses mostly the potential rehabilitation of the city fabric, the revival of urbanity and sense of community rather than the academic and planning notions that define the neighbourhood. It is a fact that urban centres are generally viewed as the juxtaposition of built and unbuilt space that accommodate commuters rather than as a concise spatial entity with social relationships. The notion of the neighbourhood unit, as the smallest analysis unit in the urban environment, commenced in the late 1920s by Clarence A. Perry (1929), a New York urban planner; and since then planners maintain the debate on whether it is an urban 'fact'- a reference unit- or a subtractive term that addresses successfully temporary urban issues although without meeting the needs of complex socio-economical and planning issues. Accepting it as an urban 'fact', we should explore its nature, its real comparative characteristics, its representative figures and define the boundaries of such a unit along with configuring the necessity of its usage as an urban planning standard in contemporary cities. The research on the 'existence' of the neighbourhood as a planning term also refers to procedures of reappropriating the urban spaces that modern cities have neglected to their residents. Reappropriation of the city space is a theory well discussed between researchers and practitioners, based on the idea of the 'right to the city', as introduced by Henri Lefebvre (1968), that refers to the reactivation of place liveability, the capability of moving, resting, owning, acting, admiring, dreaming, learning, creating in the city according to the people's wishes and plans. According to Harvey (2008), it is [...] more than the individual liberty to access urban resources: it is a right to change ourselves by changing the city [...] a common rather than an individual right since this transformation inevitably depends upon the exercise of a collective power to reshape the processes of urbanization.

THE NOTION OF SMALL URBAN UNITS

The concept of *space* in planning includes all the social and geographic parameters that encompass objects, distances and places in the built and unbuilt zones of a city. In this context, we should examine the importance or insignificance of small urban units in the city; the social data and societal progresses they generate and the societal mutations that are driven from transformations in the built environment in combination to progresses of rapid evolution in policies, development tactics, real estate values and cultural ethics.

As a first general approach, we should refer to the three main viewpoints regarding the subsistence of the neighbourhood as a workable unit. International research (Hise, 1999, Berk, 2005 and Meenakshi, 2011) indicates three core opinions, which boundaries though remain highly blurred. The first supports the absence of the common clustering of neighbourhoods, the second argues for its conceptualization as a planning unit, while the third asserts that although neighbourhoods existed in traditional terms, they are currently evolving rapidly so they should be seen as evolutionary areas. The above, or some of them, are usually presented as contradictory aspects in the planning discourse or as theories corresponding to the different planning eras in the evolution of the city. Hence, the classic neighbourhood corresponds to the pre-industrial era, the lost neighbourhood to the industrial era and the evolving neighbourhood to the post industrial era. Unlike the aforementioned segregation, which distinguishes planning issues in a rather dogmatic and absolute way, the argument supporting that all three forms of community clustering (i.e. neighbourhood existence) can co- exist based on the networks' distribution and urban morphologies, appears to be more integrated and comprehensive.

Figure 1: Neighborhood types assigned to different time-periods as well as city types.

Neighborhood Types	Eras	City Types
Traditional Neighborhood 	Pre-Industrial Era	Pre-modern City 
Lost Neighborhood 	Industrial Era	Modern City 
Evolving Neighborhood 	Post Industrial Era	Post-modern City 

Source: Own Elaboration

As Meenakshi (2011) supports, "the 'neighbourhood unit' as a planning concept evolved in response to the degenerated environmental and social conditions fostered as a consequence of industrial revolution in the early 1900s".

Traditional neighbourhoods have relatively clear boundaries and stable relationships with present and new networks among residents. Social relationships in such neighbourhoods are bold, usually predefined and based on family bonds and feelings of solidarity and assistance. Paradigms of districts with such compactness are mostly found in concentrated homogenous ethnic or racial minority neighbourhoods (i.e. N.America, Latino neighbourhoods etc.), where areas are developed in specified geographical boundaries and have particular morphological forms. Well- known examples in this category are the typical low-income neighbourhoods in

most industrial cities (i.e. East End in Glasgow, Broadway-Manchester in LA), the various informal settlements with increased cohesion (i.e. Istanbul slums), arbitrary neighbourhoods, and Roma concentration camps. Of course compact neighbourhoods do also exist in numerous cities around the world, usually close to old city centres.

On the other hand, we observe low density sprawled forms throughout the city, mostly in developed Western peripheries and in several low density American suburbs, which lead to extended networks, joints and infrastructure demands. It is noticed lately that there is a call for return in traditional neighbourhoods, as a result of the global economic crisis as well as due to neo-romanticism trends apparent in many European countries. Of course the form and shape of a neighbourhood is a complex issue, defined by numerous parameters of urbanization, social and historical conditions and others, so we see different neighbourhood fabrics in central-European peripheries, where strong historical centres develop specific patterns, compared to typical African urban entities or the highly populated Asian communities.

Figure 2: Two main types of neighborhoods are identified in Athens: (a) Neighborhoods that preserve their traditional character (1 and 2) and (b) transformed neighborhoods that altered their previous identity (3 and 4).



Source: Own Elaboration

Another point of view worth mentioning is the fact that the variety of the various forms of neighbourhoods in metropolitan areas may ensure the needed pluralism for all kinds of residents, allowing the oppressed to escape in the *buzzy* cities while keeping the vulnerable in the vicinity of a vibrant neighbourhood.

Issues of determining the boundaries and contents of a neighborhood in terms of social capital are complicated and depend on perceptions of individuals, groups and social classes regarding the concept of such units. These perceptions can be particularly diverse between individuals in line with their role; mayors, contractors, planners and residents assess and define urban units according to their profession, interest and feelings many times disputing against each other. This matter is more evident in cities like Athens that played a significant role in human history due to the pre-existence of these terms that met a quite clear and specific content.

In general, the overall concept of the neighbourhood has been highly criticized as being too romanticized and, according to Meenakshi (2011), too idealistic to be practical for modern life. Furthermore, she adds that occasionally, a neighbourhood is found to be too large to promote social behaviour and neighbourly relations. Concerning the size of a neighbourhood three important opinions are presented, below:

- (a) Perry(1929) has described, in clear planning terms, the neighbourhood unit as the populated area which would require and support an elementary school with an enrolment of between 1,000 and 1,200 pupils, which determines a population of 5,000 to 6,000 people. Gallion (1984) has described -in addition to Perry's concept- that the unit would be served by shopping facilities, churches, and a library, and a

community centre, the latter being located in conjunction with the school. Following the above, Engelhardt Jr. (1940) has presented a comprehensive pattern of the neighbourhood units to be grouped in relation to the various levels of school facilities.

- (b) Meenakshi (2011) specifying Perry's ideal forms, notices that developed as a low density dwelling district with a population of 10 families per acre, the neighbourhood unit would occupy about 160 acres and have a shape which would render it unnecessary for any child to walk a distance of more than one-quarter mile to school. About 10 percent of the area would be allocated to recreation, and through traffic arteries would be confined to the surrounding streets, internal streets being limited to service access for residents of the neighbourhood.
- (c) Lately, Bakogiannis (2012) has described as the ideal local neighbourhood centre in the Greek planning environment, an area of 200 meters radius that can be reached within 5 minutes on foot or by bike, the unit that would be served by a local pharmacy, a playground, small scale sports facilities, mini markets, small coffee shops and youth recreation centres, public squares and transport connections with the municipality.

It should be noted that classification and typologies in neighbourhood planning can many times flatten distinctions arising by socio- political and other parameters, so it is observed that each profession defines spatial units with case specific criteria, such as geographical, historical, administrative, social and economic. Planners classify neighbourhoods according to housing and building systems in relation to morphologies in the overall periphery. In the case of Athens, we could identify two main types:

- (a) Neighbourhoods such as Kokkinia, Plaka, Kessariani, N.Ionia, that preserve traditional residential (single-family houses, two-flat and three-flat buildings) and mixed- use buildings.
- (b) Transformed neighbourhoods where rapid development or urban sprawl has altered their previous identity. In this second category, we see dense neighbourhoods (i.e. Kypseli, Pagkrati, Ambelokipi) with high rise buildings as well as low density suburbs with one or two- storey buildings or even arbitrary zones in the periphery of Athens.

OVERVIEW OF ATHENIAN NEIGHBORHOODS' CHARACTERISTICS

Athens has numerous elements that characterize the evolution of its neighbourhoods and compose the complex urbanity with its various functions and obscure social practices. This chapter aims to explore some of the most characteristic elements and their durability in time and space. In other words, we shall research the role and potential preservation of some crucial attributes from the Athens' past profile, such as the courtyard, the traditional coffee shop ('kafenio'), the bazaar and other similar entities like the taverna, the church and the 'alana' (Greek idiom for vacant lots working as local playgrounds). In particular:

- The courtyard: For many years, the yard was one of the most essential elements of the Greek neighbourhood. The courtyard was perceived as the commonplace formulated by a few, usually low rise, single family houses or two to three storey buildings. Yards were mostly isolated from external visitors, although many times had 'eyes on the street'. A critical issue is that in cases when there was no common yard, local streets and house thresholds were instead playing the role of such gathering places. These were the favourite places of children, housewives and the elderly. Children were usually reproducing adults' daily habits; housewives were gossiping or discussing daily issues etc.

From the beginning of the 19th century until the WWII, courtyards were places with strong urban identity and, even, fields of social evolution. This is the place where individual and family values and behaviours are developed and similarly the space where customs and traditions are emerging and later sustained. Courtyards are also the places where women are defined as housewives, hardworking, frugal and men as honourable, honest, good fathers etc. The yard becomes a micro-society and its planning and morphological elements are reflecting the social values, class behaviours and sometimes the labour movement's bonds and organization.

- The traditional coffee shop (*kafenio*) and the local restaurant (*taverna*): Traditional coffee shops and taverns firstly fulfil the needs of peasants that seek cohesion in the big cities. They are a crucial component in neighbourhoods complemented by the classic bourgeoisie cafes that attract passersby, intellectuals and other residents from the surroundings. The local cafe as well as the taverna maintain the cultural and moral values of the neighbourhood, while creating a system of relations among their frequenters. Locals support that they are places where someone can get the knowledge that no educational bodies can offer and use them as hubs- focal points- where they would gossip, tease on each other, exchange information about professional and entrepreneurial activities. It is important that these places had majorly contributed to the

meeting and homogenization among refugees and local residents increasing social cohesion and promoting new dynamic inputs from the newcomers. The local coffee shop, as seen in international literature, is considered to add on a different -crucially smaller- human scale in neighbourhood planning.

- The bazaar: The bazaar or the main local street with the various grocery stores is another place of a great significance at the neighborhood scale. It is considered that the large concentration of citizens in such places assists on the melioration of social differences and as a result new communication codes arise. Bazaars are spaces where individual and group characteristics and behaviors are revealing and of course places where the unions develop and flourish. The numerous functions of the bazaar, apart from the economic activities, refer to a wider system of social and political union that shape evolving relationships.

The evolution of the above key elements in Greek neighborhood was obviously more apparent after transitional historic periods, such as in the eras after the wars, the “coup d' etat” and the civil war. Housing and public spaces were the first that were transformed, followed by alterations in the courtyard, the square and the street. These mutations were related to changes between the built and the unbuilt space, the height of the buildings, the street width as well as the developed land uses. Housing layouts, building codes, meeting points, personal commuting routes and street fronts underwent radical changes due to urbanization, social and political upheavals and the rising of consumerism. However, in Athens there still are old, traditional, refugee and, even, arbitrary neighborhoods. In some of them, the historic form was reshaped to accommodate this whole new culture and new set of values, but there are neighborhoods that remain intact. The conservation of some entities inside heterogeneous districts or municipalities is not only due to the preservation of structural and morphological attributes, but relates to the various intertemporal relationships and the common difficulties faced by their residents. It is true though that when these relationships loosen, traditional profiles are reshaped into new types of neighborhoods.

Figure 3: The Courtyard, the Traditional Coffee shop and the Bazaar are crucial attributes from the Athens' past profile



Source: <http://goo.gl/H7BhPB> (accessed 20th May 2015), <http://goo.gl/NixfyK> (accessed 20th May 2015), <http://akrokerama.blogspot.gr/2012/05/96.html> (accessed 20th May 2015), <https://goo.gl/4nRfgH>, <http://goo.gl/Vi3tnK> (accessed 20th May 2015) and Own Elaboration.

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Figure 4: Local groups try to find solutions to matter related to their well being. Volunteers renovate their neighborhood with small scale interventions, in the centre of Athens.



Source: <http://www.tovima.gr/society/article/?aid=562566> (accessed 21st May 2015).

Plaka, in the historic centre of Athens, is a characteristic example that is preserved according to its old profile for 100 years, after several mutations. Being a concise and human scale neighborhood before the war, it has been transformed into a purely recreational zone for several years and recently is turning back to its old character. However, as it is underlined in the next unit, this does not happen with all neighborhoods and, unfortunately, there are no specific strategies that should be implanted.

WHAT IS HAPPENING TODAY IN ATHENS?

In the daily practice, it is observed that the gradual disappearance of the courtyard, the conversion of private open spaces into parking lots, the disappearance of open spaces due to private arbitrary occupation, the increased needs for new buildings, the transformation of traditional cafes into modern cafeterias derives from various factors, many of them institutional. These transformations are really common to many neighborhoods in Athens. The upcoming homogeneity that rises in accordance to the extensive building of multi-family houses (block of flats) among others shows the real absence of social planning.

According to a research conducted by the National Centre for Social Research (NCS, 2002), the social hub has been removed from public spaces. Social relationships are generated in the local shopping streets or in the worst case scenario, at the ground floor and corridors of multi-family housing. Due to that, social interaction has been reduced and relations developed on the basis of relations the affinity, profession, place of origin, in the context of the family.

Figure 5: Old cafes have been transformed into modern café-bars. However, traditional elements still remain as their form is usually related to the “Kafeneio” and the “courtyard”



Source: <http://goo.gl/rWYChH>, <http://goo.gl/4nh7cw> and <http://goo.gl/VwvTVg> (accessed 21st May 2015).

These factors played an important role in order for the neighborhood to be transformed and not to be perceived as a unit by its residents. However, important facts were observed. These typical issues appeared in the level of housing unit, the neighborhood as well as in the municipal unit are:

- (a) An increase of local resident movements at the local planning unit regarding daily issues of the community. It was observed that group of people with the same geographical background, who share the same interests or recognize the same issues about their well-being in a community try to find solutions to matters related to traffic planning, green spaces agglomeration and design as well as infrastructure networks.
- (b) An analogous increase in unions, association and social groups in the district level concerned with political, environmental and social issues. In most cases this fact is related to political interference. However, even then, this increase reflects to a particular interest in the development of new relations.
- (c) Similar aggregations are observed concerning commons in terms of age groups, profession and other in the level of prefecture or municipality.
- (d) Regeneration of traditional elements such as the reclaim of the old cafes through new forms of community gatherings. 'Kafeneio' has been transformed into the modern café-bar, becoming now a more communal place for events, discussions and other interactions diverging from the typical consumerism framework.
- (e) Small scale architecture interventions are organized in neighborhoods spaces in order to appropriate existing 'dead' spaces that modern cities have refused to their residents.

All these observations raise questions about the existence of neighborhood. However, regardless to the answer, it is a fact that these five issues prove that small urban units are necessary for Athenian's everyday life. If these issues combined with other international researches, it should be found that many efforts for the detection of small urban units had taken place.

However, it should be noted that this paper did not examine the neighborhood as an economic unit but as a social unit. That is the reason why the economical articulation of the neighborhood with the rest of the urban area and theories of neighborhoods viability are not listed above. This aspect consists of a serious matter that plays specific role in order for planners to determine the form and the type of investment on neighborhoods. Finally, an extended research in this field could define if neighborhoods can function as organized economical units.

CONCLUSIONS

To summarize, Athens, in most of its area, was developed without the use of a proper design since its citizens located in different parts of the city. Therefore, they created small units which were developed in today's neighborhoods. However, during the last decades, there have been social mutations which either transformed or changed completely the image and the character of these areas. Furthermore, these changes tend to homogenize the urban landscape and as a result the boundaries of the neighborhoods become more blurry. Despite the changes, some neighborhoods remain untouched and preserve the original formal characteristics of the first neighborhoods. An important attribute is that even in the preserved neighborhoods there are points that weakened through time because new social values took place.

All these types of neighborhoods describe an important municipal centre such as the city of Athens but they can also be found to most of the cities, worldwide. All these notions are enhanced mostly by the social parameter and there is no analysis based on economic aspects. Therefore, the human parameter was taken seriously into consideration which is the one that forms the life of a neighborhood. The types of neighborhoods described in this paper continue even to this day to support, highlight and even enhance the ideas of different modern groups. From the above, it can be stated that neighborhoods consists of a social unit which should be considered in planning practice. The existence of "a workable unit of human scale [...] which weaves the urban pattern into a workable whole" (Meenakshi, 2011) seems to be a necessity. Neighbourhoods, these small urban units should support the planning process and the organization of urban centres.

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THE EVOLUTION OF TALENT MANAGEMENT**Prof. (Dr) R. S. Rathee¹ and Jasmeet Singh²**Director (HR)¹, Amity Business School, Amity University, RajasthanResearch Scholar², Amity University, Rajasthan.

ABSTRACT

In the 1970s and 1980s the evolution of a Personnel department exclusively committed to everything from the screening to the development and processing payroll to the termination of human capital was established. Then the Human Resource Department evolved and includes activities like Human Resource Planning, Recruitment & Selection, Training & Development, Performance Appraisal, Compensation etc. Till then HRM (Human Resource Management) was a passive function and not involved in major strategic decisions of the organization and moreover the department was considered burden on the organization or we can say cost Centre but gradually organizations understood the strategic importance of the resource called Humans. This resulted in existence of Strategic Human Resource Management and then Talent Management. This paper is all about the journey of Talent Management.

Keywords: Personnel, (HRM) Human Resource Management, Strategic HRM, Talent Management.

1. INTRODUCTION

As the global economy expanded the need to understand the importance of Human Resources is increasing day by day. Human Resource is now a source of sustained competitive advantage. This is now the only resource which can make a difference if there is effective management. Organizations are now continuously relying on research work and human resource literature to improve their HR processes and systems. Now “People First” is the mantra for success and therefore there is need to understand the concept of talent management.

2. THE JOURNEY OF TALENT MANAGEMENT**(a) The Personnel Department**

In the 1970s and 1980s the business function which was responsible for people (employees) was called “Personnel Department”. The role of this function was to Select people, Pay them and make sure they had the necessary benefits. The department was a Cost Centre and top management finds it as a burden on the organization. Their activities include arranging picnics, keeping employee record, recording their attendance and prepare their salaries as per their attendance. They were more of a clerical kind of people and no importance was given to people of this department. At that time strategic importance was given to production department, marketing and sales department, research and development department and were aligned with the business strategy.

Personnel department was not part of strategic meetings and more over considered as clerical cadre. Top management was not giving any importance to this department and fills it with incompetent and underperformers of the other departments.

This era was production oriented and more emphasis was given to production rather than people. Therefore there was no such department which can understand the feelings of people.

(b) The Human Resource Management

After the acceptance of Behavioral Management Theories of Maslow, Herzberg, Vroom and other supporters of Behavioral school of thought, Organizations gradually now understood the importance of human resource. They understood that those who are better in selecting, retaining and developing people will have competitive advantage. Now the people oriented theories came into existence and organizations started giving importance to people and understand their feelings. They understood that competent and committed workforce can make a difference to gain sustained competitive advantage. In India there are examples of organizations like Infosys, HCL, Wipro, Airtel which got the competitive advantage by understanding the importance of resource called Humans. Their human resource practices like Recruitment and selection, Training & Development, Performance Appraisal, Compensation, and Succession Planning are improving and better than their competitors.

(c) The Strategic Human Resource Management

Strategic Human Resources Management is aligning the HRM function with business strategy. Now HR is part of strategic top management meetings and aligned as per the decision. The organization may opt for any of the following business strategy or the combination of these strategies:

- (i) Growth
- (ii) Stability
- (iii) Retrenchment

The HR function is aligned as per any of these strategies to get the desired outcomes like profitability, higher market share etc.

- a) Human Resources Management is fully integrated with the strategy and strategic needs of the firm.
- b) HR policies cohere both across policy areas and across hierarchies.
- c) HR practices are adjusted, accepted and used by the line managers and employees as part of their everyday work.

(d) Talent Management(TM)

The “ war for talent “ was officially launched in 1998 when Mckinsey and Company published their famous report proclaiming that “ better talent is worth fighting for”. According to Mckinsey talent is: “The sum a person’s abilities ... his or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, Intelligence, judgment, attitude, character and drive. It also includes his or her ability to learn and grow. The survey showed a majority of companies with insufficient and sometimes chronic talent shortage.

The old reality i.e. people need companies was replaced by new reality i.e. companies need people.

The research carried for the CIPD(The chartered Institute of Personnel Department),2007, did lead to the definition of talent – “ Talent consists of those individuals who can make a difference to organizational performance, either through their immediate contribution or in the longer term by demonstrating the highest levels of potential.

This resulted in the existence of concept of Talent Management. Talent Management is all about identifying , developing and retaining talent with the help of innovative and continuously improving HRM activities like recruitment & selection, training & development, performance appraisal , compensation, succession planning etc. and aligning the HRM activities with business strategy for desired organizational outcome i.e. profitability and growth.

Talent Management is the systematic attraction, identification, development, engagement, retention and deployment of those individuals with high potential and who are of particular value to the organization.

(e) Integrated Talent Management and Talent Analytics

The challenge of integrating an effective and efficient Talent Management Systems – Hardware, Software and Human ware is challenging. Measuring Talent intelligence , Talent Mobility, talent Brand is a soft skill that many sophisticated organization attempt to measure quantitatively.

Talent Intelligence is a growing subset of Integrated TM , examining the pipeline of recruitment, compensation, learning, performance as a means of competitive advantage.

Talent Analytics:

- 1. Turnover Metrics tracked.
- 2. Recruiting Metrics tracked.
- 3. Percentage of development and succession planning Metrics.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN MARKETING INTELLIGENCE SYSTEM AND MARKETING INFORMATION SYSTEM IN INDIA

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ABSTRACT

The term 'Marketing Intelligence' refers to the information, relevant to the Company Markets, gathered and analyzed specifically for accurate and confident decision-making in determining strategies in different marketing areas like Market Opportunity, Market Penetration Strategy, Market Development, etc. Marketing Information System is a combination of both Human and Computer based resources that results in Collection, Storage, Retrieval, Communication and Use of Data for the purpose of Efficient Management of Operations and Business Planning.

*The four cornerstones of Market Intelligence Systems are **Competitor Intelligence, Product Intelligence, Market Understanding and Customer Understanding**. There are four major Components or Divisions of Marketing Information System, viz., **Internal Marketing Information, Marketing Intelligence, Marketing Research and Operations Research**.*

*The two systems, namely, Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System help a Company, quite interactively, to build its image in the contemplation of the Internal Customers of the Company (Employees) and other Stakeholders like Customers, Share Holders, Auditors, Financial Institutions, Government Authorities, Public at large, etc. Consequently, that helps a Company to excel in the business market, over a period. Furthermore, the difference between these two systems can be studied on the basis of the following three main factors, namely, **Nature and Operation of the System, Facilitation and Evaluation Criteria**.*

This Paper not only deals with the core concepts of Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System but a Comparative Study is also put forth in this paper between Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System.

Key Words – Competitor Intelligence, Customer Understanding, Marketing Research and Operations Research.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing Intelligence System is the most frequently utilized system by the Corporate, out of some other Marketing Systems, like Marketing Information System, Marketing Decision Support System, etc., The term 'Marketing Intelligence' refers to the information, relevant to the Company Markets, gathered and analyzed specifically for accurate and confident decision-making in determining strategies in different marketing areas like Market Opportunity, Market Penetration Strategy, Market Development, etc.

Marketing Intelligence is a Corporate function in which the Corporate utilize information, collected through Marketing Intelligence, favorably in such a manner that their businesses are benefited. Moreover, sometimes this information provides the best cues to develop better market insights to support strategic decision-making. The insight, thus developed, guides the Companies to develop emerging strategies in the spheres of Technology Analysis, Competitor Analysis or Strategic Analysis, etc.

To manage a Business well is to manage its future and to manage its future is to manage Information. Information constitutes a critical resource in the Marketing System. Marketing Information is the lifeblood of Marketing. Marketing Information System is a System which converts Data into Information and Communicates that Information in appropriate form to the Managers, at all levels and in all functions in order to enable them to make timely and effective Decisions for Planning, Directing and controlling the activities for which they are actually responsible. Marketing Information System is a combination of both Human and Computer based resources that results in Collection, Storage, Retrieval, Communication and Use of Data for the purpose of Efficient Management of Operations and Business Planning.

RATIONALE OF THE PAPER

The Market Information is really not readily available, but, it is needed to be inferred, quite intelligently, with the help of a number of sources which are eventually readily available. Furthermore, mere inference of such information, in itself, is not enough, yet, it is needed to be interpreted, quite tactfully. Thereafter, this information is needed to be utilized at an appropriate moment at a market place, that too, in the best interest of one's own company whereby, the leading competitors would certainly not be in a position to dominate the market.

This Paper not only deals with the core concepts of Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System but a Comparative Study is also put forth in this paper between Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System. This study would help to simplify as to how to gather Intelligent Marketing Information and apply in practice, at an appropriate hour.

The two systems, namely, Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System help a Company, quite interactively, to build its image in the contemplation of its Internal Customers (Employees) and External Customers. (Stakeholders). Consequently, this helps a Company to excel in the business market, over a period. **Thus, it is essential to undertake a comparative Study between Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System.**

OBJECTIVES

1. To develop Conceptual Understanding of Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System in India
2. To Study Comparatively Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System in India

SCOPE

The scope of this Paper extends to the development of Conceptual Understanding of Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System. It also extends to a Comparative Study of Marketing Intelligence System with Marketing Information System in India.

METHODOLOGY

1. The review of literature was done through several books and significant websites (Secondary Data) in order to:
 - (a) Develop the Conceptual Understanding of Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System in India and
 - (b) Ascertain different points of distinction between Marketing Intelligence and Marketing Information system in India
2. The paper is based on Secondary Data.

SOURCES OF SECONDARY DATA

The Sources of Secondary Data include Books and Websites, related to Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System.

CORE CONCEPT OF MARKETING INTELLIGENCE SYSTEM

The concept of Marketing Intelligence is borrowed from the Military Science for its application in the field of Marketing. In Military, the Marketing Intelligence Department gathers detail information about the enemies, especially their strategies for future attack and other lines of future action, etc. In the field of Marketing, the Competitors, particularly the leading Competitors are regarded as enemies and Market Place is regarded as War-front. Thus, any piece of information related to the leading Competitors, mostly information about their future Marketing Strategies and allied lines of future actions is interpreted as an Intelligent Information.

Marketing Intelligence System is concerned with the provision of a broad view of a specific market to the Company after utility of existing Information Sources. This Information guides a Company about Marketing Issues, Product Potential and as to what is happening at a market place at a particular time.

Marketing Intelligence System helps a company in identifying variables through gathering and analyzing data, development of a better insight about the level and the extent of the competition, thorough market study, understanding customers, making decisions about strategies related to Market Segmentation, Target Market positioning, Product Life Cycle and Marketing Mix, etc.

The four cornerstones of Market Intelligence Systems are Competitor Intelligence, Product Intelligence, Market Understanding and Customer Understanding. Each of these areas can be a discipline in and of itself. However, their true power comes from the integration of all four of these disciplines.

The representative questions that Market Intelligence can address after knowing the activities of competitors are as follows. :

- (a) Where should the Company deploy more Resources?
- (b) Which Markets should the Company try to infiltrate next?
- (c) Are there Patterns to what the best Customers buy?

- (d) Which Products could be Cross-Marketed to existing Customers?
- (e) Into which Demographic Segments should the Company push new and existing Products? Etc.

Practical Connectivity of Marketing Intelligence System with Marketing Information System

After the utility of either one or all the sources of Marketing Intelligence, either simultaneously or alternatively, undoubtedly, in depth and detail Market Information which is technically termed as Intelligent Information is gathered. This information can then suitably and conveniently be used in Marketing Information System of the Company. Such information can thereafter be disseminated throughout the organization with the objective to have a holistic Marketing Culture. Moreover, the two systems, namely, Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System help a Company, quite interactively, to build its image in the contemplation of the Internal Customers of the Company (Employees) and other Stakeholders like Customers, Share Holders, Auditors, Financial Institutions, Government Authorities, Public at large, etc. Consequently, that helps a Company to excel in the business market, over a period.

MARKETING INFORMATION SYSTEM

Definitions

Before proceeding with the definitions of the word 'Marketing Information System', proper, it is worthwhile to note that *in a book titled 'M. I. S. Management Decisions' authored by Raymond J. Colman and M. J. Riley, in all, there are sixteen definitions of the word 'Marketing Information System.'* In fact, although it is significant, it is irrelevant to put forward all these definitions, over here, for want of space. However, a few definitions can certainly be mentioned in order to bring in more clarity about the said concept.

Marketing Information System is defined by **K. Cox and R. Good**, as *a set of Procedures and Methods for the Regular and Planned Collection, Analysis and Presentation of Information in making Marketing Decisions.*

William Stanton has defined the word Marketing Information System as *an Ongoing and Organized set of Procedures and Methods which are deigned to Generate, Analyze, Disseminate, Store and Retrieve Information for use in making Marketing Decisions.*

In the words of **T. Lucey**, *Marketing Information System is a set of Human and Capital Resources within an Organization which is responsible for collection and processing of data to produce information which is useful to all the levels of Management in planning and controlling the activities of the Organization.*

CORE CONCEPT OF MARKETING INFORMATION SYSTEM

Fundamentally, Marketing Information System is an Interacting, Continuing, Future-Oriented and Well-Organized Structure. This Structure consists of Persons, Machines and Procedures. These all are neatly designed to generate an orderly flow of information. This information is collected from Internal and External Sources for uses as the bases for Managerial Decision Making in any area of Company's Marketing Management. If the Information gathered is correct, indeed, it becomes relatively very easy for a Manager to arrive at a Decision. This is certainly truer particularly, in respect of crucial or critical decisions than ordinary or routine decisions. Furthermore, the collection of Information takes place at all levels of Management, whether, Top, Middle or low. However, the Peculiar Nature, Practical Scope and Strategic Significance of Information actually changes, depending upon the level of the Management. The level of Risk involved, Importance and Responsibility is highest at the Top and it lowers down in the Organizational hierarchy.

Marketing Information System presupposes continuous collection of Data. Data consists of Market Facts and allied relevant and significant Figures. It is collected from both the Internal and External sources of Information. The Data, thus collected, is Sorted out, Classified, Analyzed and subsequently stored for future reference. The Stored Information is recalled and molded, as per the needs, demands or the dictates of the situation for correct Decision –Making at appropriate time. In this sense, Marketing Information System can be regarded as a non-interrupted systematic Collection, Processing and Storing potentially useful Information and presenting it in the most practical, suitable and usable form required for Decision –Making process.

There are four major Components or Divisions of Marketing Information System, viz., *Internal Marketing Information, Marketing Intelligence, Marketing Research and Operations Research.* The value of the Information can really be judged on the basis of six different parameters, as *Accessibility, Comprehensiveness, Accuracy, Timeliness, Authenticity, and Free from Bias.*

While designing Marketing Information System, in general, the replies to the three questions are sought for from the following:

- (a) What is the Source of Information?

- (b) Who would handle the Information (whether an individual or the Machine?)
- (c) Alternatively, Would the Information be handled electronically?

There is no hard and fast rule or any general format, as such for several steps to be followed while designing the Marketing Information System. However, the steps which are invariably followed are as follows.

- (a) Define the specific System, proper.
- (b) Identification of Source and the Frequency of Information
- (c) Finalization of Formats of Marketing Information System
 - (i) Research Assessment
 - (ii) Marketing Activity Evaluation Sheet
- (d) Implementation of the System.
- (e) (e) Corrective action based on results

Difference between Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System

On the basis of the Review of pertinent Literature and learning the two concepts namely Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System, the following three main points of distinction have been observed.

1. Nature and Operation of the System

Marketing Intelligence System is a Semi-structured System which generally operates within the External Environment of the Organization.

Marketing Information System is a Structured System which is applied preferably within the Internal Environment of the Organization.

2. Facilitation

Marketing Intelligence System facilitates Strategic Planning and Top Management Decision Making. This is done by collection of Futuristic vital Information related to the elements of External Environment like Competitors, Future Market Trends, Government Policies to mention a few. ,

Marketing Information System facilitates Organizational Decision Making. It is done by generating several reports and after analysis of past and present Marketing trends.

3. Evaluation Criteria

The Evaluation Criteria of Marketing Intelligence System include Value of the Information and its Dependability.

The Evaluation Criteria of Marketing Information System include Cost Benefit Analysis and Timeliness of Information.

LIMITATIONS

1. As the study for this paper is purely based on Secondary Data, all the limitations of Secondary Data have direct and deep impact on the various views formed and the differences arrived at by the Researcher in this paper related to Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System in India. .
2. The study for this Paper is purely of academic orientation solely based on secondary data. Therefore, some level of adaptation may be required in practical decision making situations regarding Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System in India.
3. The points of difference, between Marketing Intelligence System and Marketing Information System, considered for Academic Discussion in this paper are not, at all, exhaustive, but they are strictly representative and highly suggestive or indicative in their practical nature.

SCOPE FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. A Comparative Study of Marketing Information System with Marketing Research in India
2. A Study of Techniques of Marketing Intelligence in India
3. A Study of Measures to Improve the Quality of Marketing Intelligence in India
4. A Comparative Study of Marketing Intelligence and Competitive Intelligence in India.

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A CONCEPTUAL PAPER ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND BEHAVIOUR OF THE EMPLOYEES

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ABSTRACT

In today's fast changing business environment the employees become prone to occupational stress which results in instable state of mind, lifestyle diseases and poor work life balance. Emotional Intelligence of an individual is known to play a key role in the organizational behaviour of an employee and the way he creates a personal & professional balance. Various researches have proved that a significant amount of relationship exists between Emotional Intelligence and the behaviour of an employee. This study has made use of the secondary data from the studies published in journals. From these studies, articles published in magazines and newspaper the researcher has come to the conclusion that people with high emotional intelligence exhibit positive behaviour towards their job and their organization viz., Organization Citizenship Behaviour, job satisfaction, productivity levels, motivation, leadership, decision making, ethical behaviour, etc.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, work life balance, health & mental well being

INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior. However, substantial disagreement exists regarding the definition of EI, with respect to both terminology and operationalizations. Currently, there are three main models of EI:

1. Ability model
2. Mixed model (usually subsumed under trait EI)
3. Trait model

Psychologists and social scientists began discussing something they called "social intelligence" as far back as the 1920s. In the decades since, the idea has been called "emotional factors" and "personal intelligence" among other things.

In 1980, psychologist Reuven Bar-On, who had been studying the idea, coined the phrase "emotional quotient." Finally, in 1990, John Mayer of the University of New Hampshire and Peter Salovey of Yale coined the phrase "emotional intelligence" and defined it. It was Daniel Goleman's bestselling book Emotional Intelligence that popularized the idea. Two years later, Toronto-based MHS published the EQ-i, which was developed by Dr. Bar-On. It's the only scientifically based and validated measurement of emotional intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey define emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action." Bar-On defines it as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures." In developing the EQ-i, Bar-On captured emotional intelligence in five areas, with 15 subsections or scales:

INTRAPERSONAL

Emotional self-awareness: The ability to recognize and understand one's feelings and emotions, differentiate between them, and to know what caused them and why.

Assertiveness: The ability to express feelings, beliefs and thoughts and defend one's rights in a non-destructive way.

Self-regard: The ability to look at and understand oneself, respect and accept oneself, accepting one's perceived positive and negative aspects as well as one's limitations and possibilities.

Self-actualization: The ability to realize one's potential capacities and to strive to do that which one wants to do and enjoys doing.

Independence: The ability to be self-reliant and self-directed in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency; these people may ask for and consider the advice of others, but they rarely depend on others to make important decisions or to do things for them.

INTER-PERSONAL

Interpersonal relations: The ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection.

Empathy: The ability to be attentive to, to understand, and to appreciate the feelings of others; being able to "emotionally read" other people.

Social responsibility: The ability to demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing, and constructive member of one's social group.

Adaptability

Problem solving: The ability to identify and define problems, as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions.

Reality testing: The ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced (the subjective) and what in reality exists (the objective).

Flexibility: The ability to adjust one's emotions, thoughts, and behavior to changing situations and conditions.

Stress Management

Stress tolerance: The ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart by actively and confidently coping with stress.

Impulse control: The ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive, or temptation to act.

General Mood

Happiness: The ability to feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself and others, and to have fun.

Optimism: The ability to look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity.

LITERATURE REVIEW*Emotional Intelligence*

Two psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer first introduced Emotional Intelligence in 1990. They developed the ability model of Emotional Intelligence. They defined Emotional Intelligence as "the ability to perceive, appraise and express emotions accurately and adaptively; the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge; the ability to access and generate feeling where they facilitate cognitive activities and adaptive actions; and the ability to regulate emotions in oneself and others" (Mayer et al., 2004). In 1995, Daniel Goleman opened the eyes of the world about the concept of Emotional Intelligence. He defined Emotional Intelligence under the trait perspectives or mixed model as "one's ability to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration; to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope. In 1997, Goleman redefined Emotional Intelligence as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others for motivating ourselves and for successfully managing emotions in ourselves and in our relationship with others" (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000). Goleman's model of Emotional Intelligence introduced in 1998 outlined five main Emotional Intelligence construct and twenty-five competencies. Goleman and Boyatzis (2000) introduced four dimensions of Emotional Intelligence with twenty competencies as mentioned in table 01 instead of five dimensions of Emotional Intelligence with twenty-five competencies.

Table 1 -Dimensions and Indicators of Emotional Intelligence

Dimensions	Indicators
Self-Awareness	Emotional self-awareness, Accurate self-management, Self confidence
Self-Management	Self-control, Trustworthiness, Conscientiousness, Adaptability, Achievement drive, Initiative
Social Awareness	Empathy, Service orientation, Organizational awareness
Relationship Management	Developing others, Influence, Communication, Conflict management, Leadership, Change Catalyst, Building bonds, Teamwork and collaboration

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) and Kahn and his colleagues (1964) conceptualized work family conflict as a uni-dimensional construct. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) have given first definition for the work family conflict and conceptualized as "the interrole conflict people experienced between their work roles and other life roles." (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) Later they suggested that "work-family conflict occurs when

demands from one role affects one's ability to meet the demands associated with another role in another domain". Anyway despite the early definition, they suggested that work affected family and family affected work. This implies the bidirectional relationship which the definition has (Allen, Hesrt, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992).

Other researchers considered work family conflict as two different but related forms of inter-role conflict. It focuses the interference of the work to family and family to work (Frone et al., 1992; Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996). Based on these arguments, Netmeyer et al., (1996) have provided two separate definitions for work family conflict and family work conflict. They defined work family conflict as "a form of inter-role conflict occurring as a result of general demands and strain created by the job interfering with one's ability to perform family related responsibilities" (Netemeyer et al., 1996). On the other hand, they defined family-work conflict "as role conflict resulting from general demands and strain created by the family interfering with an employee's ability to perform responsibilities related to work" (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Combining these two types of conflict together, it can be constructed overall work family conflict. Frone et al., (1992) found that two separate construct are part of main work family construct because there was a strong relationship between work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Other researchers have supported this idea (Casper, Martin, Buffardi & Edwinds, 2002; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1993; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992). Based on these findings, it can be concluded that work family conflict is a bi directional construct (Frone 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

Cohen et al. (1995) compared the ethical reasoning of Canadian accounting students and practitioners. The results indicated that accounting professionals viewed many scenarios as less ethical compared to accounting students. The authors argued that instructors should intensify their efforts to sensitize students to the ethical issues likely to face them when they graduate. Leitsch (2004) examined the ethical reasoning of accounting students and concluded that it depended on the moral intensity of the issues as well as the student's ethical development stage.

Aranya et al. (1981) suggested that higher professional commitment should be reflected in greater sensitivity to issues involving professional ethics. Empirical studies regarding this assertion have yielded mixed results. Aranya et al. (1982) and Lachman and Aranya (1986) surveyed accountants and found a positive relationship between ethical behavior and professional commitment. Jeffrey et al. (1996) surveyed professional accountants in Taiwan and reached a similar conclusion. Taiwanese accountants exhibited ethical development consistent with the post conventional level. However, many other studies did not find a significant relationship between professional commitment and ethical sensitivity.

Traditionally, thought and emotions are considered relatively separate. However, 1970 onwards studies began to explore the inter-relationship between thought and emotions. The cognitive intelligence as measured by does not fully explain intelligence in its entirety and that there is potential for several types of intelligences to co-exist within one person. Even (Wechsler, 1940) suggested that Intelligence includes both non-interactive and interactive elements. Theories such as Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, Sternberg's tri-archic theory of intelligence and even the different versions of emotional intelligence theory were all developed to emphasize that general intelligence may not be the primary component in explaining individual differences in cognitive ability.

Thorndike's (1920) suggested three facets of intelligence: abstract, mechanical and social. Gardner developed a theory of multiple intelligences that consisted of six different and independent intelligences (Brody, 2006).

Hoffman (1984) suggested that there are two components of emotional intelligence, the cognitive component that permits accurate perceptions of others' emotions and emotion-focused behaviors and the empathy component that facilitates empathetic understanding of the origins or antecedents of these emotions and thus mitigates negative attributions about others.

High emotionally intelligent individuals are more adept at reasoning through the (emotional) antecedents of their own and others' behavior and using this information to guide thinking and action (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Individuals high on emotional intelligence will be able to manage their emotions and react less aggressively to the behaviors of others.

Researchers have suggested that ethics of an individual are bearing upon perceptions of others' ethics (Terpstra et al., 1993), it further suggests that individual with high emotional intelligence depicts the other's ethical behavior as compared to low EI counterparts.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study are:

1. To analyze the behaviour of employees in an organization.
2. To analyze the impact of Emotional Intelligence on the behaviour exhibited by employees in the organizations.
3. To suggest measures that can be used by organizations for developing the Emotional Intelligence level of employees in their organizations

RESEARCH METHODS

The study is a conceptual one in which the researcher has tried to establish a relationship between Emotional Intelligence and the organizational behaviour of employees. Secondary data has been used for the study. The researcher has explored the studies done in the past which establish a relationship between EI & OB.

DISCUSSION

The business environment today is quite volatile therefore, attracting & retaining extraordinary talent is a big challenge for the organizations. The need of the hour is employees who are willing to perform their formal role but also do something extra which is beyond the call of duty. To exhibit this kind of behaviour an employee should be self-motivated, satisfied with his job, should exhibit good leadership qualities, a good decision maker, productive, ethically oriented, etc. From the study it has been established that there is a negative relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Organization Behaviour. That means if an employee is emotionally less stable there is going to be a significant negative impact on his productivity, mental well-being, health motivation levels, job performance, attitude, leadership, decision making and organization citizenship behaviour.

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A STUDY ON FINANCIAL VIABILITY AND PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF ABIS IN RAJNANDGAON (C.G)

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ABSTRACT

IB Group is a conglomerate comprising of a host of an integrated businesses, the IB Group has been active for over twenty five years. Having ventured into the poultry industry way back in 1985, the group now has a foothold in sectors as diverse as farming, Food processing, retail, organic fertilizer, finance and education.

ABIS Exports (India) Pvt. Ltd. is a private company incorporated on 10th Aug, 1998. It is classified as an India Non-Government Company and is registered at registrar of companies, Chhattisgarh. It is one of subsidiaries of IB Group. It basically deals with two segments- Edible Oil like ABIS Brand of Soya bean, Rice Bran, Sunflower and other refined oils and Animal feed like Aqua feed, Poultry and cattle feed, Soya DOC, Pet feed, Shrimp feed and Horse feed in Asian and African Countries

The company's phenomenal growth is attributed to its foresight in terms of its true vertical integration and diversification of its businesses. Commitment to quality, environment-friendly processes and a genuine concern for the needs of employees and customers have remained integral to the company's work ethic. The IB Group has withstood the test of time as well as challenging market situations to emerge as a dominant entity to reckon with.

Today, even as the company is posed to take on the newer demands of the rapidly evolving consumer and economy, it's unstoppable energy and quest for excellence is palpable.

INTRODUCTION

Indian Agro and food Industries Ltd.: This unit operates under the poultry segment of IB Group. The poultry segment of the group is run by four companies of group. However in the year 2012 there has been made some organizational changes in this segment viz., the business of Abis Broiler Pvt. Ltd., Aziz Poultry Pvt. Ltd. And Abis Poultry Pvt. Ltd. has been discontinued from 01/04/2012, 01/10/2012 and 01/10/2012 respectively and operating Assets has been leased to Indian Agro and Food Industries Ltd. to do the poultry business of the group.

Abis Hatchery Pvt. Ltd.: This unit operates under the Dairy segment of the group. An advanced laboratory ensures quality of feed, water and fodder and hence superior quality of milk output is obtained. The unit market packaged milk in the brand name of Abis through its distribution channel.

Halifax Merchandise Pvt. Ltd. and Fountainhead Mercantile Pvt. Ltd. : These units operate in NBFC (Non Banking Financial Corporation) segment of IB Group to meet the financial requirement and provide financial assistance to all IB Group Companies.

OBJECTIVE STATEMENT

The research work will fulfill the following objectives-

- To study and examine the financial performance and efficiency of ABIS Group in Chhattisgarh with special reference to Rajnandgaon
- To understand the liquidity, profitability and efficiency of company during study period.
- To study financial viability and measure working operations of ABIS Group.
- To suggest appropriate suggestions for the better performance of the organization

The whole analysis will be shaped directly to fit the logical need of our objective. I will mainly reckon as to the number, their percentage and average variation of the concerned variable in order to reach conclusive results. Appropriate indicators will be used for the analysis and for drawing inferences

PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

The present study is essentially based on secondary data, Reports, publication books, magazines and newspaper will constitute important sources of data and information's. However the use of primary data collection techniques is not ruled out. Some of the gaps observed in the secondary information will be filled in through establishing personal contact with the managers, executives, employees of the ABIS GROUP.

If need arises the secondary data will be supplemented by the primary data gathered through mailing distinct structure questionnaires, secondary literature especially related to a critical examination of past and existing position of ABIS GROUP.

The scope of research will be explained by asking following questions:

Why: - To determine Efficiency and financial soundness of ABIS Group.

What: - To carry out financial and Administrative appraisal of ABIS GROUP through various financial indicators

Where: - In Chhattisgarh, Rajnandgaon District

Who's:- ABIS GROUP

Fundamental to the success of any research report is a sound research design. It is a conceptual framework within which study will be conducted. For my purpose, exploratory research design will be used to investigate and describe the characteristics of a particular item.

HYPOTHESIS

- The hypothesis is going to be framed on the basis of availability of data.
- Company can **review existing service providers for cash management** and other service providers, making initial presentation and discussions with bank and providers.
- Company can **reduce its inventory** to maximum extend. So that there should be less blockage in funds in inventory.
- Company can **invest idle funds** wisely may help to generate income from working capital, while maintaining liquidity.
- Company can use **Control Charts**. With the help of chart company will be able to invest its excess amount of funds in short term securities and can reduce bank charges charged by the bank of overdraft purpose.
- In order to **reduce average collection period**, company can liberalize its cash discount policy, which initiate the customers to make early payment and help in better flow of funds

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

- The quality of the research work depends on the methodology adopted for the study. Methodology, in turn, depends on the nature of the research work. The use of proper methodology is an essential part of any research. In order to conduct the study scientifically, suitable methods & measures are to be followed. Accordingly with convenience basically computer aided like; Excel, Ms-word, SPSS, etc.
- According to convenience and need the statistical techniques will be used are correlation analysis, regression analysis, ratio analysis, trend analysis, factor analysis, average and percentage etc.

NOTEWORTHY CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

It is expected the study of this topic would contribute in clarifying the all concepts relating financial performance of ABIS Group. After study of the topic in-depth the fundamental concepts are very clear. The beneficiary from the study of this topic would be first of all self-researcher, academicians, practicing managers, prospects researchers and the Dairy farms. If these parties refer this research study in future may take advantage of the finding and suggestions. Academician, practicing managers and research students may take benefits for academic purpose and on the jobs. The organization if feel may implement the suggestions for improvement of efficiency and decreases of dairy products. It can be said the benefits would be multidimensional for above mentioned parties.

EXPECTED OUTCOME OF THE STUDY

This research will help to know efficiency of ABIS Group. It helps to know performance and also it helps to analyze judging the efficiency of ABIS Group.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The present study is limited to the financial performance and viability of ABIS Group in Rajnandgaon of Chhattisgarh State. It can be summarized that this study scope will include the areas of dairy product of three yrs. For study purpose Rajnandgaon District of Chhattisgarh region has been selected with the assumption that similar practices are used in banking throughout India.

- The universe of the study is limited to Chhattisgarh State.
- The study is limited to data collected from official records and annual reports of ABIS Group in Rajnandgaon District.

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- Interview and Discussions with management authorities of ABIS Group will be incorporated.

CONCLUSION

- By interpreting and analyzing all the data provided by company, it can be concluded that the company's overall status is at sound position.
- The company's performance outlook appears to be positive and optimistic.
- The company may remains confident in delivering a strong operating and financial performance.
- Company is on growth and there is further scope of future growth.

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DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RIGHTS: NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE**Zafreena Begum**

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*“Human dignity is the quintessence of human rights”**~Justice J.S.Verma, Former Chief Justice of India*

ABSTRACT

Human rights are conferred on an individual due to the very nature of his existence. They are inherent in all individuals irrespective of their caste, creed, religion, sex and nationality. In the absence of human rights, the moral, physical, social and spiritual welfare and upliftment of an individual is not possible. The twentieth century witnessed the crystallization of the philosophy of Human Rights when the United Nations adopted the UN Charter, 1945, The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948 and the International Covenants on Human Rights with further emphasis to protection of rights of Women, Abolition of Slavery, Racial Discrimination, Civil and Political Rights, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and most importantly the Rights of children.

INTRODUCTION

Human rights are the basic and inherent rights of all human beings. These are also referred to as fundamental rights, basic rights, inherent rights, natural rights and also birth rights. Human rights in India is a complicated issue, due to the country's large size, its tremendous diversity, its status as a developing country and a sovereign, secular, democratic republic. The Constitution of India provides various human rights to its citizens as well as non citizens in the form of fundamental rights and other rights. Human rights are irrevocable. They cannot be taken away by any power or authority because these rights originate with the social nature of man in the society of human beings and they belong to a person simply because he is a human being. As such human rights have similarities to moral rights. Human rights are not a monopoly of any privileged class of people.

HUMAN RIGHTS: MEANING AND DEFINATION

Human beings are born equal in dignity and rights. These are moral claims which are inalienable and inherent in all individuals by virtue of their humanity alone, irrespective of caste, colour, creed, and place of birth, sex, cultural difference or any other consideration. These claims are articulated and formulated in what is today known as human rights.

Dr. Justice Durga Das Basu defines “Human rights are those minimal rights, which every individual must have against the State, or other public authority, by virtue of his being a ‘member of human family’ irrespective of any consideration. Durga Das Basu’s definition brings out the essence of human rights.

The **Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), 1948**, defines human rights as “rights derived from the inherent dignity of the human person.”

In its report on human rights in India during 2013, released in 2014, Human Rights Watch stated, "India took positive steps in strengthening laws protecting women and children, and, in several important cases, prosecuting state security forces for extrajudicial killings." The report also condemned the persistent impunity for abuse linked to insurgency in Maoist areas, Jammu and Kashmir, Manipur and Assam. The report also went on to state, "The fact that the government responded to public outrage confirms India’s claims of a vibrant civil society. An independent judiciary and free media also acted as checks on abusive practices. However, reluctance to hold public officials to account for abuses or dereliction of duty continued to foster a culture of corruption and impunity".

HISTORICAL EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RIGHTS: INTERNATIONAL SCENARIO

The evolutions of human rights can be traced back over centuries. The origin of human rights may be traced to the theory of Natural Rights derived from the concept of Natural Law, as propounded by ancient Greek Stoic Philosophers and further developed by Thomas Hobbes and John Locke. The American and French Revolution gave further impact to the development of human rights. The evolution and development of human rights in the international context can be traced to the Magna Carta and the English Bill of Rights followed by the French Declaration and the American Bill of Rights. The important **landmarks** in the development of human rights are as follows:

The Magna Carta, 1215.

The Magna Carta, also known as the Great Charter, of 1215 is the most significant constitutional document of all human history. The main theme of it was protection against the arbitrary acts by the king. The 63 clauses of

the Charter guaranteed basic civic and legal rights to citizens, and protected the barons from unjust taxes. The English Church too gained freedom from royal interferences. King John of England granted the Magna Carta to the English barons on 15th June 1215. The king was compelled to grant the Charter, because the barons refused to pay heavy taxes unless the king signed the Charter.

The English Bill of Rights, 1689.

The next source and avenue of the development of the philosophy of human rights is the English Bill of Rights, enacted on December 16, 1689, by the British Parliament. The British Parliament declared its supremacy over the Crown in clear terms. The English Bill of Rights declared that the king has no overriding authority. The Bill of Rights codified the customary laws, and clarified the rights and liberties of the citizens. It lays down the twin foundations, viz., the supremacy of the law, and the sovereignty of the nation, upon which, the English constitution rests.

American Declaration of Independence, 1776.

The first colonies to revolt against England were the thirteen States of America. These states declared their independence from their mother country on 4th July 1776. The declaration charges the king with tyranny and affirms the independence of the American colonies. The declaration of independence has great significance in the history of mankind as it justified the right to revolt against a government that no longer guaranteed the man's natural and inalienable rights.

The U.S. Bill of Rights, 1791.

The U.S. Constitution was enacted on 17th September 1787. The most conspicuous defect of the original constitution was the omission of a Bill of Rights concerning private rights and personal liberties. Madison, therefore proposed as many as twelve amendments in the form of Bill of Rights. Ten of these were ratified by the State legislatures. These ten constitutional amendments came to be known as the Bill of Rights. The overall theme of the Bill of Rights is that the citizen be protected against the abuse of power by the officials of the States.

The UN Charter, 1945.

The United Nations Charter was drafted, approved and unanimously adopted by all the delegates of the 51 states, who attended the United Nations Conference at San Francisco. The UN Charter contains provisions for the promotion and protection of human rights. The importance of the Charter lies in the fact that it is the first official document in which the use of 'human rights' is, for the first time traceable and which also recognized the respect for fundamental freedom.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 10th December, 1948. The Declaration consists of thirty Articles and covers civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights for all men, women and children. The declaration however is not a legally binding document. It is an ideal for all mankind.

International Covenants on Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948 was not a legally binding document. It lacked enforcements. This deficiency was sought to be removed by the U.N. General Assembly by adopting in December, 1966, the two Covenants, viz,

1. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and

2. International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

The two International Covenants, together with the Universal Declaration and the Optional Protocols, comprise the International Bill of Human Rights. The International Bill of Human Rights represents a milestone in the history of human rights. It is a modern Magna Carta of human rights.

DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RIGHTS: INDIAN PERSPECTIVE

In the year 1947, India got its independence, just a year before the UDHR was adopted. The founding fathers of Indian constitution were conscious about the demand for basic human rights. So they incorporated certain rights as "fundamental rights" and laid down certain other rights in the Constitution. The Supreme Court of India is the guarantor of the rights according to the Constitution. The court from time to time in various cases seeks to protect the fundamental rights enshrined in our Constitution.

CONSTITUTION OF INDIA: FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS (PART III)

Part III of the Indian constitution provides a number of fundamental rights. The expression "Fundamental" shows that these rights are basic right. The Supreme Court of India recognizes Fundamental Right as "natural

right". A law which violates any of the fundamental right is void. They are binding on the legislature as well as the Executive. A fundamental right cannot be taken away even by a constitution amendment if it forms the basic structure of the Constitution. **Chief Justice Patanjali Shastri** has referred to fundamental right as "those great and basic right which are recognized and guaranteed as the natural right inherent in the status of a citizen of a free country". **Chief Justice Subha Rao** states that "fundamental rights are the modern name for what has been traditionally known as natural right". Part III of the Indian Constitution exhaustively enumerates seven categories of the fundamental rights from Articles 12-35 of the Constitution. There are

1. Right to equality-Article14-18
2. Right particular freedom-Article19-22
3. Right against exploitation-Article23-24
4. Right to freedom of religion-Article25-28
5. Cultural and educational right-Article29-30
6. Right to property (Article31)
7. Right to constitutional remedies-Article32-35

Out of these, the Right to property has been eliminated by the 44th Constitution Amendment Act. At present, we have six fundamental rights.

DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLE OF STATE POLICY (PART IV)

Directive Principles of State Policy are not enforceable. Judiciaries from time to time have attempted to strike a harmonious balance between fundamental rights and directive principles. This has been done in the following ways:

1. The courts have regarded Directive Principles as the dependable index of restriction on fundamental rights.
2. In determining the scope and ambit of the Fundamental Rights, the courts have not ignored the Directive Principles.
3. The court has regarded Directive Principle as a dependable index of the public purpose.
4. The judiciary has enforced the directive principles under the garb of wider interpretation of Fundamental Rights in several cases.

CHILD RIGHTS PROTECTION LAWS IN INDIA

Protection of Child Rights of the underprivileged section of our society is a major issue of concern. The poverty in our country is of such great magnitude that children from underprivileged section of the society are forced to work resulting in child labour. According to National Sample Survey, the number of child workers have increased manifold in the society. Further the condition in which a child is forced to work is no better than that of slavery. The government of India has enacted the following thirteen Acts to provide legal protection to all children.

1. The Child Marriage Restraints Act, 1929.
2. The Children Act, 1933.
3. The Employment of Children Act, 1938.
4. The Minimum Wages Act, 1948.
5. The Factories Act, 1951.
6. The Plantation Labour Act, 1951.
7. The Indian Factories Act and Mines Act, 1952.
8. The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958.
9. The Apprentices Act, 1961.
10. The Atomic Energy Act, 1962.
11. The Beedi and Cigar Workers (Condition of Employment) Act, 1966.
12. The Shops and Establishments Acts, 1969 (Statewise)
13. The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulations) Act, 1986.

WOMEN RIGHTS PROTECTION LAWS IN INDIA

Violence against women has been seen in India from the redundant past. Social reform legislation recognizing women rights has been introduced in India since the British rule. After independence also, the legislatures have enacted several laws for protecting women's rights and making provisions for the violation of their rights punishable. The recognition of women's right as human right became international law when the U.N. General Assembly adopted the **CEDAW (Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women)** on 19th December 1979. With reference to India, the Indian Constitution prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex. Yet, it recognizes that women need special attention. The latter point is stressed in **Articles 23**

and 42. Article 23 prohibits traffic in human beings. By implication, this means that women, children, etc. cannot be disposed of for immoral purposes. Article 42 lays down that the State shall make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief. The Directive Principles of State Policy recognize the right to Maternity benefits in Article 42 of the Constitution. The Indian Parliament passed the **Maternity Benefits Act in 1961**. The Maternity Benefits Act aims to regulate the employment of women employees in certain establishments for certain periods before and after child birth and provides for maternity and certain benefits.

The **Domestic violence Act, 2005** provide protection to the wife or female live - in partner from domestic violence at the hands of the husband or male live-in partner or his relatives. Domestic violence under the Act includes actual abuse or the threat of abuse whether physical, sexual, verbal, emotional or economic. Harassment by way of unlawful dowry demands to the woman or her relatives would also be covered under this definition.

Among other things, **Articles 14, 15, 16 and 39** guarantee equality among the sexes.

1. Art.14 lays down equality before the law and equal protection of the law.
2. Art.15 prohibits discrimination against any citizen on grounds of religion, race, sex, etc.
3. Art.16 guarantees equality of opportunity in matters of public employment. It says that no citizen shall be discriminated against on ground of religion, race, caste, sex, etc.
4. Art. 39 guarantees equal pay for equal work for both men and women.

NATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS COMMISSION (NHRC)

The National Human Rights Commission was established on 12th October, 1993 under the legislative mandate of the **Protection of Human Rights Act, 1993**. This act also recommended for the setting up of State Human Right Commission at State level and Human Right courts along with NHRC.

FUNCTIONS OF THE COMMISSION

The commission will perform all or any of the following functions under Sec. 12 of the act namely, the commission shall inquire suo motu or on a petition presented to it by a victim or any person on his behalf. The commission may intervene in any proceeding involving any allegation of violation of human rights pending before a court. The Commission is allowed to visit any jail or other institution under the control of the State Government, where persons are detained or lodged for purposes of treatment, reformation or protection, for the study of the living conditions of the inmates and make recommendations. The commission may review the safeguards provided by or under the Constitution or any law for the time being in force for the protection of human rights and recommend measures for their effective implementation. The Commission shall review the factors, including acts of terrorism that inhibit the enjoyment of human rights and recommend appropriate remedial measures. The Commission shall study treaties and other international instruments on human rights and make recommendations for their effective implementation. The Commission shall undertake and promote research in the field of human rights. The Commission shall spread literacy among various sections of society and promote awareness of the safeguards available for the protection of these rights through publications, the media, seminars and other available means. The Commission shall encourage the efforts of NGOs and institutions working in the field of human rights. The commission may perform any such other functions as it may consider necessary for the protection of human rights.

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR WOMEN (NCW)

In India, there is largely a patriarchal structure of a society. Women have been considered as inferior and given a secondary status. They have been subject to various legal and social discriminations. There is a need to remove such inequalities and to make a provision for solving her problems. The need was felt for structure to uphold the rights and implement the provisions of beneficial legislations, in an organized and institutionalized manner. So with this view National Commission for Women (NCW), was set up as statutory body in Jan. 1992 under new act 1990.

OBJECTIVE OF NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR WOMEN

The basic purpose of NCW is to review the constitutional & legal safeguards for women, to recommend remedial legislative measures, to facilitate redressal of grievances and to advice government on all policy matter affecting women. The Commission has initiated various steps to improve the status of women and worked for their economic empowerment. The commission acts suo-moto in several cases to provide speedy justice. It took up the issue of child marriage, sponsored legal awareness programmes, Parivarik Mahila Lok Adalats and reviewed laws such as Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961, PNDT Act 1994, Indian Penal Code 1860 and the National Commission for Women Act, 1990.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, human rights are vital as they provide suitable conditions for material and moral upliftment of the people. Human rights are better protected at the national level, with adequate laws, independent judiciary and effective mechanisms. Indian Constitution is a document rich in human rights jurisprudence. The judiciary in India too plays a significant role in protecting human rights. They have taken care to see that the judgement delivered by them is in favour of the poor and weaker section. However, in future also we will need much legislation both in national and international level to curb the menace of violations of human rights.

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ECONOMIC REFORMS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRY: INDIA**Dr. Rohtash Kumar Garg¹, Shruti Jain² and Tinu Burmi³**Assistant Professor¹, DIRD, DelhiAssistant Professor², Mata Sundri College for Women, Delhi University, DelhiResearch Scholar³, Mewar University, Chittorgarh, Rajasthan**ABSTRACT**

This paper presents the economic reforms in India. Globalisation along with its advantages and drawbacks will be dealt in detail. India and the world trade organisation and WTO's concerns for India will finally be focused. . Other areas of concern will be the role of higher education institutions in promoting sustainable development, planning, strategies and sustainable development in Indian context, development of grass root panchayats and NGO's and pressure groups to promote sustainable development in India. Indian government coalitions have been advised to continue liberalization. India grows at slower pace than China, which had liberalised economy in 1978. McKinsey states that removing main obstacles "would free India's economy to grow as fast as China's, at 10 percent a year". The term globalization refers to the integration of economies of the world through uninhibited trade and financial flows, as also through mutual exchange of technology and knowledge. Ideally, it also contains free inter-country movement of labor. In context to India, this implies opening up the economy to foreign direct investment by providing facilities to foreign companies to invest in different fields of economic activity in India, removing constraints and obstacles to the entry of MNCs in India, allowing Indian companies to enter into foreign collaborations and also encouraging them to set up joint ventures abroad; carrying out massive import liberalization programs by switching over from quantitative restrictions to tariffs and import duties, therefore globalization has been identified with the policy reforms of 1991 in India.

Keywords: Economic Liberalization, Economic reforms, Rationale of internal and external reforms, Globalisation, India & the World Trade Organization, post seattle scenario

INTRODUCTION

The economic liberalization in India refers to ongoing reforms in India that started in 1991. After Independence in 1947, India adhered to socialist policies. In the 1980s, Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi initiated some reforms. In 1991, after the International Monetary Fund (IMF) had bailed out the bankrupt state, the government of P. V. Narasimha Rao and his finance minister Manmohan Singh started breakthrough reforms. The new policies included opening for international trade and investment, deregulation, initiation of privatization, tax reforms, and inflation-controlling measures. The overall direction of liberalization has since remained the same, irrespective of the ruling party, although no party has yet tried to take on powerful lobbies such as the trade unions and farmers, or contentious issues such as reforming labor laws and reducing agricultural subsidies.

As of 2009, about 300 million people — equivalent to the entire population of the United States — have escaped extreme poverty. The fruits of liberalization reached their peak in 2007, with India recording its highest GDP growth rate of 9%. With this, India became the second fastest growing major economy in the world, next only to China. An Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report states that the average growth rate 7.5% will double the average income in a decade, and more reforms would speed up the pace.

ECONOMIC REFORMS - THE OVERVIEW

The economy of India is one of the fastest growing economies in the world. Since its independence in the year 1947, a number of economic policies have been taken which have led to the gradual economic development of the country. On a broader scale, India economic reform has been a blend of both social democratic and liberalization policies.

ECONOMIC REFORMS DURING THE POST INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

The post independence period of India was marked by economic policies which tried to make the country self sufficient. Under the economic reform, stress was given more to development of defense, infrastructure and agricultural sectors. Government companies were set up and investment was done more on the public sector. This was made to make the base of the country stronger. To strengthen the infrastructure, new roads, rail lines, bridges, dams and lots more were constructed.

During the Five Years Plans initiated in the 1950s, the economic reforms of India somewhat followed the democratic socialist principle with more emphasis on the growth of the public and rural sector. Most of the policies were meant towards the increase of exports compared to imports, central planning, business regulation

and also intervention of the state in the finance and labor markets. In the mid 50's huge scale nationalization was done to industries like mining, telecommunications, electricity and so on.

ECONOMIC REFORMS DURING 1960S AND 1980S

During the mid 1960's effort was made to make India self sufficient and also increase the production and export of the food grains. To make the plan a success, huge scale agricultural development was undertaken. The government initiated the 'Green Revolution' movement and stressed on better agricultural yield through the use of fertilizers, improved seed and lots more. New irrigation projects were undertaken and the rural banks were also set up to provide financial support to the farmers.

The first step towards liberalization of the economy was taken up by Rajiv Gandhi. After he became the Prime Minister, a number of restrictions on various sectors were eased, control on pricing was removed, and stress was given on increased growth rate and so on.

ECONOMIC REFORMS DURING 1990S TO THE PRESENT TIMES

Due to the fall of the Soviet Union and the problems in balance of payment accounts, the country faced economic crisis and the IMF asked for the bailout loan. To get out of the situation, the then Finance Minister, Manmohan Singh initiated the economic liberation reform in the year 1991. This is considered to be one of the milestones in India economic reform as it changed the market and financial scenario of the country. Under the liberalization program, foreign direct investment was encouraged, public monopolies were stopped, and service and tertiary sectors were developed.

Since the initiation of the liberalization plan in the 1990s, the economic reforms have put emphasis on the open market economic policies. Foreign investments have come in various sectors and there has been a good growth in the standard of living, per capital income and Gross Domestic Product.

Due to the global meltdown, the economy of India suffered as well. However, unlike other countries, India sustained the shock as an important part of its financial and banking sector is still under government regulation. Nevertheless, to cope with the present situation, the Indian government has taken a number of decisions like strengthening the banking and tertiary sectors, increasing the quantity of exports and lots more.

RATIONALE OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL REFORMS

The Indian National Congress regained political power after elections to Parliament in

June 1991. Within a few days of its getting in power a package of new economic policies was announced. The proposed policy frame was radically different, in approach and content, from the one India had pursued ever since it's gaining political independence.

The new policy package was delivered swiftly in order to complete the process of changeover so as not to permit consolidation of any likely opposition to implementation of the new policies. The strategy was to administer 'shock therapy' to the economy. The new policies did not come from the Party's election manifesto of 1991 for which the Party sought support of the Indian voters. The policy package also did not get discussed at any major organisational or Parliamentary forum. It was a surprise move for many in the Cabinet too, what to speak of State Chief Ministers or other State level functionaries.

There was no debate among officials or economists prior to the official adoption. A number of distinguished personalities in business and industry, however, expressed approval and support to the new policies. The press and the government-controlled mass media were pressed into service to assert that the country needed to opt for 'market oriented policies' as most misfortunes of the country were linked to extensive state controls and interventions. TINA: 'There is No Alternative' to the New Economic Policy (NEP) was the assertion.

The reforms package was projected as an indigenous product. The package had been in use for many years in a number of Latin American and African countries and had been known by differing connotations such as 'Washington Consensus', 'Structural Adjustment Programme' and liberalisation. The World Bank and the IMF never denied their contribution in this regard. The Indian media, however, projected it as 'Manmohanomics', after the name of the then Finance Minister. All criticism of the new economic policy was snubbed.

The entire state machinery was put on the public relations job⁵. Ministers were advised to exploit all opportunities to 'educate public' on the merits of the policy reforms.⁶ Advisory committees and expert groups supposed to deliberate on policies and programmes were packed with sycophants and favourites. It was asked: why should public resources is wasted in hearing criticism? Most critics were left out of the consultation and decision-making processes. They were either dubbed as irrelevant or were described as living in the Stone Age!

A few distinguished Non-Resident Indian economists were invited for short visits to India to lecture on the merits of 'free market'. The swift and speedy adoption of new policies paid dividends. It took time for many to grasp the true nature and full implications of the new policy changes and therefore opposition did not surface immediately.

Lack of critical debate on the issue and yielding of no space for honest opposition led to the emergence of a conformist culture in administration, politics, media and worst of all in academics. There were close similarities to the emergency days of the mid- 'seventies. The result: isolation of the ruling party and adoption of a variety of policies which did not relate to the problems of the Indian economy. Concentration of political power resulted into excessive misuse of the state machinery. And, thus came the era of scams, favouritism and corruption. The five-year rule of the Congress was full of scandals. The party's performance at the 1996 Parliamentary elections was miserable.

The party has to answer a lot of the corruption charges, involving directly those who occupied top political positions. Many of the happenings of the post-1991 phase would probably remain riddles.

EXTERNAL PRESSURE

There are evidences to suggest that adoption of the new economic policy was done under pressure from the multilateral agencies. The communication dated November 12, 1991 by Lewis T. Preston of the World Bank brings out the close relationship between the loan sanctioned by the World Bank and IDA to the Government of India and in turn their expectations from the latter. We quote:

The proposed Structural Adjustment Loan/Credit (SAL/SAC) would support the initial phase of the Government's program of macroeconomic stabilization and structural reform. In addition to a major fiscal adjustment effort, the main areas covered by the program are:

- i) Deregulation of domestic industry and promotion of foreign direct investment;
- ii) Liberalization of the trade regime;
- iii) Reform of domestic interest rates coupled with measures to strengthen capital markets and institutions; and
- iv) Initiation of public enterprise reform.

The adjustment policies being supported by the SAL/SAC in conjunction with an IMF stand-by arrangement will restore macroeconomic balance and strengthen external credit worthiness. The Government's reform measures would initiate the opening up of the economy and would also alter fundamentally the parameters of public-private interaction in a manner that would promote domestic competition, improve the incentive system, and would foster sustained growth with raising productivity.

However, to ensure that the Indian Government must pursue the proposed policies, a mechanism for monitoring the Adjustment Programme was visualised in the following manner. The adjustment program is being coordinated by the Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance. The proposed operation requires monitoring of the consistency of macroeconomic framework, as outlined in the Letter of Development Policy, and the implementation of specific actions detailed in paragraph 98. The monitoring of macroeconomic performance in particular will be closely coordinated with the IMF. The Bank/Association will also monitor the implementation and progress of reform actions through a mid-term consultation to be held prior to end-January 1992. In addition to serving as a catalyst to promote greater coordination among the various line ministries to which the SAL/SAC program relates, the review would provide a forum to discuss with the authorities the recommendations of several high level committees established by the Government and their incorporation, to the extent appropriate, in the 1992/93 Budget'.

Provision for an institutional mechanism to permit participation by the multilateral bodies in India's national budget-making exercises is reasonably suggestive. Contrary to the perceptions held by most well-meaning Indians a different view was advocated suggesting that the IMF and World Bank are agencies which are not that of aliens. It was asserted that the IMF and the World Bank were as much Indian institutions as that of any other nation. These are like cooperatives established to help developing nations, it was argued.

This line of argument was also accompanied by a question: Why should not India accept advice if it helped its economy to grow faster? Unfortunately, the advice of the World Bank or IMF was accepted without testing its objectivity against the past experiences and other contemporary empirical evidences. It may be recalled how the IBRD and IMF do not function in terms of the practice of 'one nation one vote'. The developed nations exercise 59.76 per cent voting rights in the Bank. The same is true of the IMF. Under the IMF rules additional funding for the IMF requires an 85 per cent vote in the governing body. Therefore, "the U.S. with a 19 per cent vote can block any change". The U.S. plays an important role in the multilateral bodies. In this regard a report of the

U.S. Department of the Treasury outlines the expected role of multilateral institutions like the World Bank and the IMF.

GLOBALISATION

Indian economy had experienced major policy changes in early 1990s. The new economic reform, popularly known as, Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (LPG model) aimed at making the Indian economy as fastest growing economy and globally competitive. The series of reforms undertaken with respect to industrial sector, trade as well as financial sector aimed at making the economy more efficient.

With the onset of reforms to liberalize the Indian economy in July of 1991, a new chapter has dawned for India and her billion plus population. This period of economic transition has had a tremendous impact on the overall economic development of almost all major sectors of the economy, and its effects over the last decade can hardly be overlooked. Besides, it also marks the advent of the real integration of the Indian economy into the global economy.

This era of reforms has also ushered in a remarkable change in the Indian mindset, as it deviates from the traditional values held since Independence in 1947, such as self reliance and socialistic policies of economic development, which mainly due to the inward looking restrictive form of governance, resulted in the isolation, overall backwardness and inefficiency of the economy, amongst a host of other problems.

Now that India is in the process of restructuring her economy, with aspirations of elevating herself from her present desolate position in the world, the need to speed up her economic development is even more imperative. And having witnessed the positive role that Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has played in the rapid economic growth of most of the Southeast Asian countries and most notably China, India has embarked on an ambitious plan to emulate the successes of her neighbors to the east and is trying to sell herself as a safe and profitable destination for FDI.

Globalization has many meanings depending on the context and on the person who is talking about. Though the precise definition of globalization is still unavailable a few definitions are worth viewing, Guy Brainbant: says that the process of globalization not only includes opening up of world trade, development of advanced means of communication, internationalization of financial markets, growing importance of MNCs, population migrations and more generally increased mobility of persons, goods, capital, data and ideas but also infections, diseases and pollution.

The Important Reform Measures (Step Towards liberalization privatization and Globalization)

Indian economy was in deep crisis in July 1991, when foreign currency reserves had plummeted to almost \$1 billion; Inflation had roared to an annual rate of 17 percent; fiscal deficit was very high and had become unsustainable; foreign investors and NRIs had lost confidence in Indian Economy. Capital was flying out of the country and we were close to defaulting on loans. Along with these bottlenecks at home, many unforeseeable changes swept the economies of nations in Western and Eastern Europe, South East Asia, Latin America and elsewhere, around the same time. These were the economic compulsions at home and abroad that called for a complete overhauling of our economic policies and programs. Major measures initiated as a part of the liberalization and globalization strategy in the early nineties included the following:

Devaluation: The first step towards globalization was taken with the announcement of the devaluation of Indian currency by 18-19 percent against major currencies in the international foreign exchange market. In fact, this measure was taken in order to resolve the BOP crisis

Disinvestment-In order to make the process of globalization smooth, privatization and liberalization policies are moving along as well. Under the privatization scheme, most of the public sector undertakings have been/ are being sold to private sector

Dismantling of The Industrial Licensing Regime At present, only six industries are under compulsory licensing mainly on accounting of environmental safety and strategic considerations. A significantly amended locational policy in tune with the **liberalized** licensing policy is in place. No industrial approval is required from the government for locations not falling within 25 kms of the periphery of cities having a population of more than one million.

Allowing Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) across a wide spectrum of industries and encouraging non-debt flows. The Department has put in place a liberal and transparent foreign investment regime where most activities are opened to foreign investment on automatic route without any limit on the extent of foreign ownership. Some of the recent initiatives taken to further liberalize the FDI regime, inter alias, include opening up of sectors such as Insurance (upto 26%); development of integrated townships (upto 100%); defense industry

(upto 26%); tea plantation (upto 100% subject to divestment of 26% within five years to FDI); enhancement of FDI limits in private sector banking, allowing FDI up to 100% under the automatic route for most manufacturing activities in SEZs; opening up B2B e-commerce; Internet Service Providers (ISPs) without Gateways; electronic mail and voice mail to 100% foreign investment subject to 26% divestment condition; etc. The Department has also strengthened investment facilitation measures through Foreign Investment Implementation Authority (FIIA).

Non Resident Indian Scheme the general policy and facilities for foreign direct investment as available to foreign investors/ Companies are fully applicable to NRIs as well. In addition, Government has extended some concessions especially for NRIs and overseas corporate bodies having more than 60% stake by NRIs

Throwing Open Industries Reserved For The Public Sector to Private Participation. Now there are only three industries reserved for the public sector

Abolition of the (MRTP) Act, which necessitated prior approval for capacity expansion

The removal of quantitative restrictions on imports.

The reduction of the peak customs tariff from over 300 per cent prior to the 30 per cent rate that applies now.

Wide-ranging financial sector reforms in the banking, capital markets, and insurance sectors, including the deregulation of interest rates, strong regulation and supervisory systems, and the introduction of foreign/private sector competition.

IMPACT OF GLOBALIZATION OF INDIAN ECONOMY

The novel Tale of Two Cities of Charles Dickens begins with a piquant description of the contradictions of the times: It was the best of times, it was the worst of times; it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness; it was the epoch of belief, it was the epoch of incredulity; we had everything before us, we had nothing before us

At the present, we can also say about the tale of two Indias: We have the best of times; we have the worst of times. There is sparkling prosperity, there is stinking poverty. We have dazzling five star hotels side by side with darkened ill-starred hovels. We have everything by globalization, we have nothing by globalization.

Though some economic reforms were introduced by the Rajiv Gandhi government (1985-89), it was the Narasimha Rao Government that gave a definite shape and start to the new economic reforms of globalization in India. Presenting the 1991-92 Budget, Finance Minister Manmohan Singh said: After four decades of planning for industrialization, we have now reached a stage where we should welcome, rather fear, foreign investment. Direct foreign investment would provide access to capital, technology and market.

In the Memorandum of Economic Policies dated August 27, 1991 to the IMF, the Finance Minister submitted in the concluding paragraph: The Government of India believes that the policies set forth in the Memorandum are adequate to achieve the objectives of the program, but will take any additional measures appropriate for this purpose. In addition, the Government will consult with the Fund on the adoption of any measures that may be appropriate in accordance with the policies of the Fund on such consultations.

The Government of India affirmed to implement the economic reforms in consultation with the international bank and in accordance of its policies. Successive coalition governments from 1996 to 2004, led by the Janata Dal and BJP, adopted faithfully the economic policy of liberalization. With Manmohan Singh returned to power as the Prime Minister in 2004, the economic policy initiated by him has become the lodestar of the fiscal outlook of the government.

THE BRIGHT SIDE OF GLOBALIZATION

The rate of growth of the Gross Domestic Product of India has been on the increase from 5.6 per cent during 1980-90 to seven per cent in the 1993-2001 period. In the last four years, the annual growth rate of the GDP was impressive at 7.5 per cent (2003-04), 8.5 per cent (2004-05), nine per cent (2005-06) and 9.2 per cent (2006-07). Prime Minister Manmohan Singh is confident of having a 10 per cent growth in the GDP in the Eleventh Five Year Plan period.

The foreign exchange reserves (as at the end of the financial year) were \$ 39 billion (2000-01), \$ 107 billion (2003-04), \$ 145 billion (2005-06) and \$ 180 billion (in February 2007). It is expected that India will cross the \$ 200 billion mark soon.

The cumulative FDI inflows from 1991 to September 2006 were Rs.1, 81,566 crores (US \$ 43.29 billion). The sectors attracting highest FDI inflows are electrical equipments including computer software and electronics (18 per cent), service sector (13 per cent), telecommunications (10 per cent), transportation industry (nine per cent), etc. In the inflow of FDI, India has surpassed South Korea to become the fourth largest recipient.

India controls at the present 45 per cent of the global outsourcing market with an estimated income of \$ 50 billion. In respect of market capitalization (which takes into account the market value of a quoted company by multiplying its current share price by the number of shares in issue), India is in the fourth position with \$ 894 billion after the US (\$ 17,000 billion), Japan (\$ 4800 billion) and China (\$ 1000). India is expected to soon cross the trillion dollar mark.

As per the Forbes list for 2007, the number of billionaires of India has risen to 40 (from 36 last year) more than those of Japan (24), China (17), France (14) and Italy (14) this year. A press report was jubilant: This is the richest year for India. The combined wealth of the Indian billionaires marked an increase of 60 per cent from \$ 106 billion in 2006 to \$ 170 billion in 2007. The 40 Indian billionaires have assets worth about Rs. 7.50 lakh crores whereas the cumulative investment in the 91 Public Sector Undertakings by the Central Government of India is Rs. 3.93 lakh crores only.

THE DARK SIDE OF GLOBALIZATION

On the other side of the medal, there is a long list of the worst of the times, the foremost casualty being the agriculture sector. Agriculture has been and still remains the backbone of the Indian economy. It plays a vital role not only in providing food and nutrition to the people, but also in the supply of raw material to industries and to export trade. In 1951, agriculture provided employment to 72 per cent of the population and contributed 59 per cent of the gross domestic product. However, by 2001 the population depending upon agriculture came to 58 per cent whereas the share of agriculture in the GDP went down drastically to 24 per cent and further to 22 per cent in 2006-07. This has resulted in a lowering the per capita income of the farmers and increasing the rural indebtedness.

The agricultural growth of 3.2 per cent observed from 1980 to 1997 decelerated to two per cent subsequently. The Approach to the Eleventh Five Year Plan released in December 2006 stated that the growth rate of agricultural GDP including forestry and fishing is likely to be below two per cent in the Tenth Plan period.

The reasons for the deceleration of the growth of agriculture are given in the Economic Survey 2006-07: Low investment, imbalance in fertilizer use, low seeds replacement rate, a distorted incentive system and low post-harvest value addition continued to be a drag on the sectors performance. With more than half the population directly depending on this sector, low agricultural growth has serious implications for the inclusiveness of growth.

The number of rural landless families increased from 35 per cent in 1987 to 45 per cent in 1999, further to 55 per cent in 2005. The farmers are destined to die of starvation or suicide. Replying to the Short Duration Discussion on Import of Wheat and Agrarian Distress on May 18, 2006, Agriculture Minister Sharad Pawar informed the Rajya Sabha that roughly 1, 00,000 farmers committed suicide during the period 1993-2003 mainly due to indebtedness.

In his interview to The Indian Express on November 15, 2005, Sharad Pawar said: The farming community has been ignored in this country and especially so over the last eight to ten years. The total investment in the agriculture sector is going down. In the last few years, the average budgetary provision from the Indian Government for irrigation is less than 0.35 percent.

During the post-reform period, India has been shining brilliantly with a growing number of billionaires. Nobody has taken note of the sufferings of the family members of those unfortunate hundred thousand farmers.

DEMOTING AGRICULTURE

The Economic Survey reports released till 1991 contained the Chapters in the following order: (1) Introduction, (2) Agricultural Production, (3) Industrial Performance and Policies, (4) Infrastructure, (5) Human Resources, (6) Prices, Price Policy and Public Distribution System, (7) Fiscal Policy and Government Budget, (8) Monetary and Credit Developments, (9) The External Sector and (10) Problems and Prospects.

In the Economic Survey 1991-92, Finance Minister Manmohan Singh recast the Chapters in the following order: (1) Introduction, (2) Public Finance, (3) Money and Credit, (4) Prices and Distribution, (5) Balance of Payments, (6) Industry, (7) Agriculture, (8) Infrastructure and (9) Social Sectors.

It is not known as to why the Finance Minister demoted the importance of agriculture that has about 90 per cent population from the second place to the seventh in the annual Economic Survey of the country. In a way does it symbolize the low importance deliberately given to the growth of the agriculture sector in the scheme of globalization?

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Further, the proportion of people depending in India on agriculture is about 60 % whereas the same for the UK is 2 %, USA 2 % and Japan 3 %. The developed countries, having a low proportion of population in agriculture, have readily adopted globalization which favors more the growth of the manufacturing and service sectors.

GROWTH OF UNEMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY

The proportion of the unemployed to the total labor force has been increasing from 2.62 per cent (1993-94) to 2.78 per cent (1999-2000) and 3.06 per cent (2004-05). In absolute figures, the number of unemployed had been in those years 9.02 million, 10.51 million and 13.10 million respectively. (Economic Survey 2006-07, Table 10.4)

In reply to a question, the Minister for Labor and Employment informed the Lok Sabha on March 19, 2007, that the enrolment of the unemployed in the Employment Exchanges in 2006-07 was 79 lakhs against the average of 58 lakhs in the past ten years.

About the impact of globalization, in particular on the development of India, the ILO Report (2004) stated: *In India, there had been winners and losers. The lives of the educated and the rich had been enriched by globalization. The information technology (IT) sector was a particular beneficiary. But the benefits had not yet reached the majority, and new risks had cropped up for the losersthe socially deprived and the rural poor. Significant numbers of non-perennial poor, who had worked hard to escape poverty, were finding their gains reversed. Power was shifting from elected local institutions to unaccountable trans-national bodies. Western perceptions, which dominated the globe media, were not aligned with local perspectives; they encouraged consumerism in the midst of extreme poverty and posed a threat to cultural and linguistic diversity.*

SOCIAL SERVICES

About the quality of education given to children, the Approach to the Eleventh Five Year Plan stated: A recent study has found that 38 per cent of the children who have completed four years of schooling cannot read a small paragraph with short sentences meant to be read by a student of Class II. About 55 per cent of such children cannot divide a three digit number by a one digit number. These are indicators of serious learning problems which must be addressed.

The Approach paper added further: Universalisation of education will not suffice in the knowledge economy. A person with a mere eight years of schooling will be as disadvantaged in a knowledge economy by ICT as an illiterate person in modern industry and services.

The less said about the achievements in health the better. The Approach to the Eleventh Plan concedes that progress implementing the objectives of health have been slow. The Report gave the particulars of the rates of infant mortality (per 1000 live births) for India as 60 against Sri Lanka (13), China (30) and Vietnam (19). The rate of maternal mortality (per 1, 00,000 deliveries) of India is 407 against Sri Lanka (92), China (56) and Vietnam (130).

GROWTH OF SLUM CAPITALS

In his 2007-08 Budget Speech, Finance Minister Chidambaram put forth a proposal to promote Mumbai as a world class financial centre and to make financial services the next growth engine of India.

Of its 13 million population, Mumbai city has 54 per cent in slums. It is estimated that 100 to 300 new families come to Mumbai every day and most land up in a slum colony. Prof R. N. Sharma of the Tata Institute of Social Science says that Mumbai is disintegrating into slums. From being known as the slum capital of India and the biggest slum of Asia, Mumbai is all set to become the slum capital of the world.

The population of Delhi is about 14 million of which nearly 45 per cent population lives in slums, unauthorized colonies, JJ clusters and undeveloped rural parts. During dry weather these slum dwellers use open areas around their units for defecation and the entire human waste generated from the slums along with the additional wastewater from their households is discharged untreated into the river Yamuna. The cumulative FDI inflows (until September 2006) to the New Delhi region were of Rs. 27,369 crores and to Mumbai Rs. 24,545 crores. The two spots of New Delhi and Mumbai received 46 per cent of the total FDI inflows into India.

VICTIMS OF GLOBALIZATION

IN his Making Globalization Work, Nobel Laureate Stiglitz wrote: Trade liberalization opening up markets to the free flow of goods and services was supposed to lead to growth. The evidence is at best mixed. Part of the reason that international trade agreements have been so unsuccessful in promoting growth in poor countries is that they were often unbalanced. The advanced industrial countries were allowed to levy tariffs on goods produced by developing countries that were, on average, four times higher than those on goods produced by other advanced industrial countries.

In his foreword to The Dynamics and Impact of Globalization by Dr. M. V. Louis Anthuvan, Justice V. R. Krishna Iyer pointed out pithily: The New World Order is the product of what is now familiarly described as globalization, liberalization and privatization. The weaker sectors like the Asian and African countries are victims, whose economic welfare is slavery, at the disposal of the White world. When World War II came to a close, commercial conquest and trade triumph became the major goal of the United States and the other giant trade powers. Indeed, these mighty countries and companies even made world hunger as Big Business. The poorer countries with natural resources have been made banana republics and cucumber vassals.

The Human Development Report 2006 recorded: Globalization has given rise to a protracted debate over the precise direction of trends in global income distribution. What is sometimes lost sight of is the sheer depth of inequality and the associated potential for greater equity to accelerate poverty reduction. Measured in the 2000 purchasing power parity (PPP) terms, the gap between the incomes of the poorest 20 per cent of the world's population and the \$ 1 a day poverty line amounts to about \$ 300 billion. That figure appears large, but it is less than two per cent of the income of the world's wealthiest 10 per cent.

TO MAKE GLOBALIZATION WORK

Under the phenomenal growth of information technology which has shrunk space and time and reduced the cost of moving information, goods and capital across the globe, the globalization has brought unprecedented opportunities for human development for all, in developing as well as developed countries. Under the commercial marketing forces, globalization has been used more to promote economic growth to yield profits to some countries and to some groups within a country.

India should pay immediate attention to ensure rapid development in education, health, water and sanitation, labor and employment so that under time-bound programmes the targets are completed without delay. A strong foundation of human development of all people is essential for the social, political and economic development of the country.

Though at present India appears to be dominant in some fields of development as in IT-ITES, this prosperity may be challenged by other competing countries which are equipping themselves with better standards of higher education. As detailed earlier, our progress in education has been slow and superficial, without depth and quality, to compete the international standards.

The government should take immediate steps to increase agricultural production and create additional employment opportunities in the rural parts, to reduce the growing inequality between urban and rural areas and to decentralize powers and resources to the panchayati raj institutions for implementing all works of rural development. Steps should be taken for early linking of the rivers, especially in the south-bound ones, for supply of the much-needed water for irrigation.

INDIA & THE WORLD TRADE ORGANIZATION

India is a founder member of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) 1947 and its successor, the World Trade Organization (WTO), which came into effect on 1.1.95 after the conclusion of the Uruguay Round (UR) of Multilateral Trade Negotiations. India's participation in an increasingly rule based system in the

governance of international trade is to ensure more stability and predictability, which ultimately would lead to more trade and prosperity for itself and the 134 other nations which now comprise the WTO. India also automatically avails of MFN and national treatment for its exports to all WTO Members.

MINISTERIAL CONFERENCES OF WTO

The first Ministerial Conference held in 1996 in Singapore saw the commencement of pressures to enlarge the agenda of WTO. Pressures were generated to introduce new Agreements on Investment, Competition Policy, Transparency in Government Procurement and Trade Facilitation. The concept of Core Labor Standards was also sought to be introduced. India and the developing countries, who were already under the burden of fulfilling the commitments undertaken through the Uruguay Round Agreements, and who also perceived many of the new issues to be non-trade issues, resisted the introduction of these new subjects into WTO. They were partly successful. The Singapore Ministerial Conference (SMC) set up open ended Work Program to study the relationship between Trade and Investment; Trade and Competition Policy; to conduct a study on Transparency in Government Procurement practices; and do analytical work on simplification of trade procedures (Trade Facilitation). Most importantly the SMC clearly declared on the Trade- Labor linkage as follows:

"We reject the use of labor standards for protectionist purposes, and agree that the comparative advantage of countries, particularly low-wage developing countries, must in no way be put into question. In this regard we note that the WTO and ILO Secretariat will continue their existing collaboration".

The Second Ministerial Conference of WTO, held at Geneva in May 1998, established a process to prepare for the Third Ministerial Conference and to submit recommendations regarding the WTO's future work program, which would enable Members to take decisions at the Third Ministerial Conference at Seattle.

The Geneva Ministerial Conference (GMC) Declaration had identified the following issues for the General Council's work, paragraphs 9(a) to 9(b) of the Declaration:

- (a) i. Issues, including those brought forward by Members, relating to implementation of existing agreements and decisions;
 - ii. The negotiations already mandated at Marrakesh (Agriculture and Services) and to ensure that such negotiations begin on schedule;
 - iii. Mandated reviews already provided for under other existing agreements and decisions taken at Marrakesh;
- (b) Recommendations concerning other possible future work on the basis of the work program initiated at Singapore Ministerial Conference consisting of:
 - i. Trade and Investment;
 - ii. Trade and Competition Policy;
 - iii. Transparency in Government Procurement;
 - iv. Trade Facilitation.
- (c) Recommendations on the follow-up to the High-Level Meeting on Least-Developed countries;
- (d) Recommendations arising from consideration of other matters proposed and agreed to by Members concerning their multilateral trade relations.

The 3rd Ministerial Conference held in Seattle during 30th November-3rd December, 1999 was being looked up by many, especially in the developing countries, as a launching pad for a comprehensive round of negotiations.

In the preparatory process in the General Council of the WTO (September 1998 to September 1999), new issues which were proposed for the negotiating agenda by some Members under paragraph 9(d) are as follows:

- a) Industrial Tariffs
- b) Global Electronic Commerce
- c) Trade and Labour Standards
- d) Trade and Environment
- e) Coherence in the interaction of WTO and other international organizations.

OUTCOME OF THE SEATTLE MINISTERIAL CONFERENCE OF WTO

The Indian delegation to the Third Ministerial Conference of the WTO was led by the Union Minister of Commerce & Industry, Mr. Murasoli Maran. The delegation also included Members of Parliament, senior officials from different Ministries and representatives from the apex Chambers of commerce and industry.

The Seattle Conference attracted wide attention because of proposals by some countries to press for the launching of a comprehensive round of negotiations covering subjects as wide ranging as labour issues, coherence in global economic architecture, agriculture etc. Even before the commencement of the Conference there were widespread protests and demonstrations in Seattle by a number of anti-WTO groups ranging from environmental activists to labour unions. The inaugural session which was to be held in the forenoon of 30th November, 1999 had to be abandoned because of disturbances. The plenary which was to start in the afternoon on the same day had to be held under heavy police protection.

The Chairmen of various Working Groups tried to narrow down the differences in their respective groups with a view to arriving at a consensus in the draft Ministerial text that had been transmitted from the Geneva preparatory process. However, in view of the wide divergence of views, no group could present draft texts for inclusion in the Ministerial declaration acceptable to all the members.

As there was no prospect of reaching a conclusion on a large number of issues, it was decided after consultation among key members that it would not be practicable to adopt any Ministerial declaration. The Chairperson of the Conference made only a brief statement on 3rd December followed by brief reports by the Chairmen of the various groups. The Chairperson observed that divergences of opinion remained that would take time to be narrowed down. It was therefore, decided to suspend the work of the Seattle Ministerial Conference.

While the above constituted the overall outcome, the deliberations and consultations which took place on several of the important issues are briefly outlined below subject-wise (these positions are indicative and not definitive since a number of delegations, including ourselves, made it clear that nothing was agreed until everything was agreed).

- (a) **Implementation issues:** A good deal of discussions took place on this subject in Seattle, further to the extensive consultations held in Geneva earlier. The Working Group Chairman (Canada) came up with a final proposal (similar to what was mooted by the Secretariat) that meant a few immediate decisions at Seattle and establishment of a special mechanism to examine and make recommendations within one year, and in any case by the Fourth Ministerial Session, on other implementation issues. The Chairman's text also proposed negotiations in respect of Anti-Dumping and Subsidies Agreements. While India and most other countries were prepared to go along with the Chairman's text, the US had reservations and was opposed to any negotiations on anti-dumping and subsidies and could, at the most, agree to a few (not all) of the issues raised by the Committee on Anti-Dumping and Subsidies respectively. No consensus could, therefore, emerge.
- (b) **Agriculture:** Mandated negotiations have to commence on 1.1.2000 on Agriculture. In the run-up to Seattle, however, the Cairns Group of countries supported by US sought to secure a more rigorous negotiating mandate that would speed up elimination/ reduction of their export/domestic subsidies. EC, Japan, Norway etc., resisted this to the very end. While EC appeared to display some flexibility on this issue, Japan put up stiff opposition on further inroads into elimination of domestic subsidies. As for India, our concerns relating to food security were adequately reflected.
- (c) **Services:** No substantive negotiation took place in Seattle as there was hardly any divergence of views on the draft text which adequately takes into account India's concerns.
- (d) **Investment and Competition Policy:** India, Malaysia, Hong Kong, China and Pakistan proposed the continuation of the study process launched at Singapore. EC and others stubbornly argued that they wanted negotiations to be launched right away. Given this, the talks broke off but a 'bridge proposal' which aimed at carrying forward the study process to prepare for negotiations to be launched by the Fourth Ministerial Conference began to take shape. While India, Malaysia, Hong Kong, China and Pakistan continued to oppose even the "bridge proposal", a number of other developing countries (including countries such as Zimbabwe, Sri Lanka and Egypt) showed inclination to agree to launch negotiations or to agree to the compromise proposal.
- (e) **Market Access for non-agricultural items:** There was virtually no opposition for the launching of negotiations in this area except that a number of developing countries including ourselves pointed out the priority that we attached to the implementation issues and made it clear that agreeing to any text on this issue depended on progress in other areas. The text which evolved during the Green Room consultations left open the modalities to be followed for the tariff reduction exercise although the APEC countries wanted a specific reference to their Accelerated Tariff Liberalisation (ATL) initiative. EU wanted a common tariff reduction method to be adopted for all countries while certain others preferred a formula approach to be the

main methodology. While our concerns were largely met in the draft text, the US insisted on avoiding any reference to peak-tariffs saying it was a politically sensitive issue. Several developing countries, including us, however, firmly opposed the substitution of 'peak tariffs' by any other phraseology. This matter still needs to be resolved.

- (f) **Transparency in Government Procurement:** There were broadly three proposals on this subject at the Seattle Ministerial. First, that the Working Group should continue its work until the fourth Ministerial session. India and number of developing countries supported this proposal. Second, that the Seattle Ministerial should mandate commencement of negotiations based on the elements that had formed the basis of discussion in the Working Group with the objective of concluding an Agreement at the latest by the Fourth Ministerial session. A number of developed and developing countries such as Brazil and South Africa supported this proposal. Third, that the Ministers adopt at Seattle an Agreement on Transparency in Government Procurement based on the formulation proposed by the United States and the European Communities. After further discussions in the open-ended Seattle Working Group on Singapore issues and other issues, its Chairman gave his understanding that there was virtual consensus among Members present on the second proposal. He noted that India was the only Member present that stated that it could not join such a consensus and urged India to reconsider its position. India had stated that it could only support further work in the Working Group aimed at arriving at a consensus on the elements of a Transparency agreement.
- (g) **Trade and Environment:** Developed countries, particularly EU, were very keen on negotiations on environment related issues to accommodate concerns of their civil society. They wanted environmental considerations integrated throughout the negotiations in the new Round ('mainstreaming') which will also dilute the focussed mandate of the Committee on Trade and Environment (CTE) to that extent. USA was further keen that Members right to set high environmental standards was not undermined by trade rules. US and CAIRNS Group countries also called for the removal of environmentally damaging subsidies such as agricultural subsidies and fishery subsidies that contributed to over capacity. Developing countries sought adjustments in the TRIPS Agreement for preservation of biological diversity and reward for traditional knowledge. The proposal to mainstream environment and dilute the role of CTE and the US proposal regarding environmental standards were opposed by some developing countries including India while there was considerable support for removal of environment- related subsidies. The TRIPS related proposals were supported by some, but there was no consensus.
- (h) **Intellectual Property:** Many members were willing to complete the negotiations on the establishment of a multilateral system of notification and registration of geographical indications for wines and possibly spirits, while there was an emerging consensus for an early decision on the ongoing discussions on inclusion of other products for the higher level of protection as has been provided to wines under Art 23 of TRIPS. Other work programmes proposed to be launched at Seattle included a proposal to make recommendations to the Fourth Ministerial Conference on the scope for protection for traditional knowledge and folklore under the TRIPS Agreement, and review of Article 71.1, including enhancing the Agreement to respond to its objectives and principles as well as new developments elsewhere, and of Article 27.3(b) relating to life forms and plant varieties.
- (i) **Other issues:** There were a few other issues which were less controversial. Subjects belonging to this category included E-commerce and trade facilitation. A proposal to set up a working group on transfer of Technology, supported by India also found wide support but was opposed by USA, while EC and some others preferred discussions on this issue within the Committee on Trade and Development. On the other hand, the proposed Working Group on Bio-technology, pursued by USA was hardly discussed because of strong opposition from many members, including India.
- (j) Regarding transparency in the functioning of WTO, US and EU were keen for some kind of mechanism whereby civil society could participate in the WTO functioning, inter alia, through amicus curiae briefs in the trade dispute settlement mechanism. But this was sharply opposed by India and many other developing countries.

POST SEATTLE SCENARIO

India is taking advantage of this 'time out' to consolidate its position on issues of its interest in the WTO. Three pronged efforts have been launched which are as follows:

- (a) **On the one hand, India has continued to highlight the areas of its concern at important bilateral and multilateral meetings, which have been as follows :**

In his meeting with the Director General WTO on 12th January 2000 at New Delhi Commerce and Industry Minister emphasised that globalisation has caused uneven growth, increasing the disparities between the richest and the poorest. This has to be addressed, inter alia, by addressing the implementation problems in existing Agreements and operationalising the special and differential clauses in favour of developing countries. A consensus could be reached only if the more controversial issues, such as non-trade related issues, could be eliminated from WTO.

In his statement at UNCTAD-X (Bangkok 13th February 2000), the Minister highlighted that "International rule making mustpermit flexibility and autonomy to developing countries to pursue their material development strategies on the basis of needs and aspirations of their people." He registered a strong protest on the part of the developing countries as to how issues extraneous to trade, such as labour standards, are sought to be put on the negotiating agenda, while, on the other hand issues such as the cross border movement of persons, a matter of great interest to developing countries is resisted by developed countries. On the margins of the UNCTAD Conference at Bangkok, he had also used this opportunity to have bilateral and plurilateral meetings with a view to evolve common stand on important WTO issues.

The UNCTAD Plan of Action has taken on board some of the important concerns of developing countries on implementation issues by inter alia recognising that "in the course of implementation of the WTO Agreements, most developing countries consider that certain imbalances and asymmetries exist" and that "these problems need to be addressed urgently so as to ensure that the multilateral trading system results in mutual benefits for all countries." India was also able to moderate the wording on global coherence as much as "coherence" has been diluted to "cooperation" in the critical portions of the UNCTAD-X Declaration and Plan of Action. India feels that strengthened 'coherence' between WTO and the UN organizations may lead to increased cross conditionalities which may narrow down our policy options for development. Thus our success in diluting the coherence brief in UNCTAD is significant.

(b) Under the second track of post-Seattle follow up Government has held consultations to appraise the situation arising out of the failure of the Seattle Ministerial Conference to reach consensus on major issues. A meeting of the Advisory Committee on International Trade was convened on February 3, 2000 to apprise the Committee of the important developments at and immediately after Seattle and seek the Committee's advice on the way forward. The gist of the Committee's advice to Government has been to ask Government to review the implementation issues and prioritise those which are of core interest; to ensure that our implementation demands are properly attuned to our autonomous programme of domestic economic liberalisation; to evolve a suitable response to a situation where even some of the developing countries are willing to accept some watered down version of a group on trade and labour in association with the WTO; and evolve our stand on environment so that we don't appear to be against protection of environment; to give adequate publicity to our positive record of adherence to ILO conventions and ongoing efforts for implementation of core labour standards; and to formulate a national consensus on biotechnology etc.

(c) The third strand of our post-Seattle approach has been, to participate actively in the meetings of the General Council of the WTO and its subsidiary bodies to continue to emphasise the areas of our concern. India has participated actively in the General Council meetings held post-Seattle on 17th December, 1999 and on 2nd, 7th and 29th February, 2000.

One of the most dramatic events that have taken place in later part of 20th century was culmination of GATT 1947 into WTO (The world Trade organization), which came into being on 1st January 2005. This WTO has set expectations high in various member countries (by now 149 including latest addition of Saudi Arabia) regarding spurt in world trade where India has insignificant share in the pie-Only 0.75% at the most. Even in IT exports the share of Indian exporters is just peanuts in view of overall world market.

Since formation of WTO there have been regular meetings of Ministerial Conferences (Highest Policy level body of WTO) religiously every 2 years and 5 such meetings have taken place while world prepares for the Hong Kong meeting to take place shortly, the sixth one.

PROBLEMS FACING INDIA IN WTO & ITS IMPLEMENTATION

There are several problems facing these Multilateral Trade agreements:

- Predominance of developed nations in negotiations extracting more benefits from developing and least developed countries
- Resource and skill limitations of smaller countries to understand and negotiate under rules of various agreements under WTO

- Incompatibility of developed and developing countries resource sizes thereby causing distortions in implementing various decisions
- Questionable effectiveness in implementation of agreements reached in past and sincerity
- Non-tariff barriers being created by developed nations.
- Regional cooperation groups posing threat to utility of WTO agreement itself, which is multilateral encompassing all member countries
- Poor implementation of Doha Development Agenda
- Agriculture seems to be bone of contention for all types of countries where France, Japan and some countries are just not willing to budge downwards in matter of domestic support and export assistance to farmers and exporters of agriculture produce.
- Dismantling of MFA (Multi Fiber Agreement) and its likely impact on countries like India
- Under TRIPS question of high cost of Technology transfer, Bio Diversity protection, protection of Traditional Knowledge and Folk arts, protection of Bio Diversities and geographical Indications of origin, for example Basmati, Mysore Dosa or Champagne. The protection has been given so far in wines and spirits that suit US and European countries.

IMPLICATIONS FOR INDIA

It appears that India does not stand to gain much by shouting for agriculture reforms in developed countries because the overall tariff is lower in those countries. India will have to start major reforms in agriculture sector in India to make Agriculture globally competitive. Same way it is questionable if India will be major beneficiary in dismantling of quotas, which were available under MFA for market access in US and some EU countries. It is likely that China, Germany, North African countries, Mexico and such others may reap benefit in textiles and Clothing areas unless India embarks upon major reforms in modernization and up gradation of textile sector including apparels.

Some of Singapore issues are also important like Government procure, Trade and Investment, Trade facilitation and market access mechanism.

In Pharma-sector there is need for major investments in R &D and mergers and restructuring of companies to make them world class to take advantage. India has already amended patent Act and both product and Process are now patented in India. However, the large number of patents going off in USA recently, gives the Indian Drug companies windfall opportunities, if tapped intelligently. Some companies in India have organized themselves for this.

Excerpts from Speech of Ramkrishna Hegde, the then Minister, at Geneva in 1998-

"In order to make WTO an effective multilateral body, which serves the objectives for which it was set up, it is necessary to go back to the basic principles. The Uruguay Round negotiators had stated their intentions quite clearly in the Preamble to the Marrakesh Agreement establishing the WTO. They recognised "that their relations in the field of trade and economic endeavour should be conducted with a view to raising standards of living, ensuring full employment and a large and steadily growing volume of real income and effective demand, and expanding the production of and trade in goods and services, while allowing for the optimal use of the world's resources in accordance with the objective of sustainable development, seeking both to protect and preserve the environment and to enhance the means for doing so in a manner consistent with their respective needs and concerns at different levels of economic development. They recognized also "that there is need for positive efforts designed to ensure that developing countries, and especially the least developed among them, secure a share in the growth in international trade commensurate with the needs of their economic development".

THE OBJECTIVE OF WTO REITERATED

It is very clear that the intention of the negotiators was to use trade as an instrument for development, to raise standards of living, expand production, keeping in view, particularly, the needs of developing countries and least-developed countries. The WTO must never lose sight of this basic principle. Every act of implementation and of negotiation, every legal decision, has to be viewed in this context. Trade, as an instrument for development, should be the cornerstone of all our deliberations, decisions and actions. Besides, the system should be seen to be equitable and fair. It must be used in such a manner that the letter and spirit of the Agreements is fully observed. The WTO Members must mutually support and encourage each other to achieve

the final goal. It must be recognized that all Members should assume a negotiating rather than an adversarial posture. It should also be recognized that different economies have different features and structures, different problems, different cultures. The pace of change must be carefully calibrated to take into account such differences. All Members should guard against unilateral action that cuts at the root of multilateral agreement and consensus.

Developing countries have generally been apprehensive in particular about the implementation of special and differential treatment provisions (S&D) in various Uruguay Round Agreements. Full benefits of these provisions have not accrued to the developing countries, as clear guidelines have not been laid down on how these are to be implemented. "

The first Ministerial Conference held in 1996 in Singapore saw the commencement of pressures to enlarge the agenda of WTO. Pressures were generated to introduce new Agreements on Investment, Competition Policy, Transparency in Government Procurement and Trade Facilitation. The concept of Core Labor Standards was also taken up for introduction.

India and the developing countries, which were already under the burden of fulfilling the commitments undertaken through the Uruguay Round Agreements, and who also perceived many of the new issues to be non-trade issues, resisted the introduction of these new subjects into WTO. They were partly successful. The Singapore Ministerial Conference (SMC) set up open-ended Work Program to study the relationship between Trade and Investment; Trade and Competition Policy; to conduct a study on Transparency in Government Procurement practices; and do analytical work on simplification of trade procedures (Trade Facilitation).

Most importantly the SMC clearly declared on the Trade-Labor linkage as follows:

" We reject the use of labor standards for protectionist purposes, and agree that the comparative advantage of countries, particularly low-wage developing countries, must in no way be put into question. In this regard we note that the WTO and ILO Secretariat will continue their existing collaboration".

Not many people in this country are aware that there is a dispute settlement system in the WTO. This is at the heart of the WTO and sets it apart from the earlier GATT. Countries like the USA and the European Union have brought cases against us and won these cases like in pharmaceutical patents. India too has complained against the US and Europe and it too has won its fair share of disputes in areas like textiles. India must effectively use this mechanism to extract fair share in world markets. It would be advantageous for India to give concrete shape to SAARC economic forum or free market and align itself with ASEAN.

WTO'S CONCERNS FOR INDIA

Developing countries have generally been apprehensive in particular about the implementation of special and differential treatment provisions in various Uruguay Round Agreements. Full benefits of these provisions have not accrued to the developing countries, as clear guidelines have not been laid down on how these are to be implemented. A case in point is Article 15 of the Anti-Dumping Agreement, which explicitly says that "special regard must be given by developed country Members to the special situation of developing country Members" in applying such measures and that "constructive remedies provided for by this Agreement shall be explored before applying anti- dumping duties where they would affect the essential interests of developing country Members".

In actual practice, we have faced situations in which our products have been subjected to repeated anti-dumping actions and levy of provisional duties, creating an atmosphere of uncertainty and instability in the market, thus resulting in closure of smaller units and unemployment. Another example is Article XVIII:B of GATT which provides for a special dispensation for developing countries in the institution and maintenance of quantitative restrictions on imports. This Article clearly lays down that quantitative restrictions may be imposed and maintained by a developing country "to ensure a level of reserves adequate for the implementation of its programme of economic development". However, in actual practice we find that the development dimension is totally ignored while assessing the adequacy or otherwise of foreign exchange reserves, with the result that there is no distinction between Articles XII and XVIII. All developing countries are firmly of the view that development has to be brought back to the centre stage of WTO activities, as was intended by the Uruguay Round negotiators.

Another issue of deep concern is the trend towards unilateral action by certain developed countries in total disregard of provisions laid down in the Uruguay Round Agreements. We are forced, at great expense and considerable difficulty, to take such issues to the dispute settlement mechanism. Distinguished delegates are aware that developing countries and least-developed countries have to battle against resource constraints and

shortage of skills and expertise in these areas. Such unilateral action, I have no hesitation to say, bring to disrepute the entire multilateral trading system which we have struggled to build over the years. This would necessarily slow down the impetus for reform in all developing countries.

There has also been an increasing trend in the recent past in favour of regionalism. While regional economic groupings have resulted in increased trade among countries in the region, there is inherent danger of discrimination against third countries. Article XXIV of GATT specifically recognises regional arrangements as an exception to the multilateral system. While we recognise the positive effect of regional groupings that are consistent with the principles of the multilateral trading system and also the special needs of developing countries as enunciated in the Enabling Clause, we fear that the proliferation of such arrangements may weaken the framework of the system. The rules relating to such regional arrangements need to be clear and precise and should ensure that market access for third countries is not denied or reduced. Otherwise, we will, over the years, have a situation where the multilateral system becomes largely irrelevant.

The implementation aspects of the Uruguay Round Agreements need to be given special attention. We have been articulating from time to time our concerns regarding the implementation of the Agreement on Textiles and Clothing. At the Singapore Conference, we had drawn the attention of Members to the adverse impact on our exports of actions taken under this Agreement, such as the series of transitional safeguard measures, which were subsequently found to be inconsistent even with the provisions of the Agreement. We have taken careful note of the First Major Review of the Agreement conducted by the Council for Trade in Goods earlier this year. It is a matter of deep concern to us to note that, in spite of the provisions negotiated by us to ensure a commercially meaningful phasing out of restrictions maintained under the MFA regime, the review confirmed that the bulk of restrictions would get integrated into the GATT 1994 only at the end of the transition period.

CONCLUSION

The unit threw light on economic reforms in India. Three phases of these reforms were discussed in detail. The post independence period of India was marked by economic policies which tried to make the country self sufficient. Under the economic reform, stress was given more to development of defense, infrastructure and agricultural sectors.

During the mid 1960 effort was made to make India self sufficient and also increase the production and export of the food grains. To make the plan a success, huge scale agricultural development was undertaken. Due to the fall of the Soviet Union and the problems in balance of payment accounts, the country faced economic crisis and the IMF asked for the bailout loan. To get out of the situation, the then Finance Minister, Manmohan Singh initiated the economic liberation reform in the year 1991. Internal and external causes of these reforms were discussed in the later section. The change of globalization and its impacts along with brighter and darker sides are revealed. Finally the initiatives taken by WTO to support India's economic growth were discussed in detail.

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ELECTIONS IN INDIA AND REPRESENTATION OF PEOPLES ACT: A STUDY**Deepom Baruah**

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ABSTRACT

Election is considered to be of paramount importance in a country having a democratic and Parliamentary form of government, like India. The preamble to our Constitution declares India to be a sovereign democratic republic. Under the Indian legal system there are various laws, which directly or indirectly deal with the entire political process of the country. The Constitution of India also contains various provisions relating to the conduct of electoral process in the country. India has a comprehensive structure of laws to administer and conduct its elections. The formal legal framework for all these elections rests on certain provisions of the Constitution, The Representation of the People's Act 1950, The Representation of the People's Act 1951, and the various rules and regulations framed and orders issued under these statutes largely control the electoral poll process of the country. In this article an attempt shall be made to analyse the efficacy of the Representation of Peoples act for providing a free and fair election in India.

Key words: Election, Representation, Law

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

To find out the efficacy of the Representation of Peoples act for providing a free and fair election in India.

METHODOLOGY

The present paper is primarily based on secondary sources like law Reports, Books, Journals and online database. The methods used are historical, Narrative and analytical.

INTRODUCTION

The Representation of Peoples Act (RPAct) provides for the administration of elections in India. The RP act is primarily responsible for ensuring a free and fair election in India.

The provisions relating to administration of elections as contained under the Representation of People's Act, 1951 are:

1. Sections 3-6, which deals with qualification of candidates for Parliament as well as State Legislative Assemblies and Legislative Councils.
2. Section 7-11 deals with disqualification of candidates on grounds of their being convicted for certain offences under the Indian Penal Code or some other Acts of Parliament, electoral offences like impersonation, bribery as well as on grounds of corrupt practices and for failure to lodge account of election expenses.
3. Sections 19-25 provide details of the administrative machinery for conducting elections.
4. Section 29A deals with the registration of political parties.
5. Section 58A empowers the Election Commission for suspension of a poll or for countermanding of elections.
6. Section 77 lays down that an account of all expenditure by the candidate and his election agent is kept but explanation (1) excludes expenditure made by his political party or any others from such account.
7. Section 79-122 lay down the procedure for dealing with electoral disputes and disposal of election petitions.
8. Sections 123-136 specifies in detail corrupt practices and electoral offences and punishments prescribed for the same.

The Representation of the People's Act 1950 and Representation of the People's Act 1951, between them provide for the allocation of seats, delimitation of constituencies, and preparation of electoral rolls and conduct of elections. Some of the important provisions of the Act are.

1. Sections 13A – 13CC which deal with the electoral organization at the State and district level.
2. Section 14-25 provide for the preparation of electoral rolls for each constituency under the supervision, direction and control of the Election Commission and cover the qualifications and disqualifications for registration of an elector and other conditions applicable to the preparation and revision of the electoral rolls.

3. Section 32 deals with punishment in case of breach of official duty in connection with the preparation of electoral rolls.

The RP Act contains a very detailed provisions for ensuring free and fair elections in India. But, even then the act has not been able to stop the entry of criminals into the politics. The provisions relating to disqualification are designed in such a way that it provides ample opportunity for a person having criminal background to contest an election. In the past a lot of attempts have been made to rectify this situation but still the problem exists in India.

There were grave incongruities in the existing provisions of the Representation of People's Act 1951, especially in section 8 of the Representation of People's Act 1951.

Section 8(A) of the Representation of People's Act 1951 provides for disqualification on the ground of corrupt practices. The current practice is that once the High Court hands out the judgment on an election petition holding the candidate guilty of corrupt practices, the case goes to the Secretary of the concerned State Legislature or Secretary General Lok Sabha or Rajya Sabha, as the case may be. It is then forwarded to the President of India who in turn forwards it to the Election Commission. Only then does the EC get the jurisdiction to tender its opinion to the President based on which the disqualification order is issued. The Vohra Committee has strongly recommended for the amendment of the said provision, thereby giving the power to the President to determine the period of disqualification under section 8(A) on the direct opinion of the Election Commission and avoid delay currently experienced. This can be done by resorting to the position prevailing before the 1975 amendment to Representation of Peoples Act, 1951.

It is not as if there is no law to prevent criminals from contesting elections. The election law specifically provides for disqualifying convicted criminals from contesting elections. It is time that the Representation of People Act is amended suitably. For this purpose distinction is to be made between disqualification of a candidate and unfitness of a candidate. The former would mean, as defined in the Representation of People's Act, 1951 being disqualified for being chosen as, and for being a member of either house of Parliament or of the Legislative Assembly or Legislative Council of a state. The latter will permit a candidate to contest the election and it will be left to the people to decide, on the basis of full information about the candidate, whether to elect him as their representative even after knowing his criminal background. The Representation of People's Act, 1951 makes a distinction between the offences for disqualification of a person. Thus, for certain offences, disqualification runs for a period of six years from the date of conviction. For example, people who have been found guilty of committing any of the following criminal offences by a competent Court is disqualified for a period of six years from the date of conviction. In certain other cases the disqualification is from the date of such conviction and person continues to be disqualified for a further period of six years after his release. These distinctions need to be reviewed.

Offences under section 8(1) of the Representation of People's Act on the basis of which a person can be disqualified are:

- (i) Promoting enmity and inciting hatred between members of different religious and linguistic groups;
- (ii) Offences related to rape;
- (iii) Practicing and/or preaching untouchability
- (iv) Involving in bribery or corruption;
- (v) Offence of undue influence or personation at an election
- (vi) Section 3 (offence of committing terrorist Acts) or section 4 (offence of committing disruptive Activities) of the Terrorist and Disruptive Activities (Prevention) Act, 1987 (28 of 1987); or
- (vii) Beating one's wife;
- (viii) Insulting the National Flag and preventing the singing of the National Anthem;
- (ix) Offences related to drug trafficking;
- (x) Importing or exporting prohibited goods;
- (xi) Offences related to illegal transactions in foreign currency;
- (xii) Misusing places of worship;
- (xiii) Electoral offences like booth capturing, taking away ballot papers from the booth, and,

- (xiv) Fraudulently defacing or destroying ballot papers and
- (xv) Offence of making statement creating or promoting enmity, hatred or ill-will between classes or offence relating to such statement in any place of worship or in any assembly engaged in the performance of religious worship or religious ceremonies) of the Indian Penal Code (45 of 1860);.
- (xvi) Section 6 (offence of conversion of a place of worship) of the Places of Worship (Special Provisions) Act, 1991 or,
- (xvii) Section 2 (offence of insulting the Indian National Flag or the Constitution of India) or section 3 (offence of preventing singing of National Anthem) of the Prevention of Insults to National Honour Act, 1971 (69 of 1971),
- (xviii) 4[(I) The Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act, 1987 (3 of 1988);

If a person has been convicted of the following offences and sentenced to a prison term of not less than six months he/she will be disqualified from the date of being found guilty and for a further period of six years from the date of release from prison-

- (1) Offences related to dowry taking or giving;
- (2) Adulterating food and medicines and
- (3) Hoarding and profiteering illegally.

In case of a person who has been dismissed from government service on charges of corruption is disqualified for a period of five years from the date of dismissal. If a candidate has not filed details about the money spent on elections by him/her the Election Commission can disqualify such a person for three years.

Furthermore if a person has been found guilty of committing any criminal offence other than those mentioned above and have been sentenced to prison for a term of two years or more he/she will be disqualified from the date of such conviction and for a further period of six years after release from prison. This provision in the election law covers grave offences like murder, kidnapping, dacoity, arson and indulging communal riots. A glaring anomaly is in respect of Section 8 (4) the Representation of People's Act 1951, which gives incumbent legislators, limited immunity from disqualification. If an incumbent is convicted for an offence, disqualification does not come into effect for three months and if during that period, he appeals against the conviction, then disqualification will not come into effect until the appeal is disposed off. The intention of lawmakers is evidently to prevent a needless vacancy and by-election if the legislator is eventually acquitted. Such immunity, however, cannot be given to the incumbent for the next general election, when he is a candidate. The law should be amended to make it clear that a convicted legislator will stand on the same footing as any other convicted person in respect of the election after the expiry of his term.

In *Lily Thomas v. Union of India*, the Supreme Court of India has recently strike down section 8(4) as violative of the constitutional provisions. Now even if appeal is preferred against the order of conviction it would not have any effect on disqualification and the person shall stand disqualified.

Illustrating this further, in case relating to a rapist, convicted and sentenced to ten years imprisonment, being disqualified only for six years under sub section (1) and while not be able to vote, being free to contest elections even while serving the last four years of his sentence in prison.

Further in this regard the Law Commission of India has advanced some suggestions to remove the difficulties and to curb the problem of criminalisation of politics, they are.

- (1) There has been mounting corruption in all walks of public life. People are generally lured to enter politics or contest elections for getting rich overnight. Before allowing people to enter public life, the public has a right to know the antecedents of such persons. The existing conditions in which people can freely enter the political arena without demur, especially without the electorate knowing about any details of assets possessed by the candidate are far from satisfactory. It is essential by law to provide that a candidate seeking election shall furnish the details of all his assets (movable/immovable) possessed by him/her, wife/husband and dependent relations, duly supported by an affidavit.
- (2) In view of the recommendations of the Law Commission for debarring a candidate from contesting an election if charges have been framed against him by a Court in respect of offences mentioned in the proposed section 8-B of the Act, it is also necessary for a candidate seeking to contest election to furnish details regarding criminal case, if any, pending against him, including a copy of the FIR complaint and any order made by the concerned Court.

- (3) In order to achieve, the aforesaid objectives, it is essential to insert a new Section 4-A after the existing Section 4 of the Representation of the People's Act. 1951, as follows:

[4A. Qualification for membership of the House of the People, the Council of States, Legislative Assembly of a State or Legislative Council]:

A person shall not be qualified to file his nomination for contesting any election for a seat in the House of the People, the Council of States Legislature Assembly or Legislative Council of a State unless he or she files —

- (a) A declaration of all his assets (movable/immovable) possessed by him/her, his/her spouse and dependent relations, duly supported by an affidavit, and,
- (b) A declaration as to whether any charge in respect of any offence referred to in Section 8B has been framed against him by any Criminal Court"

Basically, the existing disqualification provisions under Section 8 only apply to cases of conviction. The real problem is that criminal cases are taking an interminably long time for disposal; once an accused is elected during the trial period, he has the advantage of twisting the arms of the police and prosecution to dilute the case or he pressurizes the government to withdraw charges against him. This is the chief reason why a political office is very attractive to persons with criminal antecedents. Obviously, the solution lies in disqualification persons facing criminal charges from contesting elections. But such blanket disqualification is opposed on two grounds:

- 1. The person is presumed innocent until proven guilty.
- 2. Disqualification of a person against whom charges are framed would be unfair denial of his rights. But there are two arguments to counter this line of thinking.

First, disqualification is not conviction or pronouncement of guilt. Right to contest for elective office is only a legal right of a citizen, and not a fundamental right. The citizen can always contest after charges are cleared against him. And if he does not contest during trial, there is no irreversible damage to him in the form of violation of fundamental rights. Public office is nobody's birthright.

Second, in matters of election and representation, the people's rights are fundamental. If there is a clash between the people's right to have good representation, and an individual's right to represent the people, then the society's right should have precedence. Such as the right to privacy, which is subjected to public interest that is when public interest is bigger than the individual's right to privacy, then such right must be exercised keeping in mind the interest of the society.

But there is a more serious objection to blanket disqualification of all candidates facing charges. Our criminal justice system is far from perfect. Often, trumped-up charges are leveled against innocent rivals. Crime investigation is not always professional or impartial. If we start disqualifying candidates on the basis of malicious charges or politically motivated charges, we will have reduced our democracy to the level of Pakistan of Iran. Given the state of our politics, policing and justice delivery such blanket disqualification is both unwise and dangerous. It means murderers and mafia dons can continue to be elected, pressurize police and governments, escape scot-free, and undermine the principles of Democracy. Obviously, we must find a realistic solution between the two extremes of disqualification for all pending charges, and even a murderer enjoying the right to contest until he is convicted.

This shows that the provisions of the Representation of People's Act, 1951 needs to be examined afresh in the light of the experience of the working of democracy in the last 65 years, without such vigilance, democracy in India may remain only in form and on paper.

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A STUDY OF RURAL TELECOMMUNICATION INFRASTRUCTURE IN INDIA**Dr. Pradeepta Kumar Samanta**Associate Professor, National Institute of Construction Management and Research (NICMAR), Pune

ABSTRACT

The telecom sector, termed as one of the fastest moving sector in the country after the enunciation of the reform era in 1991. It has witnessed an unprecedented growth and played a vital role in the country's growth story by contributing nearly 2 per cent to the GDP. As one of the key elements of inclusive growth in India, the overall teledensity in the urban and rural areas was 145.78 and 43.96 respectively as on March 31, 2014. The teledensity in the rural areas has made tremendous growth during the last decade, but still a significant investment is required in order to increase the reach and provide affordable and quality telecom services in the rural areas. The paper discusses the present status of telecom infrastructure in India with special reference to rural telecom infrastructure in India.

Keywords: Telecom infrastructure, Teledensity, TRAI, USOF, GDP.

INTRODUCTION

Telecommunication is considered as an essential infrastructure for socio-economic development in an increasingly knowledge intensive world. The reach of telecom services to all parts of the country is integral to development of an innovative and technologically driven society. Research studies have shown that there is a positive correlation between the penetration of internet and mobile services on the growth of GDP of a country. Communication technologies help in poverty reduction in three ways: (i) increasing the efficiency of the individual and thereby, of the entire economy, (ii) ensuring better delivery of public services, such as health and education, and (iii) creating new sources of employment, income, and training particularly for the poor population.

Indian Council for Research on International Economic Relations (ICRIER) 2012 study based on a rich data set of 19 states for 10 years, found that a 10 per cent increase in mobile penetration leads to a 1.5 per cent increase in state gross domestic product (GDP), while a 10 per cent increase in internet subscribers leads to a 1.08 per cent increase in state per capita GDP (Kathuria and Kedia-Jaju 2012). Another study in 2007 showed how fishermen in Kerala have been using mobile phones since 1997 to call coastal markets while still at sea to find best prices for their catch. This led to lower wastage, reduced variability in prices, increased profits and reduced prices (Jensen 2007). In a survey conducted by National Council of Applied Economic Research-Centre for Macro Consumer Research, comprising 8,000 rural households across four states, mobile phones emerged as a dominant source of entertainment ahead of traditional modes such as TV and radio (NCAER-CMCR 2011).

The Indian telecommunication industry is one of the fastest growing in the world. Government policies and regulatory framework implemented by Telecom Regulatory authority of India (TRAI) have provided a favourable environment for service providers. This has made the sector more competitive while enhancing the accessibility of telecommunication services at affordable tariffs to the consumers. The Indian telecom sector has witnessed tremendous growth over the past two decades. Today, the Indian telecom network is the second largest in the world after China. A liberal policy regime and involvement of the private sector have played an important role in transforming this sector during the past two decades.

TELECOM INFRASTRUCTURE IN INDIA

The Indian telecom sector was operated entirely by the government till 1984. In 1985 the Department of Telecommunications (DoT) was created as a separate department to serve as primary policy-maker and regulator for the telecom industry. The telecom sector was opened for private firms in 1991 for providing value added tele-services other than fixed telephony. Government of India released the National Telecom Policy in 1994 and established the Telecom Regulatory Authority of India (TRAI) in 1997. Tele-density, which denotes the number of telephones per 100 populations, is an indicator of telecom penetration in the country. The tele-density in India in 1948 was 0.02 per cent. All Five Year Plans and successive governments placed strong emphasis on telecom development. Yet in 1998, the tele-density was only 1.94 per cent, displaying an incremental growth of 1.92 per cent in the fifty year period post-independence, indicating an average yearly growth of 0.04 per cent. After the introduction of telecom regulation in 1997 and liberalization of the sector, growth accelerated 12.5 times over the non-liberalized monopoly years. Competition regulation was introduced in 2003 and it led to a growth of 2 per cent in 2003-04 and again in 2004-05 which resulted in increase in tele-density by about 3 per cent in 2005-06. Further, the tele-density in the country, which was 73.32 per cent as on April 1, 2013, increased to 75.23 per cent at the end of March 2014. The rural tele-density increased from 41.05

per cent to 44.01 per cent during this period. Urban tele-density, however, registered a decline from 146.64 per cent to 145.46 per cent during this period (*Table 1 & 2*).

Table 1 : Overall Subscriber base and Teledensity as on March 31, 2014

Particulars	Wireless	Wireline	Total (Wireless + Wireline)
Total Subscribers (Million)	904.51	28.49	933.00
Urban Subscribers (Million)	532.73	22.53	555.26
Rural Subscribers (Million)	371.78	5.96	377.73
Overall Tele-density	72.94	2.30	75.23
Urban Tele-density	139.86	5.91	145.78
Rural Tele-density	43.27	0.69	43.96
Share of Urban Subscribers	58.90%	79.09%	59.51%
Share of Rural Subscribers	41.10%	20.91%	40.49%
No. of Broadband Subscribers (Million)	46.01	14.86	60.87

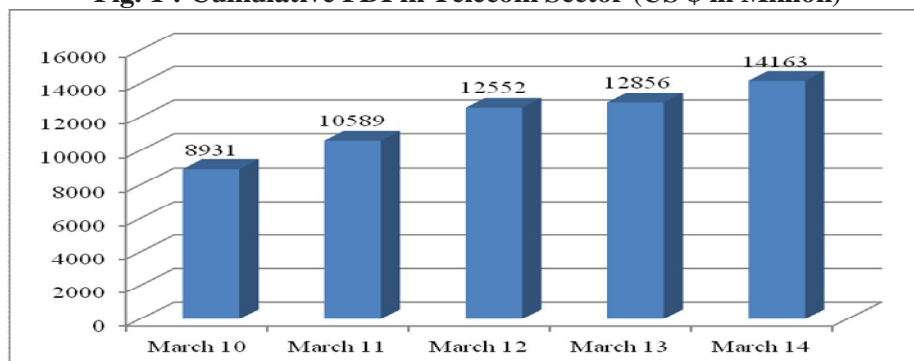
Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

Table 2 : Telecom Development Indicators as on March 31, 2014

Sl. No.	Item		At the end of March			
			2011	2012	2013	2014
1		Overall	846.33	951.35	898.02	933.02
2		Wire line	34.73	32.17	30.21	28.50
3	Number of Telephones (in million)	Wireless	811.60	919.17	867.81	904.52
4		Rural	282.29	330.83	349.21	377.78
5		Urban	564.04	620.52	548.80	555.23
6	Tele-density (Telephones per 100 persons)	Overall	70.89	78.66	73.32	75.23
7		Rural	33.83	39.26	41.05	44.01
8		Urban	156.93	169.17	146.64	145.46
9	% age share	Wireless	95.90	96.62	96.64	96.95
10		Public	14.89	13.69	14.49	12.87
11		Private	85.11	86.31	85.51	87.13
12	% age growth of Total Telephones-over previous year		36.22	12.41	(-)5.61	3.90

Source: Annual Report 2013-14, Dept. of Telecommunications, GoI.

Fig. 1 : Cumulative FDI in Telecom Sector (US \$ in Million)



Source: Annual Report 2013-14, Dept. of Telecommunications, GoI.

The private operators played a prominent role in the post-1998 growth of the telecom sector. The public sector operators expanded their subscriber base during 1998–2006 by 32 million and the subscriber base for private sector was 80 million during the period. It is remarkable that public sector undertakings whose growth was very slow during the monopoly period of 1948 to 1998, that is, about 0.3 million subscribers every year, increased to about 5 million subscribers every year during the period 1998 to 2005. The public–private cooperation and competition led to immense improvement in the performance of both the public and private sectors.

The telecom sector witnessed a substantial increase in the number of subscribers during the year 2013-14. At the end of financial year 2013-14, the overall telecom subscriber base has increased to 933.00 million as compared to 898.02 Million at the end of financial year 2012-13 an increase of 34.94 million. While the wireless telephones continued to grow, the landline telephones kept declining. The number of landline telephones, which was 30.21 million in the beginning of the year 2013- 14 declined to 28.50 million at the end of March 2014. On the other hand the number of wireless telephones increased from 867.81 million to 904.52 million during this period. As a result, the share of wireless telephones increased from 96.64 per cent at the end of March 2013 to 96.95 per cent as on end March 2014.

During the post-reform period, there has been a continuous rise in the number of telephones of the private sector operators in the Indian Telecom Sector. The total number of telephones of the private sector increased from 767.91 million as on March 31, 2013 to 812.96 million at the end of March 2014. On the other hand, the number of telephones of the public sector declined from 130.11 million to 120.05 million during this period. As a result, the share of private sector increased from 85.51 per cent in the beginning of the financial year to 87.13 per cent at the end of March, 2014, whereas the share of public sector declined from 14.49 per cent to 12.87 per cent during the same period. The private sector, now, dominates the Indian Telecom Sector (*Refer Table 7*).

RURAL TELECOM INFRASTRUCTURE

Telecom regulations and the explosion of competition in the telecom market raised tele-density in India dramatically to 12.7 per cent in 2006 from 1.94 per cent in 1998. However, the rural tele-density was still hovering around 2 per cent from 0.4 per cent in 1998 as compared to the urban tele-density of 35 per cent. In metros like Delhi, Mumbai, Bangalore, and Chennai, the tele-density is around 50 per cent (TRAI 2005b). Since tele-density has a positive relationship with the level of development, the large gap between rural and urban tele-densities is a symptom of serious developmental policy issue. The subsequent policies concentrated more on penetration of telephone networks in the rural areas by analysing the causes as well as devising strategies for bridging the gap.

REASONS FOR NOT DEVELOPING OF TELECOMMUNICATIONS IN RURAL AREAS

Some of the reasons due to which the Telecommunications in rural areas in our Country have not developed in the past includes:

- Inadequate Business Models due to various reasons
- Low Population Density
- Low Income Levels
- Lower Literacy Levels
- Preference of operators for high earning areas initially
- Technology Limitations and High Costs of Delivery
- Some other factors related to policies and priorities

INITIATIVES FOR IMPROVEMENT IN RURAL TELECOM INFRASTRUCTURE

Universal Service Obligation Fund (USOF)

The Government in June, 2002 established a Universal Service Obligation Fund (USOF) by an Act of Parliament to give further impetus to the rural telephony. Subsequently the scope of USOF was widened to provide subsidy support for enabling access to all types of telegraph services including mobile services, broadband connectivity and creation of infrastructure like optical fibre in rural and remote areas. Therefore, various schemes have been launched by USOF for provision of telecom services in rural and remote areas of the country. The Universal Access Levy (UAL) collection in 2013-2014 was \$ 7,885 crore and subsidy disbursed during the said period was \$ 2163.45 crore.

National Telecom Policy : 2012 (NTP-2012)

The Government announced National Telecom Policy (NTP-2012) in 2012. The main objectives of the policy, *inter-alia*, include increase in rural tele-density to 70 per cent by the year 2017 and 100 per cent by the year 2020, 175 million broadband connections by 2017 and 600 million by the year 2020 at minimum 2 Mbps download speed and making available higher speeds of at least 100 Mbps on demand. Pursuant to NTP-2012, unified licence, merger and acquisition guidelines, clarity on spectrum pricing and auction are major initiatives taken by the Government to boost investment and employment opportunities in the telecom sector.

National Optical Fibre Network (NOFN)

The central Government approved a project called 'National Optical Fiber Network' to connect all 2.5 lakh Gram Panchayats in the country. Under this, non-discriminatory access to the network will be provided to all the telecom service providers like mobile, Internet and cable TV in rural areas. The project is being executed by a Special Purpose Vehicle (SPV), namely, Bharat Broadband Networks Limited (BBNL). Three pilot projects have been completed to cover all 59 Gram Panchayats of Araian Block in Ajmer District (Rajasthan), Panisagar Block in North Tripura and Paravada Block in Vishakapatnam (Andhra Pradesh). As of June 2011, 133,712 out of 247,864 GPs had been covered. The amount disbursed under the project till the end of March 2014 is \$ 919 crore. The NOFN project is scheduled to be completed by December, 2016.

Mobile Communication Services in Left Wing Extremism affected areas

The Government has approved a proposal on June 2013 to install mobile towers at 2199 identified locations (mostly in rural and remote areas) in 9 Left Wing Extremism affected States (Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal) at the cost of \$ 3046 crore. The work has been awarded to Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited (BSNL) and the project would be funded by USOF for five years.

Shared Mobile Infrastructure Scheme

Shared Mobile Infrastructure Scheme was launched by USOF to provide subsidy support for setting up and managing 7,353 infrastructure sites/towers in 500 districts spread over 27 states for provision of mobile services in the specified rural and remote areas, where there was no existing fixed wireless or mobile coverage. Till the closure of the scheme (as on November 2013), 7317 towers were set up. The infrastructure so created is being shared by three service providers for provision of mobile services. 16,254 Base Transceiver Stations (BTSS) have been commissioned by service providers at these towers for provisioning of mobile services.

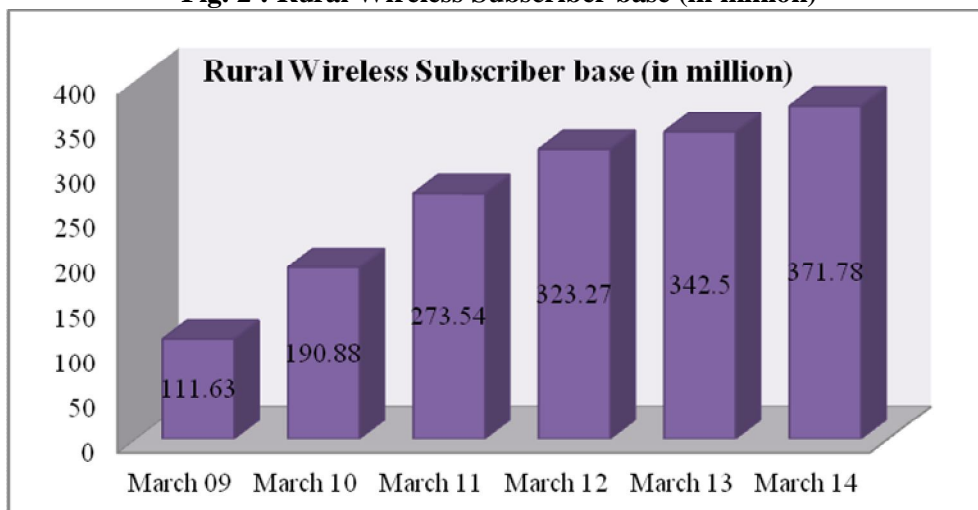
Rural Wire-line Broadband Scheme

Seventy percent of the Indian population lives in rural areas. Only 5 per cent of broadband connections are available in rural areas, as compared to 41 per cent of total mobile telephone connections. The primary cause of low broadband penetration in rural areas is non-availability of required transmission media connectivity in villages, high cost of service roll-out, and lack of a viable business model. For providing wire-line broadband connectivity up to village level in rural and remote areas, USOF signed an agreement with BSNL under the Rural Wire-line Broadband Scheme to provide wire-line broadband connectivity to rural & remote areas by leveraging the existing rural exchanges infrastructure and copper wire-line network. The speed of each of the broadband connections shall be at least 512 Kbps. The rural broadband connectivity will cover Government, institutional users, gram panchayats, higher secondary schools, public health centres and individual users. Subsidy will also be provided for setting one kiosk from each rural exchange for providing public access to broadband services. Under this scheme, BSNL is to provide 8,88,832 wire-line Broadband connections to individual users and Government Institutions and set up 28,672 kiosks by the year 2015. The estimated subsidy outflow is \$ 1,500 crore. As on March 31, 2014 a total of 5,89,783 broadband connections have been provided and 14186 kiosks set up in rural and remote areas. The subsidy disbursed under wire-line broadband scheme is \$ 329.55 crore till March 2014.

RURAL TELEPHONE NETWORK**Wireless**

Low cost wireless solutions are now available for rural areas at affordable prices. Business innovations such as pre-pay options have reduced the entry price at the lower end of the market and enabled easy access for multiple services in areas where fixed telephone infrastructure is poor. Inclusion of rural users in the customer base will strengthen the network and enable it to deliver multiple services in communication-starved rural areas. Since the prices of wireless telephony and communications both at the entry level as well as the recurring expenses have come down drastically due to overall growth, there is a huge demand for such services in rural areas also. However, dispersed and low density rural markets make it less profitable for private operators to enter such areas and compete with cheaper fixed line telecom rates in rural areas.

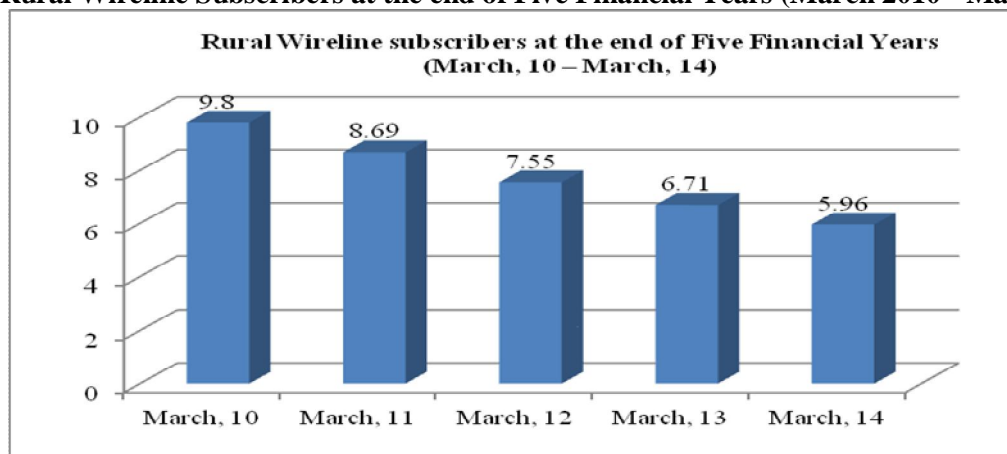
The wireless rural [Mobile and WLL (F)] market has reached 371.78 million mark as on March 31, 2014 as against 342.50 million as on 31st March 2013. As per the Performance Indicator Report, 41.10 per cent of total wireless subscribers are now in rural areas. The rural subscriber base since March 2009 is indicated in *Fig. 2*. The service provider wise rural wireless subscriber base & their market shares are shown in *Table 4* and *Fig. 4* respectively.

Fig. 2 : Rural Wireless Subscriber base (in million)

Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

Wireline

The rural wireline subscriber base is decreasing. As on 31st March, 2014, the rural wireline subscriber base stood at 5.96 million as compared to 6.71 million at the end of March 31, 2013. The service provider-wise wireline rural subscriber base & their market share and Rural Wireline subscribers at the end of last four quarters are shown in *Table 5*. The market share of wireline service providers in rural areas is depicted in *Fig. 5*. The Rural Wireline subscriber base at the end of last five financial years is depicted at *Fig. 3*.

Fig. 3 : Rural Wireline Subscribers at the end of Five Financial Years (March 2010 - March 2014)

Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

Village Public Telephones (VPTs)

Under the Bharat Nirman Programme, 66,822 revenue villages not having telephone connectivity are to be provided with Village Public Telephone (VPT) facility. Out of these, 14,183 remotely located villages are to be provided VPTs through digital satellite phone terminals, while the remaining 52,639 villages are to be provided any other technology. An estimated sum of Rs 451 crore is likely to be disbursed as subsidy support towards these VPTs. The entire funding is to be met out of the Universal Service Obligation Fund (USOF). As on March 31, 2014, the total number of Village Public Telephones (VPTs) provided by the service providers were 5.89 lakh as against 5.90 lakh as on March 31, 2013. *Table 3* depicts the number of VPTs provided by service providers.

Table 3: Village Public Telephones in India as on March 31, 2013 and 2014

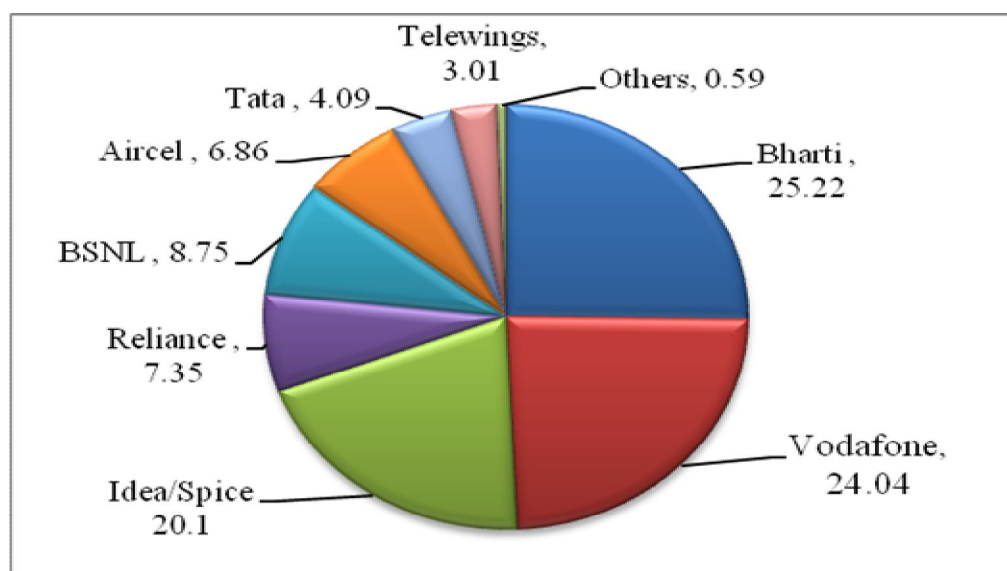
Sl. No.	Name of the Service Provider	As on March 31, 2013	As on March 31, 2014
1.	BSNL	5,82,969	5,81,924
2.	MTNL	0	0
3.	Private Operators	6,662	6,988
Total		5,89,631	5,88,912

Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

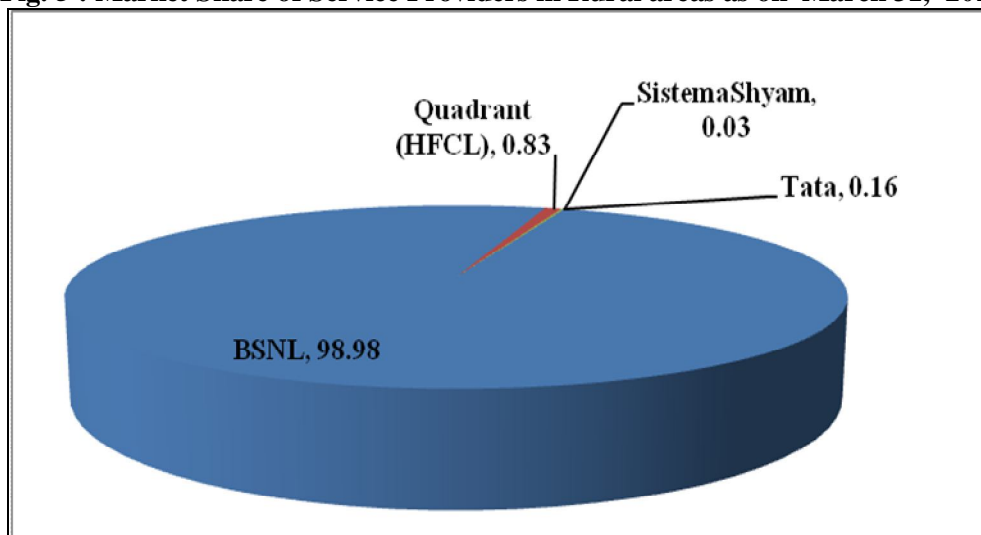
Table 4 : Service Provider-wise Rural Wireless Subscribers and Market Share as on March 31, 2013 and 2014

Sl. No.	Wireless Group	Subscribers as on March 2014 (in millions)	Subscribers as on March 2013 (in millions)	Rural Subscribers as on March 2014 (in millions)	Rural Subscribers as on March 2013 (in millions)	Market Share of Rural Subscribers (as on March 2014)	Market Share of Rural Subscribers (as on March 2013)
1.	Bharti	205.39	188.20	93.76	82.16	25.22	23.99
2.	Vodafone	166.56	152.35	89.39	82.29	24.04	24.02
3.	Idea/Spice	135.79	121.61	74.72	65.78	20.10	19.21
4.	Reliance	110.89	122.97	27.32	29.34	7.35	8.57
5.	BSNL	94.65	101.21	32.53	34.84	8.75	10.17
6.	Aircel	70.15	60.07	25.51	22.33	6.86	6.52
7.	Tata	63.00	66.42	15.19	13.78	4.09	4.02
8.	Telewings	35.61	31.68	11.20	10.04	3.01	2.93
9.	Sistema	9.04	11.91	2.11	1.93	0.57	0.56
10.	Videocon	4.99	2.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
11.	MTNL	3.37	5.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
12.	Loop	2.90	3.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
13.	Quadrant	2.17	1.37	0.05	0.04	0.02	0.01
Total		904.51	867.80	371.78	342.50	100.00	100.00

Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

Fig. 4 : Service Provider-wise Rural Wireless Subscribers and Market Share as on March 31, 2014


Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

Fig. 5 : Market Share of Service Providers in Rural areas as on March 31, 2014


Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

Table 5 : Service Provider-wise Rural Wireline Subscriber Base and Market Share

Sl. No.	Wireline Group	Total Wireline Subscribers (in million)		Rural Wireline Subscribers (in million)		Market Share of Wireline Rural Subscribers (in %)	
		March 2013	March 2014	March 2013	March 2014	March 2013	March 2014
1	BSNL	20.45	18.49	6.65	5.89	99.13%	98.98%
2	MTNL	3.46	3.54	0.00	0.00	0.00%	0.00%
3	Bharti	3.28	3.36	0.00	0.00	0.00%	0.00%
4	Reliance	1.24	0.21	0.002	0.000	0.03%	0.00%
5	Tata	1.51	0.06	0.048	0.01	0.71%	0.16%
6	Quadrant (HFCL)	0.19	1.55	0.00	0.05	0.00%	0.83%
7	Sistema Shyam	0.05	1.24	0.009	0.00	0.13%	0.03%
8	Vodafone	0.04	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.00%	0.00%
	Total	30.21	28.50	6.71	5.96	100.00%	100.00%

Source: TRAI Annual Report 2013-14

CONCLUSION

The Indian telecom market is expected to witness rapid growth in terms of subscribers and revenues in next few years. Development in rural telecom will be the next biggest change in the Indian telecom sector. With a huge population of 720 million in 630,000 villages across 3.2 million square km and a massive economy accounting for over 50 per cent of India's total GDP, rural India clearly represents a huge growth opportunity for the entire telecom ecosystem including telecom operators, value-added service providers, handsets, and equipment vendors. Improvement of rural telecommunications facilities in terms of issues of addressability, affordability, and attractiveness of the services will result in implementation of various e-governance initiatives such as e-health, e-banking, and e-education, thereby facilitating inclusive growth. This will provide additional employment, and in turn reduce migration of rural population to urban areas. It will also result in increased investment from the private sector, both for providing different services and for manufacturing broadband-related telecom equipment.

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Table 6: Telephone per 100 Population-Urban/Rural (Tele-density) as on March 31, 2013 & 2014

Sl. No.	Service Area	Tele-Density						Telephones						% of Rural Phones to Overall Phones	
		Overall		Urban		Rural		Overall		Urban		Rural			
		March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14
1	Andhra Pradesh	77.19	79.52	169.00	167.61	41.83	45.53	66602985	69194450	40546640	40610155	26056345	28584295	39.12%	41.31%
2	Assam	46.51	48.74	130.92	126.27	31.13	34.36	14582059	15462192	6327093	6265741	8254966	9196451	56.61%	59.48%
3	Bihar ¹	45.72	46.10	160.28	150.96	27.54	29.41	60695988	61966991	29146942	27863955	31549046	34103036	51.98%	55.03%
4	Gujarat	87.23	90.54	136.39	137.63	53.12	57.44	53485394	56227514	34257428	35279750	19227966	20947764	35.95%	37.26%
5	Haryana	76.44	81.44	113.51	121.39	56.78	59.77	20104063	21751303	10348181	11400273	9755882	10351030	48.53%	47.59%
6	Himachal Pradesh	105.39	105.59	347.42	325.88	74.50	77.08	7296012	7373458	2721722	2608116	4574290	4765342	62.70%	64.63%
7	Jammu & Kashmir	58.57	66.80	116.91	130.69	36.72	42.61	7041418	8125041	3830219	4365465	3211199	3759576	45.60%	46.27%
8	Karnataka	91.24	92.45	170.38	167.20	43.00	46.24	55358183	56637842	39151280	39131321	16206903	17506521	29.28%	30.91%
9	Kerala	96.09	96.19	196.11	189.65	61.93	64.34	33757486	34006214	17541057	17040735	16216429	16965479	48.04%	49.89%
10	Madhya Pradesh ²	53.55	56.04	115.09	116.34	30.91	33.67	53284642	56584457	30795197	31792710	22489445	24791747	42.21%	43.81%
11	Maharashtra ^a	73.97	77.32	113.60	116.26	52.43	55.82	70866861	74903431	38323465	40065662	32543396	34837769	45.92%	46.51%
12	North-East ³	67.78	69.97	151.53	153.02	40.57	42.68	9150426	9551079	5016351	5165564	4134075	4385515	45.18%	45.92%
13	Orissa	60.21	60.90	164.01	161.14	38.72	39.87	24976362	25473028	11671677	11690415	13304685	13782613	53.27%	54.11%

14	Punjab	103.00	107.23	151.96	154.34	67.16	71.96	30784480	32433318	19193802	19982848	11590678	12450470	37.65%	38.39%
15	Rajasthan	70.85	75.39	153.82	160.01	44.63	48.58	49612171	53569781	25865537	27361586	23746634	26208195	47.86%	48.92%
16	Tamil Nadu ⁴	108.17	111.14	139.93	138.16	66.33	74.02	755222087	78087652	55540091	56176488	19981996	21911164	26.46%	28.06%
17	Uttar Pradesh - [East]	56.83	57.27	137.69	131.53	33.34	35.55	74872453	77783016	39932099	39461026	34940354	38321990	46.67%	49.27%
18	Uttar Pradesh - [West] ⁵							49166603	49297455	27719149	26601057	21447454	22696398	43.62%	46.04%
19	West Bengal ⁶	54.18	55.13	135.73	135.27	40.58	41.72	41708107	42797168	14940548	15056367	26767559	27740801	64.18%	64.82%
20	Kolkatta	145.86	142.67	#	#	#	#	22404319	22147379	21455326	20382016	948993	1765363	4.24%	7.97%
21	Delhi	221.64	226.85	#	#	#	#	43388800	45688835	41253860	43323453	2134940	2365382	4.92%	5.18%
22	Mumbai	152.44	151.90	#	#	#	#	33357850	33953534	33226721	33606889	131129	346645	0.39%	1.02%
	All-India	73.32	75.23	146.64	145.46	41.05	44.01	898018749	933015138	548804385	555231592	349214364	377783546	38.89%	40.49%

Teledensity is calculated for UP(E) & UP(W) jointly due to non availability of separate population for UP(E&W). 1.Includes Jharkhand, 2.Includes Chhattisgarh, 3.Includes North East I&II, 4. includes mai, 5.Includes Utrakhand and 6.Includes A&N Islands. # Rural-urban break up of population for ata, Delhi and Mumbai service areas is not available.

ce: Annual Report 2013-14, Dept. of Telecommunications, Gol.

Table 7: Number of Telephones as on March 31, 2013 and 2014

Sl. No.	Service Area	Tele-Density				Wireless Phones								Total Telephones	
		Total		PSUs' Operators		Private Operators		Total		PSUs' Operators		Private Operators			
		March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14	March '13	March '14
1	Andhra Pradesh	2239363	2044305	1848510	1657496	390853	386809	64363622	67150145	9380164	9919531	54983458	57230614	66602985	69194450
2	Assam	194395	183984	193915	182904	480	1080	14387664	15278208	1236162	1280869	13151502	13997339	14582059	15462192
3	Bihar ¹	394129	381591	378374	363665	15755	17926	60301859	61585400	5907091	3246007	54394768	58339393	60695988	61966991
4	Gujarat	1792030	1690065	1565727	1459828	226303	230237	51693364	54537449	4299022	4137901	47394342	50399548	53485394	56227514
5	Haryana	560474	499908	504057	452043	56417	47865	19543589	21251395	3110251	3331626	16433338	17919769	20104063	21751303
6	Himachal Pradesh	280669	253744	273941	246352	6728	7392	7015343	7119714	1634163	1433602	5381180	5686112	7296012	7373458
7	Jammu & Kashmir	196811	186655	196811	186655	0	0	6844607	7938386	1159503	1271143	5685104	6667243	7041418	8125041
8	Karnataka	2443394	2318079	1691273	1535931	752121	782148	52914789	54319763	7126983	7350172	45787806	46969591	55358183	56637842
9	Kerala	3064818	2885942	2943505	2773148	121313	112794	30692668	31120272	7723156	7951150	22969512	23169122	33757486	34006214
10	Madhya Pradesh ²	1120350	1103538	835271	833717	285079	269821	52164292	55480919	5244870	4948640	46919422	50532279	53284642	56584457
11	Maharashtra	2466496	2309779	2046050	1882033	420446	427746	68400365	72593652	6875597	6583446	61524768	66010206	70866861	74903431
12	North-East ³	189884	139937	189884	139877	0	60	8960542	9411142	1756598	1521837	7203944	7889305	9150426	9551079
13	Orissa	374427	347455	364132	335875	10295	11580	24601935	25125573	4513362	3333678	20088573	21791895	24976362	25473028
14	Punjab	1320185	1222091	983646	876585	336539	345506	29464295	31211227	4432323	4629083	25031972	26582144	30784480	32433318

15	Rajasthan	1011041	924311	887216	798265	123825	126046	48601130	52645470	5966452	6054920	42634678	46590550	49612171	53569781
16	Tamil Nadu ⁴	3109695	2913185	2398676	2218136	711019	695049	72412392	75174467	9597898	9828051	62814494	65346416	75522087	78087652
17	Uttar Pradesh - [East]	1048303	801992	943196	693951	105107	108041	73824150	76981024	10434924	10436240	63389226	66544784	74872453	77783016
18	Uttar Pradesh - [West] ⁵	767118	541216	728589	504292	38529	36924	48399485	48756239	4902736	4480281	43496749	44275958	49166603	49297455
19	West Bengal ⁶	548248	506151	542345	500140	5903	6011	41159859	42291017	3609491	2050565	37550368	40240452	41708107	42797168
20	Kolkatta	1144255	1076955	930944	847254	213311	229701	21260064	21070424	2295879	860703	18964185	20209721	22404319	22147379
21	Delhi	2962600	3103986	1593551	1601739	1369049	1502247	40426200	42584849	2593896	2307731	37832304	40277118	43388800	45688835
22	Mumbai	2985057	3063976	1866498	1940336	1118559	1123640	30372793	30889558	2405455	1064605	27967338	29824953	33357850	33953534
All-India		30213742	28498845	23906111	22030222	6307631	6468623	867805007	904516293	106205976	98021781	761599031	806494512	898018749	933015138

: 1. Includes Jharkhand, 2. Includes Chhattisgarh, 3. Includes North East I&II, 4. includes Chennai, 5. includes Uttrakhand and 6. Includes A&N Islands.

ce: Annual Report 2013-14, Dept. of Telecommunications, GoI.

DETERMINANTS OF CHOICE OF A COLLEGE AT THE PRE UNIVERSITY STAGE – A CASE STUDY OF KALABURAGI CITY IN KARNATAKA**Dr. A. S. Jalandharachari**

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ABSTRACT

In many occasions choice of pre-university colleges play a significant role in achieving their aspirations. The data for the study is collected through the questionnaire from the sample of ten percent of students from the ten percent of randomly selected pre- university colleges in Kalaburagi city in Karnataka . This study found male respondents who had chosen a PU College at a distance of 5Km and above were significantly more than their female counterparts in all streams while as in Humanities both sexes are almost same. The study also found that the females and males in almost all streams were not self motivated in choice of PU Colleges, most of the occasions they were influenced by teachers, only father, both parents, friends etc., Only mothers, relatives, neighbours, siblings play a role but not significantly in choice of their PU College .

Key Words: Choice, Distance, Influence Factors and Pre-University College.

The facilities of pre-university stage have been substantially increased in the post independent period. The Constitution of India had foreseen education as an instrument for the social transformation in the individual and the society. It also compels that education must be accessible equally to all sections of Indian society at all stages. Though the nation has witnessed a tremendous expansion of educational facilities at all levels including pre-university education, this stage of education doesn't seem to be equally accessible to all sections of society.

In many occasions choice of Pre-University (PU) colleges play a significant role in achieving their aspirations. Some of the circumstances force the youngsters despite having nearest college they choose the plat form elsewhere. The reasons might be explicable but may not be same across the nation. Some of the reviewed literature in this aspect is as follows.

Ratan Biswas (2007), in his article "Declining Trend of Enrolment in Science Stream in Colleges with Special Reference to Rural Areas of Assam" concluded that in states like Assam, vernacular medium schools are also one of the barriers for higher education in science and technology.

Somdatta Basu (2007) concluded in his article " School interview? Don't forget ration card", that Ganguly Committee recommended in 2006 as the schools give preference to students who stay close to the institutions. Which often tempt the parents to hide their address and furnish fabricated ones to ensure admission to a renowned school.

Viswanathan (2007), in his study "Lessons not learn", suggested that it is 'essential' to ensure that no student is denied access to higher education owing to financial constraints. He further stated that the dream of National Knowledge Commission (NKC) of expansion and reform of our school system is necessary to ensure that every child has an equal opportunity to enter the world of higher education.

Naheed Zahoor (2007) "Economics of Muslim Managed Secondary Schools of Delhi "found in his research work that School Building and Infrastructure, available Facilities and Amenities, School Discipline that encompasses Students, Teachers and the Head of Schools, the Socio-economic Status of Student's Parents and overall School Environment carry considerable weight in determining the Student's Performance and in turn the choice of school.

Veena Poonacha (2005), in her study "Uncovering the Gender Politics of Science Policies and Education" found that women tend to cluster in the general disciplines rather than in professional courses. She also found that in the 1990s there were more women entering pure science than men, while the latter straddled all other professional courses.

Kavita Raina (1987), in her study "Who goes to University?", concluded that the choices made by the girls do not seem to be their own as 92% have indicated that the decisions about education and occupation for children in their families are taken by their elders and only 8% seem to enjoy the freedom of this choice.

The above research studies found that facilities at the school, faculty, parents, medium of instruction, distance of the school, financial position etc., play a significant role in choose the college at the pre-university stage of education. Besides these factors teachers, friends, crazy in certain syllabus, advertisement factors, donations,

special coaching or extra coaching for competitive examinations, transportation, personal ambition etc., may also determining role in choice of their PU college

It is therefore pertinent to find out the factors influence the choice of college at the pre-university stage. Hence the present study “Determinants of choice of a college at the pre-university stage – A case study of Kalaburagi city in Karnataka” is an attempt in this direction. The study is addressed to seeking answers to the following questions.

1. To study the reasons for not choosing nearest pre-university (PU) college.
2. To study the influencing factors in choosing the nearest pre-university (PU) college.

For this study the students on the rolls of first year pre-university colleges in Kalaburagi city of Karnataka form the universe. But due to the limitation of time and resources only ten percent of students were randomly selected from ten percent of randomly selected colleges for data collection. Data is collected through questionnaire. The collected data was classified and tabulated according to the requirements of the objectives. The study period for data collection is November 2014 to February 2015.

DISTANCE OF THE PRE - UNIVERSITY COLLEGE FROM HOME AND STREAM OF STUDY

Table - 1 gives the distribution of the respondents by the distance of the pre-university college from home and stream of study.

Out of 329 respondents 136 (41.34%) – 62 (34.44%) of males and 74 (49.66%) of females - had pre-university college at a distance of less than 3 Km ; 193 (58.66%) – 118 (65.56%) of males and 75 (50.34%) of females – had pre-university college at a distance of above 3Km ; in humanities 34 (33.66%) – 20 (34.48%) of males and 14 (32.56%) of females – had pre-university college at a distance of less than 3 Km ; 67 (66.34%) – 38 (65.52%) of males and 29 (67.44%) of females - had pre-university college at a distance of above 3Km; in Commerce 30 (41.67%) – 11 (27.50%) of males and 19 (59.37%) of females – had pre-university college at a distance of less than 3 Km ; 42 (58.33%) – 29 (72.50%) of males and 13 (40.63%) of females - had pre-university college at a distance of above 3Km; in Science 72 (46.15%) – 31 (37.81%) of males and 41 (55.41%) of females – had pre-university college at a distance of less than 3 Km ; 84 (53.85%) – 51 (62.19%) of males and 33 (44.59%) of females - had pre-university college at a distance of above 3Km.

It can be inferred from the data that about 55% of females in Science stream, about 32% of them in Humanities stream and about 60% of them in Commerce stream were studying in a PU College at a distance of 3 Km or less from their homes. Male respondents who had chosen a PU College at a

Table - 1

Distribution of Respondents by their Distance of the Pre-University College from Home and Stream of Study distance of 5Km and above were significantly more than their female counterparts in all streams while as in Humanities both sexes are almost same.

Distance	Humanities			Commerce			Science			Total		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Less than 1 Km	3 (2.97)	0 (0.00)	3 (6.98)	5 (6.94)	2 (5.00)	3 (9.38)	11 (7.05)	5 (6.10)	6 (8.11)	19 (5.78)	7 (3.89)	12 (8.05)
1-2 Km	18 (17.82)	11 (18.97)	7 (16.28)	7 (9.72)	3 (7.50)	4 (12.50)	23 (14.74)	10 (12.20)	13 (17.57)	48 (14.59)	24 (13.33)	24 (16.11)
2-3 Km	13 (12.87)	9 (15.52)	4 (9.30)	18 (25.00)	6 (15.00)	12 (37.50)	38 (24.36)	16 (19.51)	22 (29.73)	69 (20.97)	31 (17.22)	38 (25.50)
3-5 Km	24 (23.76)	14 (24.14)	10 (23.26)	24 (33.33)	16 (40.00)	8 (25.00)	31 (19.87)	19 (23.17)	12 (16.22)	79 (24.01)	49 (27.22)	30 (20.13)
Above 5 Km	43 (42.57)	24 (41.38)	19 (44.19)	18 (25.00)	13 (32.50)	5 (15.63)	53 (33.97)	32 (39.02)	21 (28.38)	114 (34.65)	69 (38.33)	45 (30.20)
Total	101 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	43 (100.00)	72 (100.00)	40 (100.00)	32 (100.00)	156 (100.00)	82 (100.00)	74 (100.00)	329 (100.00)	180 (100.00)	149 (100.00)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

REASONS FOR NOT CHOOSING THE NEAREST PRE-UNIVERSITY COLLEGE AND STREAM OF STUDY

Table - 2 gives the distribution of respondents by the reasons for not choosing the nearest pre-university college and stream of study.

This data shows that out of 643 respondents who had not chosen the nearest PU College , the largest proportion 111 (17.26%) – 62 (17.03%) of males and 49 (17.56%) of females – had not chosen the nearest PU College because of their personal ambition; second largest proportion 94 (14.62%) – 53 (14.56%) of males and 41 (14.70%) of females – did not attend the nearest PU Colleges because these colleges demand huge donations and the third largest proportion 87 (13.53%) – 53 (14.56%) of males and 34 (12.19%) of females – did not like the nearest PU Colleges because these colleges do not have co-education.

The respondents who had not chosen the nearest PU College the least proportions in order were they could not get admission, PU College doesn't have reputation, PU College doesn't have CBSE syllabus and their parents' interest.

In Humanities stream, the respondents had the same reasons as in general but in different order i.e., the most important reason was that the nearest PU College demand huge donations and doesn't have co-education, second most important reason was that the respondents interested to join Govt PU College and the third reason was their personal ambition. The least proportion of respondents had the reasons for not chosen the nearest PU college were their parents interest and didn't get an admission, doesn't have CBSE syllabus and college doesn't have reputation.

In Commerce stream, the respondents had different reasons in choosing the PU College other than the nearest. The most important, personal ambition, second most important reason was college doesn't have co-education and the third one was the nearest PU College doesn't have adequate facilities. The least proportion of respondents had the reasons for not chosen the nearest PU college were they didn't get an admission, doesn't have CBSE syllabus, to join a Govt PU College and college doesn't have reputation.

In Science stream, the respondents did not choose the nearest Pre-University College because of their personal ambition or these colleges did not have adequate facilities or demand huge donations. These

Table-2

Distribution of Respondents by the Reason for Not Choosing the Nearest Pre –University College and Stream of Study reasons are order of importance. While as the least proportion of respondents didn't chose the nearest PU College because they did n't get an admission in the nearest PU College or College doesn't have reputation and to join Govt PU College.

	Humanities			Commerce			Science			Total		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Parents' Interest	8 (4.97)	3 (3.23)	5 (7.35)	20 (10.70)	8 (8.99)	12 (12.24)	28 (9.49)	8 (4.40)	20 (17.70)	56 (8.71)	19 (5.22)	37 (13.26)
Doesn't have adequate facilities	15 (9.32)	12 (12.90)	3 (4.41)	28 (14.97)	12 (13.48)	16 (16.33)	43 (14.58)	32 (17.58)	11 (9.73)	86 (13.37)	56 (15.38)	30 (10.75)
To join Government Pre-University College	27 (16.77)	16 (17.20)	11 (16.18)	16 (8.56)	4 (4.49)	12 (12.24)	23 (7.80)	14 (7.69)	9 (7.96)	66 (10.26)	34 (9.34)	32 (11.47)
Doesn't have CBSE syllabus	13 (8.07)	8 (8.60)	5 (7.35)	12 (6.42)	8 (8.99)	4 (4.08)	30 (10.17)	18 (9.89)	12 (10.62)	55 (8.55)	34 (9.34)	21 (7.53)
Doesn't have co-education	30 (18.63)	17 (18.28)	13 (19.12)	29 (15.51)	16 (17.98)	13 (13.27)	28 (9.49)	20 (10.99)	8 (7.08)	87 (13.53)	53 (14.56)	34 (12.19)
Doesn't have reputation	14 (8.70)	10 (10.75)	4 (5.88)	16 (8.56)	10 (11.24)	6 (6.12)	20 (6.78)	14 (7.69)	6 (5.31)	50 (7.78)	34 (9.34)	16 (5.73)
Demanding Huge Donations	30 (18.63)	18 (19.35)	12 (17.65)	24 (12.83)	9 (10.11)	15 (15.31)	40 (13.56)	26 (14.29)	14 (12.39)	94 (14.62)	53 (14.56)	41 (14.70)
Personal Ambition	16 (9.94)	6 (6.45)	10 (14.71)	30 (16.04)	18 (20.22)	12 (12.24)	65 (22.03)	38 (20.88)	27 (23.89)	111 (17.26)	62 (17.03)	49 (17.56)
Didn't get an Admission	8 (4.97)	3 (3.23)	5 (7.35)	12 (6.42)	4 (4.49)	8 (8.16)	18 (6.10)	12 (6.59)	6 (5.31)	38 (5.91)	19 (5.22)	19 (6.81)
Total	161 (100.00)	93 (100.00)	68 (100.00)	187 (100.00)	89 (100.00)	98 (100.00)	295 (100.00)	182 (100.00)	113 (100.00)	643 (100.00)	364 (100.00)	279 (100.00)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

Form this data it can be inferred that majority of the respondents had not chosen the nearest PU College because of their personal interest, PU Colleges demand huge donations, doesn't offer co-education and PU Colleges did not have adequate facilities. Interestingly about 17% had personal ambitions and about 15% had to avoid huge donations as the reasons for not joining the nearest Pre-University College.

PERSON WHO MOST INFLUENCED THE CHOICE OF PRE-UNIVERSITY COLLEGE AND STREAM OF STUDY

Table - 3 gives the distribution of the respondents by the person who most influenced their choice of Pre – University College and stream of study.

It can be inferred from the data that a majority of respondents 135 (18.17%) – 70 (17.86%) of males and 65 (18.52%) of females – were influenced by their teachers in their choice of PU College ; second largest proportion 117 (15.75%) – 64 (16.33%) of males and 53 (15.10%) of females – by both their parents and the third largest proportion 115 (15.48%) – 58 (14.80%) of males and 57 (16.24%) of females – were influenced by their father only in their choice of PU college.

In Humanities most of the respondents were influenced by teachers, only father and parents both respectively play an important role in choice of their PU College. Interestingly about 55% of the respondents were influenced by these people in choosing their PU College.

In Commerce the serious players were only father, both parents and friends. Even in this stream about 55% of the respondents were influenced by the said players while as in Science stream teachers, friends and both parents play a significant role in choice of their PU College. In this stream about 50% of the respondents were influenced.

Almost same trend was observed in all streams. Interestingly only about 1% of female respondents in Humanities stream , about 4% of female respondents in Commerce stream were influenced by their neighbours, and about 2% of female respondents in Science stream were influenced by self in choice of their PU College.

Table - 3

Distribution of Respondents by the Person Who most Influenced their Choice of Pre University College and Stream of Study

Person	Humanities			Commerce			Science			Total	
	Pers on	Male	Fem ale	Pers on	Male	Fem ale	Pers on	Male	Fem ale	Pers on	Male
Father	38 (18.2 7)	21 (19.0 9)	17 (17.3 5)	28 (21.7 1)	13 (18.0 6)	15 (26.3 2)	49 (12.0 7)	24 (11.4 3)	25 (12.7 6)	115 (15.4 8)	58 (14.8 0)
Mother	16 (7.69)	6 (5.45)	10 (10.2 0)	16 (12.4 0)	6 (8.33)	10 (17.5 4)	30 (7.39)	8 (3.81)	22 (11.2 2)	62 (8.34)	20 (5.10)
Both Parents	30 (14.4 2)	18 (16.3 6)	12 (12.2 4)	25 (19.3 8)	18 (25.0 0)	7 (12.2 8)	62 (15.2 7)	28 (13.3 3)	34 (17.3 5)	117 (15.7 5)	64 (16.3 3)
Siblings	18 (8.65)	12 (10.9 1)	6 (6.12)	8 (6.20)	7 (9.72)	1 (1.75)	43 (10.5 9)	16 (7.62)	27 (13.7 8)	69 (9.29)	35 (8.93)
Relatives	20 (9.62)	7 (6.36)	13 (13.2 7)	10 (7.75)	3 (4.17)	7 (12.2 8)	29 (7.14)	14 (6.67)	15 (7.65)	59 (7.94)	24 (6.12)
Teachers	46 (12.4 6)	21 (19.0 9)	25 (25.5 1)	11 (8.53)	6 (8.33)	5 (8.77)	78 (19.2 1)	43 (20.4 8)	35 (17.8 6)	135 (18.1 7)	70 (17.8 6)
Neighbours	3 (1.44)	2 (1.82)	1 (1.02)	7 (5.43)	5 (6.94)	2 (3.51)	34 (8.37)	24 (11.4 3)	10 (5.10)	44 (5.92)	31 (7.91)
Friends	28 (13.4 6)	19 (17.2 7)	9 (9.18)	18 (13.9 5)	10 (13.8 9)	8 (14.0 4)	65 (16.0 1)	41 (19.5 2)	24 (12.2 4)	111 (14.9 4)	70 (17.8 6)
Self	9 (4.33)	4 (3.64)	5 (5.10)	6 (4.65)	4 (5.56)	3 (3.51)	16 (3.94)	12 (5.71)	4 (2.04)	31 (4.17)	20 (5.10)
Total	208 (100. 00)	110 (100. 00)	98 (100. 00)	129 (100. 00)	72 (100. 00)	57 (100. 00)	406 (100. 00)	210 (100. 00)	196 (100. 00)	743 (100. 00)	392 (100. 00)

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

It is evident from the study that about 55% of females in Science stream, about 32% of them in Humanities stream and about 60% of them in Commerce stream were studying in a PU College at a distance of 3 Km or less from their homes. Male respondents who had chosen a PU College at a distance of 5Km and above were significantly more than their female counterparts in all streams while as in Humanities both sexes are almost same.

This implies that parents hesitate sending their daughters to a PU College far from homes while in case of sons they do not have any reservations in this regard. Presuming that most of the PU Colleges in urban areas offer Science and Commerce streams, girls from these areas will have greater access to these streams and most of these colleges do not offer Humanities stream. Hence majority of respondents in Humanities have chosen Pre-University College at a distance of more than 3 KM. The respondents who had not chosen the nearest PU College the least proportions in order were they could not get admission, college doesn't have reputation, college doesn't have CBSE syllabus and their parents' interest.

Form study it can be inferred that majority of the respondents had not chosen the nearest PU College because of their personal interest, PU Colleges demand huge donations, doesn't offer co-education and PU Colleges did not have adequate facilities. The persons who most influenced in their choice of PU College were Teachers, only fathers, both parents and friends. Almost same trend was observed in all streams. Interestingly only about 1% of female respondents in Humanities stream, about 4% of female respondents in Commerce stream were influenced by their neighbours, and about 2% of female respondents in Science stream were influenced by self in choice of their PU College.

Thus the females and males in almost all streams were not self motivated in choice of PU Colleges, most of the occasions they were influenced by teachers, only father, both parents, friends etc., Only mothers, relatives, neighbours, sibling play a role but not significantly in choice of their PU College while as only mothers play a key role in choice of PU College in case of female students.

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AWARENESS AND USE OF E-RESOURCES AMONG THE COLLEGE TEACHERS OF PURULIA DISTRICT, WEST BENGAL: A SURVEY

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ABSTRACT

This paper highlights the status of Purulia District College teachers towards knowledge of computer and Internet use, awareness and use of e-resource, awareness about UGC-Infonet and N-LIST in the age of Information and Communication Technology which changed post-industrial society to information society then knowledge society as well as in the nature of collection of library from print to e-resource so as to its collection development policy.

Keywords: e-book, e-journal, e-newspaper, e-theses, Internet, UGC-Infonet and N-LIST

1. INTRODUCTION

The advent of information and communication technology (ICT) has been changed our post industrial society to information society then knowledge society as well as our way of life. ICT is convergence of computers and communication technology which makes processing, storage and its retrieval very faster, instant and effective. In the present day knowledge resources are changing from printed to electronic format. Electronic resources include e-books, e-journals, e-newsletters, e-magazine, e-newspapers and so on. It is claimed that storage and retrieval of information in electronic format is easy and faster.

In the recent years, academic libraries have been started to collect e-resources for the usage of their potential users and experiencing a fast transition from print to electronic format while developing collection of an academic, technical/special libraries. The collection development method and practices of acquiring library resources have changed in order to cope with electronic version of publications. Various government organizations are collecting e-resources from many publishers and working as a consortium to provide the e-resources to various academic, defense or other institutes/organizations to cope up with the high rise price of e-resources. The role of library and information professionals also tends to be changed to provide best services to the end users.

Due to transformation of resources in electronic form, the information professionals are facing many new challenges in selecting, collecting, organizing and ultimately disseminating the information properly and exhaustively to their end users specially in rural and backward areas from different angles.

However, in the present paper, authors are keen to display a clear picture about the opinion or behaviour of the college teachers regarding their awareness, facing problems to use and the extent of preference in using the e-resources over print resources. For this purpose, a survey is undertaken with the college teachers of Purulia District to study the above parameters.

Questionnaire cum interview method is adopted for conducting the study. A questionnaire has been prepared according to the above parameters.

Results will be analyzed and discussed with statistical tools. Also the results will be analyzed by taking the variables like age, sex, length of teaching experience, subjects taught, educational background etc.

The study will help the college authorities as well as college librarians to take necessary measures regarding the acquisition and dissemination of e-resources.

2. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Objectives of the present study are as follows:

- (i) To examine the awareness of e-resources among the college teachers;
- (ii) To investigate the extent of use (i.e., usage pattern, frequency of use, time consumed to access) of e-resources;
- (iii) To understand the preferences of college teachers regarding print resources or e-resources;
- (iv) Extent of satisfaction of print resources and e-resources;
- (v) To find out the problem faced with accessing or using the e-resources (e.g. lack of technical knowledge regarding use of computer and internet, cost, slow access of e-resources due to bandwidth problem);

- (vi) To examine the computer literacy among the college teachers;
- (vii) To investigate the internet literacy among the internet users;
- (viii) To investigate about UGC-Infonet and N-LIST awareness, the main source of getting e-journals, e-books and e-databases;
- (ix) To examine the knowledge of college teachers regarding different linkages, search engines, portals, websites and institutional repositories from where they can avail their e-resources.

3. PURPOSE OF CHANGING THE FACE OF LIBRARY

The following are the factors driving the traditional library towards the electronic library.

- (i) Information explosion
- (ii) ICT revolution
- (iii) Usage of Internet
- (iv) Changing trends in educational learning pattern
- (v) Changing trends in published world
- (vi) Changing attitude of users
- (vii) Changing forms of information resources
- (viii) Limitations of library budget, library space
- (ix) Changing patterns of serving the library users
- (x) Avoidance of duplication

4. IMPORTANCE OF E-RESOURCES

E-resources are becoming important information resources in today's electronic environment, as they are more up-to-date and can be accessed anywhere crossing all geographical boundaries. It increases the global availability and dissemination of information. It solves storage problems and controls the explosion of information. Through their various search techniques, e-resources provide extensive links to explore additional resource related contents. Such resources add value while conducting R&D activities. There has been a rapid urge of the user come to get more and more information online.

The development of ICT devices, the rapid rise of electronic databases and modern e-book technique have altogether changed the entire scenario of informatics. The users' attitude to information is gradually shifting from printed document to electronic resources and thus, it has become an important area of research for the information professionals over the world.

5. USE OF INTERNET

With the growing importance of the Internet in everyday life, in commercial transactions and economic development, people who do not have access to the Internet are likely to be disadvantaged.

Internet is a powerful means of communication, dissemination and retrieval of information. It is a network of networks connecting thousands of smaller computer networks together so that other networks may share information present in one network.

The Internet has given rise to the development of electronic resources so as to change in the collection development policy of libraries. Today libraries are handling both traditional and electronic information resources. Internet is a means to e-publish and distribute the information to the library community. Users can access e-documents at any time from the remote to remotest area of the world within a fraction of second.

The Internet facility in India has grown tremendously over the years. The use of Internet is rapidly increasing owing to its efficiency and capability in providing right information to the right person at the right time. It works around the clock and connects every corner of the world. Internet has become an essential element like food, cloth, house of every institution/organization.

6. E-RESOURCES COLLECTION DEVELOPMENT AND ROLE OF LIBRARIAN

The role of librarians is vital in the selection and procurement of relevant e-resources judiciously within limited available finances. E-resources can be accessed over Internet, which may be ownership or access right for the journals subscription. Online access is available along with subscription with printed volumes or e-resources only.

7. DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Table 1: Sample Characteristics

Sl. No.	Parameters	Particulars	No.	Percentage
1	Sex	Male	98	69.50
		Female	43	30.50
		Total	141	100.00
2	Age Group	Upto 30 Years	11	7.80
		31-40	32	22.70
		41-50	64	45.39
		50+	34	24.11
		Total	141	100.00
3	Subject	Science	51	36.17
		Arts	90	63.83
		Total	141	100.00
4	Teaching Experience	1-3 Yrs.	13	9.22
		3-6 Yrs.	08	5.67
		6-10 Yrs.	29	20.57
		10-15 Yrs.	51	36.17
		15+ Yrs.	40	28.37
		Total	141	100.00

From Table 1, we observed that total male and female respondents for this survey are 98 and 43 respectively and total respondents are 141. Those are in the age group of upto 30 years (11 Nos.), 31-40 (32 Nos.), 41-50 (64 Nos.), 50+ (34). There are 51 Nos. respondents belong to Science background and 90 Nos. from Arts background. Teaching experience of respondents are 1-3 years (13 Nos.), 3-6 years (8 Nos.), 6-10 years (29 Nos.), 10-15 years (51 Nos.) and 15+ years (40 Nos.).

Table 2: Knowledge of Computer

Sl. No.	Parameters	Total Respondents	Male (Yes)	Female (Yes)	Science (Yes)	Arts (Yes)
1	Excellent	11	9 (81.81%)	2 (18.19%)	8 (72.72%)	3 (27.28%)
2	Good	13	10 (76.92%)	3 (23.08%)	5 (38.46%)	8 (61.54%)
3	Fair	21	18 (85.71%)	3 (14.29%)	9 (42.85%)	12 (57.15%)
4	Satisfactory	38	29 (76.31%)	9 (23.69%)	9 (23.68%)	29 (76.32%)
5	To some extent	11	05 (45.45%)	6 (54.55%)	7 (63.63%)	4 (36.37%)
Total		94	71 (75.33%)	23 (24.47%)	38 (40.42%)	56 (59.58%)

Table 2 shows that out of 141 respondents, 94 respondents have knowledge in computer. Out of them excellent, good, fair, satisfactory and to some extent knowledge of computer are 11 (male -9, female-2, Science teacher - 8, Arts teacher - 3), 13 (male -10, female-3, Science teacher - 5, Arts teacher - 8), 21 (male -18, female-3, Science teacher - 9, Arts teacher - 12), 38 (male -29, female-9, Science teachers - 9, Arts teachers - 29), 11 (male -5, female-6, Science teachers - 7, Arts teachers - 4) respondents respectively.

Table 2.1: Knowledge of Computer: Chi-square & P value Test

Sl. No.	Sex/Subjects	Response		Chi-Square	P value
1	Male	71 (Yes)	27 (No)	0.03	.90=.0158
2	Female	23 (Yes)	20 (No)		.80=.0642
3	Science	38 (Yes)	13 (No)	0.4795	.50=.455
4	Arts	56 (Yes)	34 (No)		.30=1.074

From Table 2.1, it is clear that out of 141 respondents, 98 respondents are male and 43 respondents are female. Out of 98 males, 71 respondents have knowledge in computer and 27 have no knowledge in computer and out of 43 females, 23 respondents have knowledge in computer and 20 have no knowledge in computer. Male and female respondents' chi-square test result is 0.03 and male P-value is .90=.0158 and female P-value is .80=.0642. It is also observed that out of 141 respondents, 51 (38 respondents have knowledge in computer and 13 respondents have no knowledge in computer) respondents are Science teachers and 90 (56 respondents have knowledge in computer and 34 respondents have no knowledge in computer) respondents are Arts teachers. Science and Arts teachers' respondents' chi-square test result is 0.4795 and Science teachers P-value is .50=.455 and Arts teachers P-value is .30= 1.074.

Table 3: Use of E-Resource: Sex and Subject Wise

Response	Male	Female	Science	Arts	Total
Yes	56	15	26	45	71
No	15	08	05	18	23
Total	71	23	31	63	94

It is shown from Table 3 that out of 71 male respondents who have knowledge in computer, 56 respondents use e-resource and 15 respondents do not use e-resource. Out of 23 female respondents who have knowledge in computer, 15 respondents use e-resource and 8 respondents do not use e-resource. Out of total 94 male and female respondents who have computer knowledge, 31 Science teachers and 63 Arts teachers. Out of 31 Science teachers, 26 respondents use e-resource and 5 respondents do not use e-resource and Out of 63 Arts teachers, 45 respondents use e-resource and 18 respondents do not use e-resource.

Table 3.1: Use of E-Resource: Sex Wise Chi-square & P-value Test

Response	Male	Female	Total	Chi-square	P- value
Yes	56	15	71	0.074	.90=0.0158
No	15	08	23		.80=0.0642
Total	71	23	94		.75=0.1020

It is observed from Table 3.1 that out of 94 respondents, 71 respondents (56 male and 15 female respondents) use e-resource and their P-value is .90=0.0158; 23 respondents (15 male and 8 female respondents) do not use e-resource and their P-value is .80=0.0642 and total 94 respondents P-value is .75=0.1020 and the common chi-square test value for user, non-user and total respondents regarding e-resource is 0.074.

Table 3.2: Use of E-Resource: Subject Wise Chi-square & P-value Test

Response	Science	Arts	Total	Chi-square	P- value
Yes	26	45	71	1.74	.20=1.642
No	05	18	23		.10=2.706
Total	31	63	94		.05=3.841

Table 3.2 shows that out of 71 e-resource user respondents, 26 respondents are science teachers and 45 respondents are arts teacher and the P-value are .20=1.642; and out of 23 e-resource non-user respondents, 5 respondents are science teachers and 18 respondents are arts teacher and the P-value are .10=2.706 and total 94 respondents P-value is .05=3.841 and the common chi-square test value is 1.74.

Table 4: Period of E-Resource Use (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Period	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Less than one year	14	19.72
1-2 Years	43	60.56
2-4 Years	08	11.27
4+ Years	06	08.45

It is clear from the Table 4 that out of total 71 respondents, 14 (19.72%) respondents use e-resource for less than one year, 43 (60.56%) respondents use e-resource for 1-2 years, 8 (11.27%) respondents use e-resource for 2-4 years and 6 (8.45%) respondents use e-resource for more than 4 years.

Table 5: Frequency of E-Resource Use (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Frequency	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Daily	08	11.27
2-3 times in week	09	12.68
Once in a week	37	52.11
Fortnightly	08	11.27
Monthly	05	7.04
Seldom (as per requirement)	04	5.63

Table 5 shows that out of 71 respondents who use e-resource, 8 (11.27%) respondents use daily, 9 (12.68%) respondents use 2-3 times in a week, 37 (52.11%) respondents use once in a week, 8 (11.27%) respondents use fortnightly, 5 (7.04%) respondents use monthly and 4 (5.63%) respondents use e-resource as and when required.

Table 6: Importance of E-Resource Use (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Nature of Importance	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Less	05	7.04
More	44	61.97
Most	19	26.76
None	03	4.23

It is observed from table 6 that out of 71 respondents, 5 (7.04%) respondents have less importance of e-resource, 44 (61.97%) respondents have more importance of e-resource, 19 (26.76%) respondents have most importance of e-resource and 3 (4.23%) respondents have no importance of e-resource.

Table 7: Place of Internet Use (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Place	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Home	51	71.83
Cyber café	12	16.90
College	19	26.76
Any Other	08	11.27

Table 7 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 51 (71.83%) respondents use the Internet in home, 12 (16.90%) respondents use the Internet in Cyber café, 19 (26.76%) respondents use the Internet in College and 8 (11.27%) respondents use the Internet in any other place.

Table 8: Purpose of Internet Use (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Purpose	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Communication	15	21.13
E-mail	21	29.58
Teaching	08	11.27
Education	25	35.21
Find relevant	06	8.45
Document	69	97.18
Entertainment	13	18.31
Other	18	25.35

Table 8 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 15 (21.13%) respondents use the Internet for information communication purpose, 21 (29.58%) respondents use for e-mailing, 8 (11.27%) respondents to

collect the required information to teach the students, 25 (35.21%) respondents for personal education, 6 (8.45%) respondents for relevant information, 69 (97.18%) respondents for downloading required documents, 13 (18.31%) respondents for entertainment (e.g. You Tube, web radio, movie, songs, various cultural programmes, sports etc.) and 18 (25.35%) respondents use for any other purpose.

Table 9: Resources Used in Internet (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Resources	Number of Respondents	Percentage
E-Journals	51	71.83
E-books	07	9.86
E-newspapers	08	11.27
E-theses	13	18.31
Reference Documents	29	40.85
Others	09	12.68

Table 9 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 51 (71.83%) respondents use Internet for downloading or searching e-journals, 7 (9.86%) respondents for downloading/searching e-books, 8 (11.27%) respondents for searching daily/weekly/fortnightly newspapers, 13 (18.31%) respondents for downloading/searching e-theses from institutional repositories/digital library, 29 (40.85%) respondents for searching reference documents and 9 (12.68%) respondents use for any other resources.

Table 10: Location/Link Searched in Internet (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Location	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Website	17	23.94
Internet gateways	16	22.54
Search engine	51	71.83
Any Other	09	12.68

Table 10 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 17 (23.94%) respondents searched different websites, 16 (22.54%) respondents searched Internet gateways, 51 (71.83%) respondents use various search engine (e.g. Yahoo, Google, Rediff, Altavista etc.) and 9 (12.68%) respondents use Internet for searching other links.

Table 11: Search Engine Used for Internet Access (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Search Engine	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Google	49	69.01
Yahoo	41	57.75
Altavista	13	18.31
Rediff	15	21.13
Khoj	7	9.86
Other	6	8.45

Table 11 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 49 (69.01%) respondents use Google search engine for searching purpose, 41 (57.75%) respondents use Yahoo search engine, 13 (18.31%) respondents use Altavista, 15 (21.13%) use Rediff, 7 (9.86%) respondents use Khoj, and 6 (8.45%) respondents use any other search engine for searching documents on Internet.

Table 12: Awareness to Service Provided in Internet (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Services	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Discussion group/Forum	19	26.76
Website	27	38.03
Search engines	58	81.69
Chatting	13	18.31
Social Networking	18	25.35
FAQ	7	9.86
E-mail	67	94.37

Table 12 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 19 (26.76%) respondents use the Internet for Discussion group/forum services (e.g. different Library and Information Science forums), 27 (38.03%) respondents use for different institutes website services, 58 (81.69%) use search engines services, 13 (18.31%) respondents use chatting services, 18 (25.35%) respondents use social networking (e.g. facebook, LinkedIn, hi5,

My Zamana, Orkut etc.), 7 (9.86%) respondents for FAQ (Frequently Asked Questions, Ask-A-Librarian etc.) services and 67 (94.37%) respondents use e-mail services.

Table 13: Facing Difficulties in Using Internet (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Nature of Difficulties	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Slow speed	45	63.38
Finding relevant documents	47	66.19
Lack of training	11	15.49
Information overload	33	46.48
Downloading problem	25	35.21
Cost	05	07.04
Lack of awareness	31	43.66

Table 13 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 45 (63.38%) respondents facing difficulties of slow speed, 47 (66.19%) respondents facing difficulties of finding relevant documents, 11 (15.49%) respondents facing difficulties of lack of training to use Internet perfectly, 33 (46.48%) respondents facing difficulties of information overload, 25 (35.21%) respondents facing difficulties of downloading due to slow speed, source server etc., 5 (7.04%) respondents facing difficulties due to cost of collecting e-resources and 31 (43.66%) respondents facing difficulties due to lack of awareness.

Table 14: Purpose of Using E-Resources (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Purposes	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Writing papers	22	30.99
Preparing notes	31	43.66
Seminars	03	4.23
Projects	05	7.04
Research	43	60.56
Support for various academic works	49	69.01
Writing books	03	4.23
Any other	07	9.86

Table 14 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 22 (30.99%) respondents use Internet for writing papers, 31 (43.66%) respondents for preparing notes, 3 (4.23%) respondents for seminars preparation, 5 (7.04%) respondents for projects, 43 (60.56%) respondents for research, 49 (69.01%) respondents support for various academic works, 3 (4.23%) respondents use Internet for writing books and 7 (9.86%) respondents use Internet for any other purpose.

Table 15: E-journals Awareness available in the Internet (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Response	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	43	60.56
No	28	39.44

Table 15 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 43 (60.56%) respondents comment that e-journals awareness available in the Internet and 28 (39.44%) respondents comment that there is no e-journals awareness available in the Internet.

Table 16: Rating of Documents available in the Internet (MCQ Response received: n=71)

Rating	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Poor	10	14.08
Good	59	83.10
High quality	27	38.03

Table 16 shows that out of 71 Internet user respondents, 10 (14.08%) respondents rated poor regarding standard of documents availability in the Internet, 59 (83.10%) respondents rated good regarding standard of documents availability in the Internet and 27 (38.03%) respondents rated high quality regarding standard of documents availability in the Internet.

Table 17: UGC-Infonet Awareness

Response	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	39	27.66
No	102	72.34
Total	141	100.00

Table 17 shows that out of total 141 respondents, 39 (27.66%) respondents comment that they aware about UGC-Infonet which provides e-journals, e-books and e-databases to academic institutes and 102 (72.34%) respondents comment that they have no knowledge about UGC-Infonet.

Table 18: N-LIST Programme (INFLIBNET) Awareness

Response	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	33	23.40
No	108	76.60
Total	141	100.00

Table 18 shows that out of total 141 respondents, 33 (23.40%) respondents know about N-LIST (National Library and Information Services for Scholarly Content, funded by MHRD under National Mission on Educational ICT through which INFLIBNET provides e-journals, e-books, e-databases to the member colleges of India) and 108 (76.60%) respondents do not aware about N-LIST programme.

8. CONCLUSIONS

It is noticed from the above data analysis that

- Out of 141 (98 males and 43 females) college teachers of various colleges of Purulia District that 94 (66.66%) respondents have knowledge in computer which is not a good indicator in the age of ICT;
- Out of 98 male respondents 71 (72.44%) and out of 43 females 23 (53.48%) respondents have knowledge in computer. So more male respondents have knowledge in computer and Science teachers have more efficient in computer operating than Arts teachers;
- E-resources use of Science teachers (50.98%) and Arts teachers (50.00%) is more or less same;
- Out of 71 Internet users maximum (43) respondents use e-resource 1-2 years followed by 8 (11.27%) respondents for 2-4 years and 6 (8.45%) for 4+ years;
- Most of the respondents 37 (52.11%) out of 71 use e-resource once in a week and 8 (11.27%) use daily/fortnightly;
- 44 (61.97%) respondents comment that e-resource use more important to keep up to date and 19 (26.76%) respondents think it most important;
- Most of Internet users (i.e., 51 (71.83%) out of 71) use Internet in Home rather than other places;
- There are 69 (97.18%) out of 71 Internet users use Internet for document downloading/searching;
- Maximum Internet users use Internet for e-journals (51 respondents=71.83%);
- They use search engine most (51 respondents=71.83%) in comparison with other link/location and use Google search engine (49 respondents=69.01%) most in comparison with other search engines;
- Most of the respondents, 67 (94.37%) out of 71 aware about e-mail services available in Internet;
- Respondents have been facing most difficulties, 47 (66.19%) out of 71 Internet users in finding relevant documents;
- There are 49 (69.01%) respondents out of 71 respondents use Internet for support to various academic works followed by Research (60.56%);
- Out of 71 Internet users 43 (60.56%) aware about e-journal and 28 (39.44%) respondents do not aware about e-journals;
- Most of the respondents rated good (59 respondents=83.10%) followed by 27 (38.03%) respondents rated high quality regarding the quality of documents availability through Internet;
- Only 39 (27.66%) respondents out of total 141 respondents have aware about UGC-Infonet and maximum, 102 (72.34%) respondents have no awareness about UGC-Infonet.
- Most of the respondents (108=76.60%) have no knowledge about N-LIST and only 33 (23.40%) respondents out of 141 total respondents aware about N-LIST.

So, it can be concluded that the knowledge in computer, Internet use, e-resource use, awareness about UGC-Infonet and N-LIST of Purulia District college teachers are not up to the mark, which is not a good sign in the age of ICT. To cope up with the change and to keep up-to-date, the teachers have to have the knowledge in computer, Internet and e-resource use, different location/links/institutional repositories as well as awareness about UGC-Infonet and N-LIST etc.

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