CURRICULAR MATERIAL
FOR
DIPLOMA IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION (D.El.Ed) COURSE
IN DIETs OF
ARUNACHAL PRADESH

Course Code: 13

CONTEMPORARY INDIAN SOCIETY

STATE COUNCIL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING
GOVT. OF ARUNACHAL PRADESH
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> **The curricular material has been developed keeping in view the learning needs of the D.El.Ed Course trainees as per the current PSTE curriculum. While developing the material authentic textual/reference materials from various sources have been referred. As far as possible the content of the materials have been presented in an objective manner. The ideas and opinions as presented in the content of the materials are entirely of the developer of the material.**

FOREWORD

The Diploma in Elementary Education (D.El.Ed.) curriculum for 2 year PSTE course of the DIETs in Arunachal Pradesh was revised and updated as an exercise deemed necessary in the context of National Curriculum framework-2005 and enforcement of Right to Education (RTE) Act-2009. The curriculum was revised on the basis of recommendations of the National Council for Teacher Education, National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE) and the guidelines of Bordia Committee Report entitled "Implementation of RTE, Act and Resultant Revamp of SSA" (2010). Since 2013-14 the revised D.El.Ed Curriculum is being implemented in all the eleven DIETs of the state. However, in view of change in the structure and content of the revised curriculum, there has arisen a pressing need for content specific and contextualized curricular materials which could be handy for both teacher educators and student teachers of the DIETs in the state. Further Justice Verma Commission Report on Teacher Education-2012, constituted by the Hon'ble Supreme Court of India observed," our prospective teachers are educated through substandard readymade materials available in the form of 'guides' which are conceptually confusing and regressive in perspectives". Hence, the commission strongly recommended for development of learner friendly curricular materials for different types of teacher education courses.

The D.El.Ed curricular material has been developed in workshop situation with participation of Resource Persons from Department of Education, Rajiv Gandhi University, Itanagar and faculty members of SCERT and DIETs of the state.

I am immensely grateful to the Joint Director, SCERT, Mr. Gania Leij for his guidance, Professor Jaydev Sahu, Dept. Of Education, Rajiv Gandhi University, Itanagar for his academic support, members of SCERT Academic Team, Assistant Directors, Shri G.C.Baral, Sri S.Pradhan and Sri V.R.Sharma for supervision and finalisation of curricular materials. I am specifically thankful to the author on **Contemporary Indian Society Course Code-13, Sri Poro Rangjang Sr. Lecturer, DIET Changlang** for his efforts in writing the texts of the course materials as per the need of the syllabus.

Lastly, it is hoped that the curricular materials will be highly useful as reference materials for the teacher educators and student teachers of the DIETs of the Arunachal Pradesh.

Moto Nyori,
Joint Director SCERT, Itanagar

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UNIT- I
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Impact of colonialism on Indian Society.

The establishment of British rule in the late 18th century prompted British Official missionaries and scholars to acquire knowledge of the classical language of India, of the strictness of Indian society and values as well as manner of the people. The economic lose was primarily agricultural, the tools and implements did not register any remarkable changes through time. Art and crafts were mostly connected with poorly developed. Socially the frame work consisted of comparatively   self sufficient village communities in groups. Caste system was the typical Indian institution to accommodate various socio-economic strata and nascent classes, binding, them together in groups and ensuring such constituent occupational protection as well. The British rule introduced the railways, the press and the western system of education club and associations all of which shark the prevalent socio-economic order. But the processes of exploitation unlearned by them destroyed the possibilities of development of industries, in British and their market in India. Even though it sought to tie down the people it ruled to colonial backwardness, it released new historical forces within the Indian fold by throwing the traditional economic system and socio-cultural order out of gear. It gave birth to the desire of material advancement and letter amenities and listing conditions of individuals. Also it gave birth to a spirit of inquiry in the minds of Indian intellectuals who came in contact with western education. Both the social reformists and the conservatives took a fresh and critical look at their society and culture as a reaction to western interpretation.

Impact of colonialism on Indian Economy:

Going back, India that is Bharat was the richest and the most prosperous country in the world. It was known as the "Golden Spasrow". Literally speaking pines of milk flow, Indian handcraft and industrial product were known for their excellence in design and quality all own the world. From the richness of this land and from the labour and wisdom of its people had sprung enormous wealth, great ideas, refined skills and art. Naturally, therefore foreigners were tempted to come to India for learning as well as loot and plunder.

Colonial rule in India by its inherent nature worked for the benefit of England and in than impoverished India. Agriculture was the main some of livelihood for most of the people of India. However agrarian relation i.e. relations between the peasants and the state changed drastically under the British rule. Earlier system of Jagirdari prevalent under the Mughals was done away with. In this system, the king, the Jagirdari and peasant had different rights on land and although there were some instances of land being sold or bought, this was not the usual practice. The British introduced these types of land settlements permanent, Ryotwari and Mahalwari. In the first revenue settlement was made with the Zaminders. In the second directly with the peasants and in the third with the village communities. In the Zamindari

systems. Zamindar was recognised as the owner of the land and left free to extract   maximum revenue from the cultivators leaving the peasantry impoverished   and at the mercy of the Zaminders. In other cases, the absence of Zaminders did not bring any relief to the peasantry as revenue was fixed at exorbitant rates leaving the peasant in very deprived state.

Second impact of colonial policies was commercialization of agriculture in some areas where the peasants grew cash crops primarily cotton, jute, tobacco, sugarcane, ineligo etc. most of which saned as raw materials for British industries. However commercialization proved beneficial only for the rich peasants and the money tenders. It paved the way for usury and the poorer peasants depended heavily on the local moneylender for advance of credit, marketing of crops, loans during the lean seasons and paying land revenue. The money lender who was usually the village merchant also acted as the agent for buying the produce of the peasant and for introducing and selling western manufactured goods like Manchester cloth. Poorer peasants virtually hypothecated their produce in advance to the moneylender. A large number of them remained in deist throughout their lives and money of them lost their lands and local forced to become landless labourers.

Commercialization of agriculture meant that some land which was used earlier for growing food grains how being used to grow cash crops. This required that food grain production in remaining areas should have increased to meet the demands of the country. However, the attention was paid to this aspect. The production of food grains either declined or did not grow to keep pace with the growth of population. During the period 1891-1947 population increase was 67 % per annum while food grain production was 11 % per annum. Primary season for this was that the government did not make any effort to improve agriculture. This task was left to the peasantry, who being in an improvised state was not able to do much. The normal rate of population was already at subsistence level and whenever an area was affected with droughts and crop failure, it resulted in famine. There were about thirty four famines during the period 1898 to 1908 in which total loss of life was about 1.5 crorecs.

It the condition of agriculture in the colonial rule was bud the condition of industry was worse. The country suffered what has been teamed as deindustrialization. When the British came to India, India was manufacturing all the goods it needed and British had almost nothing which it could export to India. On the other hand Indian goods were valuable items of commonly having a reasonable market in England. Hence India had a favourable balance of trade. At that time the East India Company was facing competition from other trading companies of Europe particularly the French and the Dutch as well as the Indian merchants. This placed the craftmen in a better bargaining position. However, the company soon eliminated this competition and acquired a monopoly in trading of these goods. Now the artisans and craftmen had no option but to sell their goods to the company and its servants at lower rates. Apart from hardships to the artisans this also reduced the possibility of capital accumulation and improvement in technology. On the other hand capital accumulation took place in England where it was used to power the Industrial Revolution. Industrial Revolution ended the British market for Indian products as it was not possible for artisans to compete with economic large scale factory production. Soon this industrial product found their way to India and the Indian market for artisans was destroyed as well.

Impact of Colonialism on Indian Policy:

The British first came to India as a trading company like other Europeans. The company which later came to be known as the East India Company was incorporated in England on December 31, 1600 under a chanter of Queen Elizabeth. The Mughal Empire began to disintegrate after the death of the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb in 1707. The most important factor which aroused the sense of unity among the Indian people was the colonial rule by the British. It was one of the dankest periods of Indian history that the British conquered India. At that time India had no political unity. India was divided into many parts and also ruled by different rulers. Taking this opportunity British East India Company conquered the territory part by part. Within hundred years from battle of Plassey 1757 up to the revolt of 1857, the whole country was brought under direct control of East India Company.

East India Company's military operation in Bengal supplemented by cloves policy of tricks and bribery chlorinated in the victory at the battle of Plassey in 1757. The grant of Diwani ended in 1772 when with the arrival of new Governor of Bengal Warren Hastings, the company threw away the mask and took direct responsibility for the administrator of territories of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. Colonialism is a policy which aims at creating organising and maintaining an empire. Colonialism altogether in terms of the expansion of states poorer beyond borders. Lord Dalhouse came to India as Governor General in 1848. He implemented his policy of annexation through the "Doctrine of Lapse". Under this doctrine when the ruler of an Indian state which was protected by the British died without a natural successor. His/her state was to be annexed to the British dominions and was not to be passed on to an adopted successor unless the adoption had been appointed by the British authorities. Satara in 1848, Nagpur and Yhansi in 1854 were annexed under this doctrine. Avadh was annexed in 1856 under the Puteat that it being misgoverned by Nawab Wajid Ali Shah. With the annexation of Avadh, British supremacy own India was completed.

Anti Colonial Struggle and Different Visions About Independent India:

Many anti colonial struggles like Khilafat Movement Non-Cooperation Movement, Civil-Disobedience movement, Quit India movement etc were fought to get freedom from the colonial rule.

i.**Khilafat Movement:** In the first world war, the Sultan of Thrkey fought against British as a friend of the Garman Emperor. But Thrkey with Germany was defeated by the British. In 1920 Thrkey was compelled to sign the Treaty of Severes with the allies. The victorious British government prepared to punish the Sultan. A harsh policy was adopted toward Thrkey and the Thrkish Empire was completely dismembered. The Sultan of Thrkey was Muslim's spiritual head or the Khilafa. The Muslim in India resented their humiliating treatment of the allied powers toward the Thrkish's Sultan. So they began anti British agitation. The Indian Muslim started the Khilafat movement under the leadership of the famous Ali brother Mohammad Ali and Saukat Ali supporting the cause of Thrkish Sultan. Many other leaders also joined in it. It turned into a mass agitation and became famous as the Khilafat Movement. On the other hand this movement enlarge the growth of Hindu- Muslim unity. Mahatma Gandhi supported this Khilafat Movement. This later merged with the Non-Cooperation Movement.

ii. Non-Cooperation Movement: The enactment of the Rowlatt Act Garve the British government the power to suppress popular liberty to arrest and imprison any person without trial. The tragedy of Punjub famous as the Yalianwalabag massacre shocked the Indians. In December 1920, the Non-Cooperation Revolution was adopted by the Congress under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi in its Nagpur Session. The people renounced the titles and honours. The prominent lawyers like Motilal Nehru, Chitaranjan Das, Sardar Pateland Rajendra Prasad boycotted the law court. The students also boycotted the educational institutions and people boycotted British's goods. All the leaders of the congress except Mahatma Gandhi were arrested. In 1922 Mahatma Gandhi was forced to suspend the non-cooperation movement because of ChauriChora violence where the violent mob set fire to a police station. In which 22policemen were burnt alive. After withdrawal of the non-cooperation movement, Gandhiji was arrested.

iii. Civil Disobedience Movement: In 1929, the congress passed a resolution for complete independence in its Lahore session. Decision was taken by the congress to stent the civil disobedience movement under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi against the British government. So Mahatma Gandhi stented his famous Dandi March on 12 March, 1930 from his Sabarmati Ashram to violet the Sult laws. After 24 days Gandhiji reached the Sea along with his followers on 6th April, 1930 and violated the Salt laws of the government. The British government decided to hold a Round Table Conference at London to discuss about the future of India. But the congress boycotted the conference. In March,1931 an agreement was concluded between Lord Iruin the viceroy and Mahatma Gandhi decided to withdraw the civil disobedience movement and agreed to participate in the second Round Table Conference. Gandi took part in the second Round Table Conference held in London. Md. Ali Jinnah was the representative of the Muslim Leage in the conference. The Muslim Leage demanded for separate status to the Muslims. So there was no agreement in the second Round Table Conference and Gandhi returned to India in December, 1931.

iv. Quit India Movement: On 8th August, 1942, the All India Congress Committee met at Bombay and passed a resolution for immediate end of the British rule in India. The National Congress gave authority to Mahatma Gandhi to begin a Non-violence mass struggle. But with a few hours of the Quit India resolution. Mahatma Gandhi was arrested and put confined in the Aga Khan Palace in Poona. The government also arrested leader like Jawaharlal Nehru, Sardar Petal, Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad. But within a short period of time Quit India Movement was spread to all parts of the country. The people of India everywhere demanded the release of their leaders, Students, workers, peasants and villagers all took part in this movement. At many places, the government machineries collapsed due to Quit India Movement. The rail, telegraph and postal communication became paralysed. It was a battle of independence as million of men and women joined in this struggle. Socialist leaders like Jaya Prakash Narayan, Dr. Ram Mohan Lohia took a prominent part in this movement. The Quit India Resolution gave a death blow to the British rule in India. Through the movement subsided the British government lost its control over the country once for all.

Different Visions about Independent India:
1. **End of Imperialism:** The establishment of British rule in India led to the development of nationalism among the Indians which was nourished by the liberal democratic thinking in the developed world. The vision to free India from the imperialist rule of the British was first expressed by the Critiques Scholars like Dadabhai Naroji, M.G. Ranade and R.C. Dutt. End of imperialism was seen to be the basic per-conditions of India's progress and in the twentieth

century such Critiques led freedom struggle to put an end to the British imperialism in India.

2. **Equality and Social Justice:** Side by side with this broad anti-imperialist struggle grew the demand for equality, social justice. Jyotiba Phule enlarged the social reform agenda of the earlier nineteenth century. Thinkers and activists like Rammohan Roy, Iswar Chandra Vidya Sagar and Dayananda Saraswati took active participation in the movement for equality and social justice in the society.

3. **Opposition against Caste System:** Dr. D.R. Ambedkar shared the belief in socialism and land reforms. But he was more concerned with the welfare and progress of the people oppressed by the caste system. Caste system was the root cause for many evils and inhuman treatment in the society. Raja ram Mohan Roy advocated that a democratic society with the values of liberty, equality and fraternity was possible only when the caste system was eliminated.

4. **Nationalist Movement:** The Indian National Congress was born through a moderate effort to unity all sections of Indians through, initially it was elitist. In the twentieth century its anti imperialist content was gradually unfolded, simultaneously it tried to stress not only on communal unity but also the heed for social and economic justice in the Indian nation. Emergence of nationalism was a product of the accumulated grievances of British imperialism. The resolution of Fundamental Rights that was passed at the Karadri Session of Indian National Congress in 1931 was first comprehensive through not complete statement of the social and economic goals of the freedom movement.

5. **Influence the Idea of Socialism:** Since the Bolshevik Revolution 1917, the idea of socialism was catching the imagination of the Indians. Within the congress its strongest advocate was Jawaharlal Nehru who however did not approve of the authoritarian trend of the soviet policy. Gandhiji did not approve the socialist doctrine of class conflict but worked for social and economic justice.

6. **Removal of Poverty and Planning:** After the passage of Government of India act 1935 several provincial governments granted relief to the poor peasants. The congress president appointed a National Planning Committee. After World War II the congress adopted the programme of many reforms including the abolition of Zamindari system and land redistribution to the landless.

Institutional Structures of Indian Nation State Continuities and Breaks from Colonial System:

The Indian Administrative Structure is largely a legacy of the British rule. The British legacy in Indian administration can be studied under following heads.

1. **Indian Civil Services**: This was the most important legacy. The officers of Indian Civil Service can be posted in any state. Even after independence, there services were continued and at present there are three all Indian service i.e. IAS, IPS and IFS.

2. **Secretariat Services:** Secretariat is a high level administrative organisation which constitutes politicians or secretary and other personal. Secretariat is a very important part of the govt whose

function is to plan policies, law and control and most important advising the ministers in performing their function.

3.**Rigid bureaucracy:**   System of bureaucracy was started in British period to execute the laws, rules, land programmes of the administration. File system was also introduced.

4.**Federal System and National Unity:**   In a federal government, policies are divided between the Central Government and State Government by the constitution itself. The federal features of Indian constitution are dual policy, double government, division of power into central list, state list and concurrent list, bicameralism, rigid constitution. Besides, it is also unitary in nature as it has single citizenship, Governor is appointed and the removal is by the president and more powers to the centre represent the strong federal system.

5. **Administrative among unity and secrecy:**   The norm of among unity means that the civil servants must work from behind the curtail without praise or blame. This trend came into existence during British period. Along with this, the principle of secrecy of procedure also operates. It means the ministers cannot divulge information about their proceedings.

6. **Committee system**:   The committee system was started by Britishers to do different work of government and administration such as amendments, investigate and advising. Different types of permanent and adhoc –committee are formed in all govt organisations.

7. **District Administration:**   Wasren Hasting in 1772, first time created the post of collector. After independence, the collector became key figure from political geographical and district public administration point of view.

8. **Revenue Administration:** First of all, Board of Revenue was set up in 1786 in Bengal. After independence, it has been established in most of the states as an independent body.

9. **Police Administration:**   In 1808 post superintendent of police was introduced. Present police system is working under Act 1861 which is concerned with law administration.

10. **Finance Administration:**   Yearly income and expenditure account is called Budget. Our budget formulation, implementation and execution and auditing is based on British traditions.

11. **Local Administration:**   Lord Ripon is known as father of local self Government in India. In 1882 he made arrangements for electing representations in village local bodies. This proposal of Rippon   was also known as "Magnacarta of Local self Government." Local self Government has been given constitutional Amendment (rural government) and 74th Constitutional Amendment (urban govt) Act. These constitute an important part in democratic decentralization.

UNIT-2
Constitution of India and Education

Constitutional Vision of Independent India:

It would stress the obvious to state that India won independence through a very long and torturous process of struggle for freedom. Three quarters of a century of through and struggle over defining the Indian nation over freeing the country from alien occupation, and over the desirable shape of the social and economic order in a future independent. India had provided the founding fathers of the Indian constitution asset of ideas and goals that helped to structure responses to the problem of governing the newly independent country.

It is needless to add since India was enslaved due to lack of unity at the top of the goals of our nationalist leaders who drafted the constitution was an abiding faith in and determination to preserve the national sovereignty, unity and integrity of the country against all potential internal and external threats to it. The very fact that this first priority had to be sacrificed at independence itself, with partition of the country, reinforced the determination of the leaders never to make such a sacrifice again. The nationalist leaders at independence were therefore determined to declare for the entire world to hear and any internal dissidents who had a different view that India was to be a sovereign independent republic.

The following fathers of our constitution also believed whole heartedly in parliamentary democracy. They wished the British out, but were prepared to adopt their institutions. They studies several leading constitutions of the world including the British and American constitution and adopted the British parliamentary conventions with the American system of judicial independence. The nationalist leaders also felt strongly that political and economic independence were interrelated that Indian could not retain control our political destiny if it remained economically dependent on rich countries. Secularism was another widely shared and deeply felt value of the nationalist elite as they wished to build a nascent national consciousness, rejuvenate its ancient cultural tradition of respecting of diversity and building a new political identity.

The journaling fathers of the constitution therefore attempted to realise their vision of free India on the basis of those governing principles such as democracy, secularism, equalitarianism, rule of law, several urban harmony, composite culture, planned economic development patriotism, interdependent, internationalism and independent foreign policy which capable to coalesce the traditional society into a cohesive and vibrant modern policy. These ideas got articulated in the objective resolution adopted by the constituent Assembly on 22nd January, 1947.

The Resolution promised among others to guarantee and secure to all the people of India justice, social, economic and political equality of status, opportunity and before the law, freedom of thought, expression, belief, worship. These objectives were orchestrated in the preamble, Fundamental Rights and the Directive Principles of state policy.

India became a sovereign democratic, socialistic, secular republic on 26th January 1950and these were the constitutional vision of Independent India. The constitution mirrors the hopes and aspiration of the people of India.

Preamble of the Constitution:

The Preamble of the constitution of India, as amended under the 42nd constitution amendment Act reads as follow:

We the people of India, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic, republic and to secure to all it citizens.

1. Justice, Social, economic and political.
2. Liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship.
3. Equality of status and of opportunity and to promote among them all.
4. Fraternity assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the nation.

In our Constituent Assembly this 26th day November, 1949 do hereby adopt, enact and given to ourselves this constitution.

The preamble of the constitution of India pointout that the sources of authority of the constitution and that of the state are the people of India. Thus, the basic principle of democracy that sovereignty rests with the people is enshrined in the constitution of India.

Written Constitution: India has a written constitution. It contains not only broad principle but also exhaustive administrative details.

Division of Power: The constitution has clearly defined the division of power between the centre and the state. Three detailed lists of subjects as originally provided in the constitution are:

A. The union list (Central subjects) has 97 entries which include defence, foreign affairs, transport and communication, banking, currency and coinage, central excise and custom, export duties and administration of justice at the higher levels.
B. The state list has 66 entries and includes education, public health, local excise, agriculture, forest, police and so on.
C. The concurrent list has 47 entries which is the third group of subject on which both state legislation, the union laws will ordinarily prevail. Among the subjects concerned by the concurrent list are trade and industry, economic and social planning, social control, electricity, newspaper and books etc so on. The residuary power rest with the union. It at anytime a subject which is not counted by any of the three lists comes up for consideration the power of dealing with it lies with the union government.

Citizenship: The Indian constitution has adopted the system of single citizenship for the entire country. Every person become a citizen of India who was at the commencement of the constitution (January, 26th, 1950) domiciled in India and

a. Was born in India or
b. Either of whose parent was born in India or
c. Who had been ordinarily resident in the territory of India foe not less than five years immediately proceeding than date special provision was made for migrants from Pakistan and person of India origin residing abroad. The citizenship Act of 1955 lays down other

d. methods of acquisition of citizenship by birth, decent, registration, normalisation and incorporation of territory. The Act also provision for loss of citizenship by renunciation, termination and deprivation.

A.**Fundamental Rights:**   The constitution gives certain fundamental rights to all citizens, individually and collectively,

    i.   Everyone is equal in the eye of law.
    ii.   No discrimination on the basis of caste, creed, rate, religion, sex or place of birth.
    iii.   Equal treatment to all in the matters of appointment to public offices.
    iv.   Abolishing of untouchability.
    v.   Continued adult franchise.

B.**Right of Freedom:**

    i.   Freedom of speech and expression.
    ii.   Freedom of peaceful assembly without aims.
    iii.   Freedom of acquiring, holding or disposing of property.
    iv.   Freedom of farming unions or associations.
    v.   Freedom of movement throughout India.
    vi.   Freedom to residing in any part of India.

C.**Right against exploitation:**

    i.   Prohibition of all forms of forced labour and child labour.
    ii.   Prohibition of traffic in human beings.

D.**Right to freedom of Religion**:

    i.   Freedom of conscience.
    ii.   Right to profess, practice or propagate any religion.

E.**Cultural and education rights**:

    i.   Every section of the citizens has a right to conssue its own culture.
    ii.   All minorities have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of this choice.

F.**Right to constitutional remedies:**

    i.   Every citizen has the right to more the supreme court for the enforcement of these fundamental rights.
    ii.   The Supreme Court has been empowered to issue directions orders or writs for the enforcement of any or all the fundamental rights.

G.**Fundamental Duties**: Part IV A was added in 1976 by the 42nd constitutional Amendment which specifies the fundamental duties of citizens. Non compliance with or refusal to observe the duties shall be punishable by law.

 a. To uphold, abide and protect the constitution, the National Flag and National Anthem and the sovereignty unity and integrity of India.
 b. To defend the country and to render national service when called upon to do so.
 c. To promote has many and common brotherhood.
 d. To protect the cultural heritage and national environment safeguard public property and abjure violence.

Constitutional Provision of Education in India:

Right to education is one of the fundamental rights enshrined in the constitution. The noble principles mentioned in the constitution should mould our educational planning and practices. The constitution of India gives a few direction and suggestions for the development of education in the country. These are called constitutional provisions.

Various Constitutional Provisions Relating to Education:

Following provisions have a great bearing on the functioning of the educational system in India.

 ➤ **Article 28:** It provides freedom as to attendance at religions instruction or religious worship in educational institutions.

 ➤ **Article 29:** It provides equality of opportunity in educational institutions.

 ➤ **Article 30:** it accepts the right of the minorities to establish and administer educational institutions.

 ➤ **Article 45:** Free and compulsory education. Article 45 of the constitution states. "The state shall endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of this constitution for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years".
   The expression "state" which occurs in this Article is defined in Article 12 to include. The government and parliament of India and the government and the legislature of each states and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of the government of India.
   Thus we notice that the responsibility for universal elementary education lies with the central government, the state government, the local bodies and voluntary organisations.

 ➤ **Article 46:** It provides for special case to the promotions of educational and economic interest of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and the weaker sections.

- **Article 337:** It provides for special provision with respect to educational grants for the benefit of Anglo Indian Community.

- **Article 350 A:** It relates to facilities for instruction in mother tongue at Primary Stage.

- **Article 350 B:** It provides for a special officer for linguistic minorities.

- **Article 351:** it relates to the development and promotion of the Hindi Language.

Equalization of Educational Opportunities for Special Group:

A democratic society rests on major pillars of justice, liberty, equality and fraternity. The Indian constitution is committed to these noble principles. All citizens of the country must get equal opportunities for progress in life. To build up the democratic society the generation need equal educational opportunities because education is the main instrument for desirable social change. So the country has witnessed the multiplication of educational institutions of all categories in all regions during the post independence period. There has been expansion of general vocational and professional education under five year plan. It may be noted that quantitative expansion of education is not matched by qualitative improvement in many regions. As a result of this disparity in quality of education, these have been uneven social changes. Regional disparities are causing serious socio-economic problems followed by another dimension of the problem.

Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes:

For historical reasons, there have been large segments of population remaining socio-economically backward for ages. They are identified and listed in schedule for the Indian constitution in Article of 341 and 342. They are generally known as Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes. Articles of 15, 17, 19, 125 and 46 are related to special measures need for socio-economic, educational development of weaker section of people.

There should be some special measures to help and motivate students from the weaker communities, without upliftmen of the weaker section, socio-economic, political democracy in the country would not be meaningful. The percentage of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe population in India according to 2011 census was 16.2 and 8.2% respectively.

Measures of Scheduled Caste/ Scheduled Tribe Children:

i.   Educational backwardness among Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe has been due to social deprivation and economic poverty melted out to them during pre-independence period. This inequality must be re removed and special effort should be made to help them.

ii. To brighten the self concept of Schedule Caste and Schedule Tribe students. They should be given more lone, attention and care, kind guidance for their health and cleanliness, motivating remarks of encouragement of teacher would go a long way in improving their self image and confidence.

iii. Assignment given to them should be simple, life related and suited to their abilities. Positive verbal and non- verbal reinforcements event on a little success would motivate them for greater success.

iv. It is to note that most of the scheduled caste and scheduled tribe students are the first generation of learners. Diagnostic test should be used to identify their defects to provide suitable remedial teaching.

v. Students from backer section usually feel shy to participate in co-curricular activities. They should be encouraged and help to participate on such activities by all means. Their active role and maximum interaction with peer groups tend to develop leadership qualities.

vi. To improve the home atmosphere, teacher should visit their homes to sensitize parents to provide stimulating integrative home environment to their children.

vii. Parent should be encouraged to attend literacy centres and schools so that they can give better guidance to their children. These measures would definite help the scheduled cast and scheduled tribe students to came to equalized level of development.

Equality and justice in the Indian Constitution:

The term 'equality' means the absence of special privileges to any section of the society and provision of adequate opportunities for all individuals without any discrimination. The preamble secures all citizens of Indian equality of status on opportunity. This provision embraces three dimensions of equality, civic, political and economic. The following provisions of the chapter on fundamental right ensure civic equality.

a. Equality before the law (Article 14)
b. Prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex and place of birth(Article 15)
c. Equality of opportunity in matters of public employment (Article 16)
d. Abolition of untouchability (Article 17)
e. Abolition of titles (Article 18)

There are two provisions in the constitution that sack to article political equality.
One no person is to be declared ineligible for inclusion in electoral rolls on the grounds of religion, race, caste or sex (Article 325). Two elections to the Loksabha and the state Assemblies in to be on the basis of adult suffrage (article 326).

The term 'justice' in the preamble embraces three distinct forms social, economic and political which are secured through various provisions of Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles. Social justice denotes the equal treatment of all citizens without any social distinction based on caste, colour, race, religion, sex and so on. It means absence of privileges being extended to any particular section of the society, and improvement in the conditions of backward classes like scheduled caste, scheduled tribe other backward classes and women. Economic justice denotes on the non-discrimination between people on the basis of economic factors. It involves the elimination of glazing in equalities in wealth, income and property. A combination of social justice and economic justice denotes what is known as 'distributive justice'. Political justice implies that all citizens should have equal political rights, equal voice in the govt. The ideal of justice social, economic and political has been taken from the Russian revolution 1917.

Different Schools Systems:

According to the 2009 Right to Education Act, Schooling is free and compulsory for all children from the ages of 6 to 14 years. However, improvements are slow being implemented and disadvantage groups may still not have adequate access to education. A high value is placed on education as it ensues a stable future. All parents want their children to attend the best Private English Schools but places are limited. The admission process is therefore highly competitive. Most Indian schools have a strong focus on academic subjects with little scope for creativity and few or no extracurricular activities. Traditional Schooling methods tend to emphasise rote learning and memorisation rather than eneamaging independent our creative thinking. There is a strong focus on examinations from an early age. This makes the atmosphere at Indian Schools Competitive. Many parents prefer to send their children to international schools. Others choose a more progressive Indian school that is less traditional in its teaching style.

Public/ Government Schools:

Most schools in India are funded and sun by the government. However the public education system faces serious challenges including a lack of adequate infrastructure, insufficient funding, a shortage of staff and scarce facilities.

Private Schools:

Since many government schools don't provide adequate education, Indian Parents aspire to send their children to private schools. Some parent chooses to send their children to private Indian schools.

International Schools:

There are many international schools in all major cities in India in which children form well to do family are admitted. Indian International school aim at providing an education of excellence that meets each student is interests, abilities and needs within a curricular frame work that creates an environment for students to face global challenges.

National Open Schools:

Provide education up to the higher secondary level for a child whose schooling has been interrupted and have been unable to complete formal education.

Special needs Schools:

Provide non-formal education and vocational training to children with disabilities.

Neighbourhood School:

The concept of neighbourhood school is control to the common school system. The Kothari Commission Report recommended that each school within the common school system should be attended by all the children in the neighbourhood. This has to be specified and delineated by a prescribed authority. The Report said, each school should be attended by all children in the neighbourhood irrespective of caste, creed, community, and religion, economic or social status. So there would be no segregation schools. Arguing for neighbourhood school the commission advanced two agreements. First, a neighbourhood school could provide 'good' education to children because sharing life with common people would be an essential ingredient of good education. Second, the establishment of such schools would compel rich. Privileged and powerful classes to take an interest in the system of public education and thereby bring about its early improvement. The development in school education post Kothari demonstrate that the rich privilege and powerful classes did not take an interest in the system of public education as Kothari had hoped.

Common School System:

The Education Commission (1964-66) had recommended a common school system of public education as the basis of building up the National System of Education with a view to "bring the different social classes and groups together and thus promote the emergence of an egalitarian and integrated society." The commission pointed out that education was increasing social segregations and increasing disparities. It further noted that "this is had not only for the children of the poor but also for the children of the rich and privileged groups as the parents were preventing them from sharing the life and experiences of the children f the poor and cenuming into contact with the realities of life and rendering the education of their own children incomplete. "A common school system" (C.S.S) means a systems which provides education of an equitable quality to all children irrespective of caste, creed, commonunity, language, gender, economic condition, social status and physical mental ability." Further, the 1986 policy envisaged that the common school system would be open to all children irrespective of social, economic and other differences. The 1986 policy while advocating a National System of Education resolved that effective measures will be taken in the direction of the common school systems recommended in the 1986 policy." It also noted that the constitution embodies the principles (equality and social justice) on which the National System of education is conceived.

What is a common school system? The most important features of a common school system is equitable (not uniform) quality of education for all types of schools be the

Government aided local body or private schools. Six essential and non-negotiable attributes of equitable quality of education need to be specified:

i. Minimum physical infrastructure, including library, teaching aids, playgrounds and many other features e.g. early childhood care centres and pre-primary schools attached to primary/elementary schools.

ii. Professional quality of teachers and teacher student ratio,

iii. Diversified and flexible curriculum to reflect the geo-cultural plurality of the country while emphasizing certain core curricular features of nationwide significance.

iv. Pedagogy for holistic, child friendly and liberalise education.

v. Apart from gender sensitivity, pedagogic and social empathy for the Dalits, Tribals, Cultural and ethnic minorities and the physically or mentally challenged children and

vi. Decentralised and Community- Controlled school system.

By far the most significant benefit of the common school system is that it promotes equality and social justice and it helps in nation-building and the creation of social capital which is essential for sustaining democracy and ensuring economic progress and prosperity.

Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education R.T.E Act 2009:

R.T.E Act 2009 which guarantees free and compulsory education to all children from the age group of 6 to 14 years, this Act does not specifically cover children below the age of 6 years. The free education refuse to any free or charges on tuition, sport, school development and examination etc that cannot be charged from any student from classes I to VIII standard as these expenses may prevent a child from participating in the education process. It is obligatory to provide free elementary education to every child from 6 to 14 years and ensured not just admission but attending the school regularly and completing elementary education. It is mandatory that children in the age group of 6 to 14 years should be enrolled in a class, appropriate to their age and no child can be refused admission in the school. The responsibility of the school is to provide such children with special training or class in the school premises to enable them to streamline in the formal school. This process may take from 3 months to 2 years as R.T.E Act 2009 made mandatory for completion of elementary education. The Act entitled all children from 6 to 14 years to an education of reasonable quality based on principles of equity and non-discriminatory. It provides child's right to education that is free from fear, stress and anxiety. There are several provisions in this Act

e.g. provision prohibiting corporal punishment, detention policy and C.C.E. The Act also lay down the responsibility of the teachers. The teacher's accountability system would ensured that children are learning and they are learning in an environment that is completely free from stress and strain.

Right of Children:

❖ To free and compulsory admission, attendance and completion of Elementary education in a neighbourhood school is the right of every child in the age group of 06 -14 years.

❖ Free means removal by the state of any financial brattier that prevents a child from completing eight years of schooling and compulsory means it ensures the state that no child has left to get elementary education. It is also parental duty to send their children to school.

❖ Not enrolled/ dropout children be admitted to an age appropriate class after a period of special training.

❖ No child shall be failed or expelled from school up to class VIII.

Major Provisions of R.T.E. Act 2009:

1) The right of children to free and compulsory education till completion of elementary education in a neighbourhood school.

2) It clarifies that 'compulsory education' means obligation of the appropriate government to provide free elementary education and ensure compulsory admission, attendance and completion of elementary education to every child in the six to fourteen age group. 'Free' means that no child shall be liable to pay any kind of free or charges or expenses which may prevent him or her from perusing and completing elementary education.

3) It makes provision for a non-admitted child to be admitted to an age appropriate class.

4) It specifies the duties and responsibilities of appropriate governments, local authority and parents in providing free and compulsory education and sharing of financial and other responsibilities between the central and state government.

5) It lays down the norms and standards relating to inter alia, pupil teacher ratios (PTR) building and infrastructure, school working days, teacher working hours.

6) It provides for rational deployment of teachers by ensuring that the specified pupil teacher ratio is maintained for each school, rather than just as an average for the state or District or Block thus ensuring that there is practically no urban –rural imbalance in teachers. It also prohibits deployment of teachers for non-educational work other than decennial census, election to local authority, state legislatures, and parliament and disaster relief.

7) It provides for appointment of appropriately trained teachers i.e. teachers with the requisite training and academic qualifications.

8) For children in 6-14 age groups it prohibits (i) physical punishment and mental harassment (ii) screening procedures for admission (iii) capitation frees (iv) private tuition by teachers and (v) running of schools without recognition.

9) Provides for following penalties.
   a) For changing capitation free fine up to 10 times the capitation free charged.
   b) For resorting to screening during admission Rs.25000/- for first contravention Rs.50,000/- for each subsequent contravention and
   c) For running a school without recognition five up to Rs. one lakh and in case of continuing contravention Rs. 10,000/- for each day during which the contravention continues.

10) It provides for development of curriculum in consonance with the values enshrined in the constitution and which would ensured the all sound development of the child, building on the child's knowledge, potentiality and talent and making the child free from fear, trauma and anxiety through a system of child friendly and child centred learning.

11) It provides for protection and monitoring of the child's right to free and compulsory education and redressal of grievances by the National and state commissions for protection of child Rights, which shall have the powers of a civil court.

12) All private schools have to admit 25 percent children from disadvantaged groups from their neighbourhood for free education which can be extended if the number is not filled up with the customary one km radius every year in the class in which they induct new children.

In addition to the provisions above, the Act also guarantees the following quality norms:

- Pupil Teacher Ratio of 30:1 for primary class (I-V) and 35:1 for elementary class (VI-VIII) with minimum instructional hours of 41 day and minimum working days of 2001 annum.
- Building call-weather, barrier free access, boundary wall, one classroom for every teacher, separate room for Head teacher, separate toilet for boys and girls, safe drinking water, kitchen for mid-day meal and playground.
- Teaching learning materials.
- Library and
- Play and sport equipment.

UNIT-3

DEMOCRACY IN INDIA

Democratic System and institutional structures:

In a democratic country people themselves select and elect representatives as their leader. Democracy can be defined as the Government of the people, by the people and for the people. It is a political system when people are supreme and freedom of choice is its core. The term democracy originated from the Greek term "demokratia" which means "rule of the people." There are two types of democracies in the world. One is direct democracy in which the eligible citizens directly and actively participate in the political decision making. Second is indirect democracy in which the sovereign power remains with the eligible citizens and the elected representatives exercise the political power. This type of democracy is also known as democratic republic of the representative democracy.

India is the largest democracy in the world. It was declared secular and democratic when its constitution came into force on 26th January, 1950. The democratic India believes in the principles of Equality, Liberty, Justice and Fraternity. The people from all caste, creed, sex, religion and region have an equal right to vote and choose their representatives. The parliamentary form of Government in India is based on the pattern of the British. In India, there is a federal form of government which means there is a government at the centre and at the state. The government at the centre is responsible toward parliament and the state government are responsible toward their respective assemblies. The government at the centre and the states are democratically elected and follow the pattern of the two houses of the parliament- Lok Sabha and Raj Sabha. The government at the centre and the state together elect the president of the country who is also the head of the state. The picture of a 'democratic republic' which the preamble envisages is democratic not only from the political but also from the social stand point, in other words it envisages not only a democratic form of government but also a democratic society infused with the spirit of justice, liberty, equality and fraternity.

Representative Democracy:

As a form of government, the democracy which is envisaged is of course, a representative democracy and there are in our constitution no agencies of direct control by the people such as 'referendum' or 'initiative.' The people of India are to exercise their sovereignty through a parliament at the centre and a legislative in each state, which is to be elected on adult franchise and to which the real Executive namely the council of ministers shall be responsible. Through there shall be an elected president at the head of the union and a Governor nominated by the President as the head of each state, neither of them can exercise any political function without the advice of the council of ministers which is collectively responsible to the people's representatives in the respective legislatures (excepting functions which the Governor is authorised by the constitution itself to discharge in his discretion or an his individual responsibility). The constitution holds out equality to all the citizens in the matters of choice of their representatives who are to run the government machinery.

Government of the People, by the people and for the people:

The ideal of a democratic republic enshrined in the preamble of the constitution can be best explained with reference to the adoption of universal suffrage and the complete equality between the sexes not only before the law but also in the political sphere.

Political justice:

Political justice means the absence of any arbitrary distinction between man and ma in the political sphere. In order to ensure the political justice held out by the preamble, it was essential that every person in the territory of India, irrespective of his proprietary or educational qualifications should be allowed to participate in the political system like any other person. Universal adult suffrage was adopted with this subject in view. This means that every five years, the members of the legislatives of the union and of each state shall be elected by the vote of the entire adult population according to the principle 'one man, one vote.'

Election in India:

For the parliament of India, the elections are held after every five years and the Prime Minister is selected thereafter. As per the constitution of India all the states and union territories participate n the elections to elect the government. The elected members of the Lok Sabha, the lower house of the parliament together elect the Prime Minister. These members of the Lok Sabha are directly elected by universal adult suffrage except for the two members who are nominated by the president of India. There are many union territory of India. There are many national as well as regional political parties in the country which take part in the elections to form a government.

Party System and Electoral Politics:

India's party system originated in the late nineteenth century as a response to the British Colonial challenge. In the long drawn struggle against imperial domination, it represented an assertion of national solidarity of the Indian people for building eventually structure of democratic India. The Indian party system started with the formation of the congress as a political platform in 1885. From a triumphant national movement, the Indian National Congress became a dominant political party. Other parties and group emerged later. For example, the Muslim League in 1906, the all India Hindu Maha Sabha in 1916 and Communist Party in 1925, for over six decades 1875-1947, under the shadows of the British Raj, the growth and role of the Indian party system was conditioned by the communalization of politics which fragmented national unity, divided the people on caste and community lines disrupting the development of a secular party system in India. Therefore when India became independent, our party system was in disarray. After the adoption of a democratic constitution in 1950, a new and different party system emerged in the wake of the first general election based on the universal adult franchise in 1952.

In the Republic India the party system is a part of our larger political system. It is a product not only of its political environment but also of its history, culture, geography and

economy. Many aspects of the Indian political system have a bearing on the nature of our party system. These aspects include the character of the state, the declared national goals, the diversities of India's regional cultures and compulsions of social change and economic development.

The major party systems found in Rhodesia politics are as follow:

i. One party system.
ii. Two party system
iii. Dominant party system
iv. Multi party system.

1.One Party System: Strictly speaking the term of one party system is contradictory since the system implies interaction among a number of entities (independent or separate). The term is nevertheless helpful in distinguishing between political system in which a single party enjoys a monopoly of power through the exclusion of all other parties (by political or constitutional means) and characterised by a struggle amongst a number of parties. But monopolistic party effectively function as permanent government with no mechanism short of a coup or revolution through which they can be removed from power. They invariably develop an entrenched relationship with the state machine. This allows such states to be classified as one party state as for example communist party of China and Social party of Russia.

2. Two Party System: Two party system is duopolistic and it is dominated by two major parties that have a roughly equal prospect of winning government power. In its classical form, a two party system can be identified by three criteria which are as follow:

a. Although a number of minor parties may exist, but only two parties enjoy sufficient electoral and legislative strength to have a realistic prospect of winning government power.
b. The larger party is able to rule alone usually in the basis of a legislative majority, the other act as the opposition.
c. Power alternates between these parties and both are elected. The opposition also serve as a government in the wings. The U.K and the U.S.A are the example of countries with a two party system.

3. Dominant Party System: Dominant party system should not be confused with one party system, although they may at times exhibit similar characteristics. A dominant party system is competitive in the sense that a number of parties compete for power in regular and popular election. But it is dominated by a single major party that consequently enjoys prolong period in power. This apparently neat definition, however runs into problem notably in relation to determining how prolonged a governing period must be for a party to be considered dominant. Japan is usually cited as the classic example of a dominant party system. Until its full in 1993, the liberal democratic party had been in power continuously for 38 years. The congress party in India enjoyed an unbroken spell of 30 years in power commencing with the achievement of independence up to 1989 and also the African National Congress (A.N.C.) has been the dominant party in South Africa since the ending of apartheid in 1993.

4. Multi Party System: A multi party system is characterised by competition amongst more than two parties, reducing the chances of single party government and increasing the likelihood of coalitions. However, it is difficult to define multiparty systems in terms of the number of major parties, as such system sometimes operate through coalitions including smaller parties that are specifically designed to exclude larger parties from government. The strength of multi party system is that they create internal cheeks and balances within government and exhibit a bias in favour of debate, conciliation and compromise. The process of coalition formation and the dynamics coalition maintenance ensure a board responsiveness that cannot take account of competing views and contending interest.

Since the disintegration of the consensus based congress system in 1967, the Indian parties have kit the category of a multi party system. Since 1967 a multi party situation had emerged both in the centre and the state without becoming a formal multi party system due to the continuance of effective dominant congress party till 1989. The congress party itself is a coalition of diverse interest, faction, groups and individual.

Electoral politics:

The paradox of Indian democracy is that enlightened middle class has shown different attitude toward electoral process. In the era of globalisation, people are so deeply involved to fulfil their unending quench for attaining material pleas are that they fail to realise their larger national responsibility. This raises the question that when the most educated and enlightened group will fail to fulfil their national obligation then how can we except our political system to improve to develop the country.

It has also increased the misuse of electoral process by political parties for their narrow end. Winning election has become the sole criteria for political parties. In order to win election, political parties compromise with values, ethics and morality this used to be associated with the political parties. It has further consolidated primordial values. In this process, they fail to realise that they have larger national responsibility as well. The kind of tactics applied by political parties from winning election has promoted casteism, communalism, regionalism, sectarianism and above all use of money muscle power and criminalisation of politics. In Indian competitive party system, political party's gain power through competitive electoral battle. In order to win election, political parties indulge in all sorts of manoeverality like arousing passion in the name f caste, region and religion etc. In fact political parties have compromised with ideology in order to gain power.

All the political parties including national political parties as well as regional party wanted to come to power in order to form the government in the centre and the state. But the political parties can come to power only through election which is conducted in every five years. So, any political parties whether it is national or regional parties don't want to miss the opportunity to win the election. The political parties are compel to play such politics for which they criticise each other using the electronic media and press media so that they can tarnish other parties in order to get high political image from the people. This is nothing but electoral politics. The parties adopt the following techniques during the election campaign to win the election by any means.

i. All the political parties even the independent candidates issue election manifesto which they promise to do if they come to power. So voters can understand the view and policies of different political parties on different issues.
ii. The party also arrange a public meeting and conduct political rally and procession through which they try to persuade the voters.
iii. Posters and big leaflets are also used as a technique of election campaign.
iv. Television and Radio are also used for election campaigning to broadcast the speeches of their leaders.

The Centre:

India is a Union of States: Conventionally states are divided into federal and unitary states. Indian polity cannot be described as a full- fledged federation. But many federal features like the separation of powers between the centre and the state, judicial review etc are found in India. India is not a unitary state but during national emergency, it may function as a unitary state. Indian constitution describes India as a union of states. Some have described Indian polity as cooperative federalism.

Parliament of India: The parliament is the union legislature of India. It occupies important position in our constitution as well as political system. According to Article 79 of the constitution, "there shell be a parliament for the union which shall consist of the President, and two houses to be known respectively as the council of the states and the house of the people. Thus the parliament of India is bicameral in nature.

The Council of States Rajya Sabha: The council of states (Rajya Sabha) is the upper house of the parliament. This is otherwise called as the "House of Elders." It represents the interest of the states/ units of the Indian federation.

Composition: The Rajya Sabha is one indirectly elected chamber. The members of this house are elected by the State Legislative Assemblies of different states and union territories on the basis of proportional representation by means of single transferable vote. The constitution has fixed the maximum number of membership of Rajya Sabha at 250. Out of this, 238 members are indirectly elected by the Legislative Assemblies of different states and union territories. The rest 12 members are nominated by the President of India from amongst the persons who have achieved distinction in the fields of literature, art, science, social service etc. Mostly, the elderly statesmen and senior politicians are elected to Rajya Sabha.

Qualification of the Members: A person in order to become a candidate for the election to Rajya Sabha, shall have the following qualifications:
a. He must be a citizen of India.
b. He must have completed the age of 30 years.
c. He must not hold any office of profit either under the state or the union government.
d. He must have certain other qualification as may be prescribed by the parliament from time to time.

Tenure: The Rajya Sabha is a permanent chamber like the Senate of U.S.A. But the members of Rajya Sabha enjoy a term of six years. This house has been composed in a scientific so that 1/3 of its members retire at the end of every second year.

House of the People (Lok Sabha):   The house of the people (Lok Sabha) is the lower house of the Indian parliament. It represents the people of India. As such it is often described as the 'popular Chamber.'

Composition: The Lok Sabha is a directly elected house of parliament. The citizens of India elect their representatives from different parliamentary constituencies to the Lok Sabha on the basis of universal adult franchises. The maximum membership of the Lok Sabha is fixed at 547. The people of the different states and union territories of India elect 545 members to the Lok Sabha. The rest 2 members are nominated by the president from among the Anglo Indian community, if he is satisfied that the same community is not adequately represented in the house.

Qualifications for memberships: A candidate should have the following qualification in order to be eligible for election to the Lok Sabha.
   a. He must be a citizen of India.
   b. He must have completed the age of 25 years.
   c. He must not hold any office of profit under the union or state government.
   d. He must have certain other qualifications as may be prescribed by the parliament from time to time.

Tenure: The Lok Sabha enjoys a normal term of 5 years. After the expiry of years, a new Lok Sabha is constituted on the basis of the general elections. However, before the completion of 5years, the Lok Sabha can be dissolved by the president if the government loses the majority support in the house and there is no scope for the formation of any alternative government. The president may also dissolve the house on the basis of the advice of the Prime Minister. The untimely dissolution of the Lok Sabha causes a midterm poll.

The President of India: As per Article 52 of the constitution, there shall be a president of India. Article 53 vests all the executive power of the union in the president which shall be exercised by him either directly or through the officers subordinate to him.

Election of the President: The president of India is elected by indirect election on the basis of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. The constitution provides for an electoral college to elect the president. As per article 54, the Electoral College consists of (a) elected members of both houses of parliament (b) elected members of the legislative assemblies of the state (c) the elected members of legislative assemblies of union territories.

Qualifications of the President: According to the article 58 of the constitution, a person must have the following qualifications in order to be eligible as a candidate for the presidential election:
   i.   He must be a citizen of India.
   ii.   He must have completed the age of 35 years.
   iii.   He must have necessary qualification to be a member of the Lok Sabha.

iv.   He must not hold any office of profit under the government of India or the government of any state or under any local or other authority subject to the control of any other said government. However the office of the president, vice president, governors, ministers of the centre and the states and the members of the union and state legislatures are excluded from the scope of the office of the profit. In case he holds the above offices, he must vacate the same before assuming the office of the president of India.

Term of Office: The president holds office for a term of five years from the date an which he enters on his office. Before the expiry of his term the office of the president remains vacant due to resignation, death or impeachment. The president may resign from his office and submit his resignation addressing to the vice president. The vice president is required to communicate such resignation to the speaker of the Lok Sabha (House of the people) immediately. The vice president of India assumes the office of the president of India in case of his removal, death or resignation till the new president is elected.

Impeachment Process: The president can be removed from the office by the process of impeachment on the grounds of the violation of the constitution. Either house of the parliament may stent the impeachment process at the initiative of one fourth of its total membership who mast give a fourteen days notice. It two third majority of total membership of that house approves the change against the president then it is preferred to the other house which shall either investigate the change itself or cause the change to be investigated. If two third majority of the other house approve the resolution the president stands impeached under article 61 of the constitution. So far, no president has been impeached in India.

Oath by the President: Every president or every person acting as president takes an oath to preserve, protect and defend the constitution, before entering to his office. The chief justice of India administers the oath or affirmation to the president of India in the prescribed form. The oath taking is ne important process in which the president swears (i) to faithfully discharge the functions (ii) to preserve, protect and defend the constitution and (iii) to devote himself to the service and welfare of the people of India.

Power of the President: The constitution provides wide range of powers to the president of India which may be broadly classified into the following heads.

i. Executive Powers: The president is the head of the state and supreme executive of the Indian union. All the executive powers are vested in him by the constitution and he may exercise these powers either directly or through the officers subordinate to him. The administration of the union government is conducted in the name of the president.

As the head of the executive, the president enjoys vast powers of appointment. He appoints the Prime Minister and the other ministers according to the advice of the prime minister. He also makes important appointments to the office of the Governors, Judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts. The attorney general, the comptroller and the Auditor general, the Chairman and the members of the Union Public Service Commission, the Election Commission, the Finance Commission etc.

ii. Legislative Powers: The President of India is the pent and parcel of the Indian parliament. He summons and prorogues the house of the parliament and may dissolve the house of the people. He may summon the joint sitting of both the houses of the parliament. He addresses each house jointly or separately in the first session of the year. He nominates two (2) members to the Lok Sabha from the Anglo Indian community if it is not adequately represented in the house. Further he has the power to nominate 12 members to Rajya Sabha from among the persons who have distinguished themselves in the fields of literature, science, art, social service etc.

Significantly, the president is an integral part of the legislative process. No bill passed by the parliament can become act or law without his assent. The prior sanction of the president is required for the introduction in the parliament certain bills like, money bill, a bill to redistribute territory of states or change their names, boundaries or areas etc. Even certain categories of bills passed by the state legislatures are reserved by the governors for presidential assent.

In respect of a parliament bill, the president has got limited choice. He can send back to the parliament such a bill for reconsiderations. But if the parliament repasses the same bill, with or without modifications, then the president is bound to give his assent. However, in respect of state bills reserved for his assent, the president has the absolute power of veto to reject the same.

During the recess of the parliament, the president of India has the power to promulgate ordinances as an emergency legislation to deal with the needs of the hour. After the reassembling of the parliament within 6 weeks, otherwise they will cease to operate. An ordinance can also be withdrawn by the president.

iii. Financial Power: The president of India causes the annual budget to be laid before both the houses of the parliament. All the money bills are introduced in the parliament with his prior sanctions. The president has the power to appoint Finance Commissioner from time to time. The contingency fund of India has been placed at his disposal to meet the unforeseen expenditures.

iv. Judicial Power: The president of India has the power to grant pardon, reprieve remission and commute sentences of criminals punished by the courts including the Court Martial. The above presidential power relates to the punishment in the form of a sentence of death or the punishment against any law concerning a matter to which the executive power of the centre extends. Further, in the judicial field, the president appoints the judges of the High Courts and Supreme Court. He can also seek the advisory opinion of the Supreme Court on any question of law or fact of public importance.

v. Military Power: The president of India is the Commander-in- Chief of the defence forces. He appoints the chief the Army, Navy and Air force. The title of the Field Marshal is conferred by him. He heads the National Defence Committee significantly, the was is declared and the peace is concluded in the name of the president.

vi. Emergency Power: The constitution confers unique power upon the president to deal with emergencies. It has envisaged three types of emergencies viz (a) National Emergency (b) President's Rule in the state (c) Financial Emergency.

a. National Emergency (Article-352): Article 352 provides that if the president of India is

satisfied that the security of the country is threatened by external aggression or internal disturbances and even in anticipation of such threats, he may proclaim an emergency. This type of emergency is known as 'National Emergency.'

b. President's Rule (Article-356):   The President's Rule is declared on a state under article-356 of the constitution due to the breakdown of constitutional machinery of the state. If the president is satisfied, on the receipt of a report from the governor or otherwise, that a situation has arisen in which the government of the state cannot be carried on in accordance with the provisions of the constitution, he may proclaimed president's rule on that state.

c.Financial Emergency (Article-360):   As per article -360 of the constitution, if the president is satisfied that a situation has arisen whereby the financial stability in India or any part thereof is threatened then he may proclaim Financial Emergency.

Council of Ministers:

India has accepted parliamentary form of government in which the real executive powers of exercised by the council of ministers headed by the Prime Minister. According to article 74 of the constitution, there shall be a council of ministers with the Prime minister at the head to aid and advise the president who shall in the exercise of his functions act in accordance with such advice.

Formation of the Council of Ministers:

Article 75(1) provides that the Prime Minister shall be appointed by the president and the other ministers shall be appointed by the president on the advice of the prime minister. However, the constitution is silent regarding the mode of selection and appointment of the prime minister. As per the healthy tradition of the parliamentary democracy, the president is bound to appoint the leader of the majority party in the house of the people as the prime minister. But when no party commands a clear majority in the house, the president may exercise his discretion in appointing the prime minister. After appointment of prime ministers, the president has to appoint the other ministers as selected by the prime minister. The members of both the house of the parliament can be appointed the ministers provided he must get a seat in the parliament within a period of six months from the date of his appointment.

The constitution does not prescribe any limit so far as the size of the council of minister is concerned. It is purely the discretion of the prime minister to determine the size of his ministry. However the size of the minister has been restricted to 15% of total strength of the parliament. In the selection of his colleagues the prime minister takes sufficient care to give representation to different castes, communities, region etc. in the council of ministers.

Tenure of the Council of Ministers:

The ministers hold office during the pleasure of the president. The president of India cannot dissolve the council of ministers so long as it enjoys majority support in the Lok Sabha, even if he is not pleased with the council. However the president can or drops one individual minister from the council on the recommendation of the prime minister. Besides, the individual ministers can resign from the council due to personal and political reasons. The ministers draw

monthly salary and other emoluments as determined by the parliament from time to time.

Responsibility of the Council of Ministers:

In a parliamentary democracy, the executive is responsible to the legislature for its acts of omission or commission. Article 75(3) provides that the council of ministers are collectively responsible to the house of the people. Besides, each minister is responsible individually to the house in the working of his department or ministry. As such the ministerial responsibility is both individual as well as collective. Hence it is said that the council of ministers swim and sink together.

Functions of the Council of Ministers:

The constitution has not provided in detail about the functions of the union council of ministers. The looking of the Indian cabinet has revealed a good number of functions. In fact the functions of the council of minister are largely exercised by the cabinet which consists of the senior and top ranking ministers of the council. The following are the important functions of the union council of ministers/ cabinet.

a. **Policy Formulation:** The council of ministers formulates the national and foreign policy of the country. It prepares the draft proposal bills regarding various policies from time to time, which is presented before the parliament by the concerned minister for approval. It is the cabinet which plays key role in determining the shape of the new policy.

b. **Administration:** Once the policy is approved by the parliament, the cabinet prepares administrative details for its implementation. The individual minister looks after the management of their respective department with the assistance of the civil servants. They are responsible to the parliament for the smooth functioning of the department entrusted to them. The members of the parliament ask questions regarding the administration of the country and the concerned minister is expected to furnish satisfactory information replies.

   The cabinet resolves all type of crisis in the government. It restore normalcy in the event of the breakdown of administrative machinery in any part of the country. Further, the cabinet makes appointment to the key administrative posts.

c. **Coordination:** The cabinet coordinates the working of various departments and settles all inter departmental disputes. It maintain link between the executive and the legislative. This is vital function which ensures smooth functioning of the government.

d. **Preparation of Budget:** The budget is the annual statement of income and expenditure of the government. The finance minister prepares the annual budget of the union government in consultations with the other ministers. The budget proposal is introduced in the parliament only after the cabinet finalizes the same.

   Thus, the council of ministers in general and the cabinet in particular occupies important position in the parliamentary system of India.

THE PRIME MINISTER OF INDIA:

In the parliamentary democratic system of India, the office of the prime minister has emerged as the nerve centre of government as well as political activities. The president of India act as the titular head of the state where as the prime minister function as the real ruler. But the constitution of India is silent regarding the process of the prime minister. Ti contains only three articles which provide little reference regarding the prime minister. Article 74(1) provides that there shall be a council of ministers with the prime minister at the head and advice the president in the exercise of his functions. Article 75(1) says that the prime minister shall be appointed by the president and the other minister shall be appointed by the president on the advice of the prime minister. Article 78 prescribes the duties of the prime minister vis-a-vis the president. It reads "it shall be the duty of the prime minister."

i. To communicate the president all decisions of the council of ministers relating to the administration of the affairs of the union and proposal for legislation.

ii. To furnish such information relating to the administration of the affairs of the union and proposals for legislation as the president may call for and

iii. If the president so requires, to submit for the consideration of the council of ministers any matter on which a decision has been taken by a minister but which has not considered by the council.

Appointment of the Prime Minister:

Article 75(1) is silent about the method and manner of the appointment of the prime minister. It simply provides that the prime minister shall be appointed by the president. It does not specify whether the prime minister is necessarily belongs to Lok Sabha or Rajya Sabha. Even the president can appoint a non member as the prime minister provided he must get a seat in the parliament within six months from the date of his appointment. As per the healthy conventions of the parliamentary democracy, the leather of the majority party or group in the Lok Sabha is appointed as the prime minister. Thus, the prime minister belongs to Lok Sabha became his government remains in office so long as it enjoys the confidence/ majority support in the same house.

Function of the Prime Minister:

The prime minister of India enjoys vast powers and performs manifold function. The followings are the major functions of the prime minister:

i. **Formation of the Ministry:** The prime minister has the prerogative to select his ministers. He presents the list of names for different categories of ministers. the president does not have any other alternative but appoint the ministers as recommended by the prime minister. Is rightly said that the prime minister "is central to its ministry's formation, central to its life and central to its death." The resignation of the prime minister implies the resignation of the whole ministry. The death of prime minister implies the death of the ministry itself. On the whole the prime

minister selects and changes the council of minister as per his convenience.

ii. **Distribution of Portfolios:** The prime minister has a free hand in distribution of portfolios among his colleagues. He assigns important portfolios to the important members of the ministry. There might be many aspirants for few important portfolios like Home, Defence, Finance, Railways. In this situation the prime minister has to apply his own skill and technique to satisfy all in the distribution of portfolios. Indeed, thus is the most difficult job for the prime minister.

iii. **Chairman of the Cabinet:** The prime minister convinces and presides over all the meetings of the cabinet. He fixed up the agenda of the cabinet meeting. The prime minister in consultation with his cabinet colleague finalizes the policies of the government. Further he advices, encourages and even was us the individual minister in discharge of their function from time to time. The ministers are individually responsible to the prime minister for the good governance of their respective departments.

iv. **Coordination:** The prime minister coordinates the policies of different departments. He settles the conflict between two departments. In case of conflict among various ministers, he acts as the mediator. He asks information from the ministers from time to time. The prime minister is always vigilance regarding the functioning of all the departments of government of India. This helps him to maintain effective interdepartmental coordination.

v. **Adviser to the President:** The important constitutional function of the prime minister is to advise the president of India in discharge of his functions. As per the 42nd constitution amendment act, the president is bound to accept the advice of the prime minister as the head of the council of ministers. the prime minister maintains link between the president and the cabinet and provides information to the president regarding the decision of the cabinet.

vi. **Leader of Nation:** The government of India is known in the name of the prime minister. He represents the union government at international level. He remains in close touch with the Indian ambassadors appointed in the foreign countries. As the leader of the Nation the prime minister hoists the National Flag and addresses the Nation from the rampant of the Red Fort on the occasion of the Independence Day celebration every year. He launches the welfare programmes of the government and announces the important policies of the government.

vii. **Leader of the Parliament:** The prime minister is the leader of the majority party in the Lok Sabha. He is the ex-officio member of the business advisory committee. As such he plays an important role in determining the agenda of the house. He makes all important policy announcements in the parliament. He protects his government in the parliament against all types of criticism in the opposition.

The Judiciary in India:

Though the judicial is an independent organ of the government, the judges in India are appointed by the executive but not on political considerations as in some countries. There is no election to judicial post in India. Generally, all judges of the higher and the lower judiciary are appointed on the basis of ability and after due consultation with the higher courts or public service commissions. They enjoy security of service like the parliament government servants. The service conditions of the higher judges are such as to ensure the independence of the judiciary. Judicial review of laws made by the legislatures is an important function of the superior courts in India. Judicial review is necessary to ensure that the constitutional provisions are not violated by ordinary laws and the union and the state government settle their disputes through the judiciary in a federal set up. Till recently, all the administrative tribunals and courts were subject to the jurisdiction of the High Courts and the Supreme Court. The 42nd constitution amendment act placed some administrative tribunal outsider the jurisdiction of the superior judiciary.

Legislatures in India:

The parliament of India is a bicameral legislature with a dissolvable Lok Sabha and a permanent Rajya Sabha. The state legislature in Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Audra Pradesh and Maharashtra states have bicameral and other states are having unicameral legislatures. The legislatures in India have not only legislative function but indirectly control the executive through the council of ministers. The Indian parliament has absolute power to amend the constitution in exercise of its constituent power and the state legislatures share the constituent power to some extent.

In parliamentary practise, term like question hour, zero hour, censure motion, adjournment motion, no confidence motion etc. are quite common. During the question hour, with which a day's session in the parliament starts, the members question regarding the decisions of administration and general information are answered. During the zero hour that follows the question hour, questions relating to the matters relating to the matter rise during the question hour or any other matter may be put provided the speaker admits them.

A censure motion seeks to censure the government for any lapse on its part and if such a motion is carried out the cabinet should normally resign. A no confidence motion is moved after due notice to the house. Generally, the government do not yield to adjournment motions brought before the hour by opposition member. An adjournment motion seeks to adjourn sitting of the house on any important issue.

The Executive in India:

The executive may be defined as the body of persons in a state engaged in administering the affairs of the state. A distinction is made between political executive and the permanent executive. Political executive in India consists of the president, governor, ministers, parliamentary secretaries and the like who generally hold office for short periods and are usually elected directly or indirectly or are politically appointed.

The permanent executive also known as bureaucracy or administration consists of people who carries out the policies and schemes of the government and generally have security of service. In India, the president is the constitutional head but is indirectly elected and commands the respect of the political parties in general. He generally performs ceremonial functions but can offer his advice to the government. The governors perform more or less similar function in the state governments.

The real executive or the government of India is the council of ministers headed by prime minister. In a state of India, the chief minister and his cabinet form the real executive. The real executive in India is responsible to the legislature and the responsibility to the legislature is collective. This means that this central cabinet has to enjoy the support of the Lok Sabha and the state cabinets have to command the majority support in state assemblies. Besides, all the decisions made by the individual ministers or the cabinet are supported to have the support of the whole cabinet, particularly after a decision is made by the cabinet, the individual minister have to support it in public through some of them may not agree with the decisions privately. Any minister openly disagreeing with the majority decision has no option but to resign. It he refuses to resign, the prime minister or the chief minister may get him dismissed by the president or the governor as the case may be. All these are implied in the concept of collective responsibility of the cabinet.

Decentralization and Panchayati Raj:

73ᴿᴰ CONSTITUTION AMENDMENT ACT 1992:

During 1980's the government of India appointed a number of committees and adopted a number of measures to strengthen and empower Panchayat Raj institutions. The then Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi gave one unique slogan "Power to the People" and undertook various steps to provide more power and responsibility to the Panchayat bodies and ultimately to the village people. Finally, Narasihma Rao government got the 73ʳᵈ Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 passed by the parliament. The 73ʳᵈ Amendment became a landmark step to revitalize the Indian Panchayati Raj institutions and to make them full-fledged constitutional bodies. It drastically amended the provision of article 243 of the constitution and inserted a new part (part-IX) and new schedule (schedule XI) into the constitution. The important features of the 73ʳᵈ amendment act stand as follows:

i.   **Gram Sabha:** The Gram Sabha shall consist of the persons registered in the electoral rolls relating to a village within the area of Panchayat at the village level. It may exercise such power and functions at the village level as may prescribed by laws of state legislative.

ii.   **Constitution of Panchayat**: There shall be constituted in every state, Panchayats at the village, intermediate and district levels. However, the Panchayats at the intermediate level may be constituted in a state having a population not exceeding twenty lakhs.

iii. **Composition of Panchayats:** The legislative may, bylaw, make provision with respect to the composition of Panchayats. All seats in a Panchayat shall be filled by persons chosen by direct election from the different territorial constituencies in the Panchayat area. The legislative of a state may, by law, provide for the representation of the Chair Persons of the lower level Panchayats at the higher level Panchayats and also the representation of the concerned MPs and MLAs in such Panchayats other than the village level.

iv. **Chair Persons:** The Chair Person of a village level Panchayat Shall be elected in such manner as the legislature of state may, bylaw provide. The Chairpersons of the Panchayats at intermediate and district levels shall be elected from amongst the elected members thereof.

v. **Reservation of Seats:** The seats in the Panchayats shall be reserved of the Scheduled Caste, Schedule Tribes and the women. Not less than one third of the total number of reserved seats for schedule castes and schedule tribes shall be further reserved for the women belonging to these communities. Further, not less than one third of the number of seats to be filled by direct election in every Panchayats shall be reserved for women. The reserved seats for women may be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a Panchayat. Again not less than one third of the total number of officers of Chair Persons in the Panchayats at each level shall be reserved for women.

vi. **Duration of Panchayat:** Every Panchayat shall continue for five years from the date appointed for its first meeting. However, the Panchayats can be dissolved before the completion of their term. The election to constitute a Panchayat shall be completed before the expiry of six months from the date of its dissolution. A Panchayat constituted upon the dissolution of a Panchayat shall continue for the remainder of the period.

vii. **Disqualification of Membership:** A person shall be disqualified for being a member of a Panchayat if he does not have required qualifications for the purpose, as prescribed by the state legislative from time to time. No person shall be disqualified on the ground that he is less than 25 years of age, if he has attained the age of twenty one years.

viii. **Power and responsibilities of Panchayats:** The state legislatures may, by law, endow Panchayats with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as institutions of self government. This may help for the devolution of powers and responsibilities upon the Panchayats at the appropriate levels with respect to—
   a. The preparation of plans for economic development and social justice.
   b. The implementation of schemes for economic development and social justice in relation to the 29 subjects listed in the eleventh scheduled of the constitution.

ix. **Funds of the Panchayats:** The legislative of a state may, by law-

   a. authorise a Panchayat to levy, collect and appropriate certain taxes, duties, tolls and fees.
   b. assign to a Panchayat such taxes, duties, tolls and fees levied and collected by the state government for specified purposes and subject to certain conditions and limits.

c. provide such grant- in –aids from the consolidated fund of the state.

x. **Constitution of Finance Commission:** The Governor may constitute a Finance Commission at the expiry of every five years to review the financial position of the Panchayas and to recommend to the Governor with regular to-

    a. the principles regarding the distribution of the net proceeds of the taxes, duties etc between the state and the Panchayats, the determination of the taxes, duties, fees etc which may be assigned to or appropriated by the Panchayats, the grant-in-aids to the Panchayats from the consolidated fund of the state.
    b. the measures required to improve the financial position of the Panchayats.
    c. any other matter referred to the Finance Commission by the Governor in the interest of the sound finance of the Panchayats.

xi. **Election to the Panchayats:** The Governor shall appoint a state Election Commission under whose superintendence direction and control, the Panchayat elections shall be conducted.

However, the states like Mizoram, Nagaland, Meghalaya and Jammu and Kashmir are kept outside the purview of the 43rd amendment. Besides these other states have already redesigned their respective Panchayat laws on the basis of the above amendment. Now the Panchayats shall occupy the centre-stage, so far as the several developments in village India is concerned.

URBAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN INDIA: TYPES WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO 74TH AMANDMENT ACT:

The urban population in India has been considerable increasing due to rapid industrialization. It has been rightly said that "just as agriculture fosters villages, industry encourages growth of towns." As such urbanisation is an integral part of the process of industrialization. In live with this urbanisation is considered as an index of development.

Primarily, urbanisation refers to the growth of cities and towns with an increase in the population. In other words, the migration of population from the several areas to the towns and cities leads to urbanisation. However an urban area is based on the census report. In India the census report provides a framework for determining the urban area. Accordingly an area in order to be recognised as urban must have a population more than five thousand with the density of population not less than one thousand person per square mile. In addition to this 3/4th of the population should be engaged in non-agricultural activities. Further the census report (1991) defines an urban area on the basis of following criteria.

    i. The places with an urban local body like Municipality, Corporation, Cantonment-Board, Notified Town Area Committee etc.
    ii. All places which fulfil the requirement viz, a population not less than five thousand, not less than 75% of male working class population involved in non-agricultural activities and a density of population not less than four thousand person per-square mile.

The growth in urban population leads to multitude of problems in the urban locality which ultimately gives rise to the function of urban development. Comprehensively, the task of urban development refers to the provision for certain basis services and facilities like water supply, drainage and sewerage, urban several and housing, transportation, road constructions, electricity, public health and sanitation etc. All these functions are to be undertaken by one local autonomous as well as professional body/ agency. This local body is popularly known as urban local government.

In India the urban affairs are managed by the urban local bodies of various type the municipal corporations, the municipalities, the town committees, the notified area committees and cantonment boards, are duly constituted by the state government through the different legislation. By enacting statues, the state government defines the powers, functions and responsibilities of various types of the urban local governments.

Municipal Corporation:

Municipal Corporation is the highest form of urban local government. Comparatively, it enjoys more powers and autonomy in the administration of urban area. As per the Encyclopaedia of social sciences "Municipal corporations are purely political institutions created by the legislative power without the necessary consent of the people." In the language of W.B Munro, "A municipal corporation is a subordinate political body established by authorities of law."

In India, the Municipal Corporation owes its origin to the Madras Municipal Corporation which was established in 1687 during the British period. Since then, this institution has been undergoing various changes in terms of powers, functions and competence. However, unlike the western countries, the urban local governments have not "grown from below." Rather they have been transplanted from above. As such the urban local bodies, including the corporation are still considered as "as agencies extraneous to the body politic."

In fact, the corporation form of urban local government is specially introduced for the bigger cities/towns which suffer from complex civic problems. However, different states in India adopt different criteria and follow different principles for constituting corporations. The Rural-urban Relationship Committee (1966) recommended "a corporation form of government only for cities which have a population not less than 5 lakhs and annual income of not less than one crore of rupee." Broadly, Prof. S.R Maheswari indentifies the following criteria for setting up a municipal corporation:

i.   Existence of thickly populated area.

ii.   Existing development of the municipality and scope for future development.

iii. Financial position of the municipality present and prospective.

iv.   Ability and willingness of the people to bear the burden of increased taxation.

v.   Public opinion in favour of a corporation.

Features: Though the municipal corporations in India process considerable variations in terms of population financial resources, system of taxation and internal committee system, they exhibit certain common features:

i.   **Statutory Character**: A corporation is set up by a statute passed the state legislature. The statute prescribed powers, functions and structure of the municipal corporation. In other words, the state legislature possesses supreme authority to create such local bodies.

ii.   **Non-Sovereign Status:** As a local body, the municipal corporation enjoys non-sovereign status. The state government retains ultimate power to exercise control and supervision over the corporation. In fact the state government has the power to dissolve the council of the corporation and supersede its administration.

iii. **Body Corporate:** The municipal corporation enjoys corpora status. The body corporate status makes the corporation a legal person with rights and duties of a private individual defined through legislation and allowed through different judicial interpretations. The corporations can sue for the debts to implement the penalties, to get compensations for the loss/damage. Further, they can be sued for failure to meet their as an employer, land owner, debtor or purchaser.

iv.   **Body Politic:** As a body politic, the municipal corporations enjoy the status of a public agency as well as one autonomous body having the right of local self-governance. In fact, the corporations are more legal entity of juristic person in law.

v.   **Industrial Committee System:** As a body politic, the municipal corporations provide wide range of services and work through the various internal committees. In fact these committees are indispensable to the municipal corporation, precisely, a municipal corporation consists of various standing committees and functional committees. All the committees are often described as the blood cells of the municipal corporations.

vi.   **Separation of Powers:** Generally, a municipal corporation is based on the principle of separation of powers and functions so far as both the executive and deliberative wings are concerned. The system of separation of powers makes the functions of the corporation smooth and effective.

vii. **Complete Entity:** A corporation refers to a complete entity as it embraces both deliberative and executive wings. Moreover, the corporation is headed by the Mayor which is a ceremonial office.

viii. **Functions of Municipal Corporation:** The municipal acts of various states contain a good numbers of municipal functions. A notable feature of the statutes governing the municipal corporation is to assign corporations with all conceivable municipal responsibilities and functions. Broadly the functions of the municipal corporations in different states in India can be classified into two categories obligatory and discretionary. The obligatory functions are the compulsory functions prescribed for the municipal corporations which the discretionary functions are purely optional for the corporations depending upon their financial resources. Prof. S.R. Maheswari offers the following comprehensive list of obligatory and discretionary functions which are performed by the municipal corporation in India.

Obligatory Functions:

i.   Supply of wholesome water and construction and maintenance of water works.

ii. Supply of electricity.
iii. Road transport services.
iv. Construction, maintenance, naming and numbering of public streets.
v. Lighting, watering and cleansing of public streets and other public place.
vi. Scavenging removal and disposal of filth and rubbish.
vii. Construction, maintenance and cleansing of drains and drainage works and public latrines, urinals etc.
viii. Securing or removal of dangerous buildings and places.
ix. Removal of obstructions and projections in or upon streets and other public places.
x. Establishment and maintenance of hospitals, maternity and child welfare centres.
xi. Measures for prevention and cheeking of dangerous diseases.
xii. Vaccination and inoculation.
xiii. Registration of Births and Deaths.
xiv. Regulation of places for disposal of the dead body and provision of places for this purpose.
xv. Provision of primary education.
xvi. Maintenance of fire brigade.
xvii. Publication of annual reports and returns on administration of the corporation and
xviii. Control and regulation of eating places and eatables.

Discretionary Functions:

i. Construction of public parks, gardens, libraries, museums theatres etc.
ii. Public housing.
iii. Planting and case of trees on roadsides and elsewhere.
iv. Relief of destitute and disable persons.
v. Destruction or detention of ownerless dogs or stray pigs or detention of animals causing nuisance.
vi. Playing of music for people.
vii. Civic reception of VIP.
viii. Registration of marriages.
ix. Survey of building and land.
x. Organisation and management of fairs and exhibitions.

Sources of Income:

Municipal Corporations raise their income from the following sources:-

i. **Tax Sources:** The major portion of income of corporations comes from taxes. In fact, the tax revenue ranges between two-fifths and three-fourths of total income of a corporation, generally, the municipal corporations are empowered to levy various taxes like property tax, tax on vehicles and animals, theatres tax, tax on advertisements (other and news papers), profession tax, education tax, entertainment tax, tax on consumption and sale of electricity, drainage tax, conservancy tax, octopi, betterment tax on increase in urban land values etc.
ii. **Non-Tax Sources:** Non-tax sources of income include the different fees and fines collected by corporations from time to time.

iii. **Remunerative Ventures:** Often municipal corporations undertake income earning ventures to increase their financial resources. These ventures/ enterprises include running of poultries, cinema, theatres, commercial complexes/units and plying of city buses etc.

iv. **Extraordinary Sources:** Sometime municipal corporations resort to certain extraordinary sources to get rid of financial crisis, to mobilise local resources and to undertake innovative ventures. Extraordinary sources mainly include loans, public borrowings, deposits, grants for capital works, auction of municipal property etc.

v. **Grant-in-aids** A municipal corporation has the both the executive and deliberative wings. In India, structural pattern of municipal corporations has been designed within the frame work of urban management structure worked out in the Bombay Municipal Corporation Act 1888. The following figure reflect the composition/ structural pattern of a corporation:

Composition/Structural Pattern of Municipal Corporation

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                        Municipal Corporation
                               │
           ┌───────────────────┴───────────────────┐
           ↓                                        ↓
    Deliberative wings                       Executive wings
   ┌───────┼───────┐                              │
   ↓       ↓       ↓                              ↓
Corporation  Mayor  Committees          Municipal Commissioner
Council
```
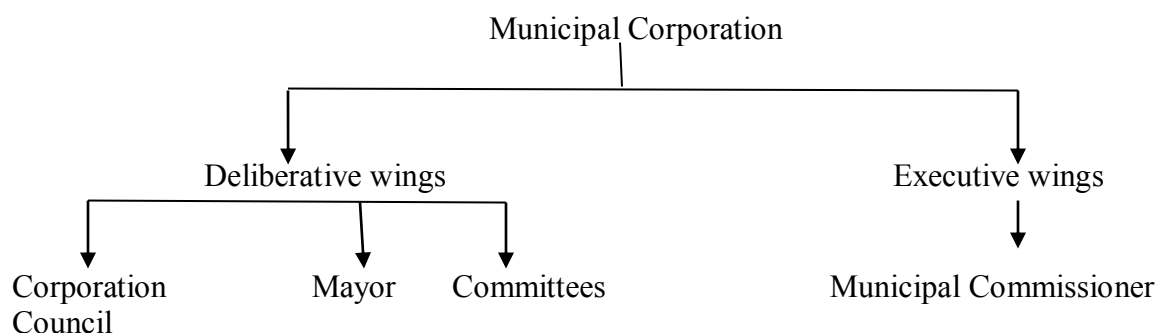
Corporation Council:

The council is the most important forum in the deliberative wing of the corporation. It functions just like local legislative assembly articulating the popular local interests. To be more specific, the council work as the ensue centre of urban government and politics.

The Corporation Council consists of members who are called councillors. The councillors are directly elected by the local people, from different municipal constituencies on the basis of universal adult franchise. However, the size of the council varies from corporation to corporation depending on the population of the city. Moreover, there is a provision for the reservation of seats for SCs, STs and women in the council. The council used to enjoy a term which varies from three to five years. In fact an attempt has been made to introduce one uniform term of five years by 74th constitution amendment act, for all the municipal corporations in the country.

Mayor:

The office of the Mayor is the most dignified one in the city. He is the first citizen of the city as well as the civic head of the municipal corporation. Being the civic chief, the Mayor represents the city on ceremonial occasions. Generally, the Mayor is elected every year by the council from amongst its members. However, there is the provision for Deputy Mayor in few municipal corporations in India.

The Mayor performs certain vital functions. He presides over the meetings of corporation council and maintains order and decorum in its deliberations. He possesses easy access to all

records and documents of the corporation. The Municipal Commissioner submits reports on administrative matters to the Mayor as and when required by him. Further, the Mayor tries to redress the grievances of the public. He also supervises the corporation work and directs the emergency execution or stoppage of any municipal work. Above all the Mayor functions as the link between commissioner and the state government. In view of his important deliberative and administrative functions, the Mayor occupies distinguished place both in the corporation and the city.

Committees:

The committee system is a universal feature of urban local government in general and corporation form of government in particular. The committee make the function of the corporation smooth and effective. As such it has become obligatory on the part of almost all the municipal corporations in India to set up various committees formal or informal, compulsory or voluntary, statutory or non-statutory, standing or adhoc, functional or Zonal etc. while the term of some of these committees is fixed or for a temporary period/ purpose, there are few committees which enjoy a term conterminous with council.

Municipal Comissioner:

The municipal commissioner is the head of the executive wing of the corporation. He is appointed by the state government for fixed term. The commissioner gets his salary out of municipal funds. Being the Chief Executive Officer of the corporation, the municipal commissioner performs the following important functions:

i.   He looks after the implementation of the policies programmes and the projects of the corporation
ii. He acts as the secretary to the council and furnishes the necessary information.
iii. He manages the day to day administration of the municipal corporation.
iv. He makes the distribution of official works among the different departments/branches of the corporation.
v.   He controls and supervises the works of the staff members of the corporation.
vi. He is responsible for the preparation of the budget estimate of the corporation and placement of the same before the council.
vii. He is the custodian of all records and documents of the corporation.
viii. In an emergency situation, he can take any step to cope with the emergent needs, pending the approval of the council.
ix. He performs all the necessary duties conferred upon him under the municipal act.

The office of the municipal commissioner enjoys utmost importance in the corporation. He is described as the cornerstone of the municipal arch. In fact he can be rightly described as the steering wheel in the ship of the municipal corporation. However, the municipal commissioner has been conceived, in its present form of institutionalisation, by Sir Phiroza Shah Mehta whose scheme was incorporated in the Bombay Municipal Corporation act of 1888.

74TH CONSTITUTION AMENDMENT ACT 1992 AND URBAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT:

During 1980, the government of India appointed a numbers of committees and adopted various measures to strengthen and empower the local bodies. The then Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi gave one unique slogan "power to the people" and undertook a number of steps to provide to more power and responsibility to the local bodies at different levels. Finally, Narasihma Rao government got the 74th constitution amendment act, 1992 passed by the parliament. The 74th amendment act became a landmarks step to revitalise the Indian municipal system (urban local government) and to make them full fledged constitutional bodies. It drastically amended the provisions of article 243of the constitution and inserted a new part (part-IX A) and new schedule (schedule-XII) into the constitution. The important features of the 74th amendment act stand as follows:

i.   **Constitution of Municipalities at different levels:**   These shall be constituted in every state, Nagar Panchayats for transitional areas, Municipal councils for smaller areas and Municipal Corporation for larger urban areas. The Governor may specify by notification a "transitional areas, "a "smaller urban area" or a "larger urban area" on the basis of the population of the area, density of the population therein, revenue generated, percentage of employment in non-agricultural activities, economic importance and such other factors.

ii.   **Composition of Municipalities:**   All seats in a municipality shall be filled by persons chosen by direction election from different territorial constituencies known as wards, in the municipal area. However, the state legislative may by law provide for the representation of the persons having special knowledge in municipal administration, the MPs (Lok Sabha) and M.L.As representing constituencies coming within the municipal area, the MPs (Rajya Sabha) and MLCs registered as voters in the municipal area.

iii. **Ward Committees:**   There shall be constituted ward committees consisting of one or more wards, within the territorial area of a municipality having a population of three lakhs or more. A member of a municipality shall be a member of that committee. One of the members representing such wards/ ward in the municipality shall be elected by the members of the wards committee as its Chair Person. However, the legislature of a state may, by law specify the composition and territorial area of the wards committee, the number of filling up seats in the committee etc.

iv.   **Reservation of Seats:**   The seats in every municipality shall be reserved for the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and women. Not less than one third of the total number of reserved seats for scheduled castes and scheduled tribe shall be further reserved for women belonging to these communities. Further not less than one third of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in every municipality shall be reserved for women. The reserved seats for women may be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a municipality.

v.   **Chair Persons:**   The legislature of a state may by law prescribe the manner of election of the chair person of a municipality. The office of chair persons in municipalities shall be reserved for the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, women and even in favour of backward class in such manner as the state legislature may be law provide.

vi.   **Duration of Municipalities:**   Every municipality shall continue for five years from the date appointed for its first meeting. However, the municipalities can be dissolved before the completion of their term. In such cases, the election to constitute the municipality

vii. shall be completed before the expiry of six months from the date of its dissolution. A municipality constituted upon the dissolution of the municipality shall continue for the remainder of the period.

viii. **Disqualification of Membership:** A person shall be disqualified for being a member of a municipality if he does not have required qualifications for the purpose as prescribed by the state legislative from time to time. No person should be disqualified on the ground that he is less than 25 years, if he has attained the age of 21 years.

ix. **Powers and Responsibilities of Municipalities:** The legislature of a state may by law endow municipalities with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as institutions of self government. This may help for the devolution of powers and responsibilities upon municipalities with respect to—
   a. the preparation of plans for economic development and social justice.
   b. the performance of functions and the implementation of schemes as may be entrusted to them including those in relation to the subjects listed in the twelfth schedule.

x. **Funds of the Municipalities:** The legislature of a state may by law—
   a. authorise a municipality to law, collect and appropriate certain taxes, duties, tolls and fees
   b. assign to a municipality such taxes duties, tolls and fees levied and collected by the state government for specified purposes and subject to certain conditions and limits.
   c. Provide such grant-in-aid from the consolidated fund for the state.

xi. **Constitution of Finance Commission:** The governor may constitute a finance commission at the expiry of every five years to review the financial position of the municipalities and to recommended to the Governor with regard to –

   a. the principles regarding the distribution of the net proceeds of the taxes, duties etc between the state and the Panchayats, the determination of the taxes, duties, fees etc which may be assigned to or appropriated by the municipalities, the grants-n-aid to the municipalities from the consolidated fund of the state.
   b. the measures required to improve the financial position of the municipalities.
   c. any other matter referred to the finance commission by the Governor in the interests the sound finance of the municipalities.

xii. **Election to the Municipalities:** The superintendence, direction and control of the preparation of electoral rolls for different constituencies in the municipalities as well as the conduct of all elections to the municipalities shall be vested in the state Election Commission. Further, the legislature of a state may, by law make provision with respect to all matters relating to elections to the municipalities.

xiii. **District Planning Committee:** There shall be constituted in every state a District Planning Committee at the district level. This committee is to consolidate the plans prepared by the Panchayats and the municipalities in the district and to prepare a draft development plan for the district as a whole. The chair person of every District Planning Committee shall forward the development plan as recommended by such committee to the state government. However, while preparing the draft development plan, the committee shall take into consideration the matters of common interest between Panchayats and the municipalities, the integrated development of infrastructure and environmental conservation etc.

The legislature of a state may, by law make provision with respect to the composition of the District Planning Committees and the manner in which the seats in such committees shall be filled. However, not less than four fifths of the total number of members of such committee shall be elected by and from amongst, the elected numbers of the Panchayat at the district level as well as municipalities in the district itself. Further, the legislature of a state may assign there functions relating to district planning to such committees and may also determine the manner in which the Chair Persons of such committees shall be chosen.

xiv. **Metropolitan Planning Committee:** There shall be constituted in every Metropolitan area a Metropolitan Planning Committee to prepare a draft development plan for the Metropolitan area as a whole. The Chair Person of every Metropolitan Planning Committee shall forward the development plan as recommended by such committee to the state government. While preparing the draft development plan, every Metropolitan Committee shall take into constitution the plans prepared by the Municipalities and Panchayats in Metropolitan area matters of common interest between Municipalities and Panchayats, the integrated development of infrastructure, environmental conservation, the extends of investment likely to be made in Metropolitan area by different agencies etc.

The legislature of a state may, by law make provision with respect to the composition of the Metropolitan Committee and the manner in which the seats in such committees shall be filled. However not less than $2/3^{rd}$ of the members of such committee shall be elected by and from amongst the elected members of the Municipalities and Chair Persons in proportion to the Municipality Panchayat population ratio. Further, the legislature of a state may assign the function of planning and coordination for the Metropolitan area to such committees and ma also determine the manner in which Chair Persons of such committee shall be chosen.

Thus the 74th Constitution Amendment Act 1992 is a significant step in the right direction to revitalise the urban local bodies in India. However nothing in this part shall apply to the specified scheduled areas, tribal areas and the hill area under the Darjeeling Gorkha Hill Council.

Grassroots Social and Political Movements:

In politics a grassroots movement is a movement that develops organically at a local level before spreading throughout the state and even the country. A true grassroots movement isn't organised by political forces instead a grassroot movement springs up spontaneously due to some pressing issue that a community feels needs to be changed or enhanced.

From the early 1970, new forms of social mobilisation began in India. The movement gained a variety of names such as social movement, people movement, popular movement etc. these movements emerged and highlighted some of the major issue such as gender and environment.

One of the leading analyst and participant in social movements in India, Sanjay Sangvi identified the major agendas of them as "Movements of landless, unorganised labour in rural area and urban areas, adivasi, dalit, displaced people, peasants, urban poor, small entrepreneurs and unemployed youth took up the issues of livelihood, opportunities, dignity and development." Most well known movements in the country are Chipko movement, Save silent valley, Narmada

Bachao Andolan, Kod Karo people's movement etc. these movements largely distanced themselves from political parties or tried to cut across the ideologist of the political parties. Yet many of them rooted themselves or drew from ideologies of Mahatma Gandhi, various shades environmentalisms or gender politics or socialism.

The most recent of social movements is campaign against corruption, April 2011 led by a group of social Activist –Anna Hazare a Gandhian sits on Sri Ram Bargula, the heart of New Delhi, capital of India for fast unto death, demanding enactment of long pending 'Jan Lokpal Bill.' This movement got support of general masses and media. This treated a sudden enthusiasm when political leaders were denied sharing of ideas with social activists. This movement is a landmark in the constitutional history of independent India, which has forced government to include five non-official members in the Sri Ram Bargula Bill Drafting committee. Usually only ministers are members of any legislation drafting committees. While enactment of the law and action by Sri Ram Bargula will take some more time to be on actual ground. This movement has certainly made corruption a major issue in India.

Namantar Andolan:

Namantar Andolan is revolutionary Dalit movement continued for 16 years to rename Marathawada University to Dr. Baba Saheb Ambedkar University. In 1977 Chief Minister of Maharastra Mr. Vasantdada Patil promised to Dalit Pauthar leaders to rename after Dr. B.R. Ambedkar's name. In fulfilment of this promise, both houses of Maharastra legislature passed a resolution to this effect inJuly1978. And attack continued on Dalit by non-Dalits and upper caste Hindu by fortnight. As a result of violence, Dalits did not react for shorter tenure. The then Chief Minister Mr. Sharad Pawar kept on postponing the matter. As a result Long March was planned by Dalit leaders on December 6th 1979 led by Jogendra Kawade. Thousands of participants and prominent leaders were arrested. After 16 years of prots, government finally renamed the Marathawada University to Dr. BabaSahib Ambedkar Marathwada University on14th January 1994. Dr. Baba Sahib Ambedkar Marathawada University is expansion of name (Namvistan) rather than complete chang ofname (Namantar). During Namantar Andolan Aurangabad districtand its villages faced cultural animosities which brought civil rights revolution in Marathawada region.

INDIAN POLITICAL MOVEMENT AND DEMOCRACY

Socialism in India is a political movement founded early in the 20th century as a part of the boarder Indian Independence movement against the colonial British Raj. It grew quickly in popularity as it espoused the causes of India farmers and labourers against the Zamindars, Princely class and landed gentry. Socialism shaped the principle economic and social politics of the Indian government, after independence until the early 190, when Indian movement towards a more market based economy. However, it remains a potent influence on Indian politics with a large number of national and regional political parties espousing democratic socialism.

Small socialist revolutionary groups arose in India in the aftermath of the October Revolution in Russia. The Communist Party of India was established in 1921 but socialism as an ideology gained a nationwide appeal after it was endorsed by nationalist leaders such as Jawaharlal Nehru and Subash Chandra Bose. Radical socialists were amongst the first to call for outright Indian Independence from Britain. Under Nehru, the Indian National Congress, India

largest political party adopted socialism as on ideology for social economic policies in 1936. Radical Socialists and Communist also organised the Tebhaga movement of farmers in Bengal against the landed gentry. However, mainstream Indian socialism connected itself with Gandhism and adopted peaceful struggle instead of class warfare.

After India's independence in 1947 the Indian government under the Prime Minister Nehru and Indira Gandhi oversaw land reform and the nationalisation of major industries and the banking sector. Independently activities Vinoba Bhave and Jayaprakash Narayan work for peaceful land redistribution under the Sasvodaya movement where landlords granted land to farm workers out of their own free will. In 1960 the communist party of India formed first democratically elected Communist government when it won election in the state of Kerala and later west Bengal. However a global recession began in late 1970, economic stagnation, chromic shortages and state inefficiency left many disillusioned with state socialism. In the late 1980 and 1990, Indian's government began to systematically liberalise the Indian economy by pursuing privatisation aiming to attract foreign investment. Nevertheless the Congress party continues to espouse some socialist causes and other major parties such as the Communists, Samajwadi Party, Bahujan Samajwadi Party and Several others openly espoused Socialism.

INDIAN DEMOCRACY:

India is the seventh largest by area and the second most populated country in the world with roughly one-sixth of its population of about a billion and a quarter. India is the one of the world oldest civilization yet a very young nation. Under Mughal and Rajput control for much of its history until its colonisation by European powers in the mid-eighteenth century. The world largest democracy by electorate was created after independence in 1947 under the leadership of its nationalist movement, the Indian National Congress. Election to its parliament are held once in every (five) years. The Prime minister is the head of the government while the President is the head of state. India is a constitutional republic governed under the world longest written constitution federally consisting of 29 states and 7 union territories.

DEMOCRATIC PRINCIPLES:

India is a sovereign, socialist, seculars, democratic and republic. Sovereign means an independent nation. Socialist implies social and economic equality for all Indian citizens. This guarantees equal opportunity and equal status. The government attempts to reduce economic inequality by reducing concentration of wealth. Secular implies freedom to choose religion. The state gives every citizen the right to practise and propagate a religion of his/her choice and also right to reject all religions. The state treats all religions as equal and there is no official state religion. Democratic means the government is a democratically elect and head of the govt. is the Prime Minister who is elected by the people. Republic means head of the state i.e. the President of India is not hereditary king or queen but indirectly elected by the people.

India has a parliamentary form of government. The constitutional head of the Indian Executive is the president. The council of the parliament consists of the President, the upper house-the council of states (Rajya Sabha) and the lower house, the house of the people (Lok Sabha). Lok Sabha members- members of parliament or MPs are democratically elected. A council of ministers selected by the Prime Minister, with the Prime Minister as the head advice the president, who exercises his functions in accordance with the advice. The Prime ministers

with the ministers are the real executive and the president is a titular constitutional head.

Each state has a similar structure with the governor of the state reporting to the president acting on his behalf and a state Legislative Assembly which consists of members of the Legislative Assembly (M.L.A). MLAs like PMs are democratically elected representatives. A council of ministers with the Chief Minister as the head of the legislative assembly advice the governor in discharging executive functions.

INEQUITIES OF CASTE, CLASS, TRIBE AND GENDER:

At the time of independence, India was characterised by deeply entrenched social hierarchies defined by caste, gender and religion. The feudal Zamindari system divided rural society into three broad classes landlord (Zamindar), tenant farmers and landless labourers. Women, untouchables and tribal people were excluded from decision making at both regional and national levels. The new government of India set the goals of unifying the nation, building industry, promoting economic growth and in the course of these reducing inequality and ponesty.

Caste System: It is seen that the caste system has been part of Hindu culture for thousands of years. One of the effects of this system is to formalise discriminatory against the lower castes, a problem that was must severe for the lowest rang of society the untouchables. This discrimination is connected to the views of an activities working with leather, cleaning toilets, cleaning garbage and trades such as oil pressing were regarded as ritually unclean and would pollute those associated with them. Similar attitude towards death lay behind the custom of Sati or Suttee, the ritual suicide of windows. Unclean trades were essential to society but could not be part of the mainstream. So caste associated with these trades had to be isolated from society. Prior to independence, the number of people labelled as untouchable accounted for perhaps 20% of the population in India. These people were subjected to severe limitations and were excluded from Temples, Cremation ground, wells and other public utilities, social prejudice excluded them barber shops, restaurants and hotel. In some area even the sign of some untouchable was regarded polluting and they allowed out of their houses at night and banned from living within half a mile of a village. Bespite the discouragement of British rulers in some areas, the caste system was expanding in the early 20[th] century. In some area, new restrictions imposed in 1930 prohibited untouchables from wearing gold and silver, prevented males from wearing coats, shirts, sandal or carrying umbrella and prevented women from wearing flowers or cutting their hairs and banning literacy.

Gandhiji opposed untouchability, naming them Harijan, children of govt. After independence congress embarked on a widespread series of reforms introducing preferential treatment. The 1955 untouchability act declared untouchability illegal. Untouchables were group with scheduled Tribes and given reserved seats in central and state legislature, a quota of about 12% of higher level civil service post. They were also exempt from payment of education fees, given hostel accommodation and scholarship, special land allotment, access to housing, health care and legal aid. However in practice, the reservation of higher education places had little impact became of the low level of basic education.

THE TRIBAL:

Tribal people are other important socio-cultural groups in India, constituting over eight percent of the Indian population. However, given the current classification of tribal groups in India, it is difficult to define as a collection of family which have a common name and common dialect and which occupy or profess to occupy a common territory and which have been endogamous.

In fact, with regard to tribal group, the task has often been to identify the tribal groups rather than to define them. The academic considerations have not been given due attention in identifying these groups (Battelle, 1986). According to Singh (1994) 'tribe' is an administrative and political concept in India. The categorization of tribal groups has been done sate-wise and has not been uniform. These are cases of groups that have been classified as scheduled tribes in one state, but not been categorised as the tribe in other states. The tribal groups are much behind their non-tribal counterparts in terms of their education attainment, with regard to the tribals, the following issues need to be looked at. Tribal groups differ from other disadvantaged groups in terms of their cultural specificities. The tribal people in themselves are highly diversified groups. The degree of tribalism varies from the extremely primitive isolated tribal groups located in the Andaman Island to the modern developed tribal group such as Meenas in Rajasthan. The tribal groups are further differentiated in terms of size, territorial locality, racial features and marriage and kinship patterns, languages/dialects, economy, religions beliefs and practices, development and educational attainment etc. the tribal being a local community perceive their identity largely at the regional and local lands them at the national land. The problems faced by the tribal groups vary from region to region, state to state and from one tribal group to another.

The national focus group on scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children has come out with the following finding with regard to the educational development of SC/St children. A significant proportion of scheduled caste and an ever greater proportion of schedule tribe children continue to remain out of school. This is so even in the younger age group, indicating that accessing basic school is still a problem, especially in certain states and regions which have suffered gross neglect by the polity and state. There is an unprecedented rise in enrolment of both schedule castes and schedule tribes which indicate a strong desire for education. Attendance relates at both Primary and Middle school and completion rates are far from satisfactory. This indicates that dropout, failure are problems that afflict SC/ST children to a far greater degree that the rest and they continue to lag behind in terms of educational attainment. There is a greater unevenness in the educational participation of various states, and between regions/ pockets. In some states, progress is very good for both boys and girls but in others it is very poor. In most states, girls are behind the boys. There are also sharp disparities between rural-urban areas. Schedule tribe appears to lag behind the schedule castes in most of the larger states barring of course the North East. There is a strong indication that specific regions and specific SC and ST groups face extreme and gross educational deprivation, within which the situation of girls is abominable.

INEQUALITY OF GENDER AND RELIGION:

Discrimination against girls and women is widespread in India both Hindu and Muslim Communities. The dowry system means that girls are a financial burden where as boys are viewed as source of income and prosperity. Nationwide, girls are fedless and taken to doctors

less frequently so mortality is greater, death in childbirth is also unacceptably high, maternal death rate are over 0.5% of birth. Education is also less available to women and as a result, literacy rates are lower. National literacy rates are 64% for males but only 39% for women. In the poorer states, female literacy may be less than 25%. As a result the level of opportunity for women is low. Lack of female education and power has been linked to high birth rate and population increase in the country. Recent government and international sponsored aid programme aim at improving education and economic opportunities for women in the hope that more equitable development will result in an alleviation of poverty and a slowing of population increase.

Contemporary India is a multicultural society that is pluralistic with regards to religions law. Different groups in India have separate religions personal laws which India's secular state is reluctant to reform. However these laws have generated debate about the meanings of gender equality in India. Such all Religions Personal laws to various extend give women fewer rights than men, but Indian women have been promised equality as a constitutional right. Though Religions Personal Laws allow for inclusiveness in religion, the history of these laws in India shows that they have been used selectively as a tool of governance and often to the disadvantage of women. In the past feminists argued that various differences of identity such as race, ethnicity and sexuality should be recognised and accounted for in the law. But in case of India's cultural pluralism religions differences comes into conflict with gender equality. There is need for replacing the religions personal laws with gender-just family laws. Though this reason may seem exclusionary, cultural identity and gender justice do not have to be antithetical values. One way of pursuing both goals is to keep the historical and social specificities in the forefront of the consideration. It is possible to argue for common rights for all women by re-conceptualising the feminist project as one of constructing inclusive legal theory that is sensitive to demand of differences but also those of justice.

UNIT: 4

INDIAN ECONOMY

Major issues on Globalization Liberalization and Privatization:

Globalisation: The term globalisation can be used in different contexts. The general usages of the term globalisation can be as follows:-

    i.   Interactions and interdependence among countries.
    ii.   Integration of world economy.
    iii.   Deteritorisation.

By synthesising all the above views globalisation can be broadly defined as follows:-
It refers to a process whereby there are social, cultural, technological exchanges across the country.

The term globalisation was first coined in 1980. But even before this, there were interaction among nations. But in the modern days globalisation has touched all spheres of life such as economy education, technology, cultural phenomenon, social aspect etc. The term global village is also frequently used to highlight the significance of globalisation. This term signifies that revolution in electronic communication would unite the world. Undoubted, it can be accepted that globalisation is not only the present trend but also future world order.

Effect of Globalisation on India: Globalisation has its impact on India which is a developing country. The impact of globalisation can be analysed as follows:-

    i.   **Access to Technology:** Globalisation has drastically improved the access to technology. Internet facility has enabled India to gain access to knowledge and services from around the world. Use of Mobile telephone has revolution used communication with other countries.
    ii.   **Growth of International Trade:** Tariff barriers have been removed which has resulted in the growth of trade among nations, global trade has been facilitated by GATT, W.T.O etc.
    iii.   **Increase in Productions:** Globalisation has resulted to increase in the production of a variety of goods. Multinational Corporation has established manufacturing plants all over the world.
    iv.   **Employment opportunities:** Establishment of Multinational Corporation have resulted to the increase of employment opportunities.
    v.   **Free flow of foreign capital:** Globalisation has encouraged free flow of capital which has improved the economy of developing countries to some extent. It increased the capital formation.

Negative Effect of Globalisation: Globalisation is not free negative effects. They can be summed up as follow:
    i.   **Inequalities within country:** Globalisation has increased inequalities among the countries. Some of the policies (Liberalisation W.T.O. policies etc.) are more beneficial

ii. to developed countries. The countries which have adopted free trade agenda have become highly success of globalisation. E.g. China is a classic example of success of globalisation. But a country like India is notable to overcome the problem.

iii. **Financial Instability:** As a consequence of globalisation there is free flow of foreign capital power into developing countries. But the country is subject to constant fluctuation on account of varion in the flow of foreign capital.

iv. **Impact on workers:** Globalisation has opened up employment opportunities and there is no job security for employees. The nature of work has created new pressures on workers as workers are not permitted to organise trade union.

v. **Impact on Farmers:** Indian farmers are facing lot of threat from global markets. They are facing a serious competition from powerful agricultural industries quite often cheaply produced agro products in developed countries are being dumped into India.

vi. **Impact on Environment:** Globalisation has led to 50% rise in the volume of world trade. Mass movement of goods across the world has resulted in gas emission. Some of the projects financed by World Bank are potentially devastating to ecological balance for example extensive import or exports of meat.

vii. **Domination by Multi-national Corporations:** Multi-national corporations are the driving force behind globalisation. They are in a position to dictate power multi-national companies are emerging as growing corporate power. They are exploiting the cheap labour and natural resources of the post countries.

viii. **Threat to National Sovereignty:** Globalisation results in shift of economic power from independent countries to international organisations like W.T.O, United Nation etc. The sovereignty of the elected governments is naturally undermined as the policies are formulated in favours of globalisation. Thus globalisation has its own positive and negative consequences. According to Peter F. Drunker globalisation for better or worse has changed the way the world does business. It is unstoppable. Thus globalisation is inevitable but India should acquire global competiveness in all fields.

Benefits of Globalisation: Some of the very apprehensions regarding globalisation could also be constructed as its advantages. Let us discuss them now.

i. **Over Coming Complacency through Competition:** The educational scenario in our country needs to be revived in many areas. This process could begin when there is a stiff competition from abroad. For instance, in certain areas like the telecom sector the government monopoly has ceased and there are many private service providers. Today obtaining a telephone connection need only a day instead of the years of waiting period earlier. As far as monopoly and western imperialism are conceived, the counter argument could be that an Indian company taking over foreign ones is now a reality. Many companies have a strong foothold even in western countries. Premiere Indian educational institutes too may attract students from abroad thus leading to educational expert. Already private entrepreneurs as well as government run educational institutes of Indian are providing educational services abroad.

ii. **Wide Range of Choice:** Students and faculty while remaining in the country can be a part of an educational system of their choice. Thus the best opportunities of the world can be availed.

iii. **Cultural impact:** Influence of the foreign culture is as old as traders from overseas and scholars travelling on foot and horseback across borders for education. Such

cultural exchange adds to the vigour and endurance of the local culture and enriches it.

Impact of Globalisation on Education: The education in India is at a crossroads. Its liberal and secular character and content, carefully nourished during the last fifty years, despite several vicissitudes, is now undergoing fundamental transformation.

Trends in Global Education which affects the quality of education such as:

i. Dilution and trivialization of the aim of education.
ii. Fragmentation and compartmentalization of education.
iii. Alienation of knowledge from social ethos.
iv. Restriction of access through commercialisation privatization and competitive screening.
v. Parallelization or hierarchical layering of school system.
vi. Homogenization of socio-cultural diversities through increasing centralization.

The children of the poor and socially disadvantaged have been denied English medium school education. The rapid growth of the software development and electronic communications is one of the few achievements of Indian industry in post independence India. Further, because of stronghold of the English language in Multi-national corporations and corporate circles, divide between rural and urban is utmost complete.

Liberalization and Privatization:

Meaning of Liberalization: Liberalization is the process of liberalising the economy from various regulatory and control mechanism of the state and of giving greater freedom to private enterprise.

Definition: Liberalisation can be defined as "unilateral or multilateral reductions in tariffs and other measure that restrict trade."

Need if Liberalisation: Bring flexibility in the operations of business organisations, paves the way for globalisation, helps companies to compete with other companies at international level, sake time, effort and money of business enterprises, reduces of cost of production and distribution, increase efficiency, productivity and profitability of business organisation.

Concept of Liberalisation: Progressive elimination of government control over economic activities is known as "Liberalisation." Liberalisation refers freedom to business enterprises from excessive government control and they are given freedom to make their own decisions regarding production, consumption, pricing, marketing, borrowing, lending and investments. The major elements of liberalisation in India include the following:

i. **De-licensing of industries:** The industrial policy 1991 abolished (cancelled) licensing for most industries which helped Indian companies to concentrate on productive activities. The six industries that required licensing are alcohol, cigarettes, industrial explosives defence product, drug and pharmaceuticals hazardous chemical etc.
ii. **Liberalisation of foreign investment:** The necessity to obtain approval for foreign investment from various governments authority often caused delayed. At present FDI is 100% in certain sectors such as infrastructure, export, hotels, tourism etc.

The liberalisation of FDI has resulted in certain benefits such as increased in inflow of foreign capital, development of skills of Indian personnel due to foreign multi-national corporations training transfer of technology by foreign partners to Indian firms.

iii. **Liberalisation of foreign technology imports:** The liberalised import of foreign technology led to technological improvement in Indian industries. This helped in getting automatic permission for foreign technology imports and no permission was required for hiring foreign technicians and foreign technology testing.

iv. **Liberalisation of industrial location:** The industrial policy 1991 stated that there is no need to obtain approval from central government for industrial location. This enabled the Indian firms to set up industries at a right location of their choice with much interference from government authority.

v. **Liberal taxation:** The government of India has introduced liberal reduction in taxation rates on direct tax and indirect tax, customs, excise service which has greatly benefited the firms operating in India.

Advantage of liberalisation:

i. Increase in foreign investment.
ii. Increase in efficiency of domestic firms.
iii. Rise in the rate of economic growth.
iv. Control of price.

Disadvantage of liberalisation:

i. Increase in unemployment.
ii. Loss to domestic unit.
iii. Increase dependence on foreign nation.
iv. Unbalanced development of sectors.

Privatisation:

In the event of globalisation privatisation has become an order of the day. Privatisation can be defined as the transfer of ownership and control of public sector units to private individual or companies. It has become inevitable as a result of structural adjustment programmes imposed by I.M.F.

Objectives of privatisation:

i. **To strengthen the private sector:** Government to concentrate on areas like education and infrastructure. In the event of globalisation the government felt that increasing inefficiency on the part of public sectors would not help in achieving global standards. Hence a decision was taken to private the public sectors.

Causes of Inefficiency of Public Sectors:

i. Bureaucratic administration.
ii. Out dated technology.
iii. Corruption.
iv. Lack of accountability.

    v.   Domination of trade union.
   vi.   Political interference.
  vii.   Lack of proper marketing activities.

Privatisation has its own advantages and disadvantage viz:

Advantages:

    i.   Efficiency.
   ii.   Absence of political interference.
  iii.   Quality service.
  iv.   Systematic marketing.
    v.   Use of modern technology.
   vi.   Accountability.
  vii.   Creation of competitive environment.
 viii.   Innovations.
  ix.   Research and development.
   x.   Optimum utilisation of resources.
  xi.   Infrastructure.

However, privatisation suffers from the following defects:
    i.   Exploitation of labour.
   ii.   Abuse of powers by executives.
  iii.   Unequal distribution of wealth and income.
  iv.   Lack of job security for employees.

Privatisation has become inevitable in the present scenario. But some control should be exercised by the government over private sectors.

Tejvan Pettinger May 12, 2011 economics a look at the governments for and against privatisation. Privatisation involves selling state owned assets to the private sector. This is often achieved through listing the new private company on the stock market. In the 1980s and 1990s , the UK privatised many previously state owned industries such as B.P. BT, British Airways, Electricity companies and Gas companies.

Potential Benefits of Privatisation:

    i.   **Improved Efficiency:**   The main argument for privatisation is that private companies have a profit incentive to cut costs and be more efficient. If you work for government run industry, managers do not usually share in any profit. However, a private firm is interested in making profit and so it is likely to cut costs and be efficient. Since privatisation companies such as BT and British Airways have shown degrees of improved efficiency and higher profitability.

   ii.   **Lack of Political Interference:**   It is argued that governments make poor economic managers. They are motivated by political pressures method than sound economic and business sense. For example a state enterprise may employ a surplus worker which is inefficient. The government may be reluctant to get rid of the workers because of the

iii. negative publicity involved in job losses. Therefore, state owned enterprises often employ too many workers increasing inefficiently.

iv. **Short term view:** A government may think only in term of next election. Therefore they may be unwilling to invest in infrastructure improvements which will benefit the firm in the long term because they are more concerned about projects that give a benefit before the election.

v. **Shareholders:** It is argued that a private firm has pressure from shareholders to perform efficiently then the firm could be subject to a takeover. A state owned firm doesn't pressure and so it is easier for them to be inefficient.

vi. **Increase competition:** Often privatisation of state owned monopolies occurs alongside deregulation—i.e. policies to allow more firms to enter the industry and increase the competitiveness of the market. It is this increase in competition that can be the greatest spurs to improvements in efficiency. For example, there is now more competition in telecoms and distribution of gas and electricity. However, privatisation does not necessarily increase competition, it depends on the nature of the market for example there is no competition in tap water. There is very little competition within the rail industry.

vii. **Government will raise revenue from the sale:** Selling state owned assets to the private sector raised significant sums for the U.K government in the 1980s. However, this is a one off benefit. It also means, we lose out on future dividends fromthe profits of public companies.

Disadvantage of privatisation:

i. **Natural Monopoly:** A natural monopoly occurs when the most efficient numbers of firms in an industry is one. For example tap water has very significant fixed costs, therefore there is no scope for having competition amongst several firms. Therefore, in this case, privatisation would seek to set higher prices which exploit consumer. Therefore, it is better to have a public monopoly rather than a private monopoly which can exploit the consumer.

ii. **Public interest:** There are many industries which perform an important public service for example health care, educational and public transport. In these industries, the profit motive shouldn't be the primary objective of firms and the industry. For example, in the case of health care, it is feared privatising health care would mean a greater priority is given to profit rather than patient care. Also, in an industry like health care, arguably, we don't need a profit motive to improve standards, when doctors treat patients, they are unlikely to try harder if they get a bonus.

Development and environmental concerns:

The issue of environment and development is a big challenge for human civilization. The history of human civilization to some extend is the history of explorations on how to correctly handle the relationship between man and the environment during its development. In particular, as man entered the industrialisation period, achieving sustainable use of the environment and its resources in the light of the increasing shortages of natural resources became a key issue of common concern.

Any country's environmental problems are related to the land of its economic development, the availability of natural resources and the lifestyle of its population. In India, rapid growth of population, poverty, urbanization, industrialization and several related factors are responsible for the rapid degradation of the environment. Environmental problems

have become serious in many parts of the country and have cannot be ignored. The main environmental problems in India relate to air and water pollution particularly in metropolitan cities and industrial zones, degradation of common property resources which affect the poor adversely as they depends on them for their livelihood, threat to biodiversity and inadequate system of solid waste disposal and sanitation with consequent adverse impact on health, infant mortality and birth rate. In India efforts are being made on for the environmental management in a suitable manner. At all lends of education provisions have been made for the knowledge of environment and its conservation. In the country many centres are providing special training for environmental management. The programmes of environmental awareness have been launched through media. India is an active member of international organizations concerning environment. Several programmes are going on under UNEP. The government has recently started emphasizing the combined use of regulatory and economic investments for improving environmental quality. There is a need for coordination between government agencies. N.G.O and the public for the proper management of environment quality and to achieve sustainable development in the country.

Law and policies:

After independence from British, India adopted a constitution and numerous British enacted laws, without any specific constitutional provision on protection the environment. India amended its constitution in 1976. Article 48(A) of part (IV) of the amended constitution read. The state shall endeavour to protect and improve the environment and to safeguard the forests and wild life of the country. Article 51 A (g) imposed additional environmental mandate on the Indian state.

The other Indian laws from recent history include, the water (prevention and control of pollution) act of 1974, the forest conservation act of 1980and the Air (prevention and control of pollution) act of 1981. The Air act was inspired by the decisions, made at Stockholm conference. The Bhopal gas tragedy triggered the government of India to enact the Environment (protection) act of 1986. India has also enacted a set of Noise pollution (Regulation and control) rules in 2000.

In 1985 Indian government created ministry of Environment and Forest. This ministry is the central administrative organisation. In India for regulating and ensuring environmental protection.

Despite active passage of laws by the central government of India, the reality of environmental quality mostly worsened between 1947and 1990. Most of Indian economy was nationalised and owned by India and regulation were mostly ignored by state run enterprises. Rural poor had no choice but to sustain life in whatever way possible. The state government of India often regarded environmental laws enacted by the central government as a mere paper work formality. Air emissions increased, water pollution worsened forest cover decreased.

Possible causes:

Some have cited economic development as the cause regarding the environmental issues. It is suggested that India's growing population is the primary cause of India's environmental degradation, systematic studies challenge this theory empirical evidence from countries such as Japan, England and Singapore, each with population density similar or higher than India, yet each enjoying environmental quality vastly superior then India suggests population density may not be the only factor affecting India's environments issues.

Major issues:

Floods are a significant environmental issue for India. It causes soil erosion, destruction of wetlands and wide migration of solid wastes.

Major environmental issues are forest and agricultural degradation of land, resource depletion (water, mineral, forest, sand, rock etc) environmental degradation, public health, loss of biodiversity, loss of resilience in ecosystems, livelihood security for the poor.

The major sources of pollution in India include the rampant bushing of fuel wood and biomass such as dried waste from livestock as the primary source of energy. Lack of organised garbage and waste removal services, lack of sewage treatment operations, lack of flood control and monsoon water drainage system, diversion of consumer waste into rivers, cremation practices near major rivers, government mandated protection of highly polluting old public transport and continue operation by Indian government of government owned high emission plants built between 1950 and 1980.

Air pollution, poor management of waste, growing water scarcity, falling ground water tables, water pollution, preservation and quality of forests, biodiversity loss and land /soil degradation are some of the major environmental concerns India faces today.

India population growth adds pressure to environmental problem and its resources. Rapid urbanization has caused a build up of heavy metals in the soil of the cities of the country and these metals being ingested through contaminated vegetables. Heavy metals are hazardous to people's health and are known caseinogens.

Population growth and Environmental quality:

There is long history of study and debate about the interactions between population growth and the environment. According to a British thinker Milthus for example a growing exerts pressure on agricultural land, causing environmental degradation and forcing the cultivation of land of poorer as well as poorer quality. This environmental degradation ultimately reduces agricultural yields and food availability, causes famines and diseases and death, thereby reducing the rate of population growth.

Population growth, can place increased pressure on the assimilative capacity of the environment, is also seen as a major cause of air, water and solid waste pollution. The result Malthus theorised is an equilibrium population that enjoys low levels of both income and environmental qualities. Mathus suggested positive and preventive forced control of human population along with abolition of poor laws.

Water pollution:

India has major water pollution issues. A discharge of untreated sewage is the single most important cause for pollution of surface and ground water in India. There is a large gap between generation and treatment of domestic waste water in India. The problem is not only that India lack sufficient treatment capacity but also that the sewage treatment plants that exist do not operate and are not maintained. The majority of government owned sewage treatment plant

remain closed most of the time due to improper design or poor maintenance or lack of reliable electricity supply to operate the plants, together with absentee employee and poor management. The waste water generated in these areas normally percolates in the soil or evaporates. The uncollected wastes accumulate in the urban areas cause unhygienic conditions and release a pollutant that leaches to surface and ground water.

According to W.H.O, out of India's 3119 towns and cities just209 have partial sewage treatment facilities. Over 100 Indian cities dump untreated sewage directly into the Ganga River. Investment is needed to bridge the gap between 29000 litres per day of sewage India generates and treatment capacity of mere 6000 million litres per day.

The other sources of water pollution include agriculture runoff and small scale factories along the rivers and Lakes of India. Fertilizers and pesticides used in agriculture have been found in river, lakes and ground water. Flooding during monsoons worsen India's water pollution problem as it washes and moves all sorts of solid garbage and contaminated soils into its river and wetlands.

URBAN AND RURAL ECONOMIC ISSUES IN INDIA:

A Rural-urban disparity in the development for Indian is one of the concerns for the policy makers. The disparities are seen in all sphere of human life-economic and non-economic. The extent of disparities however differs from region to region. India is the largest democracy with consistent economic growth rate since independence. India is also third largest scientific and technological workforce. In agriculture, India produces sugar, groundnut, tea, fruits, rice, wheat, vegetables and milk in a large scale. In regard to population growth more than 720bilion i.e. one third of its population line in rural areas. Despite these developments, there is wide gap between rural and urban India with respect to technology, living condition, economic development, infrastructure, modern amenities, job opportunity etc. Many people in rural India lack access to education, nutrition, health care, sanitation and other facilities as a result, people are trapped into poverty. In rural India, there is high number of infant mortality with low life expectancy at birth rate. Rural India mostly depends on agricultural sector. The growth rate in agricultural sector (primary sector) is 2.3% when compared to secondary and tertiary sector which are growing at the rate of 8-12%. Due to this factor there is a large scale migration of labour forces from rural to urban areas in search of employment.

Health:

Status of health shows the development of the society. The health status is influenced by different indicators like employment, income, and educational attainment, social group level of awareness, accessibility to health care and availability of health services. Poor health leads to deficiency in human capabilities and also it shows the level of deprivation among the people. There is a close linkage between health and poverty and health and development but the relationship is very complex. So the poor health is considered as the major constraint for development. Health being the basic rights of all individual and they are entitled to have quality health care services, safe drinking water, sanitation etc. But these facilities are not available in rural areas like urban areas.

So, government of India by recognizing the importance of health in the process of economic and social development and improving the quality of life of Indian citizens, the National Rural health Mission was launched for the effective health care system. The government adopted the holistic approach by integrating into nutrition, sanitation, hygiene and

safe drinking water. It undertook a number of measures like improving health infrastructure, optimization of health man power etc. The goal of the mission is to improve the availability and access to quality health care by people especially for those residing in rural areas, poor, women and children.

Causes of the Rural- urban disparity in India:

The rural- urban disparity in India has existed since recorded history but has aggravated in modern time. The reason for the disparities in between rural and urban is due to concentration of capital- intensive activities in the urban areas. The urban centers have taken up the majority of government expenditure for provisions of water, power, transport and communication as well as food subsidies where as people from rural area continue to migrate town and cities as their areas have been largely neglected.

The term of disparities can be attributed to three different types of factors which are as given:-

i. **Natural Differences:** Among the natural factors, agro-climatic conditions, geographical location, resource endowment etc play an important role in economic development of a particular area. It is true that good climate, adequate rainfall and presence of natural and mineral resources contribute to economic development. Improved infrastructure facilities, transport and communication and irrigation facility which present in a particular region may enhance the potential for its development historically, cities and town have grown at sites which had better access to natural resources such as easy access to water and a pleasant climate. This differences which was present since the ancient times has led to increased differences in modern times as the historical advantage has been used to prepare a better infrastructure in the town/cities owing to greater access to natural resources and better communication facilities. Further owing to the favourable infrastructural conditions, businesses tend to grow faster in the cities which cause the rising differences between the level of development in the urban and rural area.

ii. **Socio-Cultural Conditions:** The second set of factors which include values and rigid traditional and Patron- client relationship affect social and economic mobility, innovation and entrepreneurship. It is believed that the extended family system in rural areas with Patron-client relations helps reduce vulnerability and spread the economic risk among family members. The social safety nets may be helpful for weaker members of society but this social safety net may work as disincentive for more entrepreneurial behaviour since any accumulated wealth would have to be shared with other members. Generally, the extended family system leads to the free rider problem and adversely affects economic returns given the productive potential capacity of the household members.

Social restrictions are also important in retarding the development possibilities for some groups of people in rural society. The social restrictions also limit access to social services like education, medical care and opportunities for occupational diversification. Bonded labours, prohibition against women going to school, restriction on women to work outside the home are examples of social restrictions experienced in rural areas which restrict income earning ability, participation in local decision making bodies and so on. As against this type of situation, urban areas are characterised by higher density of population with occupational diversification.

iii. **Policy decision:** It is seen that urban town/cities have the advantage of more concentration of political power, infrastructure, business, foreign and domestic firms, multi-national companies and foreign aid for developmental activities. This suggests that the urban areas usually have a strong economy because of the presence of high-value manufacturing and service industries. Urban area being the centres of power, policy and commerce, urban areas are very distinct from the rural area. Moreover, owing to the scattered pattern of rural settlements with inadequate communication and transport networks, rural people are disadvantaged in all respects. Disparities between rural and urban areas have also been attributed to the urban bias in the development policies of the government. The bias development policies benefited a small portion of the population of town and city dwellers and ignored the majority of the population that lined in the rural areas.

Scheme for Rural Development by Government of India:

The government of India has undertaken a variety of steps for the development of rural areas in India and to reduce urban-rural disparity. The following schemes which have been undertaken are described as given below:

i. **Mahatma Gandhi National Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA):** The MNREGA scheme essentially guarantees employment for the unemployed in rural areas for 100 days in a year through work such as building roads, improving water supply and works that are necessary to improve the village infrastructure. The uniqueness of this bill is in the fact that it carries on issues like equality of wages for men and women, elimination of work contracting middlemen, payment of wages only through bank and Post office account to prevent corruption creating transparency in workers muster rolls etc. The MNREGA scheme aims to tackle the biggest problem of unemployment which forces people to migrate to urban areas and during the five years of its implementation has been the simple biggest weapon of change in India.

ii. **Swarjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana:** The objective of the Swarjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) is to bring the assisted poor families (Swarozgardes) above the poverty line by ensuing appreciable sustain level of income own a period of time. This objective is to be achieved by inter alia organising the rural into Self Help Group (S.H.G) through the process of social mobilization, their training and capacity building and provision of income generating assets. The SHG approach community action. Interaction in group meeting and collective decision making enable them in identification and prioritization of their needs and resources. This process would ultimately lead to the strengthening and socio-economic empowerment of the rural poor as well as improve their collective bargaining power.

iii. **Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana(PMGSY):** Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana(PMGSY) was launched on 25th December 2000 as a fully funded Centrally Sponsored Scheme to provide all weather road connectivity in rural areas of the country. The programme envisages connecting all habitations with a population of

500 persons and above in the plain areas and 250 persons and above in hill states the tribal and the desert areas.

This scheme has resulted in the collection of a vast number of Indian villages with the cities/town through all weather roads and has been instrumental in widespread productivity rise all over India. In recent times, it is considered as one of the few programmes which will change the shape of new India.

iv.   **National Social Assistance Programme:**   The National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) is a welfare programme being administered by the Ministry of Rural Development. This programme is being implemented in rural areas as well as urban areas. NSAP represent a significant step towards the fulfilment of the Directive Principles of state policy enshrined in the constitution of India which enjoin upon the state to undertake within its means a number of welfare measures. These are intended to secure for the citizens adequate means of livelihood, raise the standard of living, improve public health, provide free and compulsory education for children etc. In particular article 41 of the constitution of India directs the state to provide public assistance to its citizens in case of unemployment, old age, sickness and disablement and in other cases of undeserved want within the limit of its economic capacity and development.

The three main schemes of these programmes are:-
i.   National Old Age pension Scheme.
ii.   National family benefit scheme.
iii.   National maternity benefit scheme.

In addition to these programmes, the govt has undertaken a variety of other schemes for development of rural areas and to ensure that the rural-urban disparity does not increase any further.

Population and Sustainable Development:

Population:

The growing rate of more than 1.6 % a year India's population account for about 17 % of the world's population while the country occupies less than 3 % of the land area worldwide. Hence it is no wonder that sustainable development is proving to be a challenging task for the country like India. According to the United Nations, the futures generations of India may have to face wide spread shortages of food and water if the country's population growth does not slow down. Almost every measure of progress that India has made since independence has been checked by its growing population although food production has trebled but many people remained hungry, literacy has increased but so has the total number of illiterate people. In other worlds, the country is far from achieving its targeted developmental goals. The consequences of this rapid population growth are starkly reflected in four areas------- poverty, changes in land use, environmental degradation and our exploitation of natural resources. India's massive population base unsustainable agricultural with relatively small scope for further expansion of agricultural land and flawed industrial practices make the relationship between population pressure and environment degradation extremely strong. The government can slow down population growth and eventually reverse it by helping families to choose to have fewer children, offering women access to better education, economic opportunities, and family planning and health care facilities.

<u>Sustainable Development:</u>

Sustainable development is the development that meets the needs of the present population growth without compromising the future generation needs. The concept of sustainable development can be understood in different ways but at its core is an approach to development that took to balance different and often competing needs against an awareness of the environmental, social and economic limitation currently being faced in the country like India. The development is driven by one particular need without considering the future impact. We have experienced many damages in the context of development and this kind of approach can caused large scale financial crisis by irresponsible policy and unplanned manner of development that will lead to change in global climate resulting from our depending on fossil fuel based on energy sources. The larger we pursue unsustainable development the more frequent and severe its consequences are likely to become. So, it is needed to think in order to imitate effective actions. Living within our environment limit is one of the central principles of sustainable development and one implication of not doing so is climate change. But the focus of sustainable development is far broader than proper environment. It is also about ensuring a strong, healthy and fair society. This means meeting the diverse needs of present population and future generation by promoting personal well being, social cohesion as well as creating equal opportunity for future. If we does not put the human population at the core of the sustainable development agenda than its efforts to improve human well being, preserve the quality of the environment and achieve sustainable development will fail miserably.

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