RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

अभिनव गवेषणा

(?वाटरली इण्टरनेशनल रेफ़?ीड रिसर्च जनरल)

प्रबन्ध सम्पादक एवं प्रकाशक

सर्वेश तिवारी 'राजन'

सभी संपादकीय दायित्व पूर्णतः अवैतनिक हैं।

नोट- प्रकाशित आलेखों के विचारों से सम्पादक व प्रकाशक की सहमति अनिवार्य नहीं है। समस्त वाद का क्षेत्र कानपुर होगा।

स्वत्वाधिकारी, प्रकाशक एवं प्रबन्ध सम्पादक सर्वेश तिवारी `राजन' द्वारा पूजा प्रिन्टर्स** हमीरपुर रोड, नौबस्ता, कानपुर-22 से मुद्रित एवं **सुपर प्रकाशन** के-444 `शिवराम कृपा', विश्व बैंक बर्रा, कानपुर-208027 से प्रकाशित। सम्पादक- **डॉ. एन. के. बाजपेयी मो.- 09450135102 **सम्पर्क-** मो.- 08896244776, 09335597658

E-mail: super.prakashan@gmail.com, Website : www.superprakashan.com

Editorial....

Dear friends,

Human wants are numerous. To satisfy them variety of products and services are needed. Agriculture can meet only some of the basic demands. Trade and industry has ability to satisfy rest of them. The needs of the people are not limited to the goods and services produced within the country only. People also demand goods produced outside the country of consumption. This is commerce which has made the whole world a big market. No country can progress without trade and commerce. Nowadays commerce has become lifeline of every country. The level of country's development and the standard of living of the country's people are directly linked to the state of commerce in the country. The quality of life- habits, living styles and behavior pattern- has substantially improved in developing countries with growth of commerce. Prosperity of a country is dependent on the commercial activities undertaken by the entrepreneurs of the country.

Sum total of monetary values of all goods and services including logistics, merchandising, banking, insurance, and telecommunication etc. produced in a country during a specified period of time constitute Gross Domestic Products (GDP). GDP values indicate economic health of a country. Changes in GDP values are responsible for changes in per capita income. Income, level of consumption and standard of living are interlinked. Legal framework of a country influences both general environment and business environment. Conducive business environment helps business and industry to grow fast which leads the nation towards prosperity.

Social changes in the country are also influenced by the development of commerce. Trade and allied activities directly or indirectly influence every human being. Agriculture has limited potentials to generate income and employment. Growing population of a country needs employment and income to survive. Industrial, business and trade units have larger capacities to provide employment. Improvement in quality of life is possible only through higher quantity of quality products. Growth of commerce is responsible for growth of market and a well grown market offers variety of goods and services at competitive prices. This ultimately helps whole economy. This way commerce is a tool of economic and social transformation.

Research in the field of commerce, management and law contributes to economic growth by pointing out the avenues of betterment. Research is a dynamic field. Every research opens new vistas for future researches and contributes in variety of ways to the whole ecosystem. This is matter of immense pleasure that this time this quarterly research journal ***"Abhinav Gaveshna"*** *has come out with special issue on Commerce and Law. Research papers contributed to this issue covered different aspects of the economic and legal problems. Contributors of the research papers really did well by focusing on the contemporary economic and legal issues. I am hopeful that these papers will add to the given stock of knowledge. I on behalf of the editorial team of this journal take this opportunity to express my gratitude to all those who extended their cooperation and support to this journal.*

- Navneet Kumar Bajpai

Index

◈◈

Public Private Partnership-Growth of Infrastructure In India

- Prof. L. N. Verma
Head of Department of Commerce, D. A. V. College, Kanpur-208001 (U.P.)

E-mail: ln.verma@hotmail.com

Abstract

The article discussed the public Private Partnership among the domestic and foreign players. The main objective is to assess the Public Private Partnership project in India and relationship between the foreign player and domestic player in PPP. So the paper concludes that the foreign players are investing with domestic player in PPP projects. Malaysiancompanies are leading investors in public private partenership (PPP) projects in India, with his observation both foreign and domestic players join together and developing good relationship among the world with the help of PPP project.

Keyboards - Development, Project, Public, Economic. Infrastructure, Highway,

Introduction -

Public Private Partnership (3 Ps) is the new lingo for socio economic development. But what is this? The dictionary definition aside, Public private partnership is a service provided by the government in collaboration with the private sector, for improving the social infrastructure or improving the face of the economic structure of the concerned economy.

3 Ps in India have had a very short history, despite a few projects here and there in the early 50s, dating back to the dawn of the 21st century, when the then Hon. PM of India, Shri Atal Bihari Vajpayee Ji launched the extremely prestigious Golden Quadrilateral Highways Project in collaboration with private partnership in the BOT (Build-Operate-Transfer Mode). Back then, the roadways were a sorry state of affairs, all thanks to bureaucratic inefficiency and heavy corruption from the rock bottom in the local governments.

Even though it suffered some early setbacks in terms of the corruption from Bihar Jharkhnad Sector in 2002-2003 fiscal year, the Golden Quadrilateral Highways Project slowly turned out to be a huge success, paving way for the manifold by the NHAI (National Highways Authority of India), the Golden Quadrilateral has several of its projects completed by multinational firms, the major contributor being Infrastructure Leasing & Financial Services (IL&FS).

Objective of this Study -

(a) To study the opportunities and threats in the implementation of the Public Private Partnership.

(b) To study the scope of Public Private Partnership in India.

Scope of Public Private Partnership In India -

In Public Private Partnership, the investment is funded and operated through a partnership between the government and one or more private sector players. For example, Delhi and Mumbai airports. In Private finance initiative, schemes introduce the benefits of private sector management and finance into public sector projects. This differs from privatization since the responsibility of providing essential services to the public is not transderred to the private sector; nor is the asset-ownership t-ransferred. As, for example, in solid waste management, electricity distribution franchising and so on.

Potential Risks of Public Private Partnerships - There are a number of potential associated with Public Private Partnership:

Development, bidding and ongoing costs in PPP projects are likely to be greater than for traditional

Public Private Partnership Project List of India

Serial No.	Project Name	Type	Sector	Sub-Sector	State	Status	Date of Award
1.	Four Lane. Highway From Kodinar to Veraval	Government Infracture Project	Transport	Highway	Gujrat	Tender	24/Feb/2016 6
2.	Karaikal Port Project	Government Iinfracture Project	Transport	Port	Pondcherry	Operaional	18/Feb/2016 6
3.	Kandla-Mundra Port High-way Project	Govern-ment Infr-astructure Project	Transport	Highway	Gujrat	Operational	13/Nov/2015 5
4.	Road Upgradati Jodhpur Pachpadra a Project	Government Infrastructre Project (Traditional Procurement)	Transport Bridges	Road &	Rajas-than Constr-uction	Under	27/March/2014 014
5.	Shopping-cum-Comp-lex (Agra-Road Prjoject	Government Infracture Project	Social & Commeri-cial Infracture	Comm-Infractaure of Indust-rial Parkx SEZ Maha-rashtra	Mahara-shtra	Under-Construct	07/May/2013 13
6.	Road Upgrad-ation (Ahem-da bad-Vadodra) Project	Government ent Infrast-ructure Project	Transport Bridges ional	Road &	Gujrat	Operat-	25/July/2011 1
7.	Parbati Koldam Ludhiana Transmiss ion Line	Government Infracture Project	Energy	Electricity Transmi-ssion	Multi State Center	Under Const-ruction	03/Sep/2011 0

government procurement processes - the government should therefore determine whether the greater costs involved are justified. A number of the PPP and implementation units around the world have developed methods fort analyzing these costs and looking at Value for Money.

There is a cost attached to debt - While private sector can make it easier to get finance, finance will only be available where the operating cash flows of the project company are expected to provide a return on investment.

Some projects may be easier to finance than others (if there is proven technology involved and/ fthe extent of the private sectors obligations and liability is clearly identifiable), some projects will generate revenue in local currency only (eg water projects) while others (eg parts and airports) will provide currency in dollar or other international currency and so constraints of local finance markets may have less impact. Some projects may be more politically or socially challenging to introduce and implement than others - particularly if there is an existing public sector workforce that fears being transferred to the private sector, if significant tariff increases are required to make the project viable, if there are significant land or resettlement issues, etc.

See Table on back page.

Government Support Scheme For PPP Infrastructure In India (Viability Gap Funding)

(a) The total Viability Gap Funding under this scheme shall not exceed twenty percent of the Total Project Cost; provided that the Government or Statutory enitity that owns the project may, of, it so decides, provide additional grants out of its budget, but not exceeding a further twenty percent of the Total Project Cost.

(b) Viability Gap Funding under this scheme will normally be in the form of a capital grant at the stage of project construction. Proposals for any other of assistance may be considered by the Empowered Committee and sanctioned with the approval of Finance Minister on a case-by-case basis.

(c) Viability Gap Funding up to Rs. 100 crore (Rs. One hundred crore) for each project may be sanctioned by the Emplowered Institution subject to the budgetary ceilings indicated by the Finance Ministry. Proposals up to Rs. 200 crore (Rs. Two hundred crore) may be sanctioned by the Empoered Committee, and

States & Area Development In PPPs -

PPP State/ Area	Educat-ion	Air-port	Ene-rgy	Indust-ries	IT	Rail-way	Roads	Tour-ism	Urban Development
Andra Preadesh	1430	-	1371	-	348	-	8,719	1,291	27,857
Gujrat	-	-	7000	-	-	1007	13,206	-	3,739
Haryana	126	-	6000	54,095	-	900	5,085	-	179
Karnataka	-	1930	4500	9,000	-	348	37,002	1,416	44,223
Kerala	-	303	-	-	-	-	5,474	72	3,368
Maharash tra	116	5800	662	520	13	22,606	25,878	570	6,493
Rajasthan	600	-	5000	1,109	226	-	14,704	200	2,314
Sikkim	-	-	17,111	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tamil Nadu	-	-	-	6,862	-	-	15,825	-	2.377
Uttar Pradesh	-	-	16,600	-	-	-	57,003	-	3,089

amounts exceeding Rs. 200 crore may be sanctioned by the Empowered Committee with the approval of Finance Minister.

(d) Unless otherwise directed by the Ministry of Finance, the Empowered Institutions may approve project proposals with a cumulative capital outlay equivalent to ten times the budget provisions in the respective Annual Plan.

Recent Status Of PPP Project In India 2016 -

The Government has allocated upto Rs. 5,000 crore for PPP projects alone under the Sarva Shikha Abiyaan Scheme, this would be for teachers training for implementation of the child tracking system for ICT implementation, infrastructure managements and several other projects. The project would be from the state level. 8 projects in all will be coming out, NIIT, Aptech, Educomp & Core projects are the biggest education companies are in this race for projects. Two projects have already been implemented in Jharkhand & Nagaland. The other state were Karnataka. Madhya Pradesh, Kerala & Uttar Pradesh.

See Table on back page.

New Budget Of 2016-17 On PPP Infrastructure Projects -

(a) India's highest ever kilometers of new highways were awarded in 2015.

(b) Allocation of 55,000 crore in the Budget for Roads. Additional -To approve nearly 10,000 kms of National Highways in 2016-17. 15,000 crore to be raised by NHAI through bonds.

(c) Action plan for revival of unserved and underserved airports to be drawn up in paretnership with State Governments.

(d) Total outlays for infrastructure - 2, 21, 246 crore.

(e) Comprehensive plan, spanning next 15 to 20 years, to augment the investment in nuclear power generation to be drawn up.

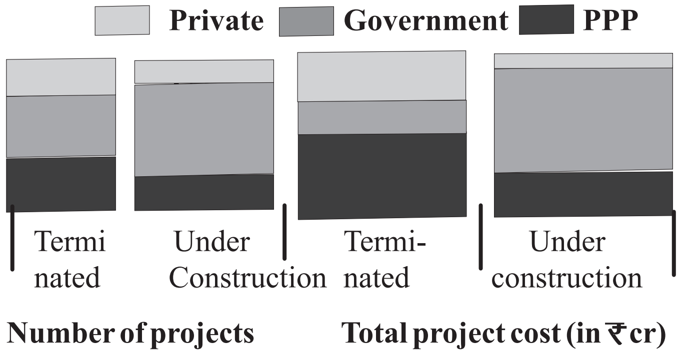
(f) Public Utility (Resolution of Disputes) Bill Will be introduced during

(g) Steps to re-vitalise PPPs :

- Public Utility (Resolution of Disputes) Bill will be introduced during 2016-17.
- Guidelines for renegotiation of PPP Concession Agreements will be.
- Issued New credit rating system for infrastructure projects to be.

REVITALIZING PPPs :

Status of (as yet) imcomplete infrastructure projects in India



*Government infrastructure projects (traditional procurement)

Source: InfrastructureIndia.gov.in

Conclusion -

In all, to sum up, the Public Private Partnership in India has a very bright future with sustainable development, provided the political uncertainty and bureaucratic logjams don't become the roadlocks in the path of the progress.

References

1. http://www.indiainfoline.com/article/news-top-story/reliance-infra-starts-toll-operatiK5L.RTF ons-at Kan dla-mundra-highway-in-gujrat-115111000047-1.html/reliance-infra-starts-toll-operatiK5L.RTF
2. https://infrastructureindia.gov.in/project-
3. http://www.crisil.com/infrastructure-advisory/public-private-partnerships-toll-operatiK5L.RTF
4. http://www.business-standard.com/article/economy-policy/what-is-wrong-with-ppp-ineratiK5L.RTF -india
5. http://www.unescap.org
6. International Conference on Meeting India's Infrastructure Needs with Public Private Partnerships 2007 Report (PDF)
7. Public Private Partnerships In Infrastructure Development of Rural Areas, A Research Journal submitted by Shri Amirullah (Ex Research Scholar, Aligarh University) for the rural data
8. http://in2diabudget.nic.in/ub2016-17/bh/bh1.pdf
9. http://www.caclubindia.com/articles/concept-of-public-private-partnership-scheme-ppptiK5L.RTF
10. http://pppindia.com/pdf/guideline-scheme-IiPDF.pdflic-private-partnership-scheme-ppptiK5L.RTF

◈◈

Economic Relation between India and Nepal

- Dr. Alkesh Kumar Gupta
Associate Professor
Deptt. of Commerce
Tilak P.G. College, Auraiya
(U.P.)

Introduction:-

Modern-day India and Nepal initiated their relationship with the 1950 Indo Nepal treaty of peace and friendship and accompanying secret letters that defined security relations between the two countries, and an agreement governing both bilateral trade and trade transiting Indian territory . The 1950 treaty and letters exchanged between the then Indian government and Rana rulers of Nepal, stated that" neither government shall tolerate any threat to the security of the other by a foreign aggressor" and obligated both sides" to inform each other of any serious friction or misunderstanding with any neighboring state likely to cause any breach in the friendly relations subsisting between the two governments ." These accords cemented “special relationship" between India and Nepal that granted Nepalese the same economic and educational opportunities an Indian citizens in India and preferential treatment to Indians compared to other nationalities in Nepal. The Indo Nepal border is open ;Nepalese and Indian nationals may move freely across the border without passports or visas and may live and work in either country.

Trends in trade and investment:

India is Nepal's largest trade partner and source of foreign investment; India is also the only transit providing country for Nepal. Bilateral trade was US$ 4.21 billion during Nepalese fiscal year 2010-11 (July 16-July 15). Nepal's import from India amounted to US$ 3.62 billion and exports to India aggregated US$ 599.7 million. In the first six months of fiscal year 2011-12, Nepal's total trade with India was about US$ 1.93 billion; Nepal's exports to India were about US$ 284.8 million; and imports from India were about US$ 1.64 billion.

Since 1996, Nepal's exports to India have grown more than eleven times and bilateral trade more than ten times; the bilateral trade that was 29.8% of total external trade of Nepal in year 1995-96 has increased to 66.4% in 2010-11. Since 1995-96, the total external trade of Nepal has increased from NRs. 9433 crores (IRs. 5895 crores) to NRs. 45946.1 crores (IRs. 28716.3 crores). 83% of this increase is on account of increase in the bilateral trade between India and Nepal, which grew from NRs. 2808 crores (Irs. 1755 crores) in 1995-96 to NRs. 16319.9 crores (IRs. 10199.9 crores) in first six months of 2011-12. Nepal's export also increased from NRs. 1988 crores (Rs. 1242 crores) in 1995-96 to NRs. 3591.6 crores (IRs. 2244.7 crores) in first six months of 2011-12. 45% of this increase was on account of increase in Nepal's exports to India.

Nepal's main imports from India are petroleum products (28.6%), motor vehicles and spare parts (7.8%), M.S. billet (7%), medicines (3.7%), other machinery and spares (3.4%), coldrolled sheet in coil (3.1%), electrical equipment (2.7%), hotrolled sheet in coil (2%), M.S. wires, roads, coils and bars (1.9%), cement (1.5%), agriculture equipment and parts (1.2%), chemical fertilizer. (1.1%), chemicals (1.1%) and thread (1%). Nepal's export basket to India mainly comprises jute goods (9.2%), zinc sheet (8.9%), textiles (86%), threads (7.7%), polyster yarn (6%), juice (5.4%), catechue (4.4%), Cardamom (4.4%), wire (3.7%) tooth paste (2.2%) and M.S. Pipe (2.1%).

Indian firms are the biggest investors in Nepal, accounting for 47.5% of total FDI proposals approved foreign direct investment of IRs 42.53 billion (approx. US $448 million) and 23.7% of total 2108 FDI proposals approved ventures with foreign investment.

Indian ventures in Nepal are engaged in manufacturing, services (banking, insurance, dry port, education and telecom), power sector and tourism industries. Some large Indian investors include, ITC, Dabur India, Hindustan Unilever, VSNL, TCIL, MTNL, State Bank of India, Punjab National Bank, Life Insurance Corporation of India, Asian Paints, CONCOR, GMR India, IR&PS, Manipal Group, MIT Group Holdings, Nupur International, Transworld Group, Patel Engineering, Bhilwara Energy, Bhushan Group, Feedback Ventures, RJ Corp, KSK Energy, Berger Paints, Essel Infra Projects Limited and Tata Projects, etc.

In recent years, Hydropwer sector has emerged as an attractive sector for Indian investments. Government of Nepal has issued 28 survey licenses for hydropower projects in Nepal having generation capacity of 8249 MW to Indian companies/joint ventures. These include Satluj Jal Vidyut Nigam Limited (900 MW Arun III), GMR (900 MW Upper Karnali and 600 MW Upper Marsyangdi); Everest Power (184 MW Upper Karnali St-1); Bhilwara Energy Limited (120MW LIkhu-4, 50MW Balephi, 194MW Mugu Karnali-1& 274 MW Humla Karnali-1); Patel Engineering Ltd (130 MW Budhi Gandaki ka & 260 MW Budhi GAndaki kha); PES Energy Pvt. Ltd. (210 MW Phulkot Karnali & 216 MW Upper Trishuli-1); LANCO Infratech Limited (303 MW Namlan Project, 200MW Karnali-7 & 100MW Kaligandaki Gorge); Jindal Power Limited (454MW Chainpur-Seti Project); KSK Energy Pvt. Ltd. (400MW Tila-1, 420MW Tila-2, 212 MW Bheri-1, 180MW Bheri-2, 174MW Bheri-3, 130 MW Manag Marsyangdi & 150 MW Upper Marsyangdi); Avanti Feeds Ltd. (80MW Seti Nadi-3), Maytas Estates Pvt. Ltd. (138 MW Dudhkoshi-2); Nanda Devi Agro Farms P. Ltd. (350MW Dudhkoshi-4); Essel Infraprojects Limited (40MW Lower Solu); and Tata Power (880MW Tamakoshi-3). Several other companies are awaiting decision on their survey license applications or are negotiating with the local license holders.

Nepal's transit trade is routed through twenty two designated routes from India-Nepal border to the port of Kolkatta/Haldia. In addition, Nepal's trade with and through Bangladesh also transits through India.

Government of India is providing assistance for development of cross-border trade related infrastructure. It includes upgradation of four major custom checkpoints at Birgunj-Raxaul, Biratnagar-Jogbani, Bhairahawa-Sunauli and Nepalgunj-Rupediya to international standards; upgrading approach highways to the border on the Indian side; upgrading and expanding the road network in the Terai region of Nepal; and, broad gauging and extending rail links to Nepal.

India and Nepal have a treaty of transit, which confers transit rights through each other's territory through mutually agreed routes and modalities. The treaty was last renewed for seven years in March 2006. The key features are:

- ▣India offers 22 transit routes from Kolkata/Haldia to Nepal for its third country trade.
- ▣Goods can move by road or rail. The creation of ICD in Birgunj and extension of railway line from Raxual to Birgunj has facilitated direct movement of goods in transit by rail to Nepal.
- ▣ A simple customs procedure has been put in place for Nepal's third country traffic.
- ▣Since 1993, India also allows movement of goods from one part of Nepal to another through a simple process of customs undertaking. Nepal has agreed to extend similar facility to India in the course of renewal of the transit treaty in March 2006.
- ▣India has extended Nepal direct transit routes to Bangladesh for bilateral and third country traffic. One road route and one rail route have been notified. The road route is through Kakarbitta-Panitanki-Phulbari-Banglabandha corridor. The rail route is through Radhikapur-Birol interchange point on India-Bangladesh border.

Line of credit from Exim Bank of India to Government of Nepal:

GOI agreed to provide a USD 100 million Line of Credit (LoC) to Nepal in June 2006 for execution of infrastructure development projects as prioritized by GON. As a special gesture, GOI agreed to dilute the norms of Indian content and eligibility criterion for accessing the LoC. Exim Bank of India and GON signed an agreement in September 2007, following which, LoC was operationalised in January 2008. The projects identified for implementation under the LoC include eleven road development projects, rehabilitation of 15 MW Devighat Hydro Power Project (HEP), development of 27MW Rahughat HEP, Nepal portion of the Muzaffarpur-Dhalkebar cross border transmission line and rural electrification projects. Thirteen contracts of value USD 73.98 million have been approved so far under the LoC. An amount of USD 25,757,833,75 was disbursed till mid-November, 2010.

In response to further request from Government of Nepal, the Government of India has agreed to extend another line of credit of US$ 250 million from EXIM Bank of India to GoN at similar terms and conditions as the existing LoC. The contract agreement between Government of Nepal and Exim Bank was signed on 21st October 2011 in New Delhi during the visit of Hon'ble Prime Minister of Nepal Dr. Baburam Bhattarai.

Conclusion-

The development of trade relationships with neighbouring countries provides an automatic advantage to both the importer as well as exporter nations. The easily and convenient access to transportations and easy accessibility to markets makes Nepal a important market for Indian goods. With rising competition from the developed nations, India can strongly look for creation of demand for its goods in the Nepalese markets. Because of the cost efficiency which the developed nations have over India, the country fails to increase its exports to the developed nations. Under the prevailing circumstances, Nepal can prove to be a better source for exporting Indian goods. The socio-cultural similarities between India and Nepal also makes Nepal a important trading partner. It, therefore, becomes the duty of the government to ensure a smooth International relation with Nepal in every sphere.

References:

1. Dutt and Sundaram, Indian Economy, S. Chand & Co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 2015 pp. 1066.
2. Shekhar K.C. Shekhar L., Banking Theory and Practice, Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., Noida, 2014, pp. 1036.
3. Trehan R, Trehan Mukesh, Jain T.R., Business Environment, V.K. Global Publications Pvt. Ltd, New Delhi 2012-13, pp. 420.
4. Singh S.K., Singhai G.C., Money and Banking, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, Agra, pp. 354.
5. Mishra J.P., Money and Financial systems, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, Agra, 2009, pp. 252.
6. Singh S.K. Micro Economics, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, 2015, Agra pp. 443.
7. Lekhi R.K. Public Finance, Kalyani Publishers, Ludhiana, 2012, pp. 280.
8. Verma S.S., Jain P.C., Business Environment, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, Agra 2014, pp. 312.

प्रतिक्रिया

शोध पत्रिकाओं को पढ़ने की लम्बी फेहरिश्त **'अभिनव गवेषणा'** पर आकर ख़्म हो जाती है?वास्तव में **'अभिनव गवेषणा'** का प्रयास गागर में सागर भरने जैसा है? शोधकर्ता ज्ञान का वह अथाह भण्डार है जो शोध पत्रिकाओं में अग्रगण्य एवं समाज विज्ञान के क्षेत्र में अभूतपूर्व है? जिस गम्भीर, गूढ़ और गहनतम ज्ञान से हिन्दी भाषी छात्र हमेशा वंचित रह जाया करते थे, सम्पादक? ने **'अभिनव गवेषणा'** (?वाटरली इण्टरनेशनल रेफ़्रीड रिसर्च जनरल) में होने प्रकाशित होने वाली उस वंचना को समाप्त करने की दिशा में एक सश?त प्रयास किया है? **'अभिनव गवेषणा'** ने सही मायने में हिन्दी साहि?िय जगत के सभी शोध कर्त्ताओं के लिए ज्ञान के नये द्वार खोले हैं?

- डॉ. सुशील कुमार गुप्ता

डीन एवं कन्विनर, सी. एस. जे. एम. यूनिवर्सिटी, कानपुर (उत्तर प्रदेश)

Farmers Suicide Crisis in India

- Neetu Verma
Assistant Professor -
Department of Economics
Government College for Girls,
Ludhiana (Punjab)

The Indian peasantry, the largest surviving body of small farmers in the world, is currently facing an epidemic of suicide. For thousands of years farmers have depended on the earth to sustain their families. Now, in the twenty-first century, their livelihood, prosperity, and the well-being of their families for generations to come are being threatened by globalization and the shift in the linkage of agriculture from the Earth to a few profit-driven multinational corporations. The Indian economy has entered the above 6.5 per cent growth trajectory in the past year. Growth implies a higher demand for food which must be met with an increase in food production. Though Prime Minister Manmohan Singh hoped for a 4 per cent growth of agriculture, it clocked a growth of only 2.3 per cent last year. This has serious food security implications for the country. While the decline of agriculture as a percentage of GDP is considered a sign of development, it also signifies lopsided development when the number of people employed in agriculture keeps rising. This implies falling individual income of the farm sector in relative terms.

Since 1997, more than 25,000 farmers have committed suicide, many drinking the chemical that was supposed to make their crops more, not less, productive. In the state of Andhra Pradesh alone, 4,500 farmers have committed suicide in the past seven years. This does not include the number of family members of farmers who have also killed themselves. In Maharashtra, 6 out of 35 districts account for 76% suicides. According to official sources, between 2001 and 2006 as many as 5,910 farmers committed suicide in Karnataka, 1,835 in Andhra Pradesh, 981 in Maharashtra and 201 in Kerala. Countrywide, between 1995 and 2003, 9.26 lakh farmers are reported to have committed suicide, according to statistics put out by the home ministry. Government policies like removal of QRs under WTO regime have created havoc and exposed the farmers to the volatility of international market and prices. The genetically engineered (GE) cotton seeds that the government encouraged required 15 percent more overall investment than did non-GE seeds, but the yield benefit was just 5 percent more. BT cotton, the genetically modified variety sold by Monsanto is thrice as expensive as ordinary cotton. But some farmers shell out the extra money because they expect to spend next to nothing on pesticides. BT cotton, after all, is widely believed to be pest-resistant. Now it is resistant to bollworms, but it's not clear it is resistant to other pests.

Who is a farmer? A farmer (also called agriculture) is a person engaged in agriculture, raising living organisms for food or raw materials. A farmer might own the farmed land or might work as a laborer on land owned by others. In advanced economies, a farmer is usually a farm owner, while employees of the farm are known as farm workers, or farmhands.

What is suicide? The word Suicide originates from Latin word 'suicidium', which originates from 'sui caedere', which means 'to kill oneself'. Suicide is the act of intentionally causing one's own death. Common methods include: hanging, pesticide poisoning, and firearms.

Why should we talk about farmers' suicides Agriculture sector has a pivotal role in Indian economy. The share of agriculture sector in G.D.P. of India was 44.0% during 1973-74. Agriculture provides the principal means of livelihood for over 60 percent of India's population. In Indian planning agriculture sector ignored except in a few five years plan.

History In the 1990s the Govt. officials denied a large number of suicides, but as more and more information came to light the government began to accept that farmers in India were under considerable stress 15% farmers killed themselves and more than 25000 farmers consumed pesticides and killed themselves because of a combination of high farming costs (exorbitantly priced hybrid (so-called high yielding) seeds and pesticides sold by multinationals and a lack of a good price for their produce, partly due to imports.

Why are Indian farmers killing themselves?

There is a wide array of factors that has led to the increasing spate of farmer suicides in India. The lands are not as productive as before, the markets are failing, the debts are piling up, and the pests cannot be kept at bay. More than an economic problem, this has now assumed political and humanitarian dimensions, especially since the past decade.

"**Rates of growth of agriculture in the last decade have been poor and are a major cause of rural distress. Farming is increasingly becoming an unviable activity." -Manmohan Singh, Prime Minister of India, 2007.**

Following are some other problems faced by farmers in India :

❖ **Issues of weather and climate** The weather in India these days has become erratic at best and rainfall does not happen at the right time. Moderate rainfall, which is needed so much for proper agriculture, is now becoming a thing of the past and things have reached the extreme. The situation is especially bad in Central India, which can be regarded as the agricultural heartland of India. In the past three years, the weather patterns have been changing. The situation does not become any better even when there is normal rainfall. 56% of the country depends on snow-fed rivers for its water and in such a situation even marginal fluctuations can have devastating effects. The problems are further exacerbated by the fact that 85% of precipitation in India happens because of rainfall.

❖ **Scales of operation** Real estate prices have gone up to such a level that people are finding it hard to buy a home as it is. In such circumstances it is unrealistic for the average people to think of owning farms for cultivation. Majority of the people who have their own land to till have got it from their ancestors. Since more often than not, after the death of a farmer his land is divided among his sons, it leaves precious little for a farmer.. The problem of small landholdings is acutely felt in states with high population density like Kerala, Bihar, West Bengal, and eastern Uttar Pradesh. In these states, on an average, farmers have less than a hectare of cultivable land. The situation is different in states such as Rajasthan and Nagaland. In fact, in states like Punjab, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh the net sown area is more than the national average. The gap between small farmers, big farmers or landlords, and medium farmers or peasants is huge. India's inheritance laws with its emphasis on fragmentation are problematic in nature.

❖ **Lack of farm lab our** These days farm labor is regarded as demeaning, especially casual lab our. Sectors such as construction and industries are already employing people, who would otherwise be engaged in agriculture. This is also one reason urban migration has increased so much in the last few decades. These days the children of the farmers are more interested in getting institutional education and joining other jobs. The government has also started the system of minimum support prices, which has resulted in inflation and increased the wages. This means that the smaller landholders do not get much leeway in terms of hiring sufficient agricultural lab our. It has also instituted schemes such as the MGNREGA for casual laborers, which means that they are more interested in those openings than any agricultural work. The fact that these jobs do not require to be them highly productive, as opposed to agriculture, only enthuses them further. These factors have affected the small farmer the most.

❖ **Unsatisfactory realization of prices** One of the most crucial problems faced by farmers in India is regarding marketing. The laws in India are outdated and most often a farmer has no option but to sell his produce in regulated markets, where the middlemen are the ones making the maximum gains. At times, they can make up to 75% profits. If the middlemen can be eliminated then the farmers could have sold their products at better rates.Distress selling in small villages is a pretty common phenomenon as well. The Rural Credit Survey has correctly stated that nothing is favorable for the farmers in terms of time, place or conditions of sale.

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

❖ **Quality of seeds, pesticides, and fertilizers** Farmers in India have to often make do with poor quality seeds. There are many reasons for this sorry predicament ignorance on part of farmers, corruption of officials, ineffective and coercive laws, and improper enforcement of the same. The fertilizers and pesticides that they use are of a poor quality. All these factors often lead to complete loss of crops. Quite often it so happens that the better quality seeds are so expensive that the small and medium farmers cannot buy them. As far as manure is concerned, most small farmers and peasants have to use cow dung, which is an effective one. However, the problem for them is that this cow dung is used as fuel too, which means that not enough cow dung is available for all. Chemical fertilizers are mostly out of bounds for the poor farmers. It is also stated that organic manure is highly necessary to make sure that soil stays healthy. However, it has also been observed that excessive usage of these has led to the soil being infertile and affected the quality of crops.

Another Problem :

Problems in maintaining farm livestock owing to increasing costs Problems in getting credit at good terms and conditions because of reluctance of commercial banks Lack of proper irrigationAbsence of mechanization Insufficient transport facilities

The impact of these deficiencies and issues is far-reaching, much greater than what most people would know or care to know. For a farmer, on the brink of suicide, the major worries are fending for his children in the wake of a disaster and managing to pay off loans. For those who are a little better off, it is a question of recovering investments and trying to avoid the debt trap that has claimed so many members of their fraternity.

How to Prevent Farmers' Suicides in India?

❖ **Farmers should get fair price** Exploitation by the middlemen is the reason put forth for not getting the best price for the produce of the agriculturists. Where the farmers can directly sell their products at reasonable price to the consumers.

❖ **Real estate mafia** we can see even fertile land best suited for agricultural purpose being sold to real estate people, who prepare plots and give attractive advertisements to sell at exorbitant price. There is need to implement strict measures to prevent land grabbing.

❖ **Government programme do not reach small farmers** Government has implemented agricultural debt. Waiver and debt. Relief scheme in 2008 to benefit over 36 million farmers. Direct agricultural loan to stressed farmers under so called Kisan credit Card were also covered under this scheme. However, most of the subsidies and welfare schemes announced by the Central and State governments do not reach the poor farmers. On the contrary, only big land lords are benefited by those schemes.

❖ **High indebtedness and exorbitant interest rates** The root cause of farmers taking their lives is the increase in their indebtedness and debt burden. Exorbitant interest rates have to be declared illegal and the government has to take strict measures against greedy money lenders. Easy accesses to institutional credits have to reach the small and marginal farmers, without cumbersome procedures.

❖ **Uncertainty of weather conditions** At one time, there will be no rainfall and the farmers have to suffer from drought and another time there will be heavy rainfall and the crops will be damaged. What can the helpless farmers do?

❖ **No single solution** There cannot be single solution to end the woes of farmers. The solutions should aim at the entire structure of agriculture.

❖ **Multiple crops** Cultivation of multi crops such as coconut, turmeric, pine apple, banana, apple, papaya, ginger will yield profitable results to the farmers.

❖ **Special agricultural zone** Just like industrial zone, there is an urgent need to establish special agricultural zones, where only farming and agriculture related activity should be allowed.

❖ **Need to modernize agriculture** By introducing farm techniques which guarantee a definite success, more number of youth participation in the agricultural field is possible. This can be attained only by implementing new technologies. Research efforts should continue, to produce crops with higher yield potential and better resistance to pests. Technological advancement in agriculture should be passed down to the small farmers.

❖ **Educate the farmers** Many farmers in India are not much aware of crop rotation. Though education to the people living in urban area has improved much, the government. Has ignored about the education for rural people in general and to those employed in agriculture sector in particular. That is why the farmers are not adequately aware of the various schemes implemented by the government.

❖ **Need for meaningful crop insurance policies** Crop insurance is must and the claim should be settled easily under the supervision of the district collectors. Traditional crop insurance depends on the direct measurement of the damage suffered by a farmer to determine his/her payout. However, field loss assessment is often not feasible or expensive, since most of our farmers are small holders.

❖ **Need for better water management** Irrigation facilities that are currently available do not cover the entire cultivable land. Apart from the areas where perennial rivers flow, most of the agricultural fields do not have irrigation facility. In most cases, it is not the lack of water but the lack of proper water management that causes water shortage. Improved modern methods of rain water harvesting should be developed.

❖ **Neglect of tanks and lakes** We cannot see many tanks or lakes these days and even if we come across them near temples, most of them are dry and are in dilapidated conditions due to poor maintenance. Tanks, lakes and ponds help to store water from seasonal and unseasonal monsoons and the silt formed also serve as good manure. It is, therefore, imperative and important to construct new tanks or at least conserve the old ones properly, as they not only help the farmers in irrigation but also help to maintain the ground water level. Most of the water from drainage is drained into the sea. Instead of draining the water into the sea, they can be desilted and purified and diverted to some tanks or lakes in nearby agricultural lands to be used for irrigation. The silt can be used as manure.

❖ **Alternate source of income for farmers** Small farmers should be encouraged to develop alternative sources of income and the government should take up the responsibility for providing training to the farmers to acquire new skills. In drought affected areas, the government should start alternative employment generation programmes to reduce the dependence on agriculture as the sole source of income. Such programmes should be standardized.

❖ **Need for national weather risk management system/disease alert system** Facilitating national weather risk management system that alerts farmers when there is a danger of extreme weather, would go a long way in reducing losses in agriculture. Value added services like pest and disease alert applications, in combination with the weather forecast would equip the farmers to handle and manage their crops better.

Conclusion:

The problems with the system are deep rooted, and need to be resolved accordingly. Instead of short-term sops, the government needs to resort to long-term measures. It requires policy makers, agricultural scientists, academicians and even the civil society groups to first accept the fundamental flaws that force farmers to the gallows. And then it needs determination - both political and scientific - and there is no reason why farmer distress cannot be turned into a scourge of the past. Economic gimmicks like announcing free electricity and enhancing bank credit will otherwise continue to force farmers to take the fatal route by drinking pesticides.Most importantly, agriculture must return to a "farmers first" policy rather than its current bias towards corporations. It is only when this ideal is achieved that farmers will regain control of their own lives: financially and mentally

References

- http://www.mapsofindia.com.
- http://nandinivoice.com/blog-single/?id
- Chand, R. (2004). India's national agricultural policy: a critique. Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics, 64(2) 164-187.
- Gregoire, AThe mental health of farmers. Society of Occupational Medicine, 52. ƒ Manav, C..Debt drives Indian farmers to suicide. Inter Press Service.
- Mishra, S. Risks, farmers' suicides and agrarian crisis in India: is there a way out?
- Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research: Mumbai. ƒ

Human Development Index in India

- Dr. Balwant Singh
Asst. Professor-
Deptt. Of Commerce,
Sri J.N. P.G. College, Lucknow
(U.P.)

Introduction:-

The basic purpose of planning in India is to widen people's choices and improve the well-being of the people. In this context, human development was the key issue so that people could lead a long and healthy life, they could acquire knowledge so as to have better vertical mobility in life and last, but not the least, to achieve a decent standard of living of all. It would be, therefore, appropriate to examine the progress of human development in India.

India has been categorized by the Human Development Report 2007/2008 as a medium human development country. The Human Development Index has risen gradually from 0.406 in 1975 to 0.510 in 1990 and stands at 0.619 in 2005. In fact, it can take quite long for India to cross the mark of 0.8 in HDI to join the rank of high HDI countries.

Basic Issues in Human Development Index:-

A major impediment to progress in human development is the very fast growth of population experienced in India. India's population increased from 620.7 million in 1975 to 1,027 million in 2001 giving a growth rate of 2.0 per cent per annum during the period (1975-2001), which is fairly high. It is expected that the growth rate of population during 2000-2015 will come down to 1.3 per cent. This would provide a welcome relief to push forward the process of human development.

Urbanization is considered to be a factor, which promotes human development. The share of urban population, which was 21.3 per cent in 1975, has reached a level of 27.8 per cent in 2001, but by 2015, urban population would reach the level of 32.2 per cent. In absolute terms, urban population was 285 million in 2001 and would reach a level of 407 million in 2015. This would certainly help to enlarge human development because it has been observed that urban areas are better looked after in terms of education and health facilities.

Another healthy feature of likely demographic transition is the proportion of children or population under age 15, whose proportion stood at 33.7 per cent in 2001 but is likely to decline to 27.7 per cent by 2015. In absolute terms, population under age 15 was 348 million in 2001 and would get reduced to 345 million in 2015. This will imply decreasing population pressure from below in future which would also help in releasing resources to improve human development.

In would be quite useful to consider factors related with the education of the population that are likely to promote human development. The most important factor is adult literacy rate, which was 61.0% in 2005. This implies an adult illiteracy rate of 39 per cent. In absolute terms, 296 million adults were illiterates in 2005. The share of India in the world's illiterate population is 33.3 per cent. According the Human Development Report 2001, a total of 854 million persons were illiterate in the world in 1999 and nearly one-third of these were accounted for in India. As compared with the total world population, the share of India in world population is only 16.6 per cent. In order words, in the total world population, the share is one-sixth, but among the world's illiterates, her share is one-third. This only underlines the need for strengthening literacy rate still further to reduce adult illiteracy in India. Although evidence of substantial increase in literacy during the decades of the nineties has become evident, still India has a long way to go. Compared to China, which has improved its adult literacy rate to 90.9 per cent in 2005, India lags behind considerably at 61 per cent in this very important area of human development.

Another important indicator is the combined Gross (Primary, Secondary and Tertiary) Enrolment Ratio, which was only 61.0 per cent in 2005 in India. China had a gross enrolment ratio of 68.7 per cent in 2007. India is lagging behind at 61 per cent and has to catch up, not only with reference to developed countries, but also with reference to some development countries like China.

Public expenditure on education as a percent of GNP is considered as an indicator of state policy towards promoting education. This proportion remained unchanged between 1991 and 2002-05 3.8% of GNP and was reported as 34% for 2006 as per UNDP. According to the Report of the Education Commission (1964-65) this expenditure should have been raised to 6% of GNP. Although it is nearly four decades now, but the target set by the Education Commission has yet to be realized.

The proportion of education expenditure devoted to pre-primary and primary education has marginally increased from 35% in 1985-86 to 38.4% in 2000-02. There is a strong need to enrich state-run schools at the primary level so as to bring about a decline in dropout rates. Since the children belonging to upper middle class and affluent sections are now going to the so-called public schools, it should be possible for the state to improved facilities both in terms of human and material resources deployed in state-run primary schools.

The Information Technology revolution has necessitated a increase in the proportion of tertiary students in science, math and engineering to be stepped up. Their proportion was only 20% during 1998-2003 in India. As against this, their proportion in China was 53%. This proportion was about 49 percent in Russian Federation. India has to bring about a shift to meet the changing demands of the new economy.

So far as youth literacy rate is concerned, it is 76.4% in 2005, but ironically in a majority of medium human development countries, youth literacy rate is above 90 per cent. India has, therefore, to improve its literacy rate among the youth (i.e. population in the age group (15-24).

Health Indicators-

Life expectancy at birth has shown a continuous improvement from 50.7 years during 1970-75 to 66.0 years in 2000-07. However, the probability at birth not surviving to age 40 is 15.5% in 2005-10. India has to improve health facilities as well as nutrition levels so that it can reduce the probability at birth not surviving to age 40. Several medium human development countries have much better survival rates. A few worth mentioning are Philippines, Thailand, Malaysia, Sri Lanka and China.

In this context, it would be relevant that 46% of the children under five were underweight in 2000-06. In absolute terms, 178 million children under five were underweight. The country should support a programme of improving nutrition in poor families to reduce this massive number of underweight children.

Population not using improved water sources was 11% in 2006.this is a very healthy development, but in absolute terms 124 million persons are unable to make use of improved water sources and thus become victims of all kinds of water-borne diseases. Similarly, improved sanitation facilities were not available to 33% of the population in 2004. In absolute terms, 375 million persons were living under insanitary conditions.

It is really distressing that 49% of the Indian population did not have access to essential drugs in 1999. This implies that 527 million persons were without effective medical cover. This reduces the survival rate in India.

The proportion of under-nourished people in

India in 2004 was 20%. This implies that 220 million people were under-nourished. This under-nourishment is primarily due to the existence of poverty. There is a need to strengthen poverty eradication strategies to reduce under-nourishment.

The survival rate has considerably improved in India. In 1970, infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births was 127; it has been brought down to 53 in 2007. These are healthy developments. Likewise, maternal mortality rate per 1, 00,000 live births have been brought down to 254 during 1985-2007. Control of diseases and improvement in hospital facilities has contributed to improvements in survival rate.

Gender-Related Development Indicators-

Life expectancy at birth of females in 2005 was 65.3 years, but for males, it was 62.3 years. Comparing with medium human development countries, Indian achievement , though good, is still much lower in realtion to Mexico, Venezuela, Russian federation, Thailand, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Iran, Vietnam, to name a few among them.

Although gap between life expectancy of females and males is very small, but in other gender-related development indicators, this gap is very wide. For instance, adult literacy of females was barely 54.5 per cent as against 76.9 per cent of males in 2007. Similarly, combined Gross Enrolment ratio of females was 57.4 per cent as against 64.3 per cent for males in 2007. Likewise, Estimated Earned Income of females was $ 1304 as compared with that of males to be $ 4102 in 2005. This implies that female income was just 32 per cent of male income. Obviously, either females suffered from gender discrimination in wage income or they did not have regular employment and a big proportion was employed as casual labourers or a large proportion of females worked part time. There may be many more factors, but it cannot be denied that females suffered gender bias both in education and employment. Incidentally 10 percent ministerial positions were held by women.

Economic Indicators-

GDP per capita of India was $ 3,452 in 2005 (PPP US $). The average annual growth rate of GDP during 1980-90 was 5.8, it declined to 4.2 percent during 1990-2005.

However, the measures of inequity of consumption revealed that the share of the poorest 10% in total consumption in 2007 was just 3.6 per cent and that of the richest 10% was 31.1 per cent. Thus, the ratio of consumption between the richest 10% to the poorest 10% was 8.6. Similarly, the poorest 20 per cent shared only 8.1 per cent in total consumption, but the richest 20 per cent shared 45.3 per cent. Thus, the ratio of consumption of the richest 20% to the poorest 20% was 5.6. Compared with medium human development countries. India shows moderate inequality. A very large number of countries in this group show much higher inequality of income or consumption. However, there is a need to improve the condition of the poorest 10 per cent or 20 per cent of the population so that India is able to reduce inequality still further.

Data on priority in public expenditure on education reveals that it was 3.7% of GDP in 1990 and has slightly deteriorated to 3.5 per cent in 2007. But public expenditure on health was distressingly low at 1.1% of GDP in 2007. There is, therefore, an urgent need to improve the proportion of public expenditure both of education and health so as to foster human development. This, however, should not mislead us to conclude that India is spending more on military expenditure or has to use a big proportion of GDP in total debt service. Data available on both the indicators reveals that military expenditure accounted for 2.7 per cent of GDP in 1990, and it was nearly of the same magnitude in 2005 i.e. 2.8% of GDP. Similarly total debt service payments were of the order of 2.6 per cent of GDP in 1990 but they have shown a increase to 3.0 per cent in 2005. Obviously, India is neither using a big proportion of its public spending on military expenditure nor on debt service payment. We have, therefore, to search for some other areas like general administration and subsidies, which may be appropriating a big proportion of public expenditure.

Lastly, we may consider fuel consumption as a proximate measure for industrialization or modernization of our economy. Data reveal that tradition fuel consumption in total energy use declined from 47.5% in 1990 to 29.4% in 2004. This was natural and is in accordance with the process of development. However, it may be noted that per capita electricity consumption sharply improved from 173KWH in 1990 to 618 KWH in 2004.this only underlines the fact that sources of energy other than electric energy, such as coal and oil, have contributed more to energy use.

Energy is a basic constraint on development. India has become more dependent on non-renewable sources of energy like coal and oil and less on renewable sources like hydropower. It would be more desirable to tap hydro resources more effectively.

To sum up, the fact sheet on human development has many plus points. Population growth rate has begun to decline and would be 1.3 per cent annum during 1999-2015. This will release quite a good proportion of resources being currently used for supporting a higher growth rate of population. Growth of urbanization will strengthen the sinews of human development since urban areas are better looked after in terms of education and health. The proportion of child population in total population has already indicated a decline and the trend is likely to be strengthened.

Although India has shown a better record in improving its literacy rate and gross enrolment ratio, yet it lags behind considerably, even with reference to medium human development countries, not to speak of catching up with high human development countries. Public expenditure on education has not made perceptible progress in reaching the goal of 6 per cent of GNP set by the Education Commission (1964-65). The proportion of tertiary students in science, math and engineering has been around 20, which is rather low. Similarly, youth literacy at about 76 per cent is much lower than the achievement of a majority of medium human development countries around 90 per cent and above.

Health indicators reveal a continuous improvement in life expectancy, in fact mortality rate and maternal mortality rate though our achievement is not commensurate with the levels attained in several of the medium development countries. But our record about the proportion of underweight children around 46% is very dismal. Equally distressing is 51 per cent of the population did not have access to life saving drugs.

Gender related development indicators revealed the gap between male and female in adult literacy, gross enrolment ratio and earned income was too wide and indicated the existence of a strong gender bias.

The growth rate of the Indian economy has remained about 6 per cent during the last two decades and can be considered as satisfactory. Similarly, India showed moderate inequality of income/consumption, although there is further scope for reducing inequality by poverty eradication programmes targeted to the poorest 20 per cent of the population.

Public expenditure on health has been pitiably low at 1.1 per cent of GDP. Military expenditure as a percentage of GDP indicated a decline during the nineties.

Conclusion-

In nutshell, it may be stated that human development index of India has improved from 0.46 in 1975 to 0.612 in 2007, but India still has miles to go before she can enter the group of high human development countries. But our process of development has to accelerate the pace of human development so that India can feel proud to be a member of high human development countries.

References

1. Dutt and Sundaram, Indian Economy, S. Chand & Co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 2015 pp. 1066.
2. Shekhar K.C. Shekhar L., Banking Theory and Practice, Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., Noida, 2014, pp. 1036.
3. Trehan R, Trehan Mukesh, Jain T.R., Business Environment, V.K. Global Publications Pvt. Ltd, New Delhi 2012-13, pp. 420.
4. Singh S.K., Singhai G.C., Money and Banking, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, Agra, pp. 354.
5. Mishra J.P., Money and Financial systems, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, Agra, 2009, pp. 252.
6. Singh S.K. Micro Economics, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, 2015, Agra pp. 443.
7. Lekhi R.K. Public Finance, Kalyani Publishers, Ludhiana, 2012, pp. 280.
8. Verma S.S., Jain P.C., Business Environment, Sahitya Bhawan Publications, Agra 2014, pp. 312.

◈◈

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

Adoption of Strategies in Selecion of International Market-An Evaluation

- Dr. Sunil Kumar Gupta
Associate Professor - Commerce
D. A. V. College, Kanpur-01 (U.P.)

E-mail:

ABSTRACT

International market selection is one of the most important decisions to be made by organisations enagaging in international trade. Yet, despite its importance, the approaches taken by many organisations in identifying profitable and servable markets i the international context are often based on ad hoc decisions and intution, rather than a formalised attempts to clarify some of the issues arising in international market. This paper attempts to clarify some of the issues arising in international market selection. A rationale for international trade is outlined, followed by an assessment of firm-related factors that need to be considered before market selection based on the literature on international marketing is then given. Subsequent to the presentation and evaluation of these modles, salient elements within the models are discussed in more detail. The conclusion will provide a short executive summary to identify the key elements to be considered by management in choosing international markets.

INTRODUCTION :

`Few of us know even simple facts about the geography, culture and economics of countries other than our own. Even fewer people have at their fingertips details that tell whether their goods will set in a particular market.' **- (Cavusgil, 1985, P-28)**

Business in the age of globlisation has both facilitated and necessitated a move towards the internationalisation of organisations of all sizes. However, while globalisation is indisputably occuring in a variety of shapes throughout the world, there is as yet a considerable gap in the literature regarding the internationalisation of business. Consequently, organisations engaging in foreign business frequently find themselves utterly unprepared for the environments they are entering and unavare of the potential risks involved in the internationalisation move.

This back of preparation is already evident in the criteria applied to discriminate foreign markets against one another in order to select suitable countries for market entry. Often, countries for foreign business activity are chosen according to `soft' factors, i.e. factors such as proximity or personal preference, rather than `hard' factors such as market size, growth rate or accessibility. Yet, country selection is a step of crucial importance in the internationalisation process, given the impracticality of entering all 192 nation states due to financial and resource consraints on the one hand and the multitude of potential risks arising from poor market selection on the other hand.

This paper will discuss some of the salient issues and the methodologies employed in the process of international market selection. The research methodology of the paper is based on secondary desk research, drawing from the available and relevant marketing literature on foreign marketing. The findings of the literature review will be presented in the paper as they relate to the following research question : what are the issues and methodologies involved in the selection of internal markets? The discussion will be followed by a summary and conclusion.

INTERNAL FACTORS IN FOREIGN MARKET SELECTION :

Before considering the methodologies of foreign market selection and the related salient elements in market selection proposed in the litreature, a number of internal or firm-related factors need to be considered. These factors are management, customers, capital requirements, social assessment, corporate socail reponsibility and time and research. The factors will be discussed in turn below :

Management :

The management or the owner of the organisation will be an influencing factor in selecting a specific country for foreign trading. If the management have specific knowledge of operating in a global context, their experience and market knowledge will reduce the fear of foreign trading in certain countries. Their experience may also dissuade the organisation of competing in a certain market because of some feature that market research may neglect to portray. This knowledge will be invaluable to the organisation in their selection process and will minimise risk and uncertainty. Management are from a better-educated geneeration and are less likely to be dissuaded from foreign trading and will generally possess a greater experience in global trading.

Customers :

Organisations customer's may influence the market in which an organisation will select to complete in. After extensive marketing research carried out by the organisation, analysis may conclude that the target reached by the firm may include a specific domination which, correlates with another country's population. Moreover, if the customers of the product are foreign and from a specific origin, this too may be a determining factor in the selection of a specific market.

Capital Requirements :

The capital requirements of entering a specific market are also another consideration for an organisation. Post market researh, the organisation will outline a cost-benefit analysis on each specific country and more importantly the capital requirements that will be required for the initial outlay of a global orientation, into this country. The results of which will be clear and help management determine the market they will select. Some markets the organisation may enter, even if the potential for porfitablity is great, as the capital required may be too high for them.

Tylecote (1987) outlines three areas in which an organistaion can raise the necessary capital requirements for such a venture. Firstly, the organisation should analyse liquidity and the cost of capital. This includes; the time rate of discount, the rates of interest proposed and the inflation rates expected. Secondly, proposes for an organisation to look at other avenues, besides borrowing at interest, such as self-financing out of retained profits, `most attractive method, so long as there is enough profit left over after satisfying shareholders' minimum demands for dividends'. The third avenue for gaining capital is through the stock market in the form of ordinary share capital. This has long been a major source of finance for company's who wish to raise capital. This method is attractive to firms who are currently successful as `the new shares were issued at the same price as existing shares.'

Social Assessment :

Another area in which, management should include in the cost benefit analysis, is the social impact of the company entering a specific market. Social impact assessment is rarely given the same time as the economic assessment of a country. The authors outline how an organisation should treat the social assessment as a tangible determinant and therefore, include it in the cost-benefit analysis.

Corporate Social Responsibility :

The organisation before entering a specific country must also consider the element of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and how each specific country views the concept. The concept of CSR is still vague and ambiguous and many writers have attempted definitions, such as Carroll `the social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations the society has of organisations at a given point in time.'

Socail responsibility also incorporates the environment and the pollution restrictions imposed by each specific government. Management should be aware of the populations attitude towards such issues, as those countries who are strict in their environment protection will not tolerate shoddy products and so on.

The organisation should also take care of the nature of product being exported and the country they are targeting and wheather that country is economically developed enough to receive their product. An instance of this type of exporting disaster can be seen with reference to Nestle and their exportation of powered baby milk to a third world, under-developed country. The result of which, was a global boycott.

Time and Research :

Time is a valuatble commodity in the business environment. The decision on which country to select for foreign trading has an effect on the strategic development of an organisation, yet this decision will be affected by the element of time alloted for the decision. If management is under pressure to make a decision, then a country, which seems the easiest to trade in, may be selected, thus giving rise to risky decision-making. Closely associated with the factor of time is the question regarding market research in prospective markets. while it may be preferable for an organisation to conduct secondary and primary research into prospective markets independently, expertise, accessibility, time and resources may not allow for such an approach. Thus, an organisation may need to outsource some research activities to avail of the expertise of professional research agencies with a given market.

METHODOLOGIES :

Thus far, two categories of market selection models have been proposed in the literature. These are general and context-specific, i.e. applicable to specific industries, categories of companies and / or business situations. Most models differ only insignificantly in their approach, usually being composed of three or four sequential stages. These stages (1) preliminary screening or markets in attractive countries, (2) assessment of industry market potential and (3) company sales potential analysis, refer to (1) screening, (2) identification and (3) selection, offers an alternative terminology of (1) preliminary screening, (2) in-depth screening and (3) final selection. In a model of four stages, propose a differentiation between restrictions, a first and a second set of selection criteria and the final selection of potential foreign target markets.

Despite dissimilarities in technology, the models offered by various writers in the literature are virtually identical in content. They consist of a filter, or funnel approach to market selection, each stage applying a different set of criteria, until a set of suitable foreign target markets has been identified.

Preliminary Screening :

The first stage of foreign market selection, preliminary screening, is concerned with the identification and elimination of countries with unsuitable trading cliamtes by applying macro-level indicators giving clues to disparities between organisational objectives and the features of a given foreign market. Macro-level indicators are numerous and may include market size, growth rate, existing product line, competitive rivalry, socio-cultural factors ands basic fit with customer preferences.

The purpose of preliminary screening is a reduction in the number of countries to receive greater attention by way of more detailed analysis. Reasons for the unsuitability of a country may arise, for example, from political instability, currency considerations (as in the case where currencies can not be traded in the open market), hostile weather conditions (for example for particular types of clothing or fresh foods) or severe restrictions within the foreign market.

In-Depth Screening :

During the second stage of foreign market selection, in-depth screening, information specific to the industry the organisation is operating in is gathered, analysed and evaluated for each of the potential foreign target markets remaining from stage one. Industry market potential is assessed according to one or more sets of criteria previously established by the organisation. Determining present and future aggregate demad as well as the consideration of market accessibility, product potential (in terms of customer needs and desires, competitive offerings, attitudes towards foreign product offerings et cetera) and local distribution and production are all part of this stage. This includes the tracking of the origin of hits on the corporate website as a potential indicator for suitable markets.

Foreign market conditions should align with organisational objectives in order to be filtered through to the next stage of selection. Indicators of an organisation's own potential strength within a foreign market as well as statistics from the foreign market are useful in this analysis where available. Furthermore, outsourcing a foreign marketing research agency more familiar with the foreign market may be preferential to conducting an own analysis at this stage.

Final Selection :

Proposes three types of limitations in the final selections of foreign markets:

(1) company objectives;

(2) strategies; and

(3) resources

The importance of striking a balance between domestic and foreign market commitments. Furthermore, the reciprocal effects of the one on the other should not be under-estimated. Thus, a strong domestic presence is capable of signalling stability to customers in the foreign market, while the ability to export increases the legitimacy of a company in the domestic market. However, great take needs to be taken in order to prevent alienation of either target market through unbalanced organisational commitments.

While these stages appear relatively simple, they incorporate meticulous and time-and money-consuming research work. The scope of research is variable which offer a list of sixty important factors to be considered. Generally speaking, the more detailed the preliminary and in-depth screening analyses are, the more accurate the final foreign market selection is going to be. However, constraints in terms of finance and time need to be recognised and weighed against the proposed degree of foreign trading activity.

EXTERNAL FACTORS IN FOREIGN MARKET SELECTION :

After assessing the rationale for foreign trade, firm-related factors and the methodologies proposed in the literature to date, a number of salient elements associated with these methodologies should be discussed in more detail.

Market potential :

Here, the central focus is on whether the export market of interest has the necessary means to purchase inported products, and whether the needs of the market are being adequately satisfied. Generally, studies have shown that almost all entrants use information relating to market size and growth rate, level of competition, and trade barriers.

Market size :l

Market size analysis requires an assessment as to what share of the total market in the country the firm can reasonably expect to obtain, given domestic and other foreign competition and affordability of the product. In cases where this demand is not sufficient to justify risk or costs of entry, the market should be excluded from further consideration. A direct measure of market size can be computed from local production, minus exports, plus imports. An indirect measure can be derived from he widely available GNP measure, population size, growth in GNP, and imports of relevant goods.

Market growth :

Getting the market size measures for different years and computing the growth rates can obtain growth estimates. When deriving the growth rate in this manner, itis important that cyclical changes in the economy are accounted for. There are a number if simple ways for estimating likely demand sufficient for a screening activity. These not only involve assessing current demand but also likely future demand as well as untapped of unfilled demand, which may exist in a particular market. Some of the more common techniques are as follows: demand pattern analysis; foreign product life cycle; income elasticity measurements; proxy and multiple factor indices.

Competitive intensity :

The number of competitors in the market, and the relative size distribution of market shares can measure level of competition. Competition is generally toughest where a few large domestic companies dominate the market. When existing companies all have small shares, or when foreign companies have already made successful entry, the competitors will generally by less concerned about a new entrant. There are a number of competitive strategies, which might influence selection of markets. These include entering a market so as to pre-empt the entry of others, entering a market in which there are already competitors and confronting them, and entering a market where large competitors do not exist.

Competitive entry :

When the aim of a foreign entry is competitive, the plan can be to attack cash generating home market for a competitor or another market where a competitor is dominant. In other cases, the aim is to pre-empt or disrupt a competitor's entry into a new market by entering first or increasing the firm's market support. In either case, the choice of country is often a given.

However, the firm must recognise the resource implications of fighting these kinds of batttles. They may not generate much revenue and could be costly. The firm has to carefully evaluate whether the gains is other countries over time will justify these excursions. The choice of country is made differently again, in the cases in which a company goes abroad to learn from customers and competitors in leading market countries. Then the company aim is primarily to gain further strengths and expand capability, and tapping market growth is only a secondary goal, at least in the short run. Leading markets tend to be large, strong at the high end of the product line, free from government regulation and protective measures, with strong competitors and demanding products. Storng domestic competitors emerge because a country's location specific advantages, such as natural resource endowments, technological know how, and labour skills. Over time, these advantages enable domestic firms to accumulate experience.

Entry barriers :

Entry barriers are present to protect domestic industry or to ensure that companies entering from foreign markets conform to trade relation's arrangements with other countries. These barriers may relate to entry, exit, and the marketplace. Entry barriers can be both traiff and non-traiff. Such barriers also include aspects that impinge on the form of foreign market entry, such as regulations relating to local content and ownership. Exit barriers may relate to regulations of profits, dividends, and capital, taxation issues and technology transfer. Marketplace barriers can include access to skilled personnel, availability to warehouse space, transportation, allocation of critical inputs, suchas power and water, and control over prices.

Political environment :

Fundamental to every marketer's selection and assessment of a foreign market is an appreciation of the political environment of the country within he or she intend to operate. An examination of target country's political orientation and environment is part of the preliminary screening stage of market selection. Any company considering doing business outside of their own country should carefully study the government structure of the target market as well as examine the numerous issues arising from the political enviornment.

Interest in politics is the first dimension listed in many frameworks examining export environments. This is largely due to the fact, foreign firms must endeavour to make their activities politically acceptable or they may be subjected to politically condoned harassment.

Political issues for consideration in market selection :

The political strength of leaders within the foreign country, the stability of government policies, the degree of domestic instability within the target market, the degree of local labour unrest, the number of trade restrictions on free and open trade due to political frictions, the foreign governments use of incentives to encourage private business and the ability of the foreign government to enforce trade restrictions, are all areas which need to be considered when selecting potential markets in global business strategies. Government involvements in business and in communication, the country's attitude toward foreign business and national economic and development priorities are further issues worthy. Any firm engaging in foreign marketing should also be aware of the importance of sovereignty to national governments and its consquences for global business.

Risk assessment -

Risk assessment is also crucial when selecting target markets as foreign marketers are faced with high levels of uncertainly, in terms of continuity of government policies, changing political philosophies and government actions with regard to taxes, dilution of equity control and expropriation.

There are many ways of assessing risk. Risk analysis flows from the first to the fourth level. If any of the levels uncovers risk, which may be deemed unacceptable, the firm should immediately reconsider conducting business within the country in question.

Factors of political risk

Factors	Examples
Level 1: General Instability	Revolution External aggression
Level 2: Expropriation	Nationalisation Contract revocation
Level 3: Operations	Import restrictions Local content rules Taxes, Export requirements

Level 4: Finance	Repatriation restrictions Exchange rates

As government's change and new philosophies are undertaken a firm find that political risk is somewhat temporary. However it is extremely necessary for a firm in undertaking internationalisation strategies to consider all manner of political risk and ensure the all indicators are followed closely to ensure acceptable and successful market selection.

Legal Environment :

Companies face a vast amount of problems in their efforts to develop successful global marketing programms. Just as cultural, political, geographical differences pose as threats to global firms so too do the verying legal systems of the world and their affect on business transactions. A country's legal environment can be identified as the rules and principles that nation states regard as binding upon themselves. The legal environment is an important variable to consider in foreign business due to the devastating impacts that court of law decisions may have upon a company's globlisation attempts.

Economic Environment -

The economic development and performance of a country is a further issues the foreign marketer needs to consider in foreign business. The stage of economic growth within a country affects numerous facets of firms foreign strategies. Economic growth affects a countries attitude towards foreign business activity, the demand for goods and the distribution system found within the country.

Economic Development -

Economic development presents a number of challenges to the foreign firm. A study of the economic climate is important especially to gain understanding with regard to developing countries and secondaly in respect to market potential and market growth. The existing level of economic development allows the firm to estimate the degree of marker potential as well as allowing them to prepare for economic shifts and emerging markets.

Wood and Robertson suggest that in evaluating foreign markets a firm needs to consider many issues of development and preformance. The gross national product (GNP) and income per capita in the country needs to be examined. The education and employment levels of the population need to be analysed, as well as inflation rates and the country's balance of trade.

Walt Rostow presented a model for classifying countries by stage of economic development. Each of the five stage is a function of the cost of labour, technical capability of the buyers, and the scale of operations, interest rates and level of product sophistication. The 5 stage are given below :

*** Stage 1 :** The traditional society.
*** Stage 2 :** The preconditions for take off.
*** Stage 3 :** The take - off.
*** Stage 4 :** The drive to maturity.
*** Stage 5 :** The age of high mass consumption.

Culture -

A second aspect to be considered when selecting a market is that of culture. Firms exporting for the first time generally select foreign markets that have some market and cultural similarity with the firms domestic market. In some instances markets are selected because they are seen as `psychologically close' to the domestic market.

Culture is integral to the marketing concept, which is based on satisfacation of wants and needs of potential buyers. Not only does culture condition these wants and needs, but it also impacts on the way message concerning the ability of the product or service to satisfy the needs and wants, are received and interpreted. This is even more so in foreign markets, where culture differ markedly from one foreign market to another. Culture pervades all elements of the marketing mix-product, pricing, promotion and distribution and the acceptability of each of these elements will be judged in the context of the culture that they are targeting.

Global marketers who understand and recognise the meaning and substance of cultures other than their own and the associated behaviours in those cultures will have a signigicant global advantage. It is essential for global marketers to aviod a cultural bias, or the self reference criterion (SRC), when dealing with business operations in more than one culture.

Infrastructure -

Issues to be considered here include the extent and nature of the export market's physical distribution infrastructure reasonable logistics links should exist both between the domestic and foreign market and with in the foreign market. The impact of the cost of logistics on the ability to both complete and satisfy demand also needs to be considered. Also relevant in selecting a market is whether these links are reliable and timely, that delivery can be relied upon; that the time taken for goods to reach the destination does not adversely impact on the ability to complte, and that the goods arrive in an acceptable condition. Further, consideration should also be given to the geography and climatic conditions that may affect the business enterprise in the export market.

Conclusion -

Market selection is complicated by changes in the International business environment. These changes involving the formation of regional trade groupings, the creation of straegic alliances between firms and exponential spread of information techonology are resulting in a breaking down of barriers between countries and the need to view the world as a global entity rather than as a series of national markets. As a consequence the most appropriate foreign markets to have become more difficult to enter.

Underpinning the selection of markets to enter should be a strategic orientation that treats market entry selection as part of the firm's overall strategy, linked both to its resource base and a distinctive competence on the one hand and its position in relation to competitors on the other. Selecting a foreign market can impact on the other actaivities of the firm. This is because the outcome may influence the profitablity of the firm in its domestic as well as in its other foreign markets. Not only will this impact be on overall profits but it might also have an impact in other areas such as its global reputation.

All the literature points towards two different types of data needs : macro information, providing mostly knowledge about different environments and micro information, providing details about markets, activities within those markets, and the changes taking place in them. Furtherore, a firm needs to be aware of its internal capabilities, competencies and restrictions in order to select appropriate foreign target markets.

The methodologies proposed in the literature for the selection of foreign target markets are similar in their approach. Three main stages of preliminary screening, in-depth screeing and final selection have been identified and discussed. The salient elements within these screeing processes have likewise been identified and discussed.

To conclude on a las, important note, the final selection of the country to entery should not be made until personal visits have been made to the country and direct experience has been acquired by management. There is no subsititute for on-the-spot information and the hands-on feeling of a new market.

References

* Aaker, D. A. (2001) - Strategic Market Management 6th ed. New Jersey, John Wiley & Sons. Inc.
* Cateora, P. R. & Graham, J. L. (2000) - International Marketing, European Edition. Maidenhead, McGraw - Hill Publisbing Company.
* Cateora, P. R. & Graham, J. L (2002) - International Marketing, 11th ed. New York, McGraw Hill Companies.
* Chetty, C. & Campbell-Hunt, C. (2004) - A strategic approach to internationalisation : a traditional versus a `born-global' approach. Journal of International Marketing. 12 (1). pp. 57-70.
* Czinkota, M. R. (1991) - International information needs for US competitiveness. Business Horizons, November/ December, pp. 86-91.
* Dow, D. (2000) - A not on psychological distance and export market selection Journal of International Marketing, 8 (1), pp. 51-64.
* Erramilli, M. K. (1991) - The experience factor in foreign market entry behaviour of service firms. Journal of International Business Studies. 22, pp. 479-501.
* Gidengil, B. Z. (1977) - The social responsibility of business : what marketing executives think, European Journal of Marketing. 11 (1). pp. 72-86.
* Hollensen, S. (1998) - Global Marketing - a Market-Respective Approach, Hertfordshire, Prentice Hall.
* Jeannet, J. P. & Hennesy, H. D. (2004) - Global Marketing Srategies, 6th ed. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company.
* Lee. T. J. (2002) - Leading the way with the company brand Strategic Communication Management, 6 (4) June/July, pp. 9.
* Papadopulos, N. & Denis, J. E. (1988) - Inventory, taxonomy and assessment of methods for international market selection. International Marketing Review, 5 (3) Autumn, pp 38-51.
* Tylecote, A. (1987) : Time horizons of management decisions : causes and effects. Journal of Economic Studies, 14 (4), pp. 51-65.
* Wood, V. R. & Robertson, K. J. (2000) - Evaluating international markets. International Marketing Review, 17 (1) pp. 34-55.
* Ziller, A & Phibbs, P. (2003) - Integrating social impact into cost-benefits into cost-benefit analysis : a participative method. Impact assessment and Project Approval, 21 (2) June, pp. 141-147.

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

Effect of Strees in Business Organization

- Dr. Sakshi Tewari
Assistant Professor,
Department of Commerce
Kumaun University, S. S.J. Campus Almora-263601, (Uttarakhand)

1. Introduction

As the economic environment places more pressure on businesses to succeed, competition becomes fierce. Business owners may face brutal burdens to keep their companies functioning at a profit, and a trickle-down effect can occur resulting in the creation of employee stress. If not addressed, the stress experienced by workers can work against attaining business goals. Managers and business owners can ward off the potentially negative organizational effects of employee stress by becoming familiar with the signs of stress in business and implementing some simple remedies.

How ever, it is not only the individual who suffers the consequences of stress. Where the stress is not identified and dealt with promptly, it soon impacts on the organization and society. The organizational consequences of stress can have a massive negative impact on the organization, in a wide variety of areas. This post covers some of the more common organizational consequences of stress.

2. Organizational consequences of stress:

(i). High staff turnover & recruitment costs-

This is, perhaps, the most common of the organizational ***consequences of stress***. Stressed employees do not tend to enjoy their working environment. While some may have the confidence to seek their employer's help in combating the stress, others may feel they have no option but to leave the organization and remove themselves from the stressful situation; sometimes as a result of medical advice. Also, employees who seek help may not receive the help they require and so choose to leave the organization. Unfortunately, many organizations make no attempt to ascertain the true reason for an employee's resignation and so never realize that their organization has an issue with stress.

(ii). High absenteeism and presenteeism levels-

Stressed individuals tend to experience more illness and so take more time off due to illness. Absenteeism can also be the result of staff feeling that they simply cannot cope with going into work so they attempt to escape the stressful situation by remaining in the safety of their own home. In many instances, these staff will make it into work but will be unable to contribute much. They are physically present but psychologically they are elsewhere. This is referred to as Presenters.

These factors are usually just attributed to poor discipline on the employee's part. Where organizations recognize absenteeism and presenters as organizational consequences of stress, they are able to take corrective action, to the benefit of both staff and the organization, before things escalate out of control.

(iii). Reduced productivity levels-

As ***exposure to stress*** is prolonged and chronic fatigue kicks in, it becomes more difficult for the employee to work to an optimum level. As fatigue sets in, concentration and motivation levels drop. This leads to mistakes creeping in to their work. It also takes longer to complete tasks. The quantity and quality of the employee's work begins to suffer. This lowers the productivity levels of the company.

(iv). Increased health and safety issues-

This is more common in workplaces which are more manual in nature. Employees tend to take more risks and suffer poorer concentration when they are stressed. This combination is a recipe for increased accidents which in turn increase litigation, insurance and medical costs for the organization.

(v). Litigation-

Organizations have a legal obligation to provide a safe and healthy workplace for their employees. This can include adequate training, safe work practices, and a workplace free from bullying and harassment. Where an employee experiences stress due to the organization failing to meet its legal obligations; the employee may seek a legal remedy. This may result in costly legal proceedings and damage to the organizations reputation. Of all the organizational consequences of stress, the one which best motivate organizations to take action is the threat of litigation.

(vi). Reputational damage

The reputation of the organization is damaged by the culture of stress which can develop as a result of the failure to manage stress at both an organizational and individual level. It doesn't take long for a company to develop such a reputation; though it can take a long time to lose this reputation. With reduced productivity levels and the decreased performance of staff a culture of poor customer service can develop.

(vii). Increased training costs-

As a result of higher staff turnover, more induction courses are required. The organization may also have to spend more on interpersonal skills, health and safety and stress management training.

3. Effects of Stress:

Your organization may experience a variety of negative effects as a result of stressed workers. You might notice an increase in instances where an employee becomes argumentative or easily agitated. He may exhibit a change in behavior, such as smoking heavily or eating unhealthy foods. The staff member may make more mistakes and demonstrate a general decline in performance. Frequent absenteeism or being late to work may also be stress indicators. Your business can suffer dramatically from a resulting lack of customer service, uncompleted projects, orders not being placed or a noticeable decline in sales.

4. Causes:

Work-related stress can occur when employees feel they are not being fairly compensated or sense a lack of respect from their peers or managers. An over-abundance of rules or a lack of opportunities for advancement can contribute to the creation of stress. Employees may become stressed if they are not provided with a means to air their concerns, or if management is consistently unclear in communication. Employees who are micro-managed and who are not empowered to make decisions frequently experience stress. Team members who consistently experience a work environment where they do not feel valued may not be compelled to work to their potential. The result may reflect a business that is not achieving its financial or strategic goals.

5. Other Effects of Stress :

Stress can also produce “counterproductive work behaviors,” which may include personality changes in employees, disrespect for coworkers or customers and exhibiting extreme anger toward managers. At some point, employees might begin disregarding safety procedures and company policies, thus jeopardizing themselves or others in the workplace. Stress in employees can also be brought on by personal issues occurring outside the business. Your company may suffer a loss in revenue if customers stop frequenting your business because of continual exposure to the adverse impact of employee stress.

6.Conclusion :

You can help your employees avoid stress, and thus maintain business objectives, by providing workers with the means to communicate issues that bother them. Regular performance reviews, options for career development and a sense of autonomy in their jobs enable staff members to enjoy their work. You might make lifestyle coaching available as part of employee benefits, offering healthy ways to mitigate the onset of stress. Recognizing when an employee is

References

1. Maurer, M. K. (2002, February). Is stress running your life? Modern Office Innovation, 2728.
2. Rural Marketing Text And Cases by C. S. G.Krishnamacharyulu, & Lalitha Ramakrishnan?. Published by Pearson Education (Singapore) Pte.Ltd. Indian Branch, 482 F.I.E.Patparganj Delhi Second Indian Print ---2003
3. Article Source: written by an Rtd. civil servant LalitMathur--Director General of the National Rural Development Ministry of Rural Development Govt: Of India Published In The Hindu Magazine Dated 5--4--2008.
4. Journal Source: Understanding the Rural Markets and Exploring the Scope for Consumer Market Segmentation In Rural India by Omkumar Krishnan and Barada Panigrahi (Faculty members ICFAI business school) ICFAI journal February 2006.
5. A New Approach To Rural Marketing by- Lt.col.Kaushik Sircar firstEdition2004, Himalaya Publishing House.

6- Bramwell, B. (1994), Rural Tourism and Sustainable Rural Tourism, Journal of Sustainable Tourism 2 (1-2), pp.1-6

7- Butler, R.W., (1980), The concept of a tourism area cycle of evolution; implications for management of resources, Canadian Geographer Vol. XXIV (1), pp.5-12.

8- Butler, R.W., Hall, C.M. Jenkins, J. (eds) (1998), Tourism and Recreation in Rural Areas, John Wiley & Sons, Toronto.

9- Getz, D. Carlsen, J., (2000), Characteristics and Goals of family and owner operated businesses in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors. Tourism management, 21, pp.547-560.

10- Murphy P.E. (1985; Tourism; A Community Approach. 'Indian Economic Growth: Can it translate into Rural Prosperity?' The Analyst, Special Issue on Agri-Business, August 2007.

11. http: // europa.eu.int / comm / agriculture / rur / leadership / index_en.htm
12. http: // www.ecovast.org/indexe.htm.
13. http: // www.hgk.hr.
14. http: // www.biznet.hr.
15. http: / /www.ruraltourism.org.uk / index . php? s = 4 & p = Informal _ Tourism _ activities.

◈◈

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

Development and Use of Public Private Partnership for Economic Growth

- **Dr. Neelam Agarwal**
Associate Professor,
Department of Commerce,
D.A.V College Kanpur-208001
(U.P.)

Introduction :

Public Private Partnership is a joint collaboration between public and private sectors so as meet the paucity of capital investment to fulfill the requirement of infrastructural development. To bridge the gap of the basic services the Government is using the concept of PPP. The PPPs have come into existence from over a decade but it has been more successful from past few years. PPPs are one of the best efforts that have been taken the Government of India. Such measures are necessary for the growth and development of the growing economies like India. It has been observed worldwide that it is difficult for the private sector to meet the financial requirements of infrastructure in isolation at the same time tackling the risks inherent to building infrastructure. Therefore, the PPP model has come to represent a logical, viable and necessary option for the Government and the private sector to work together.

Public Private Partnership (PPP) project as per Government of India means a project based on a long term contract or concession agreement, between a Government or statutory entity on the one side and a private sector company on the other side, for delivering an infrastructure service on payment of user charges. The concession agreement is specifically targeted towards financing, designing, implementing and operating infrastructure facilities and the collaborative ventures are built around mutually agreed allocation of resources, risks and returns. These are collaborative efforts, between private and public sectors, with clearly identified partnership structures, shared objectives, and specified performance indicators for delivery of services. India has seen real progress over the last 10 years in attracting private investment into the infrastructure sectors.

Essential conditions in the definition are as under: i. Arrangement with private sector entity: The asset and/or service under the contractual arrangement will be provided by the Private Sector entity to the users. An entity that has a majority non-governmental ownership, i.e., 51 percent or more, is construed as a Private Sector entity1. ii. Public asset or service for public benefit: The facilities/ services being provided are traditionally provided by the Government, as a sovereign function, to the people.

Development and use of Public Private Partnership for Economic Growth

Development and use of PPPs for delivering infrastructure services has now at least 11 years of precedence in India, with the majority of projects coming in line in the last 5 years. Policies in favor of attracting private participation as well as innovation with different structures have met with varying degrees of success. Some

ISSN : 2394-4366

sectors like power, and ports and roads, have done very good progress compared to limited success in other sectors.

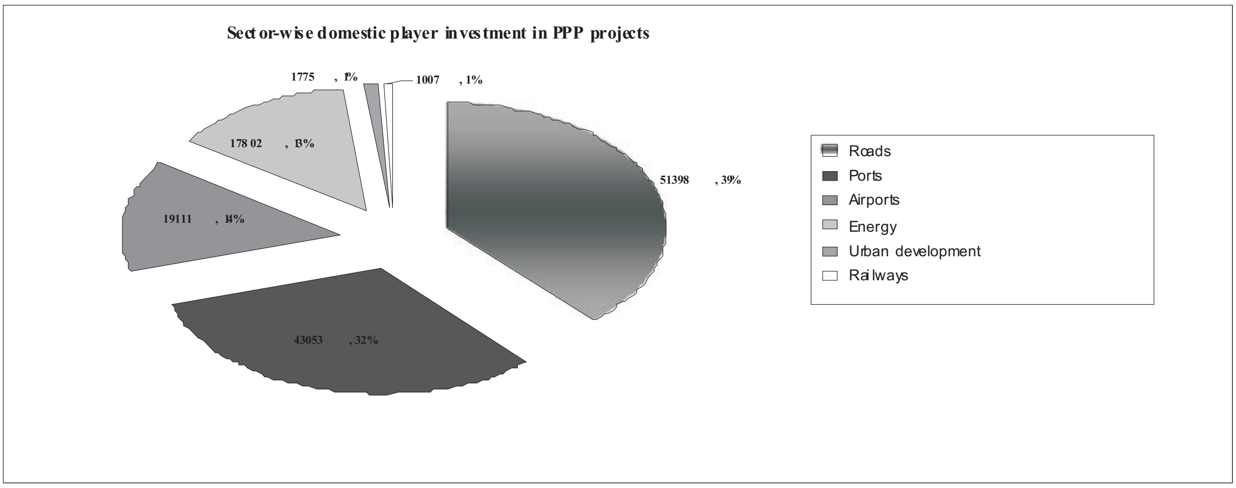
Availability of quality infrastructure is a pre-requisite to achieve broad based and inclusive growth on a sustained basis. Infrastructure is also critical for enhancing productivity and export competitiveness. The XII Five Year Plan (2012-2017) has an ambitious target of infrastructure investment and is envisaged at US $ 1 trillion. This projected investment is about twice the investment envisaged in the XI Plan and 27 per cent of the gross domestic savings.

SECTOR WISE PPP PROJECTS

Sector Wise Figures

Sector	Total Number of Projects	Based on 100 crore	Between n 100 to 250 crore	Between 251 to 500 crore	More than 500 crore	Value of contacts
Airports	5	0	0	303	18808	19111
Education	1	93.32	0	0	0	93.32
Energy	24	175.59	558	2669	13708	17110.59
Ports	43	96	970	2440	62992.95	66498.95
Railways	4	0	102.22	905	594.34	1601.56
Roads	271	3162.5	5526.49	32861.87	60453.92	102004.7
Tourism	29	742.56	674.52	0	1050	2467.08
Urban Development	73	1283.86	1468.7	2403.91	10132	15288.47
Total	**450**	**5638.83**	**9299.93**	**41582.78**	**167739.21**	**224175.8**

SECTOR WISE DOMESTIC PLAYER IN PPP PROJECTS



We see that road projects account for 60% of the total number of projects and 45% by total value because of the small average size of projects. Ports though account for 10% of the total number of projects have a larger average size of project and contribute 30% in terms of total value. It is noteworthy that if ports and central road projects are excluded from the total, there is in fact a relatively small value of deal flow, at only Rs 55757.02 Crores in basic infrastructure PPPs to date, suggesting a significant potential upside for PPP projects across sectors where states and municipalities have primary responsibility. The potential use of PPPs in e-governance and health and education sectors remains largely untapped across India as a whole, though off-late there have been some activities shaping in these sectors. Across states and central agencies, the leading users of PPPs by number of projects have been Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, and Rajasthan, with 95, 63 and 49 awarded projects respectively and the National Highways Authority of India (NHAI), with about 77 projects. In terms of main types of PPP contracts, almost all contracts have been of the BOT/BOOT type (either toll or annuity payment models) or close variants. In terms of approach to provider selection, almost all the projects in the sample were competitively bid (either national or international competitive bidding) with the negotiated ones (through MOUs) primarily coming from the railway PPP projects, which is understandable given the lack of clear policy framework and standard contract still date. In terms of contract award method the International Competitive Bidding yielded 39% of total investment in India followed by Domestic Competitive Bidding with 33%.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP

- Exploring PPPs as a way of introducing private sector technology and innovation in providing better public services through improved operational efficiency.
- Incentivizing the private sector to deliver projects on time and within budget.
- Imposing budgetary certainty by setting present and the future costs of infrastructure projects over time.
- Utilizing PPPs as a way of developing local private sector capabilities through joint ventures with large international firms, as well as sub-contracting opportunities for local firms in areas such as civil works, electrical works, facilities management, security services, cleaning services, maintenance services.
- Using PPPs as a way of gradually exposing state owned enterprises and government to increasing levels of private sector participation (especially foreign) and structuring PPPs in a way so as to ensure transfer of skills leading to national champions that can run their own operations professionally and eventually export their competencies by bidding for projects/ joint ventures.
- Creating diversification in the economy by making the country more competitive in terms of its facilitating infrastructure base as well as giving a boost to its business and industry associated with infrastructure development (such as construction, equipment, support services)
- Supplementing limited public sector capacities to meet the growing demand for infrastructure development.
- Extracting long-term value-for-money through appropriate risk transfer to the private sector over the life of the project from design/ construction to operations/ maintenance.

POTENTIAL RISK OF PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP

- There are a number of potential risks associated with Public Private Partnerships:
- Development, bidding and ongoing costs in PPP projects are likely to be greater than for traditional government procurement processes - the government should therefore determine whether the greater costs involved are justified. A number of the PPP and implementation units around the world have developed methods for analyzing these costs and looking at Value for Money.
- There is a cost attached to debt While private sector can make it easier to get finance, finance will only be available where the operating cash flows of the project company are expected to provide a return on investment (i.e., the cost has to be borne either by the customers or the government through subsidies, etc.).
- There is no unlimited risk bearing private firms (and their lenders) will be cautious about accepting major risks beyond their control, such as exchange rate risks/risk of existing assets. If they bear these risks then their price for the service will reflect this. Private firms will also want to know that the rules of the game are to be respected by government as regards undertakings to increase tariffs/fair regulation, etc. Private sector will also expect a significant level of control over operations if it is to accept significant risks.
- Private sector will do what it is paid to do and no more than that therefore incentives and performance requirements need to be clearly set out in the contract. Focus should be on performance requirements that are out-put based and relatively easy to monitor.

- Government responsibility continues citizens will continue to hold government accountable for quality of utility services. Government will also need to retain sufficient expertise, whether the implementing agency and/ or via a regulatory body, to be able to understand the PPP arrangements, to carry out its own obligations under the PPP agreement and to monitor performance of the private sector and enforce its obligations.
- The private sector is likely to have more expertise and after a short time have an advantage in the data relating to the project. It is important to ensure that there are clear and detailed reporting requirements imposed on the private operator to reduce this potential imbalance.
- Given the long-term nature of these projects and the complexity associated, it is difficult to identify all possible contingencies during project development and events and issues may arise that were not anticipated in the documents or by the parties at the time of the contract. It is more likely than not that the parties will need to renegotiate the contract to accommodate these contingencies. It is also possible that some of the projects may fail or may be terminated prior to the projected term of the project, for a number of reasons including changes in government policy, failure by the private operator or the government to perform their obligations or indeed due to external circumstances such as force majeure. While some of these issues will be able to be addressed in the PPP agreement, it is likely that some of them will need to be managed during the course of the project.

CONCLUSION:

India has witnessed an absolute metamorphosis over the last decade. Sprawling cities, flourishing businesses, higher standard of living are all indicators of unprecedented growth, globalization, urbanization, expansion and diversification. Infrastructure modernization and develop-ment is said to be the key driver of all the growth and economic activity. The public sectors alone can't meet the required funds and technology for the projects. So the Government decided to accomplish this business by collaborating with the sector which could provide this requirement which was none other than the private parties. Thus PPP emerged as a joint collaboration of the public and private sectors. The Indian infrastructure sector is at an inflection point and there are immense opportunities for the private sector. The PPP has come in to existence from over a decade but it has shown remarkable results in past 5-6 years. Almost every sector is covered where PPP needs to be implemented. Many foreign companies also show their interests but their participation is not much as the domestic private companies. The sectors covered in this research are health, education, power and transport.

Indian infrastructure growth has reached massive heights. Most PPPs have been restricted to the roads sector. And the sector still has lot of scope and the measures are taken also by the PPPs to achieve it. Ambitious project plans have been developed for various transport sectors to bridge the infrastructure gap. The sectors are booming but there are hindrances and constraints persist threatening to slow down growth in the smooth development of world-class infrastructure. This is because the private sectors which are involved in the PPPs have the prime motive of profit making rather than doing any social work. The companies which have the close contact with political parties can also take up a project with a view of making lot of profits. If the project reaches in the wrong hands that are if the tender is passed to a wrong person he may severely cause problems. But the Government is controlling all these constraints to have successful examples in PPP and heading towards the economic development of the country. It has taken various steps to accomplish the projects successful.

References

1. report of government of India ministry of finance department of economic affairs, November 2009
2. www.pppinindia.com
3. www.hm-treasury.gov.uk/ppp_index.htm
4. www.ifc.org/ifcext/eastasia.nsf/Content/
5. Infrastructure
6. http://rru.worldbank.org/PapersLinks
7. http://rru.worldbank.org/Toolkits/
8. http://rru.worldbank.org/PublicPolicy
9. Journal
10. http://rru.worldbank.org/Privatization
11. www.ppiaf.org/
12. http://pppue.undp.org/toolkit/MOD112.
13. html
14. www.usaid.gov/our_work/economic_
15. growth_and_trade/eg/privatization.htm .

Impact of Service Sector on Indian Economy

- Prof. Dr. Suresh Rajaram Varade
Head of Department of commerce
Art's, Commerce And Science College,
Bodwad Dist Jalgoan 425310 (M.S.)

E-mail:
sureshrvarade@gmail.com.

Abstract

Service sector is the lifeline for the social economic growth of a country. It is today the largest and fastest growing sector globally contributing more to the global output the employing more people than any other sector. Services sectors have become more important in recent years as advances in technology have permitted new means of providing services across borders. The growth in output in the sector in recent times has mostly come from the rapid development of skill intensive services in the information technology and professional service segments, mostly oriented toward the external market. This study investigates to growth, contribution and development of services sector in Indian economy. Further this study discusses to economic policy and impact of services sector.

Keyword: contribution, services, development, growth, etc.]

Introduction:

Economy is divided into three sectors: primary, secondary and tertiary sector. The primary sector consists of farming, forestry, animal husbandry and fisheries. The manufacturing sector is composed of mining, construction and manufacturing. All other economic activities which are not covered by the agricultural or manufacturing sectors are broadly defined as services and hence belong to the service sector. They include service provided for the agricultural sector, activities associated with the supply of water, electricity and gas, transport and communications, wholesale and retail trade, finance and insurance, business and personal services and community an social services. Services can be broadly distinguished between two types, that is, old and new. The old or traditional service include petty trading, domestic services, catering and hotel services. The new services are generally associated with communications, business and legal practices, culture, research and education\. Service sector is the lifeline for the social economic growth of a country. It is today the largest and fastest growing sector globally contributing more to the global output and employing more people than any other sector.

The ral reason for the growth of the service sector is due to the increase in urbanization, prizatiozaton and more demand for intermediate and final consumer series. Availability of quality services is viat for the well being of the economy. In advanced economies the growth in the primary and secondary sectors are directly dependent of the growth of services like banking, insurance, trade, commence, entertainment etc. the growth in services has also been accompanied by the rising share of services in the world transactions. Testimony to the rise in international supply of services is the fact that trade in services has grown as fast as trade in goods in the period 1990-2003. Along with this worldwide has been marked shift FDI away from manufacturing sector towards services sector. In line with the global trend, services sector in India has also grown rapidly in the lat decade3. Its growth has in fact been higher than the growth in agriculture and manufacturing sector. Service sectors have become more important in recent years as advances in technology have permitted new means of providing services across borders. While there is little doubt that services trade is an essential ingredient to economic growth and sustainable development, it is widely accepted that it can only make such positive contribution if appropriately liberalized and implemented across countries. An efficient service sector is crucial for the growth and competitiveness of an economy.

The role of services in India's economy in terms of contribution to GDP. Employment. FDI. And States domestic product and draws some international comparisons. The chapter goes on the examine the performance of different services sub-sectors which are not well-covered in other chapters such as domestic trade; tourism including totals and restaurants; shipping and port services; storage; telecommunications related services; real estate: information technology (IT) and IT enabled services (ITeS): accounting and auditing services research and development (R&D) servicers: legal service and consultancy: construction: and some specialized social services such as sports…

Objectives:

Helping are this in mind and efforts has been made to study the impact, growth and development of services sector of India. The stipulated objectives of the current study are given below:

▣ To Study the Growth and Development of service sector.

▣To Study the Impact of Service Sector in India Economy.

▣To study the economic policy and implementation of service sector.

Importance of the Services Sector for India:

The importance of the services sector can be gauged by looking at its contributions to different aspects of the economy.

Services GDP:

The share of services in India's GDP at factor cost (at current prices) increased rapidly from 30.5 percent 1950-51 to 55.2 per cent in 2009.10. if construction is also included then the share increases to 63.4 per cent in 2009-10.

The ratcheting up of the overall growth rate (compound annual growth rate [CAGR] of the Indian economy from 5.7 per cent in the 1990 to 8.6 per cent during the period 2004-05 to 2009-10 was to a large measure due to the acceleration of the growth rate (CAGR) in the services sector from 7.5 percent in the 19900s to 10.3 percent in 2004-05 to 2009-10. The services sector growth was significantly faster than the 6.6 percent for the combined agriculture and in dustry sectors annual output growth during the same period. In 2009-10 services growth was 10.1 percent and in 2010.11 (advance estimates-AE) it was 9.6 percent India's service GDP growth has been continuously above overall GDP growth, pulling up the latter since 1997-98. It as also been more stable

Services Employment in India:

Although the primary sector (agriculture mainly) is the dominant employer followed by the services sector. The share of services has been increasing over the years while that of primary sector has been decreasing. Between 1993-94 to 2004-05 there was a sharp fall in the share of the primary sector in employment. The consequent rise in share of employment of the other two sectors was almost equally divided between the secondary and tertiary sectors. In 2007-08 compared to 2004-05 though the trend was similar the fall in employment in primary sector was less (at-1.1) per cent) with a small commensurate rise in employment in the other two sectors which was again almost equally divided between the other sectors.

State-Wise Comparison:-

A comparison of the share of services in the gross state domestic product (GSDP) of different states and Union Territories shows that the services sector is the dominant sector in most states of India (Figure 10.2) states such as Delhi, Chandigarth, Kerala, Maharashtra, Bihar, Tamilnadu and West Bengal have shares equal to or above the all-India share. State-wise growth state-wise of GSDP is also closely associated with faster growth of the tertiary sector. Interestingly. Bihar which has the highest overall growth rate in 2008-09 also has the fastest growth among States in services in part due to its rapid progress from a low base (only) Goa's growth rate in services is higher than that of Bihar. Bu this is for 2007-08) Even small States such as Orissa and Rajsthan which have relatively low overall growth rates have stared piggy-backing on the good performance of their services sectors to climb up the ladder of progress. Thus. The services revolution in India seems to be becoming more broad based rather than being concentrated in only few States.

Services Exports:

India is also moving towards a services led export growth. During 2004-05 to 2008-09 as per the Balance of payments data, merchandise and service exports by 22.2 and 25.3 percent respectively. Services growth slowed in 2009-10 as a result of the global recession, but the decline was less pronounced than the slowdown in merchantdise export growth, and has recovered rapidly in the first half of 2010-11 with a growth of 27.4 per cent. The everall openness of the economy reflected by total trade including services as a percentage of GDP shows a remarkable increase from 29.2 per cent in 2000-01 to 53.9 percent in 2008.9 though it dipped to 46.1 percent in 2009-10 due to the global crisis. The dip was more due to fall in share of merchandise trade to GDP to 35 per cent in 2009-10 compared to 41 per cent in 2008-09. The fall in the share of service trade to GDP was less than 2 percentage points from 12.9 per cent to 11.2 percent.

Important Services for India:

Some services have been particularly important for this improving performance in India. Software is one sector in which India has achieved a remarkable global brand identity. Tourism and travel related services and transport services are also major items in India's services. Besides these, the potential and growing services include many professional services. Infrastructure-related services and financial services.

Impact of Services Sector on Indian Economy:

India has taken substantial steps towards economic liberalization during last few years, having worked out strategies for bringing about rapid economic development. India has managed to achieve a six percent annual growth rate in her economic agenda. During these years, a large increase in the middle class category income has been seen and it is estimated that there about 200 million people in the middle class category. And particularly on the basis of this figure, all the efforts are concentrated. This category will have a substantial demand for service in the next century. With increasing standards in education, which in India is provided free of cost and compulsory till the age of 14 years by the India government, there will be increasing demand for educational services. Primary school, secondary and higher secondary school, junior degree college all these institutes are in great demand, with the increase in population and an awareness of the benefits of seeking education.

As the number of students goes on increasing, there is also increasing demand for tuitions, private classes etc. with the establishment of technical institutes even at the district level, these has emerged an increase in demand for the services of professionally qualified technicians. With the increasing amount of trade and business covered by road, there exists a substantial demand for transport services, which benefits various automobile manufacturers, who cash boxes start overflowing. Large sections of the population appreciate having their own vehicles, providing a good business proposition for the automobile industry. Banking services are very necessary to meet financial requirement of the public and the national industrial sector.

The electric services provide benefits to the society, industry and so no. adequate hospital services are essential for the well beings of the society. Personal care services are essential to develop potentiality of an individual for a perfect personality and positive image projection. Hospitality services (hotels etc) work on strategies to satisfy the business class through their services in term of comport and satisfaction. The tourism industry is a potential one which has geared itself to make tourists enjoy the holiday in destinations of their choice, and take them away from the monotonous in cities.

The entertainment industry plays an equality important role towards this end. All these services have left management scientists, professional and socio economic tinkers to analyze and understand that managing services to the consumers, the main thing in this business is that they have unlimited potentialities and we have to explore these opportunities and tap them against the background of the changing social, cultural and economic condition. The professional requirements need a change when technology develops and evolves. These necessitate proficiency in the management level, possible only through giving a boost to human abilities.

Conclusion:

All service sectors participated in this boom, growth was fastest in communications, banking, hotels and restaurants, community services, trade and business service. One of the reasons of the sudden growth in the services sector in India in the nineties was the liberalization in the regulatory framework that gave rise to innovation and higher exports from the services sector. The agriculture sector contributed 17.2%; industry contributed 29.1% while the service sector had a contribution of 52.7% according to 2008 estimates. The growth rate in the current fiscal is expected to be 19.5% for IT- BPO services, 18.5% for exports and 22.8% for domestic IT related services in 2011. The growth in output in the sector in recent times has mostly come from the rapid development of skill intensive services in the information technology and professional service segments, mostly oriented toward the external market. The new Economic Policy includes reduction in government expenditure, opening of the economy to trade and foreign investment, adjustment of the exchange rate from fixed exchange rate system of flexible exchange rate system, deregulation in most markets and the removal of restrictions on entry, on exit, on capacity and on pricing. A shift in the consumption pattern of this nature indicates that the demand-side impetus to services growth will continue indeed will get stronger. Since liberation began, Indian's services export have increased.

Bibliography:

1. Sandu, H.S. & Mehta.R. (2007): "Career advancement challenges for women executives in the service sector", Journal of advances in Management Research, Vol. 4, Issue, 2 pp. 69-78
2. Economic survey (2005-2012): Ministry of Commerce, Various Issues.
3. Singh, Nirvikar (2010) "Understanding India's Services-led Growth" India 2010, Business Standard, pp.17
4. IRDA Annual Report, 2010
5. Singhal, Arvind [2010] "The shifting sands of Consumption" India 2010, Business standard, PP. 118-121

◈◈

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

MSMEs in India : A Real Engines of Industrial Growth

- Dr. Rajiv Shukla
Associate Professor-
Deptt. of Commerce,
D.A-V College, Kanpur-208001 (U.P.)

ABSTRACT

Globally MSMEs are considered as engines of economic and industrial growth. This sector has emerged as highly vibrant sector of the Indian economy. It not only plays a crucial role in providing large employment opportunities at comparatively lower capital cost than large industries but also help in industrialization of rural and backward areas. This sector acts as ancillary to large industries and contributes enormously in the social development of the country. In India this sector is highly heterogeneous in terms of the size of the enterprise, variety of services and products and level of technology. This paper aims at analyzing the growth of this sector in terms of output and employment, the challenges faced by this sector and suggestions are put forward to overcome these challenges. In addition few recommendations are made for the change in government policy which may help MSMEs in overall growth.

Introduction:

The Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises play an important role in overall economic and social development of a country. They act as a nursery of an entrepreneurship and acts as catalyst in the development of the economy with smooth, effective, flexible and innovative capabilities of entrepreneurial spirit. In context to India's economy MSMEs have emerged as highly vibrant and dynamic sector over the last five decades. They play a crucial role in providing not only large employment opportunities at comparatively lower capital cost than large industries but also helps in industrialization of rural and backward areas there by reducing regional imbalances and assuring more equitable distribution of national income and wealth. These industries act as ancillary units to large industries. The structural constitution of MSMEs in India is very dissimilar in terms of size of enterprise, variety of products and services and level of technology.

The Micro, small and Medium Enterprises have been defined in the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Act (MSMED), 2006 in terms of their investment in plant and machinery as under:

For Manufacturing Sector

Enterprises	Investment in plant and Machinery
Micro	Does not exceed Rupees Twenty Five lakhs.
Small	More than rupees twenty five lakhs but does not exceed Rupees Five crore.

Medium	More than Rupees Five crores but does not exceed Rupees Ten crores.

For Service Sector

Enterprises	Investment in Equipment
Micro	Does not exceed Rupees Ten lakhs.
Small	More than Rupees Ten lakhs but does not exceed Rupees Two crore.
Medium	More than Rupees Two crores but does not exceed Rupees Five crores.

(**Source:** Annual Report of ministry of MSMW 2014-15)

The government through this act has tried to ease out some major issues related to MSME sector such as complicated registration procedures and shortage of finance. This act has underlined the significance and importance of this sector and has offered a clear definition of MSMEs.

Growth Trends in Manufacturing Sector :

The manufacturing sector in India (including MSMEs) grew at an annual average growth rate of 9% during the period 2005-06 to 2012-13. According to Economic Survey report, during the year 2009-10 and 2010-2011, the growth in manufacturing sector was 11.3% and 9.7%respectively, it declined sharply to 2.7% in 2011-12 and to 1.9% in the year 2012-13. The micro, small and medium enterprises contribute about 7-8 percent of India's GDP, 45 percent of manufacturing output and 40percent of exports. They are considered as the economic growth engines. After agriculture, MSME sector employs the largest number of persons. MSMEs are widely dispersed throughout the country and produce a diverse range of products catering to various segments of the market.

Performance of MSMEs:

The contribution of micro, small and medium enterprises (MSME) sector to manufacturing output, employment and exports of the country has been quite significant. As per the results of all India Fourth census of MSME, the sector has shown significant contribution to the number of enterprises, employment and investment which can be explained from the table below:

Performance of MSME, Enterprises, Employment and Investments

S. no	Year	Total working enterprises (In lakh)	Employment (In lakh)	Market value of fixed assets (Rs in crores)
1.	2206-07	361.76	805.23	868543.79
2.	2007-08	377.36	842.00	920459.84
3.	2008-09	393.70	880.84	977114.72
4.	2009-10	410.80	921.79	1038546.08
5.	2010-11	428.73	965.15	1105934.09
6.	2011-12	447.64	1011.69	1182757.64
7.	2012-13	447.54	1061.40	1268763.67
8.	2012-13	448.46	1114.29	1363700.54
CGAR		**2.37%**	**4.14%**	**5.80%**

(Source: Annual Report of Ministry of MSME 2014-15)

From the above table a considerable increase in terms of number of working enterprises can be observed which has increased from 361.76 lakhs in the year 2006-07 to 448.46 lakhs in the year 2012-13. There is a remarkable increase in terms of employment, in the year 2006-07 it was 805.23 lakhs employees which increased to 1114.29 lakh employees in the year 2012-13 marking an increase of about 5% every year. Undoubtedly, the employment elasticity in this sector has improved, however much of the labour absorption has taken place in the unorganized sector. The increase in investments and employment clearly indicates that productivity of MSME sector is improving significantly which clearly indicates the efforts made by the government to integrate workforce with technological enhancement to increase productivity.

Contribution of MSMEs in GDP :

Table Showing Contribution of MSME in Total GDP and Output in Manufacturing Sector

Year	Gross value of Output of MSME (Manufacturing Sector) Rs in crores	Share of MSME in Total GDP (%)			Share of MSME manufactauring outpt in total manufacturing output (%)
		Manufacturing sector MSME (%)	Service Sector MSME (%)	Total	
2006-07	1198818	7.73	27.40	35.13	42.02
2007-08	1322777	7.81	27.60	35.41	41.98
2008-09	1375589	7.52	28.60	36.12	40.79
2009-10	1488352	7.45	28.60	36.05	39.63
2010-11	1653622	7.39	29.30	36.69	38.50
2011-12	1788584	7.27	30.70	37.97	37.47
2012-13	1809976	7.04	30.50	37.54	37.33
CGAR	**5.28%**	**-1.16%**	**1.35%**	**0.83%**	**-1.47%**

(Source: Annual Report of Ministry of MSME 2014-15)

On the basis of data on Gross Domestic Product (GDP) published by CSO, MOSPI and final results of Fourth Census, the estimated contribution of MSME sector to GDP and output as per revised methodology during 2006-07 to 2012-13 is as under:

From the above table it is evident that although gross value of output of MSME in Manufacturing sector has increased from Rs 1198818 crore to Rs 1809976 from the year 2006-07 to 2012-13 respectively but the share of manufacturing sector in total GDP has declined from 7.73% in the year 2006-07 to 7.04% in the year 2012-13. However the contribution of service sector as a %to GDP has been able to maintain an increasing pattern. The share of manufacturing output in total manufacturing output has overall declined marginally from 42.02% in the year 2006-07 to 37.33% in the year 2012-13 this indicates a declining trend in the share of MSME manufacturing in total manufacturing output of the country. The total share of MSME sector in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) increased from 35.13% in the year2006-07 to 37.54 % in the year 2012-13.

Growth in Entrepreneurs Memorandum Part II:

Subsequent to implementation of Micro, Small

Growth in Number of EM II Filed by Type of Enterprises

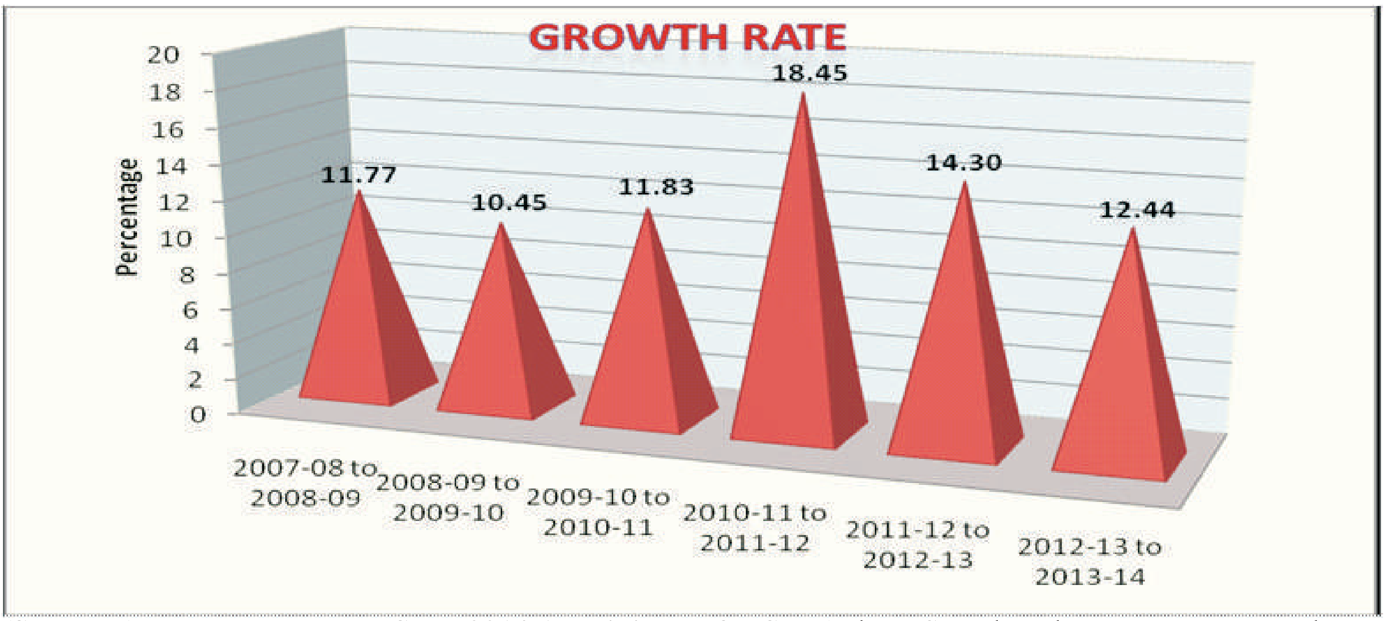
	Number of EM II Filed Pertaining to			
Year	Micro	Small	Medium	Total
2207-08	153110	16730	467	172703
2008-09	170262	18792	702	193026
2009-10	18518	23870	1409	213206
2010-11	205112	29125	1263	238429
2011-12	242539	34225	2949	282428
2012-13	275867	41502	7338	322818
2013-14	296526	59127	7338	362991
CGAR	**9.90%**	**19.76%**	**48.22%**	**11.19%**

(Source: Annual Report of Ministry of MSME2014-15)

and Medium Enterprises Development Act, 2006 with effect from October, 2006, filing of Entrepreneurs Memorandum Part I and Part II came in vogue. As per the provisions of the act, MSMEs has to file Entrepreneurs Memorandum (Part I) at District Industries Centre (DICs) and after commencement of the project Entrepreneur's Memorandum (Part II) has to be filed. The table below shows the recent trends in growth of MSMEs over the years:

See Table

Annual Growth Rate in Preceding Years



(Source: Annual Report on MSME 2014-15 Ministry of MSME) The MSME has shown constant growth rate

Annual Growth Rate in Preceding Years

till 2010-11. The highest growth rate in recent times was recorded during 2011-12 (18.45%), whereas in the year 2012-13 and 2013-14 it stood at around 14%and 12% respectively. The growth in EM II filing indicates progress in commissioning of projects all over the country. Top ten states in terms of number of EM II filed by MSMEs during 2013-14 are Tamil Nadu, Gujrat, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Kerala, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh. These states together accounted for 93.26% of total number of EM-II filed.

Challenges faced by MSMEs :

Although having strategic importance in overall industrialization strategy and employment generation, the MSME sector confronts several challenges. While globalization presented a number of challenges for the manufacturing MSMEs, it also opened ample opportunities for the growth of the manufacturing sector. The XII plan document states that India has not been able to fully utilize the opportunities provided by the dynamics of globalization; this is evident from the increasing gap in the share of manufacturing in GDP and its competitiveness as compared to other countries. It further states that if the underperformance of India's manufacturing sector continues the country would not be able to take advantage of growing shift of manufacturing capacities from the developed countries to the rapidly developing economies. In present context MSMEs are facing some serious constraints as:-

Untimely and Inadequate Finance:

Financing has always been a major concern for MSMEs in India. The present domestic market conditions do not provide enough opportunities for this sector for raising low cost funds. To improve the flow of credit there is a need to provide low cost finance to the MSME sector, which has limited working capital and is dependent exclusively on finance from public sector banks. The cost of credit in this sector is much higher than its international penetration. The most important issue hindering the growth, is the timely and adequate availability of finance to MSMEs. According to the

Prime Ministers Task force Report, Bank Credit to this sector has increased considerably from Rs 1,27,323 crores in the year 2007 to Rs 8,46,134 crores in the year 2013, the increasing growth in number of MSMEs needs further increase in access in credit in this sector. Despite proactive measures taken by the government to ensure better access to credit, banks are reluctant to lend to MSMEs due to higher risk owing to zero collateral, lack of creditworthiness or their limited years of operations. A study conducted by Indian school of business states that large firms obtained about 47% of their total funding from their internal sources, 19% from banks and financial institutions, and 5%from capital markets, the remaining 29% came from alternative sources. In case of MSMEs only 25% funding came from banks and the remaining 75% came from internal sources, financial institutions and from capital markets. Even today about 50% of funds comes from alternative sources including friends and family, trade credits etc. these sources are far more expensive and depend on prevailing market situation. This clearly indicates that MSMEs are facing high cost of interest which is mainly due to non availability of adequate credit when needed.

Inadequate infrastructure facilities:

Industries are considered as the backbone for the growth of a national economy. The growth of MSME sector at a healthy rate becomes crucial for the overall growth of the industry. However, lack of proper infrastructural facilities poses serious threat to an enterprise value chain process, like production, consumption and distribution of products. There is a need of infrastructural development for industries in general and MSMEs in particular which should include all types of infrastructural facilities like railways, waterways, roadways, airways, proper channels of telecommunications, adequate supply of power and other supporting facilities like tool rooms, testing labs, design centers, etc. There is lack of ample work space for industrial clusters to compete in international markets.

Although electricity act 2003 was introduced to encourage setting up of captive power plants to ease the power supply position but it failed to come out with positive results because small enterprises cannot bear the cost of setting up of independent power supply units, still they have to depend upon irregular power supply from the electricity board.

Proper supply of water is also one of the major issues in the development of this sector. Every manufactured product uses water during some part of production process. The MSMEs producing paint, dyeing, beverages and tobacco products etc. face the problem of inadequate water supply.

Due to expanding modern manufacturing facilities MSMEs are required to manufacture goods with technical expertise. These modern facilities and high quality tools are manufactured with precise and computer controlled machines, which are beyond the reach of small enterprises, therefore majority of firms depend on traditional or outdated technology as a result they suffer from low productivity and poor quality product.

Shortage of Skilled Manpower and Inflexible Labour Laws:

Indian MSMEs employ about 40% of the country's workforce, making them the employment powerhouse of the country. However, India today faces the big challenge of outdated labour laws that are still in force, this leaves many MSMEs struggling with problem of culture and scale and as such they are not in a position to meet the demands of workforce. At present about 90% of the enterprises feel that retaining talent is the biggest challenge as they are unable to pay well and as a result they have to operate with unskilled or semi skilled labour, consequently they suffer from low marginal productivity.

Absence of Market Platform and Effective Distribution Networks:

With the changing habits and taste of the consumers and increased competition both from local and global brands, market dynamics and customer loyalties are in a state of flux. With the aim of offering best-in class products and services, enterprises need to improve the quality of customer interaction at each opportunity. The MSMEs lack developed market intelligence tools, and well trained workforce to respond to these external pressures. The main reason as to why MSMEs in India are unable to tap marketing and distribution strategy effectively is due to lack of monetary support. Moreover, large enterprises beat MSMEs down on marketing and supply chain strategies, in India about 70%of the enterprises in this sector is suffering from this problem. Lack of awareness of technology solutions to cater market needs, limited understanding about new-age marketing strategies, lack of awareness of government programs and grant to support marketing and supply chain networks are also some of the areas that hindrances the growth and development of MSMEs.

Rigid regulatory policies:

There are multiple statutes under which the start up MSMEs has to comply after getting it registered. These relate to state laws like VAT, property rights on land and premises and access to utilities such as power, water, environmental clearances, labour laws etc. The processes associated with all such registrations are time consuming. With the inter-connectedness of markets, there are additional burden on the manufacturing entities with respect to inter- state trade, arising from trade distortions, compliance issues and other barriers to trade. As far as World Banks Ease of Doing Business Index is concerned, India holds a very low position, which is mainly because India failed to provide a very favorable business climate for its enterprises, especially to MSMEs. In India MSMEs are weighted down due to inflexible and complicated regulatory framework which makes starting and running business a bit difficult. Due to this prohibitive business climate many innovative entrepreneurs are not able to enter the market or find it difficult to sustain business. A study conducted on the regulatory policies of MSMEs reveals that MSMEs which belonged to three tier cities are in a great need for special start up schemes as compared to the MSMEs of tier one cities. Hence there is a need to look at the regulations from MSME perspective, not necessarily to abolish the same but to reduce the compliance burden.

Suggestions

Easy Access to Finance:

Easy access to finance is one of the major problems which MSMEs are facing. Report of Mitra Committee says that, in order to promote growth oriented entrepreneurship in this sector, infusion of capital both in form of equity and debt through Angel investors, Incubators, Venture Capital, Banks and Financial Institutions are required. In order to compete with large scale enterprises and global counterparts, it is important that MSMEs are provided with easy and affordable opportunities to obtain credit. With limited working capital, key for growth of this sector lies in availability of low cost finance that is available through public sector banks. Thus, it becomes important on the part of the part of the government to work towards establishing an environment that simplifies the process to access to easy and affordable finance and should also create transparency in the terms of lending credit by banks and other credit agencies. Following are some recommendations that my help MSMEs in easy access to credit:

- Standardization of project appraisal system in banks.
- Creation of exclusive MSME exchange.
- Encouragement to PE Funding Schemes.
- Reduction in transaction cost in imports/exports.
- Encourage cluster financing by establishing MSME centers.
- Reasonable interest rates on term loans.
- Encouragement to private equity investment schemes.
- Establishment of capital venture markets.
- Easy credit without complex collaterals.

Regulatory Reforms:

It is noteworthy that one of the serious constraints regarding the growth of MSMEs in India is the disproportionate impact of government regulations. Often it has been a regular complaint of the entrepreneurs that it is difficult for them to survive on account of disproportionate impact of prevailing government regulations and taxation system. Therefore, flexible regulatory policies for starting a business are critical for MSMEs to flourish and grow. To develop its full potential every new and growing business needs the right support and incentives. Thus, it becomes imperative on the part of the government and the policy makers to provide right incubation support and start-up incentives in order to facilitate ease of doing business. Following are some suggestions in this regard:

- To develop transparent process of setting up and registering business.
- To create direct channel between government and entrepreneurs.
- Introducing schemes and incentives for MSME start-up.
- Establishing common regulatory body for MSME.
- Creating incubators with the help of ministry of science and technology.
- More exemption from income tax for start up.

Easy Access to Modern Technology:

In the era of globalization, the MSMEs have to compete not just at local or national level but also at global level. Access to modern technology is posing a serious threat to the growth of this sector. Today, this sector is focusing on adopting appropriate and affordable technology to build its global competitiveness. Unless this sector equips itself with latest technological developments, it will not be in a position to meet the strong quality standards set by international markets and consumers. With the limited exposure to international technologies, MSMEs are struggling hard to explore new markets and cater the needs of the customer.

Thus, to make technology easily assessable, the government has to take necessary steps to create an ecosystem of players and bring them on a common platform to help in exchanging the ideas and know-how. Moreover, there is a need to develop effective information system to support and deliver information to different users, which provides effective interface between users and computer technology and shall also provide information to managers on day to day functioning of enterprises. To make this sector more viable and growth oriented the government should adopt proactive measures by:

- ▣ Ensuring availability of cheap and affordable modern technology.
- ▣ Creating ecosystem to facilitate technology transfer.
- ▣ Developing strong information and communication centre.
- ▣ Inducing more government incentives for technology up gradation.
- ▣ Revitalizing the role of the small industries service institute.
- ▣ Establishing a platform for technology providers and technology seekers.

Improvement in Basic Infrastructure:

Industries are considered as the backbone for the growth of nation's economy. Hence the growth of MSME sector at healthy rate is crucial for overall growth of the industry. At present the infrastructure facilities in this sector portrays a shabby picture relating to proper channel of telecommunication, adequate supply of power and water and other facilities like tool rooms, testing labs and design centers etc. today MSMEs are the foundation of Indian industrial economy and they hold the potential to make India a global economic power house. Thus, it becomes imperative that MSMEs should be provided with right infrastructural facilities to facilitate their substantial growth and development. For the overall development and growth of this sector the government has to come out with positive attitude with such policy framework and strong infrastructure base for this sector. The following may help in building strong base for this sector:

- ▣ Availability of large scale electricity resources at reasonable and subsidized rates.
- ▣ Effective industrial waste management.
- ▣ Revitalizing industrial infrastructure up gradation schemes such as IIUS scheme.
- ▣ Introduction of PPP Model (public- private partnership) for providing basic infrastructure.
- ▣ More SEZs should be developed to foster rapid growth.
- ▣ Introducing more effective incentives for cluster infrastructure schemes.

Enhancing Market Access:

In order to counter the onslaught competition from large enterprises within and outside the country, MSMEs need to respond promptly to the developing marketing needs and innovations. Here the sector needs to be provided with better market access facilities in order to sustain and further enhance its contribution towards output, employment generation and exports. In India MSMEs are unaware of technology solutions and tools available to cater their marketing needs. Therefore there is need for at enterprise to increase market coverage, improvement in operational requires readiness on two accounts viz company and government regulations and policies including MSMEs special programs, initiatives and sufficient funds. This could be attained by-

- ▣ Creating common marketing body for access to market networks.
- ▣ Creating monetary support initiatives.
- ▣ Establishing common platform to exhibit technological solutions.
- ▣ Organizing fairs and summits for network building.
- ▣ Developing ICT networks to cater to MSMEs.
- ▣ Revitalization of MSME marketing development assistance.

Labour law reforms:

During the last few years there has been an exponential growth in the inflow of workers in this sector. Thus flexible lobour laws become increasingly critical in today's environment. Labour law provisions such as standardized wages, social security and job safety ensures that the workforce is protected and delivers its highest output. The disparity in the minimum wage policy should be removed and policy should be made flexible with respect to per capita income of the region and not the same for the whole country. More emphasis needs to be given on labour intensive manufacturing by giving entrepreneurs incentives, schemes for competency and skill development and induction of such laws and policies that protects low skilled lobourers, this would foster the inflow of people into this sector.

Conclusion:

Various stakeholders have been advocating for a concrete MSME policy for India. The sweep of this sector is so wide and so varied that a single size fit for all will not work. As per fourth census of MSME report published in 2012, states that total number of MSMEs in India are 3.6 crores employing over eight crore people. It is the second largest employer after agriculture.

The ambitious make in India campaign launched by the government of India on 25th September 2015, is an attempt to make India a global manufacturing hub and to bring economic transformation in India while eliminating the unnecessary laws and regulations to create an ease of doing business environment in the country. This initiative also attempts to create a large number of employment opportunities for the youth of India. The key objective of this mega programme is to ensure that the contribution of manufacturing sector increases up to 25% in the next few years.

In the past few years the government of India with the consultation of major stakeholders has taken several steps to address factors that constrain MSME finance and development, still more support is required from the government for the development and growth of this sector.

References

1. Annual Report on MSME, Government of India 2013-14to 2014-15
2. Report of the Working Group on MSME growth in 12th Five Year Plan.
3. Doing business 2010, Reforming Through Difficult Times, the World Bank.
4. MSME Development Act 2006, Ministry of District Industry Centers, Government of India.
5. Implications for MSMEs: Vision 2020, FICCI 2011.
6. Entrepreneur's Memorandum (part II data on MSME sector (2007-08 to 2013-14) ministry of MSME New Delhi.
7. Accelerating Manufacturing in MSME sector,2013 Ministry of MSME, New Delhi.
8. Mr. Ch. Hari Govind Rao, Dr N. Appa Rao.- Role of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises and its Economic Obstruction in India (a case study of micro, small and medium enterprises in India), IOSR Journal of Business and Management, Vol 4, Sept- Oct. 2012.
9. Sarika Lohana :- Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises for Inclusive Growth JBA Publication New Delhi, Edition 1st, 2014.

◈◈

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

ENVIRONMENTAL JUSTICE

- Anantdeep Kumar
Student of Law

The term environmental justice has featured prominently in the environmental debate for the last four decades but only surfaced in 1990s (Lazarus:1993). It focuses on the disproportionate sharing of environmental benefits and burdens between different categories of persons. It is based upon the recognition that environmental costs and benefits are not distributed in a fair and equitable manner and that traditional environmentalism has not been sufficiently concerned with very divergent local situations and the plight of minorities (Bullard:1993). The concept of environmental justice was borne out of the movement against environmental racism in America in the 1980s and 1990s. The notion of 'environmental racism' emerged from the American Civil Rights movement and attempted to address the injustice of toxic industry being predominantly concentrated in areas of African- American, indigenous and Hispanic residents (Agyeman et al.:2003).The term environmental justice is almost synonymous with environmental racism and has been used to describe the distribution of environmental benefits and burdens across society along the lines of race or colour (Taylor:1992). The practice, and experience, of racism has been at the heart of environmental justice discourse so much so that Getches and Pellow (2002) once made the argument that the term, and movement, should actually be limited to communities of colour. Pellow's (2004, 2007) work has clearly extended an analysis of racial discrimination, and connected it to the practices of capital. Following that analysis, Mohai et al. (2009) lay out three interrelated causal factors for environmental injustice. First, economic considerations address both the impoverishment of impacted populations and the reasoning for industrial externalisation of social and environmental costs. Second, industry and government seek the path of least resistance to development, and poor and racial minority communities make easier targets. Finally, a distinct form of racism simply associates communities of colour with pollution. Any and all of these cultural and institutional structures contribute to the construction of inequity, misrecognition, exclusion, and the generalised injustice confronted by communities and movement organisations.

The concept of environmental justice gained momentum, broadening the scope of the movement to include marginalized residents of all races who face inequitable distribution of environmental damage (Sze & London 2001). The tendency for hazardous industry to be concentrated in low income areas is often based on a 'path- of- least resistance' for industries and corporations. An example of this is a 1984 Report by Cerrell Associates for the California Waste Management Board, "openly recommending that polluting industries and the state locate hazardous waste facilities in 'lower socio-economic neighbourhoods' because those communities had a much lower likelihood of offering political opposition" (Faber & McCarthy:2003).

Race has been identified as a major factor in environmental justice concerns at the domestic level in the United States and the primary focus of the movement has been on the issue of racial inequalities. The United Church of Christ report found that these sites tended to be in communities showing a much higher proportion of "racial and ethnic" residents (Commission for Racial Justice:1987). Race was found to be the most significant explanatory variable, with socio-economic factors ranking second. The report went as far as arguing that an increased concentration of minority residents tends to augment the probability of the existence of some form of hazardous waste activity. This report, combined with a history of racial separation in the United States has prompted a number of writers to analyse environmental justice problems mainly in terms of race. Robert Bullard talks of environmental racism defining it as the deliberate or unintentional targeting of coloured communities for toxic waste facilities and the official sanctioning of life-threatening presence of poisons and pollutants in these communities (Bullard:1993).

Environmental justice sought to draw the necessary link between conservation and economically disadvantaged communities which was missing in environmental laws whose basic concern was nature conservation. Further, it brings out the connection between civil rights and environmental law (Popovic:1996). In this way, the movement takes on some of the principles of international sustainable development which emphasise the centrality of human beings in the development process. Environmental problems have traditionally been addressed through command and control legislation. The disillusionment with this approach has led to the search for alternatives. The quest for efficiency in dealing with environmental problems has resulted in the use of market instruments which tend to emphasise individual behaviour. Neither of the two approaches has focused on communities. Mainstream environmentalism has thus failed to consider the operation of environmental legislation vis-a-vis people by assuming that uniform laws will affect everybody uniformly. However, the assumption that everybody benefits from environmental regulation has been severely tested by the proliferation of grass-roots movements challenging the effects of those programmes on the poor and minority communities (Tarlock:1994).

Environmental Justice is, in fact a concept and social movement that seeks to address the reality that environmental burdens (eg. intrusive mining and extraction, dumping of toxic and contaminated materials, high-polluting industry etc.) are inequitably distributed and often concentrated in areas of socio-economically marginalized people (Agyeman et al.: 2003). The basic premise of environmental justice is the notion that all people have an equal right to live in a healthy environment and, correspondingly, that environmental harms should be equitably distributed amongst all social groups (McLaren:2003). Environmental justice activist and scholar Eurig Scandrett argues that "environmental justice should be seen as a provisional and contested discourse embedded within a social movement" (2007). It is a movement that constantly evolves in response to grassroots activism, cultural values, community organizations, local planning and development and the implementation and enforcement of environmental law. It is a highly interdisciplinary concept that sits at the "crossroads of social movement, public policy and academic research" (Sze & London:2001). Environmental Justice is largely regarded as a field of social 'praxis', which "draws from and integrates theory and practice is a mutually informing dialogue" (Sze & London :2001). In this respect, researchers of the field tend to immerse themselves in the movement, in line with the notion of Puiguert & Valls that the "only way to create relevant social theories is via engaged collaboration" (2005). In this respect, academic inquiry into environmental justice is fairly unconventional, involving the "blurring of boundaries between research and subject, the embrace of political projects and values- driven scholarship, despite the risk of losing objectivity (Smith:1999). Environmental justice scholarship encapsulates the distribution of environmental benefitsand burdens (Holifield, Porter and Walker :2011), recognition of oppressed individuals and communities in the political and cultural realms(Laura :1996) and procedural dimension focusing on participatory mechanisms(Young:1990).

Definition :

The definition given by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in USA known as official definition utilized the term "environmental equity" instead of "environmental justice" and singularly focused on the distribution of pollution harm and risk measurable and quantifiable risk instead of giving proper weight to 'qualitative factors'- socio-economic factors were considered as beyond the scope of this EPA's Report of 1992. However, subsequently EPA now has changed this analytical approach and has moved closer to activists' approach . In a later definition Environmental Justice was understood as the fair treatment and meaningful involvement of all people regardless of race, colour, national origin, or income with respect to the development, implementation, and enforcement of environmental laws, regulations, and policies.

Fair treatment means that no group of people should bear a disproportionate share of the negative environmental consequences resulting from industrial, governmental and commercial operations or policies.

Meaningful involvement means that: (1) people have an opportunity to participate in decisions about activities that may affect their environment and/or health; (2) the public contribution can influence the regulatory agency's decision; (3) their concerns will be considered in the decision making process; and (4) the decision makers seek out and facilitate the involvement of those potentially affected (U.S. EPA:1998).

The second definition given by activists of environmental justice is considered as broader or holistic or radical in nature. For them, environment justice is a much more holistic concept that include the right to a safe, healthy, productive and sustainable environment for all. In this context, the "environment" is considered to include the ecological, physical, social, political, aesthetic and economic environments. Environmental Justice thus refers to the conditions in which such a right can be freely exercised, whereby individual and group identities, needs, and dignities are preserved, fulfilled, and respected in a way that provides for self actualization and personal and community empowerment.

The environmental justice activist Rober D. Bullard advocates broader definition when he defines the environment justice as "Call for environment justice involve multifaceted claims, ultimately synthesizing aspirations for distributional and procedural equality, political accountability, and social justice into an untidy theoretical framework".

Theorising environmental justice :

The earliest academic reflections on environmental justice originally focused on the existence of inequity in the distribution of "environmental bads". The concept was used to illustrate that some communities received more environmental risks than others. Those "environmental bads" were simply another example of social injustice. "An environmental injustice exists when members of disadvantaged, poor, ethnic, minority or other groups suffer disproportionately at the local, regional (sub-national), or national levels from environmental risks or hazards, and/or suffer disproportionately from violations of fundamental human rights as a result of environmental factors, and/or denied access to environmental investments, benefits, and/or natural resources, and/or are denied access to information; and/or participation in decision making; and/or access to justice in environment related matters"(Workshop on Environmental Justice:Budapest:December, 2003).

The focus on equity, a key frame in the initial consideration of environmental injustice, expanded to include a range of issues from the generally unequal nature of environmental protection to the distribution of a range of environmental goods as well as bads such as green space, public transit, and fresh food and theorising on the topic developed in three key areas: the definition of 'environment', the factors behind the production of environmental injustice, and the pluralist conception of the 'justice' of environmental justice.

The Definition of Environment:

Early in the history of the conception of environmental justice the conception of environment was limited as wilderness and the 'big outside' which were combined with the much more broadly defined conception of environment as 'where we live, work, and play' (Novotny: 2000). Environmental justice advocates insisted on bringing attention to the environmental conditions in which people are immersed in their everyday lives. From the start, the environmental justice movement brought indigenous perspectives on the relationship between human beings, non-human nature, and culture into conversation; the very first principle of environmental justice affirms the 'sacredness of Mother Earth, ecological unity, and the interdependence of all species'. Later, Julian Agyeman's (2003, 2005) work moved to bridge the differing ideas about environment and justice into a conception of 'just sustainability'.

This focus on policies and practices that take into account both everyday environment and the larger natural world persists in writing and policy recommendations around environmentally just and green cities and in the turn to issues of climate change, food, energy, and "sustainable materialism."

Reasons for Injustice:

Another major focus of environmental justice scholarship has always been a thorough analysis of the underlying reasons for that injustice. Initially, the central explanatory focus was racism. Environmental justice wasn't simply concerned with the fact about environmental bads and risks, it endeavoured to explore the question of why those communities were devalued in the first place. One of the original popularisers of the term environmental racism was Benjamin Chavis, then head of the United Church of Christ's Commission on Racial Justice the organisation that published the influential study of Toxic Wastes and Race.

Environmental justice advocates argue that an intimate relationship exists between the trilogy of environmental racism, environmental discrimination, and environmental policymaking. Environmental injustice and environmental racism have their roots in a politico-institutional context bent toward discrimination. Municipal, state, and federal regulations are, therefore, aimed at permitting, condoning and even promoting environmental racism.

In addition, environmental justice proponents contend that governmental policy is also bent toward the deliberate targeting of communities of colour for toxic waste disposal and also the establishing of polluting industries in those communities. Further, policy and legislation not only permit but also endorse the official sanctioning of life-threatening poisons and pollutants being located in communities of colour. Environmental justice advocates also contend that residents of victimized people groups are ostracized from access to political power and consequently have been excluded from service on decision-making boards and regulatory bodies, thereby subtly yet deliberately promoting environmental injustice and environmental racism. Each of these elements contributes to the existence and propagation of environmental injustice and environmental racism (Bullard:1993).

Environmental justice proponents contend, "Experiences of environmental racism and injustice are not random, nor are they individual." Consequently, the environmental justice movement is concerned with these two matters, collectivism and perceived intentionality. On the one hand, environmental justice advocates concern themselves with environmental injustice as it happens to groups; and on the other hand, environmental justice advocates are also concerned with the systemic causes of environmental injustice (Rasmussen:2004).

Robert Bullard states that race is a major factor in predicting the placement of Locally Unwanted Land Uses (LULUs). Some would contend that socio-economic class is the central issue, however. Bullard counters that while race and class are combined factors, race is still the predominant factor. Environmental justice activists pronounce that race dominates policy decisions made by those in positions of power since the power arrangements of socio-economic institutions are out of balance.

Bullard also advances that environmental justice is not a social programme, nor is it an affirmative action program and also that ultimately the central concern of the movement is the implementation of justice. In addition, Bullard maintains that the consideration of race in the environmental justice movement, while constituting a portion of the problematic equation associated with environmental injustice is not the only concern of the movement.

However, in his earlier work entitled Confronting Environmental Racism: Voices from the Grassroots, Bullard does give voice to his belief that the problem of environmental injustice is to a large extent a racially oriented problem and that this is a problem which communities of colour face. He couches his discussion concerning environmental justice in the context of the recognition that at the heart of the problem of environmental injustice is a racially divided nation in which extreme racial inequalities persist. However, by the time of Bullard's more major work entitled "Dumping in Dixie", he had acknowledged that the reality of environmental injustice transcends the issue of the victimization of any one race or ethnic group (Bullard:1993).

Another factor leading to the reality of environmental injustice is the commoditization of land, water, energy and air. This has resulted in their being secured and protected for the benefit of those in power over those who lack power. Advocates of environmental justice remind that regardless of our status in life, we all exist collectively within the context of this biosphere. Therefore "we breathe the same air, share the same atmosphere with the same ozone layer and climate patterns, eat food from the same soils and seas, and harvest the same acid rain" (Rasmussen : 2004).

In addition, the unresponsive and unaccountable governmental policies and regulations which exist at all levels of government contribute to environmental racism and environmental injustice. Government authorities are frequently unresponsive to community needs regarding environmental inequities due to the existence of an oppressive power structure. Furthermore, governmental availability to powerful corporations who exert power as an act of self-interest also poses problems. Consequently, the victims of environmental injustice find it difficult if not impossible to use governmental resources and power to advance their cause (Rasmussen:2004).

Moreover, the lack of resources and power in affected communities is a major contributor to the presence of environmental racism. In addition to the previous obstacles is the common denominator of powerlessness on the part of the victimized on the basis of few financial resources to invest in the struggle for environmental justice and also the lack of power by the victims of environmental injustice. Specifically, the groups adversely affected by environmental inequities lack the capacity to function as an organized block representing their interests against those in the contest of authority and affluence (Rasmussen:2004).

Finally, a piecemeal approach to regulation which allows loopholes and the consequent ongoing victimization of low-income populations of colour contributes to the reality of environmental racism. The ongoing process of governmental regulation also poses a problem in combating environmental injustice and the implementation of environmental justice. The consequent gaps between pieces of legislation which are passed in an effort to combat environmental injustice frequently provide a context for the skirting the intent of this legislation (Rasmussen:2004).

Environmental justice advocates contend that instances of environmental injustice are not simply arbitrary realities which occur in varying contexts. Rather, instances of environmental injustice are the outcome of an institutional oppression and isolation which have set up an inevitable framework of the powerful oppressing the powerless. The victims, through a significant occurrence of historical and social realities, have been cut off from the power required even to challenge the causes of environmental injustice. In a very real sense, the environmental justice movement represents another dimension of social liberation, which attempts to protect victims from institutional and systemic oppression. However, the task of the environmental justice movement should not be understood only in terms of the negative. The central and positive question of the environmental justice movement is, "What constitutes healthy, livable, sustainable, and viable communities in the place we live, work, and play as the outcome of interrelated natural, built, social, and cultural/spiritual environments?" (Lee, 141-44).

Pluralistic definition of justice:

The environmental justice movements reflect diversity of concerns by using broad and pluralistic definition of justice. Equity, racism and other forms of disrespect also gave birth to a concern for recognition. Participatory justice of environmental justice encompassed not only equity, recognition, and participation, but, more broadly, the basic needs and functioning of individuals and communities. The concept of justice, which encompasses a range of basic needs, social recognition, and economic and political rights, offered a broad framework to understand the demands of environmental justice movements. Pellow examines multiple causes and frames of injustice for a pluralistic understanding of the conception of justice in the movement. Similarly, Sze and London (2008) argue that one of the key recent developments in environmental justice theory has been the refining of the understanding of the various mechanisms and processes of environmental injustice. One of the rewarding aspects of a framework of environmental justice is the way that plurality as well as the focus on recognition, participation, basic needs, capabilities, and functioning has spread across the growing literature.

Principles of Environmental Justice:

The following 17 principles were adopted by delegates of the First National People of Colour Environmental Justice Summit in 1991. These principles were developed to serve as a “guide for organizing, networking, and relating to government and nongovernmental organizations.

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.

The First National People of Colour Leadership Summit brought together hundreds of environmental justice activists representing both the national as well as the global stage. The objective of the conference was to advocate for local and regional environmental justice activism in the form of both regional and ethnic networks. The Summit led to the creation of the Asian Pacific Environmental Network, the Northeast Environmental Justice Network, the Southern Organizing Committee for Economic and Environmental Justice and the Midwest/Great Lakes Environmental Justice Network. In 1993 Max Baucus, Democrat from Montana introduced the Environmental Justice Act of 1993 that addressed assertions that poor and minority areas are disproportionately affected by environmental pollution. Representative John Lewis, Democrat from Georgia introduced a similar bill in the House of Representatives.

From its origins as a grassroots moments opposing the unequal distribution of burdens of pollution and risk associated with waste and industrial sites within United States, the realm of environmental justice scholarship has now expanded to include discussions of global environmental in equality. Simultaneously the scope of environmental justice is becoming broader in compassing not only questions of special distribution of environmental goods and bags but also questions of participatory justice, recognition and identity the increasing salience and broadening of the concepts of environmental justice in recent years enables and understanding of climate change not just an issue of ecological concern but one that in compasses human rights as well as historical and current global inequalities in access to resources recognition and meaning of full participation.

Despite significant improvements in environmental protection over the past several decades, millions of Americans continue to live in unsafe and unhealthy physical environments (Institute of Medicine, 1999). Many economically impoverished communities and their inhabitants are exposed to greater health hazards in their homes, on their jobs, and in their neighborhoods when compared to their more affluent counterparts (Bullard, 1994a, 1994b; Bryant, 1995; Bryant & Mohai, 1992; U.S. EPA, 1992b). From New York to Los Angeles, grassroots community resistance has emerged in response to practices, policies, and conditions that residents have judged to be unjust, unfair, and illegal. Some of these conditions include (1) unequal enforcement of environmental, civil rights, and public health laws; (2) differential exposure of some populations to harmful chemicals, pesticides, and other toxins in the home, school, neighbourhood, and workplace; (3) faulty assumptions in calculating, assessing, and managing risks; (4) discriminatory zoning and land use practices; and (5) exclusionary practices that prevent some individuals and groups from participation in decision making or limit the extent of their participation (Bullard,1993; C. Lee, 1992).

Environmentalism of the Poor :

What is referred to as the Environmental Justice movement in North America, Europe and South Africa is also known as the 'Environmentalism of the Poor' in many parts of the world. Scholar Joan Martinez Allierdescribes the Environmentalism of the Poor as the occurrence of "unequal incidence of environmental harm [giving] birth to environmental movements of the poor" (2002). Proponents of these movements are local landowners in the Global South whose livelihoods are threatened by environmental damage. Examples of the 'environmentalism of the poor' movements include Chipko tree- hugging women in India and the Green Belt Movement in Kenya founded in 1977 by Nobel Peace prize winner Wangari Maathai. Furthermore, the discourses of 'popular environmentalism', 'liberation ecology and 'livelihood ecology' are largely based on similar sets of ideas.

Environmental Justice has evolved tremendously. More than merely a response to environmental inequities, it offers a maturing vision for the future. The vision of environmental justice is the development of a holistic, bottom up, community based, multi-issue paradigm for achieving healthy and sustainable communities. When the Environmental Justice movement demanded that people must speak for themselves about an environment defined as the place we live, where we work, and where we play, it established a framework for bridging some key components of our national environmental policy. These include community based environmental protection, pollution prevention, integration of urban public policy and government accountability to the public. In recent years, a grassroots vision of what constitutes physically and psychologically healthy, economically and ecologically sustainable, and culturally and spiritually vital communities in a multiracial and multicultural society has evolved. This is a unifying theme of the Environmental Justice movement. The collective and individual health of members of a community is the direct result of a set of physical, social, cultural and spiritual factors. The emphasis of looking into the importance of the comprehensive health and well being of a community was directly initiated by the Environmental Justice movement. The Environmental Justice movement represents a new vision created through a series of community processes whose main objective is a transformative public conversation about what is necessary for sustainable, healthy and vital communities. The Environmental Justice movement envisions the development of a community based, multi-task integrative paradigm that facilitates the unification, development and permanency of healthy and sustainable communities.

It is clear that the environmental justice movement has benefited thousands of people. It has changed government policies and laws and has helped specific communities protect their homeplaces from the depredations of corporate polluters. For its many successes, for its dedication, and for its effective redress of race and class discrimination, the environmental justice movement is to be celebrated. As it has gained national stature, the environmental justice movement has also challenged and transformed the environmental movement, especially with respect to its focus on wilderness and nonhuman nature. This challenge has been both implicit and explicit. Environmental justice activists have redefined "environment" to focus on humans. Gibbs articulates this new definition: Over the past ten years the Movement for Environmental Justice has redefined the word environment. No longer does the media, the general public or our opponents see the environmental movement as one that is focused on open spaces, trees, and endangered species alone. They have finally got it! The Environmental Justice Movement is about people and the places they live, work and play. Bullard echoes Gibbs: "The environmental justice movement has basically redefined what environmentalism is all about. It basically says that the environment is everything: where we live, work, play, go to school, as well as the physical and natural world"(Schweizer (1999). Words have consequences. They direct thoughts and actions.

Environmental justice activists have successfully shifted the meaning of environmentalism from a wilderness focus to a human and human habitat focus. For example, at the landmark first National People of Colour Environmental Leadership Summit (Summit I), out of the seventeen Principles of Environmental Justice, only one has a focus on nature not connected to humans. Even the last principle, which focuses on preserving "Mother Earth's resources," connects that preservation to human self-interest: "to insure the health of the natural world for present and future generations." There is no need to explicitly state humans. It is understood. This shift in environmentalism is manifested in environmental justice actions. Gibbs's Center for Health and Environmental Justice (CHEJ), "the only national environmental organization founded and led by grassroots leaders," is concerned with multiple issues affecting human health but has no room for wilderness issues. Bullard's Environmental Justice Resource Center (EJRC) focuses on "environmental and economic justice, environmental racism, land use and industrial facility permitting, brownfields redevelo-pment, community health, transportation equity, suburban sprawl, and smart growth."(Environmental Justice Resource Center, www.ejrc.cau.edu).

Wilderness is noticeably invisible. The insignificance of wilderness for environmental justice activists makes sense, in light of their experiences and focus. As Gibbs's CHEJ defines it, environmental justice is "the principle that people have the right to a clean and healthy environment regardless of their race or economic standing." So, environmental justice activists shift the focus of environmentalism from wilderness and nature to people. On its own, this is neither surprising nor noteworthy. The problem for wilderness advocates is that environmental justice groups, not content to have their own "environmental movement" focused on people, directly challenge and berate the environmental movement for not focusing on people and their problems, in other words, for being environmental groups. In the now famous 1990 letters to the Group of Ten, the Southwest Network for Economic and Environmental Justice indicted wilderness advocacy as racist and colonialist:

Your organizations continue to support and promote policies which emphasize the clean-up and preservation of the environment on the backs of working people in general and people of colour in particular. In the name of eliminating environmental hazards at any cost, across the country industrial and other economic activities which employ us are being shut down, curtailed, or prevented while our survival needs and cultures are ignored.

At its core, environmental justice is about incorporating environmental issues into the broader intellectual and institutional framework of human rights and democratic accountability (Wenz 1988; Bullard 1990; Capek 1993; Bryant 1995; Cutter 1995; Goldman 1996; Harvey 1996; Heiman 1996; Dobson 1998; Schlosberg 1999; Bowen and Haynes 2000). The term necessarily encompasses the widest possible definition of what is considered "environmental" and is unrepentantly anthropocentric in its orientation placing people, rather than flora and fauna, at the centre of a complex web of social, economic, political, and environmental relationships. Most important, it concerns itself primarily with the environmental injustices of these relationships, and the ways and means of rectifying these wrongs and/or avoiding them in the future. Locating a toxic waste site next to a poor, black community simply because it is poor and black, for example, is an environmental injustice that violates basic human rights and democratic accountability and demands remediation and prevention.

Environmental justice discourse has been extended to communities and, crucially, to the human relationship with the nonhuman world. This expanding sphere of the environmental justice discourse has been extended further with the application of the frame to climate change and climate justice, as well as growing concerns and movements around local food and energy that have become the centre of some environmental justice organising. Climate change has pushed environmental justice to more broad considerations of both environment and justice. The turn to a growing focus on sustainable materialism illustrates a sophisticated analysis of power and injustice on the part of environmental justice movements and an important development in transformative politics and practice. Both trends extend a conception of environmental justice into a new realm where environment and nature are understood to create the conditions for social justice. Environmental justice is a profoundly anthropocentric ethic, meaning that human beings are the central moral concern. Endangered species and the health of ecosystems are not dismissed as inconsequential, but human welfare and social equity are presented as central concerns. Thus, concern for environmental justice has the potential to appeal to a broader human audience, those interested in human well-being. Many environmental justice groups argue that every individual and community has a right to clean air and water; this movement proposes a clean environment as a human right. More recently, groups working for sustainable development have argued that human beings have a right to sustainable development. As the world grows increasingly concerned with global climate disruption, some groups are advancing ethical arguments for reducing greenhouse gas emissions based on the principles of environmental justice.

Environment Protection under Constitutional Framework of India:

India's environmental policies and regulation laws became comprehensive and stringent particularly as a consequence of the Bhopal tragedy in 1984. The 'command and control approach' supplemented by new regulatory techniques such as environment impact assessments and public hearings. The dispensation of justice is the most important ingredient of democratic governance that promotes just and equitable outcomes thereby supporting the rule of law and sustainable development. Courts allow people to hold government agencies, companies and individuals accountable for the violation of their fundamental rights as enshrined in the constitution of India. In recent years the Indian judiciary has occupied an important position in the nation's politics (Khosla:2009) The courts have made their mark on all the important issues, whether its politics, waste management, clean air, education policy or administrative matters. According to Mehta, the court has been recognized as one of the world's most powerful judicial bodies whose judges play an unprecedented governing role(Mehta:2007). Mehta emphasized this fact by coating words of one of the leading Indian legal scholars Upendra Baxi(1985). As chemotherapy is a treatment for a carcinogenic body, similarly judicial activism is a dire cure for a drastic disorder called politics.

Environment related rights were conspicuously absent from the original version of the Constitution of India, which was prominently dominated by business and property rights. Consequently, environmental jurisprudence was also an unknown appellation for the Indian judiciary. The 42nd constitutional amendment, made in 1976, changed this landscape by inducting Article 48-A5 and Article 51A (g) into this 'enviromyopic' document. Simultaneously, the Supreme Court of India embarked on a 'creative' activist phase of constitutional interpretation in the aftermath of the fiasco in A.D.M. Jabalpur v Shivakant Shukla(Supreme Court of India, Judgement of 28 April 1976,(1976) 2 SCC 521) where it found itself helpless in defending the basic civil liberties of the citizens against executive excesses(Sathe:2001). Starting from early 1980s, the Court has developed a body of 'green constitutional law' to safeguard the citizens' health from the deleterious affects of environmental degradation. The constitution of India is a living document which evolves and grows with time. The specific provisions on environment protection in the constitution are also result of this evolving nature and growth potential of the fundamental law of the land. The preamble to our constitution ensures socialist pattern of the society and dignity of the individual implying thereby a standard of living and pollution free environment. The Environment (Protection) Act, 1986 defines environment as "environment includes water, air and land and the interrelationship which exists among and between air, water and land and human beings, other living creatures, plants, micro-organism and property". The Article 51-A (g) in the chapter on fundamental duties of the Indian Constitution says that "It shall be duty of every citizen of India to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wild life and to have compassion for living creatures" thus clearly expect every citizen to protect environment. The Directive principles under the Indian constitution directed towards ideals of building welfare state. Healthy environment is also one of the elements of welfare state. Article 47 provides that the State shall regard the raising of the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people and the improvement of public health as among its primary duties. The improvement of public health also includes the protection and improvement of environment without which public health cannot be assured. Article 48 deals with organization of agriculture and animal husbandry. It directs the State to take steps to organize agriculture and animal husbandry on modern and scientific lines. In particular, it should take steps for preserving and improving the breeds and prohibiting the slaughter of cows and calves and other milch and draught cattle. Article 48 -A of the constitution says that "the state shall endeavour to protect and improve the environment and to safeguard the forests and wild life of the country". The Constitution of India under part III guarantees fundamental rights which are essential for the development of every individual and to which a person is inherently entitled by virtue of being human alone. Right to environment is also a right without which development of individual and realisation of his or her full potential shall not be possible. Articles 21, 14 and 19 of this part have been used for environmental protection.

According to Article 21 of the constitution, "no person shall be deprived of his life or personal liberty except according to procedure established by law". Article 21 has received liberal interpretation from time to time after the decision of the Supreme Court in Maneka Gandhi vs. Union of India, (AIR 1978 SC 597). Article 21 guarantees fundamental right to life. Right to environment, free of danger of disease and infection is inherent in it. Right to healthy environment is important attribute of right to live with human dignity. The right to live in a healthy environment as part of Article 21 of the Constitution was first recognized in the case of Rural Litigation and Entitlement Kendra vs. State, AIR 1988 SC 2187 (Popularly known as Dehradun Quarrying Case). It is the first case of this kind in India, involving issues relating to environment and ecological balance in which Supreme Court directed to stop the excavation (illegal mining) under the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986. In M.C. Mehta vs. Union of India, AIR 1987 SC 1086 the Supreme Court treated the right to live in pollution free environment as a part of fundamental right to life under Article 21 of the Constitution.

Excessive noise creates pollution in the society. The constitution of India under Article 19 (1) (a) read with Article 21 of the constitution guarantees right to decent environment and right to live peacefully. In PA Jacob vs. The Superintendent of Police Kottayam, AIR 1993 Ker 1, the Kerala High Court held that freedom of speech under article 19 (1)(a) does not include freedom to use loud speakers or sound amplifiers. Thus, noise pollution caused by the loud speakers can be controlled under article 19 (1) (a) of the constitution. Article 19 (1) (g) of the Indian constitution confers fundamental right on every citizen to practice any profession or to carry on any occupation, trade or business. This is subject to reasonable restrictions. A citizen cannot carry on business activity, if it is health hazards to the society or general public.

Thus safeguards for environment protection are inherent in this. The Supreme Court, while deciding the matter relating to carrying on trade of liquor in Cooverjee B. Bharucha Vs Excise commissioner, Ajmer (1954, SC 220) observed that, if there is clash between environmental protection and right to freedom of trade and occupation, the courts have to balance environmental interests with the fundamental rights to carry on any occupations. Public Interest Litigation under Article 32 and 226 of the constitution of India resulted in a wave of environmental litigation. The leading environmental cases decided by the Supreme Court includes case of closure of limestone quarries in the Dehradun region (Dehradun Quarrying case, AIR 1985 SC 652), the installation of safeguard at a chlorine plant in Delhi (M.C. Mehta V. Union of India, AIR 1988 SC 1037) etc. In Vellore Citizens Welfare Forum vs. Union of India (1996) 5 SCC 647, the Court observed that "the Precautionary Principle" and "the Polluter Pays Principle" are essential features of "Sustainable Development." At local and village level also, Panchayats have been empowered under the constitution to take measures such as soil conservation, water management, forestry and protection of the environment and promotion of ecological aspect.

Environment protection is part of our cultural values and traditions. In Atharvaveda, it has been said that "Man's paradise is on earth; this living world is the beloved place of all; It has the blessings of nature's bounties; live in a lovely spirit". Earth is our paradise and it is our duty to protect our paradise. The constitution of India embodies the framework of protection and preservation of nature without which life cannot be enjoyed. The knowledge of constitutional provisions regarding environment protection is need of the day to bring greater public participation, environmental awareness, environmental education and sensitize the people to preserve ecology and environment.

The constitutional changes effected in the 7th Schedule by the 42nd Amendment Act, 1976 is a milestone steps, in the direction of the protection of environment. Because the subject of forests originally was in the State list as entry 19, this resulted into no uniform policy by the State so as to protect the forests. By placing the item 'forest' now in the concurrent list by the entry 17-A, along with the State, Parliament has acquired a law making power. The Government of India in 1980 set up the Ministry of environment and Forests. The government adopted the new National Forest Policy in 1988. The insertion of the entry 17-B in the concurrent list has empowered the Parliament to enact a law with a view to protection of wild animals and birds. Although we had a comprehensive legislation in the form of Wildlife Protection Act of 1972 the 42nd Amendment has considered the wildlife along with forests [4]. India has also formulated National Action plan for the Protection of wild life. The new entry 20-A in the concurrent list embowers the Parliament to regulate the population explosion one, of the prime cause of the environmental pollution.

The new Fourm-The National Green Tribunal:

The establishment of National Green Tribunal was a result of the recommendations of the Law Commission of India. The Law Commission of India in its One Hundred and Eighty Sixth Report on 'Proposal to Constitute Environment Courts' (2003) strongly advocated the establishment of 'Environment Courts'. The Law Commission of India was influenced by decisions of the Supreme Court of India that advocated the establishment of environment courts. In the judgment of the Supreme Court of India in *A.P.* Pollution Control Board vs. M.V. Nayudu the Court referred to the need for establishing Environmental Courts which would have the benefit of expert advice from environmental scientists and technically qualified persons, as part of the judicial process and that the Law Commission could therefore examine the matter.

In M.C. Mehta vs. Union of India the Supreme Court opined "We would also suggest to the Government of India that since cases involving issues of environmental pollution, ecological destruction and conflicts over national resources are increasingly coming up for adjudication and these cases involve assessment and evolution of scientific and technical data, it might be desirable to set up environment courts on a regional basis with one professional judge and two experts, keeping in view the expertise required for such adjudication. There would be a right to appeal to this court from the decision of the environment court". The Indian Parliament passed the National Green Tribunal Act in June 2010. It provides for the establishment of a National Green Tribunal [NGT]. The Tribunal decides cases relating to environmental protection and conservation of forests and other natural resources including enforcement of any legal right relating to the environment and gives relief and compensation for damages to persons and property. The coming into force of the NGT Act implied an automatic repeal of two existing laws: the National Environment Tribunal Act 1995 and the National Environment Appellate Authority Act 1997, and therefore the closure of the National Environment Appellate Authority (NEAA) - a quasi-judicial body empowered to hear appeals against the environmental approvals granted (or not) to projects. All the cases pending before the NEAA were to be heard by the NGT. Its closure created a judicial vacuum as there was no forum for new cases, and the pending cases were left in limbo. Without the appointment of at least one other member besides the Chairperson, the NGT could not function. While the MoEF continued to grant regulatory approvals, there was no judicial redressal mechanism to challenge the same. This situation might have continued indefinitely had it not been for the Supreme Court's direction that the MoEF regularly report on the progress made in establishing the new tribunal. As a result, three judicial members and four expert members were appointed on May 5, 2011 and the NGT held its first hearing on May 25, 2011. According to World Wildlife Fund, 35 cases were decided by the NGT in 2011 and 91 in 2012. In 2013, the NGT disposed of 154 cases. The number of cases received since the establishment of National Green Tribunal till January 31 2015 is 7,768. In the written response to a question in the Lok Sabha, Minister of State (Independent Charge) for Environment , Forests and Climate Change Prakash Javadekar said the number of cases disposed till January 31,2015 is 5,167 and the number of cases pending is 2,601. (Economic Times:March3,2015)

Flexible Approach :

Since its establishment, the NGT has pronounced some major judgments. On the issue of delay in bringing matters to the notice of the tribunal, the NGT has adopted a liberal position, thereby keeping the doors of the NGT open longer for justice seekers. The law provides that anyone who wants to challenge a decision of the government must approach the NGT within 30 days from the date on which the decision was made. An additional period of 60 days could be granted to approach the NGT; however, this delay would need to be explained to the Tribunal, which may or may not find "sufficient cause" for the delay. After a lapse of 90 days, no recourse lies in the NGT.

In a case challenging the diversion of forest land for the construction of a hydro power project in Himachal Pradesh, the appellant approached the NGT on the ninetieth day from the date on which the decision was taken. The NGT condoned the delay, maintaining that there was no "strait-jacket formula" to accept or reject an explanation for delay, and relied on the decisions of the Supreme Court, advocating a liberal approach when delay on the part of the litigant is bonafide.

A second important decision of the NGT was on the issue of who could approach the Tribunal (i.e. who has legal standing). The NGT held that any person can approach the Tribunal to agitate a grievance relating to the protection and improvement of the natural environment as long as it isn't a frivolous petition. This decision is significant as it opens up the arena for environmental litigation to a much wider group of stakeholders. Any person who has reason to believe that a decision will have an adverse impact on the natural environment can approach the Tribunal.

Progressive Move:

In one of its first judgments on merits, concerning a mining operation, the NGT, while identifying lapses in the environment impact assessment (EIA) for the project, commented on the inadequacies of the EIA system: first, the absence of cumulative impact assessment of other projects within a 10 km radius (which wasn't done in this case); second, as EIA is done by consultants who are paid by the project proponent, a conflict of interest arises and there is a possibility that "intrinsic information which may go against the proponent" isn't revealed; and third, the consultant, whose EIA report is the basis for the decision-making, isn't accountable to anyone. The NGT finally decided that the approval would be kept on hold until its environmental impact was reassessed by the MoEF.

There are, however, some NGT orders that have taken a cautious approach. For instance, the NGT has refused to stop work at project sites during the pendency of cases, maintaining that companies cannot claim equity at a later stage, or in other words, take the defence of fait accompli. However, that is of little comfort for the affected communities, as the environment once destroyed is hard to restore. While it is perhaps too soon to evaluate the NGT, its very existence brings a much-required degree of prominence to environmental legal issues in India.

Some Recent Decisions

NGT remarks that Our Yamuna Revitalisation Plan Needs to Move on Priority:

National Green Tribunal has warned States and public authorities of invoking its "punitive or contempt jurisdiction" for not following its orders saying its plan on revitalisation of Yamuna needs to move on priority basis and not at the "mercy of whims and fancies of some".

NGT Raps Centre for Lack of Measures to Curb Air Pollution:

Neither the Centre, nor the States are owning up responsibility for growing pollution or suggesting measures to curb it, the National Green Tribunal said asking whether they have no responsibility towards children suffering from the menace.

NGT Pulls up Rajasthan Government on Illegal Sand Mining:

In a stern warning to Rajasthan Government, the National Green Tribunal has observed that its accounts might be attached and its officials could face punitive action, as they have not been able to stop illegal sand mining in the State.

NGT Asks 5 Mineral-Rich States to Survey All Asbestos Mines:

National Green Tribunal has asked five mineral-rich States to survey all the asbestos and associated mineral mines and file a report stating the impact of overburden or waste lying at these mines and pits.

NGT observation on non compliance of CSR activities by the Project Proponent:

NGT in the matter of Bhagat Ram Sahu & Ors. Vs. Union of India & Ors. dated 14/07/2015 observed non compliance and observance of the conditions of the Environment Clearance particularly with reference to the CSR activities as well as carrying out plantation and other schemes envisaged under the terms of the EC by the project proponent (Hirmi Cement Works, Ultratech Cement Limited) particularly in village Paraswani, Chhattisgarh.

The NGT is a specialized body where the decisionmakers hold relevant qualifications and appropriate work experience both in law and technically. Thereby the scientific experts are able to offer the court the skills for multi-disciplinary decision making. Nevertheless, the decisions of the NGT demonstrate both the effectiveness of administrative tribunals and the added value provided by scientific expertise. This is the unique feature of the NGT's adjudicative process which involves legally qualified judges working alongside scientific experts with environmental knowledge as joint decision makes of equal standing. The benefit of this multi-faceted and multi-skilled body produces a coherent and effective institutional mechanism to apply complex laws and principles in a uniform and consistent manner whilst simultaneously re-shaping the approach to solve the environmental problem at its source rather being limited to pre-determined remedies. Such involvement moves judicial activity onto a new level. Essentially, the NGT can also produce proactive, environmental policies rather than being reliant exclusively on reactive judicial remedies. This innovative development enhances the already important work being undertaken by the National Green Tribunal.

References

- Agyeman, J.,Constructing environmental (in)justice: Transatlantic tales. Environmental Politics, 11 (3), 2002. 3153.
- Agyeman, J.,Sustainable communities and the challenge of environmental justice.New York: New York University Press, 2005.
- Agyeman, J., ed.,Speaking for ourselves: environmental justice in Canada. Seattle,WA: University of Washington Press,2010.
- Basu, Durga Das "Commentary on the Constitution of India" Volume A, Delhi: Universal Book Traders, 1992.
- Baxi U., Taking Suffering Seriously: Social Litigation Before the Supreme Court, Third World Legal Stud., 4(6), 107-132 1985.
- Bullard, R., Dumping in Dixie: race, class, and environmental quality. Boulder,CO: Westview Press,1990.
- Bullard, R., ed., Confronting environmental racism: voices from the grassroots.Boston: South End Press, 1993.
  Bullard, R., Growing smarter: achieving livable communities, environmental justice, and regional equity. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2007.
- Bryant, Bunyan, ed. Environmental Justice: Issues, Problems, and Solutions. Island Press, 1995.
- Capek, S. The 'Environmental Justice' Frame: A Conceptual Discussion and an Application." Social Problems 40 (1): 524. 1993.
- Cutter, S. Race, Class and Environmental Justice." Progress in Human Geography 19 (1): 11122, 1995..
  Divan, S and Rosencranz, A. Environmental Law and Policy in India. New Delhi:OUP, (2001).
- Dobson, A. Justice and the Environment: Conceptions of Environmental Sustainability and Theories of Distributive Justice. New York : Oxford University Press, 1998.
- Environmental Justice Resource Center, www.ejrc.cau.edu
  Faber, D. and McCarthy, D., Neo-liberalism, globalization, and the struggle for ecological democracy: linking sustainability and environmental justice. In:J. Agyeman, R.D. Bullard, and B. Evans, eds. Just sustainabilities: development in an unequal world. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2003. 3863.
- Getches, D.H. and Pellow, D.N., Beyond 'traditional' environmental justice. In: K.M. Mutz, G.C. Bryner, and D.S, 2002.
- Gibbs, L., "Celebrating Ten Years of Triumph," Everyone's Backyard 11, no. 2,1993.
- Gill, G.N. Human Rights and the Environment in India: Access through Public Interest Litigation. Environmental, 2012.
- Harvey, D. 1996. Justice, Nature and the Geography of Difference. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Heiman, M. "Race, Waste and Class: New Perspectives on Environmental Justice" (editorial introduction to special issue on environmental justice). Antipode 28 (2): 1996., 11121.
- Holifield, Ryan, Michael Porter and Gordon Walker, Spaces of Environmental Justice (John Wiley and Sons,2011.
- Goldman, B. "What Is the Future of Environmental Justice?" Antipode 28 (2): 1996.12241.
- Law Review, 14, 201, 10.1350/enlr.2012.14.3.158
- Jaswal, P.S. and Jaswal, N.Environmental Law. Faridabad (Haryana): Allahabad Law Agency, 2009.
- Khosla M., Indian Supreme Court: Towards an Evolved Debate, Hastings Int'land Comp. L. Rev., 32(55), 55-100, 2009.
- Law Commission of India One Hundred and Eight Sixth

Report, 8-9 38 1999 (2) SCC 718 and 2001 (2) SCC 62 (2003)

- Lazarus,Richard. Pursuing “Environmental Justice” : The Distributional Effects of Environmental Protection, 87 Nw. U.L. Rev. 101,1993.
- Lee, C., ed., Proceedings: the first national people of color environmental leadership summit. New York: United Church of Christ Commission for Racial Justice, 1992.
- Lee, Charles, “environmental justice: Building a Unified Vision of Health and the Environment” Environmental Health Perspectives 10, Supplement 2 ,April 2002, 141-144.
- Laura, Pulido.,Environmentalism and Economic Justice, University of Arizona Press, 1996.
- M C Mehta v Union of India (1998) 9 SCC 589;
- McCarthy, J.F.,Processes of inclusion and adverse incorporation: oil palm and agrarian change in Sumatra, Indonesia. Journal of Peasant Studies, 37 (4), 821850, 2010.
- McDonald, D., Environmental Justice in South Africa. Athens, OH: Ohio University Press, 2002..
- McLean, J.,Water injustices and potential remedies in indigenous rural contexts: a water justice analysis. The Environmentalist, 27 (1), 2538, 2007..
- Mehta P.B., The Rise of Judicial Sovereignty, J. Democracy, 18(2), 70-83, 2007.
- Mohai, P., Pellow, D., and Timmons Roberts, J., Environmental justice. Annual Review of Environment and Resources, 34, 405430, 2009.
- Novotny, P., Where we live, work and play. Westport, CT: Praeger, 2000.
- Pellow, D., Garbage wars: the struggle for environmental justice in Chicago. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2004.
- Pellow, D., Resisting global toxics: transnational movements for environmental justice. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2007.
- Pellow, D.,Politics by other greens: the importance of transnational environmental justice movement networks. In: J. Carmin and J. Agyeman, eds. Environmental inequalities beyond borders. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 247266, 2011.
- Popovic,Niel. Pursuing Environmental Justice With International Human Rightsand State Constitutions, 15 Stan. Envtl. L.J. 338, 345,1996.
- Puigvert, L. & Valls, R, Dialogic learning in popular education movements in Spain. In Crowther, J.; Galloway, V.; Martin, I. (eds.) Popular Education: Engaging the Academy: International perspectives. pp. 88-99.Leicester: NIACE,2005.
- Rasmussen, Larry, “Environmental Racism and environmental justice: Moral Theory in the Making? Journal of the Society of Christian Ethics 24 1 , 11-2, 2004.
- Sathe, S.P. 'Judicial Activism: The Indian Experience', 6Wash. U. J.L. & Pol'y 29, 40 ,2001.
- Sathe, S.P. Judicial Activism in India Transgressing Borders and Enforcing Limits. New Delhi: OUP, 2002.
- Schlosberg, D., 1999. Environmental justice and the new pluralism. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Schlosberg, D.,The justice of environmental justice: reconciling equity, recognition,and participation in a political movement. In: A. Light and A. de Shalit, eds. Moral and political reasoning in environmental practice. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press,77106, 2003..
- Schlosberg, D., Reconceiving environmental justice: global movements and political theories. Environmental Politics, 13 (3), 517540, 2004.
- Schlosberg, D., Defining environmental justice. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007..
- Schlosberg, D.,Justice, ecological integrity, and climate change. In: A. Thompson and J. Bendik-Keymer, eds. Ethical adaptation to climate change: human virtues of the future. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 165184, 2012.
- Schweizer, E., “Environmental Justice: An Interview with Robert Bullard,” Earth First! Journal (July 1999), available online at www.ejnet.org/ej/bullard.html.
- Sze, J., 2006. Noxious New York. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Sze, J. and London, J.K., 2008. Environmental justice at the crossroads. Sociological Compass, 2 (4), 13311354.
- Sze, J., et al., 2010. Defining and contesting environmental justice: socio-natures and the politics of scale in the Delta. In: R. Taylor, D.,American environmentalism: the role of race, class and gender in shaping activism, 18201995. Race, Gender, Class, 5 (1), 1662, 1997.
- Taylor, D.,The environment and the people in American cities, 1600s1900s: disorder, inequality, and social change. Chapel Hill, NC: Duke University Press, 2009.
- Tarlock, A.Dan, City Versus Countryside : Environmental Equity in Context, 21 Fordham Urb. L.J. 461,1994.
- United Church of Christ Commission for Racial Justice. 1987. Toxic wastes and race in the United States: a national report on the racial and socio-economic characteristics of communities with hazardous waste sites. New York: United Church of Christ.
- Wenz, P. S. Environmental Justice. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1988.
- Young, Iris. Justice and the Politics of Difference , Princeton University Press, 1990.

◈◈

Micro Finance in India- An Overview

- Km. Sudha
(Research Scholar)
Dept. of Commerce -
D.A-V College, Kanpur-208001
(U.P.)

- Dr. Ajay Swarup Saxena
Associate Professor -
Dept. of Commerce
D.A-V. College, Kanpur-208001
(U.P.)

Micro finance has been defined as the provision of thrift credit and other financial services and products of very small amount to the poor in rural, semi-urban and urban areas for enabling them to raise their income levels and improve their living standard. Micro-credit institution (MCls) are those provide these facilities.

`Micro finance institution' means an entity whose principle object or principle business is the provision of micro finance services to eligible clients and comprises micro finance organisations. These organisations operate under various legal forms viz.

NGOs, MFls- registered under society's registration Act, 1860 and Indian trust Act, 1880. Cooperative MFls-registered under state cooperative societies Act.

MBFC MFls- under section- 25 of companies Act(not for profit) -a company registered under section 25 of the companies Act specifically exempted from registration by the RBI and whose principle business is the provision of micro finance services.

Micro finance organisations (MFO) means an entity registered in legal forms and whose principles business is the provision of micro finance services are not regulated by RBI.

Credit came to be recognised as a remedy for many ills of poverty. Credit packages and programmes were designed based on the needs of the poor. Central government as well as state government initiated a large number of credit based programmes with large resource allocation.

While the performances of these programmes were laudable and substantial progress was achieved, credit flow to the poor remained low. This resulted in number of initiatives that were institution led and existing instance of rural banking infrastructure to better serve the unbanked poor. The pioneering efforts at these state were made by NABARD and recently Ian Dhan Yojana of central government of India.

Despite the vast expansion of the formal credit system in the country, the dependence of the rural poor on money lenders continues in many areas. Such dependence pronounced in case of marginal farmers, landless labourers, petty traders and rural artisans belonging to socially and economically backward classess and tribes who are yet unbanked. For various reasons, credit to these sections of the population had not been institutionalised.

Characteristics of microfinance in India-

Indian microfinance is the largest microfinance in India. Till 31st march 2012 about 75 lakhs SHGs were promoted and savings linked with the banks total families covered under the programmes were more than 12 crores the basic characteristics of Indian microfinance are as under.

Groups generally consist of 10 to 20 members.

Dominance of women SHGs. They are better managers of credit and are good in repayment. Repayment is more than 95%.

Platform for creating social awareness.

Effective model in channelling credit to rural poor in simplified manner.

A potent tool for achieving financial inclusion.

Rural development over economies as strong as the economy of the poorest family in our society Further, rural development is not just dispensing credit by banks to rural. To facilitate setting up of small enterprises in rural sector. For these enterprises to generate adequate surplus, credit should be supported by adequate services in the areas of technology, input sourcing and marketing of products. Even accessibility of the borrowers to social sector services such as helth, education, sanitation, hygeine, etc. also enhance the productivity of the economic enterprises pursued by them.

Despite vast expansion of credit institutions network, large number of rural families still depends on non-institutional sources for meeting their credit needs.

The researcher is of the view that banks should come forward as the main source of finance provider to rural poor. They should promote and nurture SHGs and it can help people find and carry on livelihood activities, solving unemployment improve health and education and also provide a working framework of people's participation in addressing all issues of rural development.

Pilot project on SHGs - Bank linkage:

The pilot project of linkage 500 SHGs to banks was launched by NABARD in 1992 with the objective of linking and financing existing SHGs as grass roots intermediaries to banks across the country for the both saving mobilization and credit delivery. NABARD supported the pilot project by way of refinance. It also provided technical support and guidance to the agencies participating in the programme.

The following criteria were broadly suggested for credit linkage of SHGs -

- `The group should be in existence for at least six months.
- The group should have actively promoted the saving habits.
- Group could be formal(registered) or informal(unregistered).
- Membership of the group could be between 10-20 persons.

The advances given by the banks to the groups were treated as advances to `weaker sections' under the priority sector.

Quick studies conducted by NABARD in a few states to access the impact of the linkage project brought out encouraging and positive features like increase in loan volume of the SHGs, definite shift in the loaning pattern of the members from non-income generating activities to production activities, nearly 100% recovery performance, significant reduction in the transaction cost for both the banks and the borrowers etc., besides leading to grdual increase in the income vlevel of the SHGs members. Another significant features observed in the linkage project was that about 85% of the groups linked with the banks are formed exclusively by women.

Working group-

With a view to study the functioning of SHGs, and NGOs for expanding their activities and deepening their role in the rural sector, in Nov.1994, RBI constituted a working group comprising imminent NGO functionaies, academicians, consultants and bankers under the chairmanship of Shri S.K.Kalia, the then managing director of NABARD. As a follow-up of the recommendation of the working groups, banks were advised by RBI in April 1996 as under:

(1) SHGs lending as normal lending activity.
(2) Separate segment under priority sector.
(3) Inclusion in service area approach.
(4) Opening of saving banks accounts.
(5) Merging and securing norms.
(6) Documentation.
(7) Presence of defaulters in SHGs.
(8) Training.
(9) Monitoring and review of SHGs lending.

Financing of MFIs by banks-

A joint fact-finding study on microfinance conducted by reserve bank and few major banks made the following observations:

- Some of the microfinance institutions financed by banks or acting as their partners appear to be focusing on relatively better banked area, including area covered by the SHGs-Bank linkage programme.
- Many MFIs supported by banks were not

engaging themselves in capacity building and empowerment of the groups to the desired extent.

- Banks, asprincipal financer of MFIs, do not appear to be engaging them with regard to their system, practices and adherence to best practices. In many cases, no review of MFIs operations was undertaken after sanctioning the credit facilities.

A number of government schemes for benefiting rural population particularly poor and disadvantaged are based on SHGs for delivery.

Microfinance in India, presently provides mainly savings and credit facilities under differnet models-

(1) The banks providing `no frills' deposit, facilities of remittances, insurance and small loans.

(2) The Self Help Groups bank linkage model.

(3) The microfinance institutions model.

(4) The post offices with 1,38,000 rural offices have also been providing small savings, remittances facilities and postal life insurance facilities.

(5) PradhanMantri JanDhan Yojana.

(6) Atal Pension Yojana.

(7) PradhanMantri SurakshaBima Yojana.

(8) PradhanMantri Mudra Yojana.

This microfinance has had tremendous impact on the lives of the weaker section of society.

References

- Dr. C. Rangrajan, Former Governer Reserve Bank of India: Report of the Committee on Financial Inclusion January 2008.
- Ramesh S. Arunachalam:Scoping Paper on financial Inclusion, consideration and recommendations for UNDP January 2008.
- Carbo S, Gardner EP, Molyneux P, 2005: Financial Exclusion. Pagrave MacMillan.
- Dr. K.G. Karmakar, Managing Directory, NABARD: Micro Finance in India2006.
- Sinclair SP, 2001: Financial exclusion: An introductory survey, Tech. Rep. Centre for Research in Socially inclusive Services, Heriot-Watt University, Edingurgh.
- V.Joshi, L.Little: India's Economic reforms: 1991-2001, ew Delhi, Oxford University 1996.
- Throat, Usha: Financial Inclusion-the Indian Experience, HMT-DFID Financial Inclusion Conference, London 19 June 2007.
- Economic survey 2007-08.
- Shri RuddaDutt and K.P.M. Sridharan:Indian Economy, 2005.

◈ ◈

निवेदन

आपकी अवगत करिाते हुए हमें अपार हर्ष की अनुभूति हो रही है कि? अब आपके? सानिध्य में **सुपर प्रकीशन** के?-444, शिवराम कृपिा, विश्व बैंक? बर्रा-कीनपुर-208027 (उत्तर प्रदेश) द्वारा प्रकीशित होने वाले **अभिनव गवेषणा** (?वाटरली इण्टरनेशनल रेफ्रीड रिसर्च जनरल) की प्रकीशन प्रदत्त मानकीं के? आधार पर, उत्तर प्रदेश के? राज्यपाल **महामहिम श्रीराम नाईक?** द्वारा विगत **10 जुलाई**, 2015 की **र?नालय बेंकिट हाल, किदिवई नगर, कीनपुर** में भव्य समारोह में विमोचन के? साथ ही पत्रिकी की विस्तार होना प्रारम्भ हो गया है? शोध छात्रों हेतु उपयोगी उनके? लेखों की सम्पादन करिते हुए रेफ्रीड रिसर्च जनरल की यथासम्भव स्तरीय बनाने की प्रयास किया है? रेफ्रीड रिसर्च जनरल के? द्वारा शोध छात्र, प्रवक्ती, प्रोफेसिर एवं विभागाध्यक्ष अधिकीधिक? लाभ उठा सकें? इस हेतु कृपिया अपने कीलेज के? पुस्तकीलय में स्थान दिलाने की कृपिा करिें?

पत्रिकी की विद्वत् समाज में अधिकतिम लोकीप्रिय बनाने के? लिए समस्त प्राचार्यों की वर्ष में दो बार उनके? शोध लेखों की प्रकीशन निःशुल्क? किया जायेगा और साथ में सम्पादक? मण्डल में स्थान देते हुए उसकी की प्रमाण-पत्र भी दिया जायेगा? **सदस्यता शुल्क? मात्र 10,000 (दस हजार) रुपये (आजीवन)**? शोध पत्रिकी के? साथ ही सदस्यता फीर्म व निर्देश अंकिति हैं, कृपिया फीर्म सम्मिलित करि शोध-पत्रिकी के? विस्तार एवं जन-कल्याण के? भागीदार बनें?

- सर्वेश तिवारी (राजन)

प्रबन्ध सम्पादक?- **अभिनव गवेषणा**

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

Retail Atmospheric Effects on Shopping Behavior of Consumer

- **Trishna Upadhyay**
Research Scholar
Chhatrapati Shahu Ji Maharaj University, Kanpur (U.P.)

- **Dr. Manoj Awasthi**
Associate Professor - Commerce,
V. S. S. D. College, Kanpur (U.P.)

Introduction -

Retail industry is a kind of business with high level of competition. (Joshi & Kulkarni, 2012) In the light of globalization, intense competition & vibrant consumer, today's market situation resembles battle field. Only those organizations which give excellent buying experience to the customers are likely to stay ahead of others, survive and grow. It is therefore essential that retail stores use store space opportunities effectively, in order to differentiate themselves from competitors in the retail market as well as provide consumers with a pleasant shopping experience. (Singh, Katiyar, & Verma, 2014) The success of retail business is influence by its fast response and its ability in understanding consumer's behaviors. Retail business must focus to its consumer preference and factors influence a consumer's purchase decision.

Retail atmospheric involves all details of store's physical environment and the effect on customers. It has long been recognized that consumers respond to more than just the core product or service being offered when making purchase decisions; they respond to the total product. One of the most important features of the total product can be the place where it is bought or consumed. In some instances, the place, or to be more specific, the atmosphere of the place, is more influential than the product itself in the purchase decision (Kotler, 1973)

This study attempts to know the significance of atmospherics that affects the consumer's attitude and perception towards buying and what the behavior of the consumer in retail outlets and how retail atmospheric affect the buying behavior of consumer.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

(1) To study the significance of atmospherics that affects the consumer's attitude and perception towards buying.

(2) To study the impact of the stores atmospherics on the image of the retail outlets.

(3) To identify the behavior of the consumer in retail outlets.

(4) To know how retail atmospheric affect the buying behavior of consumer.

Theoretical Development -

Retail atmospheric is combination of two words first is retail and second is atmospheric. For understanding of retail atmosphere we should know retail and atmosphere individually.

What is Retail -

According ro (Berman, 2002) Retailing encompasses those business activities involved with the sale of goods and services to the final consumer for personal, family, or household use. (Guruswamy & Prabha, 2011) Retailing consists of the sale of goods or merchandise, from a fixed location such as a department store, in small or individual lots for direct consumption by the purchasers may be individuals or businesses. In commerce, a retailer buys goods or products in large quantities from manufacturers or importers, either directly or through a wholesaler, and then sells smaller quantities to the end-user. Retail establishments are often called shops or stores. Retailers are at the end of the supply chain.

OVERVIEW OF GLOBAL RETAIL INDUSTRY

The progress of retail industry from the sources of (Guruswamy & Prabha, 2011) Retail has played a major role in world over in increasing productivity across a wide range of consumer goods and services. The impact can be best seen in countries like U.S.A., U.K., and Mexico. Thailand and more recently china and India also. Economies of countries like Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Sri Lanka and Dubai are also heavily assisted by the retail sector. Retail is the second-largest industry in the United States both in number of establishments and number of employees. It is also one of the largest worldwide. The retail industry employs more than 22 million Americans and generates more than $3 trillion in retail sale annually. Retailing is a U.S. $ 7 trillion sector. Wal-Mart is the world's largest retailer. Wal-Mart heads Fortune magazine list of top 500 companies in the world. Forbes Annual List of Billionaires has the largest number (45/497) from the retail business.

INDIAN RETAIL INDUSTRY

India today is a dynamic combination of demanding consumers, rising levels of Consumption and a growing population base. As the corporate - the Piramals, the Tatas, the Rahejas, ITC, S.Kumar's, RPG Enterprises, and mega retailers - Crosswords, Shopper's Stop, and Pantaloons race to revolutionize the retailing sector, retail as an industry in India is coming alive. Retail Sales in India amounted to about Rs. 7400 billion in 2002, expanded at an average annual rate of 7% during 1999-2002. With the With the upturn in economic growth during 2003, retail sales are also expected to expand at a higher pace of nearly 10%. Across the country, retail sales in real terms are predicted to rise more rapidly than consumer expenditure during 2003-08. The forecast growth in real retail sales during 2003-2008 is 8.3% per year, compared with 7.1% for consumer expenditure. Modernization of the Indian retail sector will be reflected in rapid growth in sales of supermarkets, departmental stores and hypermarkets. Sales from these large format stores are to expand at growth rates ranging from 24% to 49% per year during 2003-2008, according to a latest report by Euro monitor International, a leading provider of global consumer-market intelligence. A.T. Kearney Inc. places India 6th on the (GRDI) global retail development index. The country has the highest per capita outlets in the world - 5.5 outlets per 1000 population. Around 7% of the population in India is engaged in retailing, as compared to 20% in the USA. India has emerged as a fourth largest economy in terms of Purchasing Power Parity (PPP).

What is Atmospheric :

The term atmospherics was first introduced by Philip Kotlet in the year 1973 in the journal named `Journal of Retailiung'. (Berman, 2002) Atmosphere (also known as atmospherics) isthe sum total of the physical attributes of a retailer, whether in a store format, that are used to develop an image and draw customers. (TOLANI & Mishra, 2015) Retail atmospherics refers to an array of anything inside a retail store that is intended to affect the consumer's attitude and perception towards buying. This comprises the use of colors, designs, decors, lighting or music. Retail atmospherics are based upon the psychology of the consumers in terms of using triggers to tell people to make a purchase or to stay in the store. The appearance of the stores holds a considerable importance in tempting customers through the doors. It can be said that atmospherics is an effort to create a positive brand image of the store which leads to the purchases by customers. Atmospherics implies on the physical characteristics of the store that project on the buying behavior of the consumer.

TYPES OF RETAIL ATMOSPHERICS

Retail atmospherics is classfied as:

External variables :

Exterior signs, Entrances Exterior, display windows, Height of building, Size of building, Color of building, Surrounding stores, Address and location Architectural style, Surrounding area, Parking availability and Exterior walls.

General interior variables :

Flooring and carpeting, Color schemes, Lighting, Music, Scents, Width of aisles, Wall composition, Paint and wall paper, Merchandise, Temperature and Cleanliness.

Layout and design variables :

Space design and allocation Placement of merchandise, Grouping of merchandise, Work station placement, Placement of equipment, Placement of cash registers, Waiting rooms, Department locations, Racks and cases Furniture.

Point-of-purchase and decoration variables :

Point-of-purchase displays, Wall decorations, Pictures, Product displays, Usage instructions, and

Price displays.

Emotional Effect of Retail atmospheric on consumer behavior :

The Mehrabian and Russell (M-R) environmental psychology model (1974), Also known as the stimuli-organism-response (SOR) model is one of the most Commonly used models by retailers to determine the effect of store atmospherics On consumer's buying behavior. This model can therefore be described as one of the most effective models to use to explain the effect that physical store Environments have on consumer's buying behavior (Y. Liu & Jang, 2009).

Environmental stimuli	Emotional state	Behavior
• Senses • Information rate	• Pleasure • Arousal • Dominance	• Approach • Avoidance

The Mehrabian-Russell model

Source: Adapted from Mehrabian and Russell (1974)

The SOR model indicates that consumers have three emotional states in Response to environmental stimuli: these are pleasure, arousal and dominance. These emotional responses result in two contrasting behaviors, namely Approach, also known as a positive behavior and avoidance, also known as a Negative behavior (S.S.Jang & Namkung, 2009). This concludes that consumer's emotional state can be known by the effect of atmospherics on consumer.

Methodology :

A descriptive research design is applied in the study. We use the secondary data for the purpose of this study. Secondary data collected from available books, publications, research studies, articles and websites. This research paper is based on the review of past research paper and articles which related to research topic.

Conclusion :

(Guruswamy & Prabha, 2011) Concluded that the changing consumer preference towards organized retailing from unorganized retailing. Proper environment of a store leads to increase in sales. The outer or the the inner atmosphere of the store is the only way to target customers (TOLANI & Mishra, 2015). (Singh, Katiyar, & Verma, 2014) Retail atmosphere is very important aspect for retailer for attracting consumer. All store atmospheric factors, have significant impact on customer approach behaviors. Interior environment has been found to have remarkable impact on the consumer's attitude. Customer pay special attention to the designing in a store, including whether the layout and overall structure is reasonable, how is the interior decoration, whether the signs and marks are clear, whether the display of commodities in corridor space, commodity information and classification is complete and convenient. Intangible factors and images of service personnel that are music, noise, room temperature, clothing and attitude of service personnel etc. are also considered by customer's as critical factors that will influence their behaviors. Retail atmospherics has become an important tool to uplift the mood of the shoppers urging them to purchase more.

References

- A. Mehrabian, & Russell, J. (1974). An approach to environmental psychology. USA: The Colonial Press. Berman, E.a. (2002). Retailing. Atomic Dog Publishing.
- Guruswamy, M. & Prabha, N. (2011). A Study on changing consumer Prefernces towards organized Retailing From Unorganised Retailing. International Journal of Exclusive Management REsearch , 1-12.
- Joshi, J.V., & Kulkarni, V.R. (2012). A FACTORIAL STUDY OF IMPACT OF STORE ATMOSPHERICS IN ORGANIZED RETAIL CHAIN STORES ON CUSTOMERS SHOPPING EXPERIENCE. SMS Vanarsi-MANAGEMENT INSIGHT, 89-98.
- Kotler, P.(1973). Atmosphere as a marketing tool.journal of retailing, 48-68.
- S.S. Jang, & Namkung, Y. (2009). Perceived quality, emotions and behavioural intentions: Application of an extended Meharabian-Russell model to restaurants. Journal of Business Reserch, 451-460.
- Singh, P., Katiyar, N., & Verma, G. (2014). Retail Shoppability: The Impact ofStore Atmospherics & Store Layout On Consumer Buying Patterns. INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF SCIENTIFIC & TECHNOLOGY RESERCH, 15-23.
- TOLANI, P., & Mishra, D. (2015). IMPACT OF RETAIL ATMOSPHERICS IN ATTRACTING CUSTOMERS: A STUDY OF RETAIL OUTLETS OF LUCKNOW. INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCH IN COMMERCE & MANAGEMENT, 1-15.
- Turley, L. W., & Milliman, R.E. (2000). Atmospheric Effects on Shopping Behavior: A Review of the Experimental Evidence. Journal of Business Research, 193-211.
- Y. Liu, & Jang, S. (2009). The effects of dining atmospherics: An extended Mehrabian-Russell model. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 494-503.
- Billings `90, Wendy L., ``Effects of Store Atmosphere on Shopping Behavior'' (1990). Honors Projects. Paper 16.
- http://digitalcommons.iwu.edu/busadmin honproj/16
- http://en.m.wikipedia.org
- www.fibre2fashion.com

◈◈

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

Role of Information Technology in Banking Industry : Challenges, Prospects and Impact

- Dr. Manoj Kumar Srivastava
Associate Professor -
Dept. of Commerce,
D. A-V. College, Kanpur-208001
(U.P.)

ABSTRACT

This article presents a study which aim to analyses the role of information technology in banking sector. Technological innovations have enabled the industry to open up efficient delivery channels. IT has helped the banking industry to deal with the challenges the new economy posses and has created new tools for supervisors and supervisory challenges. Technology driven issues such as privacy and the nature ofeffective communications have reached the forefrony of the policy agenda. Financial Institutions i.e. banking industry rely upon gathering, processing, analyzing and providing informations to meet out the needs of customers. Moreover IT is changing the banking Industry from paper and branch banking to digitalized and networked banking services. It is now fundamentally changing the delivery system of banks used to interact with its Customers. But banking industry is still struggling to find a technological solution to cope up with the challenges of rapidly changing environment. If due attention is given to IT challenges banking industry will be earliest adopter.

INTRODUCTION -

Information Technology has brought a revolutionary change in the working of banking industry and has radically changed the life of human beings. The growth of high speed networks coupled with the falling cost of computing power is making possible application undreamted in past.

The IT saga in Indian banking system commenced from mid 80's of 20th century when Reserve Bank Of India took upon itself the task of promoting automation in banking to improve customer services, book-keeping, MIS & Productivity. The role taken by RBI is continued with great determination.

The introduction of MICR based cheques processing during 1986-88 computerization of branches an activity commenced from late 80's with the introduction of ledger Posting Machine (LPMs) advanced ledger posting machines (ALPM). facilating computerization of government business, setting up IBRBT at Hyderabad as a research and technology centre for banking industry, Public Key Infrastructure (PKI) SWIFT, ATMAS, RTGS, Negotiated DEaling System (NDS) Centralized Fund Management system (CFMS) etc are the innovations being used vin banking industry which have shown a remarkable improvement in customer & Bank relations.

Recent developments in banking industry -

Following are the recent developments introduced by information technology :

(1) Internet -

It is networking of computers through which marketing message can be tranferred and received world wide. THe data can be sent and received at any part of the word. Internet is fast developing net facility and is of utmost importance for banks & public. At present all banks and its customers are using internet facility. with its helps banks are sending day to day updates related to the changes taking place in banking Industry for the convenience of customers. Balances in accounts, Fund transfers T.D.S. Rate of interest etc are the facilities provided by banks through internet thus saved a lot of time and inconvenience.

(2) Society for world inter banking Financial Tele-communication - SWIFT :

SWIFT as a co-operative society formed in May 1973 with 239 participating banks from 15 countries with its head quarter at Brussels. RBI and other 27 public sector banks as well as foreign banks have obtained the membership of SWIFT. It is a method of sophisticated message transmission of informational repute, highly cost-effective, reliable and safe means of fund transfers. This network also facilates the transfer of message related to interest payment, debit-credit cards, fixed deposit and foreign exchange. This facility is available through out the year 24 hours. At present more than 300 banks are memebers ofthis networks. SWIFT was upgraded in 1980 and SWIFT IT has been adopted by the Indian banks too.

(3) Automated Teller Machines (ATM) :

It is an automated electronics machine operated by the customers himself to withdraw and deposit funds, and get the receipt of transaction any time. A plastic card having customers name PIN-necessary information required for operation is provided to customers. As and when any customer wants to utilize the services of ATM, by using ATM card, he can safely use all the facilities. ATM facilities has saved the paperwork, time and inconvenience of customers. It is cheaper than manual operations.

(4) Electronics Clearing Service :

In 1984, R.B.I. appointed a committee to review the mechenisation in banks and also to review the electronic clearing services. The committee recommended that electronics clearing, services-credit clearing facility should be made avilable to all corporate/ Govt bodies for making repetitive low value payment like dividend, interest refund, salary pension. This was introduced initially at Chennai, Kolcutta, Mumbai and New Delhi but at present all major cities of country have been covered under this scheme.

(5) Bank Net :

It is a first national level network in India which was commissioned in February 1991. Bank net is a communication network established by RBI on the recommendations of a committee headed by executive director TNA Lyre. It has two Phases- Net 1 & Net II.

Application of Bank net :

(1) Messages of banking transaction can be transferred in the form of codes from city to another city.

(2) Quick settlement of banking transactions and advices.

(3) Improvement in customers services i.e. withdrawal, transfer, payments of routine nature, electric bills, reservation in railways & flights etc.

(4) Useful in foreign exchange dealings.

(5) Access to SWIFT through bank's net is easily possible.

(6) CHIP CARDS :

The customers of bank are provided with a special type of credit card which bears customer's name, code etc. The credit amount of customers account is written on the card with magnetic methods. The computer can read the card and when uses this card, credit amount written on card starts decreasing and when amount finishes, customer has to deposit cash with banks. This card facility allows free interest services upto certain days.

(7) Phone Banking :

Customers now can dial up the bank's designed telephone no. with their ID and will get connectivity to banks designed computer. By using automatic voice records (AVR) for simple queries and transactions customers can be satisfied. Now customers can do entire non cash related banking on telephone any where any time.

(8) Internet banking :

It enables a customer to do banking transactions through the banks website on internet by sitting at home or at office. It is a system of assessing accounts and general transactions on bank's products & services through computers. It has brought the bank at customer's computer. Through internet banking customer can now do all traditional transactions of banks at home. All such transactions are encrypted using sophisticated layered security system.

Any Where Banking :

With the expansion of technological advancement, it is now possible to obtain financials details from banks even from remote areas. All these technological advancements through information technology, customer's all requirements related to the banking can be satisfied.

Besides the above facilities provided by information technology, further efforts are being made by technologist to introduce more and more facilities for customers. These enormous changes brought by computers on officers, employees and customers are creating new bases of competition and ability to act quickly and efficiently and how banks have direct marketing with its customers and are also a accountable.

A research of Banking Literature reveals that banks are moving rapidly to take advantages of recent and new computer services, and cost reduction opportunities that new technologies offer. Following table depicts the result :

Technology infrastructure	Current use	Uses in must four years
1. P.C. net work teller	48%	80%
2. Sales tracking software	44%	80%
3. Realation data	36%	76%
4. Automatic credit scoring	8%	48%
5. E-mail	60%	95%
Delivery systems:-		
1. Internet banking home page	3%	25%
2. Tele banking	35%	70%
3. Electronics banking	12%	76%

Challenges Ahead :

With the introduction of information technology in banks, no doubt, customers as well as bankers both are getting closers and closer to each other, saving time, removing difficulties but it has also brought some challenges too.

(1) Meet customer's expectations on services & facilities offered by banks.

(2) Because of cut throat competition among bankers-customers retention.

(3) Retaining the currect market share in the industry and improving the same

(4) Cost volume ratio's maintenance.

(5) Competition from other private banks inside the industry.

(6) Frequent changes, advancements in technology.

(7) Upgrading the skill of work force.

(8) Lack of specialist and experienced professionals inj banking industry across the country.

(9) Managing technology, security and risks.

With the opening of economy, deregulation, mergers and acquisition of banks, implementation of BASIL-II, disinvestments of Government holding in banks, the competition is increasing from new banks and merged entities. This will definitely open new opportunities for introductions of new products and services. A definite trend is emerging, sharing of ATM networks and services, tie-up with insurance companies, other billing organizations like mobile operators electricity and telephone bills and banks for cross selling of various products & services.

How to cope-up with challenges :

Various efforts have been initiated and different good services by the banks are in process but these challenges can be efficiently met out by the following steps :

(1) To centralise the functions :

(a) Inward clearing data uploading & processing.

(b) MIS-on-line monitoring/Generation of statements by controlling offices.

(c) Strengthening the audit and security system.

(2) Single window system.

(3) Revised account openings as per CBS requirement.

(4) Opening of call centers where banking facilities are not available.

(5) Training of banking staff in information must be made more efficient.

(6) Strict compliance of circulars and

guidelines available on line (CBSINFO).

(7) Aggressive marketing of internet banking & debit-credit cards product to increase the share of delivery channels transactions.

(8) Customer-ID crystallization.

(9) Increasing use of IT in banks has created a problem of security to check the frauds.

(10) The choice of right channel, justification of IT investment on ROI, E-Governess disclosures, customers relationship management, penetration of IT in rural areas are the major challenges in the use of IT in banking industry.

Conclusion :

IT has, no doubt, changed the over all pattern of banking system. Now banking is redefined and reengineered with the use of IT. Banking industry, in future, certainly offer more sophisticated services to customers by new products and services. Thus there is a paradigm shift from seller's market to buyers market. so banks are now concentrating more on providing value added services to customers.

But IT can be successful if challenges by banks are met efficiently in the present environment. Successes of IT in banking industry also depends upon the proper and fast implementation in rural areas. Maintaining privacy and secrecy & data's serious efforts should be initialed by banks to ensure that data collected by banks should be used only for the purpose intended so. There is an urgent need to development IT and other CYBER LAWS effectively and properly. This will certainly ensure the development role of IT in banking industry. In order to expand the use of IT services and product more and more regional languages software's could be schemes of banks Finally it can be said that IT and Indian banking-has become synonymous and strength of Indian banking lies in withering stroms and rising up to the expectation from all the quarters catching up with all the global trend is a mater of time.

References

1. Chakerworty, K. C. - `Mobile Commerce, Mobile Banking-The Emerging Paradigm' India teleom. Conference 2009.
2. Prasad, P.N. and Nair KGK - Development through Information Technology in developing countries: Experience from Indian States- The Electronic Journal of information systems in developing countries.
3. Mobile Banking in India - Perception and Statistics available at http://wwwtelecomindiaonline.com/telecom-india-daily-telecom-station-mobile-bankinI.RTF gin-india-perception and statistics.htm.
4. Bimil Jalan - `Strenthening Indian Banking and Finance Progress and Prospects'. The Bank Economist Conference.India-2002
5. Reddy,Y.V. - (2000) Monetary and financial reforms in india. A Central Banker' Perespective, UBS Publisher New Delhi.
6. Reserve Bank of India - Report of the Committee on Financial System (Chairman ShriM Narsiham.
7. Jain Meghna and Popli, G. S. - Role of Information Technology in development of Banking in India Sept. 2012 http/ssrn.com/abstract-2151162
8. Firdos T. Shroff - Modern Banking Technology Publisher Northern Book Centre 2007.

◈◈

`Dimentions of Globalisation in Higher Education and Quality Assurance in India'

- Dr. Ajay Swarup Saxena
Associate Professor -
Dept. of Commerce,
D.A-V College, Kanpur-208001 (U.P.)

E-mail:

Introduction :

Learning is considered as wealth that none can destroy, and which can not be attained by chance. It must be sought for with ardor and pursued with diligence. The relation between teacher5 and the pupils are considered as sacred and teacher has been given a respectable status in the society after mother and father.

Presently, higher education has acquired an international character. As pointed out Power and Bhalla, it is being encouraged in all countries, because of the academic, social, generates goodwill enriches the teacher-learning process, and thereby enhances the quality of education, encourages competitiveness and help generate financial resources. However, if a country like India is to succeed in its efforts towards globalization, the quality of its education has to improve considerably. This would require improvement of infrastructure, changes in curricula, introduction of new academic programmes and administrative changes. These aspects are briefly considered in this paper.

Recent Developments :

The system of higher education is taking a new turn. The youth of India has started preferring technology and employment oriented courses. As a consequence, more and more engineering and other technical institution have started coming up. In order to meet the growing demand for such technical and employment oriented courses, the government started permitting the private institutions to come into education sector, and thus encouraged more private investment in education. As a result, in India during the past one decade, commercialization of higher education started, and self-financed private university started developing.

Globalization of Higher Education :

With privatization of higher education in recent year, it is felt that India can now open up the trade in higher education with other nations. But, there are various inherent social and economic problems which, may come in the way of globalization of higher education in India.

The fees structure for higher education is cost-effective. The major objective of such fee structure in those universities is reliance and self-sufficiency. The universities raise funds in those countries with a missionary zeal. Now, the self-financed institutions are asked to enhance the fee structure, so that these university / institutions become self-reliant and self-sufficient. Then the question comes `Why can't the government ask all institutes of higher education to develop their own fee-structure and become self-sufficient?'

Reservation Policy :

In India higher education there is another dimension called reservation policy, to improve the socio-economic status of those section of society who have been socially discriminated over centuries. Foreign Student and Non-resident Indian (NRIs): Now, to partially improve the financial status of the institutions of higher education, the government allowed to provide some seats to foreign students and NRIs by paying enhanced fees (as par with other universities of developed countries). Thus, presently in the classrooms of higher education in India, there is a great heterogeneity. The heterogeneity varies from social (caste) to merit and financial conditions of the student. The heterogeneity lies among the teacher and students.

Need for New Dimensions :

The institutes of higher education in India, till now, have not set any clear goals in higher education, Now, under the fast globalization of higher education under GATS (General Agreement on Trade Services) there is a need to review the present dimensions of higher education to provide directions with clear goals for achievements.

Some of the goals of higher education in India could be : to produce a large number of technocrats, so that no field of activity should suffer from lack of manpower, to assess the need of the country and develop the higher education. For example, in an industrially developed, country, like Japan, 40% of the students go for higher education in engineering. Ironically, in an agrarian country like India with agriculture as it main economy, only 1.6% students after high school education go for higher education in agriculture.

There must be strong positive correlation between higher education and economic development; to create a level of Excellency in student that should be directly reflected in their achievements, so that there is more demand for them in India and abroad, to contribute to rural development, by developing low-cost indigenous technologies for village uplifement through agriculture and other allied industries, and to mobilize resources in the universities towards financial self-sufficiency through consultancy, patenting and other contractual services. In fact, in every university, there should be a commercially-oriented wing, that will handle all such matters to mobilize resources.

Higher Education & GATS :

The world has witnesses a series ofreform programmers in the last decades. In recent years, a rich and varied scholarly literature has documented the implications of various reforms in agriculture sector, environmental and development sector, poverty eradiction and sustainable livelihoods, management of financial resources, transfer of technology, changing production and consumption patterns, and many more, within the broad framework of World Trade Organization. Though the role of GATS is not yet fully understood at this junction, it is observed that several universities are approaching developing countries for providing higher education, either through distance education or through on-line. But there is also a fear in developed countries in Europe that GATS may influence the nation authorities and may create a problem of regulating higher education systems.

Thrust Areas for Higher Education in India inview of GATS : With liberalization of higher education trade, every university in all countries is trying to attract overseas students, to pursue their higher education in their respective universities. Foe attracting overseas students, the course curriculum should be well tailored, not only to suit their needs but also to develop scope at an international arena. In countries like India, with an added advantage of English as a medium of education, there is a tremendous scope for liberalization of higher education, to indentify the thrust areas in higher education. Which are needed to support the Indian Government, to enable it to meet the challenges of rapid gobalization.

Plea for Academic Restructuring :

It is suggested that India should establish links with other countries for the exchange of programmes, so that curricula can be changed according to the needs of international students. The necessity of adding an international dimension to the course content, at least in the Master's level, can not be over-emphasized. In this context, it may be added that the Commission of International Education (of the American Council of Education) has pointed out that international education needs to give students and expanded horizon, to infuse in them intercultural competence, an understanding of global system and an ability to focus on problems.

Quality Assurance :

It is suggested that NAAC and NBA should evolve criteria for assessing the suitability of institution, for offering programmes for international students. The first step would be the formulation of Self-Assessment Manuals. It may mention that AIU has already formulated guidelines, for enabling the grant of equivalence to degree offered in India by foreign universities. The main conditions laid down, to monitor quality assurance are, firstly, the Indian institution (partner) should have adequate infrastructure and facilities as substantiated by the report of a Review Committee of the AIU. Secondly, the programmme be implemented jointly by the foreign and Indian Universities. (Or academic institutions affiliated to them) with both contributing to the academic program me, in approximately equal measure. Thirdly the foreign university gives an undertaking, in the form of a certificate, that the degree / diploma awarded to the student in India would be considered as equivalent to the corresponding degree/ diploma awarded by the university at home, and that it would be recognized in that country as being equivalent to the corresponding degree/ diploma of the university.

Suggestions :

The purpose of globalization of Indian education is three fold :

(1) To make it a major source of earning foreign exchange,

(2) To improve quality of Indian education

(3) To spread Indian culture and values. Setting up units abroad will create awareness about Indian education, but it will not help us to earn a substantial among Foreign exchange, because a major portion would be spent to run the institution.

Hence, looking at the purpose, of the three options of globalization of Indian education, the most appropriate option would be, to attract the maximum possible number of foreign students. Therefore, we need not limit ourselves to Asian African countries. Globalization of higher education is to be promoted, not only because it yields financial benefits, but also because of the academic, political and social advantage that accrue from the presence of international student on campuses.

Conclusion :

Globalization of higher education is important, and many Indian universities are taking steps to implement it. For this purpose, it is necessary to undertake quality assurance measures. It is important that only programmes of high quality are offered As Lambert (1996) succinctly states: `Everything that the school provides should reflect high quality, competence, taste and obvious commitment to service' The manager of Indian higher education instauration could keep this in mind. If higher education is to succeed in its purpose of generating enlightened and useful human resources, one should think of what is relevant to education and how to support it with relevant imputes. Indian Educational institutes must prepare to appoint super-specialized faculty, research-oriented curriculum, consultancy services to industry, pooling -up exchange of resources, library, and faculty by various institutes via networking, video/tele-conferencing, and joint academic ventures seminars, workshops, supporting professional bodies for healthy interactions.

References

1. Beeby, C., 1966, The Quality of education in Developing Countries, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA.
2. National Policy on Education, 1986 or 1992, MHRD, Govt. of India.
3. UNESCO, 1994, International Teacher's Day Address.
4. UNESCO, 1996 International Commission on Education for the 21st Century by Jaeques Dectors.
5. Kumar Ashish, Private University : Education turns to be a commodity, University News, Sep 8-14 2003, p 25.
6. Jain, S.K. and Jain Jain Nidhi, Higher Education and HRM in INDIA, University News, July 21-27, 2003, p. 9.
7. Employment News, March 2012.
8. The Education Review Vol. 47 August 2004 No. 8 P. 1-4.
9. Vol. 23 3009 Indian Journal Human Relation.
10. Press Councle of India 2011.

Website

www.mhrd.gov.in
www.wikipedia.org
www.mygov.in
www.ncert.nic.in
www.gse.harvard.edu

RNI : UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC ISSN : 2394-4366

PPP MODEL - AN OVERVIEW

- Dr. Y.C. Vishnoi
Associate Professor -
Department of Commerce
D.A-V. P.G. College,
Kanpur-208001 (U.P.)

E-mail:

This is utmost requirement of a constant and sustainable development for a developing country. Developing countries need industrial development as well as development of infrastructural facilities. There is abundance of assets in the country but they need exploitation and utilization for the benefit of the masses. But the developing countries are in paucity of funds for investment to utilize these assets for public use. As the large-number of population lives below poverty line and a majority of population was low income to carry on their families only. They have no means of savings and investments and no sufficient revenue is earned by the Government. So the government requires the agencies to support the government in harnessing the public assets for utilization of the different sections of the socities and to strengthen the government as well as the country to go ahead with sustainable growth and faster development. On the other hand there are different entrepreneurs in the country who has sufficient funds but due to lack of incentive and encouragement by the government their funds are unutilized for the benefit and development of the country. This necessitates a strong system or model to bridge the gap between government and the private entrepreneurs. As such PPP model has been initiated in some of the developing countries and India for sustainable growth.

Definition :

PPP is an arrangement between government and private sector for the provision of public assets such as land, water air and space as well as public service like health, sanitation, social work and rehabilitation to poor section of society and environment through investments being made and management being undertaken by the private sector for a specified period of time. The risk will be borne by both the entities and private entity will receive performance linked payments.

(1) Public assets and Public service:

Public assets is that assets the use of which is linked to the delivery of a public service or those assets that utilize sovereign assets to deliver public services. Public services are those services that the state is obliged to promote to its citizens.

(2) Investments being made and management done by the private sector:

The arrangement would provide for financial investment or non financial investment by the private sector. The private sector has ability to supervise the methods, materials and money very successfully. The arrangement intention is to harness the private sector efficiency in the delivery of quality services to the public.

(3) Operations or management:

The arrangement will not be continue for a long or permanent period. After a pre-determined period, the arrangement with the private sector will come to an end.

(4) Risk sharing with the private sector:

The risk will be borne by both the entity-the private and public in the arrangement. There will not be outsourcing contracts.

(5) Performance linked payment:

The government will look the performance of the private sector. The arrangement will not mean merely provision of facility or service.

Desirable conditions for a PPP model

(1) Allocation of risks in an optimal manner to the party.

(2) Private sector entity will receive cash flows for their investments in management of the PPP either through a performance linked fee paymewnt from the Govt. entity or through user charges from the consumers of the service provided.

(3) Incentive and penalty based structure will be included in the arrangement so as to ensure to accountable to private sector for service delivery.

(4) Outcomes of the PPP will be normally pre-determined as output parameters rather than technical specifications for assets to be built.

(5) Minimum technical specifications might be identified.

(6) Such a structure will be expected to leave room for innovation and technology and transfer in project execution by the private sector entity.

Ideal Methods for PPP Model

(1) The models where ownership of the asset remains with the public entity or government during the contract period and project will be transferred back to the public entity after the termination of contract.

(2) The final decision on the form of PPP will be made on the basis of value for money analysis.

Forms of PPP Model

Some of the commonly forms of PPP model are : (1) Management contracts. (2) Build operate tranfer-toll. (3) Build-lease-transfer. (4) Design-build-operate transfer. (5) Operate - maintain-tranfer. (6) Joint venture. (7) Build operate own transfer.

Commonly Used Models in India

(1) Build operate transfer:

The private entity meets the upfront cost of design, construction and recurring cost on operation and maintenance. The private entity recovers the entire cost along with the interest from collection of user utilization during the agreed concession period.

(2) Build operate own transfer:

This model is similar to the BOT model except that the private entity has to transfer the facility back to the public sector. In this model the government grants a private entity to finance, design, build and operate a facility for a specific period of time before the transfer.

(3) Joint Venture:

In a PPP arrangement commonly followed in India such as airport development, the private sector is encouraged to form a joint venture company along with the participating public sector with the latter holding only minority shares. The private sector body will be responsible for the design, construction and management of the operations and will also bring in most of the investment requirements. The public sector partner will provide fixed assets whether it is land building. It may also provide assurances and guarantees required by the private partner to raise funds.

(4) Management Contract:

It is a contractual arrangement for the management of a part or whole of a public enterprise by the private sector. These contracts allow private sector skills to be brought into service design and delivery, operational control, labour management and equipment procurement. The public sector retains the ownership of facility and equipment. The private sector is paid a fee to manage and operate services. Payment of such fees is performance based.

(5) Build Operate **transfer:**

In this model the private partner is responsible to design, build and operate and transfer back the facility to public sector. The private partner brings the finance for the project and take the responsibility to construct and maintain it. The public sector pays a rent for using the facility or private sector is allowed to collect revenue from the users. Such as NHAI contracted the National Highway projects. In Chennai, Hyderabad, Bangalore, Gurgaon and Pune. IT industries are based on PPP model.

There is no single PPP arrangement model that can satisfy all conditions concerning a project's location-setting and its technical and financial features. In many countries different models are in existence depending on country's political, legal and socio-cultural circumstances, maturity of the country's PPP market and the financial and technical features of the projects and sectors concerned. In India Build Operate Transfer Model is running successfully as this model has enormously undertaken many projects such as road construction (NHAI) port construction and airport building Telecommunication and Power plant as well as, IT sector industries, that paved the way for faster economic growth and sustainable development of the country.

References

1. Economic times editional dated 27th Nov. 2015.
2. www.G2G government & Z / paernership.
3. Business standard daily Newspaper delivery 16th Oct 2015 page no. 7.
4. `Journal Business India' article PPP.by J. Subranium.
5. www.PP in India.com

◈◈

शोधपत्र लेखकों से अनुरोध

'अभिनव गवेषणा' त्रैमासिक बहुभाषीय अंतर्राष्ट्रीय शोध पत्रिकी है जिसमें सभी उपविषयों के? मौलिक? शोध पत्र, शोध समीक्षा, विचार, लेखों आदि की प्रकीशन किया जाता है। शोधकर्त्ता हिन्दी, अंग्रेजी अथवा संस्कृत भाषा में अपने शोध पत्र भेज सकते हैं। शोध पत्र भेजते समय कृपया निम्न बिन्दुओं पर ध्यान दें-

◈लेखक अपना शोध-पत्र सर्वेश तिवारी (राजन) प्रबन्ध संपादक?- **'अभिनव गवेषणा'** के-444, 'शिवराम कृपा' विश्व बैंक बर्रा-कानपुर-27 को अथवा **super.prakashan@gmail.com** पर प्रेषित करें।

◈प्राप्त शोध पत्र पत्रिका में प्रकाशन के पूर्व पुनर्निरीक्षित किये जायेंगे। स्वीकृत शोध पत्र कहीं और प्रकाशित नहीं होना चाहिए और न ही उस शोध पत्र का कोई भी भाग सम्पादक के अनुमति के बिना कहीं और प्रकाशित किया जा सकता है।

◈अपने शोधपत्र की पाण्डुलिपि निम्न भागों में तैयार करें- शीर्षक, सारांश, पाण्डुलिपि, पुस्तक संदर्भ-सूची। कृपया पुनर्निरीक्षण की गुणवत्ता में सहायता करने हेतु अपना नाम, पता पाण्डुलिपि पर न दें।

◈**शीर्षक -** शीर्षक पाण्डुलिपि पर अवश्य दें, किन्तु अपना पूरा नाम, पता, संस्था जहाँ पर अध्ययन अथवा अध्यापन कार्य सम्पादित किया गया हो, आपका विषय, दूरभाष-मोबाइल, फैक्स, ई-मेल पत्राचार हेतु अलग पृष्ठ पर अवश्य दें। उपर्युक्त तथ्य आपके शोध पत्र के शब्द सीमा के अन्तर्गत ही माना जायेगा।

◈**सारांश -** कृपया शोधपत्र का सारांश अधिकतम 200 शब्दों में दें।

◈**पाण्डुलिपि -** इसके अन्तर्गत मुख्य पाठ्य सामग्री होगी जो 5 से 10 पृष्ठ तक होनी चाहिए? शोध पत्र 10 पृष्ठ से (सारांश, शब्द संक्षेप, सूची समेत) अधिक प्रकाशन हेतु स्वीकार नहीं किया जायेगा। अन्यथा वृहद् शोध पत्र (10 से पृष्ठ से अधिक) प्रकाशन में देर भी हो सकती है। लेखक को यह बात स्वीकार होनी चाहिए कि शोध पत्र पुनर्निरीक्षण के दौरान किये गये संशोधन उन्हें मान्य होंगे। शोध पत्र प्रकाशन के दौरान त्रुटि की सम्भावना न बने इसका पूरा ध्यान रखा जाता है, फिर भी कोई त्रुटि पाये जाने पर लेखक संशोधित री-प्रिन्ट प्राप्त कर सकता है। पत्रिका में संशोधन की व्यवस्था नहीं है।

◈ **सन्दर्भ वर्णमालाक्रमानुसार -** शोध पत्र के समापन पर कृपया संदर्भ वर्ण माला क्रमानुसार ही दें। पत्रिका का वर्ष, लेखक, पृष्ठ संख्या, भाग इत्यादि विस्तार से दें। पुस्तक या पत्रिका शीर्षक इटैलिक दें।

◈ **पुस्तक -** प्रकाशक का नाम, संस्करण, संख्या, प्रकाशन वर्ष, लेखक का नाम, पुस्तक का नाम, पृष्ठ संख्या।

◈ **पत्रिका -** पत्रिका नाम, लेख का शीर्षक, लेखक का नाम, प्रकाशक का नाम, अंक संख्या, माह, वार्षिक, अर्द्धवार्षिक, त्रैमासिक अथवा मासिक जो भी हो स्पष्ट करें।

◈ **संदर्भ ग्रन्थ सूची -** कृपया शोध पत्र में कम से कम 8 सन्दर्भ ग्रन्थ सूची अवश्य दें। ◈ **समाचार पत्र -** प्रकाशक, तिथि, सन्, पृष्ठ संख्या। ◈ **इण्टरनेट -** वेबसाइट, पृष्ठ संख्या, मुख्य शीर्षक, अन्तः शीर्षक।

◈ **मानचित्र एवं सारणी -** मानचित्र एवं सारणी अथवा चित्र शोध पत्र की समाप्ति के अन्त में दें। यह ब्लैक एण्ड व्हाइट ही होना चाहिए। इसका स्पष्ट संकेत पाण्डुलिपि में दें (उदाहरण, सारणी संख्या)।

◈ **विशेष -** कृपया अपना शोध पत्र ई-मेल करने के बाद डाक से अवश्य भेजें या फोन करें। अपने शोध पत्र के साथ-साथ बायोडाटा, फोटो, अपना पता लिखा लिफाफा (20 रुपये टिकट सहित) भेजें। शोध पत्र हिन्दी, अंग्रेजी अथवा संस्कृत भाषा में ही होना चाहिए। शोध पत्र यदि हिन्दी-संस्कृत में है तो (कृतिदेव-हिन्दी फान्ट 14) में अंग्रेजी में है तो (एरियल - अंग्रेजी फान्ट 12) में तैयार सीडी के साथ दें। शोध पत्र प्राप्त होने के एक सप्ताह के अन्दर लेखक को स्वीकृति पत्र प्रेषित कर दिया जायेगा? ई-मेल **(super.prakashan@gmail. com)** से प्राप्त शोध पत्र हेतु ई-मेल से स्वीकृति भेजी जायेगी। शोध पत्र प्रेषित करने से पूर्व प्रबन्धक से दूरभाष पर अवश्य सम्पर्क करें। सम्पादक मण्डल अथवा सलाहकार समिति में सम्मिलित करने का अन्तिम निर्णय संस्था का होगा।

◈ **सुझाव -** लेखकों एवं पाठकों को यह अंक कैसा लगा, इस सम्बन्ध में अपने-अपने विचार अवश्य भेजें, इससे मुझे अपनी त्रुटियों को जानने और भावी योजना बनाने में सहायता मिलेगी।

◈ **विनम्र निवेदन-** सभी सम्मानित सदस्यों से निवेदन है कि अपने माध्यम अधिकतम सदस्यों को पत्रिका परिवार से जोड़कर संस्था का सहयोग करें।

अभिनव गवेषणा

त्रैमासिक अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय शोध पत्रिका

Abhinav GAVESHANA

Quartely International Shodh Patrika

RNI : APPLIED\ UPMUL00620/24/1/2014-TC

ISSN - 2394-4366

E-mail : super.prakashan@gmail.com

कार्यालय : सेक्टर के-444 'शिवराम कृपा' विश्व बैंक बर्रा, कानपुर-208027

सदस्यता फार्म

श्रीमान् सम्पादक महोदय,

'अभिनव गवेषणा'

(त्रैमासिक? बहुभाषीय अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय शोध पत्रिका?)

सेक्टर-के-444, 'शिवराम कृपा' विश्व बैंक बर्रा, कानपुर-208027 (उ. प्र.) भारत

महोदय / महोदया,

निवेदन है मैं / हमारा महाविद्यालय आपके 'सुपर प्रकाशन' द्वारा प्रकाशित **'अभिनव गवेषणा'** (त्रैमासिक बहुभाषीय अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय शोध पत्रिका) परिवार का .... वर्षीय / आजीवन◈ / व्यक्तिगत / संस्थागत◈ सदस्य बनना चाहता हूँ / चाहती हूँ? मैं / हमारी संस्था **'सुपर प्रकाशन'**, विश्व बैंक बर्रा, कानपुर-27 के नाम सदस्यता शुल्क .... रुपये नकद / मनीआर्डर / चेक अथवा बैंक ड्राफ्ट खाता क्रमांक (सुपर प्रकाशन - 52570500000170) IFS Code No. BARB0BUPGBX. बड़ौदा उत्तर प्रदेश ग्रामीण बैंक, शाखा- विश्व बैंक बर्रा (कर्रही) कानपुर-208027 के नाम से दे रहा हूँ?

नाम (श्री / श्रीमती) डॉ. : ....

पद का नाम (जहाँ वर्तमान में कार्यरत हैं) : ....

संस्था / निवास का नाम : ....

पत्र व्यवहार का पूरा पता (पिनकोड सहित) : ....

: ....

फोन / मोबाइल नं. : ....

स्थान व दिनांक : ....

- हस्ताक्षर

प्रबन्धक सम्पादक : **सर्वेश तिवारी 'राजन'**

मो. : 08896244776

सम्पादक : **डॉ. नवनीत कुमार बाजपेयी**

मो. : 09450135102

सदस्यता शुल्क?- 1000 रुपये प्रति अंक? (प्रमाण-पत्र सहित), 5 वर्ष-7500 रुपये , आजीवन - 12,500 रुपये। ◈ 'अभिनव गवेषणा' पत्रिका परिवार की आजीवन/संस्थागत सदस्यता से तात्पर्य शोध लेख के? साथ प्रिन्टेड कुल पच्चीस प्रतियाँ हैं।