



कोल्हापूर

NAAC Reaccredited 'A'
with CGPA-3.24 (in 3rd cycle)

'ज्ञान, विज्ञान आणि सुसंस्कार यांसाठी शिक्षण प्रसार'

- शिक्षणमहर्षी डॉ. बापूजी साठुंबे

ISSN : -2581-8848

VIVEK RESEARCH JOURNAL

A Biannual Peer reviewed National Journal of Multi Disciplinary Research Articles

Vivek Research Journal (Online)

Vol. VI No I

ISSN: 2581-8848

June, 2022

Neo-Liberal Reforms and Welfare in India

VIVEK RESEARCH JOURNAL

A Biannual Peer reviewed National Journal of Multi Disciplinary Research Articles

Editor in Chief & Publisher

Dr. R. R. Kumbhar

Principal- Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)
E-mail : editorvivekresearchjournal@gmail.com

Executive Editor

Dr.P. A. Patil

Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)
E-mail : prabhapatil21@gmail.com

Editorial Board

Dr. M. M. Karanjakar

Professor, & Head,
Dept of Physics
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. S. M. Joshi

Asst. Professor
Dept of English
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. K. A. Undale

Asst. Professor
Dept of Chemistry
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. T. C. Gaupale

Asst. Professor
Dept of Zoology
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. V. B. Waghmare

Asst. Professor & head
Dept of Computer Science
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. S. R. Kattimani

Asst. Professor
Dept of History
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. A. S. Mahat

Asst. Professor & Head
Dept of Hindi
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. R. Y. Patil

Asst. Professor
Dept of Computer Science
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. Pradip Patil

Asst. Professor
Dept of Marathi
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. Neeta Patil

Librarian
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Advisory Board

Prin. Abhaykumar Salunkhe

Executive Chairman,
Shri Swami Vivekanand Shikshan Sanstha
Kolhapur

Prin. Mrs. Shubhangi Gawade

Secretary,
Shri Swami Vivekanand Shikshan Sanstha
Kolhapur

Prin. Dr. Ashok Karande

Former Jt. Secretary (Administration),
Shri Swami Vivekanand Shikshan Sanstha
Kolhapur

Dr. Rajan Gavas

Former Head, Dept. of Marathi
Shivaji University, Kolhapur

Dr. D. A. Desai

Former Head,
Dept. of Marathi
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. M. S. Jadhav

Former Head,
Dept. of Hindi
Vivekanand College, Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. Namita Khot

Director, Barr. Balasaheb Khardekar
Knowledge Resource Centre, Kolhapur

VIVEK RESEARCH JOURNAL

A Biannual Peer reviewed National Journal of Multi Disciplinary Research Articles

Editors

Dr. Kailas S. Patil
Assistant Professor and Head,
Department of Economics,
Vivekanand College,
Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. Yashwant D. Hartale
Assistant Professor
Department of Economics,
Vivekanand College,
Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. Somnath V. Kale
Assistant Professor
Department of Economics,
Vivekanand College,
Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Dr. Ashish A. Bhasme
Assistant Professor
Department of Economics,
Vivekanand College,
Kolhapur (Autonomous)

Ms Samiksha Farakate
Head, Department of
Political Science

Mr. Datta Jadhav
Assistant Professor,
Department of
Political Science

VIVEK RESEARCH JOURNAL

VIVEK RESEARCH JOURNAL is a multidisciplinary research journal, published biannually in English, Hindi & Marathi languages. All research papers submitted to the journal will be double - bind peer reviewed, refereed by the members of the review committee and editorial board. The articles recommended by the peer review committee shall only be published.

Disciplines Covered :

- Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences
- Commerce/ Management / Accountancy / Finance / Business / Administration.
- Physical Education & Education
- Computer Application / Information Technology.
- Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, Microbiology, Agriculture, Biotechnology
- Library Science.
- Law.

Guidelines for Contributors

- Articles submitted for the journal should be original research contributions and should not be under consideration for any other publication at the same time. A declaration is to be made by the author in the covering letter for that, along with full contact details with e-mail and mobile number .
- The desired length of the research paper should be of maximum 4000 words in English/Marathi/Hindi included with an abstract of not more than 75 to 100 words. At least 5 key words and bibliography must be provided for indexing and information retrieval services.
- All the manuscripts should be typed in a single space with 12 point font for English.& 14 point for Marathi & Hindi, on crown size paper with 1 inch margin on all sides.
- A hard copy of the Marathi/Hindi Articles in **ISM DVB_TT Dhruv Font** or **Shree Lipi Devratna Font** & a hard copy of the English articles in Times New Roman font in Word format (MS Word) should be sent to the editor. Please sent the font in which you have typed the article in a soft copy. The contributors can e-mail their articles to **editorvivekresearch@gmail.com**
- Contributors should bear article review charges of Rs. 500/- which is not refundable. The charges may be sent by DD in favour of **Editor, Vivek Research Journal Payable at kolhapur .**

Neo-Liberal Reforms and Welfare in India



Index

| Sr. No | Title | Name | Page No. |
|--------|---|---|----------|
| 1 | Globalization And Neoliberal Economic Reforms In India | MS. Vaishali D Patil Ms. Snehal Ashok Sonule | 1 - 5 |
| 2 | Impact of Neo-liberalization on Indian Agriculture | Dr. Amol G. Sonwale Dr. Bandu J Kadam | 6 - 11 |
| 3 | भारतीय शेतीचे नियोजनकालीन महत्त्व | प्रा. परशुराम भागोजी कांबळे | 12 - 17 |
| 4 | Globalization and Neo-liberal Economic Reforms in India | Dr. V. V. Rai Jadhav | 18 - 21 |
| 5 | Neo-liberalism and India's New Economic Policy Some Critical Thoughts | Dr. Mahesh D. Chougule Dr.Sagar R.Powar | 22 - 29 |
| 6 | भांडवलशाही विरोधातील श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाचे लढे | श्री. सुपने उत्तम बाबासो | 30 - 32 |
| 7 | COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MSMEs IN THE ERA OF PRE & POST LIBERALISATION | Ms. Apurva S. Khandekar | 33 - 42 |
| 8 | भारतातील राजकारण, अर्थकारण आणि कल्याणकारी राज्य | Mr. Aslam Attar | 43 - 49 |
| 9 | Welfare Schemes in India for Women Empowerment | Dr. Lekhika U. Meshram | 50 - 54 |
| 10 | A Review of Social Security Paradigm in India | Ms. Samiksha A. Farakate | 55 - 60 |
| 11 | उदारीकरणाच्या काळातील भारतातील दूरसंचार क्षेत्राची प्रगती | साक्षी विलास वालकुंजे | 61 - 64 |
| 12 | उदारीकरणाचा भारतीय शेतीवर झालेला परिणाम | गायत्री तावडे | 65 - 68 |

Globalization And Neoliberal Economic Reforms In India

1. Asst Prof. Vaishali D Patil

Assistant Professor of BCA,
Vivekanand College (Autonomous), Kolhapur

2. Asst Prof. Snehal Ashok Sonule

Assistant Professor of BBA,
Vivekanand College (Autonomous) Kolhapur

Abstract:

The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of neoliberal economic reforms in India, commonly known as 'pro-market' reforms. It is usually assumed that the acceleration in India's growth has occurred mostly as a result of changes in the government's views toward business and export orientation, rather than earlier domestic policies. This research demonstrates that the turnaround growth occurred in the early 1980s, rather than the early 1990s, as widely reported by international financial institutions and the media. We believe that present talks are ignoring other issues, such as inter-sectoral and inter-regional imbalances. The importance of the manufacturing sector, which might play a significant role in job creation, is underappreciated, and its critical role in job creation is understated.

This study shows the broad macro aspects of the Indian economy's growth in both periods, i.e. before and after reforms, as well as a very quick comparison with the colonial period; nevertheless, simply looking at economic growth figures may be misleading. As a result, we decided to examine other variables, such as inter-regional and inter-sectoral changes, as well as the issue of poverty throughout the pre-and post-reform periods. The author critically explores concerns of foreign direct investment, particularly during India's neoliberal phase, while also focusing on the cross-region examination and identifying trends detectable from existing data. The paper provides an overview of the continuing debate regarding the components of Indian growth and the relative significance of government policies.

Keywords: Economy, Growth, India, Neoliberal, Policy, Reforms.

Introduction:

This study is focused on the impact of neoliberal policies and their impact on India. Various researches on this subject have been conducted in recent years; yet, we discover a void in contemporary discussions on Indian economic liberalization and growth. (World Bank, 2003; Ahluwalia, 2002) Other issues, such as intersectoral and inter-regional, and the relevance of the manufacturing sector, which might play a major role in producing jobs in the industrial sector, are not thoroughly studied, and its critical role in employment generation is understated. (The World Bank, 1997; The Economist, 1997; Ahluwalia, 2002) Perceptions, which shape common wisdom, frequently confuse the topic of economic progress in India. This is a misunderstanding that will damage not only our study and knowledge of the past but also our future forecasts.

According to the optimistic view, India would catch up with the industrial societies and G8 countries by 2025. Its economy will grow to become the world's third-largest in terms of national income at purchasing power parity, and poverty will be eradicated. The recent spike in growth, according to proponents of neoliberal policies, lends validity to capital inflows, liberalization, deregulation, and privatization. The neoliberal policy was supposed to

improve commodity exports primarily through increased exposure to international competition, hence enhancing efficiency and restructuring economic activity to increase exports. Despite more than eighteen years of experience, those expectations have yet to be met. We discover, first and foremost, that such viewpoints raise various concerns due to their inaccurate understanding of the reasons for this recent rise. Second, it is based on overly simplified thinking about future prospects.

Neoliberalism's Adoption and Economic Growth:

According to neoliberalism, people are best served by maximum market freedom and little state involvement. The government's responsibility should be limited to building and defending markets. All other functions are better carried out by private enterprise, which is motivated by profit to supply goods and services. Neoliberalism is a set of economic policies that have gained popularity in the last 25 years or so. Powerful financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank have enforced neoliberalism. (Harvey, 2005) At the macroeconomic level, neoliberalism requires a spending-inflating policy package, and India is no exception. India came dangerously near to defaulting on its foreign payment obligations during the 1991 external debt crisis. The fiscal catastrophe was coming, and the balance of payment crisis was escalating. In such circumstances, India implemented neoliberal, also known as "market-friendly," economic policies with the assistance of the IMF and World Bank. The neoliberal market reforms, on the other hand, were not novel. In reaction to the 1980s debt crisis, the World Bank and IMF implemented similar policies in Latin American and Sub-Saharan African countries. India's new policy was a shift from past policy, with a greater reliance on market forces in resource mobilization. Furthermore, the state's involvement in economic development has been significantly diminished. Finally, the economy's degree of openness has greatly expanded. Foreign direct investment and foreign technology have been given a key role in the economy.

Inflows of capital

India must learn from the 1997 East Asian financial crisis and the dangers of a world dominated by fluid finance. This history teaches us that if the government chooses to liberalize its financial rules in order to attract financial investors to its markets, the country would be prone to boom-bust cycles, which will have a negative influence on economic stability. Despite a high degree of concentration of flows to developing countries, meaning substantial exposure to a few nations, there has been a recent increase in developing country exposure. When an economy is enjoying an upturn, risk assessments may understate the risk when investments are booming and overestimate the risk when markets turn downhill.

Foreign investment is likely to increase significantly as a result of liberalisation. What we discovered in India following liberalisation was that the majority of the "hot money" was interested in speculation. Rather than a 'globalisation of production,' we have seen a 'globalisation of finance.' Under these conditions, economic stagnation rather than rapid industrial growth may be envisaged.

The desire of developing countries to seek FDI leads them to open up to international capital flows. As a result, they are at the mercy of international finance's 'hot money finances.' If finance may flow in and out as it pleases, the country must make every effort to remain appealing and 'trustworthy.' To remain competitive, the government must offer higher

interest rates to compensate for relative disadvantages and low tax rates, as higher tax rates may deter capital.

India's Neoliberal Reforms and Democracy

The discussion over neoliberal reforms has primarily centered on recent changes in economic policy. State and governance reforms, which have also been implemented, have been considered as providing the necessary backup for economic reforms. However, the restructuring of the state has its own significance. It is an attempt to incorporate market rationality into the structure and operation of the state. Furthermore, the ramifications of political reforms for India's democracy must be investigated. Because not only democratic institutions but also the humanist principles that inspired the social democratic state are now being reinterpreted in accordance with the neoliberal political agenda, a critical evaluation of the process is required.

Economic Reforms in India

Economic Reforms in India are included in the ESI (Economic & Social Issues) component of the RBI Grade B Phase II exam. Industrial and labor policy, monetary and fiscal policy, privatization, and the role of economic planning are all covered.

Economic reforms in India relate to the neoliberal policies implemented by the Narsimha-Rao government in 1991 when India was experiencing a serious economic crisis as a result of external debt. This crisis occurred largely as a result of incompetence in economic management during the 1980s. The earnings generated by the government were insufficient to cover the expenses. As a result, it was forced to borrow heavily from international banks in order to repay the loan. As a result, they found themselves in a debt trap.

To resolve the issue, India sought the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) for a loan and received \$7 billion. As a result, these international organizations anticipated India to remove the tight restrictions that had previously existed in order to open its door to commerce with other countries. As a result, India embraced the LPG (Liberalization, Privatization, and Globalization) reforms as part of the Economic Reforms. Let's take a look at each of them individually:

Liberalization: The idea behind liberalization was that any regulations or restrictions on free trade needed to loosen up in order for trade to take place. It allowed for the opening of economic frontiers to international investors and multinational corporations (MNCs). Liberalization brought about a number of economic reforms, including increased production capacity, de-servicing of producing areas, the abolition of government-issued industrial licensing, and the freedom to import commodities.

Privatization: Privatization refers to giving the private sector more possibilities to regulate various services while limiting the role of the public sector (government-owned firms) in them. FDI (Foreign Direct Investment) was introduced in India with privatization, providing healthy competition for Indian goods and services.

Globalization: Globalization refers to the integration of the Indian economy with the global economy in the context of economic reforms. It signifies that India's economy will henceforth be dependent on the global economy and vice versa. It promotes FDI and foreign trade with many countries.

Industrial and Labor Policy, Monetary and Fiscal Policy, Labor Law, and the Role of Economic Planning are some of the other topics covered in the RBI Grade B Exam under Economic Reforms in India. Let's take a quick look at them:

Policy on Industry:

A country's industrial policy, frequently symbolized as IP, is its official strategic endeavor to foster the development and growth of all or portion of the economy, often focusing on all or part of the manufacturing sector.

Labor Regulations:

The word Labour Law refers to the body of laws that govern employment and non-employment, wages, working conditions, industrial relations, social security, and labor welfare for those who work in the industrial sector. Labor is critical to increasing productivity, and management must assist in creating conditions in which workers can contribute the most to this goal.

Fiscal Policy:

Monetary policy is the process by which a country's monetary authority, typically the central bank or currency board, controls either the cost of very short-term borrowing or the money supply, often aiming for an inflation rate or interest rate to ensure price stability and general trust in the currency.

Budgetary Policy:

Fiscal policy is the use of government revenue collection and expenditure to monitor and impact a country's economy in economics and political science. It arose in the aftermath of the Great Depression when the laissez-faire approach to economic management was abandoned and government intervention became the primary means of affecting macroeconomic variables.

Economic Strategy:

In contrast to the market process, economic planning is a technique for allocating resources between and within organizations. Economic planning, as a socialist allocation mechanism, substitutes factor markets with a direct allocation of resources within a single or interconnected network of socially owned businesses.

Conclusion:

Some claims about neoliberal reforms, growth, and poverty in India have been challenged in this article. Contrary to popular belief, India's growth acceleration occurred in the early 1980s rather than the early 1990s, as portrayed by international financial institutions and the media. We discovered that the turnaround growth occurred in the early 1980s rather than the early 1990s, as portrayed by international financial institutions and the media. In 1991, India implemented neoliberal economic reforms. However, India's growth acceleration appears to have started earlier, in the 1980s, refuting the theory that "more openness increases economic growth.

Growth rates have been faster in the post-independence period than in the pre-colonial period. A notable British economist, Maddison (1995), calculated the growth rates during the colonial period. If the Indian economy had continued to expand at considerably lower rates, he claims, national income would have doubled in 87 years, while per capita income would have doubled in 1750 years. However, post-independence India's GDP growth experience was different; from 1950 to 1980, GDP multiplied by 2.86, whereas GDP per capita increased by 1.5. During this time, the population of the United States grew at a rate of more than 2%

every year. Of course, growth was impressive when compared to the colonial period's near-stagnation. Growth, on the other hand, is insufficient to elevate a huge number of people out of poverty.

In the post-reform period, the Indian economy experienced rapid expansion. GDP growth rates have been around 8% per year on average during the last 15 years. Despite this, India's most populous states, mainly the Hindi-speaking region of north and central India, remain the least economically developed region of the country. According to available estimates, more than one-third of the Indian population lives in subhuman poverty. According to a recent assessment, over 42 percent of India's population is completely impoverished by international standards. Nearly half of all children are malnourished, and food insecurity in rural regions has not improved. That is required to improve.

Acknowledgment:

THE AUTHORS ARE THANKFUL TO ALL THE FRIENDS AND FACULTY MEMBERS OF VIVEKANAND COLLEGE KOLHAPUR FOR MOTIVATING US TO WRITE THIS PAPER. ALL THE REFERENCES USED IN THIS PAPER ARE HEREBY ACKNOWLEDGED.

References:

1. <http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/id/eprint/3599/>
2. <http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/id/eprint/3599/2/%233599.pdf>
3. <https://www.epw.in/journal/2007/31/perspectives/neoliberal-reforms-and-democracy-india.html>
4. <https://www.careerlauncher.com/rbi-grade-b/economic-reforms-in-india/>
5. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/301337996_Globalization_and_Neoliberal_Economic_Reforms_in_India_A_Critical_Review
6. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neoliberalism>
7. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_liberalisation_in_India
8. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Globalization>
9. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economic_development_in_India
10. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economy_of_India
11. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Privatization>

Impact of Neo-liberalization on Indian Agriculture

1. Dr. Amol G Sonwale

Assistant Professor & HOD
Department of Commerce,
P.D.V.P.College, Tasgaon,
Tal- Tasgaon, Dist- Sangli

Dr. Bandu J. Kadam

Assistant Professor,
Department of Economics,
P.D.V.P.College, Tasgaon,
Tal- Tasgaon, Dist- Sangli

Abstract:

Food security has been one of India's core policy objectives for several decades. India's strategy was initially based on a productivity approach, following the 1960 Green Revolution. This meant that food insecurity was understood as a problem of food insufficiency, and consequently, food security could only be achieved by increasing food production. The productivity approach was critiqued by Sen and Dreze in seminal works, such as Sen's 'Poverty and Famines' and Sen's and Dreze's 'Hunger and Public Action'. These proved that food sufficiency and hunger could coexist, and food insecurity was a problem of lack of access to food, rather than one of inadequate production. This lack of access to food, rather than its inadequacy, was the chief cause of food insecurity. India's adoption of a rights-based approach to combat food insecurity is based on such access-oriented logic, wherein an entitlement to food, or in other words, a legal right to access food, is recognized as justiciable against the state.

Key-words: Indian Agricultural, Right-to-food, Economic policy

Introduction:

In India, the efforts of the Right to Food Campaign, a network of organizations and individuals, led to the Supreme Court's recognition of the 'right to food' in 2003. This later culminated in the enactment of the National Food Security Act, 2013 ('the NFSA'), also known as the Right to Food Act. The extent of entitlement to food within this framework is limited. An entitlement to food can be satisfied by either direct access to food, wherein one grows or collects foods, or economic access to buy food from markets. The NFSA only covers the latter, by guaranteeing subsidized foods through India's Public Distribution System ('the PDS'). It does not engage with the question of direct access, that is, food security through farming itself. The present research paper focus impact of neo-liberal on Indian Agricultural

Objectives of study:

- To study of concept of Neo-liberal
- To study of impact of neo-liberal on Indian Agriculture.

Research Methodology:

The study is mainly based on secondary data. Secondary data have collected from the official records of concerned reference books, journals internet and newspapers.

Concept of Neo-liberal:

Neoliberalism is contemporarily used to refer to market-oriented reform policies such as "eliminating price controls, deregulating capital markets, lowering trade barriers" and reducing, especially through privatization and austerity, state influence in the economy.

Neoliberalism is the economic policy approach currently embraced by the EU. Neoliberalism is the new economic policy approach in liberal systems of modern capitalist societies, which has replaced the previous approach of embedded liberalism (Harvey, 2005).

Neoliberalism as "An approach to economic and social studies in which control of economic factors is shifted from the public sector to the private sector. Drawing upon principles of neoclassical economics, neoliberalism suggests that governments reduce deficit spending, limit subsidies, reform tax law to broaden the tax base, remove fixed exchange rates, open up markets to trade by limiting protectionism, privatize state-run businesses, allow private property and back deregulation."

Neoliberal Shift in Indian Agriculture

India's agrarian communities have been under myriad threats, such as mining, development projects, and industries. However, a renewed neoliberal drive within the agricultural sector has been underway for the past 5 years. This has accelerated the already ensuing process of corporatization and depeasantization. Many have welcomed some of these reforms, calling it the '1991 liberalization moment for agriculture'. This goes to show that agriculture is undoubtedly going through many changes that are intended to encourage corporate and private enterprises to operate within the agricultural space.

FCI Restructuring:

Shortly after the BJP government assumed power in 2014, the government created a High-Level Committee for restructuring the Food Corporation of India ('the FCI'), which is responsible for the procurement, storage, and distribution of food grains in India. It is this body that administers the NFSA. The recommendations of the High-Level Committee included the outsourcing of procurement and storage of food grains to private companies such that the creation of a market could reduce state expenditure. This is not unsurprising, firstly, because the FCI had been under a lot of criticism even prior to 2014. Secondly, the passing of the NFSA itself raised many questions about whether the FCI could effectively administer such a massive food security programme. Thirdly, the government has accepted most of the Committee's recommendations, including the suggestion to allow for more private party involvement.

Agricultural Marketing Changes:

Beyond the FCI, the 2019 Seed Bill for greater regulation of seeds was met with opposition by farmers on the ground that the Bill would allow more corporates to make inroads into the seed market, thereby diminishing the seed commons and peasant seeds. Another example is the Agricultural Produce Market Committee ('APMC') that controls agricultural marketing in India. It has undergone many changes since 2014, courtesy the digitisation drive through e-National Agricultural Market ('the e-NAM'). The e-NAM, as a replacement for government purchases of food grains at the APMC yards or *mandis*

(markets), ushers in private participation in a system that has historically been strictly controlled to protect small farmers against private buyers. The APMC Acts started undergoing a process of dismantling since 2015, culminating most recently in the Farm Acts of September 2020.

The Farm Acts of 2020 have brought about major reforms in agricultural marketing and storage, and have received widespread opposition from Indian farmers. These Acts were first passed in the form of ordinances in June 2020, while the country was coping with the COVID-19 pandemic. The Farmers' Produce Trade and Commerce (Promotion and Facilitation) Act, 2020 and The Farmers (Empowerment and Protection) Agreement on Price Assurance and Farm Services Act, 2020, allow farmers to sell their produce privately (outside APMC *mandis*), and across states directly without paying a state tax or fee, and facilitate contract farming. The Essential Commodities (Amendment) Bill, 2020 deregulates the production, storage, and sale of several commodities including food grains, pulses, and some oils. The government believes this will boost private investment in agriculture and rural infrastructure. The benefits will thereby be more competitive pricing and increased choices among farmers.

Farmers, on the other hand, are opposing these Acts as they suspect that they will increase corporate control, thereby rendering small farmers at the mercy of large businesses. Much of the debate around these Acts has revolved around the Minimum Support Price ('the MSP'), which is guaranteed by the government for listed farm produce. After these Acts come into force, there is no legislative guarantee that the MSP will still be provided by the government. Much like the FCI, the functioning of the APMC *mandis* and the provision of MSP to farmers are far from perfect. They are riddled with problems, yet these recent reforms are quintessential of this government's leaning towards greater privatization and financialization of agriculture.

The passing of the Farm Acts has been met by historic farmers' protests across the country, especially at the Sindhu border of New Delhi. Notwithstanding the technicalities of the Acts themselves, the protests have captured the attention of the nation and have brought to the fore farmers' issues and voices like never before. While arguing against the Acts, farmers have raised their concerns against corporate agriculture, the moving out of the state from agricultural marketing and regulation, and the diminution of farmers' control over food systems.

Neo-liberalization Reducing Farmers' Direct Access to Food:

The effect of neo-liberalization on farmers' right to food can only be analyzed if one takes a step back to understand the broader agricultural context within which this right is embedded. As stated above, India's most food insecure people are those who work on farms. This is because of a prevailing environment of severe rural and agrarian distress across most parts of India. Deep-rooted issues of farmer indebtedness and low profitability plague the agricultural sector, and the rural economy at large. In November 2018, thousands of farmers marched to New Delhi to protest. This was preceded by many protests in other cities, such as the 'Long March' of 12 March 2018 in Mumbai, the 2017 *dharna* (non-violent sit-in protest) of Tamil farmers in Delhi, and the protests met with police violence leading to the death of 5

farmers in Mandasur, Madhya Pradesh. These protests, which sought government intervention in the ongoing distress, demonstrate the seriousness of agrarian and rural issues.

Low profitability in agriculture has meant that farmers cannot purchase sufficient quantities of nutritious food. The NFSA has therefore stepped in to provide food to those who lack economic access to it. However, India's current neoliberal shift in agriculture will, on the one hand, 'crowd out' many small and marginal farmers, and on the other hand will diminish the choices available to the remaining farmers to grow a wide variety of crops. Reddy and Mishra further point out that the penetration and growth of capitalist relations in agriculture will reduce small farmers' bargaining power. Walker argues that neoliberalism will usher in predatory growth and shape markets to only respond to the demands of urban India. Singh and others have shown how past neoliberal policies, in sectors allied to agriculture have, in fact, precipitated the prevailing agrarian crisis.

Respecting Farmers' Food Sovereignty:

The background context of agrarian distress, coupled with the current wave of reforms, has dire consequences on the right to food of farmers. Farmers, who are beneficiaries under the NFSA, may qualify as 'food secure', as they are recipients of free or subsidized food. Yet, reforms that will slowly force them out of farming, or end up rearranging rural power dynamics against the interests of the agricultural peasantry, will disempower farmers such that they can never be 'food sovereign'. Food sovereignty is a concept developed by La Via Campesina (a grassroots movement comprising farmers' organizations from all over the world) as an alternative to neoliberal agricultural policies. The concept was discussed internationally during the World Food Summit in 1996 and has become a major issue of the international agricultural debate since then. At its core, food sovereignty is the right of peoples to define their own agricultural and food policy. It includes, among many different aspects- prioritizing local agricultural production in order to feed the people; access of peasants and landless people to land, water, seeds, and credit; the right of farmers and peasants to produce their own food; and, the right of people to take part in agricultural policy choices such as the right of countries to reject genetically modified organisms ('GMO's) and guard against low-priced agricultural imports.

Food sovereignty's critique of a rights-based framing of food security provides useful insights into the Indian scenario. A right to food framing ignores power asymmetries that are inherent among those who produce, distribute, and consume food. As mentioned above, one's right to food can be satisfied either through direct access to food or through economic access. Agarwal likewise argues that the right to food entails "an inherent conflict" between consumers' right to "decide what they want to eat, and how and by whom it is produced" and rights of smallholder producers to decide what they want to grow. Consumers may as well prefer the low cost of imported foods, or GMOs, which would constitute an exercise of their right to food. Therefore, the normative construction of this right betrays smallholder farmer or agricultural peasants, by failing to integrate their special positions within the rights narrative.

The conflation of farmers with all other holders of the right to food, firstly, reduces the conception of agriculture to a mere occupation, rather than *the* source of food; and secondly, that farmers, much like many other consumers, need only have economic agency

(which could be satisfied by farming or any alternative income sources) to realize their right to food. In India, a slew of agricultural policies that disproportionately benefit large farmers and encourage agribusinesses over subsistence farming have hastened farmers' exit from farming into waged labour. Farmers have hence not been able to preserve farm households and farming in a way they would wish to. The consistent mention of small farm sizes and fragmented landholdings as the 'major cause of inefficiency' is to say, in other words, that by reducing the number of farmers, India could solve the development problem in agriculture. Collier has argued that small farmers are idealized and romanticized unnecessarily. He states that peasant farmers would happily trade their position for a low-wage factory job, as the latter is economically more attractive.

Such an argument shows precisely why there is a need to place the rights of farmers at a higher pedestal than a general right to food. The connection farmers have with food security has been obscured by the right to food being understood only as an economic entitlement. There is a need to push the narrative to secure a direct production entitlement for small and marginal farmers. Food sovereignty advocates, while citing the inadequacies of the food security discourse, have shown how local small-scale food systems are sustainable, nourishing, and empowering for farmers. India's neoliberal reforms encourage large-scale industrial farming controlled by corporations. Such a trend will undermine numerous local food systems and may exacerbate, or even create, problems such as high food prices, farmer impoverishment, biodiversity loss, and reduced climate change resilience. The corporatization of agriculture will see corporations racing to control other components of the food systems such as water, seeds, land and markets. India's rights-based food security regime does not reflect food sovereignty principles. A neoliberal shift will render a vast majority of farmers unable to develop localized food systems or exercise control over such systems by growing food that is healthy, culturally appropriate, and environmentally sustainable.

Farmers' *A Priori* Right to Food:

There is a need to imagine a special status for farmers in food security and right to food discourses. Thompson, while evaluating the *a priori* standing of farmers over the right to food, says that the attractions towards being part of the wage labour workforce are higher in cultures where farming is viewed with little or no social prestige, compared to cultures where small farmers are venerated as resourceful and self-reliant. The negative image associated with farming and rural life generally constructs city life as a step up in the social ladder. In a country, where the switch from farming to waged labour (either in the city or elsewhere) is not a free choice, food security through farming, fishing, food collection, and other types of food production needs to be envisioned beyond mere economic agency.

In India, there is a history of venerating farmers as food providers, as well as a rich history of peasantries and subaltern conflict. Several farmers' movements, mobilizations, and recent protests resonate many of these ideas. It is social movements that shape and reshape human rights. The right to food needs to be reinterpreted in favour of the special position farmers hold in food systems. Neo-liberalization within food and agriculture diminishes the choices available to farmers, thereby undermining their direct food entitlements. Resultantly, farmers are relegated to a dependency on either economic entitlements or on the state.

Linkages between food security and agricultural policymaking need to be strengthened, such that more instances of farmer-led actions towards hunger eradication and malnutrition can emerge. This can lead to the realization of the right to food for all.

Conclusion

This article has argued that India's right-to-food-based food security framework does not sufficiently address the special status of farmers. On the one hand, farmers and those associated with agriculture are the most vulnerable sections from a food security perspective. On the other hand, the only way India's food security architecture devises a solution for this depravity is by distributing free/subsidized food. While food distribution is a vital piece of state support in combating hunger, the deeper issue of why farmers are unable to directly feed themselves remains unanswered. The recent neoliberal shift in agriculture will only aggravate the ongoing malaise by pushing more farmers away from farming, and reshaping India's food systems away from localized, small-scale, and sustainable systems. Such a change will undermine the right to food of farmers, who ought to enjoy an *a priori* right to food that is not merely reduced to an economic entitlement to food. The current conception of the right to food does not incorporate principles of food sovereignty and as such, farmers' legally recognized rights never quite become rights.

References:

1. Atul Kohli, Politics of Economic Growth in India, (1980–2005). Economic and Political Weekly, Part I, April 1, 2006, pp. 1251–1259 and Part II, April 8, 2006, pp. 1361–1369.
2. Barry Bosworth and Susan Collins, Accounting for Growth: Comparing India and China, NBER Working Paper No. 12943, Cambridge, Mass., 2007.
3. Kumar, D. and Desai, M. (Eds.) (1983). The Cambridge Economic History of India, Vol. 2, pp. 1751–1970: Cambridge University Press, England.
4. Utsa Patnaik, Neo-liberalism and Rural Poverty in India, Economic and Political Weekly, July 28, 2007. 5. Ibid., 2007, pp. 3132.
6. See Baldev Raj Nayar, India's Mixed Economy, Bombay: Popular Prakashan, 1989.
7. For detail see Isher Judge Ahluwalia, Industrial Growth in India: Stagnation since the Mid-Sixties, Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1985.

“भारतीय शेतीचे नियोजनकालीन महत्त्व”

प्रा. परशुराम भागोजी कांबळे (अर्थशास्त्र विभाग)

श्री लहू बाळा परितकर कला, वाणिज्य व विज्ञान
महाविद्यालय पणोरे, ता. पन्हाळा, जि. कोल्हापूर.

प्रस्तावना:

भारतीय शेती हा भारतीयांच्या लोकजीवनाचा मूल आधार आहे. देशातील जास्तीत जास्त लोकांना रोजगार मिळवून देणारे शेती हे एक महत्त्वाचे माध्यम आहे. शेतीमुळे लोकसंख्येचे नैसर्गिकरित्या विकेंद्रीकरण झाले आहे. शेतीमुळेच अन्नसुरक्षा अधिक मजबूत झालेली आहे.

भारतात आर्थिक नियोजनाची सुरुवात होण्यापूर्वी शेती ही अविकसित स्वरूपाची होती. सुधारणेसाठी विशेष असे कोणतेही प्रयत्न झालेले नव्हते. त्यामध्ये अनेक प्रकारचे दोष होते. देशाच्या फाळणीपूर्वीच्या एकूण लोकसंख्येपैकी 82% लोकसंख्या फाळणीनंतर भारताच्या वाट्याला आली तर 69% जमीन वाट्याला आली. आणि गव्हाच्या पिकाखाली असलेल्या एकूण जमिनीपैकी फक्त 65% जमीनच भारताकडे राहिली. यामुळे अन्नधान्याचा तुटवडा निर्माण झाला. म्हणूनच पहिल्या पंचवार्षिक योजनेत शेती सुधारणेवर भर देण्यात आला.

स्वातंत्र्य प्राप्तीनंतर शेती ही पारंपारिक पद्धतीने केली जात होती. त्यामुळे उत्पादकता फारच कमी होती. त्याचबरोबर बऱ्याच अंशी शेती ही पावसावर अवलंबून होती. यामध्ये सुधारणेची गरज भासली. कारण वाढत्या लोकसंख्येची अन्नाची गरज भागविण्यासाठी नवीन तंत्रज्ञानाचा वापर शेतीत करणे गरजेचे झाले आणि त्याप्रमाणे वापरही होवू लागला.

भारतीय शेती हा भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेचा कणाच आहे असे म्हंटले जाते आणि ते बरोबरच आहे. आणि म्हणूनच शेतीमध्ये तांत्रिक पद्धतीचा वापर करून सुधारणा करण्याची गरज आहे. ती पूर्ण करण्यासाठी भारतात 1951 मध्ये पंचवार्षिक योजनेला सुरुवात केली.

उद्दिष्टे:

1. भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेतील शेतीचे महत्त्व पहाणे.
2. पंचवार्षिक योजनेअंतर्गत शेती उत्पादनाचा तुलनात्मक अभ्यास करणे.
3. शेतीद्वारे पुरविल्या जाणाऱ्या रोजगाराची माहिती घेणे.
4. आंतरराष्ट्रीय व्यापारात शेतीचे स्थान पहाणे.

संशोधन पद्धती :

हा शोधनिबंध प्रामुख्याने दुय्यम सामुग्रीवर आधारित आहे. या शोधनिबंधासाठी संदर्भिय पुस्तके, मासिके, संशोधन लेखांचा आणि इंटरनेटचा संदर्भ साहित्य म्हणून वापर केलेला आहे.

जगात प्रत्येक देशाच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेमध्ये शेतीला अत्यंत महत्त्वाचे स्थान आहे. देशाची

अर्थव्यवस्था कृषीप्रधान किंवा उद्योगप्रधान असो प्रत्येक देशाच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेत शेती क्षेत्र महत्त्वाचे मानले जाते. मानवाच्या दैनंदिन गरजा भागविण्याची म्हणजे मानवाला जगविण्याची जबाबदारी शेतीमार्फतच सांभाळली जाते. इतकेच नव्हे तर बरेच उद्योग शेतीवरच अवलंबून आहेत. त्यासाठी लागणारा कच्चा माल शेतीमधूनच पुरविला जातो. म्हणजेच एका बाजूला जीवनावश्यक वस्तुंचा पुरवठा करणे तर दुसऱ्या बाजूला औद्योगिकीकरणाला चालना देणे अशी दुहेरी भूमिका शेती पार पाडीत असल्याचे दिसून येते. त्यामुळेच विकसित आणि विकसनशील देशांच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेतही शेतीचे महत्त्व अनन्यसाधारण आहे.

कृषीक्षेत्र आणि योजना आयोग:

भारतीय राष्ट्रीय काँग्रेसने नियोजनाचे महत्त्व ओळखून 1938 साली, पंडीत जवाहरलाल नेहरू यांच्या पुढाकाराने राष्ट्रीय नियोजन समितीची स्थापना करण्यात आली. या समितीने अनेक विषयांची अभ्यास केला आणि त्यावर अभ्यासपूर्ण ग्रंथ प्रसिद्ध केले. त्यामध्ये देशातील प्रमुख उद्योग आणि मक्तेदारी असलेले उद्योग सरकारच्या नियंत्रणाखाली असावेत असे सुचविले होते आणि ते सत्य आहे.

नियोजन काळातील शेतीचे लक्ष:

शेतीचा विकास हा अपरिहार्य आहे. तो विकास अपेक्षेप्रमाणे घडवून आणण्यासाठी काही उद्दिष्टे निश्चित केली आहेत.

1. कृषी उत्पादनात वाढ करणे

शेतीतील प्रतिहेक्टर उत्पादनात वाढ करणे हे मुख्य उद्दिष्ट आहे त्याचबरोबर शेती संबंधित असणाऱ्या छोट्या-छोट्या उद्योगामध्ये सातत्याने वाढ झाली पाहिजे याकडे विशेष लक्ष देण्याचे ठरविण्यात आले.

2. रोजगारात वाढ करणे

भारत हा शेतीप्रधान देश आहे. शेतीमध्ये काम करणाऱ्यांची संख्याही मोठी आहे. यामध्ये प्रामुख्याने गरीब असलेले लोक समाविष्ट आहेत. शेतीमधील उपलब्ध असणाऱ्या रोजगारावरच त्यांचा उदरनिर्वाह चालत आहे. प्रत्येक खेडेगावातील अशा मजुरांच्या एकूण उत्पन्नात वाढ करण्याचे निश्चित केले गेले.

3. कृषी मजुरांची संख्या कमी करणे

आज भारतात जवळजवळ 70% लोक शेतीवर अवलंबून आहेत. शेतीवर काम करणाऱ्या लोकांची संख्या इतकी वाढली आहे की ती अतिरिक्त झाली आहे. ही अतिरिक्त लोकसंख्या इतर क्षेत्राकडे वळवण्याचे निश्चित केले.

4. ग्रामीण लोकांच्या उत्पन्नातील विषमता कमी करणे

देशात भूमीहिन लोकांची संख्याही मोठी आहे. या लोकांना अतिरिक्त ठरविण्यात आलेल्या जमीनीतील काही जमीन वितरित करून समानता आणण्यासाठी धोरणात्मक निर्णय घेणे. हे चारही उद्देश सर्व योजनाची अंमलबजावणी करताना विचारात घेतले. परंतु यश प्राप्त झाले नाही तर केवळ उपेक्षाच झाली.

कोष्टक क्र. 1

कृषी क्षेत्रावरील सरकारचा खर्च

(आकडे कोटी रू.)

| योजना | कालखंड | एकूण खर्च | शेकडा प्रमाण |
|--------|---------|-----------|--------------|
| पहिली | 1951-56 | 1960 | 31 |
| दुसरी | 1956-61 | 4670 | 20 |
| तिसरी | 1961-66 | 8580 | 21 |
| चौथी | 1969-74 | 15800 | 24 |
| पाचवी | 1974-79 | 39430 | 22 |
| सहावी | 1980-85 | 109300 | 24 |
| सातवी | 1985-90 | 218730 | 23 |
| आठवी | 1992-97 | 475480 | 21 |
| नववी | 1997-02 | 817000 | 20 |
| दहावी | 2002-07 | 1525640 | 20 |
| अकरावी | 2007-12 | 3676936 | 19.7 |

वरील कोष्टक क्र. 1 मध्ये एक ते अकराव्या पंचवार्षिक योजनांचा शेतीवरील एकूण खर्च आणि शेकडा प्रमाण दर्शविले आहे. त्याचा तुलनात्मकदृष्ट्या अभ्यास केल्यास असे स्पष्ट दिसून येते की, पहिल्या ते पाचव्या योजनेमध्ये खर्च प्रत्येकवेळी जवळजवळ दुप्पट होत गेला असल्याचे दिसून येते. परंतु पाचव्या आणि सहाव्या योजनेतील खर्चातील वाढ ही तिप्पट झाली आहे आणि त्याप्रमाणे तो खर्च पुढे दुप्पट होत गेला आहे. खर्चाची टक्केवारी पाहिली तर पहिल्या योजनेत खर्च 10 टक्क्यांनी कमी झाल्याचे दिसते. तो खर्च वाढणे गरजेचे वाटते. त्यामुळे अन्नधान्याच्या उत्पादनात वाढ होवून वाढत्या लोकसंख्येची अन्नधान्याची समस्या दूर होवू शकेल.

कोष्टक क्र. 2
योजनेअंतर्गत कृषी उत्पादन

(लाख टन)

| योजना | अन्नधान्य | | तेलबिया | | ऊस | | कापूस | | ताग | |
|--------|-----------|------|---------|-----|------|------|-------|-----|-----|-----|
| | ल. | व. | ह. | वा. | ल. | वा. | ल. | वा. | ल. | वा. |
| पहिली | 620 | 670 | 55 | 56 | 630 | 600 | 42 | 40 | 54 | 42 |
| दुसरी | 810 | 800 | 76 | 65 | 780 | 1040 | 65 | 54 | 65 | 40 |
| तिसरी | 1000 | 720 | 98 | 64 | 1000 | 1270 | 70 | 46 | 62 | 45 |
| चौथी | 1290 | 1040 | 105 | 87 | 1500 | 1400 | 80 | 58 | 74 | 62 |
| पाचवी | 1250 | 1320 | 120 | 89 | 1650 | 1650 | 80 | 71 | 77 | 71 |
| सहावी | 1540 | 1460 | 111 | 130 | 2150 | 1700 | 92 | 85 | 91 | 78 |
| सातवी | 1800 | 1710 | 180 | 170 | 2170 | 2100 | 95 | 105 | 95 | 79 |
| आठवी | 2100 | 1990 | 230 | 250 | 2750 | 2770 | 140 | 143 | 95 | 110 |
| नववी | 2340 | 2110 | 300 | 207 | 3360 | 3000 | 157 | 101 | - | 116 |
| दहावी | 2340 | 2160 | 300 | 240 | 3360 | 3450 | 160 | 230 | - | 110 |
| अकरावी | - | 2574 | - | 300 | 3577 | - | 350 | - | 116 | - |

वरील कोष्टक क्र.2 मध्ये पहिल्या ते अकराव्या पंचवार्षिक योजनेअंतर्गत अन्नधान्य, तेलबिया, ऊस, कापूस, ताग यांची उद्दिष्टे आणि प्रत्यक्षात झालेल्या उत्पादनाची तुलनात्मक माहिती दिलेली आहे. याचा सुक्ष्म अभ्यास केला तर असे दिसून येते की, अन्नधान्याचा विचार केला तर पहिल्या पंचवार्षिक योजनेत अन्नधान्यावर लक्ष केंद्रीत केले आणि उत्पादनाचे लक्ष गाठण्यात यश प्राप्त झाले. मात्र कापूस आणि ताग यांचे लक्ष गाठता आले नाही. अकराव्या योजनेपर्यंत तुलनात्मक दृष्टीकोनातून आणि चिकित्सकरित्या विचार केला तर जवळजवळ सर्वच बाबींच्या उत्पादनाचे लक्ष गाठता आले नाही. परंतु दहावी योजना विचारात घेतली तर ऊस, कापूस यांच्या उत्पादनाचे अपेक्षेपेक्षा अधिक उत्पादन झाल्याचे दिसते. परंतु अन्नधान्य, तेलबिया यांचे उत्पादन अपेक्षेपेक्षा कमी झाले आहे. असे असले तरी भारताच्या लोकसंख्येला पुरून ते उरले आहे. बऱ्याचवेळा अन्नधान्याचे नुकसान सुद्धा झाले आहे. एकंदरीत पंचवार्षिक योजनेच्या अंमलबजावणीमुळेच आपण प्रत्येक क्षेत्रात यश मिळवू लागलो आहे हे सिद्ध झाले आहे. म्हणूनच आपल्याला असे म्हणावे लागेल की उत्पादनासाठी पंचवार्षिक योजना ही एक वरदानच ठरली आहे.

देशाची अर्थव्यवस्था आणि शेती

शेती हा देशातील सर्वात मोठा उद्योग आज मानला जात आहे. कारण जवळ जवळ 65%

लोक आजही शेतीवर अवलंबून आहे. त्यांचे ते जगण्याचे साधनच आहे. म्हणूनच भारताच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेत शेतीला महत्त्वाचे स्थान आहे. 1951 ते 1971 च्या काळात एकूण उत्पन्नात 50% पेक्षा जास्त हिस्सा शेतीचा होतो. परंतु त्यानंतरच्या काळात तो हिस्सा कमी कमी होत गेला. औद्योगिक आणि इतर क्षेत्राच्या उत्पन्नाच्या वाढीचा तो परिणाम दिसतो. सर्वसाधारणपणे जागतिक पातळीवर विचार केला तर असे दिसून येते की, जे देश मागासलेले आहेत. त्यांचा राष्ट्रीय उत्पन्नातील शेतीचा हिस्सा जास्त आहे तर जे देश विकसित आहेत त्यांचा शेतीचा हिस्सा कमी आहे. रोजगाराचा विचार केला तर 1951 मध्ये 70% लोक शेतामध्ये काम करत होते 2012-13 या वर्षी 54.77% लोकांना शेतीमध्ये रोजगार मिळतो आहे. म्हणजेच शेतीशिवाय इतर क्षेत्र देखील आज रोजगार उपलब्ध करून देत आहेत. याबरोबरच औद्योगिक क्षेत्रात कड्या मालाचा पुरवठा शेती क्षेत्राकडून मोठ्या प्रमाणात केला जात आहे. आंतरराष्ट्रीय व्यापारात देखील चहा, तंबाखू, साखर, मसाले इ. शेतीजन्य उत्पादन निर्माण केले जात आहे. त्यामुळे शेती क्षेत्र अत्यंत महत्त्वाची भूमिका बजावत आहे.

निष्कर्ष :

1. प्रत्येक पंचवार्षिक योजनेत शेती क्षेत्रासाठी गरजेप्रमाणे तरतूद केली पाहिजे.
2. भारतीय शेती व्यवसायिक दृष्टीकोनातून केली जात आहे. ही बाब अत्यंत महत्त्वाची आहे.
3. शेतीची उत्पादकता वाढविण्यासाठी प्रयत्न करणे गरजेचे आहे. यासंबंधी शेतकऱ्यांच्यामध्ये जागृती निर्माण होणे गरजेचे आहे.
4. अन्नधान्याच्या साठवणूकीसाठी पाहिजे तेवढ्या प्रमाणात गुदामे आजही उपलब्ध नाहीत.
5. साठविलेल्या अन्नधान्याच्या सुरक्षिततेसंबंधी योग्य ती खबरदारी घेण्याची गरज आहे.
6. शेतांची उत्पादकता वाढविताना खते किटकनाशके, तणनाशके यांचा अतिरिक्त वापर होणार नाही याकडे लक्ष दिले पाहिजे.

उपाययोजना:

1. सरकारने शेती सुधार योजना तयार करून प्रत्यक्ष अंमलबजावणी करण्यावर भर देणे गरजेचे आहे.
2. अतिरिक्त जमिनीचे वाटप भूमिहीन शेतमजूरामध्ये करणे गरजेचे आहे.
3. शेतीसाठी दिले जाणारे अनुदान हे लाभार्थीपर्यंत पोहचेल यासाठी प्रयत्न केले पाहिजेत.
4. शेतीची उत्पादकता वाढविण्यासाठी आणि शेतीची आरोग्य सांभाळण्यासाठी शेतकऱ्यांना कार्यशाळेमार्फत मार्गदर्शन केले पाहिजे.
5. दुष्काळी भागात कॅनॉलच्या मार्फत पाणी पुरवठा केला पाहिजे.
6. शेतीपुरक असणार्या पशुपालन, कुक्कुटपालन, मत्स्यपालन, वराहपालन अशा व्यवसायाकडे

शेतकरी आर्थिक प्राप्तीचे स्रोत म्हणून पाहतील यासाठी प्रयत्न झाले पाहिजेत.

7. दुष्काळी प्रदेशात कमी पाणीसाठा उपलब्ध असणाऱ्या प्रदेशात कमी पाण्यावर येणाऱ्या पीकांच्या जाती तयार करण्यावर संशोधन करून त्या उपलब्ध करून दिल्या पाहिजेत आणि फळ बागासाठी विशेष प्रयत्न केले पाहिजेत.

समारोप :

भारतीय शेती हा धंदा किंवा व्यवसाय नसून करोडो लोकांच्या दृष्टीने जगण्याची एक पद्धत आहे. केंद्र सरकार आणि राज्य सरकारांच्या पातळीवर जमीन विषय सुधारणांचे अनेक कायदे करण्यात आले. कसेल त्याची जमीन, खंड नियंत्रण, जमीन धारणा मर्यादा, जमिनीचे एकत्रिकरण व तुकडेबंदी, शेतमालाची खरेदी-विक्री अशा अनेक मार्गांनी शेतीक्षेत्राच्या सुधारणेसाठी प्रयत्न झालेले आहेत. पाणी, विज, खते व औषधे, गरजेप्रमाणे अंशदानाचा वापर करून त्यांचा पुरवठा केला. सिमांत आणि लहान शेतकरी केंद्रस्थानी ठेवून हरितक्रांतीचे पॅकेज देशभर राबविण्यात आले.

त्यामुळे पंचवार्षिक योजनाच देशाला खऱ्या अर्थाने तारक ठरल्या आहेत. दुसऱ्या आणि तिसऱ्या पंचवार्षिक योजनेत सरकारने हरितक्रांती घडवून आणली आणि देशात अन्नधान्याचे उत्पादन अपेक्षेपेक्षा जास्त झाल्याचे दिसून येते. देश अन्नधान्याच्या बाबतीत स्वयंपूर्ण झाला. हे केवळ पंचवार्षिक योजनेचेच योगदान म्हणावे लागेल.

संदर्भ :

1. दत्त सुंदरम्, भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था (हिंदी आवृत्ती), प्रकाशन - एस् चंन्द आणि कंपनी प्रा.लि. नई दिल्ली -2008
2. श्रीधर देशपांडे विनायक देशपांडे, भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था (संक्रमण आणि विकास), हिमालय पब्लिशिंग हाऊस, नागपूर 2004
3. डॉ.स.श्री.मु.देसाई श.शं.जोशी, भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था (भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेचा कासतत्वाभिमुख अभ्यास), ठोकळ प्रकाशन पुणे - 30, 1969
4. अंक सप्टेंबर 2008, प्रबोधन प्रकाशन जोती, संपादक - प्रसाद कुलकर्णी इचलकरंजी
5. स्वातंत्र्यदिन विशेषांक ऑगस्ट 2005, प्रबोधन प्रकाशन जोती, संपादक - प्रसाद कुलकर्णी इचलकरंजी
6. M.L.Jhingan, The Economics of Development and Planning , Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd. Ghaziabad - 1975.

Globalization and Neo-liberal Economic Reforms in India

Dr. V. V. Rai Jadhav

Assistant Professor

Department of Economics

K. H. College, Gargoti

E-mail: madhuridesai30@gmail.com.

Abstract:

Neo-liberalism is related to laissez-faire economics, a school of thought that prescribes a minimal amount of government interference in to the economic issues of individuals and society. Laissez-faire economics proposes that continued economic growth will lead to technological innovation, expansion of the free market, and limited state interference. Neo-liberalism is often associated with the leadership of Margaret Thatcher- U. K. (1979-1990) and Ronald Reagan – U. S. (1981-1989). More recently, neo-liberalism has been associated with policies of austerity and attempts to cut government spending on social programs. (Kenton Will, 2020). Neo-liberalism is capitalism without leftist illusions (i.e. illusions that there can be such a thing as humane capitalism on a long-term basis).

The article makes a series of critical comments on India's neo-liberalism expressed in the form of globalization. The objective of the present study is to analyze the impact of neo-liberal economic reforms in India.

Keywords: Globalization, Neo-liberalism, Economic Reforms in India.

Introduction:

In many parts of the world, neo-liberalism is known by different names. Austerity has become synonymous with neo-liberalism in the aftermath of the 2008 strikes in southern Europe against government budget cuts. Neo-liberalism is related to laissez-faire economics, a school of thought that prescribes a minimal amount of government interference in to the economic issues of individuals and society. Laissez-faire economics proposes that continued economic growth will lead to technological innovation, expansion of the free market, and limited state interference. Neo-liberalism is often associated with the leadership of Margaret Thatcher- U. K. (1979-1990) and Ronald Reagan – U. S. (1981-1989). More recently, neo-liberalism has been associated with policies of austerity and attempts to cut government spending on social programs. (Kenton Will, 2020). Neo-liberalism is capitalism without leftist illusions (i.e. illusions that there can be such a thing as humane capitalism on a long-term basis). Neo-liberalism has different names in different geographical contexts. In the wake of the strikes in southern Europe against cuts in government funding since 2008, austerity is often synonymous with neo-liberalism. In India, on the other hand, neo-liberalism goes by the name of “economic reforms” and the New Economic Policy (NEP). (Das, 2015)

Review of Literature:

The different aspects of neo-liberalism have been covered by several scholars. It is widely discussed in various research publications some of them have been reviewed in this section.

Bhagwati (2001), argues that growth creates employment: it puts money in the hands of the government, which can provide health and other facilities for the poor, and it also provides an incentive to the poor to invest in human capital. Patnaik (2007), observes that

food production and availability per capita is decreasing. This happens partly because land is converted to non-food crops both by big companies and by smaller owners who do not have many alternative ways of earning money and who are therefore attracted to the prospect of making a little cash. This is a grave threat to food security. Patnaik (2010), in his article state that imperialist exploitation is abetted by the states of imperialist countries as well as by India's pliant state, which is increasingly occupied by pro-market ideologues and neo-liberal technocrats and indeed by business people themselves.

Methodology:

The present study attempts to analyze the impact of neo-liberal economic reforms. The data have been collected for the present study through secondary sources. The secondary data have been collected from the published and unpublished sources. The data have been collected through the sources such as, websites, annual reports and statements, books, Journals, Periodicals and reports.

Objectives:

In the light of the issues discussed earlier and the available literature relating to status of neoliberal reforms in India the following specific objectives are framed for the study.

1. To analyze the impact of neo-liberal economic reforms.
2. To presents broad critical remarks about the many aspects of neo-liberalism and globalization.

Criticism of Neo-liberalism:

1. Free market Approach to public services is misguided:

One common criticism of neo-liberalism is that advocating for a free market approach in areas such as health and education is misguided, because these services are public services. They are not subject to the same profit motivation as other industries. More importantly, adopting a free market approach in the areas of health and education can lead to an increase in inequity and the underfunding of resources that are necessary for the long term health and viability of an economy.

2. Monopolies:

The adoption of neoliberal policies in the western world had been concurrent with a rise in inequality in both wealth and income. While skilled workers may be in a position to command higher wages, low-skilled workers are more likely to see stagnant wages. Policies associated with neo-liberalism tend to encourage the profits of corporations as the expense of any benefits to consumers.

3. Increased Financial Instability:

Contrary to what proponents of neo-liberalism typically claim, capital deregulation has not necessarily helped economic development. Rather, capital deregulation has led to an increase in financial instability including wider economic shocks that, at times have sent shockwaves around the world. In fact, an International Monetary Fund (IMF) report into neo-liberalism reveals that an increase in capital flows has been a factor in the increased risk of adverse economic cycles.

4. Inequality:

Neoliberal policies have been proven to increase inequality, and this inequality can hinder the long-term growth prospects of an economy. On one end of the spectrum, those who earn a

low income have limited spending power. At the same time, those who become richer have a higher propensity to save. In this scenario wealth doesn't trickle down in the way that proponents of neo-liberalism claim that it will.

5. Globalization:

Globalization is not *one* process driven by a hegemonic class committed to an extreme form of economic liberalism. Instead, it is more fruitfully conceptualized as “a process (or a set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organization of social relations and transactions” Neo-liberalism has led to the view that reductions in trade barriers and capital controls, elements considered fundamental to the proliferation of economic globalization, constitute evidence for the fact that globalization is primarily driven by neoliberal doctrine (Colás 2005:73; Kotz 2000:76). As Litonjua (2008:254) argues, “globalization is the global spread of the economic system of capitalism. Promoted by the ideology of neo-liberalism, the goal is a wholly deregulated global market society”. However, if more moderate forms of liberalism are the drivers of globalization, it is possible that globalization is not a product of, or movement towards, a completely ‘deregulated’ global economy.

Therborn (2000:163-4) argues that presently, the world is experiencing a sixth wave of globalization which has been facilitated specifically by political developments that include a reduction in economic protectionist measures, lower transportation costs, as well as the rise of new, cheaper, and more easily available Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs) such as the Internet. It is frequently argued that the contemporary era of economic globalization is characterized by increases in international trade relative to world GDP, and the rise of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and Multinational Corporations (MNCs). FDI is the act of buying companies or production facilities in a different country (Cohen 2007:37-8). As such, FDI “is what MNCs *do* to become MNCs”

Finally, neo-liberalism emphasis on economic efficiency has encouraged globalization, which opponents see as depriving sovereign nations of the right to self-determination. Neo-liberalism naysayers also say that its call to replace government owned corporations with private ones can reduce efficiency. While privatization may increase productivity, they assert the improvement may not be sustainable because of the world's limited geographical space. In addition those opposed to neo-liberalism add that it is anti democratic, can lead to exploitation and social justice and may criminalize poverty.

Conclusion:

The goal of neo-liberalism is to shift the balance of power in favor of the capitalist class. Globalization must be considered a separate and autonomous phenomenon from neo-liberalism. The concept of neo-liberalism was expanded to include policies that did not specifically enhance individual liberty and instead was utilized to describe market-based economic policies, it is possible to argue that there has in fact been evidence for a neoliberal transition from the 70s and that this has contributed to increased globalization and the shift towards a completely deregulated global economy and the decline of the welfare state.

References:

1. Ahluwalia, M. 2002. ‘Economic Reforms in India Since 1991: Has Gradualism Worked?’ Journal of Economic Perspectives 16 (7): 67–88.

2. Byres, T., ed. 1997. 'The State, Development Planning & Liberalisation in India.' Delhi: Oxford University Press. Bardhan, P. 2005. "Nature of Opposition to Economic Reforms in India." *Economic and Political Weekly* 40 (48): 4995–4998.
3. Bhagwati, J. 2001. 'Growth, Poverty and Reforms.' *Economic and Political Weekly* 36 (10): 843–846.
4. Cohen, J. N. and Centeno, M. A. (2006), 'Neoliberalism and Patterns of Economic Performace, 1980-2000', *Annals of the American Academy of Political And Social Science*, 606, pp. 32-67
5. Das, R. 2012. 'Reconceptualising Capitalism: Forms of Subsumption of Labor, Class Struggle, and Uneven Development.' *Review of Radical Political Economics* 44 (2): 178–200.
6. Das, R. 2010. 'Critical Observations on Neo-liberalism and India's New Economic Policy.' *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 2015 Vol. 45, No. 4, 715–726, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00472336.2014.1003143>.
7. D'Costa, A. 2005. 'The Long March to Capitalism: Embourgeoisment, International and Industrial Transformation in India'. Houndmills: Palgrave MacMillan.
8. Duménil, G., and D. Lévy. 2005. 'The Neoliberal (Counter-) Revolution.' In *Neoliberalism: A Critical Reader*, edited by A. Saad-Filho and D. Johnston, 9–19. London: Pluto Press.
9. Harvey, D. 2005. 'A Brief History of Neoliberalism.' New York: Oxford University Press.
10. Litonjua, M. D. (2008), 'The Socio-Political Construction of Globalization', *International Review of Modern Sociology*, 34(2), pp. 253-278
11. Levien, M. 2011. 'Special Economic Zones and Accumulation by Dispossession in India.' *Journal of Agrarian Change* 11 (4): 454–483. Marx, K. 1977. *Capital: Volume 1*. New York: Vintage.
12. Naruzzaman, M. 2005. 'Economic Liberalization and Poverty in the Developing Countries.' *Journal of Contemporary Asia* 35 (1): 109–127.
13. Patnaik, U. (2007), *The Republic of Hunger*. Gurgaon, India: Three Essays Collective.
14. Patnaik, P. 2010. 'The State under Neoliberalism.' *MR Zine*, August 10. <http://mrzine.monthlyreview.org/2010/patnaik100810.html>
15. Sengupta, M. 2008. 'How the State changed its Mind: Power, Politics & the Origins of India's Market Reforms.' *Economic & Political Weekly* 43 (21): 35–42.
16. Subramanian, A., ed. 2008. 'India's Turn: Understanding the Economic Transformation.' New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
17. Trotsky, L. 1937. 'Ninety Years of the Communist Manifesto.' *Marxist Internet Archive*. <http://www.marxists.org/archive/trotsky/1937/10/90manifesto.htm> Wood, E. 2003. *The Empire of Capital*. Delhi: Leftward.

Neo-liberalism and India's New Economic Policy Some Critical Thoughts

1. Dr. Mahesh D. Chougule,

Assistant Professor,
Department of Commerce,
Shivraj College, Gadhinglaj

2. Dr. Sagar R. Powar

Head & Assistant Professor,
Department of Commerce,
Karmveer Hire College,
Gargoti

Abstract

Neo-liberalism is related to laissez-faire economics, a school of thought that prescribes a minimal amount of government interference in to the economic issues of individuals and society. Laissez-faire economics proposes that continued economic growth will lead to technological innovation, expansion of the free market, and limited state interference. Neo-liberalism is often associated with the leadership of Margaret Thatcher- U. K. (1979-1990) and Ronald Reagan – U. S. (1981-1989). More recently, neo-liberalism has been associated with policies of austerity and attempts to cut government spending on social programs. (Kenton Will, 2020). Neo-liberalism is capitalism without leftist illusions (i.e. illusions that there can be such a thing as humane capitalism on a long-term basis).

The article makes a series of critical comments on India's neo-liberalism expressed in the form of the so-called New Economic Policy. It argues, New Economic Policy is more than a governmental policy. It is rather a policy of capital, mediated and implemented by the state. Neo-liberalism is a social-spatial project. Neo-liberalism in rural areas (agrarian neo-liberalism) is particularly ruthless. The objective of the present study is to analyze the impact of neo-liberal economic reforms also known as *pro-market* reforms in India. The article provides a number of critical observations about India's neo-liberalism, as embodied in the so-called New Economic Policy. New Economic Policy, it claims, is more than a government policy. It is, instead, a capitalist agenda mediated and implemented by the state.

Keywords: NEP, Neo-liberalism, India.

Introduction:

Neo-liberalism is related to laissez-faire economics, a school of thought that prescribes a minimal amount of government interference in to the economic issues of individuals and society. Laissez-faire economics proposes that continued economic growth will lead to technological innovation, expansion of the free market, and limited state interference. Neo-liberalism is often associated with the leadership of Margaret Thatcher- U. K. (1979-1990) and Ronald Reagan – U. S. (1981-1989). More recently, neo-liberalism has been associated with policies of austerity and attempts to cut government spending on social programs. (Kenton Will, 2020). Neo-liberalism is capitalism without leftist illusions (i.e. illusions that there can be such a thing as humane capitalism on a long-term basis). Neo-liberalism has different names in different geographical contexts. In the wake of the strikes in southern Europe against cuts in government funding since 2008, austerity is

often synonymous with neo-liberalism. In India, on the other hand, neo-liberalism goes by the name of “economic reforms” and the New Economic Policy (NEP). (Das, 2015)

In many parts of the world, neoliberalism is known by different names. Austerity has become synonymous with neoliberalism in the aftermath of the 2008 strikes in southern Europe against government budget cuts. In India, however, neoliberalism is referred to as "economic reforms" and the "New Economic Policy" (NEP). In India, neoliberal proponents' views have been widely publicised, including in the influential (and slightly progressive) Economic Political Weekly. Reforms qua neoliberalism, according to Bhagwati (2001, 843), a Columbia University economics professor and intellectual proponent of neoliberalism, represent "a reversal of the anti-globalisation, anti-market, pro-public-enterprise attitudes and policies that produced our dismal growth performance [prior to 1991]." These reforms, he claims, are the most essential determinant in poverty reduction.

His theory is that growth produces jobs by putting money in the hands of the government, which can then offer health and other services to the poor, as well as encouraging the poor to invest in human capital. But, if neoliberalism or economic reform is so great, why is it that in one survey, 75% of those who had an opinion on the matter believed that the reforms exclusively benefit the wealthy (Bardhan 2005)? In a situation where markets are becoming less and less regulated and "animal spirit" (private entrepreneurship) is becoming more and more prevalent, neoliberalism must be seen as the restoration and reinforcement of class power (Harvey 2005), specifically the class power that large business owners have over the working masses.

This article presents a number of broad critical remarks about the many aspects of neoliberalism as a class project and links them to the possibility of macrosocial change. There is no attempt to provide detailed empirical evidence for the claims claimed, and there are no substantial references to or deep discussions of the current literature on the subject (amongst many, see Ahluwalia 2002; Byres 1997; Sengupta 2008; Subramanian 2008). Despite the fact that the arguments are about "neoliberalism with Indian elements," they are applicable to a broader audience.

Methodology:

The present study attempts to is to analyze the impact of neo-liberal economic reforms. The data have been collected for the present study through secondary sources. The secondary data have been collected from the published and unpublished sources. The data have been collected through the sources such as, websites, annual reports and statements, books, Journals, Periodicals and reports.

Objectives:

In the light of the issues discussed earlier and the available literature relating to status of neo-liberal reforms in India the following specific objectives are framed for the study.

1. To analyze the impact of neo-liberal economic reforms.
2. To presents broad critical remarks about the many aspects of neo-liberalism.

What Is NEP (Not)?

The NEP isn't just a government programme; it's also not wholly new or just about economics. It was formally established in 1991, and it essentially symbolises the aspirations of the capitalist class, and more particularly, the demands of hegemonic segments of the domestic and diasporic capitalist classes, at a given point in the evolution of Indian and global capitalism. The NEP aims to create conditions in which domestic and foreign capital can invest to make a lot of money, not only by exploiting cheap natural resources such as land, water, forests, and minerals, but also by speculating and engaging in other non-productive activities, as well as by utilising low-cost skilled and unskilled labour. Attracting international investments and strengthening the status of Indian businesses are other essential goals.

As a result, the NEP is first and foremost a bourgeois neoliberal programme, and then a government policy. To the extent that neoliberalism is a government policy, it represents big business's "wish list," which is given sympathetic hearing by pro-market state management. ¹ In addition, opinion-makers in the media and so-called intellectuals, including some from imperialist countries, supply much-needed assistance.

Although the NEP is new, it is not as new as many people believe. Since decolonization, all major interventions, including major anti-poverty policies, have essentially been about propping up a national capitalist regime (with some support from formerly "socialist" countries), a regime that is a little protected from imperialism and a little free of the shackles of poverty.

The NEP is about more than just economics. This is because it must ensure that varied accumulation techniques have the necessary political and ideological circumstances. In this situation, "political conditions" refers to state repression and judicial pressure (including the suppression of democratic rights; to be discussed later). The promotion of market fetishism in all domains of everyday life, including social consciousness, is referred to as "ideological conditions." The concepts of getting rich rapidly by any means and of the market as the dominating method of assisting the needy are associated with market fetishism (hence the popularity of such things as self-help groups and micro-credit in the discourse of development, happily promoted by the state and civil society groups). The NEP is a policy that promotes capital.

Winners and Losers

Neoliberalism has resulted in a small number of winners and a big number of losers. It has disproportionately benefited the capitalist class, particularly those segments that specialise in banking, information technology (IT), real estate, and natural resources, spawning about 109 billionaires in the United States. ³ It has concentrated a massive amount of money — riches created by the labour of the landless masses — in the hands of a few individuals. A portion of this money has been hidden from public view, including in offshore banks. The NEP has undoubtedly brought some foreign technology and lower-cost intermediate items with it. Some educated persons working in IT and related areas, such as

tech-coolies, have benefited from it as well. Many of these people are quick to accept their own reality.

The NEP, on the other hand, has wreaked havoc on India's poorest 700–1,000 million people, including urban proletarians and semi-proletarians, a considerable number of urban small- business owners, and peasants. Neoliberalism has resulted in huge economic inequality, insecurity, unemployment and underemployment, casualization, informalization, increased labour exploitation, and lax or non-existent enforcement of protective industrial laws. Urban labourers, like those in Tirupur's former boom town, are committing suicide because they can't make ends meet.

Rural areas have been particularly hard hit, resulting in a type of neoliberalism known as agrarian neoliberalism or rural neoliberalism. Rural development spending as a percentage of GDP has been declining in recent years. Subsidies for fertilisers, power, and other farm inputs, as well as government investment in agriculture, are all available from the government.

NEP as a Geographical Project

The NEP is implemented as a capitalist class agenda through accumulation programmes that include extensive reorganisation of space relations, resulting in geographical inequity on numerous dimensions. To begin with, a new built environment is being created in order to speed up commodity transportation at a lower cost inside India and between India and the rest of the world, as well as to boost the rate of elite consumption. This process manifests itself not only in the creation of special economic zones and urban shopping malls, but also in the construction of new roads, railway lines (including dedicated railway lines), airports, seaports, and other infrastructure, all of which are used more by the wealthy than the poor (see D'Costa 2005; Levien 2011). Second, in chronological order.

Space production not only helps accumulation and money-making in the methods already mentioned, but it also provides a possibility to create money on its own. Because space – the economic landscape – is a commodity, this is the case. Infrastructure is, without a doubt, big business. Space production also has an ideological component to it. The state justifies cuts in social spending as well as attempts to court private capital through various incentives by claiming that the country requires a huge sum of money for infrastructure. The NEP has also resulted in a great deal of disparity between provinces and municipalities. This is because neoliberal investment, which is primarily motivated by profit, is geographically concentrated.

The political dynamics of uneven development patterns inside and between cities, as well as between states, are fascinating. Regional elites (in states and cities) have some influence over the central government when it comes to pro-business reforms. These regional elites, which are made up of political alliances and local-regional enterprises, compete for external loans and domestic as well as international money. Some states and cities receive more investment than others, resulting in a second layer of unequal economic development on top of the first. Competition between governments and cities becomes a mechanism of

imposing/implementing neoliberalism through discipline and punishment: if a state/city fails to offer enough concessions to big business, it will fail to attract investment.

NEP and Imperialism

The NEP represents the imperialist project and is perhaps a part of it. Global neoliberalism includes neoliberalism in peripheral countries. Since the 1970s, capitalism under the leadership of finance capital has been attempting to reverse many of the concessions made to the working class of advanced countries, such as welfare benefits. And global big business is no longer willing to grant autonomy to periphery states or poor countries' national bourgeoisie, which it formerly accepted following anti-colonial movements. Natural resources, markets, space (including place to dump garbage), and labouring bodies of these impoverished countries cannot be left fully in the hands of global big business.

When imperialist capital exploits India's workers and peasants, a process that the NEP promotes, such a shift of resources occurs. This imperialist exploitation is aided by imperialist countries' governments as well as India's compliant government, which is increasingly filled by pro-market ideologues and neoliberal technocrats, as well as businesspeople (Patnaik 2010). Not only that, but some Indian states follow budgetary guidelines formulated by McKinsey, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, the governments of advanced countries' international development agencies, and "compradore" intellectuals and advisors unduly influenced by these institutions. Neoliberalism (embodied in privatisation, reduction in government spending, and so on) is, in many ways, well-known.

The NEP, Class Struggle, and the Left

The NEP has been both a site and a target of class conflict. This class battle has been waged from both the top and the bottom. Given the NEP's disastrous consequences, it's not unexpected that the working class has risen out against it. Millions of people have gone on strike throughout the 1990s, including a countrywide strike in February 2013. Some of the pushback has been directed against crony capitalism, which refers to the horribly corrupt way in which the capital-state relationship has undemocratically milked society's resources. Privatisation, liberalisation, globalisation, and reductions in governmental support for the poor and farmers have been the focus of most of the opposition. The state has sometimes hampered the process because of the struggle from below (both real and potential).

The capitalist class has also fought from above, undermining the authority of workers who go on strike against capital. A case in point is the repression of striking Maruti car workers. Workers have been oppressed by capital by employing thugs to harm or kill them, bribing union officials, and locking them out. In recent years, the number of personnel days lost due to lockouts has surpassed the number lost due to strikes, indicating that capital's "strikes" have taken precedence over labor's. The right to strike has also been declared unconstitutional by the courts. Between the rights of investors to not invest and employees' rights to not sell their labour power, it is the might of the state and capital that decide

The Left's interventions moderate the relationship between NEP/neoliberalism and the struggle against it. It is undeniably true that left-wing parties have exerted pressure on the government to implement pro-poor policies such as public works and to slow the pace of certain "reforms" such as the opening of some sectors of the economy to foreign capital and the total privatisation of profit-making state-owned enterprises. However, the ultimate objective consequence of the Left's behaviour has been this: they have been transformed into a conduit for the NEP's implementation through ideological and administrative means. The parliamentary Left (as well as a significant portion of the "unorganised Left") has failed to offer a substantial intellectual critique of the NEP.

Politically, the Left, which has been afflicted by the "parliamentary sickness," has occasionally backed bourgeois parties such as Janata Dal and Congress, which have adopted neoliberalism. Anti-imperialism (and anti-feudalism) and anti-communalism have been used by the Left to justify their support (to keep the Hindu fundamentalists out of power). The Left has largely sought to confine working-class efforts to trade union conflicts (or, as Lenin put it, "bourgeois politics") and electoral battles, as well as to stifle some neoliberal changes. But, once again, the Left intervenes not in order to build a working-class-led mass movement against capitalism, but rather to safeguard and protect the weaker segments of the entrepreneurial class.

Furthermore, much of the non-parliamentary Left poses no danger to neoliberal capitalism. This includes the Naxalite Left (which is influenced by Maoist versions), which arose largely as a result of the parliamentary Left's weakness and the failed democratic revolution. Since their inception in the late 1960s, the Naxalites have focused their efforts on downtrodden peasants and, more recently, aboriginal people living in India's most remote areas; they have also secured some limited concessions (Das 2010). This is consistent with their nationalist and petty bourgeois viewpoint, which considers the peasantry to be the primary revolutionary force (in current India) and the future Indian revolution to be a "people's democratic," rather than a socialist, revolution.

Concluding Comments: Neo-liberalism and Changes in Class Relations

The goal of neoliberalism is to shift the balance of power in favour of the capitalist class. Neoliberalism is capitalism without the illusions of the Left or the Social Democratic Party (i.e. illusions that there can be such a thing as humane capitalism on a long-term basis over a large geographical area). This is true of prosperous countries like the United States, but it is also true of poor countries like India. India's National Economic Policy (NEP) is a capitalist policy. As a result, it is a capitalist policy, mediated and executed by the state at both the national and provincial levels. The NEP in India is more than a government programme, as this essay has demonstrated. It is a bourgeoisie-led policy that fosters economic progress and favours certain segments of the populace, but it is not without flaws.

While neoliberalism is a worldwide movement, it has had a particularly negative impact on the working masses of the developing countries (Naruzzaman 2005). Less developed countries, such as India, are now widely seen as having lower income and higher levels of absolute poverty. Instead, they must be viewed in terms of class, as countries that have experienced failed – or incomplete – revolutions against the ruling class. Aborted

democratic revolutions, such as agricultural revolutions against feudal (-type) relations, aborted national (or anti-imperialist) revolutions, and aborted anti-capitalist revolutions have all harmed them. 5 The democratic and agrarian concerns, the national question, and the question of socialism itself are all connected in a dialectical understanding of neoliberalism and the NEP.

Consider the issue of democracy. As previously stated, there has been widespread opposition to the NEP, to which the state has responded in an undemocratic (and repressive) manner. The state is also encouraging venal capitalism; widespread corruption in government has existed since the 1990s, when markets were less controlled, debunking the idea that deregulation reduces corruption. Given that all parties, including those on the Left, are obligated to adhere to neoliberal principles, the space for democratic opposition has reduced, and this trend will continue with the election of a government led by a Hindu fundamentalist party with fascistic tendencies. This has a more particular implication: it makes all political parties/groups equal in terms of their ability to influence policy.

Consider the national question in light of this need. This is no longer a question of opposing formal colonialism. It's about combating the new imperialism, which is mostly carried out through economic methods and backed up by the threat of force. It is the imperialism of developed-world governments, multinational businesses, and international institutions (the IMF, the World Bank, and "aid" organisations). This is imperialism that is justified and sold to the general public through the development narrative (as growth). It is also sold on the basis of chauvinistic ideas about India's "superpower status," which is merely that of a regional subordinate of the global capitalism's supreme guardian, the United States.

References

1. Ahluwalia, M. 2002. 'Economic Reforms in India Since 1991: Has Gradualism Worked?' *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 16 (7): 67–88.
2. Byres, T., ed. 1997. 'The State, Development Planning & Liberalisation in India.' Delhi: Oxford University Press. Bardhan, P. 2005. "Nature of Opposition to Economic Reforms in India." *Economic and Political Weekly* 40 (48): 4995–4998.
3. Bhagwati, J. 2001. 'Growth, Poverty and Reforms.' *Economic and Political Weekly* 36 (10): 843–846.
4. India's New Economic Policy, edited by W. Ahmad, A. Kundu and R. Peet, 281–306. New York: Routledge. 726 R. J. Das
5. Das, R. 2012. 'Reconceptualising Capitalism: Forms of Subsumption of Labor, Class Struggle, and Uneven Development.' *Review of Radical Political Economics* 44 (2): 178–200.
6. Das, R. 2010. 'Critical Observations on Neo-liberalism and India's New Economic Policy.' *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 2015 Vol. 45, No. 4, 715–726, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00472336.2014.1003143>.
7. D'Costa, A. 2005. 'The Long March to Capitalism: Embourgeoisment, International and Industrial Transformation in India'. Houndmills: Palgrave

MacMillan.

8. Duménil, G., and D. Lévy. 2005. 'The Neoliberal (Counter-) Revolution.' In *Neoliberalism: A Critical Reader*, edited by A. Saad-Filho and D. Johnston, 9–19. London: Pluto Press.
9. Harvey, D. 2005. 'A Brief History of Neoliberalism.' New York: Oxford University Press.
10. Levien, M. 2011. 'Special Economic Zones and Accumulation by Dispossession in India.' *Journal of Agrarian Change* 11 (4): 454–483. Marx, K. 1977. *Capital: Volume 1*. New York: Vintage.
11. Naruzzaman, M. 2005. 'Economic Liberalization and Poverty in the Developing Countries.' *Journal of Contemporary Asia* 35 (1): 109–127.
12. Patnaik, P. 2010. 'The State under Neoliberalism.' *MR Zine*, August 10. <http://mrzine.monthlyreview.org/2010/patnaik100810.html>
13. Sengupta, M. 2008. 'How the State changed its Mind: Power, Politics & the Origins of India's Market Reforms.' *Economic & Political Weekly* 43 (21): 35–42.
14. Subramanian, A., ed. 2008. 'India's Turn: Understanding the Economic Transformation.' New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

भांडवलशाही विरोधातील श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाचे लढे

श्री .सुपने उत्तम बाबासो

संशोधक विद्यार्थी ,

शिवाजी विद्यापीठ पूरकोल्हा ,

गोषवारा :

महाराष्ट्रात कामगार, शेतकरी, शेतमजुर, अभयारण्यग्रस्त, धरणग्रस्त, दुष्काळग्रस्त, महिला व आदिवासींना न्याय मिळवून देण्यासाठी डॉ .भारत पाटणकरांच्या नेतृत्वाखाली इ .सन 1980 साली स्थापन झालेल्या श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने अनेक लढे उभे केले व त्यांना न्याय मिळवून दिला.

शेतकऱ्यांना न्याय मिळवून देण्यासाठी श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने रायगड जिल्ह्यातील टाटा व रिलाईन्स कंपन्यांच्या SEZ प्रकल्पा) औष्णिक विद्युत प्रकल्पाला (विरुद्ध शेतकऱ्यांचा लढा उभा केला. तसेच सांगली आणि सातारा जिल्ह्यामध्ये पवनचक्या उभारणार्या बहुराष्ट्रीय कंपन्यांन विरुद्ध लढे उभे केले व शेतकऱ्यांना न्याय मिळवून दिला.

Keywords : भांडवलशाही, SEZ, पवनचक्या, कंपन्या

उद्दिष्टे :-

- 1) नव उदारमतवादांमुळे निर्माण झालेले प्रश्न समजून घेणे.
- 2) शासनाची धोरणे समजून घेणे.
- 3) श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाचे कार्य समजून घेणे.

संशोधन पद्धती :- ऐतिहासिक, विश्लेषणात्मक, वर्णनात्मक

आपला देश स्वतंत्र झाल्यानंतर भारत सरकारने मिश्र अर्थव्यवस्था स्विकारली पण 1955 साली आवडी येथे झालेल्या काँग्रेस अधिवेशनात समाजवादाचा पुरस्कार करणेचा ठराव संमत करणेत आला व तेथून पुढे भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था काहीशी समाजवादाकडे झुकलेली पहायला मिळाले.अशी व्यवस्था औद्योगिक विकासास मारक होती .कारण उद्योग उभारणीसाठी शासनाच्या अनेक परवानग्या घ्याव्या लागत व अनेक अटींची पूर्तता करावी लागत असे.1990 च्या दशकात भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था संकटात सापडली,जागतीक अर्थिक पुरवठादार संस्थांनी भारतास मदत करणेस नकार दिला,जर भारताने उदारीकरणाचे धोरण स्विकारले तर मदत करू असे जागतीक अर्थिक संस्थांनी सांगितले तेव्हा भारताने उदारीकरणाचे)भांडवलशाहीकडे झुकणारे(धोरण स्विकारले.अनेक जागतीक कंपन्या भारतात गुंतवणूक करू लागल्या .उद्योगासाठी लागणार्या परवानग्याची संख्या खुपच कमी झाली.

2000 साला नंतर भारत सरकारने जलद औद्योगिक विकास घडवून आणण्यासाठी, मोठ्या उद्योगांना प्रोत्साहन देण्यासाठी,निर्यातीत वाढ घडवून आणण्यासाठी चीनच्या धरतीवर SEZ प्रकल्पांना परवानगी देण्याचे धोरण आवलंबिले आहे.

मोठ्या उद्योगांसाठी जास्त जागेची आवश्यकता असते व त्यासाठी जमिन अधिग्रहण करावी लागते त्यामुळे तेथील शेतकरी अशा प्रकल्पांना मोठ्या प्रमाणात विरोध करतात. रायगड जिल्ह्यातील खारेपाटण येथे उभारल्या जाणार्या टाटा व रिलाईन्स कंपन्यांच्या औष्णिक विद्युत प्रकल्पाला तेथील शेतकऱ्यांनी विरोध केला. शेतकऱ्यांच्या त्या आंदोलनाला श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने पाठिंबा दिला व शेतकऱ्यांना न्याय मिळवून दिला .

तसेच भारत सरकारने उदार आर्थिक धोरण स्विकारल्यावर आपल्या देशात जलद गतीने औद्योगीकरण घडून आले त्यामुळे विजेची मागणी वाढली. आपल्या देशात औष्णिक व पवन उर्जा निर्मिती खुप वाव आहे त्यामुळे अनेक बहुराष्ट्रीय कंपन्यांनी पवन उर्जा प्रकल्प उभारण्यास सुरुवात केली. या कंपन्यांनी कवडीमोल भावाने शेतकऱ्यांच्या जमिनी विकत घेतल्या त्याला सांगली व सातारा जिल्ह्यांमध्ये श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने विरोध केला व शेतकऱ्यांना फायदेशीर ठरणारा निर्णय घेण्यास शासनास भाग पाडले.

श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाचे भांडवलशाहीला विरोध करणारे लढे:-

1) रायगड जिल्ह्यातील SEZ ला विरोध करणारा लढा-

महाराष्ट्र व भारत सरकारने सन 2007 मध्ये रायगड जिल्ह्यात खारेपाटण परिसरात टाटा व रिलाईन्स या कंपन्यांना SEZ अंतर्गत औष्णिक विद्युत प्रकल्प उभा करण्याची परवानगी दिली व तेथील जमिन प्रकल्पासाठी अधिग्रहण करण्याची अधिसूचना काढली. तेथील शेतकऱ्यांनी या प्रकल्पाला विरोध केला व आपल्याला न्याय मिळवून देण्यासाठी व बेकायदेशीर भूसंपादन थांबविण्यासाठी शेतकऱ्यांसाठी लढणार्या श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाचे नेते डॉ. भारत पाटणकर यांच्या नेतृत्वाखाली मोठे आंदोलन उभे केले. या आंदोलनामध्ये शहापूर, धेरंड, धाकटे शहापूर, कोपर, चरी व कोलटेंभीसह नऊ गावातील शेतकऱ्यांनी भाग घेतला. अगोदर जिल्हाधिकारी कार्यालयासमोर उपोषण व नंतर बेमूदत धरणे आंदोलन चालू केले पण शासन त्याची दखल घेत नाही असे दिसून आल्यावर 2 ऑक्टोबर 2008 रोजी गांधी जयंती दिवशी अलिबाग ते मंत्रालय असा लाँग मार्च सुरू केला . त्यानंतर शासकिय पातळीवर हालचाली सुरू झाल्या व भूसंपादन प्रक्रिया सुरू करण्यासाठी पुनर्वसन अधिनियम लागू करणे आवश्यक होते या मुद्यास शासन स्तरावर मान्यता देण्यात आली व आंदोलन कर्त्यांना चर्चेसाठी बोलविले पण आंदोलन कर्ते प्रकल्प रद्द करण्याच्या भूमिकेवर ठाम राहिले कारण या प्रकल्पामुळे केवळ शेतकरी बेघर होणार नव्हते तर कोकणच्या निसर्ग सौंदर्याला बाधा पोहचणार होती व खुप मोठ्या प्रमाणावर प्रदुषण होणार होते. श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने पर्यायी शेतकऱ्यांच्या पर्यावरण स्नेही SEZ चा पर्याय शासनाला सुचविला होता. अखेर श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाच्या लढ्याला यश मिळाले. श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने जैतापूर अणुउर्जा प्रकल्पाला पण विरोध केला व तेथेपण पर्यावरण स्नेही विद्युत प्रकल्प उभे करावेत अशी भूमिका घेतली. दि .30/12/2011 रोजी महात्मा फुले नगर, देवरूख येथे श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाच्या अधिवेशनात या प्रकल्पाला विरोध करण्यासाठी राज्यव्यापी आंदोलन करण्याचा ठराव पास केला.

2) पवनचक्की कंपन्यांविरुद्धचा लढा:-

अनेक बहुराष्ट्रीय कंपन्यांनी सातारा व सांगली या जिल्ह्यातील पर्जन्यझायेच्या दुष्काळी भागातील गरीब शेतकऱ्यांच्या जमिनी पवनचक्क्या उभ्या करण्यासाठी दलालांमार्फत कवडी मोल भावाने विकत

घेण्यास सुरुवात केली होती,शेतकरी लुबाडला जात होता तेव्हा श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने शेतकर्यांवरील अन्याय दूर करण्यासाठी या कंपन्यांच्या विरुद्ध आंदोलन सुरु केले, त्या शेतजमिनीवर शेतकऱ्याची पण मालकी रहावी अशी भूमिका घेतली तसेच शेतीवरून वाहणार्या वारा या नैसर्गिक स्रोतावर पण शेतकऱ्याचा हक्क आहे व त्याचापण त्याला मोबदला मिळावा ही भूमिकी घेतली व वार्याचा मोबदला म्हणून शेतकऱ्यास प्रति ऐकर 2 लाख रूपने कंपनीला शेतकऱ्यास देणे भाग पाडले व त्या गावाच्या ग्रामपंचायतीस प्रति मेगायुनिट मागे 15000 रू देण्यास भाग पाडले .हा लढा 2008 मध्ये सुरु झाला होता व तो 2010 मध्ये संपुष्टात आला.अशा प्रकारे श्रमिक मुक्ती दलाने भांडवलशाही व्यवस्थेत गरीबांवर होणार्या अन्यायाविरुद्ध लढून न्याय मिळवून दिला.

निष्कर्ष :-

नव उदारमतवादी व्यवस्था भांडवलशाहीला पुरक आहे व त्यामुळे ती भांडवलदारांना फायदेशीर व गरीब शेतकरी कामगारांसाठी मारक आहे पण देशाच्या विकासासाठी ती गरजेचीपण आहे .

संदर्भ:-

- 1) WIKIPEDIA-Shramik Mukti Dal
- 2) श्रमिक मुक्ती दल मुलभूत भूमिकेचा जाहिरनामा-डॉ.भारत पाटणकर,प्रकाशन-शिव ऑफसेट, कोल्हापूर, द्वितीय आवृत्ती 28 डिसेंबर 2012
- 3) पर्यायी विकास निती-डॉ.भारत पाटणकर,प्रबोधन प्रकाशन इचलकरंजी 1991
- 4) दैनिक सकाळचा दि.14/01/2008 चा अंक
- 5) दैनिक लोकमतचा दि.07/10/2008 चा अंक
- 6) देवरूख,जि.रत्नागिरी येथील श्रमिक मुक्तीदलाच्या अधिवेशनाचे इतिवृत्त
- 7) The Hindu
- 8) Economic & political Weekly
- 9) youtube channels
- 10) दैनिक सकाळचा दि .06/01/2022 चा अंक

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MSMEs IN THE ERA OF PRE & POST LIBERALISATION

Ms. Apurva S. Khandekar
UG Research Student,
Department of Economics
Vivekanand College Kolhapur.

Abstract :

The paper seeks to analyze the performance of MSMEs in the era of pre & post liberalisation in India & searching for, is liberalisation beneficial to MSMEs? Have it meet with the question of unemployment of country like India which is a labour intensive. Here is not insistence of, MSMEs fully meet with the question of unemployment but maximum possibilities expect & also seek to know impact of liberalisation on contribution of MSMEs in economic development & the most important observation will be, are only liberalisation cause of growing MSME sector.

Keywords: MSME, liberalisation, Trade, Employment, Growth

Introduction:

MSME is labour intensive model & also consider as complementary to heavy industries. It provides enormous socio-economic development to nation. By MSMEs regional balance may be achieved cause generally these firms established in rural, economically backward regions & semi-urban areas.

Achievement of MSMEs.

- The number of MSMEs in india increase by a CAGR of 18.5% from 2019-2020.¹
- In FY21 the loan distribution to MSMEs stood at RS 6.8 trillion in FY20.¹
- MSME related products export share of all india export stood at 49.4% & 49.8% for FY21 & FY22 respectively.¹
- Budget allocation for MSMEs in FY22 more than doubled to ₹ 15,700 crore (US dollar 2.14 billions) vis-à-vis ₹ 7,572 crore (US dollar 1.03 billion) in FY21. Major contributor to the socio-economic development of the country.¹
- MSME contributes about 29% towards the GDP through it's national & international trade.¹
- 43,37,444 people were employed in MSMEs during FY20. This increased by 106 per cent to 89,53,149 in FY21 and by 4.9 per cent to 93,94,957 in the current financial year.²

DEFINITION

According to the provisions of Micro, Small & Medium Enterprises Development (MSMED) Act, 2006 the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) are classified in two classes i.e., Manufacturing Enterprises and Service Enterprises.

¹<https://www.ibef.org/industry/msme>

² Budget session in parliament

The enterprises are further categorized based on investment in equipment and annual turnover.

(TABLE 1) CRITERIA OF MSMEs

| Criteria | Manufacturing | | Service | |
|----------|-------------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|---|
| | Turnover | Investment | Turnover | Investment |
| MICRO | RS. 5 crore (US\$ 0.6 million) | Less than RS. 25 lakh (US\$ 0.03 million) | RS. 5 crore (US\$ 0.6 million) | Less than RS.10 lakh (US\$0.01 million) |
| SMALL | RS. 50 crore (US\$ 46.8 million) | More than RS. 25 lakh (US\$ 0.03 million) but less than RS.5 crore (US\$ 0.6 million) | RS. 50 crore (US\$ 6.8 million) | More than RS.10 lakh (US\$ 0.01 million) but less than RS. 2 crore (US\$ 0.3 million) |
| MEDIUM | RS.250 crore (US\$ 34 million) | More than RS.5 crore (US\$ 0.6 million) but less than RS.10 crore (US\$ 1.4 million) | RS. 250 crore (US\$ 34 million) | More than RS.2 crore (US\$ 0.3 million) but does not exceed RS.5 crore (US\$ 0.6 million) |

OBJECTIVES

- To study Performance of MSMEs in the era of pre & post liberalisation (1991).
- To analyze Impact of liberation on contribution of MSMEs in economic development.
- Impact of trade liberalisation on performance of MSMEs.
- Employment generation in MSME sector.
- Instead of liberation another factors which contributing in a growth of MSMEs.

LITRATURE RREVIEW

S.L. GUPTA & R. RAJAN (AUG 2014): Gupta & Rajan highlighted that the policy of liberalisation which was aimed to deregulate the market & keep investment flowing did manage to increase the number of units, but their overall productivity leaves a lot to be desired. Increase in number of units & employment have shown proportionate growth over the period, whereas export & production has be fluctuating significantly. Per unit increase in rate of production has no been able to match with overall increase in production rate which indicates that new units added during the year supposedly ought to be incorporated with new

innovative & better technology are actually taking time to match overall production rate of older units. Similar is in the case of exports from MSMEs. It seems that investment coming from outside is meant to tap local market rather than to export. There is need to learn from Chinese experience that subsidies should be given only to those investment proposals which are intended towards export after value addition.

M.VENKATARAMANAIAH & B. SUNEETHA (DEC 2019): Authors examine that the trend the growth rate of the value of production hints that there is a gradual decrease in the value of production from MSMEs during the study period. In terms of employment generation the AAGR during the pre- liberalisation period is 7.20 %, and it declined to 4.24 % in the post – liberalisation period before the MSMEs ACT 2006. Interestingly, it is increased up to 4.86 % during the post – liberalisation period after the MSMEs ACT 2006. It shows a positive trend in the employment generation in recent years. There is a trend of sharp decline in the value of exports from MSMEs during the post – liberalisation period. In terms of CAGR, the same trend as seen in the case of AAGR can be observed in the units working, production, employment generation & exports.

DABASISH NASKAR (FEB 2019): Globalization has both positive as well as negative impact on performance of MSME sector. In terms growth of no. of units & employment generation capacity performance of MSMEs is better in the post liberalisation period compare to pre liberalisation period. Whereas in case of production pre liberalisation period growth is better. With the advent of globalization MSMEs gets the help of exposure to foreign markets flow of foreign investment & technology, employment generation & increase export contribution. Thus performance of MSMEs improved. But with the introduction of globalization MSMEs face extreme competition from large industries due to withdrawal of subsidy, lack of infrastructure, anti- dumping policy, challenges on product standardization, total quality management etc. This competitiveness in domestic & global market may bring out superior performance.

ARIJIT DASH (JULY 2018): Undoubtedly, the MSME sector has the huge potential to contribute in the course of time to making india a 20 trillion-dollar economy. But in order to unleash the growth potential of this sector, there are some stark issues & challenges which need to be resolved Frist. Despite various incentives & facilities being provided to indian MSME, they are losing their efforts are needed for reviving & promoting the Indian MSME sector.

SUBHSDIP MUKHERJEE AND RUPA CHANDA: Miss rupa highlighted that the census analysis for the performance of MSME firms between 2001-02 & 2006-7 shows a variety effect of trade liberalisation on MSMEs firms depending on firm & industry – specific factors. While the impact on output growth & productivity for the overall MSMEs segment is mostly negative, we find that certain sub – groups of MSME firm, namely, those in less protected industries & those which use modern power techniques in their production process, which are technologically upgraded & which maintain their product quality standards, have performed better in both output & productivity terms. We also find that input channel effects resulting from liberalisation of input tariffs are consistently larger & more significant than competition effect resulting from the liberalisation of final goods tariffs.

SUDHARANI & JAYASHEELA (2020) Liberalisation policy was a major reform to bring about market changes & boost investments in india. The reform brought an increase in the number of small scale units but the reflection in terms of productivity was Missing.

METHODOLOGY

The paper is comparatively analyzed & explanatory in nature. The performance of MSMES analyzed on the basis of its contribution to economic development, impact of trade liberalisation, employment generation, no. Of units.

The data collected since 1973 - 74 to till 2017 - 2018. Period of study divided into two phases. 1973-74 to 1989-1990 & 1991 to 2018.

DATA SOURCE

Research is based on secondary data. As follows:

- Data from ministry of MSMEs.
- www.ibef.org/industry/msme
- Various research papers & online websites.

LIMITATIONS OF RESEARCH

Cause of unavailability of data research limits at the year of 2017 – 18. Present study is purely on secondary data.

DATA BASE & ANALYSIS

TABLE 2: Working units, production, employment & exports of MSMEs during the pre – liberalization period

| Year | No. of units (million) | % Increase to previous year | Production (current prices) | % Increase to previous year | Employment (lakh) | % Increase to previous year | Export (RS. million) | % Increase to previous year |
|---------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1973-74 | 0.42 | NA | 7,200 | NA | 3.97 | NA | 400 | NA |
| 1974-75 | 0.50 | 19.05 | 9,200 | 27.78 | 4.04 | 1.76 | 500 | 25.00 |
| 1975-76 | 0.55 | 10.00 | 11,000 | 19.57 | 4.59 | 13.61 | 500 | NA |
| 1976-77 | 0.59 | 7.27 | 12,400 | 12.73 | 4.98 | 8.50 | 800 | 60.00 |
| 1977-78 | 0.67 | 13.56 | 14,300 | 15.32 | 5.40 | 8.43 | 800 | NA |
| 1978-79 | 0.73 | 8.96 | 15,800 | 10.49 | 6.38 | 18.15 | 1,100 | 37.50 |
| 1979-80 | 0.81 | 10.96 | 21,600 | 36.71 | 6.70 | 5.02 | 1,200 | 9.09 |
| 1980-81 | 0.87 | 7.41 | 28,100 | 30.09 | 7.10 | 5.97 | 1,600 | 33.33 |
| 1981-82 | 0.96 | 10.34 | 32,600 | 16.01 | 7.50 | 5.63 | 2,100 | 31.25 |
| 1982-83 | 1.06 | 10.42 | 35,000 | 7.36 | 7.90 | 5.33 | 2,000 | -4.76 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1983-84 | 1.16 | 9.43 | 41,600 | 18.86 | 8.42 | 6.58 | 2,200 | 10.00 |
| 1984-85 | 1.24 | 6.90 | 50,500 | 21.39 | 9.00 | 6.89 | 2,500 | 13.64 |
| 1985-86 | 1.35 | 8.87 | 61,200 | 21.19 | 9.60 | 6.67 | 2,800 | 12.00 |
| 1986-87 | 1.46 | 8.15 | 72,300 | 18.14 | 10.14 | 5.63 | 3,600 | 28.57 |
| 1987-88 | 1.58 | 8.22 | 87,300 | 20.75 | 10.70 | 5.52 | 4,400 | 22.22 |
| 1988-89 | 1.71 | 8.23 | 106,400 | 21.88 | 11.30 | 5.61 | 5,500 | 25.00 |
| 1989-90 | 1.82 | 6.43 | 132,300 | 24.34 | 11.96 | 5.84 | 7,600 | 38.18 |
| AAGR | NA | 9.64 | NA | 20.16 | NA | 7.20 | NA | 21.31 |
| CAGR | 9.60 | NA | 19.95 | NA | 7.14 | NA | 20.20 | NA |

Source: Ministry of micro, small & medium Enterprises, GOI.

Notes: AAGR- average annual growth rate; CAGR- compound annual growth rate.

Impact of liberalisation on performance of MSMEs is positive & partially negative also. Cause after analyzing the data which mentioned in table 2, 3, 4 showing increase, decrease, fluctuation, least changes. As like in second table no of units is increasing but at least change rate but % increase to previous year is decreasing gradually. Production is increasing but % change to previous year is highly fluctuating, since 1974-75 to till 1982-83 & then rate is almost same except 1983-84, 1986-87 & 1989-90. As in the case of employment it is increasing but at the time of analyzing % increase to previous year is highly fluctuating since 1973-74 to till 1978-79 & then decreasing, increasing, decreasing by almost 1%. At the time of analyzing export it is increasing except year 1982-83 but % increase to year is some times 0, one time negative & fluctuating in other cases.

TABLE NO. 3 Working units, Employment and of MSMEs the since liberalization to MSMEs ACT 2006

| Year | No. of units (million) | % Increase to previous year | Production (current prices) | % Increase to previous year | Employment (lakhs) | % Increase to previous year | Exports (RS. Millions) | % Increase to previous year |
|---------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1990-91 | 6.79 | NA | 78,802 | NA | 15.83 | NA | 9,664 | NA |
| 1991-92 | 7.06 | 3.98 | 80,615 | 2.30 | 16.6 | 4.86 | 13,883 | 43.66 |
| 1992-93 | 7.35 | 4.11 | 84,413 | 4.71 | 17.48 | 5.30 | 17,784 | 28.10 |
| 1993-94 | 7.65 | 4.08 | 98,796 | 17.04 | 18.26 | 4.46 | 25,307 | 42.30 |
| 1994-95 | 7.96 | 4.05 | 122,154 | 23.64 | 19.14 | 4.82 | 29,068 | 14.86 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1995-96 | 8.28 | 4.02 | 147,712 | 20.92 | 19.79 | 3.40 | 36,470 | 25.46 |
| 1996-97 | 8.62 | 4.11 | 167,805 | 13.60 | 20.59 | 4.04 | 39,248 | 7.62 |
| 1997-98 | 8.97 | 4.06 | 187,217 | 11.57 | 21.32 | 3.55 | 44,442 | 13.23 |
| 1998-99 | 9.34 | 4.12 | 210,454 | 12.41 | 22.06 | 3.47 | 48,979 | 10.21 |
| 1999-00 | 9.72 | 4.07 | 233,760 | 11.07 | 22.91 | 3.85 | 54,200 | 10.66 |
| 2000-01 | 10.11 | 4.01 | 268,197 | 14.73 | 24.09 | 5.15 | 69,797 | 28.78 |
| 2001-02 | 10.52 | 4.06 | 282,270 | 5.25 | 24.93 | 3.49 | 71,244 | 2.07 |
| 2002-03 | 10.95 | 4.09 | 314,850 | 11.54 | 26.02 | 4.37 | 86,013 | 20.73 |
| 2003-04 | 11.40 | 4.11 | 364,547 | 15.78 | 27.14 | 4.30 | 97,644 | 13.52 |
| 2004-05 | 11.86 | 4.04 | 429,796 | 17.90 | 28.26 | 4.13 | 124,417 | 27.42 |
| 2005-06 | 12.34 | 4.05 | 497,842 | 15.83 | 29.49 | 4.35 | 150,242 | 20.76 |
| AAGR | NA | 4.06 | NA | 13.22 | NA | 4.24 | NA | 20.63 |
| CAGR | 4.06 | NA | 13.08 | NA | 4.23 | NA | 20.07 | NA |

Source: Ministry of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises, GOI & Research paper of M. Venkataramanaih, B. Suneetha

Notes: AAGR-average annual growth rate; CAGR- compound annual growth rate.

Number of units are increase and % increase to previous year is almost same. In the case of production and export both are increasing but % increase to previous year are fluctuating. Employment is increasing while % increase to previous year is almost same.

TABLE 3. Working units, production, employment and MSMEs the during post-liberalisation period before MSMEs act 2006.

| Year | No. of units (million) | % Increase to previous year | Production (current prices) | % Increase to previous year | Employment | % Increase to previous year | Exports (RS. crores) | % Increase to previous year |
|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 2006-07 ^a | 36.17 | - | 1,351,383 | - | 80.20 | - | 182,538 | - |
| 2007-08 ^b | 37.74 | 4.34 | 1,435,179 | 6.20 | 84.2 | 4.57 | 202,017 | 10.67 |
| 2008-09 ^b | 39.38 | 4.35 | 1,524,235 | 6.21 | 88.08 | 4.61 | 214,387 | 6.12 |
| 2009-10 | 41.05 | 4.24 | 1,619,35 | 6.24 | 92.18 | 4.65 | 238,75 | 11,36 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| ^b | | | 6 | | | | 2 | |
| 2010-11 ^b | 42.87 | 4.43 | 1,721,553 | 6.31 | 96.52 | 4.71 | 497,774 | 108.49 |
| 2011-12 ^b | 44.77 | 4.43 | 1,788,584 | 3.89 | 101.17 | 4.82 | 670,707 | 34.74 |
| 2012-13 ^b | 46.76 | 4.44 | 1,809,976 | 1.20 | 106.15 | 4.92 | 696,025 | 3.77 |
| 2013-14 ^b | 48.85 | 4.47 | 1,831,624 | 1.20 | 111.43 | 4.97 | 798,946 | 14.79 |
| 2014-15 ^b | 51.06 | 4.52 | 1,853,531 | 1.20 | 117.13 | 5.12 | 866,716 | 8.48 |
| 2015-16 ^b | 53.37 | 4.52 | 1,875,699 | 1.20 | 123.12 | 5.11 | 866,912 | 0.02 |
| 2016-17 ^b | 55.78 | 4.52 | 1,898,133 | 1.20 | 129.42 | 5.12 | 888,014 | 2.43 |
| 2017-18 ^b | 63.39 | 13.64 | NA | NA | NA | NA | 959,215 | 8.02 |
| AAGR | NA | 11.52 | NA | 15.56 | NA | 10.97 | NA | 19.99 |
| CAGR | 8.63 | NA | 12.51 | NA | 8.09 | NA | 18.56 | NA |

Source: Ministry of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises, GOI & Research paper of M. Venkataramanaih, B. Suneetha

Notes: AAGR-average annual growth rate; CAGR- compound annual growth rate.

^a 2006-07 onwards, figures include activities of wholesale/ retail trade, legal, education and social services, hotel and restaurants, transport and storage and warehousing for which data was extracted from economic census 2005, CSO. (Research paper of M. Venkataramanaih, B. Suneetha)

^b projected figures (Research paper of M. Venkataramanaih, B. Suneetha); NA- not available.

After MSME ACT 2006 there is increase in number of units, production, employment and export as well. But at the time of examine the % increase to previous year in all cases (no. of units, production and export) it is not satisfied. The way no. of units increases at % of previous year it is almost same except year 2017-18 (13.64). Surprisingly after 2010-11 there is high decrease in % increase to previous year of production and since 2012-13 till 2017-18 there is constant increase rate which is 1.20 and this is very least. At the time of examine the employment increasing rate there is a positive sign after the year of

2014-15 but it is a very negligible increase rate. No doubt export increased but the rate of % increase to previous year is highly fluctuating and that is not a good sign for an economy.

TABLE 5. Comparative analysis of MSMEs in the era of pre and post-liberalisation.

| Growth rates | AAGR | | | | CAGR | | | |
|---|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|
| | Period of study | No. of units (million) | Production (current prices) | employment | Export (RS. millions) | No. of units (million) | Production (current prices) | employment |
| Pre-liberalisation | 9.64 | 20.16 | 7.20 | 21.31 | 9.60 | 19.95 | 7.14 | 20.20 |
| Post-liberalisation before the MSMEs act 2006 | 4.06 | 13.22 | 4.24 | 20.63 | 4.06 | 13.08 | 4.23 | 20.07 |
| Post-liberalisation after MSMEs act 2006 | 5.26 | 3.48 | 4.86 | 18.99 | 5.23 | 3.14 | 4.41 | 15.57 |

Source: Tables 1,2,3 and Research paper of M. Venkataramanaih, B. Suneetha

Notes: AAGR- average annual growth rate; CAGR- compound average growth rate.

After analyzing above data the results and findings are very clear cause it is showing that when India's economy was closed (pre-liberalisation era) that time MSME sector grew up at high rate in comparison to post-liberalisation. That time there were no external competitors (closed market) for MSMEs, no dumping market created as like China and also whole indian market was only for Indian MSMEs and lots of cause were in exist for the growth of MSMEs. So in the era of pre-liberalisation MSME sector grew at high rate this is not a big achievement.

In contrast at the time of post-liberalisation indian economy opened for world. So since liberalisation indian MSME sector competing with foreign MSME sector no doubt government taking initiatives to grow, to boost, to give priorities to indian MSME sector but indian government cannot help going beyond the rules and regulations of IMF. So still in the era of post-liberalisation Indian MSME sector facing with lots of problems like strong competition, lack of investment, marketing issues etc.

No doubt pre-liberalisation MSME sector grew on high rate in comparison with post-liberalisation. But there is need to analyze the economic environment at both times. The growth with problems facing by MSMEs (post-liberalisation) is not bad but that not mean that the growth rate which is in existent now a days of MSME is very good sign for indian economy but to grow it will take times and for the growth of MSME sector proper initiatives be must.

❖ Performance of MSMEs in the era of pre-liberalisation was at higher growth rate cause that time India's economy was closed and no external competitor was there to compete with indian MSMEs. As per the data shown in the whole research the performance of MSMEs of pre-liberalisation era is better than post-liberalisation MSMEs. But the situations was different at both times so post-liberalisation MSME sector just want proper environment and proper initiatives at the time of competing with open market economy.

❖ If in comparison to pre-liberalisation the rate of growing is less but post-liberalisation MSME sector no doubt increased well and also contribute in indian economy. The impact of liberalisation on contribution of MSMEs as follows:

- In FY21 the loan distribution to MSMEs stood at RS 6.8 trillion in FY20. MSME related products export share of all india export stood at 49.4% & 49.8% for FY21 & FY22 respectively.³
- Budget allocation for MSMEs in FY22 more than doubled to ₹ 15,700 crore (US dollar 2.14 billions) vis-à-vis ₹ 7,572 crore (US dollar 1.03 billion) in FY21. Major contributor to the socio-economic development of the country.³
- The number of MSMEs in india increase by a CAGR of 18.5% from 2019-2020.³
- MSME contributes about 29% (2019-20) and 31% (2020-21) towards the GDP through it's national & international trade.³
- 43,37,444 people were employed in MSMEs during FY20. This increased by 106 per cent to 89,53,149 in FY21 and by 4.9 per cent to 93,94,957 in the current financial year.⁴

❖ The impact of trade liberalisation on MSMEs is significant to indian economy. The share of MSME related to products in total export from india during 2018-19 is 48.10%⁵ and 45% export during 2020-21.⁵ So it is a good sign for indian economy.

❖ As like data given in whole research employment is increasing but not at the rate of pre-liberalisation.

❖ The overall growth of MSME sector in the era of post-liberalisation it is not only cause of liberalisation. It has also angles of government policies like Pradhan Mantri mudra yojana, emergency credit line guarantee scheme (union budget 2022-23), india export initiatives, FDI % in MSMEs is only 24% as like initiatives also contribute to the growth of MSMEs. (here is a one another limitation in the research is I noted down the only recent gov. policies and initiatives.)

³ <https://www.ibef.org/industry/msme>

⁴ Budget session in parliament

⁵ DGCIS (director general of commercial intelligence and statistics), <https://pib.gov.in> and the economic times

Conclusion

Liberalisation shows positive and negative impact also on MSMS sector. In the era of post liberalisation MSME sector growing at the slow and gradual rate but the performance of MSMEs in the era of post liberalisation is significant to indian economy a,nd here is need to labour intensive countries like indian to promote MSME sector cause MSME sector has potential to generate employments as

compare to other sectors like heavy industries and all.

Refernces

- M.vemkataramanianah, B.Sunitha (2019), ‘Performance evaluation of MSMEs during pre- and post liberalisation era.’
- Subhadip Mukherjee, Rupa Chanda, ‘Impact of trade liberalisation on the performance of indian fracturing MSME.’
- Debasish Naskar (2019), ‘Liberalisation and performance pf micro, small and medium enterprises: comparative study.’
- Arijit Dash (2018), ‘Micro and small medium enterprises in india: an analytical and policy perspective.’
- S.L. Gupta and R. Rajan (2014), ‘Impact of liberalisation on contribution of MSMEs in economic development of india.’
- V.S. Sudharani and Jayasheela (2019), ‘Impact of economic liberalisation on MSMEs. Data from ministry of MSMEs.’ Ministry of micro, small & medium Enterprises, GOI.
- <https://www.ibef.org/industry/msme>
- <https://pib.gov.in>
- The economic times.

भारतातील राजकारण, अर्थकारण आणि कल्याणकारी राज्य

डॉ. अस्लम दस्तगीर अत्तार

डॉ.बाबासाहेब आंबेडकर महाविद्यालय,

पेठवडगाव, जि.कोल्हापूर

Email: adattar24@gmail.com

गोषवारा:

लोकशाहीमध्ये लोकांचे कल्याण ही संकल्पना मतपेटीतून जात असते. लोकशाहीमध्ये लोकांच्या कल्याणाचा मार्ग निवडणुकीमार्गे जात असतो. महागाई, जातीय संघर्ष, इतर सामाजिक व आर्थिक स्थितंतेरे इ. बदलची आपली मते मतपेटीतून व्यक्त होत असतात. एकीकडे लोकांच्या नवीन सरकारकडून अपेक्षा वाढत जात असताना त्या अपेक्षा पूर्ण करण्यासाठी महसुली तुट, अंदाजपत्रकीय तुट याकडे दुर्लक्ष करावे लागते. कल्याणकारी राज्य या संकल्पनेनुसार सरकारकडून मदत करताना दोन माध्यमातून मदत केली पाहिजे. एक म्हणजे थेट हस्तांतर दुसरे संस्थात्मक मार्गाने थेट अनुदान देणे. कल्याणकारी राज्य ही संकल्पना स्वीडन, नॉर्वे, डेन्मार्क यांसारख्या प्रगत राष्ट्रातून आलेली दिसते. भारतात कल्याणकारी राज्य कल्पनेत अनेक योजना आहेत. उदा. अन्नसुरक्षा, ग्रामीण आवास, जननी सुरक्षा योजना, मनरेगा, जन-धन योजना इ. अनेक सामाजिक सुधारणा व त्यांची अंमलबजावणी याकरीता सरकारवर पुष्कळवेळी मतपेटीचा दबाव असतो. पण सरकारमध्ये पुरेसे संख्याबळ असेल तर मतपेटीचा दबाव कमी असतो. बहुजन, वंचित, शोषित घटकांना शिक्षण, आरोग्य, जगण्याचे हक्क जाणीवपूर्वक बाजूला सारल्याचे चित्र आपणास स्पष्ट दिसले नाही तर नवलच. मतपेट्यातून आलेला निकाल यातून त्या सरकारकडे तज्ञ नसतील तर स्वायत्त संस्थांची स्थिती फारच गंभीर होते. उदा. रिझर्व बँकेची केलेली अवस्था, पंचवार्षिक योजना बंद करणे. स्वायत्त संस्था याकडे सरकारने खूपच गांभीर्याने पाहणे आवश्यक आहे. कारण याची स्वायत्तता नाहीशी झाली तर याचे देशाच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेवर विपरीत परिणाम घडून येतो. व या परिस्थितीतून बाहेर पडणे कठीण बनते. लोकशाहीमध्ये असो अगर कोणत्याही देशाचे सरकार बनत असताना लोकांनी विचार करून सरकार निवडले पाहिजे. धर्म, भावना या गोष्टी बाजूला सारून सरकार बनवायला हवे.

सूचक शब्द : कल्याणकारी राज्य (Welfare State), लोकशाही, स्वायत्त संस्था, सरकार

प्रस्तावना :

अँडम स्मिथ यांच्या मते, खाजगी उपक्रमाना प्रोत्साहन देऊन समाजाचे जास्तीत जास्त हित साध्य करण्यासाठी सरकारने नियंत्रकाची भूमिका पार पाडावी.

सरकारने संरक्षण अंतर्गत कायदा व सुव्यवस्था व प्रशासन व न्यायदान या कार्याबरोबर जनहिताची कामे केली पाहिजेत. राज्य हे पोलीसी राज्य न राहता कल्याणकारी राज्य झाले पाहिजे. राजकीय पक्षांची मानसिकता सत्तेवर आल्यानंतर सरकारचा खजिना रीकामा करणे व प्रसंगी ज्या मतांच्या जीवावर सत्तेत आले त्या लोकांसाठी हळूहळू योजना राबवायला सुरुवात करतात. व यातून मोठा दबाव त्या देशाच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेवर पडतो. राजकीय पक्षांचे धोरणामुळे लोकशाहीमध्ये मोठ्या आव्हानांना तोंड द्यावे लागत आहे. यातून सरकार आर्थिक दिवाळखोरीत अडकण्याची शक्यता

निर्माण होते. कल्याणकारी भूमिका व अर्थव्यवस्था या दोन्ही बाजू प्रत्येक राजकीय पक्षाने तपासल्या पाहिजेत. त्या देशाच्या आर्थिक व सामाजिक विकास कसा राखावा हे राजकीय पक्षांनी आत्मसात केले पाहिजे. जनतेला मोफत वीज, थेट खात्यात रोख रक्कम अनुदान, कर्जमाफी यासारखी आश्वासने द्यायची व सत्तेत यायचे. देशाच्या अर्थव्यवस्थेवर बोजा टाकायचा यातून सार्वजनिक कर्ज वाढत जाऊन तो देश कर्जाच्या सापळ्यात अडकून त्या देशाची स्थिती श्रीलंका देशासारखी झाल्याशिवाय राहणार नाही.

कल्याणकारी राज्य संकल्पना :

स्थूलमानाने देशातील सर्व नागरिकांच्या मूलभूत कल्याणाची म्हणजे योगक्षेमाची जबाबदारी स्वीकारून, त्यानुसार आपली शासकीय धोरणे व कार्य ठरवणारी राज्यसंस्था. कल्याणकारी राज्य व्यक्तीला न्याय हक्कापासून आणि स्वातंत्र्यापासून वंचित न करता, वर्गीय संघर्ष टाळून सामाजिक आणि आर्थिक बदलांनी सामाजिक कल्याण साधण्याचे उद्दिष्ट ठेवते. कल्याणकारी राज्य मक्तेदारीला विरोध करून संपत्तीच्या केंद्रीकरणाचा धोका टाळते. भांडवल व मनुष्यबळ यांचा जास्तीत-जास्त आणि परस्परपूरक वापर करून उत्पादन वाढविण्यासाठी प्रयत्नशील राहते. नफ्याची योग्यवाटणी, जबाबदारी आणि संधी यांचा समतोल राखून सामाजिक सुरक्षेचे वातावरण तयार करते. कल्याणकारी राज्यात नियोजनाला महत्वपूर्ण स्थान असते.

व्याख्या :

- 1) G. D. H. Cole : “The welfare state is a society in which an assured minimum standard of living and opportunity becomes the possession of every citizen.”
- 2) प्रो. लास्की : “कल्याणकारी राज्य लोकां का वह संघटन है जिसमें कि सबका सामूहिक रूप से हित हो सके”

उद्दिष्टे:

- 1) भारतातील लोक कल्याणकारी योजनांचा आढावा घेणे.
- 2) भारतातील लोक कल्याणकारी योजनांचा अभ्यास करणे.
- 3) भारतातील सरकार व त्याची धोरणे याचा आढावा घेणे.

गृहितके :

- 1) बहुजन, वंचित, शोषित घटकाकडे सरकारने विशेष लक्ष द्यायला पाहिजे पण भारतात दुर्लक्ष केले आहे.
- 2) भारतात सर्वसमावेशक विकास (Inclusive Growth) मधील अडथळे खूप आहेत.

संशोधन पद्धती :

प्रस्तुत संशोधन पेपर हा दुय्यम साधन सामग्रीवर आधारित असून त्याकरीता CME Report, Census 2011, कॅज्यूर कॉन्फीडन्स इंडेक्स, उपभोग व्यय सर्वेक्षण 2017-18, UNDP Report 2021, विविध लेख, मासिके, वर्तमानपत्रे, इंटरनेट इ. चा वापर करण्यात आला आहे. हा संशोधन पेपर “भारतातील राजकारण, अर्थकारण व कल्याणकारी राज्य” यावरती आधारीत आहे.

भारतातील कल्याणकारी योजना:

भारताने स्वातंत्र्यानंतर मिश्र अर्थव्यवस्था स्वीकारली .मिश्र अर्थव्यवस्थेत सरकारची भूमिका निर्णायक स्वरूपाची असते .मिश्र अर्थव्यवस्थेत सरकारची भूमिका सार्वजनिक क्षेत्रांचा विकास करणे संयुक्त व खाजगी विकासाला चालना देणे विकास कामांना पुरेसा निधी उपलब्ध करून देणे ,देशाच्या आर्थिक व्यवहारात विधायक भूमिका बजावणे ,राष्ट्रातील आर्थिक विषमतेची दरी कमी करणे, काम करणाऱ्या सक्षम लोकांना काम उपलब्ध करून देणे इत्यादीसाठी सरकारची भूमिका महत्त्वाची ठरते. समाजातील सर्वांना नियोजनाचा लाभ प्राप्त करून देण्यासाठी सरकारला महत्त्वपूर्ण जबाबदारी पार पाडावी लागते. राष्ट्रातील विविध क्षेत्रांचा विकास करताना योजनांचा लाभ गरिबांना अधिक मिळवून देण्याचे कार्य करावे लागते. आर्थिक नियोजनाची गरज वंचित वर्गाच्या राहणीमानात झालेल्या सुधारणा यातून स्पष्ट होते. सामाजिक वस्तू व सेवासाठी पसंती सिध्दांत अँथनी डाऊन्स यांनी मांडला. बहुमताने कोणती वस्तू व सेवा पुरवावी याकरिता मतदान घ्यावे .बहुमताच्या आधारे त्या वस्तू व सेवा पुरवाव्या. अँथनी डाऊन्स यांच्या मते ,यांच्या मते राजकीय पक्ष समाजातील उत्पादन साधनांचे कार्यक्षम वाटप करण्याचा प्रयत्न करीत नाहीत. त्यांच्या मते निवडून दिलेले राजकीय पक्ष व प्रतिनिधी स्वार्थाने प्रेरित झालेला असतात ते आदर्श सामाजिक धोरणे साध्य करण्याचा प्रयत्न करीत नाहीत. म्हणजेच उत्तम सामाजिक कल्याणासाठी ते प्रयत्नशील नसतात. मतदानातील टक्केवारी कमी राहणे ही लोकशाहीच्या दृष्टीने धोकादायक आहे .महागाई ,इंधन ,किंमती दरवाढ ,बेरोजगारी , धार्मिक बाबी ,आर्थिक व सामाजिक स्थिततरे हे मुद्दे घेऊन निवडणुका जिंकायच्या व नंतर दिलेली आश्वासने विसरून जायचे .ही वस्तुस्थिती भारतात दिसून येते .भारतात सध्या 75 विविध प्रकरच्या लोक कल्याणकारी योजना आढळतात.

- 1) प्रधानमंत्री किसान सन्मान निधी योजना 2,25,000 कोटी हस्तांतर
- 2) जन धन योजना 34.26 कोटी खाती उघडली त्यामध्ये 90,000 कोटी पेक्षा अधिक पैसे जमा आहेत.
- 3) मुद्रा योजना 16 कोटी वाटप
- 4) अटल पेन्शन योजना 3.32 कोटी
- 5) प्रधानमंत्री सुरक्षा विमा 24.57 कोटी व प्रधानमंत्री जीवन ज्योती विमा 10.81 कोटी लाभधारक 04 ऑक्टोबर 2021 पर्यंत

- 6) बेटी बचाओ- बेटी पढाओ (सुकन्या समृद्धी स्कीम)
- 7) उज्ज्वला योजना 3.46 कोटी घरेलू गैस कनेक्शन वितरीत केले आहेत.
- 9) आयुष्यमान भारत योजनेअंतर्गत 04 ऑक्टोबर 2021 पर्यंत 2.18 कोटी अधिक लोकांनी लाभ घेतला.
- 10) गरीब कल्याण अन्न योजना 3.40 लाख कोटी 80 कोटी लोकांना धान्य
- 11) जल जीवन मिशन 8.27 कोटी ग्रामीण घरांना नळपाणी पुरवठा लाभ

RBI आकडेवारीनुसार अन्न, इंधन, खते, सबसिडी याकरीता सध्याच्या सरकारने 2014-22 या दरम्यान 91 लाख कोटी खर्च केले. तर मागच्या सरकारने 2004-14 या काळात 49.2 लाख कोटी खर्च केले.

सध्याचे भारतीय राजकारण, अर्थकारण:

सध्याचे भारतीय राजकारण, अर्थकारण समजून घेताना अनेक बाबीवर प्रकाशझोत टाकायला हवा.

1) जीडीपी आणि HDI :

भारताचा वृद्धीदर 2019 मध्ये 6.55% होता, तर 2021 मध्ये 6.6% होता तर 2022 ला तो 9.2% इतका सध्या करायचा होता. एकीकडे भारताचा जीडीपी मधील वृद्धीदर बाकीच्या देशाच्या मानाने अत्यंत चांगला आहे. मात्र HDI (Human Development Index) 189 देशातील स्थान मात्र 131 ते 129 या दरम्यान राहते. HDI मूल्य वाढविणे हे मोठे आव्हान भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेसमोर आहे. त्यासाठी शिक्षण, आरोग्य, उत्पन्न या विशेष बाबीवर लक्ष द्यायला हवे. शिक्षणातील गळती रोखायला हवी, श्रमसहभाजन दर वाढवायला हवातसेच लिंग असमानता यावर भारताने काम केले पाहिजे. जेणेकरून HDI मधील मूल्य वाढेल. मात्र देश धार्मिक, राजकीय बाबीत गुंतला आहे.

2) गरीबी:

संयुक्त राष्ट्रांच्या अहवालानुसार भारतात 2020 मध्ये 4 कोटी ६० लाख नागरीक गरीबीच्या खाईत लोटले आहेत. जगभरातल्या गरीबामधील 50% गरीब भारतात आहेत. उपभोग व्यय सर्वेक्षण 2017-18 नुसार गेल्या 8 वर्षात 1.52 कोटी गरिबांची संख्या वाढली आहे. HDI मूल्य कमी असायला दारिद्र्य एकमेव कारण आहे. याकरीता विविध योजना अंमलबजावणी केली पाहिजे.

3) आर्थिक विषमता:

जागतिक विषमता अहवालात भारताचा उल्लेख गरीब व असमानता असलेला देश असे केले आहे. भारतात वरच्या आर्थिक स्तरातील 10% लोकांकडे राष्ट्रीय उत्पन्नाच्या 57.1% भाग जातो. तर खालच्या वर्गातील तब्बल निम्न्या लोकसंख्येकडे केवळ 13% भाग जातो. सर्वात श्रीमंत अशा अवघ्या

1% वर्गाकडे देशाच्या एकूण उत्पन्नाच्या 22% भाग जातो. याच काळात भारतात अब्जाधीशांची संख्या 2020 मध्ये 102 वरून 142 झाली. भारतात आर्थिक विषमता मोठ्या प्रमाणात वाढत आहे. व यातून गरीब व श्रीमंत यामधील दरी वाढतच आहे.

4) बेरोजगारी :

अर्थतज्ञ कौशिक बसू यांच्या मते, मागील तीन दशकांच्या तुलनेत देशात बेरोजगार दर सर्वाधिक आहे. बेरोजगारांची संख्या २०१४ मध्ये १४ कोटी होती. ती २०१८ मध्ये ३० कोटी तर डिसेंबर २०२१ पर्यंत 5.3 कोटी बेरोजगार लोकसंख्या होती. भारतातील बेरोजगारीचा मुद्दा चिंताजनक आहे. मेक इन इंडीया सारख्या उपक्रमांच्या माध्यमातून उत्पादन, रोजगार फायदा मिळू शकलेला नाही.

5) खाजगीकरण व भांडवलदार लोकांचा फायदा :

जेव्हा निवडक धनिकासाठी सत्ता राबवली जाते, सत्ताधीश अशा धनिकांचे गुलाम बनतात तेव्हा ते सरकारची मालमत्ता कवडी मोलाने या धनिकाच्या पदरात नेऊन देतात. जिथे देशातील 90% संपत्ती ही मूठभर श्रीमंतांच्या हातात एकवटलेली असते. असे विचार प्रसिद्ध विचारवंत नोम चौम्स्की मांडले. भारताची वाटचाल याच दिशेने सुरु आहे ही बाब विचार करायला लावणारी आहे. तेल, वायू, बंदरे, विमानतळे, उर्जा अशा जवळपास 100 मालमत्तांचे खाजगीकरण यातून 1.3 ट्रिलियन पैसा उभारला जाईल. केंद्र सरकारने 26 सार्वजनिक क्षेत्रातील कंपन्यांचे खाजगीकरण करण्याचा निर्णय घेतला आहे. त्यामध्ये Air India, BPCL, BCPL, HNL, HFL या कंपन्यांचा समावेश आहे. यातून गरीब, वंचित घटकांना त्या वस्तू घेणे परवडणार नाही.

6) ग्राहकाचा खर्च :

भारतात कंज्यूर कॉन्फीडन्स इंडेक्सनुसार ग्राहकाचा खर्च करण्याचा आत्मविश्वास 50% पेक्षा कमी झाला आहे. कमी मिळकत आणि वाढती महागाई यामुळे लोक खर्च करीत नाहीत. ज्याचा वाईट परिणाम आपल्या अर्थव्यवस्थेवर होतो.

7) स्वायत्त संस्थांची स्थिती:

स्वायत्त संस्थांची लोकशाहीमध्ये विशेषतः लोककल्याणकारी राज्यामध्ये महत्त्वाची भूमिका असते. सध्याच्या सरकारने स्वायत्त संस्थांची स्वायत्तता काढून घेतली आहे. ज्या कारणासाठी ह्या संस्था स्थापन झाल्या त्याचा उद्देशच नाहीसा झाला आहे. Reserve Bank of India मध्ये एकही गव्हर्नर आपला कार्यकाळ पूर्ण होई पर्यंत थांबला नाही. याचाच दुसरा अर्थ असा काढता येईल की स्वायत्त संस्थामध्ये सरकारचा हस्तक्षेप वाढला आहे. नियोजन आयोग बंद करणे, नीती आयोग स्थापना यामुळे वंचित, शोषित घटकांचा मिळणारा हक्काचा निधी बंद झाला आहे. मतदानाच्या पेटीतून ह्या सर्व घटकांना न्याय मिळावा ही अपेक्षा असताना निराशा होणे. हे लोकशाहीप्रधान देशाला भूषणावाह नक्कीच नाही.

8) राजकीय कुरघोडी व यंत्रणांचा वापर:

सध्या भारतात प्रगल्भ राजकारण दिसत नाही. अनेक मुद्दे घेऊन संसदेत चर्चा साकारल्या जाव्या व यातून सकारात्मक विकासाचे मुद्दे मांडले जाऊन प्रगत देशाची निर्मिती व्हावी असे असताना याउलट चित्र सध्या दिसत असून संसदेचा वेळ वाया जाऊन करदात्यांचा हेतू सफल झालेला दिसत नाही. ईडी व इतर तपास यंत्रणांचा वापर राजकीय कुरघोडी साठी वापर सध्या होत आहे. ही बाब देशाच्या विकासाच्या दृष्टीने फारच गंभीर आहे.

9) इंधन किंमती:

उज्वला योजना गरीब कुटुंबातील महिलांना गैस वितरण केले होते. मात्र आजचे दर 1000 रुपये आहेत. पेट्रोल, डिझेल किंमती 120 पार करून गेल्या आहेत. यामुळे सर्व सामान्य लोकांच्या जगण्याचे हाल सध्या होत आहेत. पण भारतीय लोकप्रतिनिधी हनुमान चालीसा व मशिदी भोंगे यावर काम करीत आहेत. ही लोक कल्याणकारी राज्याची गुणवैशिष्ट्ये मुळीच नाहीत.

10) नोटाबंदी व जीएसटी :

नोटाबंदी नंतर 99.3% नोटा Reserve Bank of India कडे परत आल्या. नोटाबंदी हा सरकारचा निर्णय चुकला होता. याउलट याच काळात राष्ट्रीय उत्पन्न 2% नी घसरले. अंदाजे 3 लाख ते 3.5 लाख कोटींचे नुकसान होत. नोटाबंदी हा सरकारचा निर्णय पूर्वतयारी शिवाय घेतलेला होता. यातून साध्य काहीच झाले नाही. याउलट नवीन नोटांच्या छपाईसाठी 21,000 कोटी रुपये खर्च झाले. त्याचे अर्थव्यवस्थेवर वाईट परिणाम झाले. जीएसटी निर्णय देखील पुर्वीच्या सरकारने घेतला असला तरी त्याची योग्य अंमलबजावणी झालेली नाही.

11) कोरोना महामारी:

कोरोना महामारी स्थिती सरकारला हाताळायला आलेली नाही. यात सर्वसामान्य जनता यांना खूप त्रास सहन करावा लागला. थाळी वाजवून, मेणबत्ती लावून कोरोना गेलेला नाही. उलट परिस्थिती खूपच गंभीर बनली होती. कोरोना महामारी स्थिती असताना उत्तराखंड मध्ये कुंभमेळा साठी सरकारने परवानगी देलेली होती. ज्यामध्ये 35 लाख लोक सामील झालेली होते. पण दुसरीकडे निजामुद्दीन मर्कज, दिल्ली यात वेगळा न्याय दिलेला होता. यातून सरकारची 'धर्मनिरपेक्षता' दिसून येते. ही बाब धर्मनिरपेक्ष देश म्हणून लोकांच्या पचनी पडलेली नाही.

12) पीएम केयर फंड:

पीएम केयर फंड पूर्णपणे वापरायला हवा पण तसे झाले नाही. कोरोना महामारीत सरकारने धान्य दिले पण रोजगार गेल्याने बिकट परिस्थिती झालेली होती. या काळात गरीब लोकांना अनुदान, बेकारभत्ते द्यायला हवे होते पण तसे झाले नाही. पीएम केयर फंड याकरीता वापरायला हवा होता.

निष्कर्ष:

सरकारने करदात्यांचा पैसा समाजामध्ये विकासाकरीता वापरायला हवा पण सध्याचे सरकार असा प्रयोग करताना दिसत नाही. हा पैसा पुतळ्यांसाठी वापरला जातो. ही बाब खूपच गंभीर आहे. 200 कोटी रक्कम सरकारने सरदार पटेल पुतळ्याकरीता दिले तर त्याच्या जाहिरातीसाठी 2.64 कोटी खर्च करते. एकीकडे गरीब महिलासाठी उज्ज्वला गॅस योजना करीता कनेक्शन दिले पण दुसरीकडे याची सबसिडी बंद केली. शिक्षण, आरोग्य स्थिती फारच गंभीर केली आहे. शिक्षण, आरोग्यावरील, पायाभूत सोई-सुविधा खर्च वाढविला पाहिजे. पण सरकार त्यामध्ये कपात करित असताना दिसत आहे, ही बाब खूपच गंभीर आहे. स्वायत्त संस्था मधील सरकारचा हस्तक्षेप हा थांबला पाहिजे. राजकीय कुरघोडीसाठी ईडी व इतर तपास यंत्रणांचा वापर करताना सरकार दिसत आहे. यातून सरकार विरोधी वातावरण तयार होत नाही. यामुळे सर्व सामान्य जनतेचे हक्क दाबले जाण्याची शक्यता जास्त असते. एकीकडे भारताचा जीडीपी मधील वृद्धीदर बाकीच्या देशांच्या मानाने अत्यंत चांगला आहे. मात्र HDI (Human Development Index) Rank 181 देशामधील स्थान मात्र 131 ते 129 या दरम्यान आहे. HDI मूल्य वाढविणे हे मोठे आव्हान भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेसमोर आहे. त्यासाठी शिक्षण, आरोग्य, उत्पन्न या बाबींवर विशेष लक्ष द्यायला हवे. शिक्षणातील गळती रोखायला हवी, उत्पन्न वाढीसाठी प्रयत्न करायला हवे. गरीबी दूर करण्यासाठी विशेष प्रयत्न केले पाहिजेत. पण देशातील सरकार मात्र धार्मिक, राजकीय बाबतीत गुंतला आहे. सरदार पटेल पुतळा, राम मंदीर, अनेक कल्याणकारी योजना बंद, स्वायत्त संस्था मधील सरकारचा हस्तक्षेप, न्यायव्यवस्था डळमळीत करणे इ. गोष्टी सरकारकडून होत आहेत. तर दुसरीकडे इंधन दरवाढ, महागाई, बेकरी, शिक्षण, आरोग्य इ. बाबीकडे सोईस्कर दुर्लक्ष केले जात आहे.

संदर्भ:

- 1) CME Report
- 2) Census 2011
- 3) Goldman , Peter , The Welfare State, London, 1964
- 4) कॅंज्यूमर कॉन्फीडन्स इंडेक्स
- 5) उपभोग व्यय सर्वेक्षण 2017-18
- 6) UNDP Report 2021
- 7) www.pmindia.gov.in/mr/news_updates/%E0%A4%96%E0%A4%BE%E0
- 8) www.bbc.com/Marathi/india_46128639.amp

WELFARE SCHEMES IN INDIA FOR WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Dr. Lekhika U. Meshram
DPT. of Public Administration
Dr. B. A. M. University, Aurangabad
Mail id. meshramlekhika@outlook.com

Abstract:

Empowerment of women essentially means improving the social, political and economic status of women, especially the traditional underprivileged one. It means creating an environment where women are free from any kind of physical, mental abuse, exploitation, and prejudice that they face. They are the most vulnerable section in the society. Recognizing the importance of women in the economic growth of the nation, the Government of India along with State Governments has been taking several efforts to uplift women from their conditions in general. The focus of Government is progressively shifting towards promoting women entrepreneurship to motivate women to participate in the economic activities. This paper attempts to analyze the need of Women Empowerment in India and highlights the methods and schemes of Women Empowerment.

Key words: Woman empowerment, women entrepreneurship, women in workforce, schemes of woman empowerment

Introduction:

Today the empowerment of women has become one of the most important concerns of 21st century but practically women empowerment is still an illusion of reality. Women empowerment refers to increasing the spiritual, political, social, educational, gender or economic strength of individual women and communities of women. Women are an integral part of every economy. All round development and harmonious growth of a nation would be possible only when women are considered as equal partners in progress with men. Women's empowerment in India is heavily dependent on many different variables that include geographical location (urban / rural), educational status, social status (caste and class) and age. Policies on Women's empowerment exist at the national, state and local (Panchayat) levels in many sectors, including health, education, economic opportunities, and gender based violence and political participation. Women empowerment enables autonomy and control over their lives. The empowered women become agents of their own development, able to exercise choices to set their own agenda and be strong enough to challenge their subordinate position in the society. Women particularly in rural areas have proportionately least possessions, skills, education, social status, leadership qualities and capabilities for mobilization, which determine the degree of decision making power, and as a result, their dependence on men increases. They have been confined to the four walls of the household, overburdened with domestic works and controlled in terms of their mobility and personal freedoms by the men of the household since time immemorial. So they have lagged behind in the fields of education, skill development, and employment and as a result, their work is greatly undervalued in economic terms. Empowerment of women is essentially the process of upliftment of economic, social and political status of women, the traditionally underprivileged ones, in the society.

Women Empowerment Schemes:

- Beti Bachao Beti Padhao Scheme
- One Stop Centre Scheme
- Women Helpline Scheme
- Ujjawala: A Comprehensive Scheme for Prevention of trafficking and Rescue, Rehabilitation and Re-integration of Victims of Trafficking and Commercial Sexual Exploitation
- Working Women Hostel
- Ministry approves new projects under Ujjawala Scheme and continues existing projects
- Swadhar Greh (A Scheme for Women in Difficult Circumstances)
- Nari Shakti Puraskar
- Awardees of Stree Shakti Puruskar, 2014 & Awardees of Nari Shakti Puruskar
- Awardees of Rajya Mahila Samman & Zila Mahila Samman
- Mahila police Volunteers
- Mahila Shakti Kendras (MSK)
- Nirbhaya

Beti Bachao, Beti Padhao:

‘Save girl child, educate girl child’ is a Central Government Sponsored Scheme by Government of India. The prime goal of this scheme is to generate awareness and improving the efficiency of welfare services meant for women. Also, it aims to celebrate the Girl Child & Enable her Education. The Beti Bachao, Beti Padhao (BBBP) Scheme has been introduced to address the issue declining Child Sex Ratio (CSR). This scheme is being implemented through a national campaign and focused multi-sectoral action in 100 selected districts low in CSR, covering all States and UTs. This scheme is implemented by the joint initiative of Ministry of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare and Ministry of Human Resource Development. Prime Minister Modi launched the programme on 22 January 2015 from Panipat, Haryana on the occasion of International Day of the Girl Child, Prime Minister Modi, called for the eradication of female.

Scheme for setting up One Stop Centre:

The Ministry has approved Scheme for setting up ‘One Stop Centre’ to support women affected by violence on 4th March, 2015. The scheme aims to facilitate access to an integrated range of services including medical aid, police assistance, legal aid/case management, psychosocial counseling, and temporary support services to women affected by violence. One Stop Centres (OSC) is meant to support women affected by violence, in private and public spaces, within the family, community and at the workplace. Women facing physical, sexual, emotional, psychological and economic abuse, irrespective of age, class, caste, education status, marital status, race, and culture will be facilitated with support and redressal. Aggrieved women facing any kind of violence due to attempted sexual harassment, sexual assault, domestic violence, trafficking, honour-related crimes, acid attacks or witch-hunting who have reached out or been referred to the OSC will be provided with specialized services. OSC are set up in each State/UT. This scheme facilitates access to an integrated range of services including medical, legal, and psychological support. The OSC will be integrated with Helpline No. 181 and other existing helplines. Women affected by violence

and in need of redressal, services could be referred to OSC through these helplines. The objectives of this scheme are - to provide integrated support and assistance to women affected by violence, both in private and public spaces under one roof; to facilitate immediate, emergency and non-emergency access to a range of services including medical, legal, psychological and counseling support under one roof to fight against any forms of violence against women.

Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana (IGMSY):

The Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana (IGMSY) is a maternity benefits scheme implemented by the Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India. This scheme is for the pregnant and lactating women of 19 years of age or above for first two live births to contribute to a better enabling environment by providing conditional cash transfer for improved health and nutrition and to also promote health and nutrition seeking behavior in them. It provides partial wage compensation to women for wage-loss during childbirth and childcare and to provide conditions for safe delivery and good nutrition and feeding practices. It provides cash maternity benefit to the women. The pregnant women of 19 years of age and above is entitled to a cash incentive of Rs. 4000 in three installments for first two live births. The objectives of this scheme are - to promoting appropriate practice, care and institutional service utilization during pregnancy, safe delivery and lactation; to encouraging the women to follow (optimal) nutrition and Young Child feeding practices, including early and Exclusive breastfeeding for the first six months; and to providing cash incentives for improved health and nutrition to pregnant and lactating mothers in order to contribute to better enabling environment.

Women Helpline Scheme:

This was launched on 6th August, 2017 by the Modi Government. The objectives of this scheme are: to provide 24hrs emergency and non-emergency response to women affected by violence including sexual offences and harassment both in public and private sphere, and to provide integrated support and assistance to women affected by violence.

Stree Shakti Package for Women Entrepreneurs:

There is a lot of focus on promoting women entrepreneurship in India with the government and financial institutions having various schemes. One such scheme promoted by the State Bank of India (SBI) is Shakti Package for Women Entrepreneurs. In this article, we look at the SBI Stree Sakthi Package for women Entrepreneurs in detail. Businesses operated by women entrepreneurs are eligible to receive loan under Stree Shakti Package. For the purpose of identifying —Women Entrepreneurs| businesses, the definition recommended by the MSME Department of India will be applicable. As per definition, a Women Entrepreneur business is —A small scale industrial unit / industry related service or business enterprise managed by one or more women entrepreneurs in proprietary concerns or in which she/they individually or jointly have a share capital of not less than 51% as partners /shareholders/Directors of Private Limited Company/Members of Co-operative Society. Thus, women entrepreneurs or women entrepreneur business in retail trade, manufacturing or services are eligible for the scheme. Also, Women professionals like Doctors, Beauticians, Architects and Chartered Accountants can avail loan under the Stree Shakti package.

Shadi Shagun Yojna:

This was launched on 6th August, 2017 by the Modi Government. Under the scheme all the graduate Muslim girls completing their graduation in any of the streams before their marriage would also be eligible to avail the Shaadi Shagun Yojana benefits. To motivate girls from minority groups to pursue higher education was also under initiative.

Central Victim Compensation Fund:

Central Victim Compensation Fund has been created under Nirbhaya, which is a corpus fund to support States/UTs for their Victim Compensation Scheme. This is helping ensure adequate and timely support for women survivors of crime and violence.

Mahila E-Haat:

The Ministry of Women & Child Development launched —Mahila E-Haat a bilingual portal on 7th March, 2016. This is a unique direct online marketing platform leveraging technology for supporting women entrepreneurs/SHGs/ NGOs for showcasing the products / services which are made/manufactured/ undertaken by them. It is an initiative for meeting aspirations and needs of women. This was done keeping in mind that digital media is a critical component for business efficiency and thus it should be made available to the majority of Indian women entrepreneurs. Since its launch over 17 lakhs visitors / hits have been received by the Mahila-E-Haat Portal. Women entrepreneurs/SHGs/NGOs from all states are showcasing products/services across 18 categories viz., Clothing (Men, Women & Children), Bags, Fashion Accessories/Jewellery, Decorative and gift items, Home Décor, Carpets / Rugs, Baskets, Linen/ Cushion Covers, Boxes, Pottery, Grocery & Staples / Organic, Natural Products, Industrial Products, Educational Aids and Miscellaneous.

Conclusion:

The government has initiated some really good schemes for Women Empowerment in the Indian Society. But more than schemes and more than laws, social discussions, debate, promotion and awareness are the areas which need to be addressed to deal with concerned problems. The day when these schemes and programmes will reach each and every corner of our country, our developing country will emerge as a developed and prosperous nation. The government has made many schemes for child development and empowerment of women.

References:

- [1]. Dominic, Beena. & Jothi, C. Amrita.(2012): — Education-A tool of Women Empowerment: Historical study based on Kerala society, International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, Volume 2, Issue 4, April 2012, pp.1-4.
- [2]. Annual Report 2016-17, MINISTRY OF WOMEN AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT Government of India. [7]. REPORT of the WORKING GROUP on EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN FOR THE XI PLAN MINISTRY OF WOMEN AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.
- [3]. G.O.I. (2009): Gendering Human Development Indices: Recasting the Gender Development Index and Gender Empowerment Measure for India: A Summary Report, Ministry of Woman and Child Welfare, New Delhi.
- [4]. Chattopadhyay, R. & E. Duflo (2001): —Women's Leadership and Policy Decisions: Evidence from a Nationwide Randomized Experiment in India, Indian Institute of Management, Calcutta and Department of Economics, MIT, and NBER.

[5]. Bardhan, K. & S. Klasen (2000): —On UNDP’s Revisions to the Gender- Related Development Index, Journal of Human Development, Vol.1, pp.191-195.

A Review of Social Security Paradigm in India

Ms. Samiksha A. Farakate
Assistant Professor,
Department of Political Science
Vivekanad College, Kolhapur
(Autonomous)

Abstract: The absolute poverty in India declined but the income gap has widened under liberalization of economy in India. The inequality and the insecurity of basic aspects of wellbeing like income, health, and education affect the exercise of political rights by citizens and the health of democracy in India. They together put question marks on the nature of sovereignty and citizenship in India. This paper attempts to understand the reasons and nature of social insecurity in India. It focuses on the phenomenon of increasing informalization of the economy and its results. It finally assesses the nature of welfare paradigm in India.

Key words: Social security, informal economy, structure of economy, welfare.

Introduction: The most frequently seen scenes in the curfew imposed to prevent the spread of Covid-19 were of the 'labourers' who walked thousands of miles with their children in tattered clothes, traveling at the cost of their lives. Their access to shelter, food, clothing were taken away in one swipe and they were left to the mercy of charity by the rich and 'noble'. 'Equality' and human dignity constitute the foundation of citizenship. Each of us is the source of the sovereign power of the country. Inequality strikes at the provision of political equality. Inequality, helplessness and deprivation are ubiquitous around us. Their accentuation has only mirrored the existing inequality in our system.

We seldom notice the humanity of a large population around us. So the fact that they are 'equal' to us is a far cry. Today the economic insecurity is spreading at an incredible rate. The Periodic Labour Force Survey data suggests that 'the top 10 % in India earn approximately equal to the bottom 64%. The top 10 account for one-third of the incomes earned' (Economic Times 2022). Poverty in one facet of living (like job) has cascading effects on the other aspects of wellbeing (education, health, standard of living etc.) All factors affect each other in multiple ways, which is called 'multidimensional poverty'.

This article is an attempt to review what are the possible theoretical and practical reasons for the economic insecurity in India. It tries to assess how the government takes care of the economically insecure class

Informalization of Labour: The huge unorganized sector in India is a manifestation and cause of this insecurity. Ninety per cent of the total economy in India and 85 per cent of non-agricultural employment is unorganized. (International Labour Organization, 2019). (The average figure for the world is 61 percent.) According to the Unorganized Sector Social Security Act of 2008, self-employed person providing goods or services, or an organization that employs less than 10 people and which does not fall within the scope of labour laws falls into the unorganized sector. The unorganized sector looks even bigger if it is defined by the nature of the work and / or the number of people to whom labour safety applies. Economist C. P. Chandrasekhar says that written agreement, guarantee of social security (such as pension) and right to paid leave should define the organized sector. According to 2011-12 figures, 79 per cent of the country's working people had no work contract.

The large size of the unorganized sector is part of the specific nature of the capitalist development process in our country. Many factors determine the nature of this development process - the historical choices in the context of our economy, the imperialist world economy, the specific nature of the country's class system and class struggle, the effect of cultural and political factors, and so on. The large size of the unorganized sector in India is the basis of the country's large economic inequality. In 2011, the daily wage in the organized sector in India was Rs 513. In the same year, the wage for the unorganized sector was Rs 166. The unorganized sector is run on low skills and medium quality technology. So people who can't develop high quality skills get work this field. Manufacturing, construction and trade are main sectors in the unorganised sector. But the worker cannot avail basic things like limited working hours, leave, fair pay, financial security if you stop working according to age (e.g. pension), accident and illness assistance, health insurance, proper workplace conditions and fair treatment.

Rough Causes of Economic Insecurity:

Historical Disadvantages: Since the 1980s, contractualization and its informalization have become an integral part of capitalism around the world. Of course this primarily happens in the poorest and developing world. From the 1990s onwards, India started liberalization more openly. For a decade before that, the model of the Nehru-led mixed economy was slowly becoming obsolete. After liberalization, the country's overall poverty rate decreased, but inequality increased (Atul Kohli 2010).

After independence, we adopted capitalist development as our way of growth. Unlike China, the land reform laws were not successful in India, due to the alliance between the political elite and the established landlords and the rich peasantry (Atul Kohli 2010). Landless agricultural laborers were expected to benefit from land redistribution. That was not achieved. Basic equality in the ownership of agricultural land is necessary not only for the principle of equality but also as the foundation of industrial development; it was necessary to create an internal market. The beginning of capitalization in agriculture in the form of green revolution further increased the economic inequality in agriculture. The deprivation of poor farmers and agricultural laborers and their neglect in the discussion of 'agricultural question' increased. The size of the public sector was large. Public sector jobs became the highway to good employment. With the partial success of reservation politics, the impact of social deprivation was somewhat reduced and the disadvantaged sections were able to rise to the top of the economic sphere. With the liberalization and privatization, this possibility further weakened (Kaviraj 2010).

Structural Reasons: India, like other third world countries is a late capitalist country. Scholars say that these late capitalist countries have some inherent disadvantages. These apply to India (Anthony DiCosta, 2018). Few companies those are competitive in capital-centric and technology-centric manufacturing and services sectors benefit from the manufacturing process. Like small pockets, this subset rejoices in the capitalism of the country. Those who are deprived of their livelihood in the process of primitive accumulation enter capital production as workers - but this is not the case for many here. Companies producing small and large supplements for the conglomerates do not get the space they need to grow. They settle into complementary role. Legal and direct violation of labour rights is

upheld in the name of competitive advantage. Capital is becoming centralized in the world centres of power. India has to face this structural limitation in its fight against poverty.

Education: The relative lack of equal-quality and meaningful education for all remains a major strategic failure of India. In 2018-19, only 3% of our national income was given for education. (The new national education policy promises to increase spending by 6 per cent, but the nature of the implementation will be known in the near future.) There is also a significant difference in the way India and East Asian countries spend on education. In the insistence on employment and skills-centered education, the concept of 'skills' has been narrowed down.

The nature of economic growth and urbanization: Many imbalances in India's economic growth and urbanization process shape the country's poverty and deprivation in different ways. Some of these imbalances are due to structural reasons, some due to strategic mismanagement and some due to political instability. For example, urban population growth was the highest among Tier 1 cities. The distribution of wealth generated through various economic transactions and thus restricting inequality is no longer a priority in our urban planning. After 1990, overall poverty in urban areas has decreased and inequality, especially among the socially disadvantaged, has increased. The pace of urbanization in India has slowed down compared to other middle income countries (Aromar Revi, Jyoti Kodogamti, Shriya Anand, 2014). The growth of services that require education and skills became more important. The service sector accounts for more than 60 per cent of the national income and 25 per cent of the total employment come from this sector (2019). As many practitioners have pointed out, we ignore the middle step of production and have jumped largely directly from agriculture to services. In the service sector, informal, and unregulated work is more prevalent. There is no correlation between economic growth and job creation in the country. With economic growth, more jobs are not created automatically. This requires separate strategic interventions of 'inclusive development' in our policies (Aromar Revi, Jyoti Kodogamati, Shriya Anand, 2014). And it becomes a loophole for policymakers.

Social Security Available for Economically Insecure Areas

The large unorganized sector in the development process of underdeveloped countries is not only a sign of capitalist transition - it becomes a stable permanent system. Therefore, after the 1970s, global financial institutions and governments, instead of pursuing a policy of reducing the size of the unorganized sector that feeds economic exploitation and insecurity, shifted to social security schemes for the unorganized sector. Through regulation of the unorganized sector and through these security schemes, the government actually helps in the process of capital accumulation (Kalyan Sanyal 2007). The persistence of the unorganized sector, in exchange for the assurance of some reasonable benefits, is confirmed by government policies. This is now happening in India.

The Central Government has introduced Partnership Retirement Scheme (from 2019) for unorganized sector workers and traders and self-employed persons. Kisan Yojana, some insurance schemes, Atal Pension Yojana, Jan Dhan Yojana for financial inclusion, Kisan Yojana have also got a lot of publicity. The Social Security Code of 2020 provides for the collection of information on unorganized workers (creation of a database), as well as the provision of social security funds for the Central and State Governments to plan for the

unification of unorganized workers. But at the same time, a company with less than 300 employees can now stop work without any notice!

The welfare schemes provided by the state take the form of charity. The emphasis is on 'schemes' and packages rather than law-based targeting. Observers say that the welfare schemes, their announcement remained an important issue in the 2019 Lok Sabha election campaign and election results. But in fact, labour rights or social security do not come up in the discussion of 'economy', economic policy. Over the years, the word 'beneficiary' has become popular. (At present, aid from welfare schemes is widely referred to as 'Modi's money'. The perception of the welfare schemes is seldom more accurately expressed.) The unorganized working class, which bears the brunt of the large size of the economy, is not a 'beneficiary', but an empowered productive 'citizen'.

The instantaneous changes made in economic policies, taking advantage of the epidemic curriculum, have mirrored the government's weakened democratic response - a reflection of the nature of the privatization process in our country, the role of state power in it, and the state of democratic support for these changes. By combining twenty-nine different labour laws and making some changes in them, four labour codes were passed in the parliament in 2020. We are ending the discourse of workers' rights and banishing them from the law. According to trade unions, these reforms have made labour law enforcement more cumbersome and made the entire contractualization of work easier.

In a 2019 report by the expert committee set up by the Ministry of Labour and Employment has set a minimum of Rs 375 wage a day for workers to meet their minimum living standards. The National Minimum Wage suggested by the Center was raised from Rs. 176 to Rs. 178 in 2020. From 1996, the central government started announcing a national floor wage. This minimum income varies greatly from state to state.

The Social Security Code, 2020 does not say what the schemes for unorganized sector workers will be, what the local level mechanism will be, and what percentage of the budget will be spent on these schemes. The law (Code) says nothing about rights of workers in the unorganized sector, such as minimum wage, working hours, etc. A very pertinent question has been asked with regard to the law as to whether labour rights and social security can be distinguished (The Hindustan Times, 28 May 2020). Experts say that 5 to 6 per cent of the total number of workers coming under the purview of the law has been recorded (Hindustan Times, 4 April 2020). India's success in implementing the announced plans for the unorganized sector and the disadvantaged has been very limited (The Indian Express, 30 May 2020). Lack of knowledge of the unorganised sector workers and organizations, lack of information about these rights are major problems. The number of interstate migrant workers in the country is about 60 million. The Interstate Migrant Labour Act was enacted in 1979 (now included in the Code of Industrial Relations, 2020), guaranteeing the rights of migrant workers to a minimum wage, fair service conditions. But under this law, negligible action has been taken for the violation of the rights of migrant workers. The nature of the new employer-labour relationship that arises with changing production relations must be taken into account in legislation; E-commerce, small and medium enterprises have not been codified in terms of socio-economic security of workers at all levels. Against this backdrop, the question arises as to whether the profit-oriented thinking that emerges from instrumental

rationalism in neoliberalism can play any role in giving justice to the workers. Welfare planning becomes an important political issue, but in this politicization, the relationship between the actual benefits or effect of welfare schemes and its political results may be broken.

Concluding Remarks:

In 1986, *Olga Telis v. In the Mumbai Municipal Corporation case*, the Supreme Court clarified that the right to livelihood is a fundamental right of Indian citizens; The Supreme Court held that 'subsistence' is a natural part of 'the right to life' enshrined in Article 21. But the citizens do not have the right to take the government to court if they do not get a livelihood. The liberal content of the Constitution takes precedence over the guarantee of socio-economic rights the Constitution offers. It was our constitutional belief that there is no contradiction between the liberal intent of the Constitution and the fulfillment of socio-economic rights. After economic liberalization, the guarantee of socio-economic rights, without amendments to the Constitution, seems to have further eroded. The public seeks informal ways to adapt to the informalization of the economy. That is why the size of the informal economy increases during times of economic crisis. We need to examine the relationship between the exclusion of economic rights on the role of individuals in democracy and on the effectiveness of democracy itself.

Many questions in our development process remain unanswered and new ones are emerging. But most importantly, we as a political group seem to have largely lost the ability to study these questions in a scholarly manner and use political tools to try to find answers to those questions. That is why today we are facing a major crisis of economic injustice in the form of financial insecurity.

References:

- Chandrashekar CP 'India's Informal Economy', *The Hindu*, 1 September 2014
- D'Costa Anthony. 'Compressed Capitalism, Globalization and the Fate of Indian Development in Globalization and Challenges to Development in Contemporary India', Springer, 2016.
- De Anuradha and Tanuka Endow. 'Public Expenditure on Education in India: Recent Trends and Outcomes', Collaborative Research and Dissemination (CORD), India, 2008
- Deshpande Rajeshwari, Louise Tillin and KK Kailash. 2020. The BJP's Welfare Schemes: Did they make a difference in 2019 Elections? . *Studies in Indian Politics*, Volume 7, Issue 2, December 2019. pp. 219-233.
- Ghosh Dastidar, Sayantam and Mojit Chatterjee. 'Public Expenditure in Different Education Sector and Economic Growth: Indian Experience', Munich Personal RePec Archive, 2015.
- Ghosh Soumya Kanti and Pulak Ghosh. 'Time has come for complete overhaul of obsolete legislation regulating migrant labour in India'. *Indian Express*, 30 May 2020.
- Gudavarthy Vijay. Subsistence Economy in a Subverted Development; Re-reflecting Development Concretely, Conference paper, July 2015

- Kannan KP. 'COVID – 19 Lockdown: Protecting the poor means keeping Indian economy afloat'. EPW Engage, 3 April 2020.
- Kapoor Amit and Jessica Duggal. 'The State of Inequality in India'. The Economic Times, 19 May 2022.
- Prakash Anshul and Utkarsh Kumar. 'Social Security for unorganized sector workers and related issue', BW People, 14 June 2018. Revi Aromar, Jyothi Koduganti and Shriya Anand. 'Cities as Engines of Inclusive Development', IIHS-RF paper on Indian Urban Economy, 2014.
- Punia Kris. 'Future of unemployment and the informal sector in India', Observer Research Foundation, ORF, 12 March 2020
- Ravindran Govindan and Joann Vanek. 'Informal Workers in India: a Statistical Profile', Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing, August 2020. www.wiego.org
- Subramaniyan Nithya, 'In Charts: What is a decent minimum wage in India and how a new law could change it', Scroll.in, 17 August 2019.
- Tripathi Sabyasachi. 'An Overview of Indian Urbanization, Urban Economic Growth and Urban Equity', Munich Personal RePEc Archive, March 2013.
- The Unorganized Workers' Social Security Act, 2008, Act No.33 of 2008, 30 December 2008
- 'The Code on Social Security 2019', PRS Legislative Research, prsindia.org
- Women and Men in Informal Economy: a Statistical Picture. International Labour Organization. 2018

उदारीकरणाच्या काळातील भारतातील दूरसंचार क्षेत्राची प्रगती

साक्षी विलास वालकुंजे

बी. ए. भाग 3

अर्थशास्त्र विभाग,

विवेकानंद कॉलेज, कोल्हापूर

गोषवारा :-

प्रस्तुत संशोधन पेपर हा भारतातील दूरसंचार क्षेत्राच्या प्रगतीवर प्रकाश टाकतो. यामध्ये दूरसंचार क्षेत्राची वाढ व सद्यस्थिती यावर लक्ष केंद्रित केले आहे.

प्रस्तावना :-

1991 च्या उदारीकरणामुळे अनेक क्षेत्र आर्थिक गुंतवणुकीसाठी आणि व्यापारासाठी खुली झाली. आजचे युग हे मोबाईल क्रांतीचे युग असे आपण म्हणू शकतो. काही दिवसात 5G तंत्रज्ञान आपल्या दारी येऊन पोहोचेल. एकेकाळी प्रसिद्ध असणाऱ्या लॅंडलाइन टेलिफोन चे प्रमाण लक्षणीयरित्या कमी झाले आहे. आजच्या पिढीने टेलिफोन कधी वापरले नसतील कधी एसटीडी बूथ मध्ये जाऊन फोन केला नसेल त्यासाठी लागणारी रुपयाची नाणी पाठवली नसतील. नव्वदच्या दशकात झालेली टेलिकॉम क्रांती हे आजच्या मोबाईल क्रांतीच्या युगाचे मूळ आहे. 1991 चे उदारीकरण हा या क्रांतीचा महत्त्वाचा टप्पा आहे. ऐंशीच्या दशकात या क्रांतीच्या दिशेने पावले पडायला सुरुवात झाली PCO उभारणी ही 1984 नंतर सुरु झाली. यासाठी खाजगी फ्रेंचायसी देण्यास सुरु झाली. MTNL (महानगर टेलिफोन निगम लिमिटेड) व VSNL (विदेश संचार निगम लिमिटेड) ची निर्मिती झाली. 1991 मध्ये नवीन आर्थिक धोरणानुसार टेलिकॉम क्षेत्रातल्या उपकरणांचे उत्पादन पूर्णता खुले करण्यात आले. खाजगी कंपन्यांसाठी 1992 मध्ये या क्षेत्रातल्या वेगवेगळ्या सेवा मुक्त करण्यात आल्या. त्यामुळे परदेशी कंपन्या या भारताच्या बाजारपेठेत पाय ठेवू लागल्या. उदारीकरणाच्या धोरणानुसार 1994 मध्ये पहिले राष्ट्रीय दूरसंचार धोरण जाहीर करण्यात आले. या धोरणामुळे या क्षेत्रात अमूलाग्र बदल झाले. टेलिकॉम रेग्युलेटरी अथोरिटी ऑफ इंडिया म्हणजे TARI ची स्थापना 1997 मध्ये करण्यात आली. दुसरे राष्ट्रीय दूरसंचार धोरण हे 1999 मध्ये झाले. ज्याला टेलिकॉम क्षेत्रातले तिसऱ्या पिढीचे बदल असे म्हटले जाते. त्यामुळे आजचा भारत हा प्रत्येक हाती मोबाईल असलेला भारत निर्माण झाला आहे.

संशोधनाची उद्दिष्टे :-

- भारतातील दूरसंचार क्षेत्राची प्रगती व सद्यस्थिती अभ्यासणे.
- उदारीकरणाचा दूरसंचार क्षेत्रावर झालेला परिणाम अभ्यासणे .

संशोधन पद्धती :-

प्रस्तुत संशोधन पेपर साठी दुय्यम तथ्य संकलन करण्यात आले आहे. त्यासाठी वेबसाईट प्रकाशित करण्यात आलेली सरकारी सर्वेक्षणे यातून दुय्यम तथ्य संकलन करण्यात आले आहे.

तथ्य संकलन :-

टेलिग्राफ च्या परिचयाने भारतातील दूरसंचार सुरु झाला जगातील सर्वात जुने दळणवळणाचे साधन हे भारतातील टपाल आहे.

उदारीकरण पूर्वीचा कालखंड -

देशातील सर्व प्रमुख शहरे आणि गावे ब्रिटिश काळात काही प्रमाणात जोडली जात होती. 1948 मध्ये टेलिफोनची एकूण संख्या फक्त 80 हजार इतकी होती. टेलिफोन ला उपयोगी साधन न मानता ती एक प्रतिष्ठेची वस्तू आहे. अशाप्रकारे तिच्याकडे पाहू लागले. त्यामुळे स्वातंत्र्यानंतर विकासाचा दर मंदावला.

| वर्ष | दूरसंचार क्षेत्रामध्ये झालेली प्रगती |
|------|---|
| 1901 | सागर बेट आणि सॅडहेड दरम्यान पहिले वायरलेस टेलिग्राफ स्टेशन स्थापन |
| 1902 | पूर्व केबल टेलिग्राफ |
| 1907 | कानपूरमध्ये टेलिफोनची पहिली सेंट्रल बॅटरी सुरु |
| 1927 | खडकी आणि दौंड येथे इंपिरियल वायरलेस चैन बीम स्टेशन सह UK आणि भारत दरम्यान रेडिओ टेलिग्राफ प्रणाली. |
| 1947 | जबलपूर येथील शासकीय अभियांत्रिकी महाविद्यालय भारतातील पहिला इलेक्ट्रॉनिक्स आणि दूरसंचार अभियांत्रिकी विभाग सुरु |
| 1980 | देशांतर्गत दळणवळणासाठी पहिले उपग्रह पृथ्वी केंद्र सिकंदराबाद युपी येथे स्थापन |
| 1984 | स्वदेशी विकास आणि डिजिटल एक्सचेंज च्या निर्मितीसाठी C-DOT ची स्थापना |
| 1995 | 15 ऑगस्ट रोजी पहिली मोबाईल टेलिफोन सेवा तसेच भारतात इंटरनेट ची सुरुवात |

वरील तक्त्यातून दूरसंचार क्षेत्रामध्ये झालेली प्रगती दिसून येते. 1980-1981 ही जरी दूरसंचार क्षेत्रातील उदारीकरणाची सुरवात व 1991 चे नवीन आर्थिक धोरण हा एक महत्वाचा टप्पा असला तरी या क्षेत्रातील उदारीकरण हे पूर्णतः 1999 मध्ये झाले. जेव्हा पहिल्या राष्ट्रीय दूरसंचार धोरणाची निर्मिती झाली. त्यामुळे अटल बिहारी वाजपेयी जे तत्कालीन पंतप्रधान होते. त्यांना आधुनिक दूरसंचाराचे जनक असे म्हटले जाते.

मोबाईल धारकांची व PCO वापरणाऱ्यांची संख्या (2001 – 2019)

| वर्ष | मोबाईल धारकांची संख्या (दशलक्ष) | PCO वापरण्याची संख्या (Public Call Offices) (लाख) |
|------|----------------------------------|--|
| 2001 | 3.58 | 8.60 |
| 2002 | 6.68 | 10.80 |
| 2003 | 13.19 | 14.90 |
| 2004 | 35.62 | 19.20 |
| 2005 | 56.95 | 27.70 |
| 2006 | 101.87 | 42.00 |
| 2007 | 165.09 | 55.50 |
| 2008 | 261.08 | 61.90 |
| 2009 | 391.76 | 62.00 |
| 2010 | 584.32 | 45.90 |
| 2011 | 811.60 | 33.30 |
| 2012 | 991.18 | 20.10 |
| 2013 | 867.81 | 12.60 |
| 2014 | 904.52 | 9.57 |
| 2015 | 969.54 | 7.34 |
| 2016 | 1034.11 | 5.89 |
| 2017 | 1170.59 | 4.52 |
| 2018 | 1188.99 | 3.60 |
| 2019 | 1161.71 | 2.55 |

वरील माहितीमध्ये 2000 पासून 2019 पर्यंत मोबाईल धारकांची संख्या व पीसीओ ची संख्या दर्शवली आहे. यामध्ये मोबाईल धारकांची संख्या ही दिवसेंदिवस वाढत आहे. 2001 मध्ये मोबाईल धारकांची संख्या 3.58 इतकी होती. ती 2005 मध्ये 56.95 इतकी वाढली. 2010 मध्ये 584.32 इतकी झाली, 2015 मध्ये 969.54 झाली, 2016 मध्ये 1034.11, 2017 मध्ये 1170.59, 2018 मध्ये 1188.99, तर 2019 मध्ये 1161.71 इतकी मोठ्या प्रमाणात वाढली आहे.

2001 मध्ये PCO वापरणाऱ्यांची संख्या 8.60 लाख इतकी होती. 2005 मध्ये 27.70 लाख इतकी वाढली. 2009 मध्ये ती 62.00 लाख इतकी झाली. पण मोबाईल मध्ये असणाऱ्या विविध सोयी मुळे 2009 नंतर PCO वापरणाऱ्यांची संख्या हळूहळू घटत गेली. 2015 मध्ये 7.37 लाख झाली व 2019 मध्ये 2.55 लाख PCO वापरकर्ते आहेत.

उदारीकरणाच्या धोरणातून भारतीय बाजारपेठ गुंतवणुकीसाठी खुली करण्यात आली असली तरी भारतात दूरसंचार क्षेत्र हे अल्प जान अधिकाराखाली येत आहे. Airtel ने Telenor India ला विकत घेतले. Vodafone आणि Idea चे विलीनीकरण होऊन जगातील दुसरी सर्वात मोठी व भारतातील सर्वात मोठी कंपनी अधिकृतपणे VI म्हणून ओळखली जाते. Airtel ने टाटा डोकोमो व टाटा टेलसर्विसेस ला विकत घेतले.

निष्कर्ष :-

2009 पर्यंत वाढणारी PCO ची मागणी हळूहळू घटत गेली. मोबाईल ने केलेल्या लक्षणे प्रगतीमुळे मोबाईलची संख्या वाढली. तसेच दूरसंचार क्षेत्रांमध्ये सेवा देणाऱ्या कंपन्या या अल्प अधिकाराखाली येत आहेत. सध्या भारतामध्ये Airtel , VI , Jio BSNL या सेवा देणाऱ्या कंपन्या आहेत. काही दिवसांनी या सेवा देणाऱ्या क्षेत्रात मक्तेदारी निर्माण होऊ शकते.

संदर्भ :-

- <https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com>
- Telecom Statistics India 2019

उदारीकरणाचा भारतीय शेतीवर झालेला परिणाम

कु. गायत्री तावडे

B. A III(अर्थशास्त्र)

विवेकानंद कॉलेज, कोल्हापूर.

गोषवारा:- अर्थव्यवस्थेतील शासकीय हस्तक्षेप व नियंत्रण[कमी करण्याकडे कल असणाऱ्या आर्थिक धोरणांचा अवलंब करणारी उदारीकरण ही प्रक्रिया असे समजले जाते. या प्रक्रियेत औद्योगिक सुधारणा, शेतीमध्ये घडणारे बदल, कर सुधारणा, नियोजनातील सुधारणा, बँकेत सुधारणा अशा विविध सुधारणा राबवून भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्थेत मोठे संरचनात्मक बदल घडत आहे. अशा बदलातून अर्थव्यवस्थेत शेती क्षेत्रावर झालेला परिणाम आपण पाहणार आहोत.

सूचक शब्द :- उदारीकरण, शेती, शिथलीकरण, मुक्त अर्थव्यवस्था

प्रस्तावना:- आपण विविध विचारसरणी व आर्थिक संबंधांच्या अतिशय गुंतागुंतीच्या जगात राहत आहोत. अशावेळी दारिद्र्य निर्मूलनाशी जोडल्या गेलेल्या शेतीच्या उदारीकरण सारख्या संवेदनशील प्रश्नांकडे केवळ अर्थशास्त्रीय दृष्टिकोन बाळगून आपली भूमिका ठरवणे हे बाळबोधाचे ठरेल. आपले राजकीय भान जागृत पाहिजे. परंतु तरी देखील आर्थिक विकास संदर्भातील संकल्पनात्मक चौकटीची आपल्याला सत्याच्या जवळ जाण्यास मदत होऊ शकेल.

उदारीकरणामुळे घडून आलेल्या बदल:-

- कर सुधारणा मोठ्या प्रमाणात करण्यात आली
- 1991 मधील 38.5% वरून ऑक्टोबर 2018 मध्ये 19.5% वैधनिक रोखता प्रमाण आणले.
- नियोजन सुधारणा
- औद्योगिक सुधारणा:- 1991 मध्ये नवीन FEMA कायदा करण्यात आला. सध्या त्यावर नियंत्रण ठेवण्याऐवजी स्पर्धात्मक वाढण्यावर परत देण्यात आला. 'मेक इन इंडिया' सुरू करण्यात आले .

स्पष्टीकरण/ व्याख्या:- समाजवादी अर्थव्यवस्थे मध्ये सरकारचे नियंत्रण कमी करणे म्हणजे उदारीकरण होय. शासकीय बंधने शिथिल करणे.

संशोधनाची उद्दिष्टे:- 1] उदारीकरणामुळे भारतीय शेतीवर झालेल्या परिणामांचा अभ्यास करणे.

2] उदारीकरण व भारतीय शेतीतील सहसंबंध अभ्यासणे.

संशोधन पद्धत :- उदारीकरणाचा भारतीय शेतीवर झालेला परिणाम या संशोधन पेपर मध्ये मी दुय्यम तथ्याचा वापर करून संशोधन केले आहे.

तथ्य संकलन:- प्रत्येक गोष्टीचे आपल्याला चांगले आणि वाईट असे दोन्ही परिणाम दिसून येतात. त्याचप्रमाणे उदारीकरणाचा भारतीय शेती वर झालेला परिणाम पुढीलप्रमाणे स्पष्ट केला आहे.

चांगले परिणाम:-

1] **आर्थिक स्थिरता**:- देशातील जनतेला आर्थिक स्थिरता प्राप्त करून देण्यासाठी कृषीची भूमिकाही अत्यंत महत्त्वाचे आहे. प्राध्यापक गुन्नार मिर्डाल यांनी जगातील विकसित आणि विकसनशील देश त्यांच्यातील आर्थिक विषमता ची कृषी वरील अवलंबून राहण्याचा प्रमाणात वाढ झाल्यामुळे वाढते अशा आशयाचे विचार व्यक्त केले होते. ग्रामीण भागातील लोकांना उदारीकरणामुळे आर्थिक स्थिरता प्राप्त करून शेतीमध्ये महत्त्वाची भूमिका बजावली.

2] **निर्यातीस प्रोत्साहन**:-

तक्ता क्रमांक 1 :- निर्यातीमध्ये मध्ये झालेली वाढ

| | Rate |
|------|------|
| 1991 | 17.7 |
| 1992 | 35.3 |
| 1993 | 21.9 |
| 1994 | 18.5 |
| 1995 | 28.6 |
| 1996 | 11.7 |
| 1997 | 9.5 |
| 1998 | 7.4 |
| 1999 | 13.8 |
| 2000 | 26.6 |
| 2001 | 3.8 |
| 2002 | 22.1 |
| 2003 | 15.0 |
| 2004 | 27.9 |
| 2005 | 21.6 |
| 2006 | 25.3 |
| 2007 | 14.7 |
| 2008 | 28.2 |
| 2009 | 0.6 |
| 2010 | 34.5 |
| 2011 | 28.9 |
| 2012 | 11.5 |
| 2013 | -0.5 |
| 2014 | -9.5 |
| 2015 | 7.8 |
| 2016 | 5.8 |

| | |
|------|-------|
| 2017 | 18.0 |
| 2018 | -3.8 |
| 2019 | -1.4 |
| 2020 | -12.5 |

Source :- Economic Survey 2020-21 Statistical Appendix

Note:- 1991to 2020 export:- rate of exchanging

उदारीकरणामुळे मोठ्या प्रमाणात शेतीमधील मालाला प्रोत्साहन मिळून मालाची निर्यात वाढू लागली. तक्ता क्रमांक 1:- यामध्ये 1991ते 2020 निर्यातीचा दर दर्शवला आहे. आपण पाहू शकता निर्यातीच्या दरामध्ये मोठ्या प्रमाणात बदल झालेला दिसून येतो. प्रस्थापित निर्यातदारांना विदेशी चलनातील खाते व्यवस्थित ठेवण्याची परवानगी देण्यात आली .तसेच त्यांच्या व्यापारी खात्यासाठी विदेशी कर्ज उभारण्यास परवानगी देण्यात आली. विशेष आर्थिक क्षेत्राचा (सेझ) निर्मिती करून त्याद्वारे निर्यात वाढविण्यात आली.

3] **उद्योगाकरिता कच्च्या मालाचा पुरवठा**:-कोणत्याही देशाच्या आर्थिक विकासात शेतीचे स्थान अत्यंत महत्त्वाचे आहे. उद्योगांमध्ये तर शेतीला अनन्यसाधारण महत्त्व आहे. कारण गहू, तांदूळ, कापूस,भुईमूग, ऊस, बटाटे भाजीपाला, कांदे, प्रक्रिया उद्योग,सूर्यफूल,तुर,ज्वारी,बाजरी मूग अशा अनेक पिकांवर आधारित भारतात उद्योग कार्यरत आहे. अशा उद्योगांना कृषी प्रक्रिया उद्योग असेही म्हणतात. भारतीय उद्योगासाठी लागणाऱ्या कच्चा मालाचा पुरवठा या उद्योगापासून होतो त्यामुळे उद्योगासाठी कच्च्या मालाचा पुरवठा करणारा स्रोत म्हणून भारतीय कृषी चे महत्त्व सांगता येईल. त्याचप्रमाणे हा कच्चामाल वाढण्यामध्ये उदारीकरणाचा वाटा आहे.

4]**आंतरिक व्यापाराचा आधार** -व्यापाराचे अंतर्गत व्यापार आणि बाह्य व्यापार असे दोन प्रकार पडतात .बाह्य व्यापारामध्ये दुसऱ्या देशाशी होणाऱ्या व्यापार यांचा समावेश होतो. अंतर्गत व्यापार हा देशातील सीमारेषा मध्ये चालत असतो. भारतीय कृषी वर अवलंबून असलेल्या लोकसंख्येच्या प्रमाणात सोबत शेतीपासून उत्पादित होणाऱ्या शेतमालाच्या विक्रीच्या अनुषंगाने कार्यरत लोकसंख्येचा विचार करणे आवश्यक ठरते. खरेदी विक्री चा जागा म्हणजे बाजार पेठ असे म्हणतात. आणि उदारीकरणामुळे या बाजारपेठांना मोठ्या प्रमाणात चालना मिळाली. शेतकऱ्यांचा माल मोठ्या प्रमाणात या बाजारपेठांमध्ये विकार विकला जाऊ लागला.

वाईट परिणाम:-

1]**स्पर्धात्मक परिस्थिती**:- शेतकऱ्यांनी उत्पादन घेत असताना वेगवेगळ्या उत्पादनावर भर देणे आवश्यक आहे. सर्वच शेतकऱ्यांनी एकाच वस्तूचे उत्पादन केल्यास शेती उत्पादनाचा पुरवठा वाढतो आणि मागणी कमी राहते. त्यामुळे शेतकऱ्यांना त्यांनी उत्पादित केलेल्या शेतमालास भाव मिळत

नाही. आर्थिक नुकसान मोठ्या प्रमाणात होते. त्यामुळे स्पर्धात्मक परिस्थिती टाळण्याचा प्रयत्न केला पाहिजे.

2]उत्पादनात बाबत अनिश्चितता :-उत्पादनातील चढ-उतारामुळे व्यवसाय अनिश्चितता निर्माण होते. उत्पादन वाढले तर किंमत कमी होते आणि उत्पादन कमी झाले तर किमतीमध्ये नेहमीपेक्षा अधिक वाढते हा अर्थशास्त्रातील नियम आहे. उत्पादनामध्ये होणारे चढ-उतार आणि त्यामुळे निर्माण होणारे अनिष्ट दूर करण्यासाठी शेतकरी पर्यायी स्वरूपाचे उत्पादन घेऊ शकतो.

3]करार पद्धती :- शेतीमध्ये लागवड करताना शेतीमधून प्राप्त होणाऱ्या अपेक्षित उत्पन्नाचा अंदाज घेऊन जमिनदार, मध्यस्थ, अडते, व्यापारी यांच्याशी पीक पूर्व कराड केलास पिकाच्या संदर्भातील अनिश्चितता आणि उत्पन्न याबाबत काही प्रमाणात आर्थिक सुरक्षितता मिळू शकते. करार पद्धती शेतीतील अनिश्चित दूर करण्याची महत्त्वाची पद्धत आहे. करार हे वस्तू उत्पादन संदर्भात, खिशातील उत्पन्नाच्या संदर्भात असू शकतात त्यामुळे योग्य करार केले पाहिजे.

[4] साधनांची अनिश्चितता

5] पिक विमा

निष्कर्ष:-1] उदारीकरणाचा शेतीवर चांगला परिणाम आपल्याला दिसून येतो.

2] त्याचप्रमाणे सरकारने निर्यातीस प्रोत्साहन दिलेले आपल्याला दिसून येते.

3] उदारीकरण मध्ये काही सुधारणा केल्या पाहिजे त्याचा परिणाम भारतीय शेतीवर मोठ्या प्रमाणात दिसून येईल.

संदर्भसूची :-

- economics Survey 2020-21 statistical appendix
- शेती अर्थशास्त्र- डॉ.गंगाधर पाटील
- Research paper- प्राध्यापक डॉ.डी. जी पाटील
- <http://farmer.gov.in>
- www.nitinsir.in
- <http://tractorbuyersguide.in>
- <http://www.indiaagrijobs.com>
- <http://india.gov.in/topics/agriculture>