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Prospects of Manufacturing and Service Sector Growth in India

Role and Impact of Social Protection Programmes

Emerging Features of Trade and Trade Policy

Growth and its Drivers in Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand

Environment, Climate Change and Sustainable Development



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FROM SECRETARY'S DESK

The Uttar Pradesh-Uttarakhand Economic Association (UPUEA), founded in 2005, has seen impressive growth in its short tenure. Membership has exploded tenfold in less than fifteen years to about 1800 life members, showcasing the association's increasing significance. The UPUEA, Society for Promotion of Economics in both states, is a premier society of economists. It actively contributes to the field of economics by publishing its research findings. It further promotes economic exploration through annual conferences, providing a platform for economists to share research and collaborate. These conferences are experiencing a rise in participation, with growing numbers of delegates, paper presenters, and esteemed resource persons. Overall, UPUEA's dedication to organizing high-quality events and fostering research collaboration makes it a key player in advancing economic understanding within Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand.

The Uttar Pradesh-Uttarakhand Economic Association (UPUEA) is gearing up for its 19th Annual National Conference, a three-day event scheduled for April 13th-15th, 2024. We have received more than Three Hundred Sixty (360) Research papers under the broad theme of the conference: **Sustaining Growth with Equity: Sectoral Growth, Trade and Social Protection in the 21st Century**. A pre-Conference research workshop for the young researchers has been organized on 13th April 2024 to acquaint the researchers with various nuances of the research. This year's conference delves into the dynamic forces shaping the Indian economy, with a particular focus on the state of Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand. Researchers and economists have a great opportunity to contribute their expertise by submitting papers on five key sub-themes.

- ***Growth Prospects of Manufacturing and Service Sectors in India,***
- ***The Impact of Social Protection Programs,***

- *Emerging Trends in Trade and Trade Policy,*
- *The Drivers of Economic Growth in Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand*
- *Environment, Climate and Sustainable Development.*

All accepted papers will be published within the conference proceedings, creating a valuable record of scholarly contributions. However, the organizers have encountered a recurring challenge: *delayed paper submissions*. This has resulted in last-minute scrambling and potential disruptions to the conference schedule. Despite persistent and frequent reminder to the members to contribute their papers as per schedule, we continue to receive the late response under the pretext of late information, leading to accomplishment of further steps in haste. While we've disseminated information about the conference and deadlines, we understand that occasionally, important details might require reiteration. To ensure a well-organized event and allow ample time for the publication of full papers in the conference proceedings, we kindly request all interested members to reach out to the General Secretary or Organizing Secretary in March for any clarifications or updates. By adhering to the specified page limits, members can contribute to a well-organized and informative conference. We appreciate your understanding and look forward to receiving your valuable research contributions. The Uttar Pradesh-Uttarakhand Economic Association (UPUEA), a well-established organization for over a decade, recognizes the need to adapt with the time. With the national economy rapidly evolving, the association acknowledges new challenges facing the economies of Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand, particularly in agriculture and rural development. To address these challenges, the UPUEA sees the current times, as an opportune moment for critical reflection. The association proposes an objective discussion to analyze both the successes and failures of past development efforts. This analysis aims to identify crucial strategies with the potential to unlock growth across all sectors.

The UPUEA expresses gratitude to various funding agencies and institutions for their financial support towards conferences, journal publications, and conference proceedings printing. Additionally, we acknowledge the valuable contribution of NABARD for publication financial support. Upuea is also grateful to publisher, Kunal Books, New Delhi, for their efficient printing of the conference proceedings.

(Vinod Kumar Srivastava)
General Secretary, Upuea.

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डॉ. प्रभा गुप्ता

Change in Trends of India-Sri Lanka Bilateral Trade

Dr. Mohan Singh

Abstract:

India and Sri Lanka are very close neighbour, have similar historical/ cultural set ups and enjoy common sea field hence they are natural trade partners. India's trade relation although strong enough but unable to yield the best possible results. Less 1.4 percent of India's total export was destined to Sri Lanka where only 0.16 percent of India's total imported value come from Sri Lanka. Although India has bigger share in Sri Lanka's foreign trade. Around one fifth of total Sri Lankan import come from India where as 6.6 percent of its export targeted to India. Hence there is need to enrich the bilateral trade relations. India and Sri Lanka have potential to intensify their trade relations. It is supported by the data after implementation of India Sri Lanka Free Trade Agreement (ISFTA) in 2000, more than 60% of Sri Lanka's exports enjoyed its benefits to augment their trade. Besides, India is also one of the biggest investors in Sri Lanka in 21st century and helping Sri Lanka in different fields of development. The total Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Sri Lanka from India amounted to around \$ 1.7 billion over fifteen years from 2005 to 2019 and exceeds US\$ 2.2 billion in 2021. Amidst the financial crisis it is urged to augment trade with Sri Lanka, which will open avenues for bigger mutual benefits.

Keyword: Foreign Trade, Sea Route, Bilateral Trade, Volume of Trade, Trade Composition

I. Introduction:

Trade (buying and selling) which is emerged from the basis necessity of exchanging commodity to meet varied needs of human being and manifested in form of domestic or international markets to ensure availability of goods and services. Now it encompasses various area and aspects in modern era in light of wider global market. It is one of the basic economic activities deep rooted in history of economic progress of human being now has become inevitable for sustainability of any economy. In India firstly international trade started with Middle West, China, Central Asia and Europe mainly through land route. Gradually, trade routes across Central Asia declined to a great extent due to Arabian hindrances and struggle between

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the Turks, the Tibetans, the Arabs and the Chinese and alternatively India started trade with China via sea-route in the seventh century. There are several references of Indian foreign trade via sea during the Chola kingdom period. In early medieval time, oceanic trade was expanded to Persians, Indonesians and Ceylonese. With the development of modern economies as result of industrial revolution and renaissance in Europe and America, trade touched the larger heights and the sea route remained instrumental in extension of world trade.

Sri Lanka is the nearest neighbour country of India, connected with sea route. The two nations developed a very strong relationship over a period of more than 2,500 years extended in every field ranging from political and business to educational, spiritual and philological exchange. In modern time, India-Sri Lanka bilateral relations have been strengthened in terms of political ties, increased trade and investment, and cooperation for development, education, culture, defence and hence Sri Lanka has become the most important strategic partner in contemporary global conditions. Sri Lanka and India mutual trade progressed speedily after the conceptualisation of India-Sri Lanka Free Trade Agreement (FTA) in March 2000. India's 'Neighbourhood First' approach has preferred Sri Lanka additionally echoed with Sri Lanka's 'India First' unfamiliar and security strategy in 2020 although because of Chinese intercession, the ties between the two nations have faced slumps in last two years.

In a situation where Sri Lanka is shrunk to its lapses, it becomes necessary to understand the importance of this close partner as potential complements of our trade and development objectives. This article is a review paper based on the secondary data collected from different sources including research papers, magazines, reports, websites and governmental records. Different statistical methods have been used to present, analyse and derive the inferences. The general opinion that the sea route facilitates trade better than other means of transportation will be checked on the basis of data analysis.

II. Research Methodology:

This is an analytical paper. The discussion in this paper is based on the empirical evidences and the secondary data. The main source of data is government departmental data bank and publication and other associated documents of different organizations. The research paper and other article along with relevant books served the base of this creation. Most of the articles are accessed through online mode. The data collected from different sources are presented in the tabular form and graphic patterns. To derive logical interpretation, different mathematical tools use to reproduce the inferences and conclusions. The analysis is accomplished in form of conclusion and suggestions which is given in the last of the paper. Since this article is based on secondary data, it is investigative work with reviewed nature.

III. Results and Discussion:

A. India and Sri Lanka:

India and Sri Lanka are two important countries of South Asia and hence their trade

relation is very important for people of both the countries in particular and of the region in general. India is second largest partner in foreign trade of Sri Lanka with a bilateral trade between the two countries compounded worth \$ 3.6 billion in 2020 and \$ 5.45 billion in 2021, with about 48 percent increase in one year. After implementation of ISFTA in 2000 more than 60% of Sri Lanka's export items taking its advantages to augment quantum of trade but India has not taken similar benefit as only about 5% of India's total exports to Sri Lanka have benefitted using the ISFTA provisions. Besides, India is also one of the biggest investors in Sri Lanka in 21st century. India's total Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Sri Lanka arose to nearly \$ 1.7 billion between 2005 to 2019 and now exceeded \$ 2.2 billion. As a result, initially six Indian airports were opened to Sri Lankan Airlines for unlimited number of flights, which will be gradually extended. Largest numbers of tourists coming to Sri Lanka hail from India. In 2022, it was 17.1% of the total tourists in Sri Lanka whereas in 2022, 29% of the tourists were from India (56,268 persons out of a total of 1,94,495 persons).

Table 1: India and Sri Lanka Comparative Data (2020)

S. No.	Attributes	India	Sri Lanka
1	GDP	\$2.67 trillion	\$81 billion
2	Rank (in GDP)	6 / 204	66 / 204
3	GDP growth rate (2010-20)	59.2%	42.7%
4	GDP Per Capita	\$1,933	\$3,694
5	Rank (in GDP Per Capita)	158 / 204	133 / 204
6	Economic Complexity Index	0.56	-0.51
7	Rank (ECI)	40 / 127	82 / 127

Source: OEC - The Observatory of Economic Complexity downloaded on 18 Feb, 2024 from <https://oec.world/>

India and Sri Lanka signed Free Trade Agreement in 1998 (ISFTA). As a result of ISFTA, Sri Lanka exported five times more than it imported in the first nine months of 2022. According to a report total export of Sri Lanka to India under ISFTA increased over 140 billion Lankan rupees where India's imports to Sri Lanka totalled 28 billion Lankan rupees. Unfortunately, Sri Lanka hit by economic crisis and drop of its foreign reserves in 2022 which affected its imports to reduce drastically. During the crisis, India extended help by providing over \$ 4 billion in humanitarian aid to ensure food, health and energy requirements. India is helping all possible way to uphold the Sri Lankan President Ranil Wickremasinghe's vow to triple its foreign trade over the next decade, with yearly growth of \$ 3 billion US dollars. Similarly, Sri Lanka can be of great business and strategic benefits of India in the Indian Sea. Both collectively not only utilise the sea resources but also can make a hub using

SAARC platform which needs greater attention to bring the economic prosperity in this region.

B. India's Trade with Sri Lanka:

The study has attempted to analysis India's trade relation with Sri Lanka, particularly, to infer the importance and assistance of sea route for economic benefits for participating countries. Sri Lanka remained significant for India as an important member of other regional trade cooperations. If we see the data of mutual trade between the two countries it surfaces the urge of intense trade relation between the two neighbouring countries connected though sea route only. In the era of post liberalization period, India has interjected policy to ensure simplification of procedures, removal of quantitative limits and lessening in the tariff rates for expansion of market and the benefits. Consequently, India has been taken various steps to promote international trade through multifetal and bilateral initiatives in the identified of thrust areas of cooperation. Sri Lanka had been a prime beneficiary of these general and specific initiatives in the era of globalisation. It is evidenced from the bilateral trade data of India and Sri Lanka given in table 2. India's total export to Sri Lanka which was Rs 2095145.80 lacs in 2011-12 increased to Rs 4333369.93 lacs in 2021-22 recording more than double in las eleven years. During the same time period India's total export increased from Rs 146595939.96 lacs to Rs 314702149.28 lacs, noting around 115 percent growth. Although it was a little less in 2022-23. It is also noteworthy that India's export to Sri Lanka as a percentage of India's total export has gone down from 1.43 to 1.2 during last decade alarming the need for more focus on India- Sri Lanka bilateral trade as the closer and convenient trade partner is losing its place to cost for both the countries.

Table 2: India's Export to Sri Lanka (amount in lac rupees)

Year	Total Export	Growth	Export to SL	% of Export	Growth Rate
2011-12	146,595,939.96	28.94	2,095,145.80	1.4292	31.35
2012-13	163,431,828.96	11.48	2,168,769.33	1.3270	3.51
2013-14	190,501,108.86	16.56	2,764,366.96	1.4511	27.46
2014-15	189,634,841.76	-0.45	4,103,801.13	2.1641	48.45
2015-16	171,638,440.44	-9.49	3,465,990.44	2.0194	-15.54
2016-17	184,943,355.3	7.75	2,623,276.92	1.4184	-24.31
2017-18	195,651,452.8	5.79	2,886,971.31	1.48	10.05
2018-19	230,772,619.38	17.95	3,299,621.00	1.43	14.29
2019-20	221,985,418.10	-3.81	2,693,454.09	1.21	-18.37
2020-21	215,904,322.13	-2.74	2,585,729.09	1.20	-4.00
2021-22	314,702,149.28	45.76	4,333,369.93	1.38	67.59
2022-23	362,154,987.57	15.08	4,092,266.91	1.13	-5.56

Source: Export Import Data Bank, Department of Commerce, GOI; Extracted on 18 Feb 2024 from <https://tradestat.commerce.gov.in/eidb/Default.asp>

If we see more detail of India's export data, it is easily observed that during 2014-15 and 2015-16 where India's exports were reducing, the share of Sri Lanka in total India's export remained more than 2 percent, all time highest during last decade. It is also alarming that the growth rate of India's export to Sri Lanka has been continuously less than the total export growth rate since 2018-19 but in 2021-22 the export to Sri Lanka has increased by 67.59 percent as compared to India's total export increased by 45.76 percent in the same year. It may be a matter of relief but more to be done in order to make it a regular phenomenon for better economic benefits for both the countries.

India's import from Sri Lanka is in more problematic condition and remained insignificant from India's point of view. India's imports from Sri Lanka are around 0.16 percent of its total imports. But if we see progress of India's import from Sri Lanka during 2011-2022 it is noted that it increased from Rs 303,660.43 lacs to Rs 752,969.65 lacs recording around 2.48 times rise. The highest growth recorded in year 2018-19 when imports from Sri Lanka became more than double and help in recording more than 13 percent per year growth in India's import from Sri Lanka in last decade. It is also noteworthy that during the study period, India's import from Sri Lanka has been increasing faster in comparison of its total import, except a few years which is projected in table 3.

Table 3: India's Import from Sri Lanka (amount in lacs rupees)

Year	Total Import	Growth	Import from SL	% of Import	Growth Rate
2011-12	234,546,324.45	39.32	303,660.43	0.1295	33.26
2012-13	266,916,195.69	13.80	340,419.73	0.1275	12.11
2013-14	271,543,390.73	1.73	406,445.16	0.1497	19.40
2014-15	273,708,657.84	0.80	464,275.90	0.1696	14.23
2015-16	249,030,553.78	-9.02	485,357.89	0.1949	4.54
2016-17	257,767,536.68	3.51	403,973.05	0.1567	-16.77
2017-18	300,103,343.35	16.42	497,649.65	0.17	23.19
2018-19	359,467,461.19	19.78	1,037,423.26	0.29	108.46
2019-20	336,095,445.61	-6.50	640,663.40	0.19	-38.24
2020-21	291,595,770.04	-13.24	475,214.29	0.16	-25.82
2021-22	457,277,458.91	56.82	752,969.65	0.16	58.45
2022-23	574,980,127.11	25.74	865,973.01	0.1506	15.01

Source: Export Import Data Bank, Department of Commerce, GOI; Extracted on 18 Feb 2024 from <https://tradestat.commerce.gov.in/eidb/Default.asp>

C. Sri Lanka's Trade with India:

India Sri Lanka bilateral trade is comparatively more important from point of view of Sri Lanka. Obviously, Sri Lankan import from India as compared to its export to India remained more always and creating country's trade deficit. The total import of Sri Lanka from India in 2011 was US \$4441 million increased to US \$4625 million in 2021. During the same period total export of Sri Lanka to India augmented from US \$519 million to US \$829 million. The total trade value of Sri Lanka with India which was US \$4950 million in 2011 increased to US \$5454 million in 2021, recording 10.1 percent annual increase. India is also one of the biggest exporters to Sri Lanka, evidenced from the table 4. It is also noteworthy that Sri Lanka Import Export ratio remained very high, more than 5:1, every time during the last decade. Although Sri Lanka export to India in compared to its import from India remained less but its export to India as percent of its total export gradually increased from 4.9 percent in 2011 to 6.6 percent in 2021 but its import from India as percent of its total import remained almost same (insignificant rise from 21.9 to 22.4) during the same period.

Table 4: Sri Lanka's Trade with India (in US \$ million)

Year	Imports	Import %	Exports	Export %	Total Trade	Deficit	EX:IM
2011	4431	21.9	519	4.9	4950	-3912	8.5:1
2012	3640	19	567	5.8	4207	-3073	6.4:1
2013	3171	17.6	544	5.2	3715	-2627	5.8:1
2014	4023	20.7	625	5.6	4648	-3398	6.4:1
2015	4268	22.5	643	6.1	4911	-3625	6.6:1
2016	3815	19.7	554	5.4	4369	-3261	6.9:1
2017	4527	21.6	691	6.1	5218	-3836	6.6:1
2018	4231	19	777	6.5	5008	-3454	5.4:1
2019	3899	19.6	768	6.4	4667	-3131	5.1:1
2020	3079	19.2	606	6	3685	-2473	5.1:1
2021	4625	22.4	829	6.6	5454	-3796	5.6:1

Source: High Commission of India, Colombo, Sri Lanka; sourced the Central Bank of Sri Lanka. Extracted on 18 Feb 2024 from <https://hccolombo.gov.in>

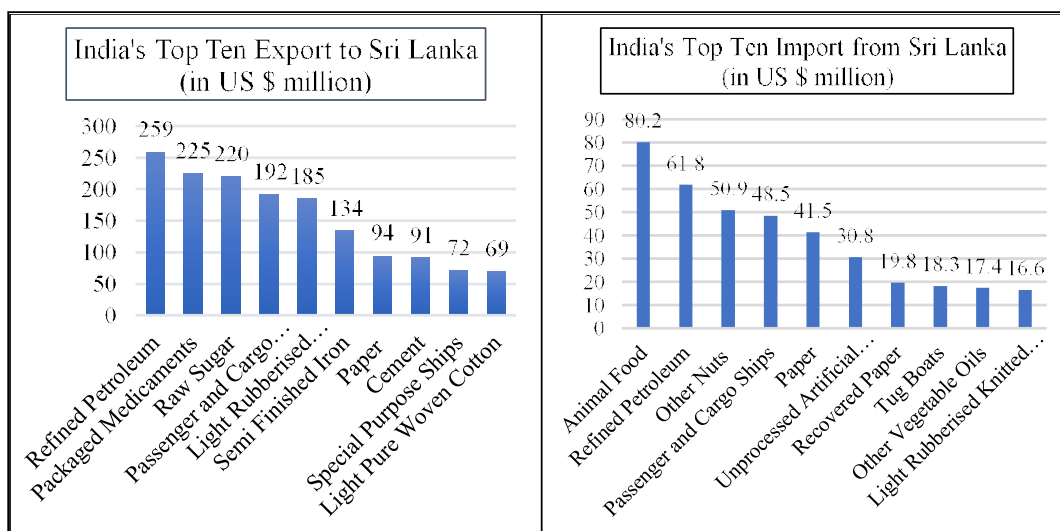
D. Composition of the Trade:

Composition of trade states about the nature of trade, status and character of the country. Developed countries export more of consumer goods, high-technology based product and

import inputs, semi-finished goods, primary product hence get larger share from the mutual trade as compared to the other country which is traditional exporter of raw material, primary product and importer of high tech commodities. India and Sri Lanka are having historically similar economic conditions and so it is less significance of composition of trade to assess the share from benefit. Still the main trading item between the two countries are basically dependent on collective distribution and comparative cost which is differentiated on the basis of local and temporary situation.

In 2020, out of total export from India to Sri Lanka worth \$ 3.32 billion the top ten items contributes around \$1.54 billion amounting more than 46 percent. The top export item from India to Sri Lanka in 2020 was Refined Petroleum which counted around 7.81 percentage, followed by Packaged Medicaments (6.79%) and Raw Sugar (6.62%). In 2021 top three export items to Sri Lanka were Iron and Steel, Mineral fuels, mineral oils and products of their distillation bituminous substances; mineral waxes and pharmaceutical products. Similarly, around half (52.16%) of the total import of India from Sri Lanka (Sri Lanka Export to India) contributed by top ten import items. The most valued imported item in India from Sri Lanka in 2020 was Animal Food which counted 10.8 percent of the total import followed by Refined Petroleum (8.35%) and Other Nuts (6.88%). In 2021, the top three items imported from Sri Lanka were industrial wastage of food industries; readymade animal fodder, Coffee, tea, mate & spices and different kind of fats from animal & vegetable including oils, animal cleavage products, other edible fats and waxes from animal or vegetable.

Fig 1: Composition of India-Sri Lanka Trade (2020)



Source: OEC-The Observatory of Economic Complexity Extracted on 18 Feb 2024 from <https://oec.world/en/profile/bilateral-country/ind/partner/lka>.

IV. Conclusion and Suggestions:

Trade through sea route always been facilitator of faster trade and larger economic benefits. We have evidences from history that India used to trade with different part of the world through sea route. Sri Lanka, closest neighbour island country, is one of the ancient trade partners of India. It is integral part of all regional and strategic trade agreements enabling India to achieve its long run objectives. Hence, bilateral trade between India and Sri Lanka becomes significant for exhausting maximum benefits and securing a better economic future in the South Asian region. The data-based study comprehends that presently trade between India and Sri Lanka is not utilising its fullest potential. Total export to Sri Lanka is less than 1.4 percent of its total export where India's total import from Sri Lanka is only 0.16 percent of India's total import. The good news for India that its trade balance is positive in reference to trade with Sri Lanka and growth rate of bilateral trade is faster than the India's trade growth rate. For Sri Lanka, India is more important trade and investment partner and progress of this region will benefit both the countries. Hence, there is need to focus on intensify the bilateral trade along with including more areas of economic cooperation. Presently, India and Sri Lanka mostly trade for the conventional items, but time has come to identify new emerging area. India's connection with Sri Lanka through sea route can play multiplier to enhance the mutual benefits and can provide vent for India regional aspirations. With implementation of ISFTA, it is assumed that the bilateral trade will enhance to the new highs.

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Impact of Depreciation of Indian Currency on Economic Development

Yuvraj Singh and Dr. Niharika Srivastava

Abstract

Depreciation is when there is a fall in the value of a currency in a floating exchange rate. The Indian Rupee depreciated by around 10% against the US dollar and the rupee was the worst-performing Asian currency in 2022. Consider the value of the INR in April 2022 when INR was approximately Rs. 76 per dollar. However, the rupee opened at 82.66 against the US dollar on the first trading day of 2023. On December 27, the Indian currency closed at 83.35 versus the greenback, a depreciation of 0.8%. In 2022, the rupee slumped more than 11%, marking the currency's worst performance since 2013. This rupee depreciation affects its purchasing power and has huge repercussions as the rupee has become less valuable with respect to the dollar. Objective of this paper is to throw light on the impact of the depreciation of the Indian currency on economic development. To fulfil this objective, one hypothesis has been formulated for testing. An explanatory research method is used in the paper. This paper is based on secondary data that is collected from worldbank.org; www.imf.org, tradingeconomics.com.

This decline was mainly on account of appreciation in the US currency on safe haven appeal amid fears of recession and inflation across many parts of the world and Russia-Ukraine war. Even though the outlook on the rupee remains weak in the near future, the depreciation in local currency may not continue for a longer period as India remains the fastest-growing economy.

Keywords: Depreciation, Currency, Floating Exchange rate

1. Introduction

Over the last four years, the Indian currency has weakened to nearly Rs. 77 a dollar as

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against Rs. 63.5 a dollar in January 2018. It means Himakshi had to pay around Rs. 63.5 for every dollar in 2018. But now she will have to shell out close to Rs. 77 for a dollar. Simply put, she has to spend over 21% more in terms of rupee to buy the same number of dollars. This is called rupee depreciation, which basically means a fall in the purchasing power in terms of the rupee.

Depreciation is when there is a fall in the value of a currency in a floating exchange rate. The **Indian Rupee depreciated** by around 10% against the US dollar and the rupee was the **worst-performing Asian currency** in 2022. Consider the value of the INR in April 2022 when INR was approximately Rs. 76 per dollar. However, the rupee opened at 82.66 against the US dollar on the first trading day of 2023. On December 27, the Indian currency closed at 83.35 versus the greenback, a depreciation of 0.8%. In 2022, the rupee slumped more than 11%, marking the currency's worst performance since 2013. This rupee depreciation affects its purchasing power and has huge repercussions as the rupee has become less valuable with respect to the dollar.

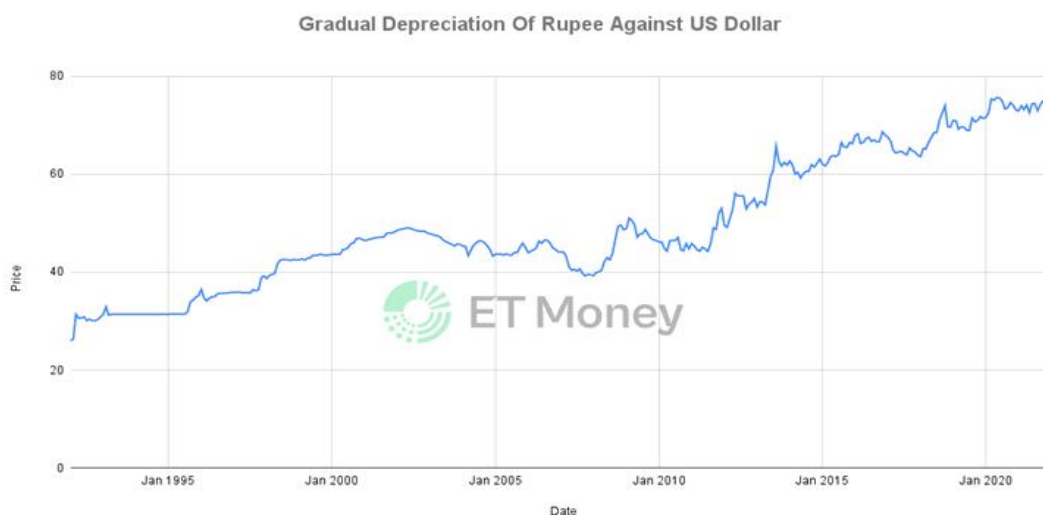
2. About Depreciation of Indian Rupee

Currency depreciation is a **fall in the value of a currency in a floating exchange rate system**. Rupee depreciation means that the **rupee has become less valuable with respect to the dollar**. It means that the rupee is now weaker than what it used to be earlier. **For example: USD 1 used to equal to Rs. 70, now USD 1 is equal to Rs. 77**, implying that the rupee has depreciated relative to the dollar i.e. it takes more rupees to purchase a dollar. In other words, the depreciation of the Indian Rupee, we are essentially talking about its weakening concerning prominent foreign currencies, particularly the US Dollar. For instance, if previously 1 US Dollar was equivalent to 70 Indian Rupees, a depreciation might result in 1 US Dollar being equivalent to 77 Rupees. This change signifies that it now takes more Rupees to purchase the same amount of US Dollars, indicating a decline in the Rupee's strength.

2.1 Causes of Depreciation of Indian Rupee

The value of Indian currency or any other currency depends on its demand. If demand for any currency increases, its value also goes up (it is termed appreciation). And if the demand for a currency declines, its value also goes down (depreciation). The demand for Indian currency goes up when more and more foreign investors make investments in India. That is because when foreign investors or companies invest in India or buy any products from India, they first convert their currency into rupees as they can invest only in rupees in Indian markets. As a result, demand for the Indian currency increases, and its value strengthens against the US dollar and other currencies. On the other hand, when Indian individuals and companies import something (like crude oil, gold, etc.), they have to make the payment in dollars (the de facto global currency). So Indians sell rupees to buy dollars because the US dollar is the currency to make payments for international trades. Consequently, demand for the dollar goes up, and the rupee weakens against the US currency. Since India has been a

net importer (we import more than we export), the rupee has gradually depreciated over time. The following chart shows how the rupee has weakened against the US dollar over the last 30 years.



As the upward trend of the graph shows, you had to shell out Rs. 26 in January 1992 for 1 US dollar. But now you have to pay around Rs. 77 for one dollar. It means, on average, the rupee has fallen around 3.7% every year against the US dollar. Given that India has been a net importer, the Indian currency's gradual decline is never a huge concern. However, if the pace of the rupee's fall is sudden, it is an alarming situation. In that context, it is a bit concerning that the rupee has depreciated by more than 3.2% within a month. And there are two primary reasons for this fall in the rupee:

- ❖ **Overseas Investors Are Exiting Indian Markets**
- ❖ **Rise In Dollar Buying Due To Jump In Oil Prices**

2.2 Impact of Rupee Depreciation on the Indian Economy

The **current account deficit** is bound to widen, depleting **foreign exchange reserves** and **weakening the rupee**. With higher landed prices of crude oil and other crucial imports, the economy is **definitely inching towards cost-push inflation**. Cost-push inflation (also known as wage-push inflation) occurs **when overall prices increase (inflation) due to increases** in the cost of wages and raw materials. **Companies may not be allowed to fully pass on the burden of high costs** to consumers, which, in turn, affect government dividend earnings, raising questions about budgeted **fiscal deficits**. Depreciation in rupee is a **double-edged sword for the Reserve Bank of India**.

- ❖ **Positive:** Weaker rupee should theoretically give a boost to India's exports, but in an environment of uncertainty and weak global demand, a fall in the external value of rupee may not translate into higher exports.
- ❖ **Negative:** It poses **risk of imported inflation**, and may make it difficult for the central bank to maintain interest rates at a record low for longer. India meets **more than two-thirds of its domestic oil requirements through imports**. India is **also one of the top importers of edible oils**. A weaker currency will further **escalate imported edible oil prices** and lead to a higher food inflation.

The depreciation of the Indian Rupee carries a multifaceted impact on various sectors of the Indian economy.

- ❖ **Import Costs:** A weaker Rupee makes imports more expensive as importers must pay more Rupees to acquire the same amount of foreign currency, typically US Dollars. This results in higher costs for imported goods and services, affecting consumers and industries that rely on imports.
- ❖ **Inflation:** The increased cost of imports contributes to domestic inflation, affecting the overall price levels in the country. Rising inflation can impact consumers' purchasing power and disrupt economic stability.
- ❖ **Current Account Deficit:** Depreciation leads to more expensive imports, which, in turn, widens the current account deficit. India already faces a substantial current account deficit, and further depreciation exacerbates this issue.
- ❖ **Export Benefits:** On the positive side, a weaker Rupee can make Indian exports more competitive in global markets. Export-oriented industries, such as pharmaceuticals and information technology (IT), can benefit from increased demand for their products and services.
- ❖ **Foreign Investments:** Depreciation can lead to foreign investors pulling back from Indian markets, resulting in a decline in stock and equity mutual fund investments. This can impact India's financial markets and capital flows.
- ❖ **Oil and Gas Prices:** Since India heavily relies on oil and gas imports, a falling Rupee can significantly impact the cost of these imports, potentially leading to higher energy prices for consumers.
- ❖ **Interest Rates:** Maintaining historically low-interest rates becomes challenging for the RBI as a depreciating Rupee can introduce imported inflation pressures. Balancing the need for growth and price stability becomes a delicate task.
- ❖ **Inflation May Go Up: Possible Increase In Interest Rates –**
- ❖ **Your Investment Portfolio May Witness A Decline:** As foreign investors are pulling out of Indian equities, it is leading to rupee depreciation. The exit of foreign investors has caused a sharp fall in the equity markets. As a result, your investments

in stocks and equity mutual funds are also likely to witness a decline. Not just equities, even your returns in Debt Funds could also shrink. That is because if rupee depreciation leads to a sharp rise in inflation, then RBI will increase interest rates. And Debt Funds perform poorly during increasing interest rate scenarios.

- ❖ **Foreign Travel and Studies To Become More Expensive:** One of the most apparent impacts of the decline in the rupee is that foreign travel and foreign education expenses are likely to rise. As explained earlier, you will have to give more rupees for every dollar following the fall in the rupee. So your costs will inevitably shoot up.

2.3 Measures to Prevent Rupee Depreciation

While currency depreciation is a complex issue influenced by various global and domestic factors, policymakers can consider several measures to mitigate its effects:

- ❖ **Foreign Investments:** Encouraging foreign central banks, sovereign wealth funds, and endowment funds to invest in Indian government bonds can help stabilize capital flows and strengthen the Rupee.
- ❖ **Foreign Exchange Reserves:** The RBI can use its foreign exchange reserves strategically to manage currency volatility. Selling foreign currency reserves can help stabilize the Rupee's value.
- ❖ **Export Promotion:** Increasing export incentives and reducing import dependency can help improve India's trade balance and reduce pressure on the Rupee.
- ❖ **Domestic Manufacturing:** Boosting domestic manufacturing can reduce the reliance on imports, especially for critical goods, and enhance economic resilience.
- ❖ **Foreign Currency Settlement:** Promoting the use of the Rupee for international trade transactions can reduce the demand for US Dollars and stabilize the Rupee's value in global markets.
- ❖ **NRI's and Capital Inflows:** Encouraging Non-Resident Indians (NRIs) to invest in India and offering attractive interest rates on their deposits can channel more foreign currency into the country.
- ❖ **Interest Rate Management:** The RBI can continue to focus on effectively managing interest rates to balance economic growth with inflation control, aiming for a sustainable equilibrium.

2.4 Role of the Reserve Bank of India

The Reserve Bank of India plays a crucial role in monitoring and managing the foreign exchange market to ensure stability in the Rupee's value. The central bank intervenes in the market when excessive volatility is detected. Recent actions by the RBI include:

- ❖ Lowering restrictions on foreign ownership of government bonds.
- ❖ Increasing borrowing limits for businesses.
- ❖ Proposing Rupee settlement methods in international trade to reduce US Dollar dependency.

These measures, along with strategic management of foreign exchange reserves, are essential tools at the RBI's disposal to influence the Rupee's exchange rate.

3. Review of literature

In recent times several research works on the exchange rate, its impact on India's GDP are conducted. Several analyses were also made by the experts from Newspapers, Journals and Magazines. According to Dr G. Jayachandran (2013), India's economic growth is caused by its fiscal and monetary policies. Economic growth is especially caused by the growth of government revenue. He further describes that he didn't find any pieces of evidence

According to R. Sirohi (2013), individuals suffer with rising commodity costs as a result of currency devaluation, which impacts students intending to travel or who are presently studying abroad. When it comes to the impact of the rupee devaluation on the Indian economy,

Divakaran, N Deepa, and Dr. G.S. Gireeshkumar (2014) have a mixed perspective. They cited that the Indian export-oriented sector will get benefits from this. Sectors like the IT sector, Textile, Pharmaceuticals, Gems and Jewellers, Power and Fertilizers are the major ones. The weak rupee will make Indian producers more competitive in the international market and make them able to fetch more money. On the other hand, it can bring inflation and widen the current account deficit. Another online Magazine "Energy world" from The Economic Times, has stated that rupee depreciation is creating pressure on the Current Account Deficit (CAD), fiscal deficit and inflation.

According to Dr. Singh (2018), India's reliance on imports, as well as its high current account and budget deficits, had a negative impact on the economy.

4. Objectives of the study

The paper is aimed to achieve the following objectives: 1.To examine the relationship between the price of rupee in exchange market and state of Indian economy. 2.To examine the factors which influence the currency depreciation against the Dollar.

5. Hypothesis of the study

H_0 : There is no impact of the depreciation of the Indian Currency on economic development.

H_1 : There are Impacts of the depreciation of Indian currency on Economic Development

6. Methodology of the study

An explanatory research method is used in the project to fulfil the objective through

hypothesis testing it is based on secondary data that is collected from worldbank.org, www.imf.org, tradingeconomics.com, www.rbi.org

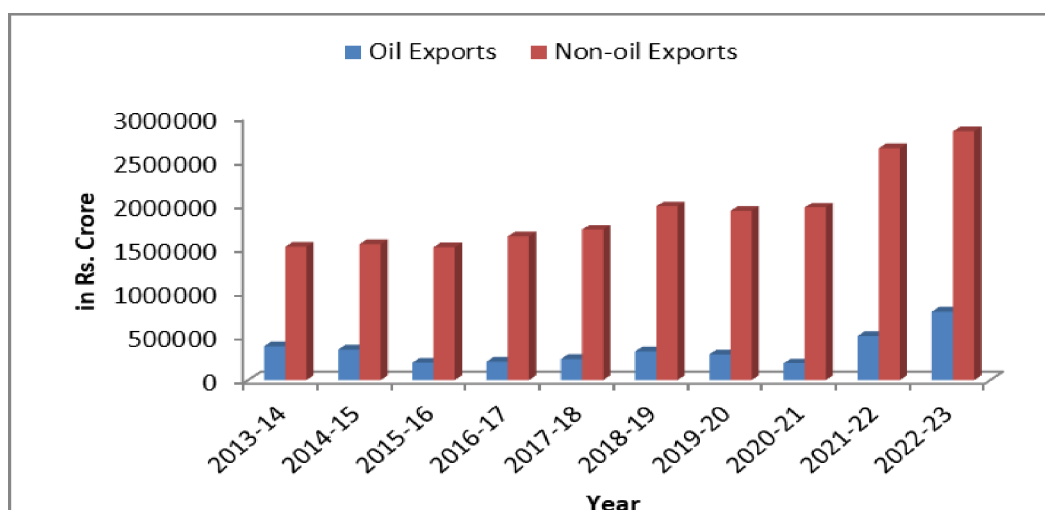
7. Analysis of the study

India had a rise in both oil and non-oil exports between 2013–14 and 2022–2023. The amount of oil exported in 2013–14 was 383248 rupees. It increased and in 2022–2023 reached 781744 Rs. Crore. That indicates a double increase. Similar to how non-oil exports were only found to have doubled in 2022–2023 from 1521763 Rs. Crore in 2013–14 to 2838887 Rs. Crore.

Table 1: Oil and Non-oil Indian Exports

Year	Oil	Non-oil	total
2013-14	383248	1521763	1905011
2014-15	346082	1550363	1896445
2015-16	199638	1516747	1716384
2016-17	211509	1637925	1849434
2017-18	241435	1715080	1956515
2018-19	325929	1981797	2307726
2019-20	292340	1927514	2219854
2020-21	190896	1968147	2159034
2021-22	503850	2643171	3147021
2022-23	781744	2838887	3620361

Source: www.rbi.org



India’s imports of both non-oil and oil grew from 2013–14 to 2022–23. The amount of oil imported in 2013–14 was 997885 rupees. It increased and in 2022–2023 reached 1682427 Rs. Crore. That indicates that it roughly doubles. Similar to how non-oil imports were found to have nearly doubled in 2022–2023 from 1717548 Rs. Crore in 2013–14 to 4051483 Rs. Crore.

Table 2: Oil and Non-oil Indian Imports

Year	Oil	Non-oil	total
2013-14	997885	1717548	2715434
2014-15	842874	1894212	2737087
2015-16	540505	1949801	2490306
2016-17	583217	1994458	2577675
2017-18	700321	2300713	3001033
2018-19	986275	2608400	3594675
2019-20	925168	2435787	3360954
2020-21	611353	2304605	2915958
2021-22	1207803	3364972	4572775
2022-23	1682427	4051483	5733959

Source:www.rbi.org

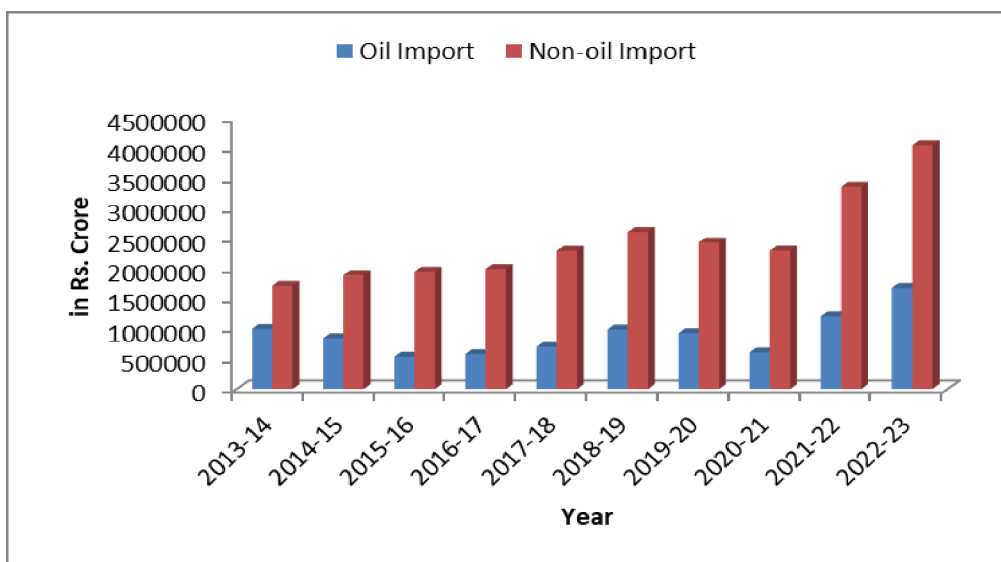
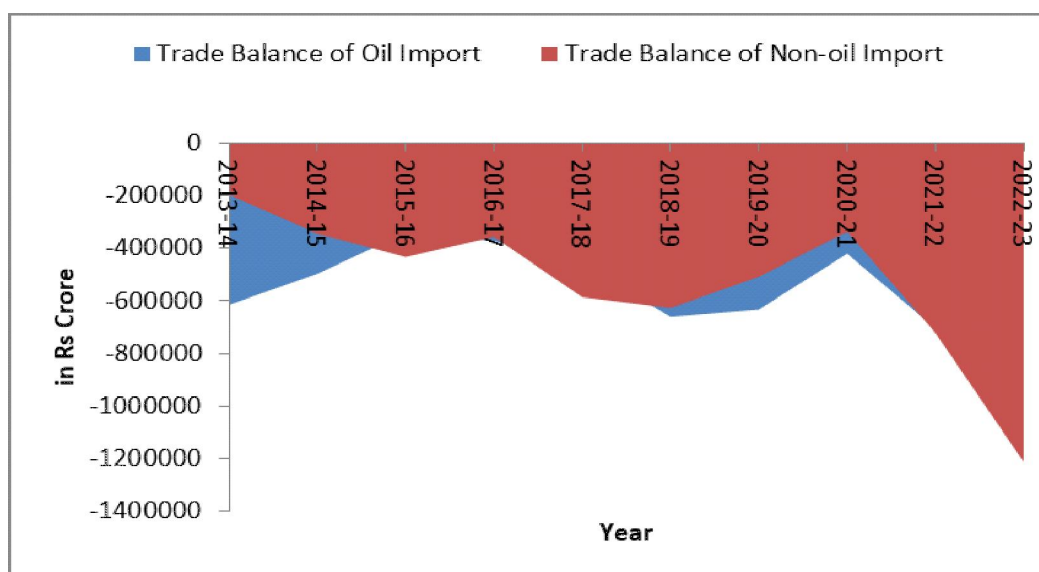


Table 3 indicates that there was a negative trade balance for both oil and non-oil during this time frame.

Table 3: Oil and Non-oil Trade Balance

Year	Oil	Non-oil	Total
2013-14	-614638	-195785	-810423
2014-15	-496792	-343849	-840641
2015-16	-340836	-433054	-779321
2016-17	-371708	-356534	-728242
2017-18	-458886	-585633	-1044519
2018-19	-660346	-626602	-1286948
2019-20	-632828	-508273	-1141100
2020-21	-420457	-336458	-756914
2021-22	-703953	-721800	-1425753
2022-23	-900732	-1212586	-2113328

Source:www.rbi.org



On 01 April 2013, 1US\$ was equal to INR 54.35 (1\$= 1 54.35). In a decade Indian currency has nearly Depreciated by 52.47% as 1US\$ is equal to INR 82.87 (1\$=1 82.87) on 24 Feb 2024.

Table 4: Value of Dollar in Indian Currency

Financial Years	Change in INR (concerning 1 US\$)	Percentage change
Year 2013-14	From 1\$=₹54.35 to 1\$=₹60.05	Depreciation % - 10.48
Year 2014-15	From 1\$=₹59.87 to 1\$=₹62.33	Depreciation % - 4.10
Year 2015-16	From 1\$=₹62.12 to 1\$=₹66.17	Depreciation % - 6.51
Year 2017-18	From 1\$=₹64.80 to 1\$=₹65.13	Depreciation % - 0.50
Year 2018-19	From 1\$=₹65.14 to 1\$=₹69.28	Depreciation % - 6.35
Year 2019-20	From 1\$=₹69.19 to 1\$=₹75.36	Depreciation % - 8.91
Year 2020-21	From 1\$=₹76.38 to 1\$=₹73.16	**Appreciation % - 4.21
Year 2021-22	From 1\$=₹73.32 to 1\$=₹75.90	Depreciation % - 3.51
Year 2022-23	From 1\$=₹75.99 to 1\$=₹82.11	Depreciation % - 8.05
Year 2023-24*	From 1\$=₹82.15 to 1\$=₹82.87	Depreciation % - 0.87

Source:www.rbi.org

According to the above research, the value of the rupee decreased in terms of dollars during the period, with the exception of 2016–17 and 2020–21, when it appreciated because of the low trade balance of non-oil and oil during this time.

8. Conclusion

The depreciation of the Indian Rupee is a complex phenomenon influenced by a myriad of global and domestic factors. While it poses challenges for various sectors of the economy, including rising import costs and potential inflationary pressures, it can also make Indian exports more competitive. The Reserve Bank of India plays a vital role in managing currency volatility and ensuring economic stability. Striking a balance between economic growth and price stability remains a priority for policymakers. While sharp rupee depreciation is a negative development for your finances, there are a few ways to benefit from it. For instance, you can turn the depreciation in the rupee to your advantage by investing in International Funds. When you invest in International Funds, you get exposure in foreign currency through investing in rupees. Any appreciation in the value of the foreign currency or any depreciation in the rupee will increase your returns. Another strategy to deal with rupee depreciation could be tilting your portfolio towards companies that have a substantial amount of foreign exchange earnings. For example, companies related to IT, FMCG, and the Pharma sectors. Such companies are far more likely to report higher revenue and profit growth as their products become cheaper overseas and keep margins intact. Thus, these companies stand a better chance of withstanding a fall in the rupee. This decline was mainly on account of appreciation in the US currency on safe haven appeal amid fears of **recession** and **inflation** across many parts of the world and **Russia-Ukraine war**. Even though the outlook on the rupee remains weak in the near future, the **depreciation in local currency may not continue for a longer period** as India remains the fastest-growing economy. To sum up, the solution to deal with

situations like sharp rupee depreciation lies in building a diversified portfolio. And rebalance the portfolio in time to protect your finances.

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India's Trade Potential with Regional Countries with Special Reference to SAARC

Bunikella Annapurna and Dr. Niharika Srivastava

Abstract

India is the second most populous country in the world, the most populous democracy, and one of the major economies with the fastest rate of growth. It has formal diplomatic connections with most countries. At its inaugural summit on December 7–8, 1985, the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) was founded, with members including India, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. The association's main goal is to hasten member states' economic and social growth by working together in predetermined areas of mutual assistance. The groups began in the latter decade of the 20th century and have grown as a result of national, international, and regional advancements. Numerous chances for economic growth and the emergence of numerous industrial sectors were made possible by foreign exchange. The countries today have good relations as a result of continued trading. The majority of SAARC countries' exports consist of food items. As a result, foreign exchange plays a major role in the economy of the nation; in contrast to other nations, India exports more goods and imports some goods from SAARC nations. Objective of the Study is 1) To study the trade performance of India with SAARC countries; 2) To identify the India's trade potential in SAARC market and 3) To study the trade basket enhancement factors of India with SAARC countries. To fulfill these objectives One hypothesis has been formulated in respect of trade basket that is tested by RCA which are calculated on secondary data. Results are found that There is no significant change of India's trade basket with SAARC member after 2010.

Keywords- *Trade Performance, SAARC, Trade Basket and RCA*

1. Introduction

India has formal diplomatic relations with most of the nations; it is the world's second

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most populous country, the world's most-populous democracy, and one of the fastest growing major economies. The South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), with India, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka as members, was established at the first SAARC Summit held on 7th - 8th December 1985. Afghanistan became its eight member state in April 2007. Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, the Maldives, and Nepal are classified as Least Developed Contracting States (LDCs), while India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka are considered Non-Least Developed Contracting States (NLDCs).

Accelerating the pace of social and economic development in member states was one of the main goals of the SAARC forum's establishment. Trade promotion was subsequently intensively promoted as a sector of economic cooperation. Macroeconomic and regional trade connection models have been used to examine the prospects of expanding intra-SAARC trade. There is broad agreement that due to inter-country differences in production and consumption patterns, investment behavior, and tax and non-tax systems, there is tremendous space for further regional trade expansion. Intra-SAARC trade is now relatively low when compared to other regional organizations like the European Union (EU) and Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) (Rajeev Jain and J. B. Singh, 2009).

The SAARC, which comprises eight countries in South Asia, is a manifestation of the determination of the people of South Asia to work together towards finding solutions to their common problems in a spirit of friendship, trust, and understanding and to create an order based on mutual respect, equity, and sharing benefits. The primary objective of the association is the acceleration of the process of economic and social development in member states through collective action in agreed areas of cooperation.

As a member of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), eight South Asian countries cooperate politically and economically. Among its members are Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. The SAARC's first member is India. On December 8th, 1985, the SAARC was established in Dhaka to advance the growth of regional and economic cooperation in South Asia. Nepal's Kathmandu is home to its secretariat. The South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) policy seeks to advance social welfare, regional unity, and socioeconomic and cultural progress.

Due to the growing protectionist tendencies in the international market and the increasing competition among suppliers, particularly in the developing world, the need to evolve feasible strategies for regional economic cooperation in South Asia is becoming more apparent. Such regional economic cooperation is considered feasible because intra-regional historical, cultural, geographical, and developmental commonalities are much stronger than intra-regional differences in political and economic structures and perspectives.

The SAARC Charter was signed in December 1985 by the heads of state of seven South Asian countries: Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. Afghanistan became a member in April 2007. On paper, SAARC's areas of cooperation span from science and technology, economic and trade to social, cultural, and educational issues and people-to-

people exchanges but the actual results have been scant. In the first decade of its existence, SAARC's primary value was providing a forum for dialogue. The organizations puttered to life in the last decade of the 20th century and have progressed, aided by developments at the domestic, regional, and global level.

2. Objective of the Study

- ❖ To study the trade performance of India with SAARC countries.
- ❖ To identify the India's trade potential in SAARC market.
- ❖ To study the trade basket enhancement factors of India with SAARC countries.

3. Hypothesis of the Study

4. Ho-There is no significant change in India's trade basket with SAARC member after 2010.

Ha- There is a significant change in India's trade basket with SAARC member after 2010.

5. Research methodology

Secondary data has been used in this study. Secondary data is collected from the Department of Commerce, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Government of India (<https://tradestat.commerce.gov.in/eidb/irgncomq.asp>). The top five export products of India to SAARC in the period 2021–22 have been considered for this study.

India's Export Commodity Basket with SAARC Countries

HS (2 Digit)	Product Name
10	Cereals
27	Mineral Fuels, Mineral Oils And Products Of Their Distillation; Bituminous Substances; Mineral Waxes
52	Cotton
72	Iron And Steel
87	Vehicles Other Than Railway Or Tramway Rolling Stock, And Parts And Accessories Thereof

Source: <https://tradestat.commerce.gov.in/>

Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) is used to examine trade basket. Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) measures how much a country is exporting a given product relative to its total trade, in comparison to the share of that product in world trade.

$$RCA = \frac{\frac{X_{ij}}{X_i}}{\frac{X_{wj}}{X_w}}$$

X_{ij} Export of commodity j by country i

X_i the total export of country i

X_{wj} the export of commodity j by the world

X_w Total export of the world

The value of RCA varies from zero to infinity. When $RCA > 1$, it indicates a comparative Advantage condition or a country is said to have a Revealed Comparative Advantage in a particular product when the share of that product in its exports is larger than the share of that product in world exports.

6. India's Trade Performance with SAARC

India is a founding member country of SAARC. Its trade relations with SAARC are very strong. The details of India's exports to SAARC, India's imports from SAARC, Trade balance, and trade growth are shown in Table 4.1 and Fig. 4.1.

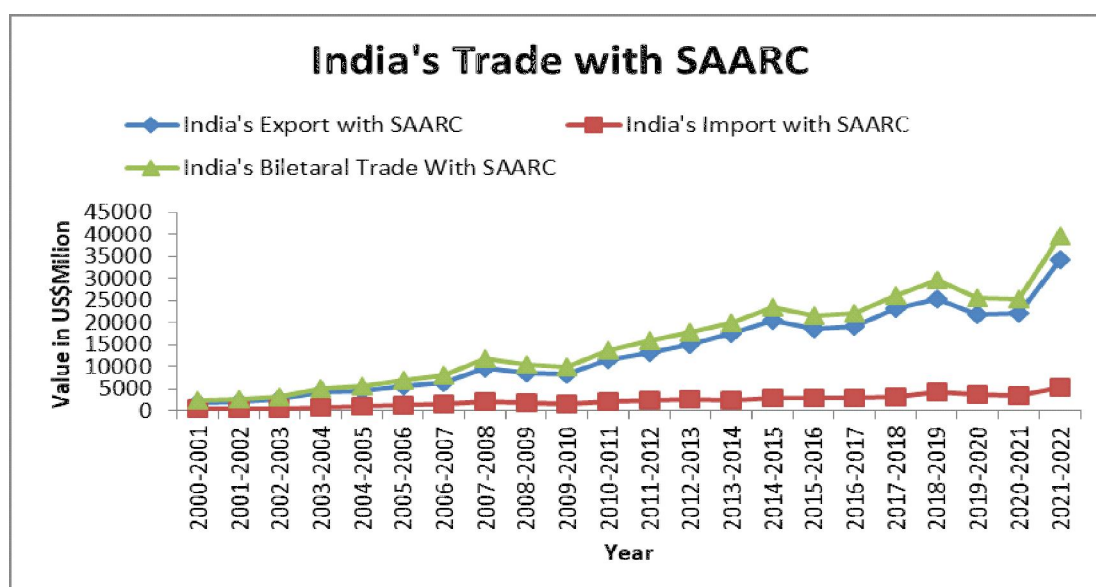
Table-2: India's Trade with SAARC (in US\$ million)

Year	India's Export to SAARC	India's Import from SAARC	India's Bilateral Trade to SAARC
2000-2001	1954.41	492.49	2446.9
2001-2002	2050.38	589.03	2639.41
2002-2003	2784.9	530.43	3315.33
2003-2004	4293.52	709.31	5002.83
2004-2005	4606.14	997.19	5603.33
2005-2006	5547.65	1413.31	6960.96
2006-2007	6473.81	1507.45	7981.26
2007-2008	9637.76	2117.35	11755.11
2008-2009	8567.12	1817.89	10385.01
2009-2010	8390.69	1657.34	10048.03
2010-2011	11656.59	2173.37	13829.96
2011-2012	13296.47	2524.74	15821.21
2012-2013	15110.7	2679.95	17790.65
2013-2014	17503.84	2472.98	19976.82
2014-2015	20480.02	2930.85	23410.87
2015-2016	18594.18	2975.01	21569.19
2016-2017	19222.14	2813.4	22035.54
2017-2018	23100.9	3202.66	26303.56
2018-2019	25348.82	4363.02	29711.84
2019-2020	21941.38	3835.58	25776.96
2020-2021	22077.79	3377.12	25454.91
2021-2022	34228.8	5486.37	39715.17

Source: Department of Commerce, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Government of India (<https://tradestat.commerce.gov.in/eidb/irgncomq.asp>)

According to Table 2, we can see that India’s trade with SAARC fluctuates year by year. In 2001-02, India’s total trade with SAARC was 2446.9 US\$ million, but it increases with 13.03% CAGR and now 39715.17 US\$ million in 2021-22. Table-2 also shows that our trade has increased over the period. Here, it is also a fact that India’s trade balance is showing a positive trade balance with SAARC in the study period.

Fig-1: India’s Trade with SAARC (in US\$ million)



Source: Department of Commerce, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Government of India (<https://tradestat.commerce.gov.in/eidb/irgncomq.asp>)

India’s trade with SAARC members has not been very impressive, both in terms of value and as a percentage of global trade. India’s business with seven South Asian countries has gone up to \$ 1954.41 million in 2000-01. Indian exports to SAARC countries grew at a compound annual growth rate of 13.03%, while imports grew at 10.59%.

7. India’s Product Basket with SAARC

The average export of India in the SAARC region has been 311820.9 of its total product. Its variation is 41068.16, which shows fluctuations are very high in this figure. India’s lowest average export is 1183.58 US\$ million is in item 10, and its highest average export is 2997.42 US\$ million in item 27, followed by item 52 (2495.63 US\$ million) but the lowest variation in item no. 10 is seen, i.e., 136.813%, and the highest variation is in item no. 87, i.e., 420.614%.

Table-3 : India's Export of specific products to SAARC member countries

Year	10	27	52	72	87	Total SAARC	India's Total Export
2011-2012	401.07	1769.78	1441.88	519.58	1538.56	13296.47	305963.9
2012-2013	764.34	2105.45	2237	668.62	1016.6	15110.7	300400.6
2013-2014	1203.47	2105.45	2321.6	658.67	1210.49	17503.84	314405.3
2014-2015	1512.21	2624.85	1990.76	998.01	1692.61	20480.02	310338.5
2015-2016	650.02	1875.85	2677.88	843.11	1917.74	18594.18	262291.1
2016-2017	519.62	2266.64	2368.81	1179.79	2207.54	19222.14	275852.4
2017-2018	1549.21	3277.56	2643.69	1523.63	2282.25	23100.9	303526.2
2018-2019	811.79	4079.76	2741.16	1746.33	1459.2	25348.82	330078.1
2019-2020	491.45	3540.54	2018.62	1629.82	1827.12	21941.38	313361
2020-2021	1741.89	3057.82	2054.24	1403.79	1404.72	22077.79	291808.5
2021-2022	3374.35	6267.95	4956.33	2285.17	1957.4	34228.8	422004.4
Mean	1183.58	2997.423	2495.634	1223.32	1683.112	20991.37	311820.9
SD	865.11	1314.307	898.4081	548.4572	400.1559	5620.006	41068.16
COV	136.813	228.0611	277.7839	223.0475	420.614	373.5115	759.2765
CAGR	21.3635	12.1832	11.87892	14.41389	2.21295	8.976361	2.966313
Sum	13019.4	32971.65	27451.97	13456.52	18514.23	230905	3430030

Source: Department of Commerce, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Government of India (<https://tradedstat.commerce.gov.in/eidb/irgncomq.asp>)

The highest export is done in item 27, i.e., 6267.95 US\$ million in 2021–22, while it is 1769.78 US\$ million in 2011–12, but at that time it is also the highest among all. The lowest export is done in 87, i.e., 1957.4 US\$ million in 2021–22, in comparison to 1538.56 US\$ million in 2011–12, which has the second rank in this series. CAGR is highest in item no 10 (21.36%) and lowest in item no. 87 (2.21%).

The average Import of India in the SAARC region has been 464137.3 of its total product. Its variation is 66867.43, which shows fluctuations that are very high in this figure. India's lowest average import is 0.592 US\$ million in item 10, and the highest average import is 218.694 US\$ million in item 27, followed by item 72 (207.734 US\$ million) but the lowest variation in item no. 10 is seen, i.e., 63.88%, and the highest variation is in item no. 72, i.e., 357.3641%.

Table-4 : India's Import of specific products from SAARC member countries

Year	10	27	52	72	87	Total SAARC	India's Total Import
2011-2012	0.83	81.46	76.33	254.36	4.61	2524.74	489319.5
2012-2013	0.14	72.02	80.26	213.53	5.08	2679.95	490736.6
2013-2014	0.07	173.67	66.24	173.67	10.49	2472.98	450199.8
2014-2015	0.12	117.43	77.47	186.49	15.36	2930.85	448033.4
2015-2016	0.44	344.77	57.01	124.31	16.31	2975.01	381007.7
2016-2017	0.35	307.49	37	143.59	19.12	2813.4	384357
2017-2018	0.31	286.04	30.23	204.08	19.18	3202.66	465581
2018-2019	0.83	301.6	40.87	255.12	29.98	4363.02	514078.4
2019-2020	0.12	182.34	51.32	221.41	13.01	3835.58	474709.3
2020-2021	0.05	269.17	37.14	176.4	21.03	3377.12	394435.9
2021-2022	3.26	269.65	40.41	332.11	33.17	5486.37	613052
Mean	0.592727	218.6945	54.02545	207.7336	17.03091	3332.88	464137.3
SD	0.927837	97.09929	18.44036	58.12941	9.013828	913.7135	66867.43
COV	63.88268	225.2277	292.974	357.3641	188.942	364.762	694.1157
CAGR	13.24334	11.49609	-5.61775	2.454322	19.65012	7.310591	2.070546
Sum	6.52	2405.64	594.28	2285.07	187.34	36661.68	5105511

Source: Department of Commerce, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Government of India (<https://tradestat.commerce.gov.in/eidb/irgncomq.asp>)

The highest import is done in item 72, i.e., 332.11 US\$ million in 2021–22, while it is 254.36 US\$ million in 2011–12, but at that time it is also the highest among all. Lowest Import is done in 10 (i.e., 3.26 US\$ million in 2021–22) comparison to 0.83 US\$ million in 2011–12, which has the fifth rank in this series. CAGR is highest in Item no. 87 (19.65%) and lowest in item no. 52 (-5.617%).

8. RCA for SAARC Region

In this study, the researcher has calculated the RCA values on the basis of data obtained from UNCOMTRADE Statistics. Revealed Comparative index have been prepared on the basis of HS-2 (Harmonized System) for the time period of 2011–12 to 2021–22. Commodities RCA values are the following:

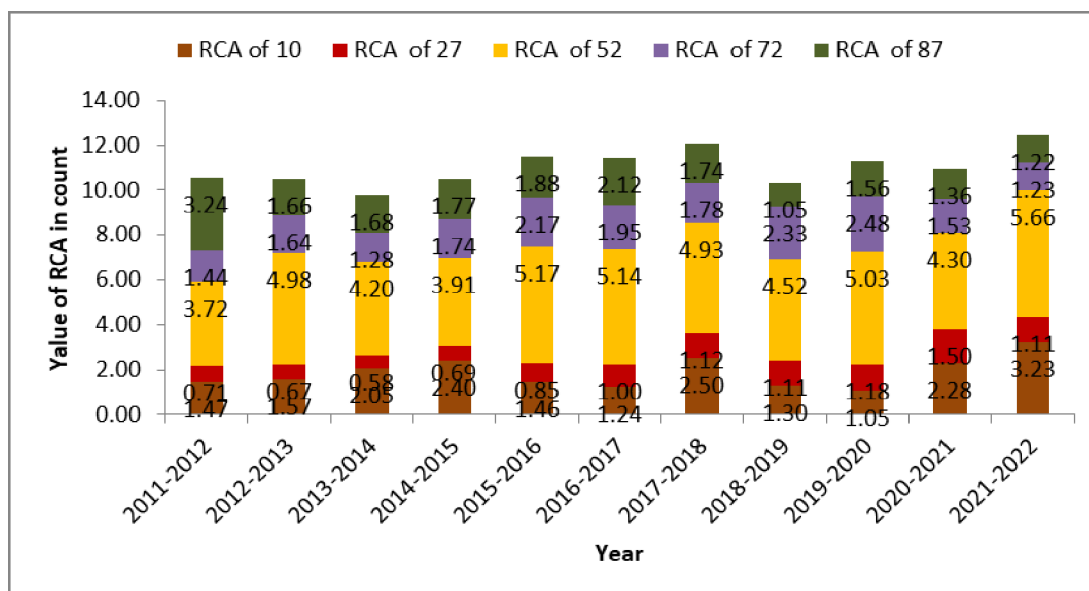
Table-5: RCA in major five commodities

Year	RCA of HS-10 Cereals	RCA of HS-27 Mineral Fuels, Mineral Oils and Products of their Distillation; Bituminous Substances; Mineral Waxes	RCA of HS-52 Cotton	RCA of HS-72 Iron and Steel	RCA of HS-87 Vehicles other than Railway or Tramway Rolling Stock, and Parts and Accessories thereof
2011-2012	1.47	0.71	3.72	1.44	3.24
2012-2013	1.57	0.67	4.98	1.64	1.66
2013-2014	2.05	0.58	4.20	1.28	1.68
2014-2015	2.40	0.69	3.91	1.74	1.77
2015-2016	1.46	0.85	5.17	2.17	1.88
2016-2017	1.24	1.00	5.14	1.95	2.12
2017-2018	2.50	1.12	4.93	1.78	1.74
2018-2019	1.30	1.11	4.52	2.33	1.05
2019-2020	1.05	1.18	5.03	2.48	1.56
2020-2021	2.28	1.50	4.30	1.53	1.36
2021-2022	3.23	1.11	5.66	1.23	1.22

Source: Researcher's calculation on the basis of data extracted from COMTRADE database. Yellow colour value has the first rank, green colour value has the second rank, the third rank value is pink, the fourth is blue, and the fifth is red.

Table 5 is revealing the fact that the commodity with HS code 52 has got first rank in 2021–22, whereas commodity code 27 ranks as fifth. Commodity HS code 10 has got second rank, followed by HS code 72 and 87 in Revealed Comparative advantage. While in 2011-12, the commodity with HS code 52 has got first rank, commodity code 27 ranks as fifth. Commodity HS code 87 has got second rank followed by HS code 10 and 72 in Revealed Comparative advantage. From 2011–12, Commodity HS code 52 has first rank during these periods, and commodity 27 has fifth rank during this period. Commodity HS code 52 has first rank during all given periods, and mostly commodity 27 has fifth rank during these periods except 2018-19 to 2020-21. Second, third, and fourth rank has been rotating in these periods.

Fig-2: Comparative study of RCA of five major India’s Export Goods to SAARC in different period

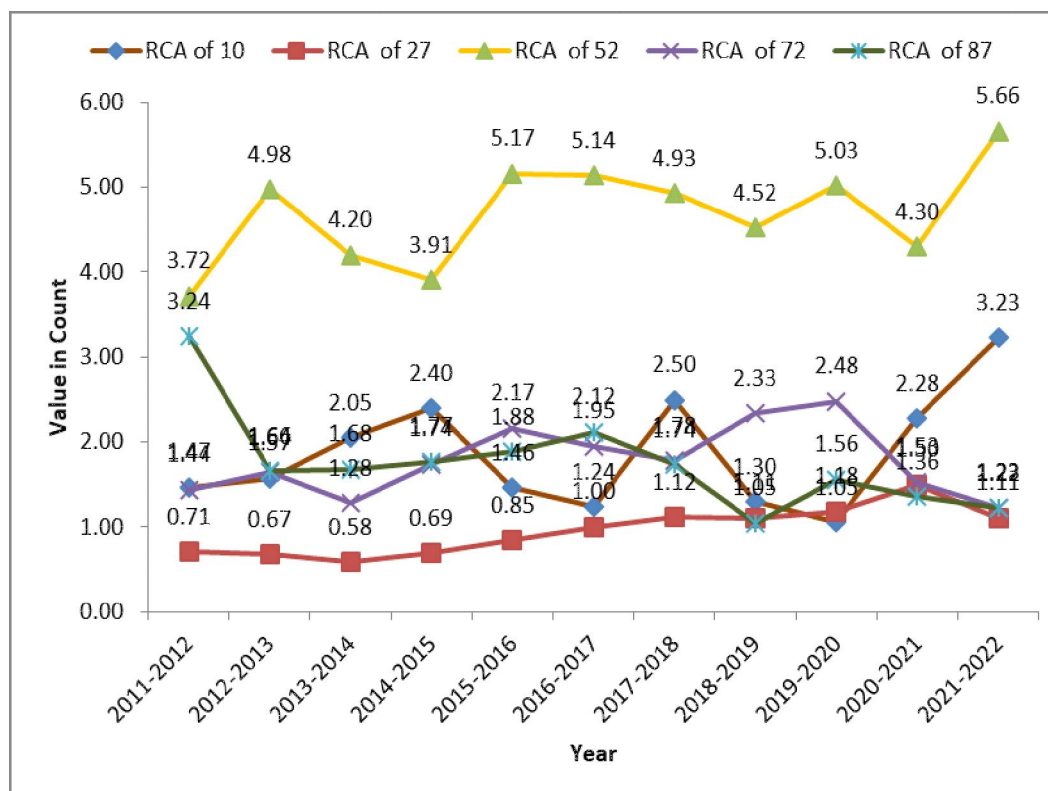


Source: Researcher’s calculation on the basis of data extracted from COMTRADE database

9. Comparative study of RCA in major five commodities

In Fig. 3, the RCA value of all five major Commodities is greater than 1 in the selected period, except commodity HS-27 code from 2011–12 to 2015–16. RCA value of Commodity code 52 is highest, and the RCA value of commodity code 27 is lowest in 2021-22. It means India have comparative advantage in all five major commodities. While, India should takes more action to improve the comparative advantage in export of commodities like commodity code 27 i.e. mineral fuels, mineral oils and products of their distillation; bituminous substances; mineral waxes, 72 i.e. Iron and Steel and 87 i.e. vehicles other than railway or tramway rolling stock, and parts and accessories thereof, These three commodities are important, vital, and necessary products of all countries.

Fig.-2 Comparative study of RCA in major five commodities



Source: Researcher's calculation on the basis of data extracted from COMTRADE database

10. Results of Hypothesis Test-*The Null Hypothesis is accepted.*

Therefore, it can be said that *There is no significant change of India's trade basket with SAARC member after 2010 because all five commodities has 1 or more than 1 RCA value since last one decade. Only their rank has been fluctuating during these periods.*

11. Conclusion

On the basis of the above analysis, it can be concluded that India's Trade Performance with SAARC has many prospects, and their product basket is also rich within SAARC region. *From 2011-12, RCA of commodity HS code 52 has first rank during these periods and commodity 10 has ranked fifth during this period. Commodity HS code 52 has first rank during all given periods, and mostly commodity 27 has fifth rank during these periods except 2018-19 to 2020-21. The second, third, and fourth ranks have been rotating in these periods. There is no significant change of India's trade basket with SAARC member after 2010.*

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Trade Flows between India and South Africa: An Empirical Analysis Using Auto Regression Analysis

Dr. Mulayam Singh Yadav, Dr. Sultan Ahmad and Mohd Abbas

Abstract

The study aims to examine the relationship between India and south Africa tradeflow. The simple autoregression approach to Durbin-Watson test and R square model is employed to investigate the long run relationship between the variables over the period 1993-2021. The results show the long run trade (Export) relationship between India and South Africa is more significant as compared to long run Trade (Import) relationship between India and South Africa. The study explains that there is a significant relationship between Trade and India's CAD will contribute to capital formation in the country and thereby contributes to trade development.

Key Words: *autoregression, Durbin-Watson test, R square model, CAD, Capital formation.*

1.1 Introduction

The importance of international trade in today's globalised economy cannot be understated; every country strives to stand out in international trade, despite the challenges it faces. India is a participant in this endeavour as well, seeking to forge political and economic connections with every corner of the globe. This article's goal is to present a descriptive and analytical examination of South Africa's and India's bilateral trade relations. India and Africa have had a long-standing tie throughout history. In 1946, while the apartheid regime was in power in South Africa, India put an embargo on trade. Nonetheless, commerce between India and South Africa resumed following the end of apartheid in 1994 (India - South Africa Relations, 2017). Adopting a new economic strategy centred on globalisation, liberalisation, and privatisation in 1991, India did so nearly concurrently with South Africa's end of apartheid. Following that,

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both countries embark on a new phase of developing their new political and economic frameworks, liberalising their approaches to international trade and guaranteeing their involvement in the global economy. It was a pivotal period for both nations, as India decided to pursue free commerce by doing away with the licencing raj. In contrast, South Africa experienced the overthrow of a long-standing racial law and the subsequent democratic transition. Both nations were keen to participate in global trade at the time, and they quickly started growing their bilateral trade. As a result, both nations developed into significant trading partners. Transport equipment, telecommunications equipment, iron and steel, pharmaceuticals, chemicals, and petroleum products are among India's top exports to South Africa. On the other hand, primary and scrap products like coal and wood pulp, iron and steel, ores and concentrates, and gold are among India's top imports from South Africa. India has made enormous investment in South Africa. Major Indian investment in South Africa pertains to coal, iron ore and manganese mining. India is one of the top ten nations in South Africa for investments (Kahn, 2011). India's growing influence on the African continent has made South Africa more competitive, particularly in the service sector, whereas South Africa's investment in India is relatively low (Besada, 2013). According to the composition of commerce, India exports value-added goods, whereas South Africa still exports a lot of primary goods. Numerous bilateral trade cooperation agreements between the two nations, such the 2003 agreement between South Africa and Brazil, have led to an expansion in bilateral trade connections (Vadra, 2011). India's trade balance is consistently negative, which raises concerns. India should prioritise growing its trade relations with South Africa and boosting its exports to that country.

1.2 Review of Literature

Wall (2000) used a particular version of the gravity model that allowed for trading-pair heterogeneity and was statistically better than the standard model to produce new estimates of the effects of protectionism on US trade as well as approximate estimates of the welfare effects that resulted. The work of Cheng and Wall (1999) used simple panel data methodologies, which made it possible for the gravity equation's intercepts to be unique to each trading nation. After using the model to investigate how regional integration affected trade volumes, they concluded that the fixed effects model (FEM) was the best specification. Soloaga and Winters looked at how the preferential trade area (PTA) affected trade in the same year.

Michaely, M. (1996) They used an index of trade complementarity in their study paper. They look at trade liberalisation initiatives in Latin America. Soko (2006) talked about the negotiations for a preferential trade agreement between SACU and India. Soko has determined a critical element influencing the deal. India is concerned about the spread of liberal services to South Africa. South Africa is concerned about the protection of intellectual property rights at the same time. Another important topic for negotiations is tariffs. Written before the negotiation, the article Their assessment proved to be correct, and the talks broke down. The fifth round of discussions took place from 2006 and 2018, but the preferential trade agreement was not completed. Alves (2007) investigates the political, economic, and other dimensions

of the connections between South Africa and India. In terms of business ties, Alves found that although business ties have been steadily growing, India has trading potential in the areas of engineering, pharmaceuticals, and cars. India's imports were more diverse than its exports to the country. The study by Shaji (2009) is centred on Indian foreign policy in South Africa following 1990. India and South Africa both have rising economies; trade between them started to pick up after apartheid ended in 1994. The report claims that the creation of the IBSA forum and economic cooperation have strengthened the two countries' economic relations while undermining the hegemony of capitalist developed nations. Ekor and associates. (2017) analysed South African trade links with other BRICS members. Among the other BRICS countries, they discovered that South Africa and India have high trade intensity. It was recommended that South Africa concentrate on China and India to increase investment from these nations. South Africa should increase its low-intensity bilateral trade with Brazil and Russia. Using the revealed comparative advantage index and the comparative advantage index approach for trade potential between both nations, Wani et al. (2016) investigated India's trading relationship with South Africa. According to their findings, India enjoys a comparative edge when it comes to exporting scale- and labour-intensive products like textiles. When it comes to manufacturing goods, however, South Africa enjoys a comparative edge. Increasing the route of trade growth between economies has produced.

1.3 Objectives of The Study

- (i) To analyse the impact of trade with South Africa (export) on India's current account deficit.
- (ii) To analyse the impact of trade with South Africa (import) on India's current account deficit.
- (iii) To analyse the trade inflow between the selected nations.

1.4 Hypothesis of The Study

- I. There is no significant relationship between South Africa (export) and India's current account deficit.
- II. There is no significant relationship between South Africa (import) and India's current account deficit.

1.5 Research Methodology

The study is primarily based on secondary data to be collected from various sources like the RBI and DGFT. The study was after analysis of Trade flows between the selected nations and analysed different macroeconomic variables which are directly and indirectly influenced by Current account deficit. Most of the macroeconomic variables are directly influenced employment, capital formation, skill development, productivity which is the vital element in economy.

The following tools and techniques have been used for the analysis of data.

The Sample Regression Function

The two variables, regression in which the dependent variable (the regress) is related to the single explanatory variable (the regressor) has been taken. Regression analysis is largely concerned with the estimation or the prediction of the mean value of the dependent variables based on known or the fixed values of explanatory variables. In this study we consider that human development is the function of n numbers of explanatory variables. Simply we can express that

$$y=f(X_s)$$

y = Dependent variable

X_s = explanatory variable or independent variable

(Current Account Deficit)

By confining our research so far to the population of Y values corresponding to the fixed X_s our task is now to estimate the population regression function for the sample information. Suppose the sample of n sets of observation are available the observations are assumed to satisfy the simple linear regression model and so we can write

$$y = B_1 + B_2X_i + \mu_i$$

y = Dependent variable (Export and Import)

X_i = explanatory variable or independent variable (Current Account Deficit)

B_1 and B_2 = parameters or slope of coefficients.

μ_i = residual or error terms

1.6 Analysis of Data

1.6.1 The Impact of Trade (Export) with South Africa on India's CAD

Table: 1.1:ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.560	1	478.770	.000
	Residual	.114	26		
	Total	1.674	27		

Dependent Variable: Export

Predictors: (Constant), CAD

The Table 1.1 analyses variance between employment and enrolment in vocational courses. The value of $P < 0.05$ and $F = 395.770$ so the relationship is significant and Export plays an important role in current account deficit of India. The test is calculated at 5% degree of freedom.

Table: 1.2: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.888	.836	.792	.01235	.936	255.770	1	27	.000	.382

Dependent Variable: Employment

Predictors: (Constant), Enrolment in Vocational Courses

Table 1.2 shows model summary. From the table the value of R is 0.968 which shows a very high degree of positive correlation and the value of R square is 0.936 which means Trade with South Africa (Export) explains 88.8% variability in CAD. The value of adjusted R square is 0.836 which explains well that export is one of the factors that affect CAD of the country. In this case the Durbin Watson test is 0.382 which indicates that the relationship is significant.

Table: 1.3: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	3.361	.284	12.212	.000
	Enrolment in Vocational Courses	.228	.116	19.444	.000

Dependent Variable: employment

Predictors: (Constant), Enrolment in Vocational Courses

Table No 1.3 shows the value of the coefficient i.e. the B value of the function which shows the rate of change in employment. The value of B for the function is 0.336 which means that a unit change in export brings about 0.228 times change in India’s CAD and the B value is positive so it clearly tells that if enrolment in exports increases by one-unit employment will decrease by 0.228times.

$$Y= 3.361 + 0.228X$$

Figure 1.1

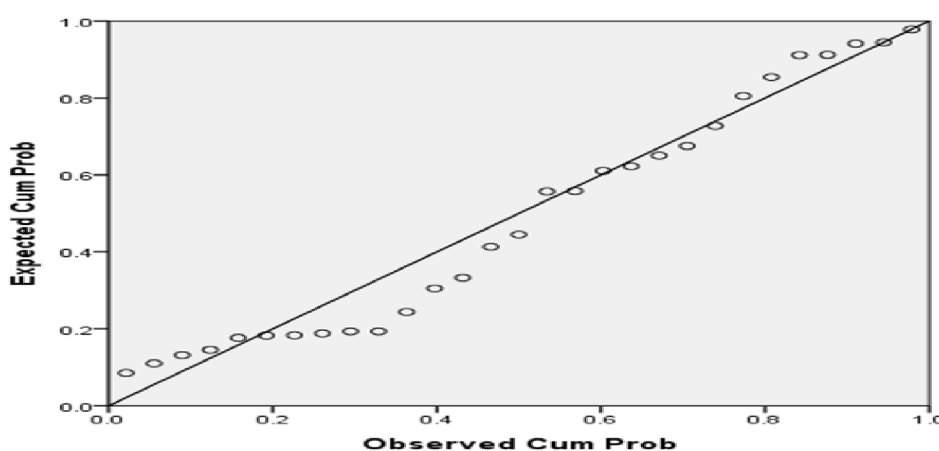


Figure 1.1 shows the scatter plot of the standardised residuals, which are relatively evenly distributed on both sides of zero. Thus, the model is valid. Of the variable, the P value for export is below the significance level of 0.05, which is statistically significant. Thus, the scatter plot shows that the test is significant and export is a factor that affects CAD of the country the model explains well the significance and impact of export on CAD.

1.7 The Impact of Trade (Import) with South Africa on India’s CAD
Table: 1.4: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.655	1	844.082	.000
	Residual	.125	27		
	Total	1.780	28		

Dependent Variable: Import

Predictors: (Constant), CAD

The Table 1.4 analyses variance between Total Production and enrolment in vocational courses. The value of $P < 0.05$ and $F = 844.227$ so the relationship is significant and import plays an important role in increasing current account deficit. The test is calculated at 5% degree of freedom.

Table: 1.5: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.843	.801	.784	.033244	.889	841.228	1	27	.000	.870

Dependent Variable: Total Production

Predictors: (Constant), Enrolment in Vocational Courses

Table 1.5 shows model summary. From the table the value of R is 0.843 which shows a very high degree of positive correlation and the value of R square is 0.936 which means Trade with South Africa (Import) explains 84.3% variability in CAD. The value of adjusted R square is 0.801 which explains well that Import is one of the factors that affect CAD of the country. In this case the Durbin Watson test is 0.870 which indicates that the relationship is significant.

Table: 1.6: Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	7.225	.434	-18.657	.000
	Enrolment in Vocational Courses	-1.001	.055	14.134	.000

Dependent Variable: Import

Predictors: (Constant), CAD

Table No 1.6 shows the value of the coefficient i.e. the B value of the function which shows the rate of change in employment. The value of B for the function is 7.225 which means that a unit change in export brings about 0.1.001 times change in India's CAD and the B value is positive so it clearly tells that if enrolment in exports increases by one-unit employment will increase by 1.001 times.

$$Y = 7.225 - 1.001X$$

Figure 1.2

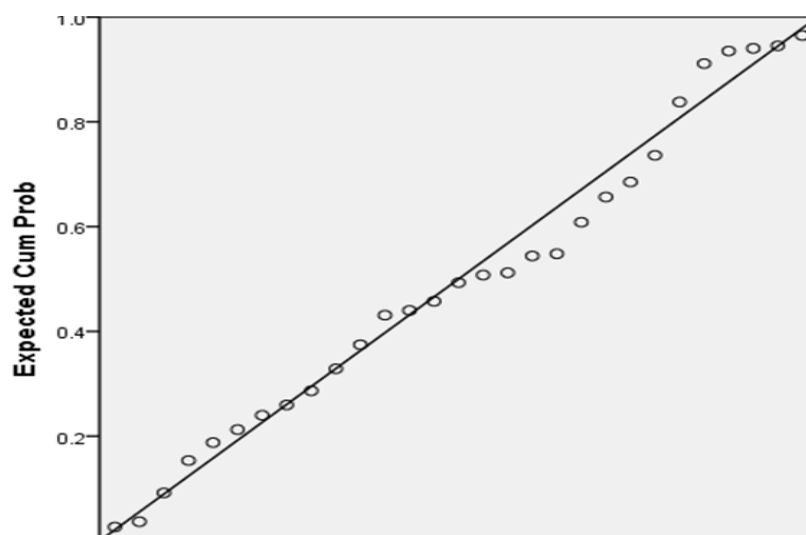


Figure 1.2 shows the scatter plot of the standardised residuals, which are relatively evenly distributed on both sides of zero. Thus, the model is valid. Of the variable, the P value for import is below the significance level of 0.05, which is statistically significant. Thus, the scatter plot shows that the test is significant and import is a factor that affects CAD of the country. The model explains well the significance and impact of import on CAD.

1.8 Conclusions of the Study

Conclusion of the Study

S. N.	Hypothesis	Sig. P- Calculated Value	Result
1	There is no significant relationship between South Africa (export) and India's current account deficit	0.000	Rejected
2	There is no significant relationship between South Africa (import) and India's current account deficit	0.000	Rejected

All the three hypotheses are rejected on the ground of P value and its shows that there is strong relationship between the India's Trade with South Africa and Current account deficit of India.

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Emerging Problems of the Underground Economy: The Dark Web and Digital Money

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JEL- E5

Keywords: *Digital Money, Dark web, Liquidity, Exchange, International Liquidity, Underground Economy.*

The underground economy has always been a major economic problem. While the underground economy causes us loss of tax evasion, it is also the cause of social crimes. Although it may have some role in employment and value production, due to poor working conditions, we want to regulate it.

You will be surprised to know how economics monetized crime and then gained control over it. Compared to the speed at which human civilization has developed, the increase in crime is very subtle, so the entire credit for this goes to economics.

Economics forced criminals to think in terms of loss and profit, like businessmen. Economic surveillance and blockade have made it possible to prevent many crimes and terrorist incidents, but now we have entered a new era in the game of thief-police.

It is often said by thieves and police that “if you are the branches, then we are the leaves”. If the police have the account of every branch of a dense tree, then the thief has the skill to hide on every tree leaf. It is said for locks that “Oh sir! This is for decent people, for thieves what is the point of locks and doors?”

Digitalization has made business very easy and quick due to which the economy started growing naturally and is currently at the peak of its success. These days will be written in golden letters in history, but with it were born the “seeds of destruction”, as it is the rule of nature that with every creation, the script of its destruction is written.

Dark Web

The heroine of the recently released film “Role Play” on Amazon Prime used to kill people by getting contracts from the dark web. The dark web has become a necessity in the world

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of crime. It is like a black hole in the world of the internet which is slowly destroying education, values, and culture.

From smuggling, drugs, bribery, blackmail, illegal weapons to trafficking, child kidnapping, human organ trade, child pornography, it is becoming the first choice for all kinds of debauchery and misconduct. People are being hired for biological experiments on the dark web. For example, to make a medicine for snake venom, a small amount of its venom is injected into the body of a horse to create antibodies. If this experiment is done on humans, a ten times more successful medicine can be made, but the law does not allow this because there is a risk to the life of the person used. On the dark web, poor people are misled and made to do this work for Rs 1 to 2 lakh.

Usually the internet we use is only 4%, it is called surface web. The remaining 96% is deep web which is made for the use of service provider but it is also being used for dark web in an unauthorized manner.

Tor or I2P browser is used to access the dark web and it works on anonymity router technology, so it is almost impossible to trace or monitor it.

Digital or encrypted currency is required for any transaction on the dark web because all other financial transactions can be traced. Digital currency is the only means by which we can curb the activities of the dark web.

Digital Money

Digital money started in 2009, Japanese engineer Satoshi Nakamoto first introduced people to Bitcoin. Digital money is a currency that has neither any color nor form. Neither beginning nor end. Neither any producer country nor any bank. It is present everywhere and at all times. Moreover, it does not require any server to keep its accounts, it is kept on the streets and sidewalks of the internet world with the help of blockchain and digital footprint and no one can understand it. This currency has created new challenges in front of the protectors of law and civilization. This currency has been banned in many countries.

Since digital money is encrypted on the blockchain, it is commonly called crypto currency. Bitcoin is the most preferred crypto currency and the top ten names include - Polkadot, Tether, Litecoin, Dogecoin etc.

Crypto currency has made people crazy in just ten years. People who are ordinary citizens, who do not do any wrong or illegal work, also started buying crypto on a large scale because it gave a huge benefit in the form of exchange rates.

Even though there was no interest and return on keeping crypto currency, it still gave excellent margin because earlier where one bitcoin was equal to one dollar, it reached four-five hundred dollars in no time.

The second biggest reason is the inconvenience of keeping physical currency in the bank. We cannot even keep black money in the bank, along with this, legal money is also provided protection from economic risk by the bank and the government only up to a limit kept in the bank. The entire amount of crypto is safe with you, due to this also the need for digital currency started increasing.

Crypto made dark web transactions possible and its acceptance increased due to its use on the dark web, thus both created each other's existence. In view of the existing threats, the government has made quick plans. To bring crypto under the purview of law, it was taxed, now we have become entitled to monitor and investigate them at the international level.

When the Union Finance Minister of the Government of India announced a 30% tax on taken advantage from the exchange rates by crypto currency on 1 February 2022, its objective also included breaking the mystery of this money.

Along with this, the Government of India also announced the introduction of digital rupee, which was implemented under the pilot scheme.

Through digital rupee, we will be able to stop other reasons for the increasing use of crypto currency. We will present a clean option to the people so that they can avoid becoming accomplices of criminals in ignorance. Economists will definitely be successful in winning this second war with their efficient planning.

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Trading Horizons: Analyzing the Terms of Trade Between India and Selected Latin American Countries

Dr. Mamta Ahuja

Abstract

International trade is indispensable for the economic conversion of a country in numerous ways. India and the Latin American (LA) countries came closer for the economic collaboration between each other. Terms of Trade are an important factor in the determination of economic development and export and import volatility over a specified period of time. This study shows that terms of trade have substantial influence on trade amid different countries through their impact on foreign trade. Improving trading conditions can mean increasing export earnings and improved repayment capacity. This paper makes an attempt to study the fluctuations in the terms of trade of India and selected Latin American countries like Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela and Peru for the period 2001 to 2022. Standard deviation formula and averages are used to measure changes and fluctuations. The high value of the standard deviation depicts high volatility in terms of trade. The Net Barter Terms of Trade (NBTOT), the Income Terms of Trade (ITOT) and the Gross Barter Terms of Trade (GBTOT) of India and selected Latin American countries are studied from 2001 to 2022. In this paper it has been tried to find out how the Latin American countries beat terms of trade repercussions from 2001 to 2022. The analysis of terms of trade indicates that India's trade with Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Colombia, Venezuela and Peru is improving during the past few decades and there is lot of potential of increase in trade in future also. If terms of trade are positive then the growth and volume of exports will increase. The important fact is that the terms of trade of India with selected Latin American countries were badly affected by the Covid-19 pandemic. This analysis indicates that there are numerous commodities in which India has possibility to intensify its trade with selected Latin American countries. Final results designate that although the terms of trade between India and selected Latin American countries is snowballing everlastingly but still there is a lot of possibility to upsurge the gains in future also.

Keywords: *Terms of Trade, Trade Profile, India and selected Latin American countries,*

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Introduction

The terms of trade have always been a major theoretical concern of international trade since the beginning of the classical age. The fluctuations in terms of trade indicate the changes in the direction and gains from trade. This analysis shows that trade conditions have substantial influence on trade amid different countries through their impact on foreign trade.

The favourable terms of trade will lead to an increased receives and decreased payments and adverse terms of trade will result in decreased receives and increase payments for a given quantity of exports. The trade relations between India and the countries of Latin America have vigorously improved during the last few decades. This study investigates the fluctuations and inconsistency in terms of trade of India and selected Latin American countries like Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Colombia, Venezuela and Peru from 2001 to 2022.

Objectives

In this study an attempt has been made to analyze the following aspects:

1. To study the time profile of trade between India and selected countries of Latin America.
2. To analyse the terms of trade of India and the selected countries of Latin America.

Data and Methodology

In the present study, secondary data from different sources is used and covers the period from 2001 to 2022. The study uses various terms of trade indices like Net Barter Terms of Trade index, Gross barter terms of trade index and Income terms of trade index to analyse trade terms.

Net Barter Terms of Trade (NBTOT)

The Net barter terms of trade can be expressed as:

$$T_c = (P_x / P_M) * 100$$

Where

T_c = Net Barter Terms of Trade

P_x = Unit Value Index of Exports

P_m = Unit Value Index of Imports

Gross Barter Terms of Trade (GBTOT)

The formula for GBTOT can be written as:

$$T_G = (Q_M / Q_X) * 100$$

Where

T_G = Gross Barter Terms of Trade

QM = Aggregate quantities of imports

QX = Aggregate quantities of exports

Income Terms of Trade (ITOT)

ITOT can be written as:

$$TI = TC \cdot QX$$

Where

TI = Income Terms of Trade

TC = Net barter terms of trade

QX = Aggregate quantities of exports

Trade Profile of India since 2001

In 1991, the Indian government announced a string of changes to globalize the Indian economy. It is clear from table 1 that India’s exports have improved from US\$ 43.88 billion in 2001 to US\$ 301.48 billion in 2019 which further declined to US\$ 220.41 billion in 2022 due to the outbreak of covid-19 pandemic.

Trade Profile of India (US \$ Billions)

Table -1

Year	Exports	World Export Share	Imports	World Import Share	Total Trade	World Trade Share	Trade Balance
2001	43.88	0.72	50.67	0.80	94.55	0.76	-6.79
2005	100.35	0.97	140.86	0.93	241.21	0.95	-40.51
2010	220.41	1.46	350.03	1.74	570.44	1.60	-129.62
2015	264.38	1.61	390.74	2.78	655.13	2.20	-126.36
2022	220.41	1.46	277.40	2.52	497.81	1.25	-56.99

Source: Author’s Calculations based on UN COMTRADE database

Except for the Covid - 19 pandemic period, all these trends indicate that India is emerging as a global superpower in the domain of foreign trade.

Trade Profile of Latin American Countries since 2001

Latin America has been identified as one of the transforming regions in the foreign trade policy (FTP) of India. In 2018-19 Brazil (US\$ 8561.71 million) is the major trading partner with India followed by Mexico (US\$ 7713.05 million), Venezuela (US\$ 5945.58 million), Peru

(US\$3137.54 million), Argentina (US\$ 2937.91 million), Chile (US\$ 2855.71 million), Colombia (US\$ 1531.94 million) and Bolivia (US\$ 772.44million).

Trade Profile of Latin American Countries (US \$ Billions)

Table -2

Years	Exports	World Export Share	Imports	World Import Share	Total Trade	World Trade Share	Trade Balance
2001	340.59	5.56	363.26	5.77	703.85	5.67	-22.67
2005	571.86	5.53	512.48	4.83	1084.34	5.18	59.38
2010	886.96	5.88	868.55	5.67	1755.51	5.77	18.41
2015	914.81	5.57	999.47	6.04	1914.28	5.81	-84.67
2022	982.51	5.24	996.63	5.60	1979.14	5.23	-14.12

Source: Author's Calculations based on UN COMTRADE database

The trade balance was negative in 2022 due to the outbreak of corona virus pandemic.

An Analysis of Terms of Trade

The present study restricts itself to Net barter terms of trade index, Income terms of trade index and Gross barter terms of trade index.

Terms of Trade Index of India

There are variations in prices of different categories of manufactured goods in different countries like India, Brazil, Mexico, Argentina. Table 3 shows the time series of Net barter terms of trade of India and selected Latin American countries from 2001 to 2022. The NBTOT for India increased to 104.32 in 2022. The unexpected changes in commodity prices at the beginning of Covid -19 crisis have resulted in such a movement in the terms of trade.

Net Barter Terms of Trade Index of India and Selected Latin American Countries (2000=100)

Table-3

Year	India	Brazil	Mexico	Argentina	Colombia	Venezuela	Peru
2001	97.82	99.82	97.25	97.62	96.64	82.22	99.26
2005	87.82	98.76	111.66	112.21	126.12	154.41	130.08
2010	93.47	124.45	110.88	144.65	160.19	215.93	182.76
2015	105.65	106.41	103.5	145.84	110.72	136.63	160.38
2022	104.32	105.45	115.47	154.34	133.45	139.45	168.56

Source: Calculated and compiled on the basis of UNCTAD Data

To study the complete portrait, it is necessary to have an idea about the Income and Gross barter terms of trade from 1995 to 2017. From 2001 to 2021 the Income TOT of India are increasing except the year 2021. This indicates that India is not suffering the loss due to decrease in NBTOT as it has declined slightly in the years 2000, 2002, 2011 and 2017 and in 2022. The Covid-19 shock has affirmed that trade terms are very volatile. GBTOT of India also manifests clearly an increasing pattern during the period of study. The GBTOT was 103.59 in 2005 which decreased to 101.23 in 2021. Thus, the gross barter terms of trade for India is showing an increasing trend for most of the times from 2001 to 2022.

Terms of Trade Index of Brazil

NBTOT of Brazil was 99.82 in 2001 which increased to 117.06 in 2017 but decreased to 105.45 in 2022. The value of exports from Brazil had been on a downward trend since 2019 due to the outbreak of Covid -19 pandemic in Brazil. But Brazil remains a net exporter of primary commodities. For the overall study, it is necessary to analyse Income terms of trade along with net barter TOT. It is quite evident that the Income terms of trade of Brazil also holds similar pattern as NBTOT. The ITOT for Brazil was 72.28 in 1995 which increased to 94.73 in 1998 and it increased to 109.34 in 2001 and which further increased to 209.89 in 2008. The Income TOT stood at 201.21 in 2022. The income terms of trade of Brazil also exhibits more variability than NBTOT during the study period.

Income Terms of Trade Index of India and Selected Latin American Countries (2000=100)

Table -4

Year	India	Brazil	Mexico	Argentina	Colombia	Venezuela	Peru
2001	106.14	109.34	94.76	103.61	101.01	79.82	104.16
2005	166	177.1	113.11	139.69	170.45	147.67	197.13
2010	312.94	231.88	131.39	200.68	260.9	150.93	310.84
2015	446	222.85	160.49	170.21	250.13	81.18	295.19
2022	298.72	201.21	145.22	156.22	189.21	52.23	298.34

Source: Calculated and compiled on the basis of UNCTAD Data

Terms of Trade Index of Mexico

Mexico is among one of those countries that has attained the largest upsurges in their portion of world exports of manufacturers. Net barter terms of trade of Mexico was 97.25 in 2001 which stood at 115.47 in 2021 due to Covid -19 pandemic impact on the economy of Mexico.

Thus, Income terms of trade of Mexico exhibits basically an increasing trend more or less in the period of study. The reason behind the decline in terms of trade of Mexico is the decline in world prices for Mexico exports in 2009. The Gross barter terms of trade of Mexico followed a similar pattern as followed by Net barter terms of trade and income terms of trade.

Terms of Trade Index of Argentina

Argentina has introduced multiple trade restrictions in recent years. Net Barter TOT of Argentina remained below 100 during the initial period of the study. Income terms of trade were 103.61 in the year 2001 and again it increased to 156.22 in 2022. The Gross barter terms of trade of Argentina also exhibits more or less an increasing pattern during the period of the study.

Terms of Trade Index of Colombia

In the Colombian economy during the period from 2001 to 2022, the primary products have a higher share in exports than in imports. The Net barter terms of trade increased from the year 2001 to 2022. Income TOT stood at 189.21 in the year. The overall gross barter terms of trade improve significantly during the study period for Colombia.

Terms of Trade Index of Venezuela

Venezuela is the chief oil producer and exporter in Latin America. The NBTOT for Venezuela stood at 139.45 in 2022. The income terms of trade was 52.23 in 2022. The gross barter terms of trade was 72.34 in 2022.

Terms of Trade Index of Peru

Peru's exports to India consist of gold, silver and copper etc. The income terms of trade decreased to 298.34 due to Covid -19 pandemic which affected the terms of trade of many Latin American countries.

Gross Barter Terms of Trade Index of India and Selected Latin American Countries (2000=100)

Table-5

Year	India	Brazil	Mexico	Argentina	Colombia	Venezuela	Peru
2001	93.51	94.09	98.2	77.69	114.39	116.84	96.95
2005	103.59	60.67	110.11	83.64	145.31	137.71	87.83
2010	127.18	79.65	98.53	183.88	165.45	92.03	137.95
2015	145.22	87.34	99.22	197.23	174.34	98.34	142.45
2022	101.23	70.21	79.34	112.32	149.45	72.34	102.32

Source: Calculated and compiled on the basis of UNCTAD Data

In most of the Latin-American economies, primary products represented an irresistible segment of total exports. There is variability of product values which is reflected through unpredictable terms of trade in the LA countries.

Conclusion

Terms of trade of India and selected Latin American countries are studied from 2001 to 2022 in this research paper. Three types of terms of trade like NBTOT, GBTOT and ITOT are studied. The variability is measured by the standard deviation. A series of economic reforms were implemented in the Latin American countries during the last few decades. It resulted in the changes in terms of trade and economic conditions among these countries. The Latin American economy shows higher fluctuations in the terms of trade of commodities than any other emerging markets. Their terms of trade are more volatile as compared to the advanced countries of the world.

This analysis shows that the terms of trade have significant effects on the country's foreign trade. In this study it has been tried to find out how the Latin American countries beat terms of trade repercussions from 2001 to 2022. **Further economic policies may be implemented for the correction of deteriorating terms of trade which will further enhance the growth rate of these countries.** If terms of trade are positive then the growth and volume of exports will increase. **It is also observed after the study that maximum trade probability is with Brazil among the selected Latin American countries followed by Mexico, Argentina and Colombia.** As is evident from the findings of the present study that India and countries of Latin America require effective trade policies that will strengthen the economic ties between them and will improve the terms of trade in future also. **Thus, in this framework, this study suggests the brighter prospects of improvements in terms of trade of India and selected Latin American countries and this would finally result in a win-win situation.** Latin American countries should adopt a more efficient and coordinated approach to promote trade and investment flows with India and should make great efforts to endorse economic development by improving the international competitiveness in various sectors of economy in future.

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Strategies for Mobilisation of Investment for the State

Dr. Varsha Rahul

Abstract

Strategic mobilization facilitates the delineation of roles, responsibilities, stakeholders, and processes, providing a clear roadmap for task assignments. This approach minimizes confusion by clearly defining “who will do what.” Additionally, it establishes a robust decision framework rooted in data-driven insights, mitigating the risk of delays and confusion during the actual implementation phase.

The resource mobilization strategy delineates the secretariat’s approach to orchestrating the prioritization, planning, project selection, monitoring, expansion of resource channels, and coordination with member states and ICPs. This strategy aims to efficiently mobilize and utilize resources for optimal outcomes.

Uttar Pradesh has been the primary beneficiary of the significant financial support provided by the Central Government, receiving the highest allocation of Rs 167,518.6 crore over the past four years under the Special Assistance Scheme for State Investments.

- *India investment accounted for 30.6 % of its nominal GDP in June 2023, compared with a ratio of 33.2% in the previous quarter.*
- *India investment share of nominal GDP data is updated quarterly, available from June 2004 to June 2023, with an average ratio of 33.4%.*
- *This data reached an all-time high of 41.2 % in September 2011 and a record low of 21.2 % in June 2020.*

Uttar Pradesh emerged as a focal point for investments, drawing approximately Rs 4.12 lakh crore from various channels between 2017 and 2022. Since 2022, the state government has garnered over Rs 39.5 lakh crore through 29,000 investment proposals on the Nivesh Sarathi portal.

Keywords: *-state, Investment, Mobilization, Scheme, Stakeholders.*

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Introduction



The indispensable role played by India's financial system in driving the nation's economic advancement is paramount. Serving as a critical facilitator, it proficiently channels household savings towards both investors and entrepreneurs, fostering a symbiotic relationship that contributes to mutual prosperity between these two vital components of the economic landscape. This dynamic process underscores the significance of the financial system as a linchpin in India's overall economic growth and development.

Initiated amidst the adversity of the Covid-19 pandemic in the fiscal year 2020-21, the 'Special Assistance Scheme to States, 2023-24' has evolved, extending its reach. The ongoing allocation of Rs 1.3 lakh crore for investments is a pivotal aspect of this scheme. With a comprehensive structure consisting of eight integral parts, the scheme caters to diverse facets, with Part-1 specifically earmarking Rs 1 lakh crore. The distribution of this amount among states aligns with their respective central taxes and duties share, adhering to the directives of the 15th Finance Commission. This strategic allocation aims to address the economic challenges exacerbated by the pandemic, fostering financial resilience and equitable development across states.

The plan's interconnected elements revolve around reforms and sector-specific projects. In Part II, states are encouraged to dismantle outdated vehicles and set up automated vehicle testing facilities, fostering modernization. Parts III and IV extend incentives to states, promoting advancements in urban finance, vital for sustainable urban development. Allocating funds in Part V addresses a crucial aspect by expanding housing facilities for police personnel and their families within urban police stations. This multifaceted approach demonstrates a comprehensive strategy, aligning various components to address specific challenges and opportunities, emphasizing the plan's holistic nature in driving positive change across diverse sectors and aspects of urban development.

Aligned with the principles of national integration, the Make in India initiative, and the One District One Product strategy, the sixth part of the scheme emphasizes the cultivation of cultural diversity and the promotion of local products. This objective is achieved through the execution of Unity Mall projects, acting as a significant platform to exhibit and bolster a myriad of cultural offerings and locally crafted goods. In doing so, this initiative actively contributes to the overarching objectives set forth by the national initiatives, fostering a sense of unity and supporting indigenous industries.

In Section VII, a specific allocation of Rs 5000 crore has been earmarked for states, intended as financial assistance for the establishment of libraries equipped with digital infrastructure at the Panchayat and Ward levels. This strategic initiative represents a substantial boost to educational development, particularly benefiting children and adolescents. The primary objective is to elevate learning opportunities at the grassroots level, ensuring that individuals have access to modernized and easily reachable library facilities. This dedicated fund emphasizes the commitment to fostering a conducive learning environment, fostering intellectual growth, and promoting educational equity in communities across the designated areas.

Objectives of the plan

Designed to spur demand and promote job creation, this initiative is set to have a far-reaching impact on the economy. Beyond its immediate objectives, the plan aims to expedite the advancement of critical projects in key sectors such as the Jal Jeevan Mission and Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana. This acceleration is facilitated by allocating funds to meet the state's financial commitments, ensuring that essential projects move forward seamlessly. By addressing both economic stimulation and targeted project progression, the initiative underscores a comprehensive approach to fostering growth and development within the state, aligning with broader national goals and priorities.

Furthermore, the initiative aims to inspire states to overhaul both urban planning and urban finance. The overarching goal is to elevate the quality of life and governance in cities, encouraging a comprehensive transformation in the approach to urban development and management.

Elucidation

Mobilization is the systematic process of gathering and organizing resources to achieve a collective objective. Despite a country possessing economic resources within its borders, their availability for collective use is not automatic. Identifying and mobilizing these resources is crucial for national growth, ensuring their accessibility for central and state-level planning. The concept of resource mobilization extends beyond economics, finding significance in sociological theory, particularly in the study of social movements. This theory, originating in the 1970s, underscores a movement's effectiveness in acquiring resources and mobilizing people to achieve its objectives. In essence, resource mobilization is vital for the success and

sustainability of social movements, emphasizing the dual aspects of acquiring tangible resources and galvanizing human support towards the movement's goals.



Acknowledging the pivotal role of infrastructure in fortifying a resilient economy is of utmost importance. The present moment provides an auspicious opportunity for states to strategically invest, foreseeing forthcoming federal plans to allocate increased resources to public infrastructure, including roads and bridges. While the prospect of additional federal assistance is desirable, states must proactively take the lead, given the uncertainty surrounding the nature and extent of aid they might receive from any potential new federal initiative. This proactive approach ensures that states can enhance their infrastructure resilience independently while aligning with broader federal objectives for economic development and sustainability.

As an illustration, the infrastructure proposal put forth by the President for the fiscal year 2019 outlines a significant commitment of \$1.5 trillion towards authentic new federal infrastructure resources. Despite this ambitious agenda, certain states have adopted a counterproductive strategy, diverting focus from infrastructure investment. Rather than directing resources towards such pivotal initiatives, these states have opted for tax cuts and corporate subsidies, actions that, according to research findings, are speculated to have minimal, if any, positive impact on economic growth. This divergence in policy priorities raises questions about the efficacy of current approaches to foster economic development and infrastructure enhancement.

In a proactive move, the Uttar Pradesh Cabinet, under the leadership of Chief Minister Yogi Adityanath, has given the green light to the Incentive Policy-2023. This strategic initiative is designed to not only lure Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) but also to secure substantial investments from Fortune-500 companies. During the cabinet meeting, State Finance Minister Suresh Kumar Khanna elucidated that the approved policy comprises targeted facilities and concessions. These measures are intricately crafted to stimulate and facilitate investments within the state. By adopting this forward-looking approach, Uttar Pradesh aims to create a

conducive environment for economic growth, fostering a mutually beneficial partnership with both foreign investors and leading global corporations.

Introduction of a New Policy

Finance Minister Suresh Kumar Khanna has introduced a significant policy shift in response to the notable difference in Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) between Uttar Pradesh and other prominent states such as Maharashtra, Karnataka, and Gujarat. The contrast is stark, with Maharashtra attracting Rs 3.74 lakh crore in FDI, Karnataka securing Rs 3.21 lakh crore, while Uttar Pradesh received a relatively modest amount of Rs 9,435 crore from October 2019 to October 2022. Recognizing the need to bridge this gap and bolster economic growth, the Uttar Pradesh state government has proactively devised and implemented a new policy to attract foreign direct investment.

This policy overhaul reflects a strategic effort to position Uttar Pradesh as a more compelling investment destination, aligning it with the success trajectories of other economically robust states. By actively courting foreign direct investment, the state aims to diversify its economic landscape, stimulate job creation, and foster overall development. The introduction of this policy signals a commitment to fostering a more competitive and attractive investment environment in Uttar Pradesh, setting the stage for increased economic prosperity and heightened global participation.

Installment-Based Subsidy

According to the current policy framework, eligible projects stand to benefit from reduced land rates, aligning with the prevalent allotment rates of development authorities. Capital subsidies constitute a significant incentive, varying across regions. In Gautam Buddha Nagar and Ghaziabad, the subsidy is set at 25%, while in Paschimanchal (excluding Gautam Buddha Nagar and Ghaziabad) and Madhyanchal, it is 30%. For Bundelkhand and Purvanchal, the subsidy increases to 35%. Notably, there exists an annual ceiling of Rs 100 crore in capital investment, exclusive of land costs. To facilitate a structured disbursement, these subsidies will be provided in seven equal annual installments. This comprehensive policy approach aims to stimulate economic activities by promoting strategic investments across diverse regions, fostering sustainable development, and contributing to the overall growth of Uttar Pradesh. The nuanced distribution of subsidies reflects an awareness of regional economic dynamics, ensuring equitable support for projects based on their geographical locations within the state.

Exemption in Stamp Duty and Registration Fees Based on Area

Projects falling within this category are entitled to substantial benefits outlined in the Uttar Pradesh Industrial Investment and Employment Promotion Policy-2022. These projects will receive full reimbursement of State Goods and Services Tax (SGST) at a rate of 100%, subject to a maximum limit based on the eligible capital investment, excluding the land cost. Beyond this, companies falling under this ambit will be accorded area-specific exemptions in

stamp duty and registration fees. This provision serves to alleviate the financial burden associated with property transactions. Another significant advantage for these entities is the complete waiver of electricity duty for a span of five years. This strategic incentive aims to bolster industrial growth by reducing operational costs. The comprehensive package of incentives not only encourages the establishment of new ventures but also contributes to the overall economic development of Uttar Pradesh by fostering a conducive environment for industrial investment. The policy demonstrates the state's commitment to fostering a business-friendly climate and attracting substantial investments to stimulate economic progress.

In instances where a company grapples with a fluctuating tax structure, impeding the effective utilization of input tax credit on capital goods for settling output tax and seeking subsequent refunds, the State Government holds the authority to bring the matter to the attention of UP GST. The reimbursement of State Goods and Services Tax (SGST) input paid on capital goods is facilitated within the standard investment period, provided it adheres to the permissible limits stipulated under the Act-2017. This mechanism underscores the commitment to resolving challenges associated with tax dynamics, promoting financial stability, and ensuring that businesses can optimize their input tax credits within the regulatory framework. The State Government's role in referring such matters to UP GST reflects a collaborative effort to streamline taxation processes, contributing to a more transparent and supportive business environment.

Reimbursement Capped at Rs 5000

In compliance with regulatory provisions, the company is obligated to reverse the input tax credit from the State Goods and Services Tax (SGST) credit ledger, with a cap set at Rs 5000. This mandated reversal triggers a reimbursement mechanism structured to unfold over five equal annual installments, commencing from the initiation of commercial production. A pivotal decision confronts the company in these scenarios, necessitating a choice between two options: either opting for the net SGST reimbursement or electing to receive SGST refund specifically pertaining to capital goods. This financial obligation, tied to SGST, underscores the intricate nature of tax credit management within the ambit of commercial operations. The phased disbursement of the reimbursement serves as a strategic fiscal measure, potentially impacting the company's cash flow dynamics over the stipulated period. Ultimately, this regulatory requirement aims to balance the utilization of tax credits while ensuring fiscal responsibility and adherence to the statutory framework.

The Uttar Pradesh government will sponsor training expenses for up to 500 individuals from these companies, providing support of up to Rs 5,000 per person per month for a span of five years. This initiative aims to enhance skill development and contribute to the growth of the workforce associated with these businesses.

Upon the operational commencement of an Effluent Treatment Plant (ETP) or Combined Effluent Treatment Plant (CETP) within the unit premises, a capital subsidy equivalent to 50% of the total cost, or a maximum of Rs 2.5 crore, will be provided outright. This incentive

aims to encourage the establishment of efficient wastewater treatment facilities, promoting environmental sustainability within industrial units. The subsidy serves as a financial support mechanism, fostering the implementation of environmentally responsible practices in industrial processes.

Projects deemed eligible for support encompassing the construction of housing/dormitory facilities and associated collective amenities for labor within a 10-kilometer radius of the campus will receive financial assistance. This support amounts to 10% of the project cost or Rs 10 crore, whichever is lower. The disbursement of this financial aid will be distributed over seven equal annual installments, facilitating a sustained and structured approach to project funding.

Reimbursement of 50% Transportation Cost

In a bid to encourage corporate relocation and boost industrial growth, the state of Uttar Pradesh has instituted an attractive incentive for companies relocating their operations to the region. Specifically, businesses shifting their existing units from foreign countries or other states within the country to Uttar Pradesh will benefit from a substantial reimbursement program. This initiative entails covering fifty percent of the transportation expenses associated with importing manufacturing equipment, alleviating a significant financial burden for companies undergoing relocation. Notably, the maximum incentive amount has been set at Rs 2 crore per unit, providing a competitive edge for businesses considering the move to Uttar Pradesh.

It's important to highlight that this reimbursement incentive operates on a lump-sum basis and is contingent upon the commencement of commercial operations at the relocated unit. This strategic initiative by the Uttar Pradesh government aims not only to attract investment but also to facilitate a seamless transition for businesses looking to establish or expand their operations within the state.

Furthermore, individuals pursuing patent registration will qualify for a one-time reimbursement amounting to 75% of the incurred fee. This reimbursement, subject to a maximum limit of Rs 20 lakh, applies separately for both domestic and international patent acquisitions. This initiative aims to incentivize and support innovators and entrepreneurs in the patent application process by alleviating a significant portion of the financial burden associated with securing patents, whether on a national or international scale. The specified maximum limits ensure that the reimbursement remains substantial, fostering an environment conducive to intellectual property development and protection within the country.

Conclusion

Uttar Pradesh's dedication to fostering economic growth and attracting investments is evident in its amalgamation of strategic policies and targeted incentives. Acknowledging the pivotal role of infrastructure and economic policies, the state has embarked on a proactive journey aimed at stimulating demand, creating employment opportunities, and enhancing urban

development. The comprehensive approach involves the formulation and implementation of strategic policies that not only facilitate economic expansion but also provide incentives designed to attract diverse investments. By aligning these initiatives, Uttar Pradesh seeks to create a conducive environment for businesses and industries, thereby contributing to sustained economic development. This commitment is exemplified by the state's ongoing efforts to ensure a holistic and integrated framework, fostering a robust economic landscape that benefits both investors and the broader community.

Uttar Pradesh is strategically addressing regional disparities in foreign direct investment (FDI) through initiatives like the 'Special Assistance Scheme to States, 2023-24' and the Incentive Policy-2023. These policies signal the state's commitment to positioning itself as an appealing investment destination. By incorporating area-specific exemptions and installment-based subsidies, Uttar Pradesh adopts a nuanced approach to incentivize businesses and foster sustainable growth. The 'Special Assistance Scheme to States, 2023-24' and the Incentive Policy-2023 play pivotal roles in creating a conducive environment for investors, aiming to boost economic development and reduce regional disparities. This comprehensive strategy aligns with Uttar Pradesh's vision of attracting diverse investments while ensuring sustained and equitable growth across different sectors and geographical areas.

Moreover, Uttar Pradesh underscores its commitment to enhancing the business environment and encouraging innovation through the initiation of reimbursement schemes for transportation costs and patent registrations. This strategic move is a testament to the state's dedication to facilitating the ease of doing business. Uttar Pradesh's proactive approach involves offering targeted support to pivotal sectors and implementing policies that emphasize economic resilience. By doing so, the state aspires to solidify its position as a frontrunner in economic development and enhance its appeal for investments, not only at the national level but also on the global stage. These initiatives reflect Uttar Pradesh's holistic vision for sustainable growth, where fostering innovation, reducing barriers to business operations, and promoting economic diversification converge to create a conducive environment for both domestic and international investors. In aligning its policies with economic sustainability and attractiveness, Uttar Pradesh strives to unlock its full potential, ensuring a prosperous future for the state and contributing significantly to India's economic landscape.

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An Analysis of Trends of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) Inflow in India (with reference to 1991 - 2022)

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Abstract

This study makes an attempt to analyze the trends of foreign direct investment (FDI) inflow in India in three different regimes: 1991- 99, 2000 - 2008 and 2009 - 2022. The process of economic reform brought about a significant shift in the government's perspective. Consequently, there was a major liberalization of both the foreign investment policy generally and the FDI policy in specifically. As a result, in the years after liberalization, FDI inflow surged. FDI inflow has reached levels never before seen in the wake of liberalization. FDI inflow trends in recent times indicate that the country remains a preferred destination for foreign investors. The findings of the study indicate that, with a few exceptions, the trend of FDI inflow has been consistently increasing throughout the entire study period from the year 1991 to 2022. However, two sudden crises between 1998 and 2008 severely impacted the trend of FDI inflow in India. India has experienced a significant rise in foreign direct investment (FDI) during the last two decades and due to a number of variables that have encouraged FDI, it has recently become a desirable location for FDI. To ensure India remains an attractive and conducive destination for investors, the government continuously reviews and implements substantial changes to the FDI policy framework. As a result of these efforts, India has witnessed remarkable growth in FDI inflows over the course of the past two decades.

Keywords: *FDI inflow, Liberalization, FDI Policy, Trends*

Introduction:

Foreign direct investment (FDI) serves as the primary means by which multinational enterprises (MNEs) expand their operations globally. Numerous nations worldwide vie for FDI by relaxing their foreign investment regulations. India initially took a cautious approach to foreign investment throughout the first three decades after independence. The government's stance underwent a significant shift as part of the economic reform process. As a result, there

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was a major liberalization of both the foreign investment policy generally and the foreign direct investment policy specifically. This resulted in a substantial surge in foreign direct investment inflows in post liberalization period. The objective was to attract increased FDI into the country, not only to bolster domestic capital formation but also to acquire advanced technology, managerial expertise, and marketing capabilities as a bundled offering.

The significant policy changes implemented since 1991 represent a significant departure from previous approaches and demonstrate a favourable stance towards foreign investment. These changes grant foreign investors the freedom to participate in Indian industries. In terms of openness to FDI, the current Indian policy is competitively positioned compared to other major FDI-receiving nations worldwide. This proactive measure has resulted in substantial inflows of FDI into the country. However, two sudden crises between 1998 and 2008 severely impacted the trend of FDI flows in India.

Thus, in the light of the above facts, the present study makes an attempt to analyze trends of FDI inflow in India from the year 1991 to 2022. The present study has been divided into four sections. Section I provides previous analytical studies on FDI investment. In Section II, objectives and methodology are discussed. Section III presents a comprehensive descriptive analysis of trends of FDI inflow in India, and section IV presents conclusions.

I Review of Literature

Panjwani, veena and Jain Sneha (2022) examined the growth, trends, and patterns of foreign direct investment inflows into India from the period 2000 to 2022. Along with FDI inflows by sector from April 2000 to 2022, the report also includes a list of the nations that have made investments in India. To investigate the relationship between FDI and other economic variables such as growth (GDP), exports of goods and services (x), and foreign exchange reserve (FER), regression analysis was used. The findings indicate that there is no significant link between FDI and exports of goods and services, but a positive correlation between FDI and FER and Growth. *Dr. P. Sai Rani and Sourav Kumar Ghosh (2020)* examined the trends of foreign direct investment inflows into India during 2000-01 and 2018-19. The study also investigated the country-wise FDI inflows and sector-wise distribution of such investments in the country. For the aim of the study, statistical tools like percentage and CAGR (Compound Annual Growth Rate) have been used. According to the study's findings, there have been a variety of trends in FDI inflow into India in recent years, typically on the rise and in accordance with the global economy. The study also shows that, during the course of the study, the service sector has drawn the greatest FDI among all the sectors, with Mauritius emerging as the top investing nation in India. *P. Rajesh (2020)* reviewed the patterns of foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows into India over the past 20 years, namely from 2000 to 2019, as well as the trends in FDI in the country from 1980 to 2018. This research has unequivocally demonstrated how liberalization has improved FDI flows and stock in India and transformed the nation's FDI distribution patterns. For the purpose of the study, statistical tools like simple growth rate, and CAGR (Compound Annual Growth Rate) have been used. *Nilanjana Kumari (2013)* presented

analysis of India's FDI trend. The findings of the FDI trend study indicate that foreign direct investment (FDI) inflow into India is on the rise. This suggests that FDI will continue to grow in the near future, contributing to economic growth. *J. Singh (2010)* examined the patterns and trends of FDI inflows into India in response to several policy announcements made by the Indian government from mid-1980 onwards. Furthermore, the analysis shows that, in comparison to other emerging nations, India has seen a significant growth in foreign direct investment inflow in recent years. As a result, the analysis shows that the liberalization policies put in place in the early 1990s had a favorable impact on foreign direct investment inflows into India. *Nagesh Kumar (2005)* examined the impact of general economic developments and the liberalization of FDI policy in particular on the number and pattern of FDI inflows to India. *R. Nagraj (2003)* in his analysis of trends and issues surrounding FDI inflows throughout the 1990s brought up the concerns over the extent to which foreign direct investment (FDI) fosters economic growth. The study suggested a more effective policy based on the analytical discussion and comparative experience. The research also concluded that India aspires to compete with the wealthier economies of Asia for a greater share of the global FDI inflows. *Nagesh Kumar (1998)* examines how the Indian government has viewed foreign direct investment (FDI) over time, as well as the patterns and trends in FDI inflows during the 1990s. He also looks at the influence of FDI on a few development metrics from an East Asian viewpoint. The study concludes that the trends and patterns of FDI inflows that the nation has received have been impacted by the shifting policy framework. The amount of foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows has increased, but has largely gone into the services and soft technology consumer goods industries in the absence of policy direction. This has resulted in a substantial decline in the share of manufacturing and technology-intensive businesses among them, compared to the East Asian countries. India's track record in leveraging foreign direct investment (FDI) to promote export-oriented industrialization is notably less impressive than that of East Asian economies.

II. Objectives and Methodology

Objectives:

- ❖ To study the trends of FDI inflow in India in three different regimes: 1991-99, 2000-2008, 2009-2022.

Methodology:

This study based on secondary data and is primarily descriptive in nature. The necessary information collected from the Indian government's publications and other sources such as, World Investment Report, Economic Survey, Factsheet of Department for Promotion of Industry and Internal Trade (DPIIT), RBI Annual Report, various bulletins of Reserve Bank of India, India Brand Equity Foundation (IBEF) etc.

All relevant information regarding FDI inflow trends has been collected over the last thirty years (1991 to 2022), which has been further divided into three sub-periods: from year 1991

to 1999, 2000 to 2008, and 2009 to 2022. The classification is due to frequent changes in the economic environment that have occurred since the post-reform period. The East Asian financial crisis in 1999 and the start of the global recession in 2008 had an impact on the state of the economy. Many statistical techniques, including growth rate, CAGR (Compound Annual Growth Rate), percentage, and graph, have been used to assess the trends of FDI inflows into India and arrive at a reliable conclusion.

III. Analysis and Discussion

The FDI inflow reveals increasing trend during the entire period (1991-2022) of the study, except few years. The detail discussion of the findings of the study can be done by dividing the entire period of the study into three phases. Phase -1 covers eight years periods from 1991 to 1999, phase – 2 covers eight years periods from 2000 to 2008 and phase 3 covers thirteen years period from 2009 to 2022. The phase wise data of FDI inflow is given in the following table-

Table No. 1: Trends of FDI Inflow in India (from 1991 to 2022)

Data in US Dollar Millions

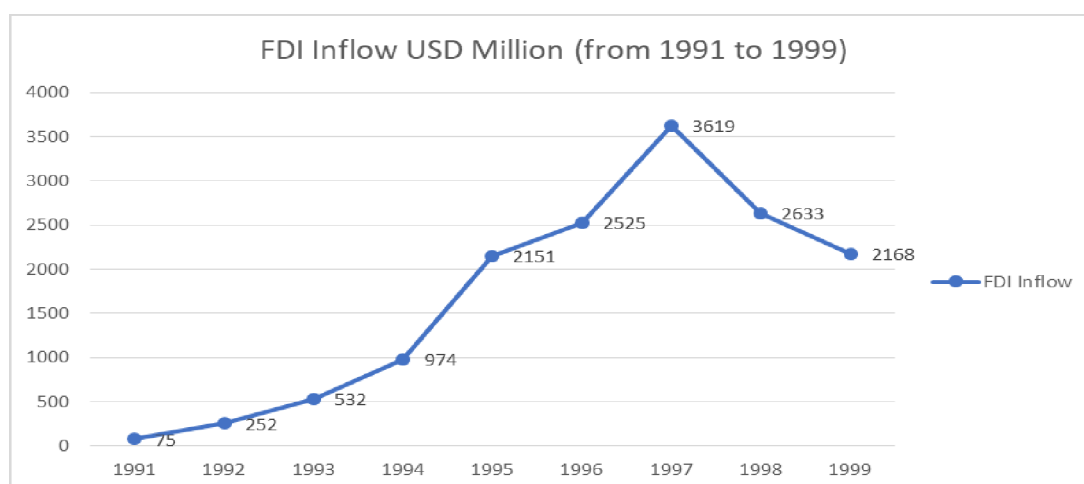
Phase – 1 (from 1991 to 1999)			phase – 2 (from 2000 to 2008)			Phase – 3 (from 2009 to 2022)		
Year	FDI Inflow	Growth (percent)	Year	FDI Inflow	Growth (percent)	Year	FDI Inflow	Growth (percent)
1991	75	-	2000	3587.99	66%	2009	35633.94	-24%
1992	252	236%	2001	5477.64	53%	2010	27417.08	-23%
1993	532	111%	2002	5629.67	3%	2011	36190.46	32%
1994	974	83%	2003	4321.08	-23%	2012	24195.77	-33%
1995	2151	121%	2004	5777.80	34%	2013	28199.42	17%
1996	2525	17%	2005	7621.77	32%	2014	34582.1	23%
1997	3619	43%	2006	20327.76	166%	2015	44064.1	28%
1998	2633	-27%	2007	25349.89	25%	2016	44480.57	1%
1999	2168	-18%	2008	47102.42	86%	2017	39903.84	-10%
						2018	42156.19	6%
						2019	50558.33	20%
						2020	64072.24	27%
						2021	44762.68	-30%
						2022	49354.61	10%
CAGR* = 52.274			CAGR = 37.967			CAGR = 2.537		

Source - UNCTAD “WIR” YEAR 2022

CAGR = Compound Annual Growth Rate

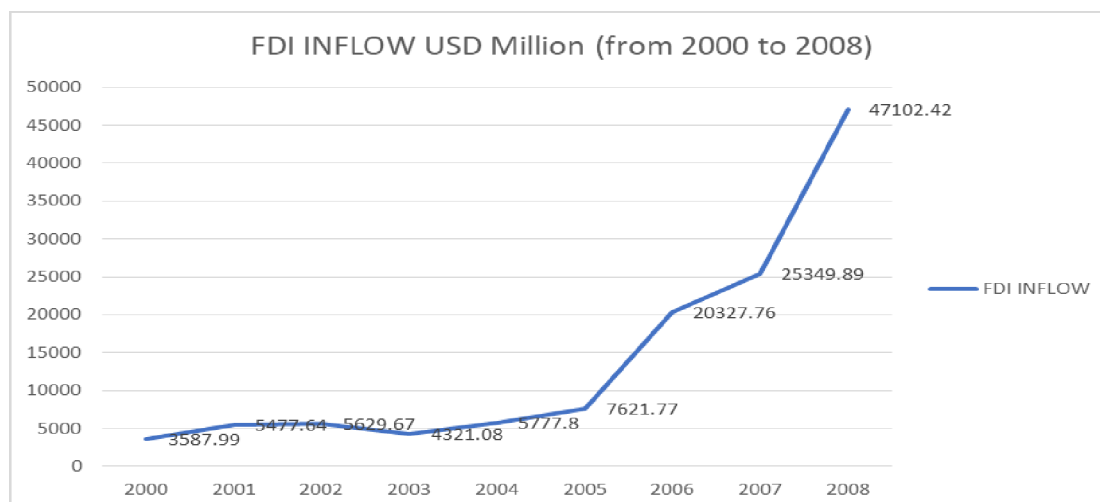
Phase – 1, Data on foreign direct investment (FDI) inflow demonstrates that FDI inflow to India continuously increased between 1991 and 1997, the early liberalization phase. In 1991, foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows totalled USD 75 million. By 1997, FDI inflows had peaked at USD 3619 million. The increase in foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows could be attributed to the entry of numerous industries or sectors that were made available for foreign equity participation. The cyclic trend in FDI inflow during 1998-99 was influenced by factors such as the nuclear test at Pokhran, the slowdown in the Indian economy due to global recession, South-East Asia’s financial crisis, political instability, and poor domestic industrial environment. Subsequently, these inflows touched a low of USD 2168 million in 1999. CAGR for 1991 to 1999 has been observed 52.274. The graphical representations of phase – 1 FDI inflow data have been also depicted in figure-1.

Figure 1: Trends of FDI Inflow in India (1991 to 1999)



Period of Phase – 2 shows, since 2000, FDI has been increasing, with the exception of 2003, which indicates a modest fall in FDI inflows. The reason for the decline in India’s FDI inflow in 2003 was the global economic slowdown (Western Recession) coupled with policy uncertainties in India (Policy Paralysis), currency volatility, inflation, and poor farm input. The government started significant FDI policy reforms, and the scale of the market encouraged foreign investors—including those from the USA, Singapore, Mauritius, and other countries—to invest in India through FIPB and Automatic methods in order to profit greatly. Starting in 2006, with the economic growth in most nations, including India, capital flows grew everywhere, which contributed to an increase in FDI inflows. India witnessed the largest FDI inflow in 2008. This could be attributed to the country’s robust industrial foundation, critical mass of highly educated workforce, and reasonably well-developed banking sector. CAGR for 2000 to 2008 has been observed 37.967. The graphical representations of phase – 2 FDI inflow data have been also depicted in figure-2.

Figure -2:Trends of FDI Inflow in India (2000 to 2008)

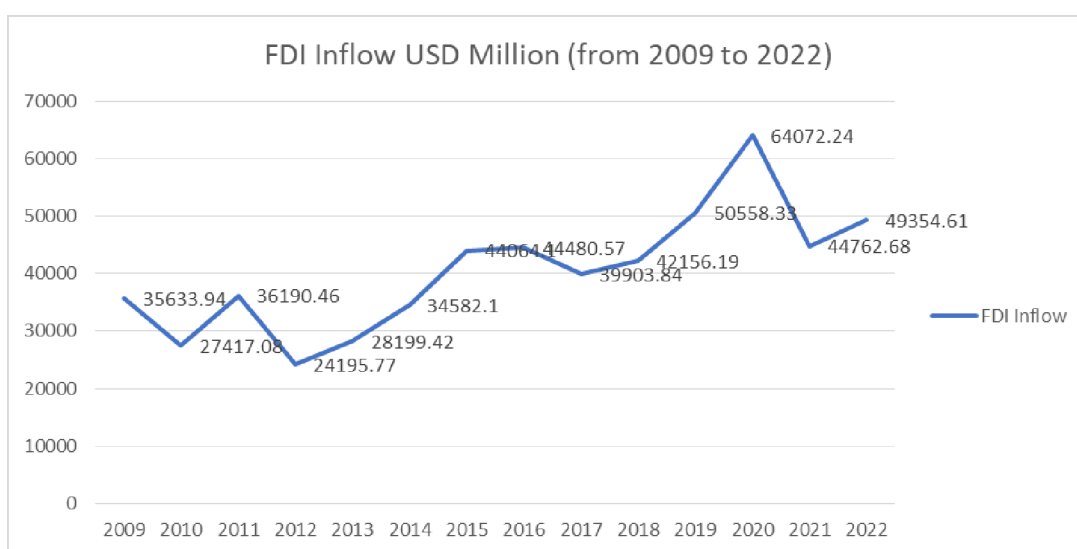


During Phase -3, FDI inflow shows increasing trend, except few years. In the third quarter of the 2008 fiscal year, the global stock market was severely impacted by the US financial crisis. A volatile situation resulted from this unforeseen crisis. Even though India was the least affected, the country's small impact on FDI inflow nevertheless highlighted a tendency for FDI inflow to decline in the years 2009 and 2010. In 2011, India was hopeful that the financial crisis would pass and that it would be able to draw significant inflows once more. However, in 2012, the framework for FDI inflows declined once more, because of major fall in India's own currency. Following a prolonged period of contraction in the global economy from 2008–09 to 2012–13, India saw a recovery in foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows during 2014. This was made possible by new government policies, initiatives such as Make in India, Start Up India, and Skill India, as well as the creation of smart cities and an investor-friendly business environment that made doing business in the nation easier. The government's additional 2017 modifications to the FDI policy were successful in getting rid of multiple tiers of red tape and in offering suggestions for how FDI should be approved more quickly, logically, and favourably. In 2017, India experienced a slight decrease of 10% in FDI inflows compared to the previous year. While the initial introduction of measures aimed at enhancing the ease of conducting business may have laid the foundation for future growth, their complete impact might not have been fully realized at that time.

2018 and 2019 saw a notable increase in FDI inflows. More foreign investment was drawn in as a result of advancements in business-friendly regulations, the easing of restrictions on foreign direct investment (FDI) in particular industries, the introduction of the Goods and Services Tax (GST), which increased transparency and ease of doing business, and rising investor confidence as a result of the government's constant reform efforts. FDI inflows

significantly increased as a result of advancement in policy and a generally favourable economic climate. Despite the initial economic repercussions of the COVID-19 pandemic, 2020 witnessed a remarkable 27% increase in FDI inflows, reaching an unprecedented high of USD 64072.24 million. While certain sectors such as hospitality and tourism experienced downturns, robust inflows persisted in specific industries like pharmaceuticals and information technology. Furthermore, government stimulus measures, continued reform initiatives, and a global shift in investment towards emerging markets like India all contributed to the unprecedented inflow levels. After the unprecedented year of 2020, FDI inflows registered a 30% decrease in 2021, amounting to USD 44762.68 million. This decline can be ascribed to various factors. The notable base effect established by the exceptional inflows of the preceding year was influential. Moreover, the onset of the second wave of the pandemic adversely affected specific sectors and overall investor confidence. Nonetheless, despite this downturn, certain positive growth catalysts emerged during the year, including the post-pandemic economic recovery, sustained investor interest in digital and technology sectors, and the prevailing low-interest-rate environment worldwide. In 2022, FDI inflows demonstrated signs of improvement, with a 10% rise to USD 49354.61 million compared to 2021. While this suggests a favorable trend, it's noteworthy that the growth did not suffice to surpass the pre-pandemic peak of 2020. This partial rebound can be credited to the gradual relaxation of pandemic restrictions and a degree of adjustment to the altered economic landscape. Nonetheless, persistent global economic uncertainties and escalating geopolitical tensions posed challenges, limiting a more substantial increase in FDI inflows. CAGR for 2009 to 2022 has been observed 2.537. The graphical representations of phase – 3 FDI inflow data have been also depicted in figure-3.

Figure -3: Trends of FDI Inflow in India (2009 to 2022)



IV. Conclusion

The findings of the study indicate that, with a few exceptions, the trend of FDI inflow has been consistently increasing throughout the entire study period from the year 1991 to 2022. However, two sudden crises between 1998 and 2008 severely impacted the trend of FDI inflow in India. India has experienced a significant rise in foreign direct investment (FDI) during the last two decades and due to a number of variables that have encouraged FDI, it has recently become a desirable location for FDI. To maintain India's status as a desirable and investor-friendly country, the government regularly examines and modifies the FDI policy. The majority of sectors are now eligible for FDI through the automatic route as a result to the government's liberal and open FDI policy.

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An Analysis of Intra-Industry Trade Within Pharma Sector in India Since 2014

Sumaiya Jawed

ABSTRACT

When a country exports and imports goods from the same industry, this refers to Intra-industry trade (IIT). IIT is a relatively modern phenomenon that appeared in the post-World War II era, before which international trade was essentially about the exchange of discrete goods between countries. Over the past few decades, Intra-Industry trade (IIT) has gained significant attention in economic research. The most commonly used IIT scale is the index presented by Grubel and Lloyd. India's healthcare system and economy are highly dependent on the pharmaceutical industry. It is one of the most important contributors to the country's GDP and provides job opportunities to a large part of the population. India is considered the "pharmacy of the world" due to its importance in the production and export of generic drugs. The paper provides an in-depth study of the dynamics of IIT and trade patterns in the pharmaceutical industry and how government measures will affect this sector's growth between 2014 and 2022. A quantitative approach is used to collect and analyse data efficiently. A detailed literature review provides a theoretical framework. Secondary data is obtained from reliable sources such as government reports and trade databases. To analyse the growth and patterns of the pharmaceutical sector and foreign investment attracted towards it, data is extracted from annual reports and WITS, the IIT index calculated using only the Grubel Lloyd index. Furthermore, the paper discusses the impact of Make in India, Atma Nirbhar Bharat, and PLI schemes on the advancement and development of intra-industry trade in the pharmaceutical industry.

Keywords: Intra-industry trade, pharmaceutical sector, Grubel Lloyd index, Make in India, Product-linked incentives, Atma Nirbhar Bharat.

JEL CODES: F14, L65, L79, O14, O24

1. INTRODUCTION

Intra Industry trade has taken a new place in post-World War II (1948). Economists like Verdoorn (1960), Balassa (1966), and Grubel-Llyod (1975) observed that most of the trade

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in the Benelux group and EEC (European economic community) is that of intra-industry nature than inter-industry as envisaged by Heckscher Ohlin's theorem. Countries engage in intra-industry trade to promote product development, innovation, skill development, and Economies of scale. Not only developed countries but also developing countries benefited a lot from such trade. Trading with the same product groups is due to different customer preferences between trading partners. These products are not identical but differ in design, style, and functional characteristics. Therefore, goods are differentiated according to their quality (vertical IIT) or appearance (horizontal IIT) (Yusefzadeh et al., 2015). The concept of IIT appeared in the 1960s when economists such as Paul Krugman and Ronald Jones began to study it. They found that developed countries are increasingly trading similar goods. Krugman's New Trade Theory (1980) emphasized economies of scale and product differentiation as the main drivers of IIT. Since then, IIT has become a common feature of global business, influencing trade policy, industrial organization and economic integration strategies worldwide. Conventionally, trade theories such as Ricardo's theory of comparative advantage (1817) and Heckscher Ohlin's (1859) explained commerce based on country differences in resources and technology. Economists frequently argue that the models are inadequate in explaining intra-industry trade because they postulate that countries with similar factors do not engage in domestic commerce or produce goods. A possible explanation is offered by Falvey and Kierzkowski (1987), They produced a model that tried to eliminate the idea that all products are made under the same technical conditions. Their model showed that on the demand side, goods are characterized by perceived quality and high-quality goods are produced in conditions of high capital intensity. However, Donald Davis (1995) believed that both the Heckscher-Ohlin and Ricardo models were still relevant in explaining intra-industry trade. He developed the Heckscher-Ohlin-Ricardo model, which showed that even with constant returns to scale, intra-industry trade could occur in a traditional environment. To understand the intensity of IIT among various countries, economists calculated various IIT indices such as the Balassa Index (1965), Grubel-Lloyd Index (1975), Aquino Index (1978), Bergstrand Index (1985), Glesjer. Index and Vollrath index (1991).

Understanding the dynamics of intra-industry trade in the pharmaceutical industry can inform decision-makers about the potential benefits of trade liberalization, regulatory harmonization and R&D investment. It can also help identify areas where targeted action to remove trade barriers or market distortions may be needed. In conclusion, intra-industry trade plays a crucial role in the Indian pharmaceutical industry by promoting efficiency, innovation, diversification and economic growth. India's pharmaceutical industry can be competitive and sustainable by recognizing the potential of intra-industry trade.

2. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The pharmaceutical industry is one of the largest companies in the world. The Indian pharmaceutical industry has experienced significant growth in both the production and export of drugs, driven by the large expenses incurred by pharmaceutical companies to produce new

drugs that contribute significantly to their wealth (Hooda, 2023). India's modern pharmaceutical industry started back on April 12, 1901, when Acharya Prafulla Chandra Roy founded Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works, the first Indian-owned pharmaceutical company in Calcutta. Alembic Chemical Works in Baroda was entertained in 1907 by T.K. Gajjar and Rajmitra B.DT. New inventions were granted product patents under the Patent and Design Act of 1911 for 16 years (Greene, n.d.). In 1947, during independence, foreign firms dominated domestic firms. Domestic companies were only engaged in the repackaging of drugs produced by foreign companies. The Indian government was worried about the situation. The patent law can be considered a turning point in the history of the pharmaceutical industry (Varma & Ramakrishnan, 2014). According to the patent law of 1970, no process could be patented and the interest of companies in inventions increased. It had a seven-year patent period in the pharmaceutical industry (Loitongbam, n.d.). The World Trade Organization (WTO) entered into force in 1995. In the pharmaceutical industry and agriculture, the TRIPS agreement was adopted by WTO developing countries a decade later. The trade-related aspects of the Agreement on Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) entered into force in 2005 with special amendments reintroducing product patents, extending the patent period from seven years to twenty years, and compulsory licensing of products. (Yusefzadeh et al., 2015).

The situation of Indian Pharma MNCs was examined from 2002 to 2007, with a focus on organizational and geographic dynamics (Horner, 2013) Additionally, His analysis examines inter- and intra-company activities. He further discusses the competitiveness of Indian Big pharmaceutical companies (Ranbaxy, Dr. Reddy, Cipla, etc.) as an indicator of their international recognition. Consequently, he concludes that the majority of sales come from overseas, while India is still focused on its capital. (Joseph, 2012) highlighted the trends and patterns of the pharmaceutical industry in India. This study reported that India became the largest exporter of pharmaceutical preparations than the United States, African and Latin American markets, and other developing countries. The authors used secondary data to examine trends in import-export and bulk drug production. Dependence on China for raw materials is a problem for India's domestic market because the trade balance for raw drugs is negative. (Mahajan, 2018) revealed the impact of process patents and product patents on economic growth, business competitiveness, research and development, investment and relative advantages and disadvantages. (Bose, 2017) studied the trend of generic drugs from India to European countries before and after the 2008 crisis. For comparison, ten countries were taken, which were divided into two groups. The crisis affected five countries more than other less affected countries. Ten years of data from 2005 to 2014 were used to apply the variables. The author used a correlation function between GDP growth rate and per capita expenditure on medicines imported from India. Affected countries showed a negative correlation between GDP and per capita expenditure on pharmaceuticals imported from India. A study (Kumar & James, n.d.) showed that India's pharmaceutical industry has grown significantly in performance. It also recognized the importance of the Indian pharmaceutical industry in supplying affordable generic medicines to both developed and developing countries. This reinforced the view that India's drug exports were

affected by a strong patent system. This study further complemented the Manufacturing Linked Incentive scheme launched by the Government of India. This system aims to make domestic enterprises self-sustainable claiming that economic reforms and patent regimes affect pharmaceutical business in India. (Mahajan, 2019) also came to a similar conclusion and revealed emerging trends in the Indian pharmaceutical business IPR system.

Few people understood what makes IITs in general and India in particular unique. Scientists discovered the influencing factors in a very theoretical way. There is a small study that used econometric tools to achieve this goal. The value of Indian IITs in the pharma sector is determined in this study along with possible trends over time. Along with examining the models and dynamics of IITs, the study also investigates the direction of India's economic growth through its model.

3. OBJECTIVES

- To analyse the trade pattern of the Indian pharmaceutical sector
- To calculate Intra-Industry trade (IIT) for India within pharma sector since 2014
- To investigate into the impact of government initiatives to promote pharma sector of India.

4. METHODOLOGY AND DATA

The study is based on the secondary data collected and compiled from WITS, ITC TRADEMAP, Annual Reports and UNCOMTRADE. The trends and growth of India's pharmaceutical industry during the period of 2014-2022 were analysed, classification for pharmaceutical products (formulation, Active pharmaceutical ingredients [APIs], bulk drugs, and other pharmaceuticals product) were assembled from SITC Chapter 29 and 30 with HS-6-digit numerical codes (see Annexure). Method of data collection indicates that the drug is considered part of chemicals. The Grubel Lloyd Index was calculated to find the intensity of IIT in the pharmaceutical sector, foreign direct investment in pharma sector data were taken from Annual Reports.

5. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In 2013, India's pharmaceutical industry (IPI) was the third largest by volume and 10th by value globally. It had a turnover of \$33 billion. The CAGR for 2013-14 (Akhtar, 2013) was around 13% higher than the previous year, with a total of 9 billion. In 2022, IPI was among the world's 12 exporting companies and ranked third in terms of volume and 14th in terms of production value in the world market (India Fertilizer Chemicals Government of India, 2022). This sector grew by \$19.2 billion and \$6.3 billion in 2018-19. However, in 2020, India's pharmaceutical industry was the largest exporter of generic drugs, supplying more than 50 percent of global demand for several vaccines. It also provides 40 percent of the demand for generic drugs in the US market and 25 percent of all drugs in the UK. India exported drugs

worth USD 22 billion in 2022. The formulation is the main export category which account for more than 3/4 in 2020. The share of API exports is second at 16% in the same year. The remaining 5% of exports are wholesale drugs and other medical products. (Figure 1)

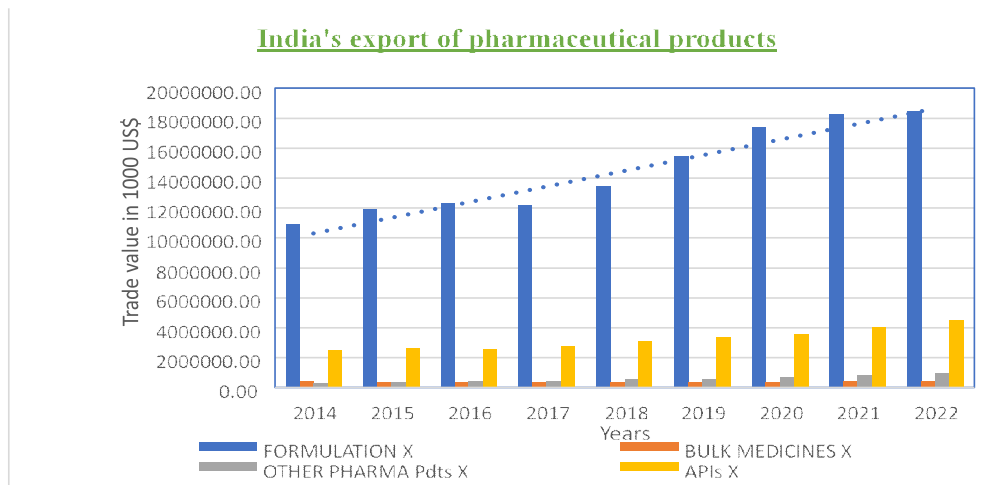


Figure 1, source: compiled from World Integrated Trade Solution (WITS)

Further investigating import, India is the major importer of APIs during the year followed by formulation, other pharma products, and bulk medicines (Figure 2). Nearly half of India's import of formulation is in the category of AYUSH medicines (Joseph & Kumar, 2022). India has a surplus in trade in formulation, APIs, and bulk medicines consistently whereas in other pharma products, there is a trade deficit.

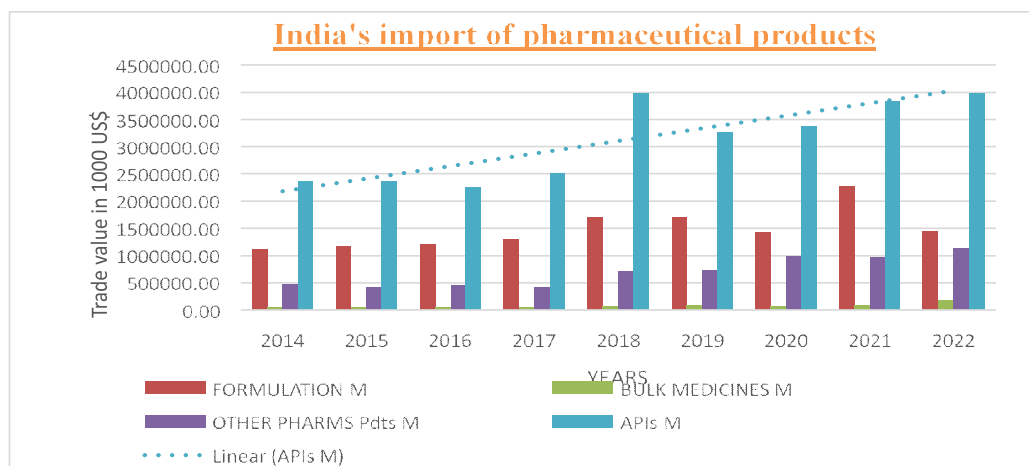


Figure 2, Source: Same as Figure 1

5.1. Measures of IIT: Grubel and Lloyd (GL) Index

Named after economists Herbert Grubel and Peter Lloyd, the Grubel-Lloyd index is a measure used to show how much intra-industry trade (IIT) takes place between countries or regions. It was first introduced in 1975. It estimates how comparable imports and exports are in a given industry. The index is intended to reflect the volume of business within the same industry, i.e. the exchange of comparable products or products. (Varma & Ramakrishnan, 2014). The formula is as follows:

$$G_{l_i} = 1 - \frac{|x_i - m_i|}{x_i + m_i}, 0 \leq GL \leq 1$$

Where X_i denotes the export, M_i is the import of goods. The value of the GL index ranges between 0 and 1. Where 0 indicates inter-industry trade and 1 intra-industry trade.

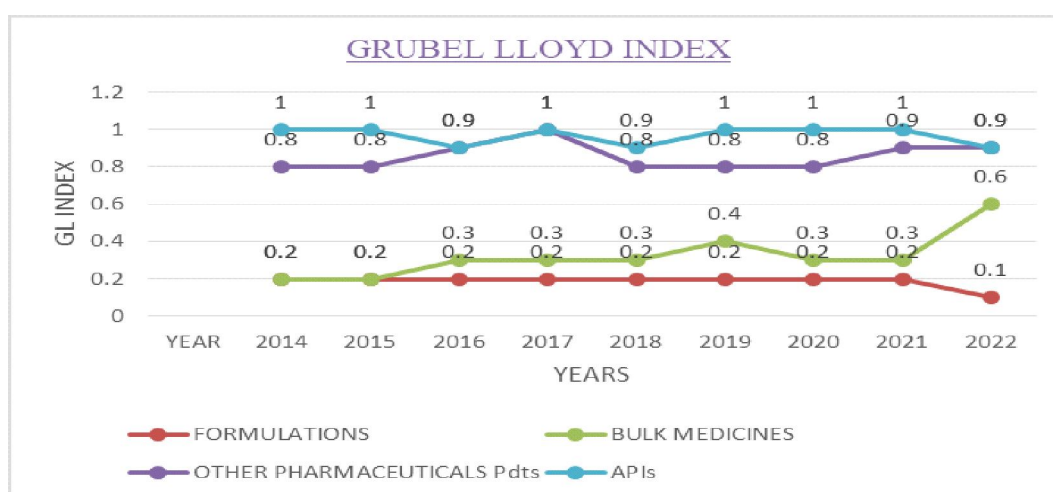


Figure 3, Source: same as Figure 1

From Figure 3, we can conclude that between 2014 and 2022, trade-in formulations and bulk drugs are inter-industry trade because the estimated value is less than 0.3. In 2022, the value of bulk drugs is 0.6, which indicates the orientation of business to the intra-industry region. other drugs and APIs show a perfect IIT of 1 or close to 1.

5.2.FDI in the Pharma sector

Direct investment in the pharmaceutical industry increased unexpectedly in 2020-21 compared to the previous year and was 200 percent (Table 1). In 2021-22 (April-September), FDI continued to stand at Rs 4,413 billion, an increase of 53 percent over the same period in 2020-21 (*Annual Report / Department of Pharmaceuticals*, n.d.). The total FDI inflow in the drugs and pharmaceuticals sector from April 2000 to September 2022 was ¹ 1,32,568 crore.

In the financial year 2022-23 (till December 2022), the drug commission approved 13 FDI proposals, which resulted in an inflow of ¹ 2,814 crore in foreign investment in the backlog projects in the pharmaceutical sector. Various measures under 'Make in India' initiatives to facilitate investment, promote innovation, and thus promote a strong business environment in the country, during 2015-16, FDI capital inflows in drugs and pharmaceuticals stood at Rs. 4975 million euros. In 2016-17, it increased to Rs 5,723 crore and more. 6,502 million in 2017-18. In June 2016, the government changed the FDI policy in the pharmaceutical industry to allow 100% foreign investment in pharmaceuticals in Greenfield projects and up to 74% direct investment in brownfield pharmaceutical projects through the automatic route and then subject to government approval. (*Annual Report / Department of Pharmaceuticals, n.d.*)

Financial Year	Total FDI Inflow (Rs. Crores)	Growth
2014-15	9,052	
2015-16	4,975	-45.04%
2016-17	5,723	15.04%
2017-18	6,502	13.61%
2018-19	1,842	-71.67%
2019-20	3,650	98.15%
2020-21	11,015	201.78%
2021-22	10,552	-4.20%
2022-23(up to sept 22)	5,453	-48.32%

Table 1: FDI attracted towards the pharma sector. Source (English Annual Report 2021-22

(1).Pdf, n.d.)

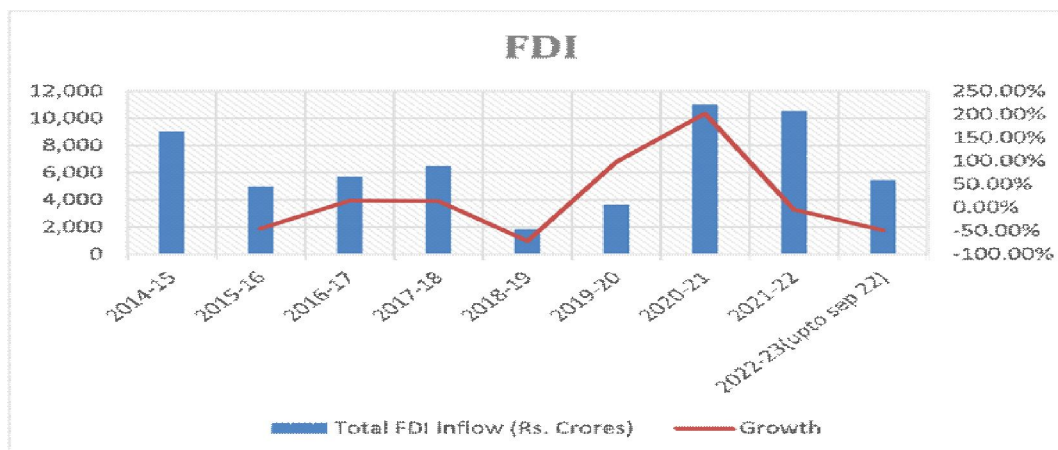


Figure 4, source: same as Table 1

5.3. MAKE IN INDIA

Make in India (MII) launched in September 2014 is one of the Indian government's biggest efforts to transform the country into a global manufacturing hub. Its main objective was to create an enabling environment to attract foreign investment, digitize India, develop a strong and efficient manufacturing ecosystem, create new jobs, and strengthen the secondary and tertiary sectors.

Pharmaceutical Industry: The world's biggest manufacturer of generic medications is India. Over 50% of the world's demand for various vaccinations is met by this sector. It also vaunts an extensive network of around 10,500 industrial facilities and more than 3,000 pharmaceutical businesses. To create a self-sustaining pharmaceutical industry, the government implemented several measures as part of the MII stimulus, including building large drug parks, encouraging the production of raw materials, increasing the local supply of active pharmaceutical ingredients (API) and key precursors (KSM), and promoting the production of raw materials.

(*Annual Report / Department of Pharmaceuticals*, n.d.) MII's 100% FDI incentive and the abolition of most chemical production licenses boosted R&D in the chemical industry and modernization and digitization of the processes taking place in it.

5.4. PLI

Production Linked Incentive Plans: Aiming to strengthen the country's manufacturing sector during the COVID-19 pandemic, the government has implemented 1.97 lakh Cr in PLI, concentrating on 14 essential industries. Making local businesses competitive on a worldwide basis and producing future industry leaders were the two main objectives of these programs. Until 2027–2028, the ¹ 15,000 crore initiative was in place. Its objective was to strengthen

India's manufacturing capacities by increasing investment and production in the sector and diversifying its product line to include more sought-after high-end goods. The system discount on extra covered pharmaceutical sales in the base year 2019–2020 is 3–10%. The program has so far received support from 55 companies. Due to the PLI scheme, the inflow of FDI into the sector has increased to 46% in 2021-2022 and 2022-2023 and the import of pharmaceutical raw materials has decreased significantly.

5.5. ATMANIRBHAR BHARAT

Atma Nirbhar Bharat is an expression that means “Independent India”. It is an initiative of the Government of India launched by Prime Minister Narendra Modi to promote self-reliance and reduce import dependency, especially in strategic sectors. Prime Minister Narendra Modi announced the initiative in May 2020 during the COVID-19 pandemic. Atmanirbhar Bharat aims to enhance India's ability to manufacture medicines and decrease its dependence on imports, particularly for essential medical supplies. The pharmaceutical sector is crucial for India as it plays a crucial role in the production and supply of generic medicines globally. Pharmaceutical companies are encouraged to increase production capacity and invest in the country's research and product development. Atmanirbhar Bharat aims to reduce dependency by promoting domestic production of API and key intermediates and ensuring continuous availability of essential medicines, especially in times of crisis. The Pharmaceutical Sector Strengthening Initiative aims to ensure that healthcare remains accessible to all sections of society. Although it aims to provide self-sufficient medicines, the initiative seeks to enhance India's position in the global pharmaceutical market by manufacturing high-quality generic drugs at affordable prices. Indian pharmaceutical companies can continue to expand their export markets and contribute to the economic growth of the country. Overall, the Atmanirbhar Bharat initiative is expected to have a significant impact on the Indian pharmaceutical industry, promoting growth, innovation, and independence in healthcare production and delivery.

6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the Indian pharmaceutical industry has undergone significant changes both before and during the introduction of initiatives such as Made in India, Atmanirbhar Bharat, and the PLI scheme. Before these measures, India was a major player in the global pharmaceutical business, known for its strong manufacturing capacity and affordable generic drugs. However, the company faced difficulties such as high dependence on imports of essential raw materials and active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) and lack of R&D and innovation initiatives. To address these issues, the Made in India strategy Atmanirbhar Bharat and the PLI program encouraged innovation, supported domestic production, and reduced dependence on imports. As a result, the industry increased local API production, reduced dependence on imports, and invested more in research and development.

In addition, the PLI plan increased the competitiveness of the pharmaceutical industry worldwide by encouraging pharmaceutical companies to invest in research and development,

manufacturing capacity, and innovation. Overall, India's pharmaceutical industry has become a more independent, resourceful, and globally competitive sector through Pre-Manufacturing India, Atmanirbhar Bharat, and PLI programs. However, infrastructure investment, a focus on quality and compliance, and continued support from legislators are essential to maintain this development path in the future. Focusing domestic trade on the pharmaceutical industry can encourage pharmaceutical exports. The global pharmaceutical market is predicted to reach \$1.5 trillion by 2023. India has an important place in the world of medicine. India accounts for more than 20 percent of global exports, making it the world's largest producer of generic drugs. It supplies more than 40% of the general products needed by Americans and 50% of the global demand for vaccines. The local pharmaceutical market contributes 10% of volume and 2% of value to the global sector. According to Chief Secretary Sudarshan Jain, India's pharmaceutical industry will grow to \$130 billion by 2030 and become the world's leading supplier of drugs. However, the study has some limitations. It only analyses the trade structure and FDI of the industry from 2014 to date. Future research could examine the impact of policy changes on intra-industry trade in the Indian pharmaceutical sector and identify potential business partners in emerging markets. Overall, this study contributes to the continued development of knowledge in the area of intra-industry trade in the Indian pharmaceutical sector.

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Recent External Shocks and Transmission Mechanism of India

Dr. Akash Kumar Baikar and Joshua Kodjo Asiedu

Abstract

This paper uses recent macroeconomic data for India to understand the transmission mechanism of external shocks. The exchange rate volatility after January 2022 is one of the biggest external shocks. The contractionary monetary policy by US Fed adds complications to the economic dynamics of India. This paper uses a simple structural VAR model and variance decomposition to demonstrate the process of the shock transmission mechanism. FEVD analysis suggests that US policy shock explains a significant proportion of India's output, interest rate, and export fluctuations. Even after 6 months, 9 months, and 12 months horizon the US policy shock affects India's economic fundamentals. Similarly, the exchange rate shock can affect India's output, interest rate, and exchange rate significantly and persistently.

Key words: *Exchange rate, shocks, transmission mechanism*

1. Introduction

Since the beginning of the twenty-first century, the world has witnessed many global economic challenges. Advancement of technology, computer, and communication has made the world smaller but also made it vulnerable to easy transmission of shocks. The subprime crisis of 2008 left a deep mark on the financial structure of the world economy. The slowdown of 2014-15 left a scare in the fiscal structure. And then the covid-19 which is still hunting the economies since 2020. After the financial crisis of 2008, many economies have started making good progress in building stable and strong financial systems. More specifically the BRICS countries. Brazil, India, and China continued to grow because of robust financial, fiscal and international trade policies.

The global economy has slowed down in an alarming way. The mounting recessionary anxieties in the US and Europe are evidence of this. The Great Attrition, in which workers

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are quitting their occupations to seek other endeavours in their life, can be partly blamed for this. There would be internal and external effects from the slowdown in the West. Internally, the most crucial factor to take into account is the adverse impact this slowdown will have on output due to lower labour force participation and decreased spending. The developing world, especially export-oriented nations like the BRICS, would be impacted by a shock to output in the industrialised world. Thus, there may be a slowdown in the growth of these countries resulting from a shock to output.

The 2022 exchange rate shock is another recent shock to take into account. For the majority of developed and emerging country currencies, there has been exchange rate volatility. Only a select handful have had consistent swings, and some currencies have appreciated versus the dollar while the majority have declined. Foreign direct investment may be reduced as a result of reduced foreign direct investment due to foreign investors protecting themselves from risk due to exchange rate market volatility. The US Federal Reserve's tightening of monetary policy in an effort to stop the nation's rising inflation is the root of the exchange rate volatility. Initial interest rate increases by the Federal Reserve did not successfully combat the inflationary issue. As a result, interest rates have gradually increased to combat inflation in the United States. Due to this tightening of monetary policy, the dollar became strong in comparison to other currencies. In order to combat inflation and safeguard against exchange rate volatility, other countries adopted a similar strategy and tightened their monetary policies.

With this in mind, this paper addresses the transmission mechanism of recent shocks concerning India. This is important to provide an analysis of how recent shocks may affect India and other developing countries.

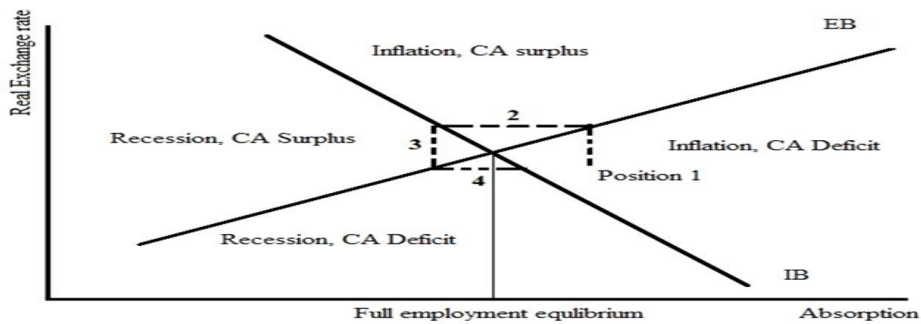
2. Theoretical framework and literature review

Post-COVID-19 the biggest economic challenge for India is the exchange rate depreciation. Many international events have led to a rapid depreciation in India's exchange rate. Hence it is currently the biggest economic puzzle for theoretical as well as empirical analysis. Understanding how an exchange rate depreciation affects an economy is also very challenging. The textbook macroeconomics says that exchange rate depreciation helps an economy to balance its current account deficit. It promotes exports as domestic goods are cheaper than foreign goods. And it discourages imports as foreign goods are now dearer. That means it is good for the economy. But many empirical analyses suggested that a highly volatile exchange rate condition may hamper export. Similarly, when the import is less than the government has to redirect its resources to produce import substitute goods and this may hamper the internal balance.

Swan (1960) has proposed the external balance schedule (EB) and internal balance schedule (IB) to depict the effect of a real exchange rate depreciation on the economy. This paper modified the original diagram to depict the effects of a real exchange rate depreciation. From Figure 1 we can see that if a country is at position 1. It is the quadrant of inflation and current account deficit. It matches the economic condition of India. An exchange rate

depreciation will help that country to improve its external balance. As it moves from position 1 to 2 then 3 and then 4 and so on. Although it faces some internal disbalance in the process eventually it will reach the full employment equilibrium.

Figure 1: Effect of real exchange rate depreciation using Swan Diagram (Convergence)

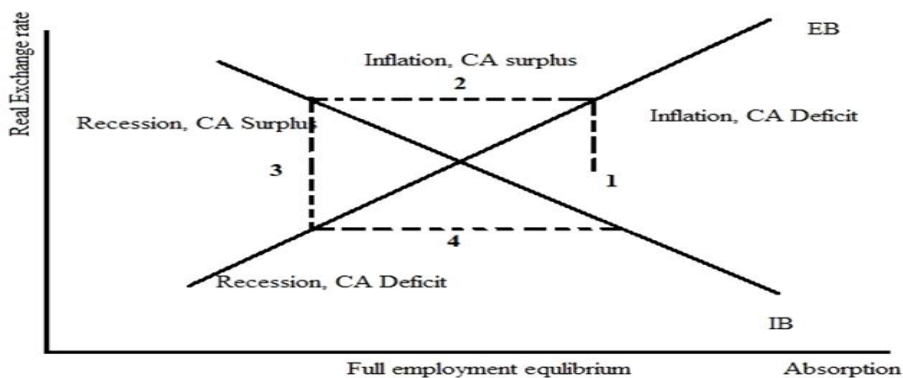


Source: Swan Diagram, Swan (1960)

Now consider the other possibility; i.e., when the economy has a flatter internal balance schedule. From Figure 2 we can see that, for a country at position 1, an exchange rate depreciation may lead to a higher internal disbalance. It will move to positions 2, 3, 4, and so on. But instead of reaching the full employment equilibrium, it will diverge further away.

This paper uses a simple structural VAR model to understand how the exchange rate affects the output and export of India. This paper uses a forecast error variance decomposition to understand the sustainability of the impact.

Figure 2: Effect of real exchange rate depreciation using Swan Diagram (Divergence)



Source: Swan Diagram, Swan (1960)

3. Data and methodology

This paper uses monthly data from April 2019 to July 2022. Monthly export value and exchange rate data are taken from RBI. We have taken the log of export and its first difference will indicate the month-on-month growth rate of export. The Index of industrial production (IIP) data is used as the proxy for monthly output. And the Call money market data is taken as the proxy for short-term interest rates. Both of them are taken from the RBI database. The IIP and Ameribor data for the US has been taken as a proxy for US output and interest rate respectively. Both of them are taken from the Federal Reserve of St. Louis. Thus, we have a six-variables model.

A vector auto-regression (VAR) model can be used to identify the dynamic relationship among a set of variables. To solve the identification problem Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999) proposed “zero contemporaneous restrictions” in a standard VAR model.

This paper uses a simple structural restriction that some of the variables may not affect another variable at the current period. They only affect them with a lag. The equation 1 depicts a simple SVAR model.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{Ameribor} \\ \text{IIP US} \\ \text{Exchange Rate} \\ \text{Call Money rate} \\ \text{IIP India} \\ \text{Export India} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{51} & a_{52} & a_{53} & a_{54} & 1 & 0 \\ a_{61} & a_{62} & a_{63} & a_{64} & a_{65} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Equation 1 depicts that Ameribor or the US interest rate is not affected by the current period IIP of the US, it is not affected by the current period exchange rate, it is not affected by call money market rate of India, it is not affected by IIP India or the export of India. Other restrictions can be interpreted in a similar fashion.

Robustness and Monte Carlo simulation of SVAR

Table 4 depict the results of a simple VAR model. To add robustness to the analysis this paper uses the Mote Carlo simulation to increase the number of observations to 10,000. The econometric analysis is done in Win Rats version 8.

4. Unit root test and Cointegration test

Both parametric and non-parametric unit root tests are used to find the stationarity properties of the variables in the model. Both the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test and Phillips Perron tests confirm that the variables are non-stationary in nature. That means the vector autoregressive (VAR) model cannot be used on the level of the variables. Further tests suggest that variables are I (1) process.

Before using the VAR model this paper uses Johansen test to identify whether there is any long-term equilibrium among the variables or not.

Table 2: Johansen tests for cointegration

Maximum rank	Trace statistic	5%
0	79.6092*	94.15
1	53.3669	68.52
2	34.9419	47.21
3	18.3668	29.68
4	6.4786	15.41
5	0.3202	3.76
6		

* Selected rank

The existence of no cointegrating relationship among variables in this period is itself an indication of whether the economy moves to an equilibrium position or is diverting away from the equilibrium.

5. VAR results

Table 4: Simple VAR model results (Change in India's IIP as dependent variable)

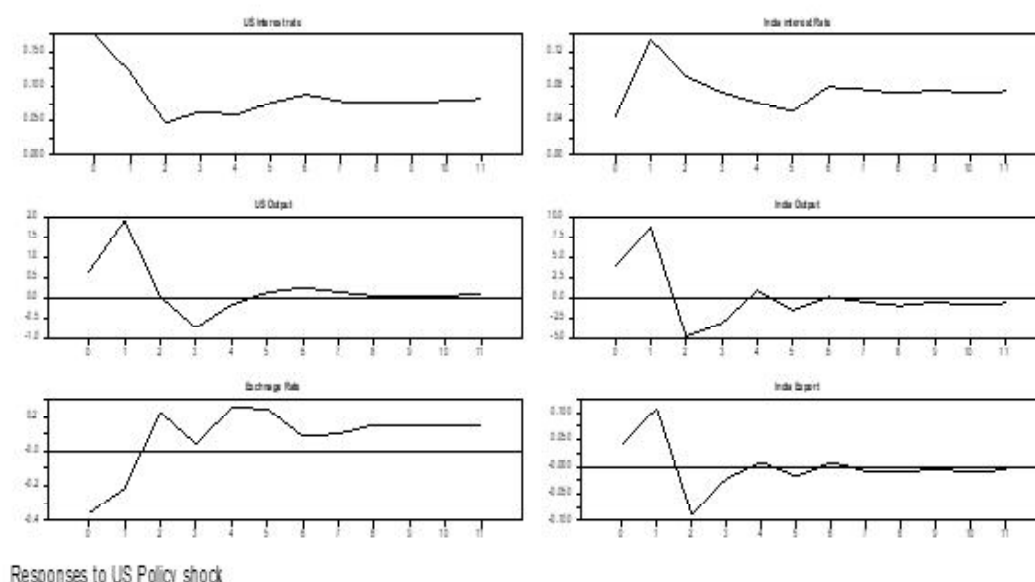
	Change in IIP India		
	Coefficient	Std. err.	P(z)
Δ Ameribor			
L1.	41.9***	8.5	0
L2.	-41.4***	11.21806	0
Δ call			
L1.	-13.8556	9.984551	0.165
L2.	0.185876	12.99095	0.989
Δ IIP India			
L1.	-0.68821***	0.153179	0
L2.	-0.4061**	0.166659	0.015
L3.	-0.48403***	0.15233	0.001
Δ IIP US			
L1.	0.672325	1.095213	0.539
L2.	3.684227***	1.040109	0
L3.	3.374491***	1.092438	0.002
Δ Exchange rate			
L1.	-3.55506***	1.045895	0.001
L2.	-3.0915***	1.203382	0.01
Δ export			
L1.	17.45865	17.11773	0.308

*, **, *** represents 10%, 5% and 1% L.S. respectively

6. Impulse response functions (IRF) analysis

The impulse response function of a positive shock to US interest rates is shown in Figure 3 along with its effects on US output, exchange rates, India’s interest rate, India’s Output, and India’s Exports. An orthogonalized one s.d. shock is given to the US interest rate. US output temporarily changes in reaction to a positive shock to the US interest rate. It can be shown that after a shock to US interest rates, US output dramatically overshoots in the first month.

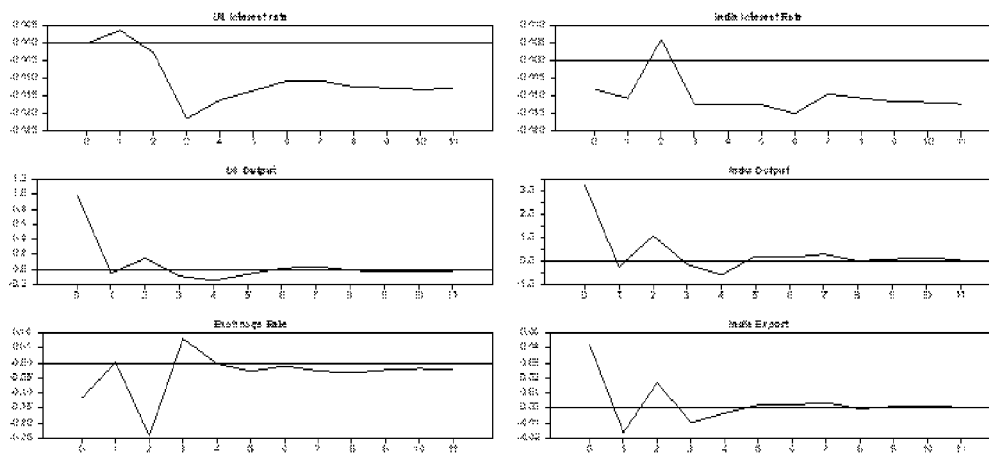
Figure 3: IRF of a positive shock to US interest rate



An increase in the US interest rate has a positive and persistent impact on the exchange rate of India. After a positive shock to the US interest rate, the exchange rate rises after two months. The exchange rate remains deviated from its original position even after eleven months. Following a positive shock to the US interest rate, there is also a permanent shift in the interest rate in India. The interest rate in India increases from the fifth period to the sixth period. Here we can see that the shock to the US interest rate can affect India’s interest rate persistently for a long period of time.

The output and export of India have comparable impulse response functions. A brief change occurred after the US interest rate received a shock. India’s output and export demonstrate an overshooting in the first phase of the impulse response function. The second period then experiences a sudden decline. India’s output and export both increase as a result during the time, but the change is only temporary, as evidenced by the response function.

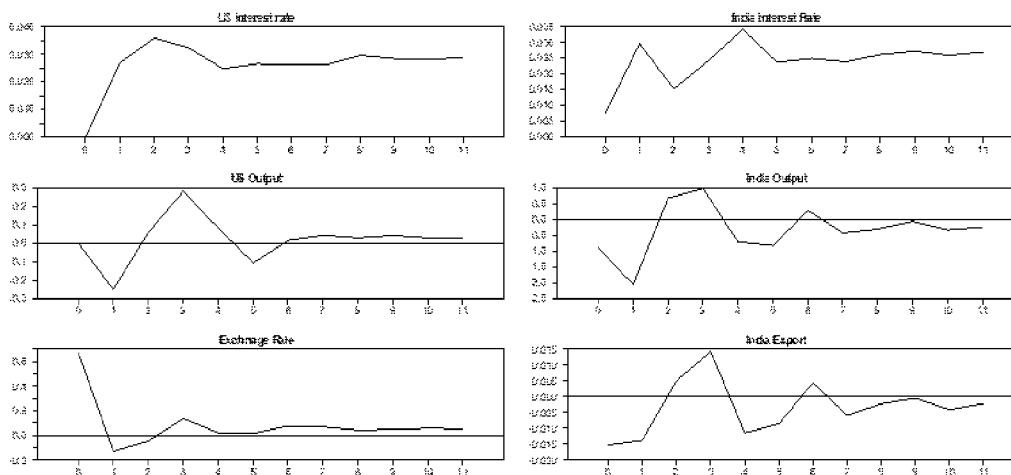
Figure 4: IRF of a positive shock to US output (demand)



Responses to Demand US shock

The impulse response functions for a positive shock to US output (demand) are shown in Figure 4 together with the US interest rate, US output, exchange rate, India’s interest rate, India’s output, and India’s export. For all six variables, the impulse response functions show a temporary change.

Figure 5: IRF of a positive shock to Rupee per Dollar exchange rate



Responses to Exch shock

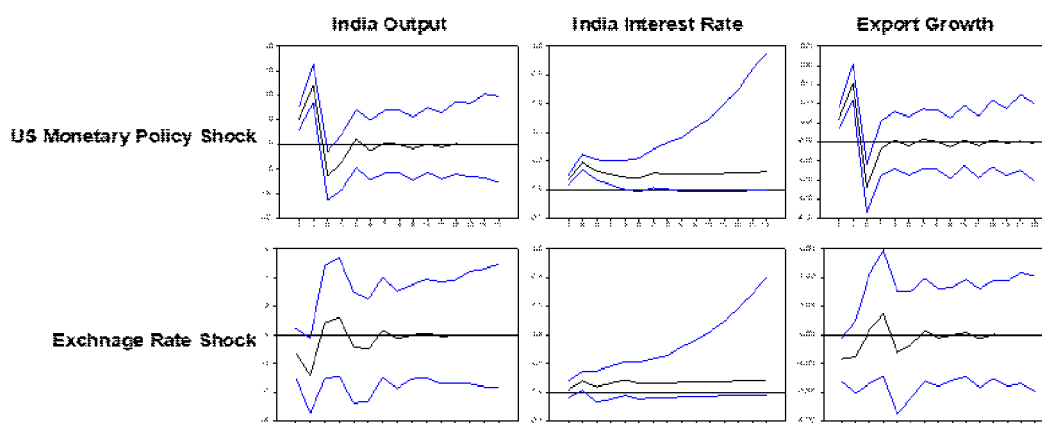
The impulse response functions of the US interest rate, US output, exchange rate, and the interest rate, output, and export of India to a positive shock to the rupee to dollar exchange rate are shown in Figure 5. As can be seen, while the US interest rate and the Indian interest rate have changed permanently as a result of the positive shock to the rupee to the dollar exchange rate, there have been temporary adjustments to the US output, exchange rate, Indian output, and Indian export.

It can be shown that the US Output reacts to transient changes by declining in the first period. After that, the third month is exceeded. The fifth period follows a sharp decline from this point. This is followed by a slight increase in the sixth period, which then stabilises for the remaining periods. In the first phase, there is once more a sharp decline in the exchange rate. From this period, it rises to the third month. The fourth period sees a little decline in the exchange rate after this. After that, the remainder of the time is characterised by steady movements.

India’s output initially decreases in the initial term. Following an overshoot in the second period, it slightly increases in the third month. After a dramatic decline in the third period, it stabilizes in the fourth and then declines again in the fifth. From there, it increases until the sixth month, declines in the seventh month, and then show some small stability for the remaining months. Finally, for the first month, India’s exports remained steady. The impulse response function overshoots from the first to the third period, and variations are seen.

Figure 6 depicts a more robust Monte Carlo simulated structural VAR model. Here we can see that India output significantly affected by US monetary policy shock.

Figure 6: External Shocks with Monte Carlo



Impulse responses With Monte Carlo

7.Variance decomposition results

The FEVD table shows how many percentages of variation in the objective variables are still explained by different shocks after one month, three-month, or six-month horizon.

Table 6: Variance decomposition of India call money rate (with Monte Carlo integration)

Horizon	US interest rate shock	US Output shock	Exchange rate shock	India interest rate shock	India output shock	India Export shock
1 month	19.2	1.9	1.8	71.8	0.0	0.0
3 months	59.2	3.8	4.9	19.7	3.2	2.9
6 months	52.7	5.5	7.8	16.2	4.6	4.2
9 months	53.6	5.5	8.2	14.1	4.6	4.1
12 months	53.6	5.5	8.4	12.9	4.5	4.1

Table 7: Variance decomposition of India's output (with Monte Carlo integration)

Horizon	US interest rate shock	US Output shock	Exchange rate shock	India interest rate shock	India output shock	India Export shock
1 month	25.0	17.8	1.9	5.7	41.4	0
3 months	50.1	8.5	5.4	12.0	13.9	2.8
6 months	43.8	9.4	8.2	11.9	12.4	6.5
9 months	43.5	9.4	8.8	11.7	11.5	6.6
12 months	43.7	9.3	9.0	11.3	10.9	6.5

Table 6 represents the percentage of variation in India's call money market rate explained by different shocks. Again, we can see that the US interest rate shock plays an important role. After one month only a 19% variation in India's interest rate is explained by the variation in the US interest rate but it increases to 59% in 3 months horizon. That means the US interest rate affects India's interest rate more significantly after a lag of 3 months.

1.Conclusion

This paper uses recent macroeconomic data to understand the mechanism through which certain external shocks pass. The absence of long-term equilibrium (from the cointegration test) in the current data can indicate the possible movement of the economic variables. The existing models suggest that, due to variations in the real exchange rate, an economy may move to a full employment equilibrium condition. And there is also a possibility of moving

away from the full employment equilibrium. The slope of the internal balance and external balance plays an important role. It is challenging to estimate the slopes. This paper uses variance decompositions of different macroeconomic variables of India. The long-term persistent effects of external shocks on India's macroeconomic variables can give us some insights into the transmission mechanism of external shocks. Many external shocks affect India's output, interest rate, and export significantly. The variance decomposition gives us the transmission mechanism of these external shocks. These external shocks affect macroeconomic variables after three months significantly. External shocks like US policy shock, exchange rate shock, and US output shocks affect India's output, interest rate, and exports significantly. And even after six months and nine months they affect India's fundamentals.

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Analysing the Impact of Make in India on the Bilateral Trade Dynamics between India and China and its Ramifications for India's Gross Domestic Product: The Role of E-Commerce

Sonali Yadav and Dr. Vivek Singh

Abstract

This study analyses the impact of India's exports and imports from China on India's gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative. This study is based on secondary data. International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, World Trade Organisation (WTO), Reserve Bank of India (RBI), and the Ministry of Commerce and Industry etc. have contributed to the compilation of all data. In this study, Excel was utilised to perform tests for correlation, regression analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Analysing the data reveals that the correlation between India's exports to China and gross domestic product reveals a very highly positive relationship indicated by the correlation coefficient of 0.859297691. The value of R Square is 0.738392521, which suggests that approximately 73.84 % of the variability in gross domestic product can be explained by the variations in India's exports to China. The value of F is 16.93512411 which is statistically significant with a value of significance F is 0.006249575 supports the alternative hypothesis indicates a significant impact of India's exports to China on the gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative. The correlation between India's imports from China and gross domestic product is moderately positive with a correlation coefficient of 0.744127461. The value of R Square is 0.553725679 which indicates that approximately 55.37 % of the variability in gross domestic product can be explained by the variations in India's imports from China. The value of F is 7.444645379 which is statistically significant with a value of significance F of 0.034254676 supports the alternative hypothesis

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indicates a significant impact of India's imports from China on the gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative

Keywords: *India-China, Bilateral trade, Make in India, Gross Domestic Product*

Introduction

The Indian government launched Make in India in 2014 as a revolutionary policy project to reshape the country's economic environment. This innovative effort seeks to promote the manufacturing sector, encourage enterprises to make items inside the country's boundaries, and position India as a worldwide manufacturing center. The primary objective is to boost economic growth, generate jobs, and reduce reliance on imports. India's economy is diverse and vibrant, with businesses ranging from IT and pharmaceuticals to textiles and autos. Make in India has smoothly blended into the economic fabric, highlighting the value of self-sufficiency, innovation, and competition. The project aims to create an investor-friendly climate by reducing regulatory processes, enhancing infrastructure, and offering incentives to firms.

India is on the path to sustainable economic growth, and Make in India serves as a catalyst for change. It tackles critical obstacles by encouraging talent development, technology innovation, and the creation of an ecosystem favourable to company growth. This project intends to attract both local and foreign investment by making it easier to do business, adding considerably to the nation's overall economic growth. Make in India is more than a policy framework; it is a complete plan for propelling India into a new age of economic strength. It envisions a self-sufficient and globally competitive nation in which innovation thrives, commerce flourishes, and the economy remains resilient in the face of growing global trends.

Review of literature

Dishani Sen (2020) in their study examines the levels of participation and the factors which determine the various aspects of perception and knowledge of this digital economy and digitalization among middle-aged adults in India. They state in their study that rural regions have a negative view of a cashless economy and participation is low owing to accessibility difficulties. Men utilise internet services more to preserve their social position, while women feel left out. ¹

Ram Tirth Goel (2012) in their study analysed that the promotion of trade and investment is only one aspect of India's and China's commercial cooperation India. Their economic reliance on one another was enormous. India's purchases from China outweighed its exports to that country. Between 1995-1996 and 2011-2012, the trade imbalance peaked in 2011-2012, and India experienced a negative trade balance with China. ²

Arti Yadav and Munir Hassan (2022) in their paper disclosed that China's economy is growing faster than India's, and when comparing international trade with China, India's imports are significantly large, resulting in a trade imbalance. ³

Dr. Asiya Chaudhary and Sabiha Khatoon (2012), analysed that Both countries have had extraordinary progress since being liberated, and bilateral trade between them is expanding quickly. The study in this paper found that China profits greatly and is a significant source of imports for India. ⁴

Satya Narayan Misra and Sanjay ku. Ghadai(2016) examines that Make-in-India aims to make India a global manufacturing hub, leveraging its demographic dividend and democratic framework. The paper highlights the impact of dismantling the License Permit Quota on growth and employment, the importance of ICOR and Ease of Doing Business, and calls for a chain of economic zones and joint ventures to avoid MNCs. ⁵

Dr. K. Prasad (2015) examines that India and China are two of the oldest civilisations in the world. During World War II, India and China were critical in preventing Imperial Japan's development. In 2012, bilateral commerce between the two nations was expected to be worth \$73 billion. According to reports, India's commerce with China would surpass \$100 billion by 2015. ⁶

Md Sajjad Hosain (2020) indicates that the adversarial impact of the widespread trade disputes between India and China arose from the border disputes. Trade and financial issues must be addressed sequentially from a geopolitical perspective. Trade is getting affected a lot due to border conflict. ⁷

Priyanka Yadav (2018) examines that Make in India will bring a drastic change in fields like automobiles, aviation, biotechnology, defence, media, thermal power, oil, gas and manufacturing sectors. ⁸

Anita Singh and Rinku Sanjeev (2016) The study explores employees' attitudes towards re-skilling training programs, focusing on factors influencing their perception. The results show that despite the potential burden, employees view reskilling as important for job growth, learning new technology, and enhancing organizational performance. ⁹

Sujit Shrikrushnharao Gulhane and Ranjit Turukmane (2017) examine the impact of the Make in India scheme on the textile and allied sectors, highlighting India's significant role in the sector, its complete value chain productivity strength, availability of raw materials, skilled manpower and favourable demographics. ¹⁰

Research Gap

After reviewing the research paper, it was found that the researchers conducted a study on the impact of the Make in India initiative in various aspects. Researchers have looked at the impact of Make in India on increasing India's productivity and foreign direct investment inflows, while others have looked at the impact of Make in India on the Indian economy. Researchers have studied that Make in India implementation is creating tremendous opportunities for improvement in the manufacturing and service sectors. In this paper, I study the impact of India's exports and imports from China on GDP and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

Significance of the study

This research holds paramount significance as it scrutinizes the Make in India initiative's effects on bilateral trade with China and its impact on India's Gross Domestic Product specifically addressing the role of e-commerce. The findings provide essential insights for policymakers and stakeholders, offering a nuanced understanding of economic relations, trade patterns, and the transformative influence of digital commerce. This research is instrumental in guiding strategic decisions, trade policies, and fostering informed approaches to bolster India's economic development in the contemporary global landscape.

Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the impact of India's exports to China on Gross Domestic Product after the Make in India initiative and the role of e-commerce.
2. To examine the impact of India's imports from China on Gross Domestic Product after the Make in India initiative and the role of e-commerce.

Hypothesis

H₀₁: There is no significant impact of India's exports to China on gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

H₁₁: There is a significant impact of India's exports to China on gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

H₀₂: There is no significant impact of India's imports from China on gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

H₁₂: There is a significant impact of India's imports from China on gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

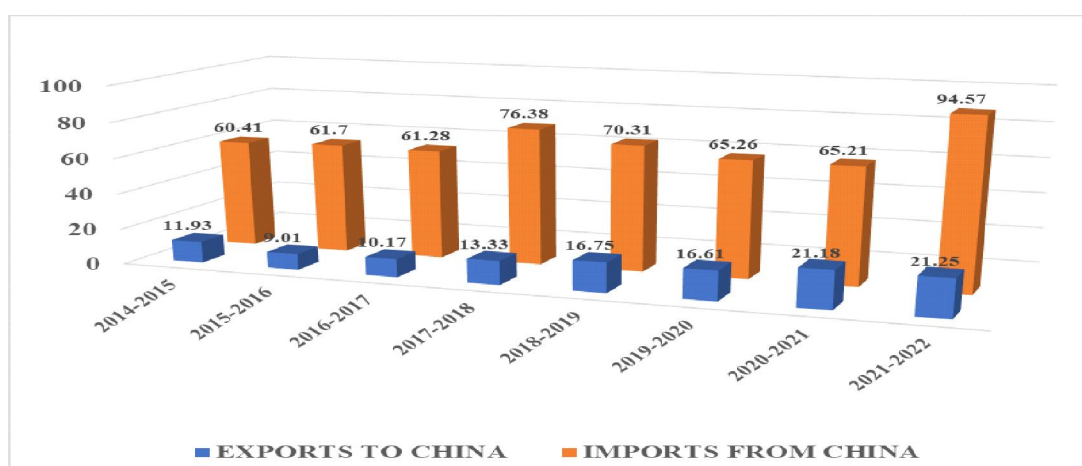
Methodology of Research

This study aimed to analyse the impact of India's exports and imports from China on India's gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative. This research is based mainly on secondary data sources. Data and information have been collected from the International Monetary Fund, World Bank, World Trade Organization, Reserve Bank of India, Ministry of Commerce and Industry and data from 2014-2015 to 2021-2022 were employed in this study. In this research, Excel Software is used for the calculation and correlation, regression analysis and Anovato test the hypothesis.

Table1: Variables used in the study (amount in US \$ BILLION)

	EXPORTS TO CHINA	IMPORTS FROM CHINA	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT
2014-2015	11.93	60.41	2100
2015-2016	9.01	61.70	2290
2016-2017	10.17	61.28	2650
2017-2018	13.33	76.38	2700
2018-2019	16.75	70.31	2840
2019-2020	16.61	65.26	2670
2020-2021	21.18	65.21	3150
2021-2022	21.25	94.57	3420

Source: Ministry of Commerce and Industry, World Bank Database

Figure1: India's exports and imports from China from 2015-2016 to 2021-2022

From Figure 1, In 2014-2015, India exported US \$11.93 billion and imported US \$60.41 billion. Exports dropped to US \$9.01 billion in 2015-2016, while imports increased to US \$61.70 billion. The trend reversed in 2016-2017 with exports at US \$10.17 billion and stable imports at US \$61.28 billion. In 2017-2018, exports surged to US \$13.33 billion, and imports grew significantly to US \$76.38 billion.

The upward trajectory continued in 2018-2019, with exports at US \$16.75 billion and a slight dip in imports to US \$70.31 billion. 2019-2020 maintained a balanced trade relationship, with US \$16.61 billion in exports and US \$65.26 billion in imports. In 2020-2021, both exports and imports increased to US \$21.18 billion and US \$65.21 billion, respectively. In 2021-2022 exports at US \$21.25 billion, but imports surged to US \$94.57 billion.

Table2: Correlation result of India’s exports to China and Gross Domestic Product

	EXPORTS TO CHINA	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUT
EXPORTS TO CHINA	1	0.859297691
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUT	0.859297691	1

Source: Excel Output

Table3: Regression result of India’s exports to China and Gross Domestic Product

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.859297691
R Square	0.738392521
Adjusted R Square	0.694791275
Standard Error	234.9404137
Observations	8

Independent Variable: **Exports to China**

Dependent Variable: **Gross Domestic Product (Annual)**

Source: **Excel output**

Table4: Anova result of India's exports to China and Gross Domestic Product

Anova					
	Df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	934768.012	934768.012	16.93512411	0.006249575
Residual	6	331181.988	55196.998		
Total	7	1265950			

Source: Excel Output

Interpretation and Analysis of the Impact of India's Exports to China on Gross

Domestic Product and the Role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative

The correlation analysis between India's exports to China and gross domestic product reveals a very highly positive relationship, with a correlation coefficient of 0.859297691. This indicates a very high degree of correlation between the two variables, suggesting that as India's exports to China increase, there is a corresponding rise in the gross domestic product. The coefficient of determination is 0.738392521 explaining approximately 73.84 % of the variance in gross domestic product based on the variations in exports to China. The Adjusted R Square is 0.694791275 which implies that the model's explanatory power remains robust even after considering potential confounding factors. The F-statistic, with a value of 16.93512411, tests the overall significance of the regression model. The Significance F value of 0.006249575 is below the conventional significance threshold of 0.05 indicating that the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This suggests that India's exports to China have a significant impact on the gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

Role of E-Commerce on India's exports to China

E-commerce is crucial for India's exports to China, enabling small and medium enterprises (SMEs) to reach Chinese consumers. It streamlines logistics, simplifies customs procedures, and enhances supply chain efficiency. Digital marketing strategies increase brand visibility, while cross-border e-commerce initiatives simplify transactions. E-commerce allows Indian exporters to customize products, fostering competitiveness. Its data-driven nature supports informed decision-making based on consumer behaviour and market trends. Overall, e-commerce significantly reduces paperwork, fostering economic ties and trade relations between India and China.

Table5: Correlation result of India’s imports from China and Gross Domestic Product

	IMPORTS FROM CHINA	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUT
IMPORTS FROM CHINA	1	0.744127461
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUT	0.744127461	1

Source: Excel Output

Table6: Regression result of India’s imports from China and Gross Domestic Product

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.744127461
R Square	0.553725678
Adjusted R Square	0.479346624
Standard Error	306.8552802
Observations	8

Independent Variable: Imports from China

Dependent Variable: Gross Domestic Product (Annual)

Source: Excel output

Table7: Anova result of India’s imports from China and Gross Domestic Product

Anova					
	Df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	1	700989.0222	700989.0222	7.444645379	0.034254676
Residual	6	564960.9778	94160.16297		
Total	7	1265950			

Source: Excel Output

Interpretation and Analysis of the Impact of India's Imports from China on Gross Domestic Product and the Role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative

The correlation analysis between India's imports from China and gross domestic product reveals a moderately positive relationship, with a correlation coefficient of 0.744127461. This indicates a moderate degree of correlation between the two variables, suggesting that as India's imports to China increase, there is a corresponding rise in the gross domestic product. The coefficient of determination (R square) is 0.553725678 explaining approximately 55.37 % of the variance in gross domestic product based on the variations in imports to China. The Adjusted R Square is 0.479346624 which implies that the model's explanatory power remains robust even after considering potential confounding factors. The F-statistic, with a value of 7.444645379, tests the overall significance of the regression model. The Significance F value of 0.034254676 is below the conventional significance threshold of 0.05 indicating that the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This suggests that India's imports from China have a significant impact on the gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

Role of E-Commerce on India's imports from China

E-commerce has become a pivotal force in shaping India's imports from China, providing efficient channels for businesses to source a diverse range of products. Online platforms streamline transactions, connecting Indian importers with Chinese suppliers seamlessly. This digital transformation enhances transparency in trade, offering detailed product information and logistics efficiency, ensuring timely deliveries. E-commerce not only simplifies the procurement process but also fosters partnerships, contributing to the diversity of goods in the Indian market. Ultimately, it serves as a transformative and technologically advanced avenue, reshaping the dynamics of cross-border trade between India and China.

Conclusion

This paper has tried to analyse the impact of India's exports and imports from China on gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative. The statistical analysis highlights a strong and positive relationship between India's exports to China and its gross domestic product, with a substantial portion of the variability in gross domestic product explained by variations in exports. The statistical significance F value supports the alternative hypothesis indicating that India's exports to China have a significant impact on gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative. The correlation between India's imports from China and gross domestic product is moderately positive. While there is a statistically significant relationship, the explanatory power of variations in imports on gross domestic product is moderate. The statistical significance F value supports the alternative hypothesis indicating that India's imports from China have a significant impact on gross domestic product and the role of e-commerce after the Make in India initiative.

E-commerce has revolutionized India's exports to China, providing a robust platform for cross-border trade and expanding market access for Indian businesses. This digital landscape bridges trade barriers facilitates seamless transactions, and particularly benefits SMEs. The streamlined export process, enabled by efficient logistics, contributes to a positive bilateral trade relationship. Similarly, e-commerce has significantly impacted India's imports from China by simplifying the buying process and increasing access to Chinese products. Competitive pricing and diverse offerings on online platforms have fueled demand for Chinese goods in India, reshaping trade dynamics. E-commerce plays a pivotal role in shaping and influencing both India's exports to and imports from China. In conclusion, Make in India has significantly bolstered India's economic landscape by fostering domestic manufacturing, attracting foreign investments, and stimulating job creation, contributing to sustainable economic growth and global competitiveness.

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Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) Inflows In India: An Empirical Analysis

Dr. Rishi Vivek Dhar, Dr. Shweta Upadhyay Dhar & Prof. Manjula Upadhyay

Abstract

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is a pivotal driver of economic growth, fostering development and innovation worldwide. Likewise, FDI in India plays an instrumental role in shaping the country's economic landscape. India is a land of billion opportunities and not a billion problems. Real changes are taking place in the scenario of the Indian economy and this will have a big impact on India's prospects. In year 2022, India ranked 10th in top destinations for Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), a culmination of decades of Economic reforms. Facing a severe balance of payment crisis in 1991, the economy liberalized with a slew of economic reforms aimed at reducing import tariffs and 'opening up' sectors to foreign investment. As a result, FDI to the country trended upwards, gathering steam at the start of the new century. India's FDI inflow increased from \$2.2 billion in 1999-2000 to \$ 70.98 billion in 2022-23, mirroring the country's rapid economic growth. India attracted FDI inflows of \$33 billion in the first six month of the financial year started in April 2023. This has been boosted by the government's continued push to liberalize its FDI laws. India has potential of growth and there is a continuous effort to make the FDI policy more liberal and investor friendly.

Key Words: *FDI, Inflow, Subprime Crisis, DPIIT, SEBI*

Introduction:

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has appeared as the most significant source of external resource flows to developing countries over the years and has become a significant part of capital formation in these countries, despite their share in global distribution of FDI continuing to remain small or even declining. The effects of FDI in the host economy are usually believed to be increase in the employment, augment in the productivity, boost in exports and amplified pace of transfer of technology. It facilitates the utilization and exploitation of local raw materials, introduces modern techniques of management and marketing, eases the access to new technologies, foreign inflows can be used for financing current account deficits, finance

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flows in form of FDI do not generate repayment of principal and interests (as opposed to external debt) and increases the stock of human capital via on-the-job training.

FDI flows comprise capital provided by foreign investors, directly or indirectly to enterprises in another economy with an expectation of obtaining profits derived from the capital participation in the management of the enterprise in which they invest. The foreign investors acquire ownership of assets in the host country firms in proportion to their equity holdings. This is the empirical definition of FDI adopted by many countries to distinguish it from portfolio flows. According to International Monetary Fund (IMF), FDI is defined as “an investment that is made to acquire a lasting interest in an enterprise operating in a economy other than that of the investor” The investor’s purpose is to have an effective voice in the management of the enterprise (IMF, 1977). FDI is the process by which the residents of one country (the source country) acquire the ownership of assets for the purpose of controlling the production, distribution and other productive activities of a firm in another country (the host country).

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is a pivotal driver of economic growth, fostering development and innovation worldwide. Likewise, FDI in India plays an instrumental role in shaping the country’s economic landscape. India remains a favored destination for global investors, as per the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) World Investment Report. The report for 2023 disclosed that India secured the third-highest foreign direct investment (FDI) for new greenfield projects in 2022.

Role of FDI in a Developing Country like India:

The role of FDI in the growth process has been a burning topic of debate in several countries including India. FDI is a vital ingredient of the globalization efforts of the world economy. The growth of international production is driven by economic and technological forces. It is also driven by the ongoing liberalization of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and trade policies. One outstanding feature of the present-day world has been the circulation of private capital flow in the form of foreign direct investment (FDI) in developing countries, especially since 1990s. Since the 1980s, multinational corporations (MNCs) have come out as major actors in the globalization context. Governments around the world—in both advanced and developing countries—have been attracting MNCs to come to their respective countries with their FDI. This experience may be related to the broader context of liberalization in which most developing and transition countries have moved to market-oriented strategies. In this context, globalization offers an unparalleled opportunity for developing countries like India to attain quicker economic growth through trade and investment.

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) plays a crucial role in the economic development of a country. Here are key ways in which FDI contributes to economic development:

(A)- FDI brings in capital from foreign investors, which can be used to finance domestic investment projects. This influx of capital can contribute to the development of infrastructure, technology, and various industries. FDI has the potential to stimulate overall economic growth

by contributing to the gross domestic product (GDP) of the host country. Increased economic activity, as a result of FDI, can have multiplier effects on various sectors.

(B)- Multinational corporations (MNCs) often bring advanced technologies and management practices to host countries. This technology transfer can enhance productivity, improve product quality, and upgrade the skill set of the local workforce.

(C) - FDI often leads to the creation of jobs in the host country. The establishment and expansion of foreign-owned businesses require a workforce, contributing to lower unemployment rates and improved living standards. FDI can contribute to foreign exchange earnings for the host country. This is especially relevant when foreign-owned enterprises export goods and services produced locally.

(D)- The introduction of foreign capital and expertise can improve the efficiency and productivity of domestic industries. This efficiency gain can lead to increased competitiveness in global markets. Foreign investors often contribute to the development of infrastructure in the host country. This may include investments in transportation, communication, and energy, which can have long-term positive effects on economic growth.

(E)- FDI can facilitate access to international markets for domestic businesses. Through the global networks of multinational corporations, local companies may find opportunities to export their products and services to a wider audience.

(F) - FDI can lead to the diversification of industries in a host country. The entry of foreign firms may bring new sectors and products, reducing dependence on a narrow range of industries.

(G)- - FDI often requires a skilled workforce. As a result, there is an incentive for the host country to invest in education and training programs to meet the demands of foreign investors. This contributes to the development of human capital. FDI represents a long-term commitment by foreign investors. This stability and commitment can enhance the overall economic environment, attracting further investments and fostering sustainable economic development.

It is important to note that while FDI can bring numerous benefits, effective government policies, a stable regulatory environment, and strong institutions are crucial for maximizing these positive impacts and mitigating potential drawbacks.

FDI Inflow in India after Liberalization:

Since economic reforms initiated in 1991, Government of India has taken many programs to attract FDI inflows, to improve the Indian economy. An important objective of promoting FDI in India and other developing countries has been to promote efficiency in production and increase exports. However, any increase in equity stake of the foreign investors in existing joint ventures or purchase of a share of equity by them in domestic firms would not automatically change the orientation of the firm. That is, “the aim of FDI investors would be to benefit

from the profit earned in the Indian market. As, a result, in such cases FDI inflows need not be accompanied by any substantial increase in exports, whether such investment leads to modernization of domestic capacity or not". Therefore, it is a challenge for a developing country like India to channelize its capital inflow through FDI into a potential source of productivity gain for domestic firms. As a result, India has received total FDI of US\$ 180,034 million from the year 1990-91 to 2009-10 which is due to the initiatives taken by the Government of India in attracting FDI inflows in India. The FDI inflows have shown a rising trend from 1991-92 to 1997-98 owing to the sincere programs of structural liberalization and open- market reforms. The rise in flows of FDI till 1997 was due to not only of the liberalization policy but also due to the sharp expansion in the global scale of FDI outflows during the 1990s. Another causal factor may have been the recovery of the Latin American economies, which had begun to emerge from the Debt Crisis of the 1980s. Then after during 1998-99 and 1999-00 there was decline in FDI inflow which was due to the decline in industrial growth rate in the economy and also due to the result of the East Asian Financial Crisis. But again, in the next following year, foreign investment started to bounce back. During 2002-03 and 2003-04, again there was fall in flow of foreign direct investment which was due to the cast of Global Recession on the Indian economy. The FDI Equity inflows during the five years 2005-06 to 2009-10 showed a massive increase of more than seven times than those of the previous year's 1991-92 to 1999-00 and 2000-01 to 2004- 05. This increase was due to the revised FDI Policy in March 2005, an important element of the policy was to allow FDI up to 100% foreign equity under the automatic route in townships, housing, built-up infrastructure, and construction-development projects. The year 2005 also witnessed the enactment of the Special Economic Zones Act, which entailed a lot of construction and township development that came into force in February 2006. With a view to attract FDI, Government of India has put in place a liberal policy under which FDI up to 100% is permitted under the automatic route in most sectors and activities. The currently effective Consolidated FDI policy circular was issued by DPIIT on 15th October 2020. The government has approved the continuation of SIP for a further duration of five years from FY 2012-22 to FY 2025-26 with a financial outlay of Rs, 9.70 billion on 29th November 2021.

Significance of FDI in India:

FDI regulations in India: India offers an automatic route for FDI in several sectors, simplifying the investment process for foreign investors in India. However, certain sectors require government approval, and FDI caps and conditions vary from one industry to another. Strict reporting requirements, in line with the Foreign Exchange Management Act (FEMA), are in place to ensure transparency in foreign investments in India. FDI in India are subject to regulation and oversight by various government bodies, such as Department for Promotion of Industry and Internal Trade (DPIIT)- DPIIT formulates and implements policies to promote and regulate foreign investment in India across sectors. Reserve Bank of India (RBI)- RBI manages the monetary aspects of foreign investments in India. Securities and Exchange Board

of India (SEBI)- SEBI regulates FDI in the capital market. The Startup India program offers incentives and tax benefits to startups, helping in their momentous growth. This makes the tech and innovation sector an appealing investment for foreign investors in India. Moreover, simplified processes, like single-window clearance and the Goods and Services Tax (GST) implementation, have eased the bureaucratic burden on businesses and foreign investors in India, thereby enhancing the ease of business in the country.

FDI routes in India:

There are two FDI routes in India designed to safeguard India's security and national interests. The government employs these routes as a means to promote foreign investment in India in particular sectors, and these FDI routes in India also empower foreign investors in India to choose the pathway that aligns with their business objectives and ensures compliance with India's regulations.

(1) - Automatic route: The automatic route allows foreign investors in India to invest in sectors without requiring prior approval from Indian authorities. Under this route, investors are only required to notify the Reserve Bank of India (RBI) within a specified time frame. This route is designed to promote ease of doing business and attract foreign capital, making it particularly attractive for sectors open to higher FDI limits or do not have specific security concerns.

(2) - Government route: The government route necessitates prior approval from the Indian government or relevant ministries for foreign investors in India. This route is typically reserved for sectors that involve national security, strategic interests, or have specific regulatory concerns. This route helps the government maintain control over sensitive areas of the economy while still allowing foreign investments in India on a case-by-case basis.

FDI in India inflows over the last twenty years

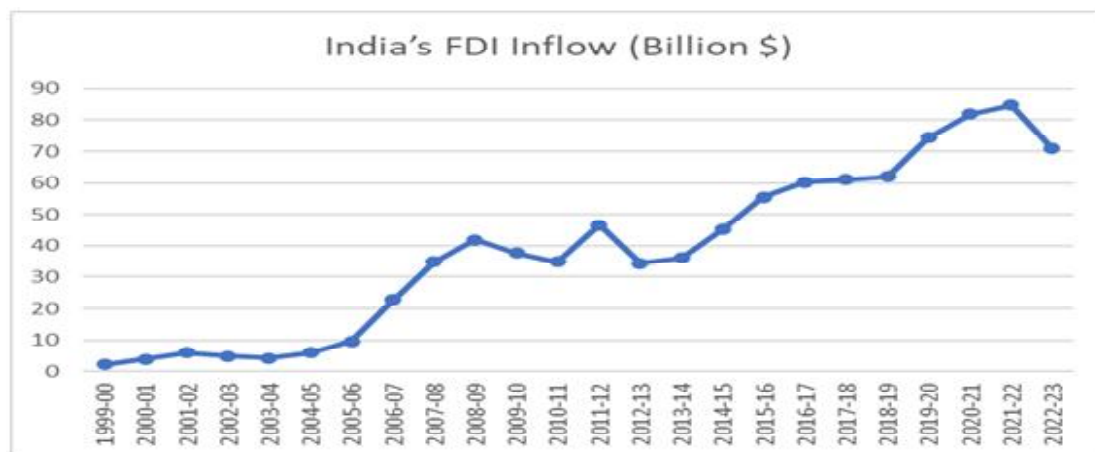
The table below provides the FDI in India inflows over the past two decades, with data sourced from UNCTAD. In the FY 1999-2000 the FDI inflow was \$ 2.2 billion only which became \$22.8 Billion in FY 2006-07. The average FDI inflow during 2000 to 2006 was \$5.34 billion. From the FY 2006-07 the FDI in India touch the double digit and it was \$22.8 billion and became more than double in FY2011-12. In FY 2020-21 the FDI was \$82 billion and in year 2023 it was about \$70.9 billion; this was a 16% decline from last year. But in fact, the FDI inflow in India showing a rocketing growth since last few years.

Table:1 (FDI Inflow in India)

Financial Year	India's FDI Inflow (Billion \$)
1999-00	2.2
2000-01	4.0
2001-02	6.1
2002-03	5.0
2003-04	4.3
2004-05	6.1
2005-06	9.7
2006-07	22.8
2007-08	34.8
2008-09	41.9
2009-10	37.7
2010-11	34.8
2011-12	46.6
2012-13	34.3
2013-14	36.0
2014-15	45.2
2015-16	55.6
2016-17	60.2
2017-18	61.0
2018-19	62.0
2019-20	74.4
2020-21	82.0
2021-22	84.8
2022-23	70.9

Source: UNCTAD Statistics

Figure:1



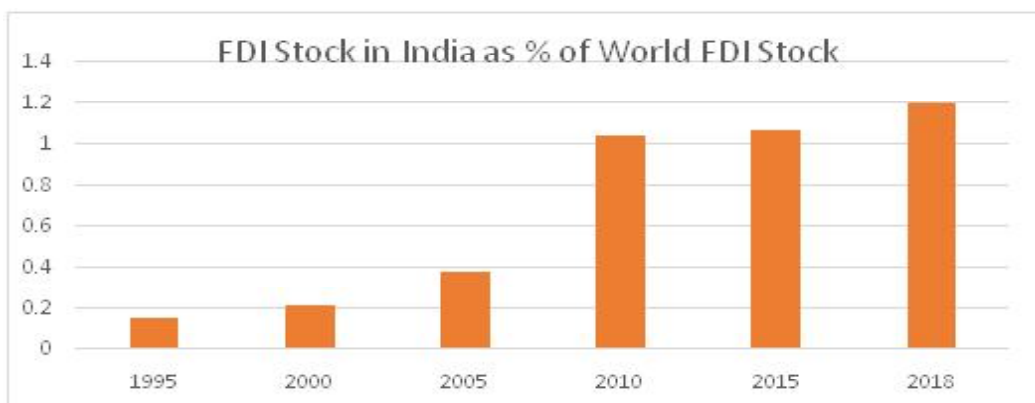
Source: Table No.:1

Table:2

Financial Year	FDI Stock in India as % of World FDI Stock	FDI Stock in India as % of GDP
1995	0.16	1.55
2000	0.22	3.55
2005	0.38	5.25
2010	1.04	12.31
2015	1.07	13.17
2018	1.2	14.07

Source: UNCTAD Statistics

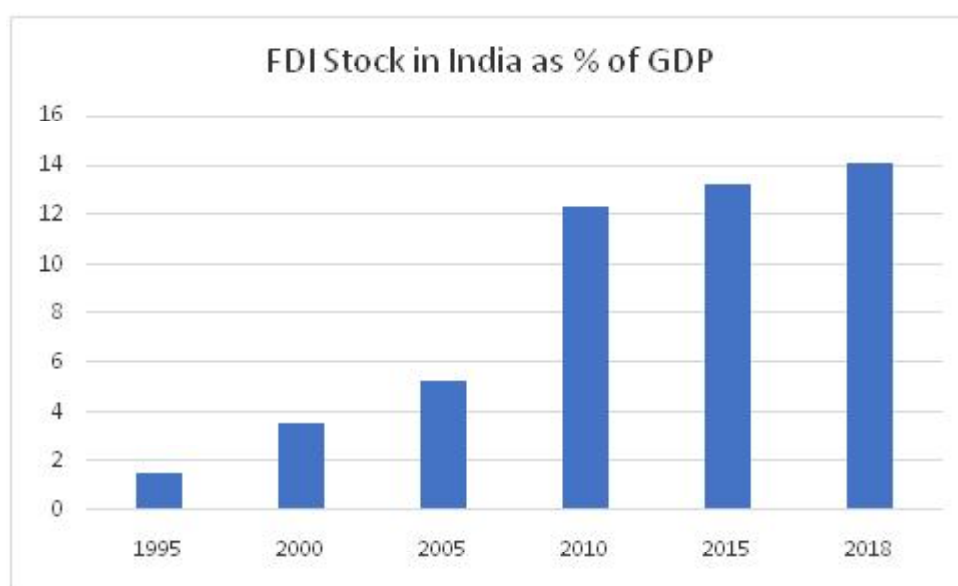
Figure:2



Source: Table:2

The FDI stock in India as a percentage of World FDI Stock which was at a minimum level of 0.16% in FY 1995 became double in FY 2005 and it was 1.2% in FY2018. This data explains that the share of India in world FDI stock is increasing over the years.

Figure:3 (Source: Table-2)



The FDI Stock in India as a percentage of GDP also shown in table number-2 and figure number-3. It was 1.55 percent in FY 1995 which was 12.31% in FY 2010 while in FY 2018 it became 14.07% of GDP.

Sectors where FDI is not allowed:

Certain sectors are not permitted to receive FDI in India due to a range of reasons, including national security concerns, safeguarding domestic interests, and protecting small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). These sectors are listed below with data once again sourced from Make in India. (a) Lottery business including Government/private lottery, online lotteries, etc., (2) Chit funds, (3) Trading in Transferable Development Rights (TDR), (4) Manufacturing cigars, cheroots, cigarillos and cigarettes, and tobacco substitutes, (5) Gambling and betting, including casinos, (6) Nidhi company, (7) Real estate business or construction of farmhouses, (8) Sectors not open to private sector investment- atomic energy, railway operations (other than permitted activities mentioned under the Consolidated FDI policy).

Government policies and initiatives to boost FDI:

The Indian government has implemented various policies and initiatives to boost Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the country. These policies aim to create a favorable and investor-

friendly environment, attract foreign capital, and promote economic growth. Some of the key policies and measures include;

- a.- Liberalization of FDI Norms: The government has regularly revised and liberalized FDI norms to attract more foreign investment across different sectors. Changes often include increasing sectoral caps, allowing more foreign ownership, and simplifying approval processes.
- b. Automatic Route and Government Approval: FDI is allowed through the automatic route in many sectors, meaning that foreign investors do not require prior approval from the government. However, in certain strategic sectors, government approval is still required.
- c. Consolidation of FDI Policies: The government has consolidated FDI policies into a single document to provide clarity and ease of understanding for investors. The Consolidated FDI Policy is regularly updated to reflect changes in regulations.
- d. Make in India: Launched in 2014, the Make in India initiative aims to promote manufacturing and position India as a global manufacturing hub. The initiative focuses on easing business regulations, improving infrastructure, and providing incentives for foreign manufacturers.
- e. National Infrastructure Pipeline (NIP) - The NIP is a government initiative to boost infrastructure development in the country. Foreign investors are encouraged to participate in various infrastructure projects, including those related to transportation, energy, and logistics.
- f. Goods and Services Tax (GST): The implementation of the GST aims to simplify the tax structure and create a unified national market, reducing tax-related complexities for businesses, including foreign investors.
- g. Easing of Entry and Exit Norms: The government has taken steps to simplify entry and exit norms for foreign investors. Measures include faster approval processes, reduced documentation requirements, and easier repatriation of profits. The government has allowed FDI in multi-brand retail up to a certain percentage, with conditions such as mandatory sourcing of a percentage of products locally. This has been a significant policy change to attract foreign investment in the retail sector.
- h. Start-up India: The Start-up India initiative aims to foster a culture of innovation and entrepreneurship in the country. It includes various measures such as tax incentives, funding support, and simplification of compliance procedures to attract foreign investment in the start-up ecosystem.
- I. National Single Window System: The government has introduced a National Single Window System to facilitate a single-point interface for investors to obtain all required clearances and approvals. Establishing dedicated FDI facilitation cells in government

departments to assist and guide foreign investors through various stages of their investment process.

It is important to note that policies can change, and investors should refer to the latest official sources, such as the Department for Promotion of Industry and Internal Trade (DPIIT), for the most up-to-date information on FDI policies in India.

Conclusion:

This study attempts to analyze the trends in FDI inflow in to India from 1990's to 2022-23. Looking to capitalize on the country's burgeoning demand, global brands have made increasingly large plays into the country's economy for example in 2014 Amazon invests \$2 billion into country's operations and \$3 billion in 2016. Walmart invests \$16 billion in 2018 in Flipkart- an Indian e-commerce platform. In 2023 Foxconn commits \$6 million to production facilities in India. This has been boosted by the government's continued push to liberalized its FDI laws. India has the growth potential and there is continuous and sustained effort to make the FDI policy more liberal and investors friendly. The global share of FDI inflow to India has increased during last twenty years. The FDI stock as percentage of GDP also increased over the years. This inflow of FDI is very Important for India and should be strongly encouraged in all areas of the Indian Economy.

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The Future of Global Trade: G-20 Dynamics and the Indian Connection

Chandra Prakash Agrawal & Surya Prakash Agrawal

ABSTRACT

India which is the fifth largest economy in the world and a major emerging power assumed the G-20 presidency on the 1st of December 2022 from Indonesia. G-20 which represents about 85 % of the global GDP, 75 % of global trade and 2/3rds of the world's population is a major multilateral forum which will help India to not only show her accomplishments, but also attract investments across the global economies and improve international relations with various G-20 economies. This research paper highlights India's growing influence on the G-20, a group of the world's 20 largest economies in sectors like trade, Investment, climate change etc. which will help to promote strong, sustainable, balanced and inclusive growth of the member countries. The title also suggests that India's influence is not just about promoting its own interests, but also about creating a more just and equitable world order which is based on One Earth, One family and One Future. This study is based on using secondary data from books, government publications and other open-source databases.

KEYWORDS: *G-20 Presidency, Global Trade, Inclusive growth, Investment, Emerging economy*

INTRODUCTION

The G-20 forum for International Economic Cooperation founded in 1999 comprises Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Republic of Korea, Mexico, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Turkey, United Kingdom, and the United States along with the European Union. Initially concentrating mostly on broad macroeconomic policy, the G20 has now broadened its scope to encompass trade, climate change, sustainable development, energy, environment, climate change, anti-corruption, etc.

In cooperation with other participants and in response to changes in the global economy, the G20 Presidency is in charge of putting together the G20 agenda. To ensure continuity, the

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Presidency is supported by a “troika” made up of the current, immediate past and next host countries. During India’s Presidency, the members of the G20 troika are Indonesia, India and Brazil.

Engagement Groups

Through the engagement groups, which are made up of nongovernment participants from each G20 member, dialogue is enabled as part of the G20 countries’ commitment to consult key stakeholder communities. The various Engagement groups are Business20, Civil20, Labour20, Parliament20, Science20, Supreme Audit Institutions (SAI)20, Startup20, Think20, Urban20, Women20, Youth20. These groups generally play pivotal role of giving valuable suggestions to different G-20 leaders in taking various strategic decisions which are instrumental to any economy.

India and its Presidency in G-20

India’s assumption of the G20 Presidency also signifies the commencement of “Amritkaal.” This 25-year period starts from India’s 75th independence anniversary on 15 August 2022 and extends to its centenary of independence. This transformative era aims to propel India toward a progressive, inclusive, and prosperous society characterized by a central focus on human welfare and development. During this period, India is committed to advancing its economic, social, and political spheres, with a vision of achieving comprehensive growth, technological innovation, and global leadership in various fields.

The G-20 logo reflects growth amid changes and the theme of India’s G20 Presidency - “VasudhaivaKutumbakam” or “One Earth · One Family · One Future” signifies a joint commitment to take actions to address various global challenges in the light of Covid pandemic and ongoing war crisis. Therefore, to address these global issues which can have significant consequences on global economy is the need of the time, where India is acting as a major enabler and a dominating force to focus on the three interrelated areas of action– People, Planet and Prosperity.

The combination of the logo and theme sends a strong message about India’s G20 Presidency. It underscores India’s dedication to pursuing fair and balanced global development as the world navigates through challenging times. This pursuit is marked by a commitment to sustainability, comprehensive responsibility, and inclusivity, ensuring that the benefits of growth extend to all.

The vision of India’s G20 presidency has been to bring focus to the global discourse, issues which make a difference to people’s lives, lead to actionable, decidable, sustainable and inclusive growth and empower the global growth. This vision is directly linked with accelerating progress towards Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To know about India's growing Influence on G-20 in sectors like Trade, climate change etc.
- To know about various issues discussed and the agenda set forward in the G-20 New Delhi Declaration that took on 9th and 10th September 2023.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present study is descriptive in nature and based on the secondary data from different open sources of government publications till date. It also includes facts extracted from various G-20 websites and articles from reputed newspaper and journals.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There have been many papers written which explores the role of India's presidency in the G-20 summit.

A study on the Presidency of G-20 in India: A SWOT analysis reveals the various challenges, Opportunities for the India and the world economy. (**Mr. Rinkeshkumar G. Mahida,2023**)

Another review aims to identify key themes, arguments, and findings related to India's role in the G20, including historical participation, contributions to global governance, influence within the G20, policy priorities, initiatives, and its relationships with other member countries(**Prabir De, 2017**)

Another researchpaper lays out India's role and responsibilities as host country of the G20 in 2023.These provide an international dimension to India's own Vision 2030, which aims to make India "a modern, technology driven, high growth, equitable and transparent society."**(Manjeet, 2023)**

(Rajeev Kumar, 2021) explores the significance of the G20 as a global economic forum and the growing influence of emerging economies like India within its framework. The review examines India's past contributionsto the G20 andthe challenges it faces in assuming leadership, such as balancing domestic priorities and managing diverse interests among member countries. It also emphasizes the role of Indian think tanks and academia in shaping India's G20 agenda and analyzes the implications of India's leadership for its domestic reforms and global aspirations. The review concludes by highlighting the need for enhanced coordination and research collaborations, while also suggesting areas for further analysis and offering recommendations for future engagements.

(Tanu Goyal, 2020)examines the contribution of the G20 in facilitating the implementation of its member countries' sustainable development goals. It reviews the G20 priorities over the years, its informal governance mechanisms, and the progress made so far by the member countries in achieving the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The brief finds that

even as the G20 has aligned its priorities and initiatives with the SDGs, the responsibility for fulfilling these goals lie with the national governments.

There are several papers which have emphasized on the role of G-20 in building inclusive environment so that the entire world can largely be benefitted. After the summit held on 9th and 10th September 2023 in New Delhi, India's G-20 presidency has become a symbol of inclusion, both within the country and beyond, representing the spirit of 'Sabka Saath'. This paper is an attempt to systematically study the unrecognized issues that came to light which were discussed in the meeting and the way forward for meeting the aspirations of not just the individuals of India but the entire world.

ROLE OF INDIA'S LEADERSHIP IN G-20 PRESIDENCY

India is currently enjoying the status of Demographic dividend like no other country in the world. Its more than 50 % of the population belongs to less than 30 years of age and thus the contribution of India in the global workforce is of immense importance for the developing and developed economies. Thus, this time in the 21st century is ripe for India to strengthen multilateral ties in the field of Industry, commerce, entrepreneurship, innovation, climate change, green energy, trade and other investment areas.

India's presidency of the G20 in 2023 is a significant opportunity for the country to demonstrate its growing leadership and influence in the global economy. India is the world's fifth-largest economy and is expected to become the third-largest by 2030. Thus, India can leverage its demographic dividend which is a major asset for India providing a large workforce and a growing consumer market.

In the spirit of sharing India can use its presidency to promote policies that support inclusive economic growth and job creation at a larger level. This will help to ensure that all Indians, especially the young workforce benefit from economic growth.

India can use its presidency to advocate for global trade and investment. In the recent past, India has expanded the pace of digitalization and promoted innovation in every sphere. Establishment of Industrial zones and freight corridors, liberalized FDI flows, easing business regulatory framework and initiatives like Make in India and Atmanirbhar Bharat have given a major boost to manufacturing sector.

We cannot ignore the pandemic and current geopolitical turmoil, thus building a strong International Trade and taking effective trade related decisions and making sound and strategic policies can help in increased global trade and invite investment across the world. There is a need to form competent, resilient and inclusive global value chains that can withstand future shocks occurring in any economy.

The Indian Government aims to increase its overall exports to USD 2 trillion by 2030, with equal contributions from the merchandise and services sectors, this comes at a time when the India is acting as a crucial role in leading the world through its ideas of trade openness, adaptivity and sustainability.

The G20 is committed to creating a fair and competitive environment for trade and investment, which are essential for economic growth and prosperity. To achieve a true, equitable and sustainable global trading system, the challenges faced by global trade, such as increasing poverty and inequality are being addressed in order to promote sustainable growth. In this regard India's proposal to create a Generic Framework for Mapping Global Value Chains is important. This framework aims to assess vulnerabilities, minimize risks, and enhance resilience.

Thus, India is playing a paramount role in improving the investment capacities and rebuilding the foundation of international business to make the global trading system fairer and just, so that everyone has a chance to benefit. India is also scaling up its ambitions to deliver bolder messages and measures enabling G-20 countries in particular to address the crisis effectively.

The important principles that are outlined by the G-20 with respect to trade and investment covers policy framework in the area of promoting sustainable and balanced development. It also aims to enhance and strengthen the multilateral trading system and ensuring that the world trade remains inclusive at each end. It also calls for reinforcing resilient global value chain at right directions and increase trade and investment in services and not only in goods. It also aims to create a conducive environment for worldwide investment and create a robust digital infrastructure for competitive global trade. It will act as an instrumental force for binding the interconnected world. It will also help India to become a major partner, contributor and enabler as to how to face various developmental challenges along with transparent solutions.

Thus, it can be inferred that this is India's growth as rising power and as power whose voice is listened and has a correct impact around the world. India is not only showing the path forward but also helping in bridging the divides. They are also showing the pathway of post Covid world order and the reduction of trust deficit that exists on either side of the geopolitical divide and then take it forward to a new world order where the global south has to play a big role along with the global north which has to come together as it is the only way where the challenges of the world can be met and the same was reflected in the slogan of One Earth, One Family and One Future. The entire transformative world needs to come forward and India is ensuring that very aspect in this G-20. The first objective of this research paper which aimed to know about the India's growing influence on G-20 in various sectors like trade and investment have been systematically studied with the help of various secondary sources available.

NEW DELHI DECLARATION: ISSUES AND AGENDA

During the G20 Leader's Summit held in New Delhi, New Delhi Declaration was unanimously adopted by the member countries. This consensus covers a wide range of developmental and geo political issues including Russia-Ukraine tensions, Global Food security crisis, other

sustainable developmental issues. The Summit has given birth to as many 112 outcomes such as Africa G-20 membership, Global Biofuel Alliance among the few.

India has adopted a Human centric approach in tackling with the global issues and reaping the advantages of opportunities that are present worldwide. Key priorities of India's presidency include promoting green development and climate finance which ensures equitable energy transitions. India is strengthening the participation of MSMEs in International trade, thus bridging global skill gaps that is existing.

The SDGs, set of 17 goals designed to create a better world for all by 2030. They cover a wide range of issues, including poverty, hunger, health, education, gender equality, climate change, and peace and security. In this regard India is determined to reach the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) set by the United Nations in 2030, and is especially focusing on reducing the negative impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic.

India is also extensively working in the areas of promoting start-ups, financial Inclusion and building digital Infrastructure and tech-enabled development in various other sectors such as health, education and agriculture. Through G20, India is also focusing on women led development in the global space.

India is committed to improving multilateral institutions so that they are more accountable, inclusive, and representative of all countries, and better able to address the challenges of the 21st century. Thus, through presidency India is trying to transform the global trust deficit into global trust and confidence.

To offer a shared path forward and action oriented outcomes for all the G20 countries, India is committed towards promoting economic growth, timely implementation of SDGs goals, pursue low carbon emission, address various climate change issues, promote lifestyle for sustainable development (LiFE), prepare the world for better future health emergencies, pursuing reforms for multilateral development banks, providing easy access to digital financial services in the times when India is witnessing various Fintech innovations, bridging gender gap and promoting gainful employment. In pursuit of global solutions India has ensured the countries to be an integral part of global decision-making process, working unanimously and taking collaborated efforts and forming the journey of consensus which will help the global economies to participate, reform and also in transforming the aspirations of the people worldwide. Since each country of G-20 belongs to different groups and also their economy is also very different thus working together for a common cause and forming the solutions is challenging also.

The Declaration also talks about the importance of activating and nurturing supply side policies of labour supply, that will further help in accelerating and boosting growth of various economies. Apart from the government institutions, an important role of private sectors is also prioritized by the government. This will help in facilitating FDI from various sources which will promote sustainable business models.

The Delhi Declaration extensively talks about various engagement groups which forms the part of G20. Business (20) group which is a dialogue forum for business community has accepted the importance of MSMEs in emerging economy and the atmosphere for startup enterprises for wealthy ecosystem. Startups act as a catalyst for economic growth and development. Thus proving a environment and an integrated network for business would help to regain global economic power.

With regards to Financial Inclusion, India has proposed to endorse Financial Inclusion Action Plan (FIAP) which will help in improving and increasing digital financial literacy and protects the rights of consumers. India is doing fairly well when it comes to banking the unbanked, there by helping in reduction of poverty with the help of various DBTs schemes. Through the Presidency, India is also advocating the fair and responsible use of any digital innovations. The measures related to cyber security and various other risks are being carefully formulated in the polices which will increase the security at global level.

India is also affirmed in its commitment towards zero tolerance for corruption. This is in line with the article 16 of the United Nation Convention against Corruption. (UNCAC). The Declaration also talks about eliminating Hunger and Malnutrition by promoting the use of nutritious grains such as millets. This has come at a time when the Government of India has officially declared to celebrate the International Year of Millets, 2023 to make it a people's movement so that Indian millets, recipes, and value-added products are accepted globally.

Post Covid, a dire need has been emerged to make a strong and resilient health care system across the globe catering to the needs of every citizen. World Health Organization (WHO) is already working on achieving universal health coverage. In this regard Promotion of the One Health-based approach driven by the Quadripartite One Health Joint Plan of Action (2022-2026) will be given priority.

Apart from these important issues as discussed below a responsible commitment towards providing quality education, bridging skill gaps required for the industry 4.0, mitigating risk caused by climate change, green development, energy transition, sustainable finance, preserving ocean based economy, ending plastic pollution, managing global debt vulnerabilities and most importantly reforming International Financial institutions are being discussed and various action plans have been formulated.

India has witnessed a big technological change by economy getting towards digital mode. India's digital transformation has helped the economy to grow and compete at global level. The Declaration has created a need to built a safe, secure and a trust in Digital Economy. Policy regarding crypto assets and central bank digital currency have also been taken into consideration. In this regard Central Bank Digital Currencies (CBDCs) on cross-border payments as well as on the international monetary and financial system have also been adopted.

Responsible use of AI in achieving various SDGs and International Taxation is also a part of New Delhi Declaration. Bridging the gender gap for social empowerment, and reducing digital divide a major barrier of Digital Economy and driving gender inclusive climate action

plan and lastly tackling with the menace of terrorism and money laundering which is the threat to global peace are also present.

CONCLUSION

This research paper has extensively studied the role of India at global level along with the important issues and outcomes discussed in the Delhi Declaration that was unanimously accepted by the member countries. As a researcher, I believe that G20 summit will help India and the other countries to reshape its economy and create an optimistic presence at world level.

India's G20 Presidency in 2023 is a significant opportunity for the country to demonstrate its global leadership on a range of issues, including climate change, inclusive growth, healthcare, and the concerns of the Global South. India's growing economic influence, its strategic importance in global affairs, and its role in healthcare make it well-positioned to lead the G20 in addressing the world's most pressing challenges.

India's focus on inclusive growth is particularly important, as it can help to ensure that all Indians benefit from the country's economic growth. India's leadership on climate action can also help to galvanize global efforts to address this critical challenge.

As the voice of the Global South, India can use its G20 presidency to ensure that the concerns of developing countries are heard and addressed. India's role in healthcare during the COVID-19 pandemic has also demonstrated its commitment to universal, quality, and affordable health services. Overall, India's G20 Presidency in 2023 is a significant opportunity for the country to assert its global leadership and make a positive impact on the world.

India's G20 Presidency is a chance for the country to use its influence to make the world a better place for everyone. India has pledged to focus on important issues such as climate change, poverty, and inequality. It will also work to ensure that the voices of developing countries are heard in global decision-making. The world is looking to India to lead the way in creating a more sustainable and inclusive future for all.

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Analyzing the Role of Corruption in Foreign Direct Investment and Cross-country Growth in the Post Global Recession Period

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ABSTRACT

This research paper delves into the intricate relationship between corruption, foreign direct investment (FDI), and cross-country growth. Utilizing secondary data sourced from reputable repositories such as the World Bank and Transparency International, a descriptive study spanning from 2009 to 2022 has been conducted. The primary objective is to analyze the trends of FDI, Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and Corruption Perception Index (CPI) across various nations after global recession. By employing trend analysis this study aims to unveil the nuanced dynamics between corruption levels, FDI inflows, and economic growth trajectories. The findings of this research endeavor are anticipated to offer valuable insights for policymakers, investors, and stakeholders, facilitating informed decision-making processes aimed at fostering sustainable economic development and mitigating the adverse impacts of corruption on FDI and cross-country growth.

INTRODUCTION

FDI has surged in BRICS countries, driven by their growing prominence in the global arena. These nations actively compete for FDI inflows, recognizing its potential to spur economic development. The short-term correlation between FDI and economic growth is evident, as FDI injections stimulate various sectors, enhance productivity, and foster innovation. However, the long-run relationship remains more nuanced. While FDI contributes to immediate growth, sustained economic gains necessitate a comprehensive policy approach tailored to each country's unique circumstances.

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Corruption, a persistent challenge faced by BRICS nations, significantly impacts their economic prospects. The **Corruption Perception Index (CPI)**, which gauges perceived corruption levels, reveals that these countries exhibit varying degrees of corruption. Corruption undermines growth by reducing FDI inflows and exacerbating inflation. Corruption, which entails the misuse of public authority for personal gain, is a widespread issue that impacts various facets of societal and economic functioning globally. Instances of corruption encompass activities such as the illicit sale of governmental assets by public officials, bribery, misappropriation of public finances, as well as favoritism and nepotism. The Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) serves as a metric to gauge corruption levels worldwide, categorizing nations based on the extent of corruption within their public sectors. This index, in circulation since 1995, reflects the perceived degree of corruption, as evaluated through expert judgments and public opinion surveys. The primary aim of the CPI is to furnish insights into perceived corruption levels across different countries. It draws upon diverse sources utilizing varying sampling methods and analytical approaches to ensure credibility and robustness.

The role of corruption in attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and its subsequent impact on economic growth is a complex and often controversial aspect of global economic dynamics. Corruption, characterized by the abuse of public office for private gain, can have both positive and negative effects on FDI and economic growth. On one hand, countries with a perceived lower level of corruption may be more attractive to foreign investors. Transparent and accountable governance systems can provide a conducive environment for businesses, assuring investors of a fair and predictable regulatory framework. Nations with efficient and corruption-free institutions often experience increased investor confidence, which can lead to higher levels of FDI. Investors are more likely to commit resources in environments where legal and contractual agreements are upheld, reducing the risk associated with corrupt practices. Conversely, some argue that corruption can, in certain instances, grease the wheels of economic transactions and facilitate FDI.

The overall impact of corruption on economic growth is typically negative. Corruption can undermine the rule of law, erode public trust in institutions, and create an uneven playing field for businesses. The diversion of resources for personal gain rather than public welfare can result in inefficient allocation and mismanagement of economic resources. Furthermore, a high level of corruption can deter responsible and ethical investors, as it introduces uncertainty and operational risks. Investors may hesitate to engage in countries where corruption is prevalent due to concerns about fair competition, contract enforcement, and the protection of intellectual property.

In the contemporary global economic landscape, Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) plays a pivotal role in shaping the fortunes of nations, fostering economic growth, and facilitating international business collaborations. However, the relationship between FDI and corruption perception introduces a complex dynamic that warrants careful examination. The Corruption Perception Index (CPI) serves as a crucial metric, offering insights into the perceived levels of corruption

within countries. This research paper endeavors to explore the intricate interplay between FDI and corruption perception, aiming to unravel the multifaceted connections between these two phenomena. By delving into the intricate web of economic transactions and ethical considerations, this study seeks to contribute to a nuanced understanding of how corruption perception influences FDI and vice versa, shedding light on the potential consequences for economic development and global business interactions.

The **BRICS** group, comprising **Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa**, represents a significant alliance of emerging economies. These nations collectively wield substantial influence in global affairs, and their economic growth trajectories have garnered international attention. In recent decades, foreign direct investment (FDI) has played a pivotal role in shaping their economic landscapes. FDI brings with it technological advancements, employment opportunities, trade expansion, and market integration. However, alongside these positive effects, the issue of **corruption** looms large. The BRICS alliance stands at a critical juncture, balancing the promise of FDI with the imperative to combat corruption. By understanding these dynamics, policymakers can steer their economies toward prosperity while safeguarding against illicit practices.

LITERATURE REVIEW

- Podobnik et.al (2008) investigated about impact of government regulations against corruption on economic growth. They analyzed that there exists dependence on GDP per capita growth rate and changes in CPI. The study was for 1999-2004. Further he mentioned that there exists a statistically significant power-law dependence between FDI per capita and CPI.
- Begu et.al. (2019) correlated Corruption Perception Index with economic situation which is reflected by GDP and unemployment rate in their paper. This paper was all about analyzing the link between CPI, GDP and Unemployment rate for which they used factor analysis and Regression analysis for 22 countries of Europe and found that strong link exists between CPI and GDP and there is an inverse relation between GDP and unemployment rate.
- Habib and Zurawicki (2002) conducted an analysis to explore the repercussions of corruption on foreign direct investment (FDI), revealing a detrimental relationship between the two factors. Their examination scrutinized various indicators, unveiling that the extent of corruption significantly affects foreign investment decisions. Investors tend to steer clear of corrupt environments due to the potential for operational inefficiencies, indicating a discernible impact of corruption levels on FDI patterns.
- Robertson and Watson (2004) conducted an analysis on the relationship between fluctuations in foreign direct investment (FDI) levels and corruption. Their study, based on data spanning two consecutive years, reveals that a significant increase in FDI correlates with heightened levels of corruption.

- Davis and Ruhe (2003) conducted an analysis exploring the relationship between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and the perception of corruption within countries. Their findings indicate that the perceived level of corruption is notably influenced by factors such as power distance, individualism, and masculinity. Moreover, they revealed that perceived corruption exerts a substantial impact on various aspects including country risk, international trade flows, foreign investment patterns, and per capita income levels.

Prior research has extensively examined the interplay between Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI), Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) within the contexts of European and African countries. However, there exists a notable research gap concerning the representation of this relationship in developing nations, particularly those belonging to the BRICS group. To address this gap, the current paper aims to analyze the dynamics within these nations regarding the relationship between FDI, CPI, and GDP for the year 2022. By focusing on the BRICS nations, namely Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa, this study seeks to shed light on how perceived corruption, economic growth, and foreign investment interact within the unique socio-economic landscapes of these emerging economies.

OBJECTIVE

- To analyze the trend of FDI among BRICS Nations.
- To analyze the trend of GDP among BRICS Nations.
- To analyze the Corruption scores of BRICS Nations.

DATA & METHODOLOGY

The methodology employed in this paper is entirely reliant on secondary data sources. The Corruption Perception Index (CPI) data has been sourced from Transparency International, while data regarding Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has been acquired from the World Bank, reported in current billion US dollars. The study confines its analysis to the 2009 to 2022. Adopting a descriptive study approach, the research focuses specifically on the BRICS nations.

- **FDI net inflows:** FDI net inflows refer to the total amount of foreign direct investment (FDI) that enters a country during a specific period of time, typically a year, after deducting the amount of FDI that leaves the country during the same period. In other words, it represents the net flow of investment capital from foreign entities into a country's economy. FDI inflows are an important indicator of the level of foreign investment in a country and can have significant implications for economic growth, employment, and development.
- **CPI:** Countries are ranked on a scale from 0 to 100, with lower scores indicating higher corruption levels and higher scores suggesting lower levels of corruption. According

to Transparency International, the organization that publishes the CPI, the following factors can contribute to corruption:

- * Lack of transparency and accountability
- * Weak rule of law
- * Political instability
- * Poverty and inequality
- * Lack of access to information
- Economic Growth: GDP at current US\$ has been taken to analyze the level of economic growth.

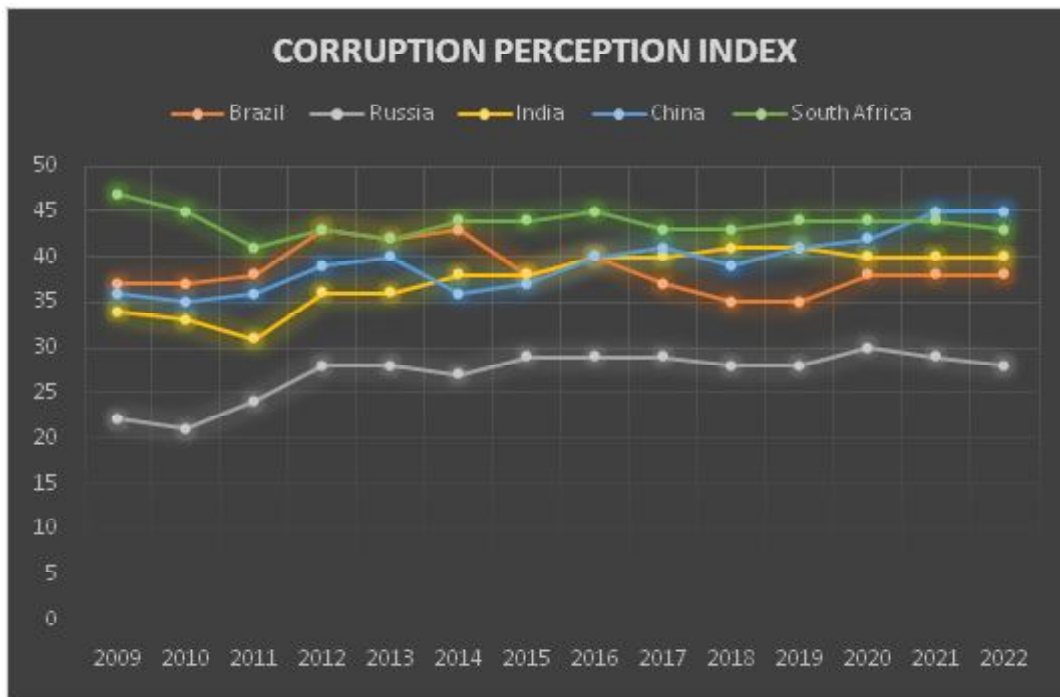
ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Brazil's score fluctuated between 35 and 43 points throughout the period, with a slight increasing trend in the later years. In 2009 and 2010, Brazil's score was 37, which indicates a high level of perceived corruption. From 2011 to 2015, Brazil's score increased to 43, suggesting a slight improvement in perceived corruption. However, since 2016, Brazil's score has been decreasing, reaching 38 in 2022. This suggests that perceived corruption is increasing again. Russia's score ranged between 21 and 30 points throughout the period, with a slight increasing trend in the later years. In 2009, Russia's score was 22, indicating a very high level of perceived corruption. From 2011 to 2014, Russia's score increased to 29, suggesting a slight improvement in perceived corruption. Since 2015, Russia's score has fluctuated between 28 and 29 points. India's score ranged between 33 and 41 points throughout the period, with a slight increasing trend in the later years. In 2009, India's score was 34, indicating a high level of perceived corruption. From 2013 to 2017, India's score increased to 41, suggesting a moderate improvement in perceived corruption. Since 2018, India's score has fluctuated between 40 and 41 points. China's score ranged between 34 and 45 points throughout the period, with a slight increasing trend in the later years. In 2009, China's score was 36, indicating a high level of perceived corruption. From 2012 to 2014, China's score increased to 40, suggesting a slight improvement in perceived corruption (fig.1). Since 2015, China's score has increased to 45 in 2022, indicating a moderate improvement in perceived corruption. South Africa's score ranged between 41 and 47 points throughout the period, with a slight decreasing trend in the later years. In 2009, South Africa's score was 47, indicating a moderate level of perceived corruption. From 2012 to 2014, South Africa's score decreased to 43, suggesting a slight worsening in perceived corruption. Since 2015, South Africa's score has fluctuated between 43 and 44 points.

Reasons for the changes in scores:

- Changes in government policies and institutions aimed at combating corruption
- Fluctuations in economic growth and development

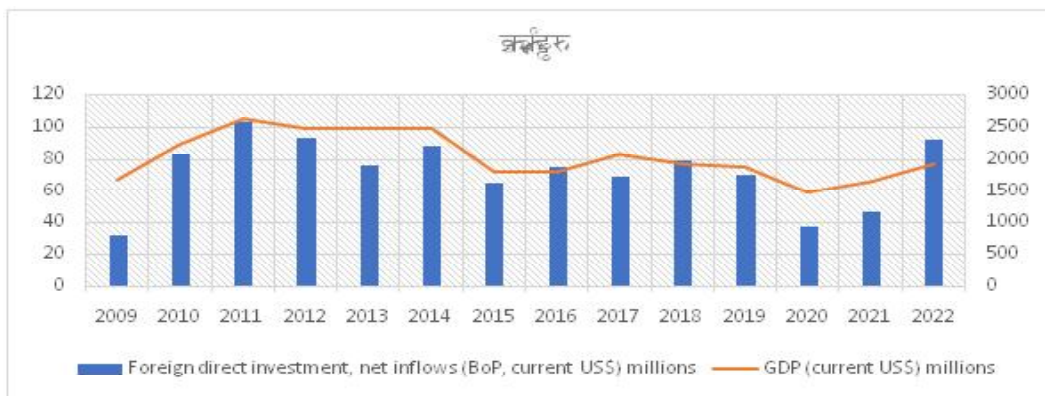
- Public opinion on the government’s handling of corruption
- Major corruption scandals



Source: Transparency International. (fig.1)

Foreign direct investment (FDI) in Brazil fluctuated significantly between 2009 and 2022, with a difference of 70.95 billion USD. Gross domestic product (GDP) also fluctuated considerably, with a difference of 1140.05 billion USD. The Corruption Perception Index (CPI) remained relatively stable, with an average score of 38.5 and a slight 1.5 point decrease since 2009.

The Corruption Perception Index (CPI) is a measure of the perceived level of corruption in a country. A higher CPI score indicates a lower level of perceived corruption. Brazil’s CPI score has remained relatively stable over the past decade, with an average score of 38.5. However, there have been some fluctuations, and the score has declined slightly since 2009 (fig.2).



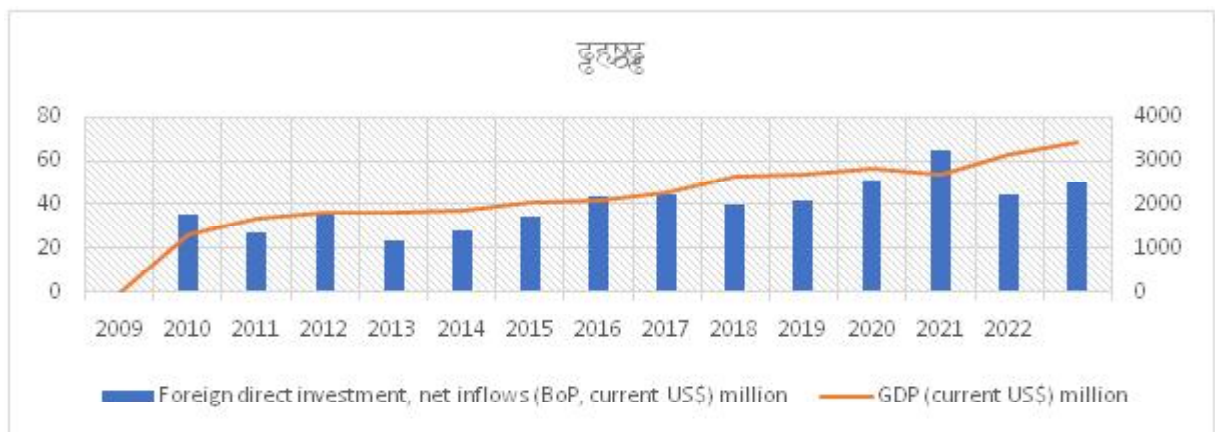
Source: World Bank Data. (fig.2)

FDI in Russia fluctuated significantly between 2009 and 2022, ranging from a high of \$55.08 billion in 2011 to a low of -\$40.04 billion in 2022. The 2014 annexation of Crimea and the subsequent sanctions imposed by Western countries significantly impacted FDI, leading to a sharp decline in inflows. The recovery in oil prices in 2017 and 2018 led to a modest increase in FDI, but this was short-lived. The COVID-19 pandemic and the ongoing war in Ukraine have further dampened FDI in Russia. Russia's GDP also fluctuated during the period, but to a lesser extent than FDI. It reached a high of \$2,292.47 billion in 2013 and a low of \$1,276.79 billion in 2016. The decline in GDP in 2014-2016 was due to a combination of factors, including the annexation of Crimea, the sanctions, and the fall in oil prices. The Russian economy has since recovered somewhat, but growth has been slow (fig.3). Russia's CPI score ranged between 28 and 38 points throughout the period, with a slight increasing trend in the later years. Russia's score is still considered to be low, suggesting that corruption is a significant problem in the country.



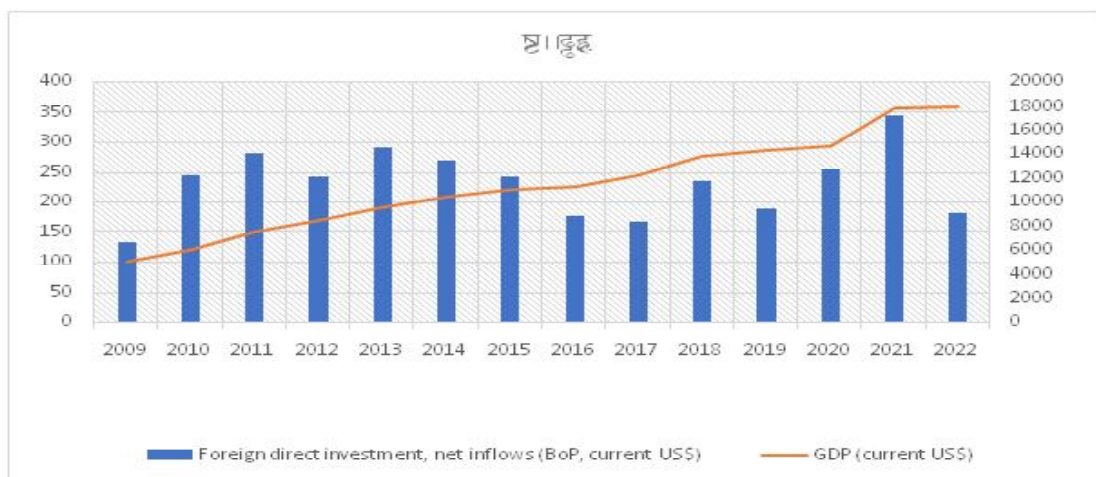
Source: World Bank Data. (fig.3)

FDI in India fluctuated between 2009 and 2022, with a high of \$50.61 billion in 2019 and a low of \$23.99 billion in 2012. India’s relatively high Corruption Perception Index score (ranging from 33 to 41 on a scale of 0 to 100, with 0 being the most corrupt) may also be a factor deterring some foreign investors. India’s GDP also fluctuated between 2009 and 2022, ranging from a low of \$1,341.88 billion in 2009 to a high of \$3,416.65 billion in 2022 (fig.4).



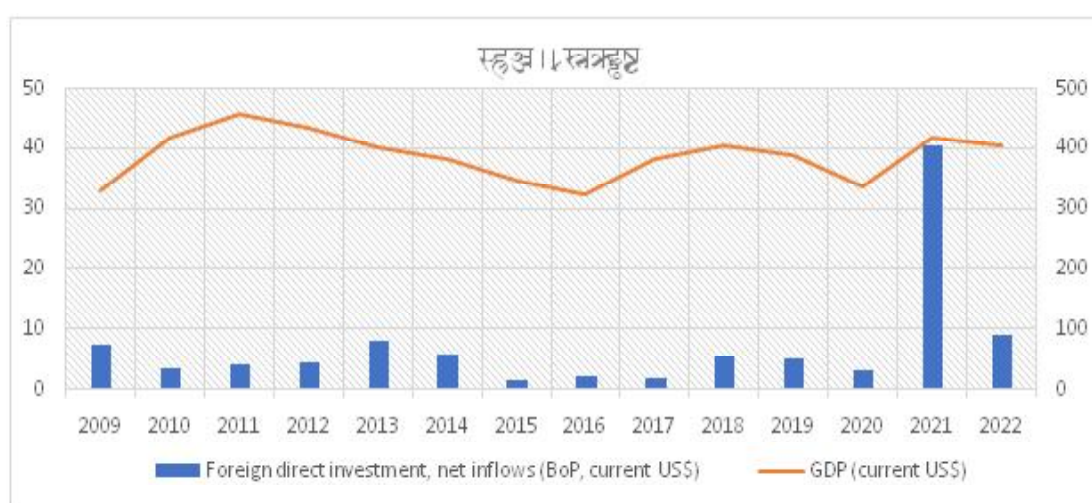
Source: World Bank Data. (fig.4)

China’s FDI fluctuated between 2009 and 2022, with a high of \$344,075 million in 2021 and a low of \$131,057 million in 2009. China’s GDP also fluctuated between 2009 and 2022, ranging from a low of \$5,101.69 billion in 2009 to a high of \$17,963.17 billion in 2022. China’s CPI score has improved from 36 in 2009 to 45 in 2022 (fig.5).



Source: World Bank Data. (fig.5)

South Africa's FDI fluctuated between 2009 and 2022, with a high of \$40,659 million in 2021 and a low of \$1,521 million in 2015. South Africa's GDP also fluctuated between 2009 and 2022, ranging from a low of \$338,291 million in 2020 to a high of \$458,199 million in 2011. South Africa's CPI score has declined from 47 in 2009 to 43 in 2022. A higher CPI score indicates a lower level of perceived corruption (fig.6). While South Africa's CPI score is still in the moderate range, the decline in recent years suggests that corruption is perceived as an increasing problem in the country.



Source: World Bank Data. (fig.6)

CONCLUSION

Across the BRICS nations, a complex interplay exists between Corruption Perception Index (CPI), Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), and Gross Domestic Product (GDP). While the data reveals fluctuations in both FDI and GDP, a definitive correlation with CPI is challenging to establish. Generally, higher CPI scores (indicating lower perceived corruption) tend to coincide with increased FDI and stronger GDP growth. This aligns with studies suggesting a one-point CPI rise translates to a 0.5% GDP per capita increase. However, other factors like global economic conditions and domestic policies also play significant roles. Looking at trends, China stands out with consistent FDI growth despite a moderate CPI score, possibly due to its proactive efforts to attract foreign investment. In contrast, South Africa's declining CPI coincides with its sluggish FDI and GDP, suggesting potential deterrence from rising perceived corruption. However, in case of Brazil the stable CPI scores suggest that corruption might not be the primary driver of fluctuations in FDI and GDP during this period. The data does not show a clear correlation between FDI/GDP fluctuations and changes in the CPI of India. This could suggest that factors other than corruption play a more significant role in influencing FDI and GDP trends in India.

Overall, while a direct cause-and-effect relationship is difficult to pinpoint, the data suggests a possible link between lower corruption and better economic performance for BRICS nations. Addressing corruption could be a strategic lever for attracting FDI and boosting their growth trajectories.

It is important to note that the CPI is a perception-based index, and the scores do not necessarily reflect the actual level of corruption in a country. However, the CPI can provide valuable insights into how corruption is perceived by the public and how it may change over time. More research is needed to determine whether there is a causal relationship between corruption and FDI or GDP. However, the available evidence suggests that there may be a link.

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A Relational Study Between Exchange Rate and Inflation Rate; A Study in Indian Context with Time Series Analysis

Dr. Sadhna Singh, Pranjal Khetan & Tapan Sahu

ABSTRACT: -

This research paper employs time series analysis to investigate the dynamic relationship between exchange rates and inflation over a specified time period. The study aims to provide insights into the interplay of these economic indicators and their impact on overall economic stability. Utilizing advanced statistical techniques, the paper explores patterns, trends, and potential causal relationships between exchange rates and inflation, contributing to a deeper understanding of the intricate dynamics within the global economic landscape.

INTRODUCTION:-

The two most crucial factors in determining a nation's macroeconomic performance are its exchange rate and inflation. Increases in the cost of goods and services as well as foreign exchange are two significant factors that are thought to be in charge of these uneven swings in economic growth. Since the 1970s, the nature of price volatility has become a key cause for concern in all countries. The problem is particularly severe in developing nations, where "imported inflation," or inflation from outside the country, is thought to be the primary cause of "domestic inflation," rendering domestic inflation control measures ineffectual. The 1980s saw a persistent decline in both inflation and currency value, which would seem to indicate a relationship between the two.

Based on magnitude, inflation can be classified into four types: creeping, walking, running and hyperinflation. The biggest threat to any country's chances for economic progress is a rising rate of inflation, which diminishes the value of saving and investing by undermining the real value of money. Such deterioration undermines the ability of the economy to create wealth by impeding company and investment planning. Poverty rates rise as a result of the high rates of inflation that are now in place and have a detrimental effect on the nation's low-wage

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workers and those on fixed incomes. Due to legal restrictions on foreign exchange transactions and high demand for foreign currencies, economic agents consequently frequently turn to foreign currencies as a self-defence mechanism. This action eventually leads to widespread unofficial dollarization and black exchange markets.

The country's choice of exchange rate regime determines how the exchange rate affects inflation in and of itself. The overall economy will be greatly impacted by changes in the exchange rate. Exchange rate variations in a floating exchange rate system can exert a significant influence on the level of prices by means of the aggregate supply (As) and demand (AD). Depreciation (devaluation) of domestic currency on the whole supply can have a direct impact on the level of prices through imported items that are paid for by domestic customers.

This criterion, however, only applies if the nation is one that receives international prices. The price of capital goods is one indicator of the non-direct impact of currency depreciation (devaluation) versus the level of national prices.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: -

1-The Purchasing Power Parity Theory: - It was given by prof. Gustavo Cassel (1920).; the equilibrium exchange rate between two inconvertible paper currency is determined by the equality of the relative change in the relative prices in the two countries.

2-The Overshooting Theory: -Relationship between inflation and exchange rates is the explained by Dornbusch (1987). He claims thatit created an econometric model and looked at how prices were affected by currency rates. Other works have been based on the work of Dornbusch (Kasapođlu, 2007; Brooks, 2002). Dornbusch discussed market density, import volume, import substitute, and domestic production channels while analysing the connection between exchange rate and domestic pricing.

3-One of the functions of the exchange rate in the monetary transmission mechanism is stated by Svensson (2000): -In an open economy, fluctuations in exchange rates impact the relative costs of domestic and foreign goods, which in turn drives demand for domestic goods from both home and foreign sources. Therefore, net exports have an impact on both the indirect inflation rate and overall demand. Conversely, the prices of the final items that are imported in terms of national currencies are directly impacted by fluctuations in the exchange rate. As such, it has a direct impact on the index of consumer prices.

REVIEW OF LTERATURE: -

The inflation has its own one, two, and three-lag values. This situation demonstrates the importance of inflationary expectations in the Iranian economy. The growth in the period t's exchange rate is accompanied by an increase in the inflation rate. It is clear that the exchange rates of the one and six periods before the t-period had an impact on inflation as well;(Sanam Shojaeipour and monafared and Fetullah khan ,2017).The causal relationship between inflation and exchange rates using annual data for Zimbabwe from 1980 to 2007showed that Zimbabwe's

exchange rate and inflation have not gotten nearly as much attention as they should, even while industrialized countries were doing very significant quantities of research. The analysis showed that while developed nations were conducting an increasing quantity of research, little focus was placed on the topic of whether or not there is a causal relationship between inflation and exchange rates. There exists a unidirectional causality between inflation and exchange rate and this can be used to develop policies that can control direct effect of exchange rate on inflation ;(Wellington madesha, Clarinos chidoko and James zivanomoyo,2013).The relationship between Turkey's inflation and the exchange rate (as indicated by the rates of the pound and the lira) in the essay where empirical test widely used in Turkey, most of them use inflation as a dependent variable that is both in the US and in Turkey, away from this pattern by using the UK inflation rate and, as a result, the TL/Pound exchange rate is obtained. The results, however, generally concur with the corpus of earlier research. The OLS method was unable to locate PPP. The PPP deviations appear to follow a pattern rather than being random, as indicated by the inclusion of GARCH and ARCH in the link. Therefore, we the PPP variance could be caused by a few factors, such as transaction cost etc;(Abderezak Ali Abdurrahman and Samet Hacilar,2016).Based on available information, India's de facto regime has demonstrated a significant deal of stability despite its official claim to have transitioned from a relatively fixed currency rate system to a managed float regime. This is the outcome of the central bank's major involvement to manage the volatility of the currency rate. Because a stable exchange rate limits the variables that affect inflation, like the money supply and demand, it is believed to be less inflationary than a more flexible system. The literature on evaluating the optimal exchange rate regime for the repercussions of inflation lends support to this. In order to determine if the stability of currency rates under the so-called managed float regime has contributed to decreased inflation. (Biswajit Mohanty and N R Bhanumurthy,2014).

DATA and METHODOLOGY: -

DATA COLLECTION: -The data collected is secondary in nature and has been collected through the RBI statistics on Indian economy. The data taken are annually and average of their respective areas. The inflation rate is taken (as measured) in CPI which is combined and average per year from 2011-12 to 2022-23 financial year. The exchange rate is taken as ENDYEAR EXCHANGE RATE per year over a period from 2011-12 to 2022-23 financial year.

financial year	EXCHANGE RATE	INDEX
2011-12	51.16	93.3
2012-13	54.39	102.5
2013-14	60.1	112.2
2014-15	62.59	118.9
2015-16	66.33	124.7
2016-17	64.84	130.3
2017-18	65.04	135
2018-19	69.17	139.6
2019-20	75.39	146.3
2020-21	73.5	155.3
2021-22	75.81	163.8
2022-23	82.22	174.7

Source- RBI STATISTICS ON INDIAN ECONOMY

SNO	STATISTICS OF DATA	EXCHANGE RATE	CPI
1	NO. OF OBSEVATION	12	12
2	FREQUENCY	1	1
3	MEAN	66.71166667	133.05
4	MEDIAN	65.685	132.65
5	MODE	#N/A	#N/A
6	SKEWNESS	-0.077797785	0.082232713
7	KURTOSIS	-0.446989543	-0.650573305
8	MAXIMUM	82.22	174.7
9	MINIMUM	51.16	93.3
10	RANGE	31.06	81.4
11	IST QUARTILE	60.7225	113.875
12	IIIRD QUARTILE	74.9175	153.05
13	STANDARD DEVIATION	8.715645734	23.49327918

STATISTICAL DESCRIPTION OF DATA

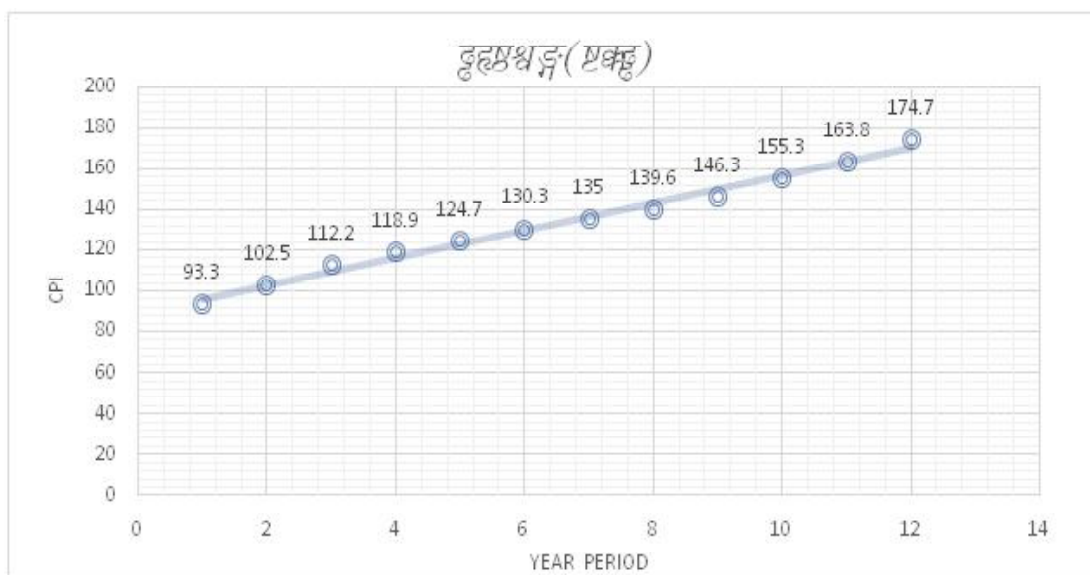
METHODOLOGY: -This is divided into two sections viz forecasting and regression analysis of the timeseriesdata. EXEL and the R SOFTWARE has been used for the same.

VARIABLES USED: INDEX for CPI or Inflation and EXRATE for the Exchange Rate.

A—THE FORECASTING OF TIMESERIES DATA: we have used two methods to forecast our timeseries data i.e. the inflation and the exchange rate. There has been a significant rise in both the variables over the observed time period which is firstly presented as a trend

analysis plot using the EXCEL software and the we have done the econometric analysis using the R SOFTWARE.

1- THE TREND ANALYSIS: -



The above two graphs (plots) are the simple representations of the inflationary and exchange rate conditions of India which is observed to be rising significantly over the observed time period (2011-12 to 2022-23). We can clearly see that the two variables are very

fairly (without much drifts or disturbances) rising which helps us to understand or predict that the futuristic nature is some what going to be the same

(rising in nature) and therefore the Government is sought to be very careful regarding the control/management /maintenance of these two very important macroeconomic variables.

2-THE ECONOMETRIC FORECASTING: -the ARIMA model of the forecasting techniques has been used to generate the equations of the two variables which include their autoregressive variables (if any)and themoving average residuals (error term with their lags if any). For the time series analysis, it is first necessary to make the series stationary so we have used the ADF Test for checking the stationarity of the series and the method of differencing to make them stationary.

2.A—THE ADF TEST and STATIONARITY: -When the ADF test was applied to both the time series data(separately) it was observed that both the series are nonstationary therefore the first-rounddifferencing was done and the ADF testeconducted, still the series were non stationary and hence a second-round differencing was done and the ADF test concluded the stationarity of the two series this time.

The ADF test utilises the p- value to check the stationarity of the series. If the p- value lies within 5% acceptance region the we conclude that the null hypothesis is accepted and the series is called stationary.

variable	coefficient	lag -order	p -value	result
INDEX	-0.8981	2	0.9356	NON-STATIONARY
EXRATE	-1.9265	2	0.6004	NON-STATIONARY

HYPOTHESIS: Ho= the series is stationary: p -value <5 %

Ha= the series is non stationary: p-value >5%

Results of ADF test on non-stationary series...

Both the series are found to be non-stationary hence we do the first differencing and then reconduct the ADF testwhich again finds the series to be non-stationary.

Results of ADF test after first differencing.....

variable	coefficient	lag -order	p -value	result
INDEX	-0.31819	2	0.9828	NON-STATIONARY
EXRATE	-1.8054	2	0.6465	NON-STATIONARY

We can still see that series are non-stationary hence we go for second round of differencing and then re conduct the ADF test. The results declared the series to be stationary.

Results of ADF test after second round of differencing....

variable	coefficient	lag -order	p -value	result
INDEX	-8.3889	2	0.01	STATIONARY at 2 DIFFERENCE
EXRATE	-3.9234	2	0.0269	STATIONARY at 2 DIFFERENCE

2.B—THE ARIMA MODEL: -The Autoregressive Integrated Moving Averages Model has the form as Arima (p, d, q) where p = number of auto regressing lag variables, d is the level of integration and the q is the number of moving averages (error term with its lags). The best fitted model for the forecasting is obtained by the use R software with the following results....

Results of ARIMA testing on INDEX and EXRATE.....

VARIABLE	: INDEX	
ARIMA MODEL	ARIMA (1, 1, 0) with drift	
	AUTOREGRESSIVE VARIABLE	DRIFT
COEFFICIENTS	0.7248	8.2581
STANDARD ERROR	0.2116	1.4913
σ^2	= 2.779	
log likelihood	=-20.5	
	AI C=46.99	AI Cc=50.42 BIC=48.19

Seri es:	EXRATE		
AI MA MODEL	ARIMA (0, 1, 0) with drift		
	drift	AR	MA
Coeffi ci ents:	2.8236	0	0
STANDARTD ERROR	0.8308	0	0
$\sigma^2 = 8.353$: LOG likelihood = -26.76		
AI C=57.52 AI Cc=59.02 BI C=58.31			

THE ARIMA EQUATIONS: -Having obtained the best fitting models for the forecasting we are now in position to give the equations for both the time series variables

1-The INDEX or the inflation series is integrated at 1 and has 1 auto regressing variable but no moving average variable and it also has one drift parameter. The AIC and BIC is minimum for this model making it as the best fitted model

The coefficients are ... coff of AR =0.7248 and coff of DP =8.2581

The AIC =46.99 and BIC =48.19 and I = 1; Thus, or equation is

$$INDEX_t = 8.2581 + 0.7248INDEX_{t-1} + U_t$$

2-The EXRATE or the exchange rate series is integrated at 1 and has 0 auto regressor variables and 0 moving average variables and has only 1 drift parameter.

The coefficients are ...0 for AR and MA and Coff of DP =2.8236

THE AIC =57.52 and BIC = 58.31 and I =1; thus, our equation is

$$EXRATE_t = 2.8236 + U_t$$

B —THE REGRESSION OF TIME SERIES DATA: -Now we move towards the main focus of our literature and establish a relation between our considered variables INDEX and EXRATE i.e. the relation between the inflation and the exchange rate. We have established the causality or the direction of causality and found that it is a unidirectional causality with exchange rate causing the changes in the inflation rate. The granger causality test has been used to establish the direction of causality and then the Cointegration test has been conducted which showed that the series are cointegrated i.e. They have a long run relationship between them and that there is no spurious regression being made.

B.1—THE GRANGER CAUSALITY TEST: -The granger causality test is used to determine the causality between the exchange rate and inflation rate for India and it discloses that this is a unidirectional causality where the exchange rate is causing the inflation rate changes in India thus the government has to focus very acutely on the exchange rate to curb the inflation degradation in India.

HYPOTHESIS 1: -Ho= INDEX is not Granger causing EXRATE: p- value<5%

Ha= INDEX Granger cause EXRATE: p-value>5%

HYPOTHESIS 2: -Ho=EXRATE is not Granger causing INDEX: p-value<5%

Ha=EXRATE does Granger cause INDEX: p-value>5%

Result of the granger causality test....

HYPOTHESIS	F -STATISTICS	p-value	RESULT
HYPOTHESIS 1	26.298	0.01253	NULL HYPOTHESIS ACCEPTED
HYPOTHESIS2	0.7996	0.5268	NULL HYPOTHESIS REJECTED

.....The test established that EXRATE is causing the INDEX i.e. a unidirectional causality is present between inflation and exchange rate.

B.2—THE COINTEGRATION TEST: The Cointegration test has been conducted that established the long-term relationship between the INDEX and EXRATE and that they are not the spuriously regressed.

The test utilised the test statistics and found the value to be greater than 1.95 (value taken in absolute term) and established the cointegration between the two series. The residuals of the nonstationary series were found to be stationary which shows that the two series are cointegrated.

TEST STATISTICS	VALUE
intercept	-42.8631
EXRATE	2.6369
F STAT	222.5
STANDARD ERROR	5.338
ADJUSTED R SQUARED	0.9527
DEGREE OF FREEDOM	10
p-value	3.69E-08

Results of the cointegration test

TEST STATISTICS	VALUE
p-value	0.003694
ADJUSTED R SQUARED	0.6918
F STAT	12.22
1 %acceptance	-2.66
5%acceptance	-1.95
10%acceptance	-1.61
test statistics	-4.8499

.... The test declared that the two series are cointegrated and that we could carry the direct regression and find out the equation (cointegration equation)

Results of the regression conducted between INDEX and EXRATE...

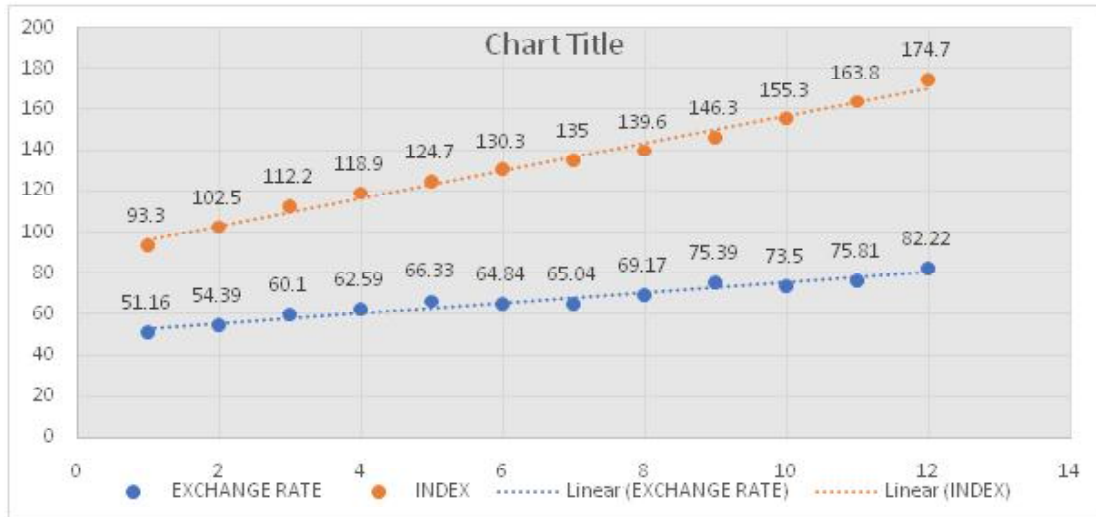
.....The regression provided the intercept coefficient =-42.8631 and coefficient of exrate =2.6369, thus the equation between INDEX and EXRATE is given as

$$\text{EQUATION:-INDEX}_t = -42.8631 + 2.6369\text{EXRATE}_t + U_t$$

CONCLUSION: -After conducting all the granger causality test and the cointegration test we have observed that the inflation rate of INDIA is altered or affected by its exchange rate situations. There is a unidirectional and fair causality between the exchange rate and inflation rate which means that government should be able to have prudent eyes on the exchange rate so as to keep its inflationary situation maintained and prevent it from rising abruptly. The trend analysis (graph) had revealed clean rise in both variables over the observed period of time thus it is suggested that policy makers should emphasise on this relationship (established in our literature) and work in right direction to have proper economic growth of nation.

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2 Assistant. Prof., Gazi University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences The Relationship Between Exchange Rates and Inflation: The Case of Iran By Sanam Shojaeipour Monfared¹, Fetullah Ak¹ⁿ²
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Exploring the Impact of Digitalization on Global Trade: Opportunities, Challenges, and Policy Implications

Deepak Kumar

Abstract:

The digitalization of global trade has emerged as a transformative force shaping the economic, technological, and policy landscapes of the 21st century. This paper provides a comprehensive exploration of the multifaceted impact of digitalization on trade dynamics, examining opportunities, challenges, and policy implications for stakeholders worldwide. Key findings include significant regional variations in digital trade adoption, with advanced economies reaping benefits while developing regions face barriers related to inadequate infrastructure and regulatory constraints. Micro-level impacts on SMEs and informal sector workers reveal both opportunities for market expansion and challenges related to digital divides and inequalities. Despite these challenges, digital trade holds promise for advancing sustainable development goals, promoting inclusive growth, and fostering ethical and responsible business practices. Addressing regulatory challenges and policy responses requires greater regulatory coherence, international cooperation, and stakeholder engagement. Looking ahead, research on the impact of digitalization on global trade will remain relevant in navigating accelerating technological advancements and societal transformations towards a future where digital trade serves as a driver of inclusive growth and resilience.

Keywords: *Digital trade, global trade, digitalization, regional variations, SMEs, sustainable development goals, regulatory challenges, policy implications.*

Introduction:

In recent decades, the world has witnessed an unprecedented transformation in trade dynamics, primarily catalysed by the advent of digitalization. The integration of digital technologies into various aspects of trade has revolutionized the way businesses operate, connect, and compete in the global marketplace. From e-commerce platforms facilitating cross-border transactions to advanced data analytics optimizing supply chain management, the digital revolution

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has reshaped traditional trade practices and opened up new avenues for economic growth and development.

This paper embarks on a comprehensive exploration of the multifaceted impact of digitalization on global trade. By delving into the opportunities, challenges, and policy implications associated with this transformative phenomenon, we aim to provide insights that are crucial for policymakers, businesses, and stakeholders navigating the evolving landscape of international trade.

The digitalization of trade presents a myriad of opportunities that extend across various dimensions. Firstly, it has significantly lowered the barriers to entry for businesses, particularly small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), enabling them to participate in global trade more easily. E-commerce platforms have democratized access to global markets, allowing businesses to reach a broader customer base without the need for substantial physical infrastructure or resources. Moreover, digital technologies have streamlined trade processes, reducing transaction costs, enhancing efficiency, and facilitating smoother cross-border transactions.

Furthermore, digitalization has fuelled innovation and entrepreneurship, giving rise to new business models and market opportunities. The proliferation of digital platforms has created avenues for peer-to-peer trade, collaborative consumption, and the monetization of digital assets, fostering a more inclusive and dynamic global trade ecosystem. Additionally, digital technologies such as blockchain hold the potential to revolutionize trade finance, supply chain management, and regulatory compliance, further enhancing transparency, security, and trust in global trade transactions.

However, alongside these opportunities, the digitalization of trade also brings forth a host of challenges and complexities that must be addressed. One of the foremost concerns is the digital divide, which exacerbates existing inequalities between technologically advanced and developing countries. Access to reliable internet infrastructure, digital literacy, and cybersecurity capabilities remain unevenly distributed, limiting the ability of certain regions and demographics to fully capitalize on the benefits of digital trade.

Moreover, the rapid pace of technological change poses challenges in terms of regulatory frameworks and governance mechanisms. Traditional trade rules and policies may struggle to keep pace with the evolving nature of digital trade, leading to regulatory gaps, jurisdictional conflicts, and issues related to data privacy and protection. Additionally, the rise of digital monopolies and platform dominance raises antitrust concerns, necessitating robust regulatory interventions to ensure fair competition and market access for all stakeholders.

In light of these opportunities and challenges, policymakers are confronted with the task of formulating effective strategies and policies to harness the potential of digitalization while mitigating its associated risks. This paper will critically evaluate existing trade policies and regulatory frameworks in the context of digital trade, identifying areas for reform and innovation. Moreover, we will explore the role of international cooperation and multilateral institutions in shaping the future of digital trade governance and standard-setting.

In summary, the digitalization of global trade represents a paradigm shift with far-reaching implications for economic growth, development, and sustainability. By examining the opportunities, challenges, and policy implications inherent in this transformative process, this paper seeks to contribute to a deeper understanding of the complex interplay between technology and trade in the 21st century.

Literature Review:

The digitalization of global trade has been a subject of extensive scholarly inquiry, with researchers from various disciplines exploring its implications across economic, technological, and policy dimensions.

Economic Impacts of Digital Trade: Numerous studies have examined the economic implications of digitalization for international trade flows, productivity, and competitiveness. Research by Baldwin (2016) highlights how digital technologies, particularly e-commerce platforms, have enabled SMEs to participate more actively in global value chains, thereby fostering economic diversification and job creation. Similarly, World Bank reports such as “World Development Report 2016: Digital Dividends” underscore the role of digital trade in driving inclusive growth and poverty reduction, especially in developing countries. Furthermore, empirical studies by Eaton and Kortum (2019) and Freund and Weinhold (2020) provide evidence of the positive correlation between digital connectivity and trade expansion, emphasizing the importance of digital infrastructure and regulatory frameworks in facilitating trade integration.

Technological Transformations in Trade: The advent of digital technologies has revolutionized various aspects of trade operations, including supply chain management, logistics, and payment systems. Research by Lee et al. (2017) explores the role of blockchain technology in enhancing transparency and trust in global supply chains, reducing transaction costs and mitigating risks associated with fraud and counterfeiting. Moreover, studies by Arvis et al. (2018) and UNCTAD (2021) delve into the potential of artificial intelligence (AI) and big data analytics to optimize trade processes, improve forecasting accuracy, and enhance market intelligence. These technological innovations not only increase efficiency and competitiveness but also raise important policy questions regarding data governance, intellectual property rights, and cybersecurity.

Policy Implications and Regulatory Challenges: The digitalization of trade poses significant challenges for policymakers in terms of regulatory harmonization, consumer protection, and privacy rights. Research by Mattoo et al. (2018) examines the role of trade agreements and regulatory coherence mechanisms in addressing these challenges, emphasizing the need for international cooperation and standardization. Furthermore, studies by WTO (2020) and OECD (2019) shed light on emerging policy issues such as data localization requirements, digital taxation, and platform liability, highlighting the tensions between national sovereignty and global interoperability. Moreover, scholars like Maskus (2018) advocate for a forward-looking approach to trade policy that embraces digitalization while safeguarding against potential risks such as market concentration and algorithmic bias.

Inclusive and Sustainable Trade: A growing body of literature focuses on the potential of digital trade to promote inclusive development and sustainability objectives. Research by UNCTAD (2019) explores how digital platforms can facilitate access to finance, market information, and skills training for marginalized groups, empowering women entrepreneurs and rural communities. Moreover, studies by Sachs and Schmidt-Traub (2018) and Stiglitz (2019) highlight the role of digital innovation in advancing the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly in areas such as healthcare, education, and environmental conservation. However, scholars also caution against the digital divide and the risk of exacerbating inequalities without targeted policy interventions to ensure equitable access to digital technologies and benefits.

Research Gap:

Despite the wealth of literature on the impact of digitalization on global trade, several research gaps persist, pointing to areas that warrant further investigation and scholarly attention:

Regional Variations in Digital Trade Adoption: While existing studies provide valuable insights into the overall trends and patterns of digital trade, there is a need for more granular analysis that examines regional variations in adoption rates, regulatory frameworks, and socio-economic impacts. Research could explore how factors such as income levels, institutional capacity, and technological infrastructure shape the diffusion of digital technologies and their implications for trade dynamics across different regions.

Micro-level Impacts on SMEs and Informal Sector: Many studies focus on the macroeconomic implications of digital trade, overlooking the micro-level impacts on SMEs, informal sector workers, and vulnerable populations. Future research could employ qualitative methodologies such as case studies and surveys to examine how digitalization affects the competitiveness, resilience, and livelihoods of small-scale traders and entrepreneurs, particularly in developing countries and emerging markets.

Digital Trade and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs): While there is growing recognition of the potential of digital technologies to advance sustainable development objectives, empirical research on the nexus between digital trade and specific SDGs remains limited. Further investigation is needed to assess the contribution of digital trade to poverty alleviation, gender equality, environmental sustainability, and other SDG targets, as well as the potential trade-offs and unintended consequences associated with digitalization.

Regulatory Challenges and Policy Responses: While scholars have identified regulatory challenges arising from the digitalization of trade, there is a lack of consensus on effective policy responses to address these challenges. Future research could explore alternative regulatory approaches, such as regulatory sandboxes, self-regulatory initiatives, and international standards-setting mechanisms, and assess their efficacy in promoting innovation, competition, and consumer welfare in the digital economy.

Ethical and Social Implications of Digital Trade: Despite increasing concerns about data privacy, algorithmic bias, and digital labor rights, empirical research on the ethical and social implications of digital trade remains limited. Research could investigate how digitalization shapes power dynamics, social relations, and cultural practices in the context of global trade, as well as the potential risks of digital exclusion, surveillance, and exploitation for marginalized groups and vulnerable communities.

Objectives for the study:

➤ **To Analyze Regional Variations in Digital Trade Adoption:** This objective aims to assess the regional disparities in the adoption of digital technologies for trade purposes, examining factors such as income levels, technological infrastructure, and regulatory environments. By conducting comparative analyses across different regions, the study seeks to identify patterns of digital trade adoption and understand the underlying drivers and barriers.

➤ **To Investigate Micro-level Impacts on SMEs and Informal Sector:** This objective focuses on understanding the micro-level impacts of digitalization on small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and informal sector workers engaged in trade activities. Through qualitative research methods such as case studies and surveys, the study aims to elucidate how digital technologies affect the competitiveness, resilience, and livelihoods of these actors, particularly in developing countries and marginalized communities.

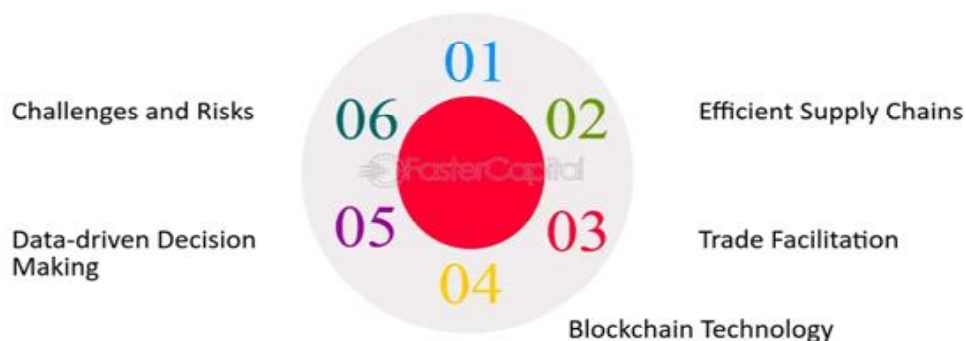
➤ **To Assess the Contribution of Digital Trade to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs):** This objective seeks to evaluate the role of digital trade in advancing specific Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), such as poverty alleviation, gender equality, and environmental sustainability. By conducting empirical analyses and impact assessments, the study aims to identify the positive and negative synergies between digitalization and SDG outcomes, as well as potential trade-offs and unintended consequences.

➤ **To Examine Regulatory Challenges and Policy Responses:** This objective focuses on analyzing the regulatory challenges arising from the digitalization of trade and evaluating alternative policy responses to address them. Through comparative legal analysis and policy evaluations, the study aims to assess the effectiveness of different regulatory approaches, such as regulatory sandboxes, self-regulatory initiatives, and international standards-setting mechanisms, in promoting innovation, competition, and consumer welfare in the digital economy.

➤ **To Investigate Ethical and Social Implications of Digital Trade:** This objective aims to explore the ethical and social implications of digital trade, including issues related to data privacy, algorithmic bias, and digital labor rights. Through qualitative research methods such as interviews and focus groups, the study seeks to understand how digitalization shapes power dynamics, social relations, and cultural practices in the context of global trade, as well as the potential risks of digital exclusion, surveillance, and exploitation for marginalized groups and vulnerable communities.

How Digitalization is Shaping Global Trade

Enhanced Connectivity



Findings and Suggestions:

1- Regional Variations in Digital Trade Adoption: The research reveals significant regional disparities in the adoption of digital technologies for trade purposes. Developed regions such as North America and Western Europe exhibit higher levels of digital trade integration, driven by advanced technological infrastructure, favorable regulatory environments, and higher levels of digital literacy among businesses and consumers. In contrast, developing regions in Africa, Latin America, and parts of Asia face challenges related to inadequate internet connectivity, limited access to digital payment systems, and regulatory barriers, hindering their participation in digital trade.

2- Micro-level Impacts on SMEs and Informal Sector: The study uncovers mixed findings regarding the micro-level impacts of digitalization on SMEs and informal sector workers engaged in trade activities. While digital technologies offer opportunities for market expansion, cost reduction, and process optimization, SMEs and informal traders face challenges related to digital skills gaps, cybersecurity risks, and digital exclusion. Moreover, the digitization of trade may exacerbate inequalities, as larger firms with greater resources are better positioned to leverage digital technologies for competitive advantage.

3- Contribution of Digital Trade to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs): The research identifies the potential of digital trade to contribute to specific SDGs, particularly those related to economic growth, innovation, and access to markets and information. E-commerce platforms and digital marketplaces facilitate inclusive growth by providing opportunities for women entrepreneurs, rural communities, and marginalized groups to access global markets and financial services. However, the study also highlights the need for targeted policy interventions

to address digital divides, ensure data privacy and security, and mitigate negative environmental impacts associated with increased digital consumption and electronic waste generation.

4- Regulatory Challenges and Policy Responses: The findings underscore the complex regulatory challenges arising from the digitalization of trade, including issues related to data governance, intellectual property rights, and cross-border taxation. Existing regulatory frameworks often struggle to keep pace with technological advancements, leading to regulatory fragmentation, jurisdictional conflicts, and uncertainty for businesses and consumers. The study suggests the need for greater regulatory harmonization, international cooperation, and stakeholder engagement to develop flexible and adaptive regulatory approaches that balance innovation with consumer protection, privacy rights, and fair competition.

5- Ethical and Social Implications of Digital Trade: The research highlights ethical dilemmas and social tensions associated with the digitalization of trade, including concerns about data privacy, algorithmic bias, and digital labor rights. While digital technologies offer opportunities for empowerment and inclusion, they also raise questions about power asymmetries, social inequality, and cultural homogenization. The study emphasizes the importance of ethical guidelines, human rights frameworks, and stakeholder engagement processes to ensure that digital trade policies and practices align with societal values and norms, promote diversity and inclusion, and uphold human dignity and well-being.

Suggestions:

1- Promoting Digital Inclusion and Capacity Building: Policymakers should prioritize initiatives to enhance digital literacy, skills development, and access to affordable internet connectivity, particularly in underserved regions and marginalized communities. Public-private partnerships, educational programs, and infrastructure investments can help bridge the digital divide and empower SMEs and informal sector workers to participate more effectively in digital trade.

2- Fostering Regulatory Cooperation and Standards Setting: Governments, international organizations, and industry stakeholders should collaborate to develop interoperable regulatory frameworks, standards, and best practices for digital trade. Harmonizing data protection regimes, simplifying customs procedures, and facilitating cross-border data flows can reduce transaction costs, enhance legal certainty, and promote trust and confidence in digital trade transactions.

3- Supporting SMEs and Informal Sector Integration: Policymakers should design targeted support mechanisms and capacity-building programs to help SMEs and informal traders harness the potential of digital technologies for trade expansion and competitiveness. This may include technical assistance, financial incentives, and access to digital infrastructure and training resources tailored to the specific needs and constraints of small-scale businesses and informal economies.

4- Strengthening Consumer Protection and Privacy Rights: Governments should enact robust consumer protection laws and data privacy regulations to safeguard individuals' rights and interests in the digital marketplace. Transparency requirements, consent mechanisms, and data localization restrictions can help protect consumers' personal information and mitigate the risks of data breaches, identity theft, and online fraud.

5- Advancing Ethical and Responsible Business Practices: Companies engaged in digital trade should adopt ethical and responsible business practices that prioritize human rights, environmental sustainability, and social responsibility. This may include conducting human rights impact assessments, implementing ethical AI principles, and ensuring transparency and accountability in supply chain management and digital marketing practices.

Future Relevancy of the study:

➤ **Accelerated Digital Transformation:** As technological advancements continue to evolve at a rapid pace, the relevance of understanding the impact of digitalization on global trade will only increase. Emerging technologies such as blockchain, artificial intelligence, and the Internet of Things are expected to further transform trade processes, supply chains, and business models, necessitating ongoing research to assess their implications and guide policy responses.

➤ **COVID-19 Pandemic and Resilience Building:** The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the importance of digital technologies in maintaining trade continuity, enabling remote work, and facilitating e-commerce transactions amid global disruptions. Post-pandemic recovery efforts are likely to prioritize digital infrastructure investments, regulatory reforms, and capacity-building initiatives to enhance trade resilience and adaptability in the face of future crises.

➤ **Global Trade Governance and Multilateral Cooperation:** The digitalization of trade raises complex governance challenges that require coordinated action at the national, regional, and international levels. Future research will be essential for identifying common interests, addressing divergent regulatory approaches, and fostering multilateral cooperation to develop inclusive, interoperable, and equitable frameworks for digital trade governance.

➤ **Inclusive Development and Digital Divide Reduction:** Closing the digital divide and promoting inclusive digital trade will remain critical objectives for policymakers and development practitioners worldwide. Research on innovative solutions, best practices, and policy interventions to address digital inequalities, empower marginalized communities, and ensure equitable access to digital opportunities will continue to be relevant for achieving sustainable and inclusive development outcomes.

➤ **Ethical and Social Implications of Digital Trade:** As digital trade expands and evolves, so too will the ethical and social implications associated with its adoption and impact. Future research will need to grapple with emerging issues such as algorithmic bias, digital labor rights, and the ethical use of data in trade transactions, providing guidance for policymakers, businesses, and civil society actors navigating the ethical complexities of the digital economy.

Conclusion:

The digitalization of global trade represents a transformative force reshaping the economic, technological, and policy landscapes of the 21st century. This comprehensive exploration has shed light on the multifaceted impact of digitalization on trade dynamics, revealing a complex interplay of opportunities, challenges, and policy implications for stakeholders worldwide.

From the regional variations in digital trade adoption to the micro-level impacts on SMEs and informal sector workers, our analysis has highlighted the uneven distribution of benefits and risks associated with digitalization. While advanced economies have capitalized on digital technologies to enhance competitiveness and efficiency, developing regions face barriers related to inadequate infrastructure, regulatory constraints, and digital divides, hindering their full participation in the digital economy.

Moreover, our examination of the contribution of digital trade to sustainable development goals underscores the potential for digitalization to advance inclusive growth, gender equality, and environmental sustainability. However, realizing these benefits requires concerted efforts to address digital divides, ensure data privacy and security, and promote ethical and responsible business practices that prioritize human rights and social responsibility.

In navigating the regulatory challenges and policy responses to digital trade, our analysis underscores the need for greater regulatory coherence, international cooperation, and stakeholder engagement. Harmonizing regulatory frameworks, enhancing consumer protection measures, and fostering innovation-friendly environments can help unlock the full potential of digitalization while safeguarding against risks such as market concentration, algorithmic bias, and data exploitation.

Looking ahead, the relevance of research on the impact of digitalization on global trade is poised to grow in the face of accelerating technological advancements, geopolitical uncertainties, and societal transformations. As we strive to build back better from the COVID-19 pandemic and chart a course towards inclusive and sustainable development, the insights and recommendations from this study will be invaluable for policymakers, businesses, and stakeholders navigating the evolving landscape of digital trade.

In conclusion, by harnessing the opportunities, mitigating the challenges, and embracing the ethical imperatives of digitalization, we can work towards a future where digital trade serves as a driver of inclusive growth, prosperity, and resilience for all.

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Liberalization, Privatization, Globalization and Emerging India

Dr. Anoop Kumar Singh

Abstract:

This paper studies the Impact of Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization on the Indian economy. The Economic Reforms made by the government by New Economic Policy in 1991 made a significant impact on the Indian Economy. In terms of Increasing GDP, per capita Income, Increase in Foreign Direct Investment etc. also cover some negative impacts of LPG policy on the Indian Economy like an Increase in Competition, growing personal disparities etc. So, This study is important to understand the impact of LPG on the Indian Economy.

Key Words- *Impact of LPG, Economic Reforms, Indian Economy.*

Introduction:

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

Liberalization- Liberalisation refers to the process of making policies less constraining of economic activity and also reduction of tariffs or removal of non-tariff barriers.

Privatization- The term “Privatisation” refers to the transfer of ownership of property or business from a government to a privately owned entity.

Globalization- Globalisation refers to the expansion of economic activities across the political boundaries of nation-states. More importantly, perhaps it refers to economic interdependence between countries in the world economy.

In response to Karl Marx’s famous book ‘Das Kapital’, the major book ‘The Stages of Economic Growth - A Non-Communist Manifesto’, written by the learned economist W-W Rostov, divides the economic development of any country into five stages. While dividing,

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special emphasis was given to the third stage “the stage of self-invigoration”. In the state of self-invigoration, any economy becomes free from its traditional economic constraints and achieves high investment (more than 10% of national income), sustained growth of one or more manufacturing sectors as well as comprehensive changes in the political, social and institutional structure. The process becomes dynamic on the path. About 70 years ago, India has reached a stage of self-enlightenment. According to the characteristics of Rostov’s theory, even today India is in a stagnant state in the third stage of development (in the state of self-energization).

Generally, it takes about 40 years for any sustainably developing economy to reach Rostov’s fourth stage, the “stage of maturity,” which is a necessary stage for developed countries. It is noteworthy that for the last 70 years, India is still in the category of developing countries, while economically it is also adorned with the name of fifth largest economy of the world. The question that arises is that if the Indian economy has become the fifth largest economy in the world by surpassing Britain in the year 2021, then why has the country not developed yet, whereas the other four big economies, America, Japan, Germany, are developed economies while China is a developed economy. Standing on the verge of. In the major book “India 2020” written by former President of India Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam and Y. Sundar Rajan in the year 2002, the fact was reestablished that India will follow the action plan of countries like America, Japan, South Korea etc. in the next 20 years. And if we set goals and carry out construction work, then like those countries, India too can touch many heights and dimensions in science, technology and other fields.

The major objective of the new policy-

1. Utilizing fully the indigenous capabilities of entrepreneurs.
2. Fostering research and development efforts for the development of indigenous technologies.
3. Raising investments in domestic sectors.
4. Removing regulator system and other weaknesses.
5. Improvement in efficiency and productivity.
6. Controlling monopolistic power and raise competetions.
7. Assigning the right areas for the public sector undertakings.
8. Ensuring welfare as also skills and facilities to the workers to enable them to face new technologies.
9. Retaining the capacity to earn our own foreign exchange through exports.
10. To achieve self-reliance.

The failure of economic management and political instability in the 80s trapped the country in the whirlpool of the biggest economic crisis of the last decade of the twentieth century in the 1990s. Revenue expenditure became so high that a debt trap situation arose. Due to this, the situation of high level deficit in the internal and external budget of the country had gone out of the control of fiscal and monetary policies. In the event of economic crisis,

global financial international organizations like World Bank, IMF etc. provided conditional economic cooperation, in the context of which the New Economic Policy 1991 was implemented. With a view to make India's development engine more efficient, liberalisation, privatization and globalization were used as economic instruments for development under the new economic policy by the then Prime Minister Shri Narasimha Rao and Finance Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh in July 1991. On the one hand, through liberalization under LPG, industrial houses were freed from the industrial licensing regime and an open economic and protective environment was provided for the establishment, expansion and development of industries. On the other hand, reforms in financial organs and regulation of markets created an environment to encourage private sector investment. During the LPG phase of the economic reform process, it was felt that reform of the Indian economy would require special attention in view of the long-term economic interest in the variables of the balance of payments while increasing the degree of structural balance and open economy for growth. Achieving such a goal was possible only by connecting with the world market and increasing quantitative as well as qualitative international trade. In view of the above, the logic of infant industry protection for domestic industries was relaxed and the tariff imposed on imports was judiciously reduced and modified in accordance with the then economic objectives. Instead of protection, emphasis was laid on making domestic industries technologically more competitive and ready to compete in the world market. To achieve the above economic target, along with liberalizing foreign investment and trade policies, the problem of convertibility of rupee was also resolved within the ambit of available economic variables.

Globalization is the process of making domestic goods and services competitive at the global level and establishing them on the international stage. This is the real meaning of Indian culture "Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam". In globalization, economic and social variables like information technology, medical facilities, financial flows etc. of international economies expand and they get integrated in public interest. Development and modernization of technology reduce the economic cost of negotiating issues between two countries. Since the establishment of WTO on January 1, 1995, there has been a noticeable change in the direction and condition of world trade by gradually reducing the tariffs imposed on free trade. It is clear that in 1970, world exports accounted for 8.5 % of gross world product, which doubled (16.1%) in 2001. It would be one-sided to assess the effects of globalization only on the basis of the economic aspects of the country. To assess the overall effects, along with the economic sector, social, political and cultural aspects also have to be affected by globalization.

The positive impact of LPG was that the Indian economy gradually came out of the economic crisis and the pace of development definitely accelerated. India's share in international trade increased due to qualitative and quantitative increase in imports and exports. The culture of consumerism became stronger due to increase in revenue through disinvestment and expansion of private sector.

But in today's times, from the perspective of emerging India, after making an unbiased practical assessment and assessment of the effects of LPG, it seems that there is a need to review the economic policies again in the light of today's global environment and make

substantial changes. On the one hand, due to the continuous process of disinvestment, most of the public enterprises have been burnt in the hands of the market from the point of view of welfare economy. Whereas on the other hand the establishment of public enterprises is moving towards zero, which used to be the main weapon of the government in terms of employment etc. for the welfare of human aspect in the welfare state.

The most important characteristic of welfare economies is their human and social aspects. Various countries are competing to make their economies appear imaginary strong and developed through privatization and consumerism. In today's environment of materialistic economic progress, the goal of social security of the welfare economy is slipping down the ladder of development. From January 01, 2004, the Central Government ended the popular post-retirement pension scheme for government employees in the form of social security and handed over the social security of the employees to private companies through a new pension scheme. Certainly, the above bold anti-vote move of the government has succeeded in reducing the budget deficit to some extent, following which most of the states have also implemented the new pension scheme. A government employee contributes to the development of the country by devoting the most energetic period of his life for 60/62 years in the national interest and essentially by being an honest income tax payer without tax evasion. But the point to think about is that in whose hands the social security of the government employee will be safe for the rest of his life after his service. The government should consider this aspect and implement such a pension system so that the pension does not burden the budget deficit and the employees can also become self-reliant through the old pension scheme for social security. In another article, the author has highlighted one such policy point by point, which will implement the old pension scheme and its negative impact on the budget will also be comparatively very less.

The scenario of the country's international trade has changed in the present environment. Limiting the country's fiscal deficit to a moderate range and growing economy in the direction of markets and consumerism is hurting the country's culture and heritage of human welfare tradition. In the past years, due to the strong determination and actions of the present central and state governments, along with the revolutionary development in electricity, water, health and especially in the transport sector, the cultural and spiritual aspects of the country has become stronger than expected on the world stage and the government needs to be more sensitive towards a sustainable employment-oriented and welfare economy. Lastly, we can say that development in India is taking place because of the implementation of this policy.

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Analysing the Impact of Monetary Policy Shocks on Exchange Rate Volatility: An Empirical Study on Indian Economy

Shivam Agarwal & Swapnil Sharma

Abstract

Exchange Rate (ER) is one of the important aspect macroeconomics. The relationship between the Exchange Rate and Monetary Policy (MP) was a matter of research for several years now. The Mundell-Fleming model which incorporated this relation at the center of any macroeconomic activity. Given the relevance of this link, this article investigates the causal relationship among Exchange Rate Volatility (ERV) and Monetary Policy Shocks (MPSs) in India. This study investigates the short-run MP determinants of ERV in India employing multivariate regression estimation. Further, the error correction model was estimated using the Engle-Granger approach after establishing the long-run relationship among the set of explanatory variables. In short run, fluctuations in Monetary Policy explain Exchange Rate Volatility through a self-correcting mechanism process with little or no intervention from the Reserve Bank of India (RBI). Moreover, the outcomes of the causality tests between Exchange Rate Volatility and Monetary Policy variables established a causal link between the past values of Monetary Policy variables and Exchange Rate.

Keywords: *Exchange Rate Volatility, Monetary Policy Shocks, Inflation Targeting, Trade Policy.*

INTRODUCTION

Monetary Policy (MP) in India depends on an Inflation Targeting (IT) framework, having Price Stability (PS) as the overall objective of MP. This is a significant shift from the past, where the main objective of MP was simply rapid expansion of the economy and employment. PS has attracted a lot of attention as a consequence of recent developments in macroeconomic theories and empirical research that suggested "sustainable growth is only feasible when the price level is stable". During 1960 a relation between the MP and Exchange Rate (ER) was

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studied showing the two of the three important policy goals for any economy. The Mundell (1963) and Fleming(1962) has established a model known as the “Mundell-Fleming Model” or “Impossible Trinity” which is regarded as the base for any macroeconomic policy goals.

The importance of the ER in the formulation of MP decisions emerges from the fact that PS is the primary MP objective for the majority of economies. Exchange rate Volatility (ERV) is always regarded a risk to the objectives of PS. The impact of the global economy on emerging countries like India is driven significantly by swings among the currencies of the major economic powers like United State (U.S.). These shifts have been huge, unpredictable, and generally detached to fundamental economic factors over the past few years. As a result, monetary authorities in developing nations with restricted relationships to economic leaders are intervening on a temporary and periodic basis, with no clear idea of a sustainable equilibrium. Such involvement in Exchange Rate Stability (ERS) is usually too late to prevent important currency imbalance and volatility. These imbalances, in turn, cause major economic distortions, protectionism in trade, and, unavoidably, serious currency reversals (Aghion, Bacchetta, Ranciere, & Rogoff, 2009). Though, ERV could exist onlywhen flexible Exchange Rate Regime (ERR) prevails in the economy.

The ERR changes depending on the degree of financial development. The decision about the type of ERR is probably the most controversial aspect of macroeconomic policy in emerging economies. Empirical research indicates that both real and economic aggregate disturbances impact ERV. However, in spite of the presumed implications of the ERR for long-run growth and stability in the economy, the prevailing empirical and theoretical research on the developing nations (the country’s level of macroeconomic integration through commerce and foreign capital inflows provides) little guidance. The theoretical research is mainly focused towards developed nations with advanced institutions and markets. The Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) theory is the most renowned theoretical explanation supporting the long-term stability and uniformity of ERs. Long-run PPP analysis has significance on multiple explanations: Many macroeconomic theories(Dornbusch, 1976), depends on the long-term viability of PPP theory, despite the fact many other macroeconomic frameworks frequently use PPP to link national and global development, especially in emerging economies like India. Additionally, while the PPP theory is not a complete ERs theory, but provides important factors that can be employed to calculate long-run ERs and evaluate the optimum level of ERs assuming a long-run relationship exists. Yet, both nominal and real ERs are investigated in this study because there is often a significant difference within these two ERs and they are frequently used alternatively in empirical studies and in highly controlled conditions like India where the availability of foreign reserves is frequently too little to meet the demands of the market.

Given the structure of the financial system and the requirement to reduce inefficiencies in both production and consumption, improve non-oil export receipts, and attract FDI, keeping a fair ER against the rupee is essential for India. Additionally, the ongoing problems of import dependence, capital flight, and a shortage of incentive for backward connections in the

manufacturing process, among others, need to be tackled. ERs and MP are thus an essential instrument in economic management stability and transition strategies for emerging economies such as India. Reduced inflation and global competitiveness have grown into an important policy objectives in a large number of developing nations. The real ER measures global competitiveness, whereas inflation is mainly triggered by economic growth, depreciation of the currency, and other structural causes. Regardless of the significant role of ER and MP for economic management, only a few studies on India have been conducted to examine their link.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

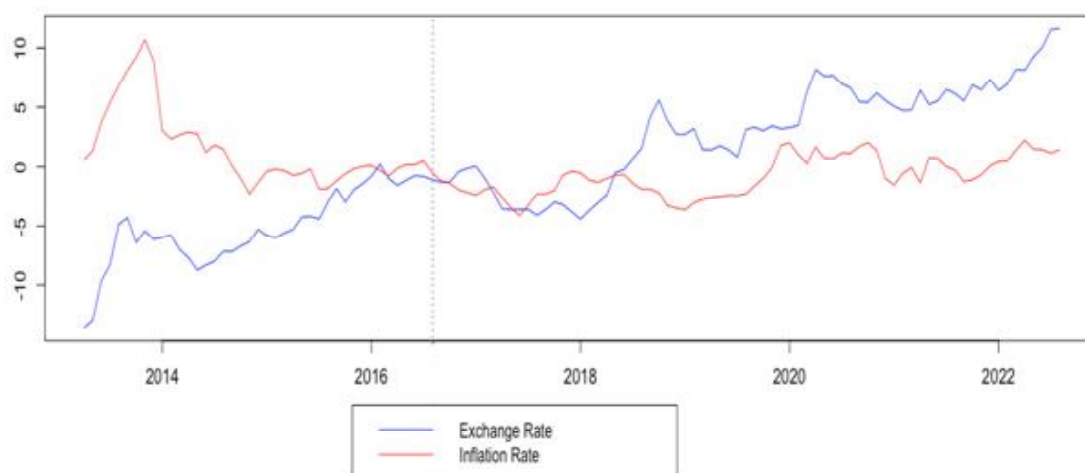
Monetary Policy

The operation of policy naturally requires rather more than a general statement of goals such as 'the control of inflation'. At some point, numbers must be attached to goals, converting them into targets. An instrument of policy is a variable that the policy authorities control directly, being able to determine its value independently of other variables in the system. The derivation of precise targets from policy goals can be treated formally. In the 1950s and 60s, it was believed that there were several policy objectives (Mundell R. A., 1962). It was thought that governments could achieve some of these objectives or could move part of the way to several of them but that different policies would have varying degrees of success with different objectives. Thus, it seemed important to know how success in achieving one objective could be compared with success in achieving others (Bain & Howells, 2003). Each instrument may be imperfectly used but weaknesses may to some extent be offsetting. If one instrument is given the wrong value, other instruments may also need to be given sub-optimal values to produce the best available result.

The relative effectiveness of instruments in achieving targets is also of considerable importance. Even if the authorities have instruments sufficient in number and flexibility to achieve their targets, there remains the question of which policy to apply to which target.

In India, it has been seen that after the introduction of IT in 2015, Consumer Price Inflation has shown low volatility while Wholesale Price Inflation has shown a high rate of volatility which can be due to the adoption of the IT in India (Sharma, Maheshwari, & Agarwal, 2023). This shows how MP goals can help in achieving the target of "inflation control". Figure 1 tries to show how the volatility of inflation rate and ER has reacted before and after the introduction of Inflation Rate Regime (before and after August 2016) in India.

Figure 1 Trend of Exchange Rate Volatility and Inflation Rate Volatility in India before and after Inflation Targeting



MODEL SPECIFICATION

According to Chen (2006), ERV may represent either a time of crisis or a peaceful regime, subject to the appropriate instrument of MP (particularly interest rates) utilised as adjustment measures. However, this study attempts to expand Chen's (2006) research by employing the conceptual framework of the Markov model during the multiple equilibrium mechanism represented as (Adeoye & Saibu, 2014):

$$e_t = \alpha \Pi_{st} + \mu_t \quad (1)$$

In India, research has demonstrated that the central bank takes either qualitative or quantitative instruments to stabilise the macroeconomic environment. However, the Central Bank's primary quantitative indicators for monitoring financial flows in India are the money supply, interest rates, and inflation. However, previous ER deepening forced the monetary authority to raise the stock of currency reserves with the goal to reduce fluctuations in ERs while continuing to monitor the overall economy's level of productivity.

Based on the prior reasoning, the empirical framework for same as Adeoye and Saibu (2014) analysing the influence of Monetary Policy Shocks (MPSs) on created ERV series in India after taking into consideration some of the frequently utilised monetary instruments in expanding equation (1) is formulated as follows:

$$erv_t = \alpha + \beta_1 ir_t + \beta_2 ms_t + \beta_3 inf_t + \beta_4 rm_t + \beta_5 ro_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Where erv_t is the ERV created from the nominal bilateral ER of rupee vis-a-vis U.S dollar using the linear trend approach; ir_t is the interest rate proxied by the 91-days treasury bill

interest rate(Verma & Prakash, 2011); ms_t is the broad money supply; inf_t denotes Consumer Price Index inflation rate ; rm_t is the reserve money; ro_t is thereal output proxied by Index of Industrial Production growth rate; and e_t is the error term that estimates the probability of transitioning among regimes in the Markov model.

The period of study is from April 2013 to August 2022, showing a monthly analysis of the variables. The data is collected from the Database of Indian Economy-Reserve Bank of India. The monthly analysis will help us to consider all the seasonal fluctuations effecting these variables.

EMPIRICAL RESULT

The findings and analysis of the proposed regression model (2) for the study of the influence of MPSs on ERV in India are presented in the current section of the study. The table 1 presents the long-run computed regression models.

Table 1: Regression Result of Model (2)

Variables	Coefficient	t-stat.	P-Value
<i>intercept</i>	16.97	9.78	0.00
ir_t	-2.37	-13.84	0.00
ms_t	-0.43	-2.05	0.04
inf_t	0.32	2.17	0.03
rm_t	0.03	0.66	0.51
ro_t	-0.01	-0.35	0.73
R-squared	0.70	F-stat.	49.3
Adjusted R-squared	0.68	D.W. stat.	0.26

Source: Authors' Calculation

The predicted regression equation findings shown in Table 1 indicate that ERV becomes more sensitive to negative interest rates, suggesting a diminishing influence on the volatility level. Other integrated MP tools, such as money supply and reserves, were found to have a negative and positive impact on ERV in India, respectively. Considering the case of India, money supply is statistically significant at the 5% critical threshold, however reserve money does not.

Furthermore, ERV has been empirically proven to react positively to fluctuations in India's price level. It turned out that real output experienced an insignificant adverse effect on ERV. This signifies that inflation is contributing to the nation's increasing amount of ERV.

In analysing the robustness of the predicted regression model (2), the adjusted R-squared result showed that variations in the integrated monetary and macroeconomic variables define 68% of the overall variability in ERV. It is worth noting that the F-statistic outcome, demonstrates that the null hypothesis of "no simultaneous significance" is rejected at the 5% significance level.

Cointegration Test

In an attempt to validate the presence of a long-run relationship among MP instruments and ERV in India, the Engle-Granger (1987) cointegration test outcome is shown in Table. The findings show that the error correction term (ECT) derived through the Augmented Dickey-Fuller [(1979);(1984)] test rejects the null hypothesis of "no cointegration" for the test model that has intercept and linear deterministic trend. This indicates the error correction term is stationary at the level, implying that the linear combination of ERV series and included MP tools results are stationarity. As a result, there is a long-run relationship between ERV and Indian MP.

Table 2: Engle-Granger Cointegration Test

	ADF Statistics		Order of Integration
	Intercept	Trend	
$ECT = \varepsilon_t$	-3.89*	-4.03*	ECT = I(0)

Source: Authors' Calculation¹

Short-Run Analysis

Table 3 shows the estimated error correction mechanism(1964) (ECM). The findings indicate the short-run impact of MP instruments on ERV.

Table 3: Error Correction Model

Variables (Dependent Variable: erv_t)	Coefficient	t-stat.	P-Value
ir_t	0.24	1.08	0.28
ms_t	0.03	0.29	0.77
inf_t	0.13	1.26	0.21
rm_t	-0.03	-1.29	0.20
ro_t	0.01	1.18	0.24
ECT_t	-0.05	2.09	0.04
R-squared	0.09	F-stat.	1.86
Adjusted R-squared	0.04	D.W. stat.	1.65

Source: Authors' Calculation

According to the estimated ECM model in table 3, there is short-run disequilibrium which is below the level of equilibrium formed between MP and ERV, as shown by the negative error correction term. To bring back the MP-ERV equilibrium, the one-period lag of the error correction term (ECT) will be reduced by 0.05 unit thereby speeding adjustments to ERV in the short run.

The behaviour of MP tools and significant macroeconomic variables influencing ERV correlates to the long-run as stated in Table 1. Similarly, fluctuations in ER are found to be significantly responsive to movements in interest rates, although not at any critical levels. Other MP tools and macroeconomic variables, on the contrary, have been found to exert a significant impact on variations in ER.

Granger-Causality Test

While the impact evaluation fails to show a causal relationship, the Granger Causality(1986) test is applied to identify the causal link between MP variables and ERV. Table 4 presents the granger causality findings.

Table 4: Pairwise Granger Causality Test Result

Null Hypothesis	Obs.	F-statistics	Probability
ir_t does not Granger Cause erv_t	113	7.299	0.001
erv_t does not Granger Cause ir_t		6.764	0.002
inf_t does not Granger Cause erv_t	113	0.031	0.969
erv_t does not Granger Cause inf_t		2.808	0.065
rm_t does not Granger Cause erv_t	113	2.992	0.054
erv_t does not Granger Cause rm_t		0.382	0.684
ms_t does not Granger Cause erv_t	113	1.941	0.149
erv_t does not Granger Cause ms_t		0.025	0.975
ro_t does not Granger Cause erv_t	113	0.578	0.562
erv_t does not Granger Cause ro_t		1.179	0.311
res_t does not Granger Cause erv_t	113	5.268	0.007
erv_t does not Granger Cause res_t		0.405	0.668

Source: Authors' Calculation

The reported Granger causality test results in Table 4 revealed that rejection and acceptance of the causal link between ERV and MP in varying cases. From Table 4, one lag period of ERV is found to granger cause current changes in inflation (significant at 10% threshold limit), and interest rate among incorporated factors in the estimated regression. While, among all other incorporated MP variables, only previous interest rate is found to granger cause current ERV. Other variable² which granger cause ERV is reserve money. Interestingly there is bi-directional relationship between the interest rate and ERV.

Figure 2 Trends of exchange Rate in India (2013-2022)

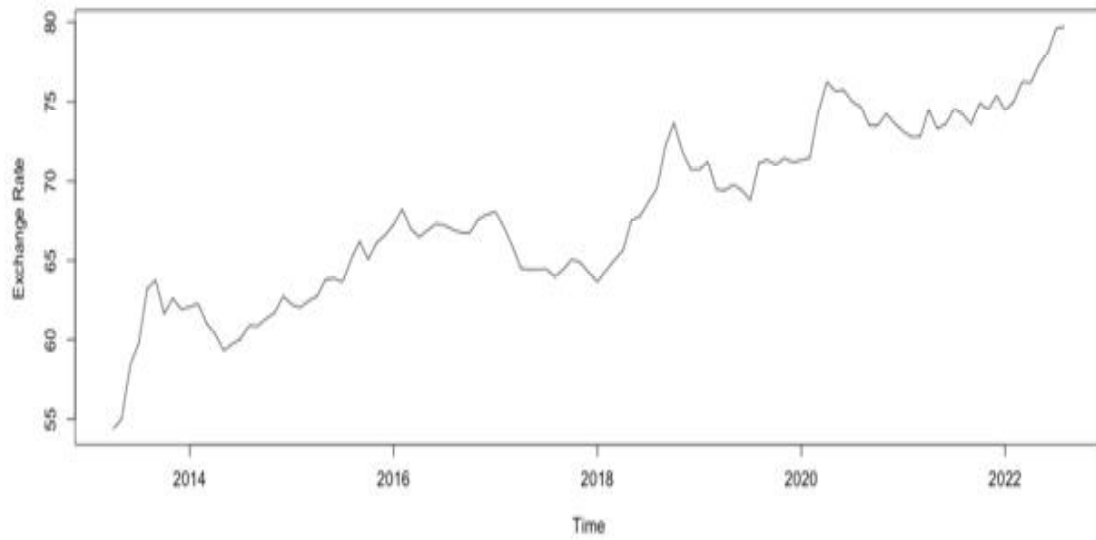


Figure 3 Trends of Inflation Rate in India (2013-2022)

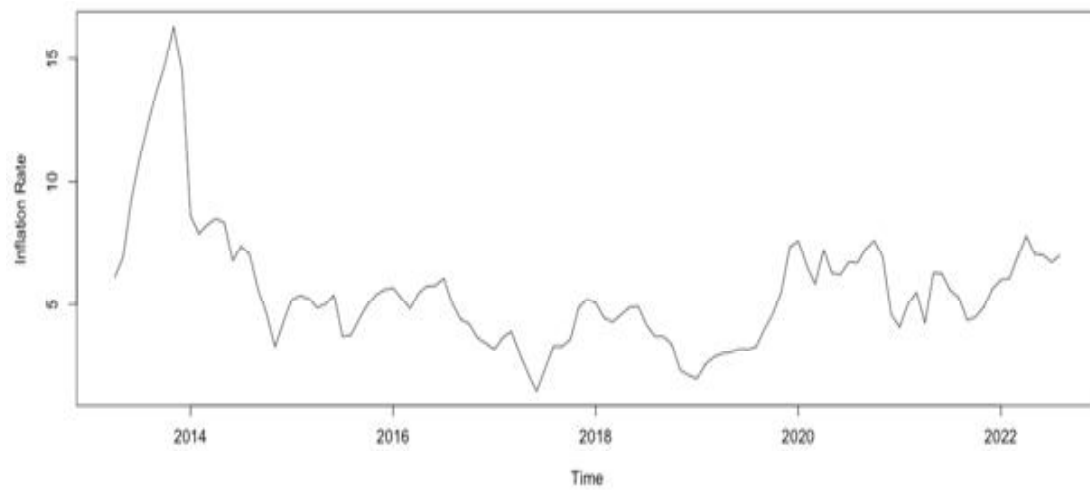
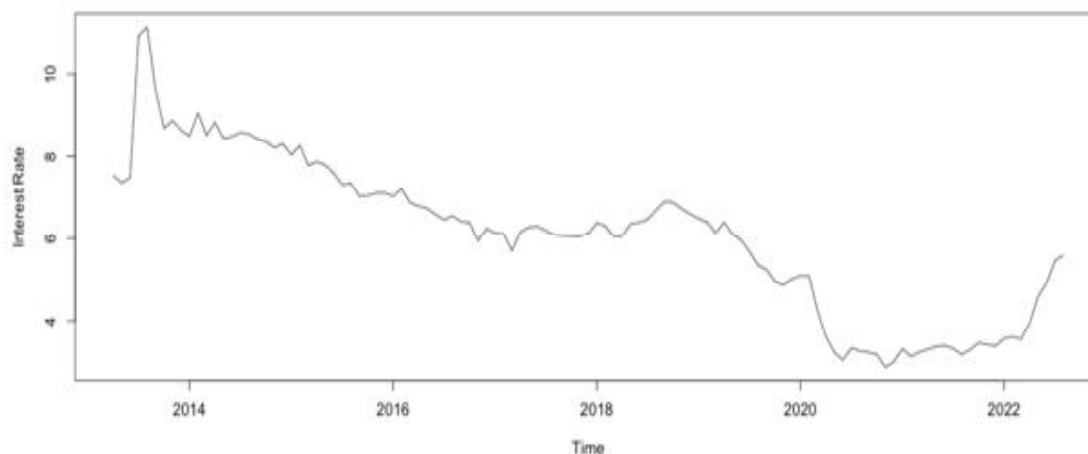


Figure 4 Trends of Interest Rate in India (2013-2022)

CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the impact of MPSs on ERV employing adjustments in several MP instruments. Since the purpose of the study is to inquire into the relationship between ERV and MPSs in India, we began by describing the basic macroeconomic management challenges that led to domestic ER instability and its impact on domestic prices. It has been observed that if the inflation rate rises, so does the level of volatility in the ER.

Furthermore, the findings of the causality tests between ERV and MP variables revealed a causal relationship between the historical values of MP variables and the ER. This is especially clear in the case of interest rate previous values. ERV is caused by a change in the level of prior values of MP variables.

Finally, India's inflation rate, interest rate, and money supply appreciation cause volatility in the nominal ER. The reserve money and output in contrast have opposite relation with the ERV. These findings further adds up to existing literatures available on the topic and present more empirical evidence on the change of MP through IT.

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(Footnotes)

¹Notes: ECT -Error Correction Term generated from the estimated model linking ERV and MP in India based on the result presented in Table 1. Significant at (*)-5% Critical values.

²Variables significant at 10% threshold limit.

Navigating the Impact of Climate Change on Agriculture, Health, Livelihood & its Solutions

Sonali Nigam and Dr. Manoj Srivastava

Abstract

Climate change is a multifaceted global challenge with far-reaching implications for agriculture, human health, and livelihoods. This abstract explores the intricate relationship between climate change and these key sectors, highlighting the profound impacts on food security, public health, and socio-economic well-being.

In agriculture, shifting weather patterns, extreme events, and changing precipitation levels pose significant challenges to crop yields, livestock productivity, and overall agricultural sustainability. Rising temperatures and altered rainfall patterns affect crop growth cycles, leading to reduced yields, decreased crop quality, and increased vulnerability to pests and diseases. These impacts threaten food security and undermine the livelihoods of millions of farmers worldwide.

Furthermore, climate change exacerbates health risks, amplifying the prevalence of heat-related illnesses, vector-borne diseases, and air pollution-related ailments. Rising temperatures create conducive environments for disease vectors, expanding their geographical range and increasing the incidence of diseases.

The cumulative effects of climate change on agriculture and health reverberate throughout societies, disrupting livelihoods and exacerbating socio-economic disparities. Smallholder farmers, marginalized communities, and populations in low-income countries bear the brunt of these impacts, facing heightened food insecurity, compromised health outcomes, and diminished economic opportunities. Moreover, climate-induced migration patterns and resource conflicts further compound the challenges faced by vulnerable populations, exacerbating social tensions and instability.

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Addressing the complex interplay of climate change, agriculture, health, and livelihoods requires integrated and multi-sectoral approaches. In conclusion, the nexus between climate change, agriculture, health, and livelihoods underscores the urgent need for concerted action at local, national, and global levels. By prioritizing climate resilience, fostering innovation, and promoting equitable solutions, we can mitigate the impacts of climate change, safeguard human health and well-being, and build more sustainable and resilient societies for future generations.

Introduction

Climate change encompasses significant and enduring alterations in the anticipated weather patterns of a region or the entire Earth over an extended period. It involves deviations from the norm in climate conditions and the repercussions of these deviations on various aspects of the planet. These changes may unfold over spans ranging from tens to millions of years. However, the escalation of human activities such as industrialization, urban expansion, deforestation, and shifts in land use accelerates the emission of greenhouse gases, hastening the pace of climate change. Foreseeable climate change scenarios encompass elevated temperatures, alterations in precipitation patterns, and heightened concentrations of atmospheric CO₂.

The Greenhouse Effect manifests in three principal ways with implications for agriculture.

- Firstly, augmented atmospheric CO₂ levels can directly impact the growth rates of crop plants and weeds.
- Secondly, CO₂-induced alterations in climate conditions may disrupt temperature, rainfall, and sunlight levels, thereby influencing the productivity of both flora and fauna.
- Lastly, the rising sea levels resulting from climate change could lead to the loss of arable land through inundation, alongside escalating salinity levels in coastal groundwater.

Agriculture is the most vulnerable sector to climate change, owing to its huge size and sensitivity to weather parameters, thereby causing huge economic impacts. The changes in climatic events such as temperature and rainfall significantly affect the yield of crops. The effect of rising temperatures, precipitation variation, and CO₂ fertilization varies according to the crop, location, and magnitude of change in the parameters. The temperature increase is found to reduce the yield, while the precipitation increase is likely to offset or reduce the impact of increasing temperature.

Farming in the world is now not just limited to agriculture or plants. It has evolved and diversified with the passage of time, now it also includes animals which are reared, bred and raised for meat, fiber, eggs, milk and other food products. It provides us with a variety of food products that have a lot of nutritional value. Despite the benefits and options it gives us for eating, it has repercussions to society, environment and of course to animal lives.

Climate change has the potential to influence animal agriculture across a spectrum of facets. These encompass the capacity to cultivate feed-grains, the caliber of pastures and forage crop yield, animal well-being, development, and reproductive functions, as well as the distribution of diseases and pests.

When animals are exposed to temperatures outside their optimal range, they must regulate or dissipate heat to sustain productivity. Typically, animals maintain an optimal core body temperature within a narrow range of 2°C to 3°C. Deviations exceeding this range by more than 2°C to 3°C can disrupt performance, productivity, and fertility, curtailing their ability to generate meat, milk, or eggs. Extreme deviations of 5°C to 7°C can lead to fatalities. Such alterations can impede animal growth and diminish reproductive rates, consequently escalating expenses for both animal producers and consumers. Consequently, fluctuations in temperature linked with climate change could potentially affect the efficiency of animal agriculture.

Moreover, animals rely on feed, and thus, the repercussions of climate change on the crops pivotal to their sustenance, such as alterations in availability and pricing, can exert significant ramifications on the financial viability of animal producers.

Impact on Health

Climate change is causing more frequent and severe humanitarian crises like heatwaves, wildfires, floods, storms, and hurricanes. Approximately 3.6 billion people live in regions highly vulnerable to these impacts. Between 2030 and 2050, climate change is expected to cause 250,000 additional deaths annually from undernutrition, malaria, diarrhea, and heat stress. The economic toll on public health could reach US\$ 2–4 billion per year by 2030. Developing nations with poor health infrastructure will struggle the most without external help. Human activity has warmed the planet by 1.1°C, leading to unprecedented climate changes that worsen existing health issues and burden vulnerable populations further. Climate change impacts human health through 4 primary avenues:

1. Altering the severity or frequency of existing health issues experienced by individuals.
2. Generating novel or unforeseen health challenges in populations or regions where they have not previously occurred.
3. Natural Disasters
4. Lack of Natural Resources such as Water

Individuals experience various effects of climate change throughout their lives, with susceptibility depending on three main factors:

1. **Exposure:** Varies based on how much time and where individuals spend their activities. Those outdoors more often are more exposed to extreme heat.
2. **Sensitivity:** Influenced by age and health. For example, children and people with asthma are more vulnerable to air pollutants and wildfire smoke.

- 3. Adaptive capacity:** The ability to adapt to climate hazards, influenced by factors like income, age, living conditions, and access to healthcare.

According to the WHO, 2 billion people lack safe drinking water, and 600 million suffer from foodborne illnesses annually, with 30% of fatalities occurring in children under 5. Climate change increases the risks of these diseases. In 2020, 770 million people faced hunger, mainly in Africa and Asia, due to climate impacts on food availability and quality. Temperature and precipitation changes also boost vector-borne diseases, potentially raising the annual death toll of 700,000. Climate change causes immediate mental health issues like anxiety and PTSD, along with long-term disorders from displacement and disrupted social cohesion.

New studies indicate that 37% of heat-related deaths are due to human-induced climate change, with a 70% increase in such deaths among those over 65 in the past two decades. In 2020, 98 million more people experienced food insecurity compared to the 1981-2010 average. The WHO estimates climate change could cause an additional 250,000 deaths annually by the 2030s due to diseases like malaria and coastal flooding. Modeling these risks remains challenging, especially for drought and migration.

The climate crisis threatens progress in development, global health, and poverty alleviation, worsening health disparities. Achieving Universal Health Coverage (UHC) faces significant challenges, including increased disease burden and barriers to healthcare access during critical times. Around 930 million people spend at least 10% of their household budget on healthcare, and health-related issues drive about 100 million people into poverty annually. Climate change exacerbates these trends.

Who is Most at Risk From Climate Change?

Low-Income Groups: These individuals often live in high-risk areas like urban heat islands, remote rural regions, coastal zones, or flood-prone areas, with inadequate infrastructure. They also face limited access to transportation and health education, hindering their ability to cope with climate-related health risks.

- **Indigenous People:** Indigenous populations face increased health risks due to reliance on the environment for sustenance and residing in isolated or disadvantaged communities. Climate-related changes threaten their homes, food sources, and cultural practices.
- **Children and Pregnant Women:** Children have higher intakes of air, food, and water relative to body weight and spend more time outdoors, increasing exposure to climate risks. Pregnant women face adverse outcomes such as spontaneous abortion, low birth weight, and preterm birth, with infants at risk of neonatal death, dehydration, malnutrition, diarrhea, and respiratory illnesses.
- **Older Adults:** Older adults often rely on medications for chronic conditions, increasing vulnerability to heat-related complications.

- **Occupational Groups:** Outdoor workers are directly affected by climate change through higher temperatures, poor air quality, extreme weather, vector-borne diseases, and occupational exposures.
- **Persons With Disabilities or Chronic Medical Conditions:** These individuals face heightened vulnerability to climate-related stressors. Chronic conditions such as cardiovascular disease, respiratory ailments, diabetes, asthma, and obesity are expected to rise, making more people susceptible to climate-related medical complications.

Impact on Livelihood

A livelihood includes the capabilities, assets (both material and social), and activities needed for living. It is sustainable if it can withstand and recover from stresses and shocks, maintaining or enhancing its capabilities and assets now and in the future without depleting natural resources. This concept is essential for poverty reduction, recognizing that escaping poverty depends on access to capabilities and assets such as land, financial capital, skills, social networks, and government support. Livelihood activities, crucial for income and meeting basic needs, involve paid employment and using common property resources like land and water. Climate change can significantly impact these resources, affecting the sustainability of livelihoods, particularly for the poor. Understanding adaptation, vulnerability, resilience, security, poverty, and livelihoods is vital, though interpretations vary. Livelihood assets are categorized into five forms:

1. **Natural capital:** This includes the local natural resources that provide flows essential for livelihoods. Access to these resources depends on ownership, entitlements, and technological capabilities for resource utilization.
2. **Social-political capital:** It encompasses the social relationships and networks that individuals rely on for their livelihood pursuits. This includes group memberships, trust relationships, and access to institutions like markets, credit facilities, and government services.
3. **Human capital:** Refers to the skills, knowledge, labor ability, and health status crucial for engaging in livelihood activities. It encompasses both the quantity (number of productive individuals) and quality (skills and knowledge acquired through education and experience) of human resources.
4. **Physical capital:** This includes the infrastructure necessary for transport, buildings, water management, energy supply, and communication networks. It also encompasses productive assets such as tools and machines that facilitate livelihood activities.
5. **Financial capital:** Involves the financial resources available to individuals, including savings, credit access, remittances, pensions, social security, and insurance. Financial capital enables people to invest in new assets, purchase production inputs, and respond to vulnerabilities such as recovering from disasters.

Climate change intensifies its effects as global temperatures rise. Without emissions reductions, warming to 4°C by 2100 could lead to a meter rise in sea levels, threatening 3.3 million people by 2050 with flooding. The global food supply would become less reliable due to extreme weather disrupting supply chains and habitat degradation, potentially increasing food prices and leaving 183 million more people hungry. Even small increments of warming significantly affect vulnerable populations, as limiting warming to 1.5°C rather than 2°C could reduce exposure to extreme heat for 420 million people and decrease flood risk for 10 million. The unequal distribution of climate impacts means some regions will suffer more, but interconnectedness ensures global repercussions across countries, industries, and communities.

1. Lower Income Strata:

- **Agribusiness:** Changes in temperature and precipitation patterns affect crop yields, leading to food insecurity and loss of income towards GDP.
 - **Fisheries:** warmer oceans, acidification, and habitat loss harm marine ecosystems, disrupting fisheries and affecting coastal communities that depend on fishing for their livelihoods.
 - **Informal Sector:** Climate change impacts the informal sector, especially street vendors. Their livelihoods and food security often depend on the income they earn from daily sales.
2. **Water Resources:** Droughts, floods, and changes in precipitation patterns impact water availability for drinking, irrigation, and industry, affecting livelihoods dependent on water resources.
 3. **Health:** Climate change contributes to the spread of diseases, affects air and water quality, and increases the frequency and intensity of extreme weather events, leading to health risks and economic burdens on communities.

4. Middle and Upper income strata:

- **Tourism:** Changes in climate can affect tourist destinations through extreme weather events, sea-level rise, and impacts on ecosystems, disrupting local economies reliant on tourism.
- **Infrastructure and Housing:** Sea-level rise and extreme weather events threaten infrastructure and housing, leading to displacement, loss of property, and economic instability for affected communities. Floods and heavy rains can damage roads, bridges, shops, and other infrastructure. This can lead to business losses, including the destruction of products and the cost of repairing flood damage.

Addressing climate change requires concerted efforts to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions, adapt to its impacts, and build resilience in vulnerable communities.

Solutions :

1. Healthy changes in food production and consumption that reduce methane emissions from agricultural sources, and improved housing insulation that helps people use less energy while adapting to more extreme temperatures.
2. Making ESG disclosures mandatory for all public and private organizations.
3. To prevent warming beyond 1.5°C, we need to reduce emissions by 7.6% every year from this year to 2030. (EGR, 2019)
4. Counter Deforestation measures to countries and regions rich in forest reserves by incentivising those which are on the verge of urban/industrial development.
5. Pro amazon basin policies: this requires stakeholders from public and private both to come up with strong policy interventions by levying higher taxes from high valuation companies to operate industries in Amazon basin including in countries like Brazil, Suriname, Columbia etc. it's like differential tax regime. It will discourage further irresponsible degradation of the already established lungs of the world.
6. Focus should be Pareto today, where more than individuals industries/MNCs and corporate actions should be watched by the international agencies.
7. Indian context: mandatory hybrid /voluntary wfh culture in cities devoid of green belts. This will encourage real estate developers and urban authorities to build more green covers in such regions.
8. Enhancing Agricultural Resilience through Community-led Seed Banks. These initiatives will involve local farmers curating, conserving, and trading traditional and climate-resistant crop seeds. Acting as genetic repositories, these seed banks will help mitigate crop risks linked to climate shifts. Farmers will gain access to a diverse seed pool tailored to evolving climate patterns. Bolstering agricultural resilience and securing food supplies for forthcoming generations.
9. Transforming underutilized urban spaces (vacant lots, wide medians, rooftops) into mini food forests. These aren't just rows of crops, but diverse ecosystems: Fruit and nut trees for long-term harvests, Berry bushes and vines for quick snacks, Vegetable and herb gardens for fresh meals, Native plants to attract pollinators and improve soil, Rainwater collection systems for irrigation.

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"The Economic Revolution of Uttar Pradesh: A Journey towards a \$1 Trillion Milestone"

Dr. Priyanka Gaur

Abstract

Welcome to a discussion that aims to explore the roadmap towards achieving a remarkable milestone - a \$1 trillion economy. The state of Uttar Pradesh in India has embarked on a remarkable journey of economic transformation. With its immense potential and strategic location, Uttar Pradesh has emerged as a key player in India's growth story. At a time when global economies are striving to attain sustainable growth, this article delves into the strategies and initiatives required to propel our state's economy towards this ambitious target. By examining the current economic landscape, identifying key challenges and opportunities, and focusing on crucial areas such as infrastructure development, innovation and entrepreneurship, skill development, trade and investment, and policy reforms, we can pave the way for a prosperous and resilient future. Join us on this journey as we unravel the components of a roadmap that will shape our path to a \$1 trillion economy.

Keywords: *\$ 1 Trillion economy, Economic transformation, Growth Trajectory, Skill Development, Opportunities and challenges.*

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Promoting Inclusive Growth: Analyzing the Interplay between Labour Force Participation and Poverty Eradication in Uttar Pradesh

Manisha Singh and Dr. Ankita Gupta

Abstract

Uttar Pradesh, one of the most populous states in India, faces significant challenges related to labor force participation and poverty eradication. Analyzing the interplay between these two factors is crucial for understanding the complex socio-economic landscape of the state. Gender-based disparities persist in labor force participation, with women facing more significant challenges in accessing employment opportunities. Empowering women in the workforce is essential for both poverty reduction and inclusive growth. Labor force participation is often a key pathway to poverty eradication. When individuals actively participate in the labor market and secure employment, they can generate income, which, in turn, contributes to the reduction of poverty levels.

Gender inclusivity plays a very important role for promoting inclusive growth. Inclusive growth contributes to poverty alleviation by creating opportunities for individuals to participate in the labor market. As employment increases, the income generated helps lift people out of poverty, creating a positive feedback loop between inclusive growth and poverty reduction.

The objective of our study is to assess the correlation between Labor Force Participation and Poverty level in Uttar Pradesh and to analyze the impact of socio-economic factors on the interplay between Labor dynamics and Poverty levels.

It provides insights into the specific challenges and opportunities for inclusive growth in Uttar Pradesh. The study's scope is limited to Uttar Pradesh. The research may uncover gender-specific implications, emphasizing the need for gender-inclusive policies to enhance women's labor force participation and contribute to poverty reduction.

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Introduction

Population Profile of Uttar Pradesh

As per the report of the Technical Group on population projection by the National Commission on population, the population of Uttar Pradesh was 236,484,000 or 236.5 million or 23.65 crores as of July 1, 2023. Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state in India. Uttar Pradesh's population is projected to reach 25.95 crore by 2036. Uttar Pradesh accounts for 16.98 percent of the India's population.

Uttar Pradesh -In 2022-23, the tertiary sector contributed 45.40% to Uttar Pradesh's Gross State Value Added (GSVA) at current prices, followed by the primary sector (25.78%) and secondary sector (28.82%). The tertiary sector grew the fastest among the three sectors from 2011-12 to 2022-23 (9.83% CAGR). The growth was driven by trade, hotels, real estate, finance, insurance, transport, communications and other services. The primary sector expanded at a CAGR of 10.58% between 2011-12 and 2022-23. The growth was driven by agriculture and forestry. The secondary sector expanded at a CAGR of 11.39% between 2011-12 and 2022-23. This was driven by manufacturing, construction, electricity and gas & water supply.

Poverty in Uttar Pradesh -37.79 percent of the population of Uttar Pradesh is poor, which is the highest in the country after Bihar and Jharkhand in 2021. Uttar Pradesh, 3 crores 42 lakhs 72 thousand 484 people have come out of multi-level poverty. Due to this, the percentage of poor in the total population in the state has come down from 37.68 to 22.93 in 2019-21 compared to 2015-16 (Niti Ayog Report)

Uttar Pradesh has made considerable progress in reducing its poverty in the period between 2004-05 and 2011-12. This has been mainly driven by a remarkable reduction of over 25.4 percentage points in rural poverty in the state, bringing its level around the national average of rural India in 2011-12. The pace of poverty reduction in urban areas of the state has been less impressive as it reduced only by about 5 percentage points from 42 per cent in 2004-05 to 37.2 per cent in 2011-12. While the rural poverty ratio of the state is almost similar to the national average, the urban poverty ratio in Uttar Pradesh is more than double than that of India. Uttar Pradesh is among the few states which have a substantively higher proportion of urban poverty (37.2 per cent) than that exists in rural areas (29 per cent).

Labor force participation

Labor force participation refers to the percentage of working-age individuals who are either employed or actively seeking employment. In UP, labor force participation rates vary across different demographic groups, including gender, caste, and rural-urban divides.

Employment contributes to poverty reduction and promotes equality between women and men. It is, however, important to review at the outset the conditions under which employment has a positive impact on well-being and equality. First, the rate of growth of overall employment

must be sufficient to absorb new entrants into the labour force in productive and remunerative work, as well as take care of existing unemployment and underemployment. Second, employment creation should result in the equitable distribution of jobs between those below and above poverty incomes for individuals and families. Third, employment, should, apart from being productive, be linked to a social wage and the enforcement of core labour standards, to ensure adequate remuneration and social protection and decent working conditions.

Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) (in per cent) according to usual status (ps+ss) for U.P. State age group: 15-59 years

State	Rural			urban			Rural + urban		
	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person
U.P									
2019-20	78.3	19.6	48.5	77.0	13.9	47.0	78.0	18.3	48.2
2021-22	79.4	30.6	54.7	78.6	14.7	47.6	79.2	27.4	53.2

Source: Annual Report, PLFS, 2019-20 and 2021-22 respectively

Review of Literature

Bertranou and Khamis (2005) explore the link between poverty and labor market characteristics at the individual level in the context of the recent economic crisis in Argentina. Apart from the household specific and demographic variables they include the economic sector variables in their model and find that if the household head was employed in manufacturing, construction, retail trade or hotels and restaurants, the probability of being poor increased in most time 4 periods. Though these sectors are dynamic and growing, they are labor intensive with low wages, which does not help them to reduce poverty.

Lanjouw and Stern (1991) uses different surveys between 1957/58 and 1983/84 to study the development of poverty in the village of Palanpur. They find that low caste households and households that depend on agricultural labour are especially vulnerable to poverty. In addition, landless and widow-headed households are more likely to experience poverty. Their panel study allows them to investigate whether mobility out of agricultural labour takes place and they find that mobility is very low. Dubey et al (2001) analyse whether town size has an impact on the poor for two rounds of NSS surveys (1987/88 and 1993/94). They include labour market characteristics by analyzing separately the relationships for self-employed, regular wage earners and casual labourers. In addition they test whether the educational characteristics of the population living in towns of different sizes are the origins of the observed differences in poverty. The authors find that town size is negatively related to the risk of being poor and they attribute part of the difference to different education levels of the populations of towns of different sizes.

Objective

The objective of this study is twofold-

- 1) To evaluate the correlation between Labor Force Participation Rate and Poverty level in Uttar Pradesh(across different region of U.P).
- 2) To examine the influence of socio-economic factors on the intricate interplay between Labor dynamics and Poverty levels within the region.

Research Question

- 1) What is the nature and strength of the correlation between labor force participation and poverty level in Uttar Pradesh?
- 2) How do socio-economic factors such as education, access to healthcare, and income inequality influence the relationship between labor dynamics and poverty levels in Uttar Pradesh?

Methodology

DATA TYPE AND SOURCE- The type of data is quantitative in nature and whole part of the data is collected from secondary source. The main source of the secondary data used in the study are from the PLFS reports, CMIE reports and Ministry of Labour and Employment.

Limitation of the Study - The study's scope is limited to Uttar Pradesh, and findings may not be generalizable to other states.

Region	poverty	Labour force participation rate
Western	44.33	59.61
Central	40.43	62.65
Eastern	56.27	62.33
Southern	55.02	70.67
All (U.P)	48.34	61.76

Data: 2004-05

Source: Computed from NSSO unit level data

Note -calculation based on Tendulkar's poverty line method

	<i>Column 1</i>	<i>Column 2</i>
Column 1	1	
Column 2	0.532104	1

Note –Column 1 indicate poverty and column 2 indicate LFPR

A correlation coefficient of 0.5321 between two variables represented in Column 1 and Column 2. Since the correlation coefficient is positive ($0.5321 > 0$), it indicates a positive correlation between the variables in Column 1 and Column 2.

Variables represent poverty rates and labor force participation rates, there is a positive correlation suggests that as poverty rates increase, labor force participation rates tend to increase as well.

Region	poverty	Labour force participation rate
Western	26.70	51.73
Central	39.08	58.38
Eastern	38.67	55.57
Southern	33.62	51.22
All (U.P)	33.11	54.23

Note –Column 1 indicate poverty and column 2 indicate LFPR

A correlation coefficient of 0.791 between two variables represented in Column 1 and Column 2. Since the correlation coefficient is positive ($0.791 > 0$), it indicates a positive correlation between the variables in Column 1 and Column 2.

Variables represent poverty rates and labor force participation rates, there is a positive correlation suggests that as poverty rates increase, labor force participation rates tend to increase as well.

While compare to 2004-05 poverty level and Labour force participation rate with 2011-12 poverty level and Labour force participation rate, there is high degree of positive correlation exists between the two variables.

The influence of socio-economic factors such as education, access to healthcare, and income inequality on the relationship between labor dynamics and poverty levels in Uttar Pradesh is multi-faceted and intricate.

Education- plays a pivotal role in shaping labor dynamics and poverty levels in Uttar Pradesh. Higher levels of education are associated with better job opportunities, higher incomes, and greater economic mobility. Individuals with higher levels of education are often able to access skilled employment opportunities, which can lead to increased productivity and earnings. Moreover, education

equips individuals with the knowledge and skills necessary to adapt to changing labor market demands, reducing their susceptibility to unemployment and poverty. However, disparities in educational attainment, particularly between urban and rural areas and across socio-economic groups, contribute to unequal access to employment opportunities and perpetuate cycles of poverty.

Access to healthcare- services significantly influences labor dynamics and poverty levels in Uttar Pradesh. Inadequate access to healthcare exacerbates health-related productivity losses, absenteeism, and labor market exclusion, particularly among vulnerable populations. Poor health outcomes, including high prevalence of communicable and non-communicable diseases, can hinder individuals' ability to participate in the labor force, leading to reduced incomes and increased poverty. Moreover, out-of-pocket healthcare expenditures can impose financial burdens on households, further exacerbating poverty. Improving access to affordable and quality healthcare services is crucial for enhancing labor productivity, reducing poverty, and promoting inclusive economic growth.

Income inequality- Income inequality shapes labor dynamics and poverty levels in Uttar Pradesh by influencing individuals' access to economic opportunities and resources. High levels of income inequality exacerbate disparities in employment opportunities, wages, and social mobility, contributing to widespread poverty and social exclusion. Inequality in access to education and healthcare exacerbates income disparities, perpetuating cycles of poverty across generations. Moreover, income inequality can undermine social cohesion and political stability, further hindering efforts to address poverty and promote sustainable development. Implementing progressive taxation policies, expanding social safety nets, and investing in inclusive economic growth strategies are essential for reducing income inequality, improving labor market outcomes, and alleviating poverty in Uttar Pradesh.

Conclusion

Overall, addressing the complex interplay between education, access to healthcare, income inequality, and labor dynamics is critical for effectively combating poverty and promoting inclusive development in Uttar Pradesh. By implementing holistic policy interventions that address these socio-economic factors comprehensively, policymakers can foster equitable economic growth, enhance labor market outcomes, and improve the well-being of all citizens.

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Social and Financial Empowerment of Women in Last Two Decades

Vivek Bhardwaj and Dr. Ajay Kumar Srivastava

Abstract

This paper intends to analyses the status of empowerment of women in last two decades. In this study we take secondary data given by National Family Health Survey which covers almost last two decades. In this study we specially analyses the social and financial condition of women and how much they empowered in last two decades. We also comparatively analyses financial and financial growth of women, for this we take factors like – control over women's earning and freedom of movement of women for social empowerment and women having saving account and women who worked in last 12 month who were paid in cash/in kind or in both for financial empowerment. This study reveals that the factor which shows social empowerment of women is increasing at very slow rate comparatively. Factor which shows financial empowerment increasing at very high rate. This shows government policies are successful in empowering women financially and we need more policies for social empowerment.

Keywords: *Social Empowerment, Financial Empowerment, Socio-Economic Condition.*

Introduction

Indian economy is the 5th largest economy in the world and the fastest growing among the major economy. Indian economy improves a lot in few decades recently Indian economy takes over UK and become 5th largest economy of the world. Now only United States of America, China, Japan, and Germany are ahead of India in terms of economy. But in this new era, it is not only about economic growth. It is about economic development which includes standard of living gender equality higher literacy rate and environmental development.

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Gender equality is the most prominent factor of economic development because it covers all other factor as well. "*Gender inequality holds back growth of individual development of the country and the evolution of society*".

The role of gender equality in every economy is very crucial in this new era; No country can ignore the importance of women's and run their economy smoothly. But despite this fact in India the participation of women is very low. Indian women contribute only 17% in GDP which is less than half of the global average. If 50% of Indian women join the workforce India could increase its growth by 1.5% to 9% per year.

The socio economic condition of Indian women is very pathetic. The term social economy is very broader term and includes many factors such as health education employment in come community safety and social support. India is a democratic state which aims to maximize social welfare of the country which can easily happen if the government tries to empower women because women are the most vulnerable and deprived section of the society, and at the same women constitute half of the population of India.

As per Keshab Chandra Mandal women empowerment could be defined in five separate categories:

- Social empowerment
- Financial empowerment
- Educational empowerment
- Psychological empowerment
- Political empowerment

Objective of the Study

- To study social empowerment of women in last two decades.
- To study financial empowerment of women in last two decades.
- To analyze the impact of social protections programs for women.

In this paper, we only talks about social empowerment and financial empowerment of women in last two decades has happened due different government policies.

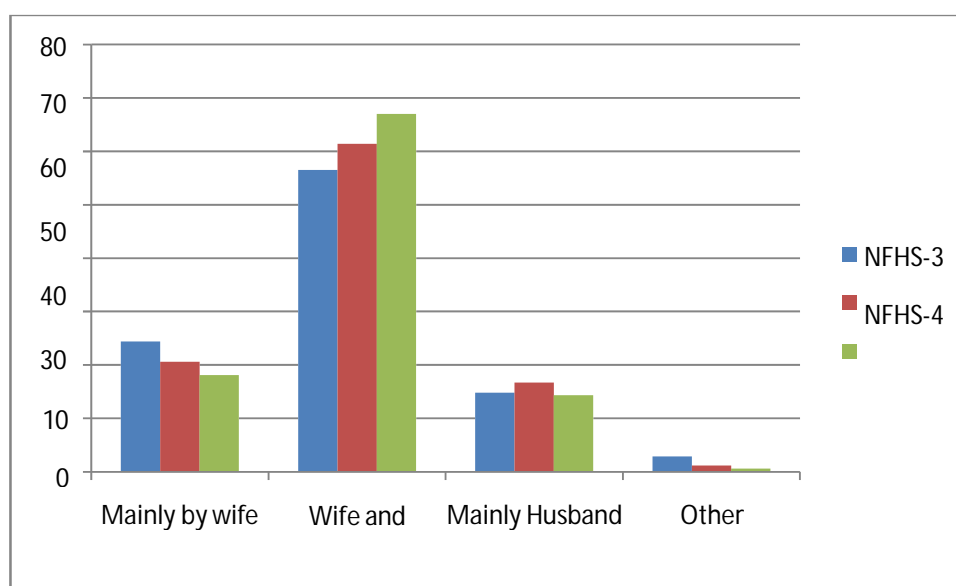
Social empowerment: is the process by which government try to improve the social condition of deprived section such as education, participation in decision making, freedom of speech, freedom of movement, social justice and equal opportunity regardless of gender religion and caste geographical area or any other thing. For example Beti Bachao Beti Padhao, one stop centre scheme, Swadharm Greh Scheme. we analyses how much social empowerment of women is done in last two decades to keep it simple with only take two factor women's control over cash and women's

freedom of movement women control over cash and women freedom of movement presently in India there are 32% NFHS-5 of women who are employed previously this is only 25% NFHS-3 control over cash earn by women is mainly by women or jointly by both husband and wife which increases from 81% to 85% and freedom of movement to women increases by 9% from 33% to 42% the growth rate of both factor are 4% and 9% respectively which is quite satisfactory.

Control over women’s earnings

	Mainly by wife	Wife and Husband	Mainly Husband	Other
NFHS-3	24.4	56.5	14.8	2.9
NFHS-4	20.6	61.4	16.7	1.2
NFHS-5	18.1	67.0	14.3	0.6

Source: National Family Health Survey

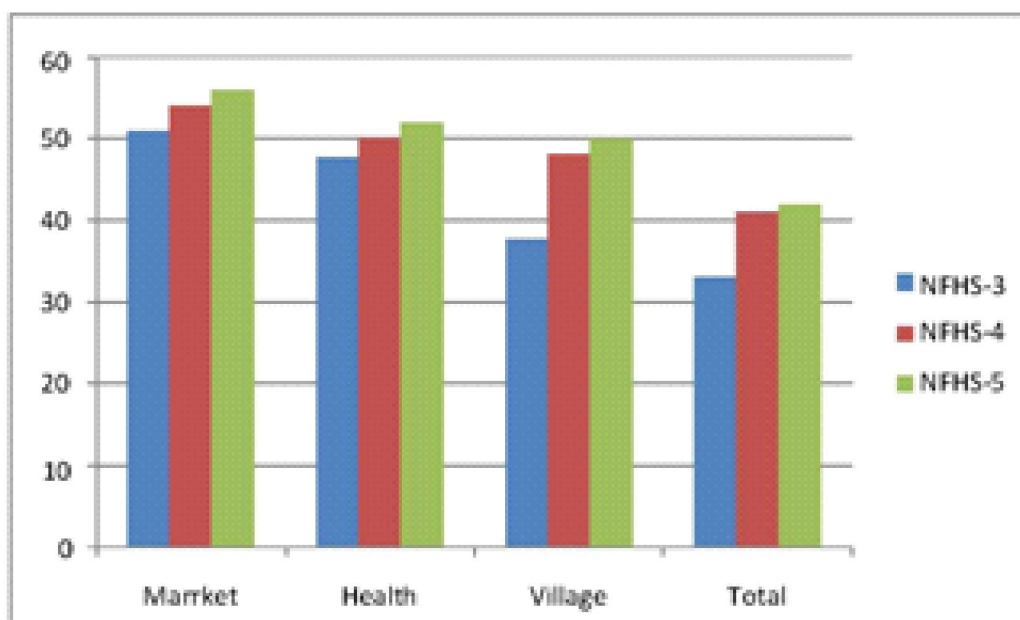


Source: National Family Health Survey

Freedom of movement of women

	Market	Health	Village	Total
NFHS-3	51	47.7	37.7	33
NFHS-4	54	50	48	41
NFHS-5	56	52	50	42

Source: National Family Health Survey



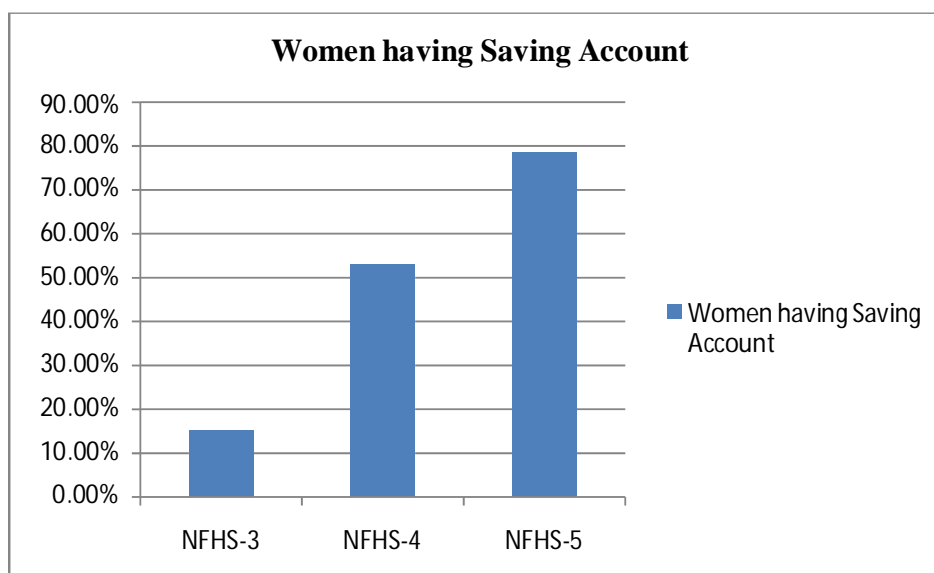
Source: National Family Health Survey

Financial empowerment: is the process in which government tries to improve the financial condition of deprived person group or society, the financial empowerment person should be better understand how to use their financial asset wisely and make better decisions financial empowerment covers financial education and skills financial inclusion banking services and financial outcomes in this article we endless how much financial empowerment of women is done in last two decades to keep it simple we take only two factors women having saving accounts women's who worked in last 12 months and were get paid in cash / in kind or in both in India the current government takes various step to make people financially empowered by their schemes for example Mudra Yojana in and Jan Dhan Yojana in 2015 government introduce Jan Dhan Yojana due to this women having saving account increases tremendously from 15% in NFHS-3 to 78.6% in NFHS-5. these result shows government policies are successful to make financial inclusion of women the second factor women who are employed and get paid in cash/ kind or in both increases from 64%to 83% this shows the increase of 19% which means now women become more financial stable and empower because more women gets payment for their work.

Women having saving account

	Women having saving account
NFHS-3	15.10%
NFHS-4	53%
NGHS-5	78.60%

Source: National Family Health Survey

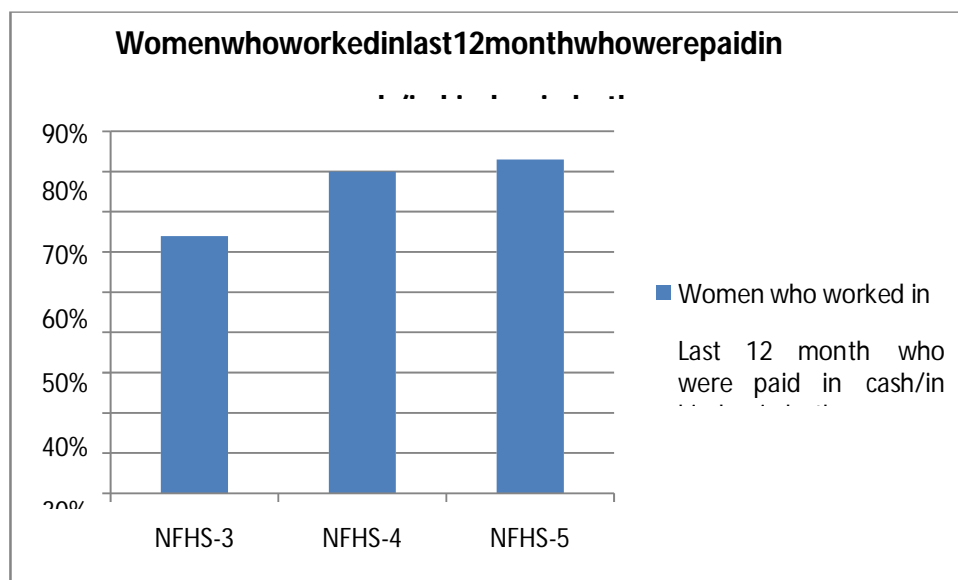


Source: National Family Health Survey

Women who worked in last 12 month who paid in cash / in kind or in both

	Women who worked in last 12 month who paid in cash / in kind or in both
NFHS-3	64%
NFHS-4	80%
NFHS-5	83%

Source: National Family Health Survey



Source: National Family Health Survey

Social Protection Programme for Women

As we shown above the two decades trend of women empowerment, these are some schemes by government which are crucial for women empowerment.

Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana is a financial inclusion program launch by PM Narendra Modi on 28 August 2014. It is not women scheme but it helps a lot in financial inclusion of women. Under the scheme women's hold more than 50% account.

Year	Account, Female (% age 15+)	Account, Male (% age 15+)
2011	26%	44%
2014	43%	63%
2017	77%	83%
2021	78%	78%

Source: Global findex database

Mudra Yojana The Hon'ble Prime Minister introduced the Pradhan Mantri MUDRA Yojana (PMMY) on April 8, 2015, with the aim of lending up to Rs. 10 lakh to small and micro companies that are not corporations or farms. Under

PMMY, these loans are categorized as MUDRA loans. Commercial banks, RRBs, MFIs, NBFCs, and small finance banks are the lenders of these loans. It is also not a women scheme as like Jan Dhan Yojana but it empowers women more compare to men.

	No. of A/Cs (in crore)	Sanctioned Amount (in Rs. Lakh crore)
All India	32.11	17.00
Out of Which		
Women Entrepreneurs	21.73	7.42
% share of Women Entrepreneur	68%	44%

Source: Annual mudra report

Beti Bachao Beti Padhao Scheme was launched by government of India in 2015 the main aim of the scheme is to save girl child and educate the girl child the scheme launch with 100 crore initial funding.

Sukanya Samridhi Yojana was launched in 2015 by PM Narendra Modi the schemes is designed to provide a bright future for girl child it is a government bagged saving scheme which promote parents of girl child to build a fund for their education, health, marriage etc.

One Stop Centre Scheme was launched in 2015 of all ages. It is a sub scheme of national mission for empowerment of women it also includes the Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahayog Yojana the aim of the scheme is to support women against violence and provide psycho - social support and counseling to women.

Swadharm Greh Scheme was launched in 2015 the schemes cover those women who are facing a difficult situation, and needs Government ssupport so that they can live their life with dignity. The scheme provides food, shelter, clothing, health, legal and guidance to women.

Conclusion

This paper concludes that there is a rise in both social empowerment and of women and financial empowerment of women but in social empowerment the rate of growth is very slow in comparison to financial empowerment. Factors which are related to social empowerment increase at 4% - 9% only in comparison to 10% - 20% in financial empowerment factor. This shows that we need more government policy which directly increases social empowerment of women because women only get empowered when all 5 type of empowerment increases simultaneously.

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“Economic Emancipation of Sultanpur Women through Grass”

Akanksha Singh and Prof Hilal Ahmad

ABSTRACT

Under the One District One Product scheme in Uttar Pradesh, moonj production is associated with three districts of Uttar Pradesh, across different districts particularly in regions where moonj grass is naturally abundant among them one is Sultanpur district in Uttar Pradesh. It is generally renowned for its moonj crafts, which involves weaving ropes, mats, containers, basket, cup coaster set, hand fan, chair and table, supauli, and other handicraft products from moonj grass. The One District One Product scheme aims to promote traditional crafts and products from specific district to boost local economies and preserve indigenous skills and heritage. One District One Product has the capacity for creating employment opportunity for rural peoples, it can also solve the problem of regional imbalances between rural and urban areas by providing employment and providing training facility to the artisans in their specific field. So that they can do better in handicraft sector according to recent trends and demand by customers. As in recent years the Indian economy has seen a significant rise in initiatives aimed at empowering females and this trend reflects an era of women empowerment in the country. Empowerment of female artisans in the handicraft sector involves providing opportunities for them to achieve economic independence enhance their skills and participate fully in decision making process. Despite of many schemes and promotion of women empowerment still females artisans are exploited by the male members of their family and society. Economic condition of female artisans generally depends upon geographical location, access to sources good market opportunities, family size and income, lack of knowledge, etc. female artisans of nishad community are very backward and away from new technologies, due to lack of proper training their products are not updated according to the market demand they still use traditional methods for crafting moonj products and while collecting raw materials by themselves they face many problems and challenges. The study aims to; understand the role of moonj handicraft sector in generation of employment in rural areas of Sultanpur, role of ODOP

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scheme for economic emancipation of female moonj artisans, and to understand the level of injustice, discrimination and exploitation of female artisans of nishad community. Both Primary and secondary data is used in this research paper.

KEYWORDS: *ODOP, Economic emancipation, handicraft, empowerment, economic independence.*

INTRODUCTION

Moonj grass also known as sarpat, sarkanda, munja, it is a type of wild grass found generally near river banks, road side and highway areas and the place where no cultivation is done. It is a versatile, chronic and longstanding grass species with several uses and cultural significance in this region. This grass is distributed throughout Uttar Pradesh, from the plains to hilly regions both in rural and urban areas. This grass typically grows in clumps or tufts, with long, slender stems that can reach heights of 2 to 3 meters.

For cultivation of moonj grass the best place for it will be where there is plenty of sunlight as this grass requires full sunlight for optimal growth. Moonj grass is primarily propagated through rhizomes, which are underground stems. Rhizomes can be obtained from established moonj grass plants. This grass is generally planted from the roots of moonj grass. These roots are buried under the soil and after 2 to 3 months they become fully mature. By this process about 40-50 thousands saplings can be planted per hectare. The small saplings must be protected from wild animals and excess of water as wet soil is very harmful for the small sapling roots. It does not require chemical fertilizers and much care. Moonj grass is harvested from October to November months every year. When the grass color and its height is about 10 to 11 feet then this is the best time for its harvesting.

One of the primary uses of moonj grass is a thatching material for the rural houses, leaves of moonj grass is used for constructing thatched roofs, providing insulation and protection from the climatic conditions and wildlife to the poor and economically backward classes. This grass is also used by the artisans to make different and decorative items for their survival and financial support.

This grass has economic, religious, cultural and environmental significance. Roots of the moonj grass is very useful as it prevents vegetables and crops from the direct sunlight and animals, as moonj grass is grown by the farmers as a protecting shield around the field for the safety purpose. It has many medical uses also. Moonj grass was used in Vedic rituals and yajna as an offering to the gods. This grass was used as to make decorations of mandaps during auspicious occasions and festivals. It provides employment opportunity to the rural females as they make different items from the moonj grass and earn money by selling a products made up of moonj grass.

METAMORPHOSIS OF WILD GRASS INTO DECORATIVE ITEMS

Journey of moonj products starts from collection of raw materials by the Mallah community. They reside near river banks and their main occupation is fishing and supplying raw materials to the factory where moonj production is done. They supply balla, kaasa, sarahri, sirki to the moonj factory. Female of this community harvest the moonj grass by the knife and hasiya. Female harvesters of moonj grass are hurt by moonj grass leaves as they are sharp in nature and sometimes while procuring the raw material snakes, centipedes, honey bees also harm the female workers. While harvesting moonj grass they face lot of problems like knee pain, back pain, hands pain etc. because of carrying heavy raw materials on their heads and hands. After collecting raw materials firstly they beat the green moonj grass and keep this in sunlight for 4 to 5 days, sometime they use to keep the green grass on roads as it is easily beaten and dried. Dried moonj grass is twisted by machine or charkha and stretching to remove unevenness and improve quality. In one day (8 hours) mallah community prepare 2 to 3 kg of baadh. Baadh is used as making of charpai or for knotting of moonj chair and table, making of swings etc. Moonj is the principal material from which various raw materials can be obtained that are balla, sirki, sarahri, and moonj grass. And the second prime raw material is kaasa grass which is found generally on the banks of rivers. Kaasa is available throughout the year but harvested in month of August its height is normal and less than moonj grass. Kaasa is used as inside stuffing, it provides a framework for the moonj product. Moonj grass generally found near road side, highway so non-barren and where no cultivation is done and on river banks. From moonj grass various raw materials are collected the hardest part of moonj that is inner stalk and the thicker part called as sarahri which is used for making furniture, bookshelf, shoes rack, table, chair, etc. and sirki the upper thinner part is used for making supauli, toys etc. supauli is knotted by bamboo thin stick and thread. From one meter sirki artisans make ten supauli and in one day they can prepare three supauli a day. Supauli are used by female for cleaning of rice, wheat and other food grains. And the important raw material is balla. The peeled off and knotted part is known as balla. Balla can be obtained only in month of October and November month. Balla is used for beautification and durability of moonj products, it is soaked in water before using, as it becomes flexible and easy for making products. To make the products more attractive and beautiful artisans color the balla, it is colored by boiling color water. After the balla catches the color it is removed from the vessel and washed in water and then a gain kept in sunlight to dry. This process requires much attention while boiling of color as some times they burn themselves.

OBJECTIVES

1. To understand the role of moonj handicraft sector in generation of employment opportunity in rural areas of Sultanpur district.
2. To understand the role of One District One Products scheme for economic emancipation of female moonj artisans.

3. To identify the level of injustice, inequality, discrimination, and exploitation of female moonj artisans.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

1. H₀- There is no significant difference between role of moonj handicraft sector and generation of employment in rural areas of Sultanpur district.
2. H₀- There is no significant difference between role of One District One Product scheme and economic emancipation of female moonj artisans.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1. Chattopadhyay says (2012) India's handicraft sector has given real picture of handicraft workers' lives condition due to the entry of foreign country's products and demand they are giving tough competition as Indian technology and specialised labour lags behind.

2. Khan And Amir (2013) published their research paper "study of agribusiness and handicraft marketing strategies of artisans in Uttar Pradesh and its implications." They highlighted that there is lack of government support in handicraft sector and also suggested that with the government support how well artisans can do.

3. Dev K, Bhatt KN (2019) published research paper "handicraft for sustainable livelihoods: insights from saccharum munja artisan products in Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh, India. They state the problem of shrinking demand of handicraft products and poor bank credit, and marketing. They suggested that there is immediate need for creating demand for handicraft products.

4. Jaitly (2019) published her paper "craft tradition of India" has focused sikri, she also mentioned how hard their socio-economic condition, that can't be narrated easily.

5. U. Sh. Yadav, R Tripathi (2021) published their research paper "Role of ODOP and moonj craft of Uttar Pradesh strategies and new approaches for developing first global handicraft index". They highlighted how ODOP has helped poor and rural people during covid. It provided job opportunity to the people when many people were removed from jobs. They suggested that more training and new technology, market intelligence and sufficient institution framework is required for betterment of handicraft sector.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology refers to the systematic approach and techniques used to conduct research. It encompasses the methods, processes and procedure that researchers employ together, analyze, and interpret data in order to answer specific research questions or test hypothesis.

Data Collection- The present study consists on the basis of primary and secondary data collection. The primary data is collected from the female moonj artisans through in-

depth interview and observation. And secondary data is collected from various publication, journals, published research paper and thesis.

Sampling- Sampling involves selecting a subset of the population being studied as its often impractical to study an entire population. The sample of the study is drawn by purposive and convenience sampling technique method.

Sample Size- The sample size is drawn from the nishad community's female moonj artisans in Sultanpur district. Total sample size for the study is selected about fifty respondents from nishad community female moonj artisans.

Research Instrument- Structured questionnaire is used in this study. Before preparing of questionnaire researcher has direct contact with nishad community people who are involve in moonj handicraft sector. After various discussions researcher has prepared the well designed questionnaire in a proper sequence.

SOCIO- ECONOMIC CONDITION OF FEMALE MOONJ ARTISANS OF NISHAD COMMUNITY

In olden days moonj handicraft was the traditional work of females in rural areas. In their free time they use to craft moonj products for their daily use, now with as become earning source and important for their survival. This has given them economic independence and social recognition as a moonj artisans. Interview and observation method is used by the researcher to collect the data from female moonj artisans of nishad community. There are many villages where nishad community female moonj artisans involve in moonj handicraft. Data is collected from the two villages of nishad community that are Kachha Bhitaura and other is Belahri.

Moonj artisans were individually involved in moonj handicraft, without any publicity, government schemes and financial support for benefit of moonj artisans. To support these artisans in Sultanpur there are two entities that run moonj handicraft one is NGO named Sultanpur Craft Samiti established in 2020 as a registered society and other is Utkarsh Handicraft which is Sultanpur based business house that excels in the production of a variety of products made with moonj grass. In Sultanpur district there are total ten centres and one moonj factory where moonj handicraft is done. Moonj factory is situated in Rahipara village Guregav run by Rajesh Singh. The land where factory is established is on lease taken by government for thirty years. This factory is owned by the Uttar Pradesh government with ninety percent share and only ten percent share by the private investor. Moonj handicraft is the traditional work of nishad community which they are practicing since ancient time and still they are continuing their tradition. Despite of having ten centres in Sultanpur district still nishad community female artisans work at their own place, most of the moonj handicraft centres are not in proper working condition. Generally, nishad community belongs to backward classes and their socio-economic is not so good. Female moonj artisans of this community are very poor that they have no proper place to keep the moonj products and raw materials as they live in small

huts and kaccha houses made up of sugarcane leaves and moonj grasses. Female artisans are uneducated and have no knowledge about government schemes, so they are not able to avail any benefit from government scheme which are for handicraft artisans under ODOP scheme. Due to lack of knowledge about family planning most of the female artisans have four to six children. Their lifestyle is different as compare to other moonj artisans as they still use traditional method to craft moonj products. Nishad community people lives near river banks. As they resides near river banks so their life is always in danger. Female artisans collect raw materials by themselves as moonj grass are mostly found near river banks while collecting raw materials they face many problems. There are many different stages perform by artisans from which the simple grass is converted into work of art. As it takes lot of pain and sacrifice to convert the simple moonj grass into work of art, and when they get little profit by selling the moonj products to the factory owner, so they are demotivated and take less interest and craft only that much products from which they can have at least two- time meal. During interview when the question was asked why they are not solely involved in this craft and why they are not giving their maximum time to moonj handicraft then most of the artisans answer was "emajadafayda to nabalekinpete k tai karithaikhlibai the se achcha bakiahekaamkarikam sekamkuche mil jathai" this shows that due to less benefit they do not take much interest and only do this for their survival. Mostly males of this community are involved in other business like boating, fishing, etc. so they generally works outside and also are in habit of daily consumption of wine, due to lack of support from male member of family female artisans has much more burden of family as compare to males, as they look after their family and work not in a balanced way. They are the backbone of the family, but then also exploited by the male members of a family. As male members spend their most of the wages on wine and other bad habits. These artisans are so backward that they are still in practice of open defecation and away from the modern technology.

STRUGGLES AND OBSTACLES COUNTERED IN ARTISANAL WORK

There is lack of availability of raw material to the artisans there are plenty of raw material to the artisans but they have to pay money to land owners. Collection of raw material is for a very short period of time, and the artisans do not have proper place to keep large amount of raw materials at their place. There is no common platform for sale of moonj products and no place for drying the balla and lack of equipment for drying purpose. Procurement of raw materials is difficult especially for the small weavers, since the stockists usually charge higher than the prevailing market prices with no credit facility while collecting raw materials female artisans face many problems. Artisans are using traditional and locally available implements for cutting raw materials and making craft items. They are also not very skilled to maintain the quality of products, and they are also not producing new innovative products, as more than twenty percent artisans are semi- skilled and more than ten percent are at learning stage so they take less interest in moonj craft as wages are very less according to their work. There is lack of awareness regarding financial assistance provided by government scheme, they are

also not aware about the different government schemes from which they can get benefit. There is lack of awareness about the moonj clusters, artisans are not provided with the new product range according to the new trends in the market.

MEASURES TO SUPPORT THE GROWTH OF FEMALE MOONJ ARTISANS

After studying about the challenges faced by the female moonj artisans there are some recommendations for the betterment of moonj craft artisans. There should be raw material banks for the moonj craft as a part of common facility centres will support artisans in timely supply of raw materials, so that artisans can manage their work accordingly, storage facility for raw material finished products with racks and almirahs. Drudgery will be reduced by utilizing transport to collect raw material semi processed draw materials, providing gloves and gumboots to the artisans to protect from bleeding, snake bites, centipede and bees attack. There should be establishment of training centres with required equipment so that female artisans can improve the quality of a product. Artisans should be provided the designs inputs with experienced designers to introduce new products range as per market trends. Government should provide one vehicle to organize mobile sales and female artisans should participate in fairs, festivals, exhibitions, craft melas with cluster products. They should be also educated about the different schemes from which they can take benefits. Their wages should be raised so that more artisans can involve in moonj handicraft sector and they can be motivated for betterment of the moonj products quality. They should also be aware about the family planning so that there is less burden of children on them and can work more efficiently they should also be taught about the benefit of education in their life so that they can educate their children for betterment of their future. Government should establish many moonj handicraft centres where female artisans can work together there should be a common place where they can sale their products directly to the customers or government agents so that their profit level is not reduced.

CONCLUSION

From above study it can be concluded that despite many challenges faced by female artisans of nishad community they are involved in moonj handicraft sectors for their survival for their basic needs. Moonj handicraft sectors has potential to provide more job opportunity in rural areas and can solve the problem of unemployment after doing some essential improvement in this sector as recommendations above in this research paper

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An Economic Impact of Analysis of the Tourism Sector in India

Dr. Dinesh Yadav and Abhishek Yadav

Abstract

In recent years, research and analysis have focused on the role that tourism plays in a country's economic development. Most people would agree that tourism has always been important for promoting socioeconomic growth and increasing cross-cultural interactions. Since tourism is widely acknowledged as a driver of economic progress, enormous sums of money are invested in its advancement on a yearly basis all over the world. In light of this, this essay aims to explore the dynamics of the connection between India's economic expansion and the development of its tourist industry

The creation of policy instruments, programs for capacity building and awareness-raising, local engagement, best practices guidelines, and real implementation—all contribute to the promotion of sustainable tourism—remain crucial objectives. The direct support of sustainable production and consumption as well as the reduction of poverty should be the goal of sustainable tourism. Larger-scale advancement will necessitate a delicate balancing act and a significant “sea-change” in mindset from the travel and tourism sector as a whole, but it is an approach that is obviously deserving of support from all interested and active parties in the sector.

The tourist industry's greatest benefit is its capacity to create the most job opportunities. Both regional and economic growths are aided by tourism. According to a recent survey, India's top foreign exchange earner is tourism, which has emerged as a result of globalization and the open economy. It offers the chance to enhance the infrastructure. The enhancement of roads, automobiles, communication, water supply, airports, and railway stations are critical components of every nation's total growth. Economic growth and industry development are only influenced by the overall progress of the nation. To this overall infrastructural enhancement, tourism also makes a substantial contribution.

Key words: *Economic development, Tourism, GDP, Employment Awareness.*

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Introduction:

In recent years, research and analysis have focused on the role that tourism plays in a country's economic development. There is broad agreement that throughout human history, tourism has played a significant role in fostering socioeconomic development and expanding cross-cultural exchanges. In recent times, several rich and developing nations have explored tourism as a viable means of achieving sustainable development within their country. Since tourism is widely acknowledged as a driver of economic progress, enormous sums of money are invested in its advancement on a yearly basis all over the world.

When people travel for leisure, business, or other reasons and leave their customary area of residence, they engage in a variety of activities, experiences, and interactions that collectively make up the multidimensional phenomena known as tourism. It means visiting, valuing, and interacting with different places, cultures, and environments. It promotes worldwide cultural interchange, economic growth, and personal enrichment.

Fundamentally, tourism is about people moving—for a variety of reasons—from one location to another. These motivations can range widely, including the desire for leisure and entertainment, travel to new places and sample different cuisines, adventure and outdoor activities, business possibilities, going to events and festivals, or just getting away from the grind of everyday life. Traveling provides a wealth of experiences catered to personal tastes and interests, whether it's a luxury cruise across seas, a weekend escape to a local city, or a backpacking expedition across strange landscapes.

The promotion of respect and understanding across cultural boundaries is one of the hallmarks of tourism. Travelers' perspectives are expanded and their prejudices are challenged when they explore new places and experience other cultures, languages, and ways of life. In example, cultural tourism entails visiting historical monuments, museums, art galleries, and nearby towns. This type of travel offers chances for deep conversations with locals and an understanding of their customs and traditions.

In the year before the epidemic, 2019, 10.93 million foreign tourists arrived in India (FTAs). After the Covid-19 outbreak, the tourism industry has showed encouraging indications of recovery. The number of foreign tourists that came in India in 2022 (FTAs) increased from 1.52 million to 6.19 million, according to data from the Bureau of Immigration.

In 1945, the Sir John Sargent Committee was founded, which was the first step towards popularising the idea of Indian tourism. The committee's 1946 report contained suggestions for opening regional offices in Bombay, Delhi, Calcutta, and Madras. It was also established in 1949 with the establishment of two regional offices in Bombay and Delhi, as well as a Tourist Traffic Branch. On March 1, 1958, the Tourist Traffic Branch was reorganised by the Ministry of Transport and Communication, and the Tourist Department was established in its stead.

Review of Literature

The economic impact of the tourist sector in India is compiled by Gupta, S and Sharma, D. (2020) in their study, “Economic Impact of Tourism Sector in India,” which draws on experimental research. In addition to GDP, employment, foreign exchange profits, and regional development, it examines the impact of tourism. The research delves into the obstacles confronting the tourist industry, policy ramifications, and the correlation between infrastructure investment and tourism development.

Singh, P., & Barman, S. (2019).”Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism in India”, This paper provides a comprehensive review of literature on the socio-economic impact of tourism in India. It discusses the positive and negative effects of tourism on local communities, cultural heritage, and the environment. The study also examines the role of government policies and community involvement in promoting sustainable tourism practices.

Mittal, R., & Singh, R. (2018), in the paper titled”Environmental Impact of Tourism in India”analyzes the environmental impact of tourism in India based on existing studies. It discusses the effects of tourism on biodiversity, ecosystems, water resources, and air quality. The study also examines the role of sustainable tourism practices, environmental regulations, and community awareness in mitigating negative impacts on the environment.

Kumar, A., & Bhatia, A. (2016),’Policy Implications of Tourism Sector in India”This review assesses the policy implications of the tourism sector in India based on existing studies. It examines government policies, regulations, and initiatives aimed at promoting tourism development, infrastructure investment, and sustainable tourism practices. The study also discusses challenges facing policy implementation and recommendations for policy reform.

Objective:

- To measure the trend of tourism in India in the study period.
- To find out which 10 countries sent the most international visitors to India in 2022.

Methodology:

The research has employed a quantitative methodology. To evaluate the economic benefits of the tourist sector, quantitative analysis has collected data from a variety of sources, such as industry databases, government reports, and surveys. The study’s final product, supported by substantial empirical data, is a set of policy suggestions for India’s sustainable tourism growth.

The following research approach was used to accomplish the aforementioned goals:

Sample size: To analyse the study, data spanning 20 years gathered.

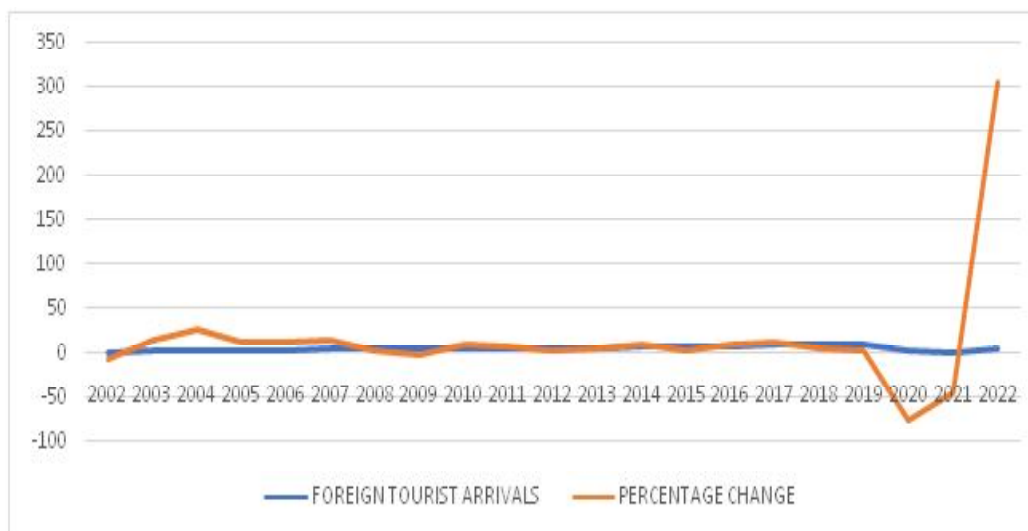
Data Collection: Study has used secondary data.

Time Period: This study is primarily based on secondary data. The study covers the time period from 2002 to 2022.

Result:**Table 1: FOREIGN TOURIST ARRIVALS IN INDIA IN MILLION**

YEAR	FOREIGN TOURIST ARRIVALS	PERCENTAGE CHANGE
2002	2.38	-6.0
2003	2.73	14.3
2004	3.46	26.8
2005	3.92	13.3
2006	4.45	13.5
2007	5.08	14.3
2008	5.28	4.0
2009	5.17	-2.2
2010	5.78	11.8
2011	6.31	9.2
2012	6.58	4.3
2013	6.97	5.9
2014	7.68	10.2
2015	8.03	4.6
2016	8.80	9.6
2017	10.04	14.1
2018	10.56	5.2
2019	10.93	3.5
2020	2.74	-74.9
2021	1.52	-44.5
2022	6.19	305.4

Source: Bureau of Immigration, Govt. of India 2023

GRAPH 1: FOREIGN TOURIST ARRIVALS IN INDIA IN MILLION

Source: Bureau of Immigration, Govt. of India 2023

From 2002 to 2007, there is a consistent and significant increase in foreign tourist arrivals, with year-on-year growth rates ranging from 6.0% to 14.3%. This period coincides with India's increasing popularity as a tourist destination, driven by factors such as improved infrastructure, enhanced marketing efforts, and favourable economic conditions both domestically and internationally. Between 2008 and 2010, there is a little slowdown in the growth rate of foreign visitor arrivals, with a range of -2.2% to 11.8%. The global financial crisis of 2008–2009 and its aftermath were most likely the reason for this decade's economic slowdown. There might be several reasons for this decline in tourism, including decreased discretionary spending, concerns about travel safety, and unstable economic conditions.

Arrivals of international visitors have been rising on average between 2011 and 2019, while there have been occasional annual swings. In the nine years between 2011 and 2019, the number of arrivals climbed from 6.31 million to 10.93 million, signifying a surge of around 73%. Arrival percentage changes yearly, with 2019 seeing the lowest percentage change at 3.5% and 2017 seeing the highest percentage change at 14.1%. Economic conditions, exchange rates, geopolitical stability, and marketing initiatives are a few examples of the variables that might affect these swings.

A significant decrease in foreign visitor visits occurs in 2020 and 2021 as a result of the COVID-19 epidemic and related travel restrictions. 2020 had a sharp decline in arrivals to 2.74 million, a substantial 74.9% drop from 2019. Worldwide, the epidemic caused significant disruptions to international travel, resulting in numerous cancellations and border closures. Though arrivals increased to 1.52 million in 2021, the situation remained somewhat better

than the year before, with a 44.5% decrease. Travel was still limited, though, by persistent pandemic-related issues like as viral variations, vaccination rates, and changing travel restrictions.

The number of international visitors arriving in the United States in 2022 rises to 6.19 million, a stunning comeback. By comparison, this is a significant rise of 305.4% over 2021. Pent-up demand for travel, immunisation efforts, the progressive reopening of borders, and the relaxing of travel restrictions are some of the reasons contributing to the notable resurgence.

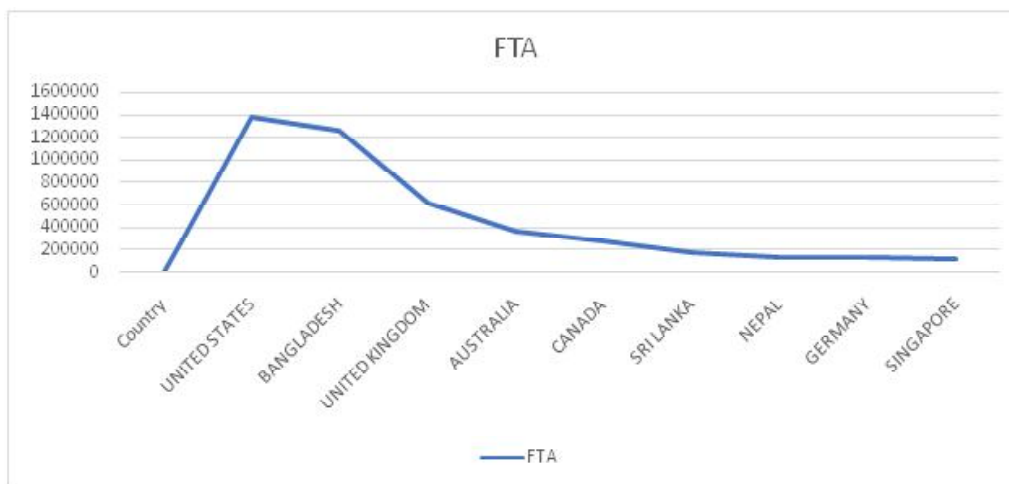
Top 10 Countries for Foreign Tourist Arrivals:

TABLE 2: Top 10 Countries for Foreign Tourist Arrivals in India during 2022

	Country	Foreign Tourist Arrivals	Percentage Share
1	UNITED STATES	13,73,817	22.19
2	BANGLADESH	12,55,960	20.29
3	UNITED KINGDOM	6,17,768	9.98
4	AUSTRALIA	3,69,023	5.96
5	CANADA	2,77,291	4.48
6	SRI LANKA	1,77,652	2.87
7	NEPAL	1,35,347	2.19
8	GERMANY	1,24,496	2.01
9	SINGAPORE	1,17,195	1.89
10	MALAYSIA	1,16,523	1.88

Source: Bureau of Immigration, Govt. of India 2023.

Graph 2: Top 10 Countries for Foreign Tourist Arrivals in India during 2022



Source: Bureau of Immigration, Govt. of India 2022.

The table lists the top 10 countries of origin for foreign tourists visiting India. Each country is identified by its name.

Foreign Tourist Arrivals: This column shows the number of tourists arriving in India from each country during the specified period. The numbers are typically measured over a certain timeframe, such as a year, and represent the total count of tourists from each country visiting India during that period.

Percentage Share: The percentage share column displays the portion of foreign arrivals that came from each country relative to the total number of arrivals in India. It is calculated by dividing the total number of arrivals by the number of arrivals from each country, then multiplying the result by 100.

The United States tops the list with 1,373,817 foreign tourist arrivals, accounting for 22.19% of the total arrivals in India. This indicates a significant number of tourists from the US visiting India. Bangladesh follows closely behind with 1,255,960 arrivals, representing 20.29% of the total. This suggests a substantial influx of tourists from neighbouring Bangladesh. The United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada also contribute notable numbers of tourists, with 6.17%, 5.96%, and 4.48% shares, respectively. Other countries in the list, such as Sri Lanka, Nepal, Germany, Singapore, and Malaysia, contribute to India’s tourism industry with varying percentages of arrivals, ranging from 2.87% to 1.88%.

Finding:

- There has been a consistent increase in the number of international tourists visiting India between 2011 and 2019, with an overall upward trend. This suggests that throughout this time, interest in India as a travel destination grew.
- Although there is a general upward tendency, the growth rate varies annually. The percentage change in arrivals, for instance, varies, with values as low as 3.5% in 2019 and as high as 14.1% in 2017. A number of variables, including exchange rates, marketing initiatives, geopolitical stability, and economic conditions, might have an impact on these swings.
- According to the statistics, the COVID-19 epidemic and related travel restrictions resulted in a notable decrease in international visitor arrivals in 2020 and 2021. Comparing 2020 and 2021 to the prior years, arrivals fell by 74.9% and 44.5%, respectively.
- There was a significant drop in arrivals to India as a result of the pandemic's severe disruption of international travel, which resulted in numerous cancellations, border closures, and health concerns.
- With 22.19% and 20.29% of all international tourist arrivals in India coming from the United States and Bangladesh, respectively, these two nations are the main sources of arrivals. This suggests that India receives a substantial amount of tourists from these nations.
- A number of adjacent nations, such as Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Nepal, are included among the top 10 source countries. This shows how crucial travel links and collaboration in the regional tourism industry are to the flow of tourists into India.

Suggestion:

- Develop contingency plans and strategies to mitigate the impact of external shocks such as pandemics, natural disasters, political instability, and economic downturns. This could include diversifying tourism offerings, enhancing flexibility in operations, and building resilience in the face of uncertainty.
- Allocate resources towards improving tourism infrastructure such as transportation networks, accommodations, attractions, and amenities. Enhancing accessibility, connectivity, and quality of services can enhance the overall visitor experience and attract more tourists.
- Foster collaboration and partnerships among government agencies, tourism boards, industry stakeholders, and local communities. Work together to address common challenges, share resources, and coordinate marketing efforts to maximize the industry's collective impact.

Conclusion:

Tourism industry in India has faced challenges, including the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, the data indicates promising signs of recovery and resilience. Moving forward, continued efforts to promote sustainable tourism practices, diversify source markets, enhance infrastructure, and strengthen collaboration among stakeholders will be essential to sustain growth and ensure the long-term success of India's tourism sector. By leveraging its rich cultural heritage, natural beauty, and diverse attractions, India can position itself as a premier destination for travellers worldwide.

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Assessing the Influence of Natural Disasters and Pandemics on Tourist Inflow: An In-depth Examination of Uttarakhand

Yasmin Ameer

ABSTRACT:

Tourism, being highly sensitive to environmental factors, faces various challenges that can impede its growth, often beyond human control. This paper aims to examine the repercussions of natural disasters on tourist arrivals, focusing specifically on Uttarakhand, a picturesque state in India. Utilizing secondary data from the Department of Tourism, Uttarakhand, the study conducts a descriptive analysis of domestic and foreign tourist arrivals from 2010 to 2022. Results reveal significant disparities in arrival patterns between domestic and foreign tourists during this period. Moreover, the study underscores the adverse impact of a specific natural calamity occurring on June 16 and 17, 2013, and the Pandemic in 2020 on Uttarakhand's tourism. These findings offer valuable insights for stakeholders keen on understanding the ramifications of such natural disasters and pandemics on tourist footfalls.

Key words: *Tourism, Natural calamity, Pandemic, Uttarakhand*

INTRODUCTION:

The escalating frequency of disasters and crises impacting the tourism industry, spanning from natural to human-induced factors, has become increasingly apparent to researchers and scholars. The globalization of tourism has propelled the rapid expansion of tourism-related businesses worldwide, driven by the pursuit of market share and profitability. Nonetheless, this globalization process has exposed businesses to a broader spectrum of “global risks” inherent in operating at such a scale, characterized by complexity and unpredictability (Jessop, 1999). Uttarakhand, renowned as the “Land of the Gods,” has attained significance due to its religious and cultural prominence. Divided into two main regions, Garhwal and Kumaun, it encapsulates a rich diversity encompassing cultural, religious, and environmental heritage. This region is exceptionally vulnerable to seismic and ecological perturbations. Environmentalists and geologists have warned that even minor anthropogenic or natural changes could precipitate

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major disasters. A notable calamity struck on June 16 and 17, 2013, in Kedarnath, resulting in the complete devastation of the town, leaving only debris and rubble in its wake. Hundreds of lives both local people and tourists, and live stocks were washed-out within moments.

Numerous sections of the sole road leading to the final bus stop at Sonprayag were swept away. The local community's livelihood in the area relies heavily on seasonal pilgrims and tourists. This incident posed a significant setback not only for the affected individuals but also for the entire nation, as those impacted hailed from various parts of the country. Similarly, the Covid 19 pandemic acted as a major halt to the tourism sector not only in the state but world as a whole. Consequently, this study is undertaken to assess the influence of natural disasters and pandemics on tourist influx in this particular region.

LITERATURE REVIEW:

Uttarakhand, often referred to as "Dev Bhoomi," boasts the majestic Himalayas renowned for their natural splendor. Pilgrims have been drawn to the region for centuries, with iconic destinations like the Char-Dham pilgrimage sites—Badrinath, Kedarnath, Gangotri, and Yamunotri—serving as major attractions. Additionally, hill resorts such as Mussoorie, Nainital, Almora, and Ranikhet are popular tourist hubs. The breathtaking landscapes of Uttarakhand have significantly boosted tourism prospects. Various forms of adventure tourism, including mountaineering, trekking, river rafting, rock climbing, and skiing, have captivated tourists. However, these mass tourism activities exert considerable pressure on the environment and local social fabric. Climatic conditions play a pivotal role in the unsustainable development and consequent occurrence of disasters in the region, as highlighted by ICIMOD (2007). The relentless depletion of resources and frequent natural calamities in the Himalayan region pose challenges to community and regional development (Hoermann&Kollmair, 2008). Tourism has been recognized as a vital contributor to economic growth in developing countries, surpassing its impact in wealthier nations (Ashley & Mitchell, 2005). UNWTO's 2002 report emphasizes tourism's potential to stimulate local entrepreneurship and foster sustainable economic development (UNWTO, 2002). Tourism has elevated living standards in mountainous regions worldwide (Jodha, 1992; Beniston, 2000; Jodha, 2002), prompting a growing focus on sustainable socio-economic and environmental development in the Himalayan region (Sharma, 2000). Kohli (2004) stresses the importance of empowering local communities regarding their resources in tourism development. Infrastructure plays a crucial role in fostering tourism, as highlighted in the Earth Summit of 2002. Urbanization, coupled with natural features, scenic beauty, cultural heritage, and natural attractions, drives tourism growth (Jacob, 2008). However, natural disasters present formidable challenges to the tourism sector, hindering its rapid expansion globally.

The unrestricted influx of tourists to Uttarakhand has significantly impacted the state's ecology. The accessibility of shrines like Badrinath, Kedarnath, and Gangotri has contributed to the surge in visitors, as noted by Bisht (2013). Jacob (2013) highlighted concerns during a CNN-IBN interview, pointing out that the rising number of pilgrims, particularly those from

the plains seeking guided hill tours in vehicles, has been steadily escalating. However, local authorities have overlooked the carrying capacity and cumulative effects of dam construction and illegal buildings on the fragile Himalayan environment. This surge in tourist arrivals has led to additional challenges such as severe traffic congestion and road obstructions. Tourists frequently lament the poor road conditions and lengthy travel times, prompting government assurances to widen roads to accommodate the increasing influx. Considering the fragility of the mountains, particularly the young Himalayan ranges, road infrastructure faces challenges due to poor soil stability, particularly during monsoon seasons. Jacob (2013) further pointed out that rampant illegal construction by locals exacerbates these issues, alongside the significant increase in hill traffic and vehicle registrations. This situation exacerbates the risk of landslides, as additional infrastructure, often poorly constructed, is introduced without proper consideration for the region's delicate and unstable terrain.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

The overarching objectives of this research are as follows:

1. Investigate the impact of natural disasters and pandemics on tourist arrivals in Uttarakhand.
2. Examine the inflow of tourists visiting Uttarakhand, during the study period.
3. Assess the distribution of tourists as domestic and foreigner.

HISTORY OF UTTARAKHAND ECONOMY :

The traditional economy of Uttarakhand was heavily reliant on its natural resources, with Bhotiya communities in the northern districts primarily engaged in subsistence farming, utilizing forest resources, practicing crafts, participating in limited mining activities, and engaging in trade with Tibet. However, the development and structure of this traditional economy were significantly influenced by ongoing struggles over the control and utilization of Uttarakhand's natural resources, particularly its forests. The governance framework dictated whether these forests were exploited for economic gains or managed to provide subsistence services and protect the ecosystem.

During the late 19th century, British administrators introduced Woodland Acts in 1865 and 1878 to exert control over the region's trees. Concurrently, traditional privileges of municipal residents were curtailed, and the governor of Tehri state augmented his authority over forestry, resulting in reduced citizen property rights. This led to fervent protests by local farmers in the Kumaon region between 1911 and 1917, resulting in the restoration of pine, spruce, and oak trees to revenue-generating areas. Meanwhile, commercial species such as deodar, pine, and sal remained under forest service control.

The forest reforms in Kumaon also spurred the establishment of Van Panchayats, representing a unique experiment in forest management previously under revenue department jurisdiction. Lands under Van Panchayats catered to the forest product needs of village communities, while those under department control were designated for commercial use.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

The research methodology for this study involves the utilization of secondary data sourced from the Department of Tourism Uttarakhand, focusing on tourist inflow data, both domestic and foreign, spanning the period from 2010 to 2021. Employing a descriptive research design, the study aims to analyze historical trends and patterns in tourist inflow over the specified decade. Advanced scientific techniques are employed for data extraction, validation, and analysis, complemented by Microsoft Excel for initial data organization. The study ensures transparency and reliability. The research concludes with a synthesis of key findings and their implications for the tourism industry and policy-making.

DATAANALYSIS & INTERPRETATION:

Secondary data has been collected from Department of Tourism, Uttarakhand. Data shows inflow of tourist (domestic& foreign) for the duration 2010 to 2022. Data collected shows 2011 having less tourist inflow YOY -14% & -5% domestic & foreign respectively, mainly due to global recession.

Due to the Kedarnathtradgey in 2013, there was steep downfall in number of tourists YOY growth -26% for domestic & foreign tourists. Due to the aftermath of it, in 2014, the YOY tourist growth was moderate to 7 %. 2015 had a gradual recovery in the tourist inflow till 2019.

Fig 1

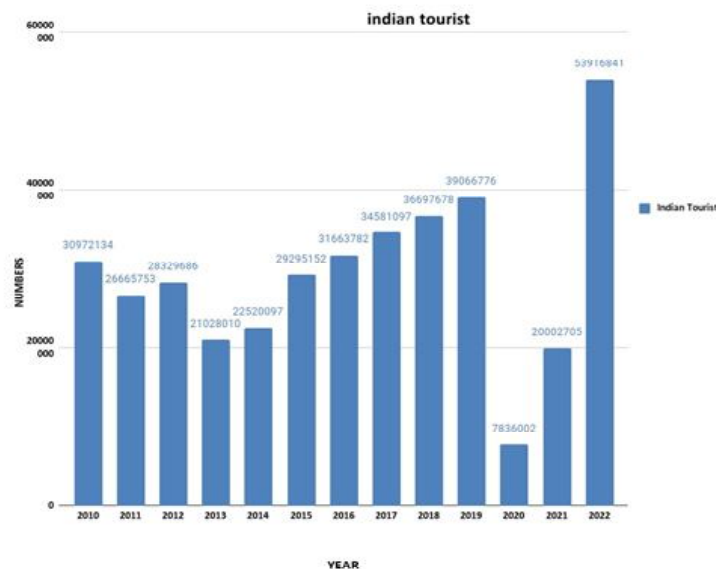


Fig 2

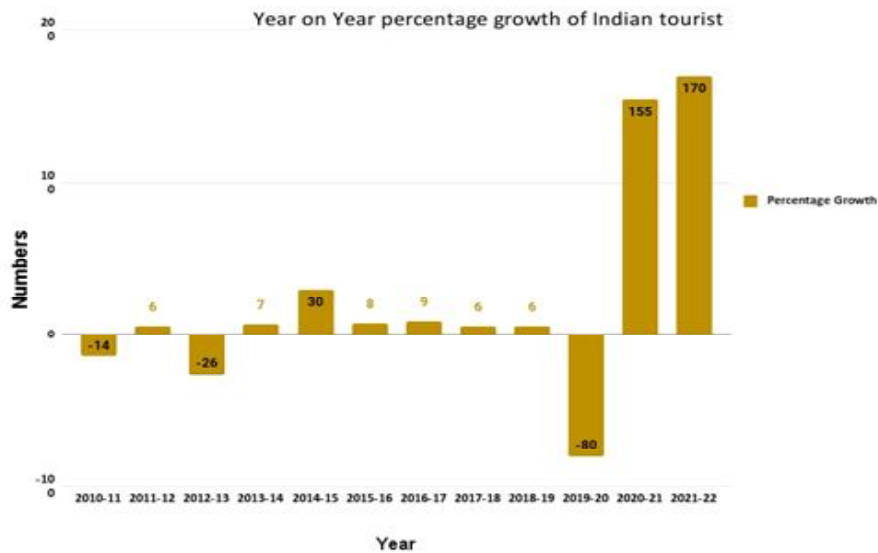


Fig 3

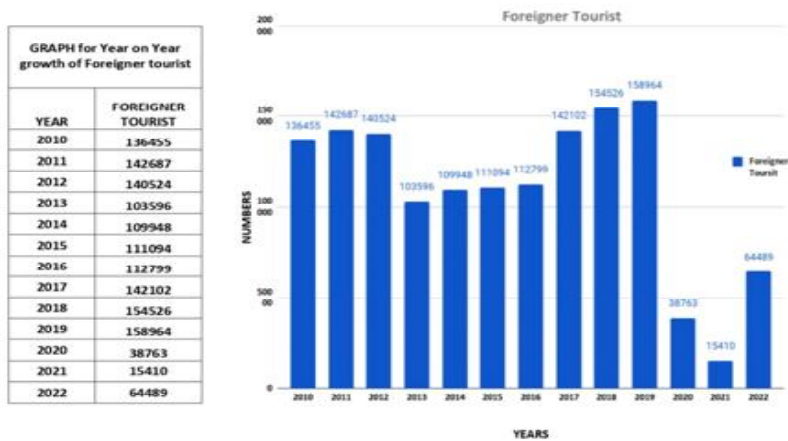
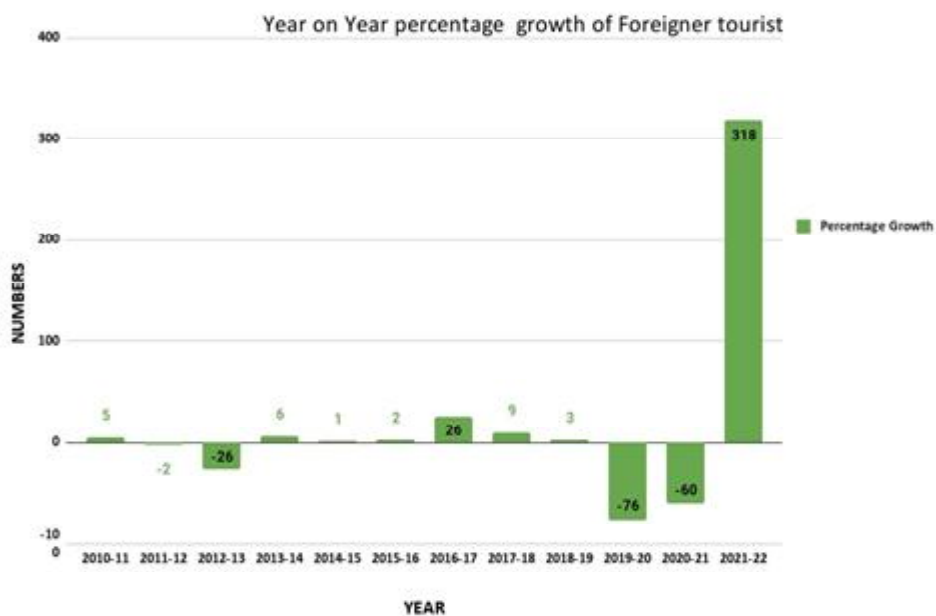


fig 4



Another shock that hit the world tourism was in the form of deadly virus called covid-19 in 2020. In response to the pandemic, Uttarakhand, like many other regions, imposed strict lockdown measures to contain the spread of the virus. This resulted in the closure of tourist destinations, hotels, restaurants, and other tourism-related businesses, leading to a sudden halt in tourist activities. Travel restrictions, including lockdowns, quarantine requirements, and border closures, made it difficult for tourists to visit Uttarakhand. Fear of contracting the virus and uncertainty about travel regulations further deterred potential visitors.

As a result, the inflow of tourists took a deep plunge in 2020 and touched a figure of YOY growth to -80% & -76% for domestic and foreign respectively. The second wave of the virus which affected india in 2021 also adly affected the tpurism sector in uttarhand. However the domestic tourist inflow data recovered with YOY growth 155%, the thereson being MahakumbhMela at Haridwar, whereas the foreign tourists inflow was YOY growth 60%. The steep fall in tourist inflow due to the covid-19 was greatly compensated by the Mahakubh at Haridwarwhich accounted for 63.5% (12717825) of the total domestic tourists inflow (20002705)in Uttarakhand. After the pandemic is over, 2022 has experienced speedy recovery of tourism sector in Uttrakhand with 170 % YOY growth of domestic tourist inflow and 318% YOY growth for foreign tourists.

It has been observed from the data that be it KadarnathTradegy of the Covid-19 pandemic, the recovery of tourism sector in Uttarakahnd has bounced back rapidly, greatly compensating

for the loss and catching up the projected growth in short time. The fast recovery is a positive signal for tourism based economy.

Following the tragedy, there was an immediate and significant decline in tourist arrivals to Uttarakhand. The widespread destruction of infrastructure, loss of lives, and the resulting negative media coverage created an atmosphere of fear and uncertainty among potential visitors. The floods and landslides severely damaged roads, bridges, hotels, and other tourism-related infrastructure in the region, making it difficult for tourists to access popular destinations like Kedarnath, Badrinath, and Rishikesh.

A recent UNWTO survey found that approximately 58.2% of international visitors travel for leisure purposes, while 21.9% opt for health or yoga-related activities, and about 19.4% embark on pilgrimages or religious journeys. Among the attractions, 59% of visitors are attracted to the natural beauty, 51.3% to hiking opportunities, and 52.1% to spiritual centers. The primary markets for Uttarakhand are the USA, Israel, Australia, Italy, Germany, and Nepal. Popular destinations for international tourists include Rishikesh, Haridwar, Gangotri, Uttarkashi, Kedarnath, Badrinath, Auli, Nainital, and Gaumukh.

For domestic visitors, 44.2% prioritize pilgrimage or religious purposes, while 43.6% engage in tourism or sightseeing. The main attractions for domestic tourists during holidays are the scenic landscapes and hiking opportunities. Major states of origin for domestic tourists visiting Uttarakhand include Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Gujarat, Rajasthan, and Maharashtra. Popular destinations for domestic tourists include Haridwar, Rishikesh, Nainital, Badrinath, Kedarnath, Gangotri, Uttarkashi, Mussoorie, Yamunotri, Almora, Ranikhet, and Dehradun.

CONCLUSION:

This paper discusses the Kedarnath tragedy in 2013 and the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 that both had significant impacts on the tourism sector of Uttarakhand.

The Kedarnath tragedy, characterized by severe floods and landslides, caused extensive damage to infrastructure, including roads, hotels, and pilgrimage sites. This led to a substantial decline in tourist arrivals as access to the region became challenging and safety concerns rose. The aftermath of the tragedy required significant efforts and resources to rebuild and restore confidence in the region as a tourist destination. It took time for the tourism sector to recover fully, with a noticeable decrease in tourist footfall in the years following the disaster.

Similarly, the COVID-19 pandemic had a profound and unprecedented impact on global tourism, including Uttarakhand. Travel restrictions, lockdowns, and health concerns led to a virtual standstill in tourism activities. The closure of borders, cancellation of flights, and implementation of strict safety protocols further exacerbated the situation. The tourism industry in Uttarakhand, heavily reliant on domestic and international visitors, suffered immensely as tourist inflows dwindled to almost zero during the peak of the pandemic.

Both events highlight the vulnerability of the tourism sector to external shocks, whether natural disasters or pandemics. They underscore the importance of resilience, adaptability, and proactive measures in mitigating the impact of such crises on tourism-dependent economies like Uttarakhand. Additionally, they emphasize the need for sustainable development practices and diversified tourism offerings to make the sector more robust and resilient to future challenges.

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"Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)- Challenges for India"

Dr. Savita Dwivedi

Abstract

The world economies have brought together in their endeavors to accomplish the objectives of economical turn of events. This is in sheer difference to the previous methodologies where legislatures sought after objectives for the development and improvement of their particular economies. The battle for development and greatness has made irregularity in the monetary advancement among nations, exhausted a portion of the normal assets and has subsequently changed the biological equilibrium. The effect of this is being knowledgeable about the type of an Earth-wide temperature boost and environmental change. Since these compromises the actual presence of human existence on the planet, a strategy that would guarantee a protected climate for people in the future has turned into the need of great importance. Maintainable improvement is a term begat to guarantee that advancement happens so that regular assets are supported and given to the people in the future healthy. This paper makes an endeavor to comprehend the difficulties experienced by India in accomplishing Maintainable advancement objectives and gives thoughts to conquer them.

KeyWords: *Millennium Development Goals (MDG), Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG)*

Introduction

Reasonable Improvement has turned into the popular expression of the worldwide local area. The battle for development and greatness has made unevenness in the monetary improvement among nations, exhausted a portion of the normal assets and has in this manner modified the environmental equilibrium. Since this undermines the actual presence of human existence on the planet, a game-plan that would guarantee a protected climate for people in the future has turned into the need of great importance. Maintainable improvement is a term begat to guarantee that advancement happens so that regular assets are supported and given to the people in the future healthy. Seventeen Supportable Improvement Objectives (SDGs) expected to fabricate a more prosperous, more equivalent, and safer world constantly 2030 have been

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created. They have been taken on by 193 Part States at the UN General Gathering Culmination in September 2015 as a piece of their plan for Maintainable Turn of events. India is a signatory to this highest point and is firmly dedicated to the 2030 plan.

At this crossroads this paper makes an endeavor to comprehend the difficulties experienced by India in accomplishing the Reasonable advancement objectives. The paper likewise makes an endeavor to propose measures to beat the difficulties.

The Sustainable Development Goals

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which came into effect on 1 January, 2016 is an improvement on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)¹. In India, as far as MDGs are concerned, considerable progress has been made in the field of basic universal education, gender equality in education, and global economic growth. However, there was slow progress in the improvement of health indicators related to mortality, morbidity, and various environmental factors contributing to poor health conditions . With SDGs in place the Indian government is now trying to integrate the efforts taken towards achieving MDGs with SDGs. SDGs are wider in scope. The 17 SDGs are as follows

Fig 1
Sustainable Development Goals

Goal 1	End poverty in all its forms everywhere
Goal 2	End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture
Goal 3	Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages
Goal 4	Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all
Goal 5	Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
Goal 6	Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all
Goal 7	Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all
Goal 8	Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all
Goal 9	Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation
Goal 10	Reduce inequality within and among countries
Goal 11	Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable
Goal 12	Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
Goal 13	Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts*
Goal 14	Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development
Goal 15	Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss
Goal 16	Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels
Goal 17	Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development

Source: www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/

Sustainable Development Goals have been built on the universal principle of 'leave no one behind'. As far as India is concerned, the national development goals of India, converge well with the SDGs and India is expected to play a leading role in determining the success of the SDGs, globally.

Measures taken for implementing SDGs in India

NITI Aayog, the public authority of India's chief research organization, has been depended with the errand of planning the SDGs. States have likewise been educated to embrace a comparable planning concerning their plans, including halfway supported plans.

Likewise, the Service of Measurements and Program Execution (MoSPI) is taken part during the time spent creating public markers for the SDGs.

. A significant number of the public authority's leader projects like Swachh Bharat, make in India, Expertise India, and Computerized India are at the center of the SDGs. State and nearby legislatures assume a significant part in a considerable lot of these programmers. state run administrations are giving sharp consideration to visioning, arranging, planning, and creating execution and observing frameworks for the SDGs.

UN Support for SDG initiatives in India

The Unified Countries in India upholds the cooperation of common society associations, think tanks and the Indian media in conversations and side meetings at the Global Gathering on Funding for Advancement at Addis Ababa and during the Overall Get together in New York.

The UN Nation Group in India upholds NITI Aayog in its endeavors to address the interconnectedness of the objectives, to guarantee that nobody is abandoned and to advocate for sufficient supporting to accomplish the SDGs.

In close cooperation with NITI Aayog and accomplices, the UN has upheld topical conferences on the SDGs to unite different state legislatures, focal services, common society associations and the scholarly world to consider on unambiguous SDGs.

Support to State Governments

The UN in India presently upholds five State legislatures (Assam, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Haryana, and Odisha) in restricting the SDGs to address key improvement challenges at the state level.

Challenges in accomplishing SDGs in India

Four regions have been recognized as areas of worry for India in Accomplishing SDGs. The are examined beneath Characterizing Pointers.

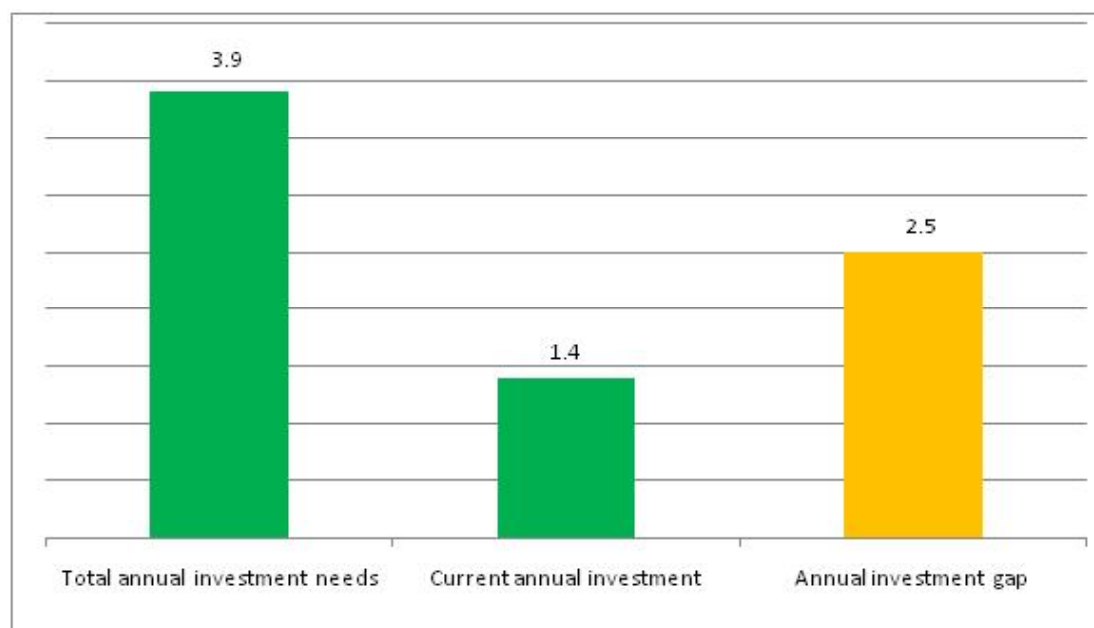
One of the significant difficulties for India is concocting reasonable pointers to screen the advancement of SDGs successfully. India's previous records uncover that it has not been

extremely effective in setting pertinent markers to gauge results. The definition for “safe” drinking water has been confounded with the accessibility of hand siphons and cylinder wells and the authority information recommended that 86% of Indians approached safe drinking water and consequently were “on target” for the MDG objective on drinking water. In any case, the quantity of waterborne sicknesses and passings because of looseness of the bowels are very high in India.

Funding SDGs:

In spite of India’s earnest attempts to lessen neediness it has the biggest number of individuals living underneath global destitution line. According to the World Bank report 2013, 30 percent of its populace was under the \$1.90-a-day neediness measure. As per the Unified Countries MDG 2014 report, notwithstanding high financial development, in 2010, 33% of the world’s 1.2 billion outrageous poor lived in India alone. At the present degree of buy-in - public and private in SDG related areas in emerging nations, a typical yearly financing setback more than 2015-2030 of some \$2.5 trillion remaining parts. This hole can be crossed over just through expanded private area speculations, particularly in foundation, food security and environmental change moderation areas.

Fig 2 Gap in funding SDGs in developing countries



Source unctad.org/en/pages/PressRelease.aspx?OriginalVersionID=194

In India, another review gauges that executing SDGs in India by 2030 will cost around US\$14.4 billion. Given the new cut in friendly area plans in India there is probably going to be a huge subsidizing hole.

Observing and Proprietorship: A third huge test in executing SDGs would accompany regard to possession. However, NITI Aayog is supposed to play the lead job in following the advancement of SDGs, its individuals have communicated reservations on having the option to take on this mammoth errand.

Estimating Progress:

The last test is the way to gauge the advancement or accomplishment of SDGs. The Indian government has conceded that non-accessibility of information (especially in regard to sub-public levels), periodicity issues and fragmented inclusion of managerial information, have gained exact estimating headway of even MDGs practically unthinkable.

Measures to conquer Difficulties:

The difficulties examined above can be overwhelmed by fostering a restrictive model for carrying out, observing, estimating and detailing SDG related game-plan. However, India has deeply grounded associations, for example, the CSO to give factual information commonly they are general and don't match explicit prerequisites. Indeed, even if there should be an occurrence of MDGs, India couldn't quantify its accomplishment precisely as a result of absence of information. Thusly creating reasonable markers to evaluate the advancement of SDGs and furthermore at the same time fostering a framework that can uphold this activity by providing the necessary information is of vital significance.

A different file for estimating the advancement or accomplishment of SDGs can be created by taking the Ibrahim List of African Administration (IIAG) as a base.

Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG)¹⁸

The Ibrahim List of African Administration (IIAG) measures the nature of administration in each African country on a yearly premise. The IIAG was sent off in 2007 and has developed to be the most complete evaluation on African administration. As administration isn't quantifiable straightforwardly, IIAG has fostered the most reasonable arrangement of intermediary markers for the reason by utilizing different information sources and pointers. IIAG doesn't gather essential information, but instead examines information given by regarded outside sources. The IIAG informational index is refreshed each year when down to earth upgrades are recognized and the outcomes are made accessible from 2000. At the point when new authentic information are made free, or the design of the IIAG is reinforced, the whole informational index is refreshed back to 2000. The most recent 2016 IIAG comprises of 95 pointers from 34 information suppliers.

Techniques used in developing IIAG

Some of the techniques used in developing IIAG are worth noting and may be applied in the Indian context also.

Clustered indicators

Markers estimating a particular administration idea are once in a while accessible from various sources. To work on the precision of the pointer estimation and abstain from twofold counting, these actions are consolidated into a solitary bunched marker, which is the normal of its fundamental sub-markers.

Taking care of missing information

Most markers remembered for the IIAG have missing data of interest throughout the time series. As this can affect a nation's total scores, gauges are accommodated missing information, following a factual cycle called attribution. As per this cycle, on the off chance that information is absent external the time series, it is supplanted by a current data of interest. Whenever information is absent inside the time series, these are supplanted with numbers gradually higher or lower than the adjoining data of interest.

Normalization: Considering that the information used in the development of the IIAG come from 35 separate information suppliers that present their information on various scales, normalizing all data is fundamental. This is finished through a factual cycle called standardization by which crude information for every pointer are changed by the min-max standardization strategy. This cycle permits all scores to be distributed in like manner units and inside similar limits of 0-100, where 100 is dependably the most ideal score.

Data aggregation: The Ibrahim Record of African Administration (IIAG) measures the nature of administration in each African country on a yearly premise. The IIAG was sent off in 2007 and has advanced to be the most complete evaluation on African administration. As administration isn't quantifiable straightforwardly, IIAG has fostered the most reasonable arrangement of intermediary markers for the reason by utilizing different information sources and pointers. IIAG doesn't gather essential information, yet rather groups information given by regarded outside souhe Ibrahim Record of African Administration (IIAG) measures the nature of administration in each African country on a yearly premise. The IIAG was sent off in 2007 and has developed to be the most far reaching evaluation on African administration. As administration isn't quantifiable straightforwardly, IIAG has fostered The IIAG utilizes a straightforward, basic and replicable technique for information collection. A basic normal is determined utilizing the construction of the List to show up at the General Administration scores. The over four strategies are all great and especially pertinent for India. The Authoritative framework in India is exceptionally regulatory with two Legislatures, one at the middle and the other at the state level. This has brought about duplication of information. Indeed, even the accessible has holes in it and experiences mistakes of normalization. This can be settled

by fostering an Indian File of Economical Turn of events (IISD) by following the procedures examined previously. IISD can be created for a time of a long time from 2015-30. The informational collection can be refreshed consistently as per ongoing turns of events and amended for every one of the 15 years by following a similar example of Ibrahim list. This would guarantee accessibility of the latest informational collection generally reasonable arrangement of intermediary markers for the reason by utilizing various information sources and pointers. IIAG doesn't gather essential information, but instead orders information given by regarded outer sources. The IIAG informational index is refreshed each year when pragmatic upgrades are distinguished and the outcomes are made accessible from 2000. Whenever new authentic information are made free, or the construction of the IIAG is fortified, the whole informational collection is refreshed back to 2000. The most recent 2016 IIAG comprises of 95 pointers from 34 information providersrces. The IIAG informational collection is refreshed each year when useful upgrades are distinguished and the outcomes are made accessible from 2000. At the point when new verifiable information are made free, or the design of the IIAG is reinforced, the whole informational index is refreshed back to 2000. The most recent 2016 IIAG comprises of 95 pointers from 34 information suppliers

Financing SDGs.

The challenge of financing SDGs can be resolved to some extent by strengthening the existing academic infrastructure in the nation. India is a regional hub for higher education and boasts itself for being the home town of several renowned institutions such as IIT and IIM. These institutions have well developed infrastructure for research. These resources can be pooled and effectively utilised in designing, developing and measuring indicators meant for sustainable development.

In developing countries like India, there was some hesitation in reducing carbon emissions for two reasons, first their per capita emissions were lower, second, it would mean compromising with the development of the nation.¹⁹ Therefore a carbon trading system was evolved among the countries of the world where firms were permitted to emit carbon within the prescribed limit and were assigned carbon credits for this purpose. If any firm wants to exceed the limit it can buy the unused credit from another firm. In this way the buying firm is penalized for exceeding its carbon quota and the selling firm is rewarded for reducing its emissions. Governments can consider the idea of penalizing firms with higher carbon footprints by making them finance the sustainable goal programmes in the developing and least developed countries.

The responsibility of implementing SDGs

The challenge of funding SDGs can be set out somewhat by reinforcing the current scholarly foundation in the country. India is a territorial center for advanced education and flaunts itself for being the old neighborhood of a few prestigious establishments like IIT and IIM. These organizations have advanced framework for research. These assets can be pooled

and successfully used in planning, creating and estimating markers implied for reasonable turn of events.

In non-industrial nations like India, there was some dithering in diminishing fossil fuel byproducts for two reasons, first their per capita outflows were lower, second, it would mean compromising with the improvement of the nation.¹⁹ Hence a carbon exchanging framework was developed among the nations of the existence where firms were allowed to produce carbon inside as far as possible and were relegated carbon credits for this reason to surpass the breaking point it can purchase the unused credit from another firm. In this manner the purchasing firm is punished for surpassing its carbon standard and the selling firm is compensated for decreasing its discharges. State run administrations can consider punishing firms with higher carbon impressions by making them finance the maintainable objective projects in the creating and least created nations.

Conclusion

India is a country with the second biggest populace on the planet. The means taken by India for the accomplishment of SDGs matter a ton to the world. On the off chance that India prevails with regards to achieving the SDGs it would mean a bigger part of the world has accomplished it. Accordingly, India must foster compelling techniques for executing, observing and estimating the advancement of SDGs. The greatest test for India is by all accounts the improvement of reasonable markers. This can be dealt with by fostering an Indian File for Feasible Turn of events (IISD) by taking the Ibrahim list as a base.

Ethical clearance: Nil

Source of funding: Self

Conflict of Interest: Nil

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भारतीय व्यापार और 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था : स्थिति, दिशा एवं संभावनाएं

कोमल¹ एवं डॉ. निहारिका श्रीवास्तव²

सारांश

भारत सबसे तेजी से बढ़ती अर्थव्यवस्थाओं में से एक है और वर्तमान में 2.72 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की जीडीपी के साथ दुनिया की सातवीं सबसे बड़ी अर्थव्यवस्था के रूप में स्थान पर है और जब क्रय शक्ति समानता (पीपीपी) के आधार पर जीडीपी की तुलना 10.51 ट्रिलियन डॉलर से की जाती है तो यह दुनिया की तीसरी सबसे बड़ी अर्थव्यवस्था है। "सर्वेक्षण भारत के लिए एक विकास मॉडल की वकालत करते हुए पारंपरिक एंग्लो-सैक्सन सोच से हटकर है जो अर्थव्यवस्था को या तो अच्छे या दुष्चक्र में देखता है, और इस प्रकार कभी भी संतुलन में नहीं होता है। यह मॉडल, बदले में, पारंपरिक दृष्टिकोण से दो प्रमुख विचलनों से उपजा है। सबसे पहले, सर्वेक्षण एक प्रमुख सिद्धांत के रूप में संतुलन की अवधारणा से हटकर है, जिसे वैश्विक वित्तीय संकट के बाद तेजी से चुनौती दी जा रही है। दूसरा, पारंपरिक दृष्टिकोण अक्सर रोजगार सृजन, मांग, निर्यात और आर्थिक विकास को अलग समस्या के रूप में हल करने का प्रयास करता है" (आर्थिक सर्वेक्षण 2018-19)। भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था 2014 से तेजी से विकास पथ पर है। 2014 में भारत 1.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था थी और 2019 में पांच वर्षों में भारत 2.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था बन गया है, पिछले पांच वर्षों में 1 ट्रिलियन डॉलर जोड़ने से देश को प्रेरणा मिली है। 2024-25 तक 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था बनें। अंतर्राष्ट्रीय मुद्रा कोष (आईएमएफ) के हालिया अनुमान से पता चलता है कि 2024 में भारत की जीडीपी लगभग 4.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर तक पहुंच जाएगी। उपरोक्त उद्देश्य को प्राप्त करने के लिए भारत को प्रति वर्ष 8 प्रतिशत की दर से बढ़ने और अपने निर्यात को बढ़ाने की जरूरत है। +1 ट्रिलियन से. वर्तमान पेपर निवेश, उत्पादकता वृद्धि, रोजगार सृजन, मांग और निर्यात के बाद आर्थिक विकास के चालकों पर केंद्रित है। यह पेपर मौजूदा आर्थिक मंदी के मुद्दों को संबोधित करेगा और अनिश्चित और असमानता भरी दुनिया में भारत को 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था बनाने के लिए आवश्यक रणनीतियों का विश्लेषण करेगा। जिसके लिए एक परिकल्पना का निर्माण किया गया है। प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र की शोध प्रविधि अन्वेषणात्मक अनुसंधान पर आधारित है और द्वैतियक आँकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है।

शब्दावली— भारतीय व्यापार और ट्रिलियन डॉलर अर्थव्यवस्था

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1. प्रस्तावना

भारत सबसे तेजी से बढ़ती अर्थव्यवस्थाओं में से एक है और वर्तमान में 2.72 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की जीडीपी के साथ दुनिया की सातवीं सबसे बड़ी अर्थव्यवस्था के रूप में स्थान पर है और जब क्रय शक्ति समानता (पीपीपी) के आधार पर जीडीपी की तुलना 10.51 ट्रिलियन डॉलर से की जाती है तो यह दुनिया की तीसरी सबसे बड़ी अर्थव्यवस्था है। "सर्वेक्षण भारत के लिए एक विकास मॉडल की वकालत करते हुए पारंपरिक एंग्लो-सैक्सन सोच से हटकर है जो अर्थव्यवस्था को या तो अच्छे या दुष्क्रम में देखता है, और इस प्रकार कभी भी संतुलन में नहीं होता है। यह मॉडल, बदले में, पारंपरिक दृष्टिकोण से दो प्रमुख विचलनों से उपजा है। सबसे पहले, सर्वेक्षण एक प्रमुख सिद्धांत के रूप में संतुलन की अवधारणा से हटकर है, जिसे वैश्विक वित्तीय संकट के बाद तेजी से चुनौती दी जा रही है। दूसरा, पारंपरिक दृष्टिकोण अक्सर रोजगार सृजन, मांग, निर्यात और आर्थिक विकास को अलग समस्या के रूप में हल करने का प्रयास करता है" (आर्थिक सर्वेक्षण 2018-19)। भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था 2014 से तेजी से विकास पथ पर है। 2014 में भारत 1.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था थी और 2019 में पांच वर्षों में भारत 2.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था बन गया है, पिछले पांच वर्षों में 1 ट्रिलियन डॉलर जोड़ने से देश को प्रेरणा मिली है। 2024-25 तक 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था बनें। अंतर्राष्ट्रीय मुद्रा कोष (आईएमएफ) के हालिया अनुमान से पता चलता है कि 2024 में भारत की जीडीपी लगभग 4.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर तक पहुंच जाएगी। उपरोक्त उद्देश्य को प्राप्त करने के लिए भारत को प्रति वर्ष 8 प्रतिशत की दर से बढ़ने और अपने निर्यात को बढ़ाने की जरूरत है। +1 ट्रिलियन से. वर्तमान पेपर निवेश, उत्पादकता वृद्धि, रोजगार सृजन, मांग और निर्यात के बाद आर्थिक विकास के चालकों पर केंद्रित है।

2. भारत के विदेशी व्यापार

1991 से भारत सरकार ने विदेशी व्यापार क्षेत्र में 'खुलेपन' की नीति अपनाई है और व्यापक व्यापार उदारीकरण कदम उठाए हैं। महत्वपूर्ण उदारीकरण कदम हैं – जुलाई 1991 में रुपए का अवमूल्यन (और बाद में मुख्य विकसित देशों की मुद्राओं की तुलना में उसका मूल्यह्रास) रुपए की पहले व्यापार पर और तत्पश्चात् संपूर्ण चालू खाते पर परिवर्तनीयताय आयात शर्तों का उदारीकरणय सीमाशुल्क दरों में भारी कटौतीय कई वस्तुओं को खुले आयात करने की अनुमतिय इत्यादि। वस्तुतः 1991 में शुरू किए गए विदेशी व्यापार सुधारों व उदारीकरण के कारण व्यापार क्षेत्र में व्यापक परिवर्तन हुए हैं और इनके परिणामस्वरूप अन्तर्मुख नीति के स्थान पर अब बाह्य उन्मुख नीति को अपनाया जा रहा है।

उदारीकरण के बाद से भारतीय व्यापार में तेज वृद्धि हुई है। 1990-91 में कुल व्यापार की मात्रा 42.2 बिलियन डालर थी (18.1 बिलियन डालर के निर्यात और 24.1 बिलियन डालर के आयात) जो 2018-19 में बढ़कर 844.11 बिलियन डालर हो गई (330 बिलियन डालर के निर्यात और 514.03 बिलियन डालर के आयात)। 1992-93 के बाद से (1993-94, 2000-01, 2002-03, 2010-11, 2013-14 तथा 2016-17 को छोड़ कर) डालर के रूप में आयातों की वृद्धि दर निर्यातों की तुलना में अधिक रही है। इसके परिणामस्वरूप, व्यापार शेष में घाटा जो 1991-92 में 1.5 बिलियन डालर तथा 1992-93 में 3.3 बिलियन

डालर था, 2012–13 में बढ़कर 190.34 बिलियन डालर तक पहुंच गया (जो अब तक का अधिकतम स्तर है)। परन्तु उसके बाद इसमें गिरावट आई। 2016–17 में व्यापार शेष में घाटा 108.5 बिलियन डालर था। परन्तु 2017–18 में यह बढ़ कर 162 बिलियन डालर तथा 2018–19 में 184.0 बिलियन डालर हो गया।

3. उदारीकरण के दौर में भारत की समृद्धि दर

1991 से बाद की अवधि को आर्थिक सुधार (या उदारीकरण) की अवधि कहा जाता है। इसमें पाँच योजनाएं संपन्न हुई हैं – आठवीं योजना (1992–1997), नौवीं योजना (1997–2002), दसवीं योजना (2002–07), ग्यारहवीं योजना (2007–12) तथा बारहवीं योजना (2012–17)। जहाँ तक आठवीं योजना का संबंध है, इसके दौरान राष्ट्रीय आय में वृद्धि की दर 6.5 प्रतिशत वार्षिक थी जो संतोषजनक तो मानी जा सकती है लेकिन उसे उत्साहवर्धक कहना भूल होगी। अन्य कारणों के अलावा संवृद्धि को ऊंचा उठाने में विदेशी पूँजी के अन्तर्प्रवाह (पदसिवू) की महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका रही थी। विदेशी पूँजी के अन्तर्प्रवाह पर निर्भरता जोखिमपूर्ण है क्योंकि आर्थिक या राजनैतिक अस्थिरता की दशा में ये अर्न्तप्रवाह विलुप्त हो सकते हैं। ऐसा दिसम्बर 1994 में नाटकीय ढंग से मैक्सिको में आर्थिक संकट से हुआ। 1997–98 में पूर्वी एशिया के देशों में भी उत्पन्न होने वाला आर्थिक संकट विदेशी पूँजी पर निर्भरता का परिणाम था। नौवीं पंचवर्षीय योजना (1997–2002) के दौरान राष्ट्रीय आय में औसत वार्षिक वृद्धि दर 5.4 प्रतिशत थी। यह निर्धारित 6.5 प्रतिशत वार्षिक वृद्धि दर के लक्ष्य से कम थी। असंतोषजनक निष्पत्ति का कारण अर्थव्यवस्था के दो प्रमुख क्षेत्रों – कृषि तथा विनिर्माण – का असंतोषजनक प्रदर्शन था। इस योजना में कृषि क्षेत्र में मात्र 2.5 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष तथा विनिर्माण क्षेत्र में मात्र 3.3 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष की वृद्धि हो पाई।

तालिका 1: भारत की समतमृद्धि दर

योजना	समृद्धि दर
आठवीं योजना	6.5
नौवीं योजना	5.4
दसवीं योजना	7.6
ग्यारहवीं योजना	7.5
बारहवीं योजना	6.7

स्रोत: Planning Commission, Government of India

दसवीं पंचवर्षीय योजना में राष्ट्रीय आय में 7.6 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष की वृद्धि हुई। सकल घरेलू उत्पाद में वृद्धि का लक्ष्य 8 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष था जबकि उपलब्धि 7.8 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष रही। यह किसी भी अन्य योजना में प्राप्त संवृद्धि दर से अधिक है। वस्तुतः 2006–07 को समाप्त होने वाले चार वर्षों में भारत के घरेलू उत्पाद में 8.6 प्रतिशत वार्षिक वृद्धि दर्ज की गई जिससे भारत विश्व में चीन के बाद दूसरा सबसे अधिक तेजी से विकास करने वाला देश बन गया। इसमें 2002–03 से 2006–07 की पांच वर्षों की अवधि

में विनिर्माण उद्योग में होने वाली 8.8 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष वृद्धि तथा 2001-02 से आरंभ हुए छः वर्षों में सेवा क्षेत्र में 9 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष से होने वाली वृद्धि शामिल है। इससे प्रोत्साहित होकर सरकार ने ग्यारहवीं पंचवर्षीय योजना (2007-12) में आर्थिक संवृद्धि का लक्ष्य बढ़ाकर 9 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष कर दिया। इस योजना में सकल घरेलू उत्पाद में वास्तविक वृद्धि दर 8.0 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष रही (राष्ट्रीय आय में वृद्धि की दर 7.5 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष रही)। बारहवीं पंचवर्षीय योजना (2012-17) में सकल घरेलू उत्पाद की आर्थिक संवृद्धि का लक्ष्य 8.0 प्रतिशत रखा गया। इस योजना में राष्ट्रीय आय में 6.7 प्रतिशत प्रति वर्ष की संवृद्धि दर प्राप्त हुई। 2011-12 तथा बाद के आंकड़े नई श्रृंखला से प्राप्त होते हैं जिसमें आधार वर्ष 2011-12 है। इस श्रृंखला के अनुसार सकल घरेलू उत्पाद में संवृद्धि दर 2016-17 में 8.2 प्रतिशत, 2017-18 में 7.2 प्रतिशत तथा 2018-19 में 6.8 प्रतिशत थी।

4. शोध पत्र के उद्देश्य

यह पेपर मौजूदा आर्थिक मंदी के मुद्दों को संबोधित करेगा और अनिश्चित और असमानता भरी दुनिया में भारत को 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर की अर्थव्यवस्था बनाने के लिए आवश्यक रणनीतियों का विश्लेषण करेगा।

5. शोध पत्र की परिकल्पना

H_0 : 2024-25 में भारत में निर्यात मूल्यों के आधार पर सकल राष्ट्रीय उत्पाद में 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर तक नहीं पहुंच पायेगी।

H_1 : 2024-25 में भारत में निर्यात मूल्यों के आधार पर सकल राष्ट्रीय उत्पाद में 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर तक पहुंच जायेगी।

6. शोध प्रविधि

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र की शोध प्रविधि अन्वेषणात्मक अनुसंधान पर आधारित है और द्वैतियक आँकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है।

7. विश्लेषण

तालिका 2 से स्पष्ट है कि 2011 में जहां सकल राष्ट्रीय अनुपात 1.8 ट्रिलियन डॉलर था वह 2019 तक बढ़कर 2.8 ट्रिलियन डॉलर हो गया। 2020 में इसमें गिरावट आई और यह गिरकर 2.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर हो गया। पुनः इसमें 2021 से वृद्धि देखी जा रही है। जो पुनः बढ़कर 2022 में 3.4 ट्रिलियन डॉलर हो गया। इसकी सीएजीआर 5.37 प्रतिशत होगी। यदि इसी दर से यह बढ़ता है तो 2024-25 में 3.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर हो जायेगा। निर्यातों पर अगर हम दृष्टि डाले तो 2011 में 0.3 ट्रिलियन डॉलर का व्यापार किया गया जो 2022 में बढ़कर 0.45 ट्रिलियन डॉलर हो गया। इस क्रम में कई प्रकार के उच्चावचन देखे जा सकते हैं। जो स्पष्ट करते हैं कि व्यापार के अतिरिक्त भी कई चर हैं जिस कारण जीडीपी में क्रमशः

वृद्धि पायी गयी है। तालिका से यह भी स्पष्ट है कि जीडीपी में निर्यात का अनुपात जो 2011 में 16.62 प्रतिशत था वो 2020 में गिरकर 10.35 प्रतिशत हो गया। जिसके बाद पुनः इसमें वृद्धि का क्रम देखा जा रहा है। यह बढ़ता प्रतिशत स्पष्ट करता है कि निर्यातों के बढ़ने से सकल राष्ट्रीय उत्पाद में भी वृद्धि हो रही है।

तालिका 2: भारत की सकल घरेलू उत्पाद तथा निर्यात (यूएस डॉलर में)

वर्ष	सकल घरेलू उत्पाद	निर्यात	सकल घरेलू उत्पाद में निर्यात का हिस्सा प्रतिशत में
2011	1823051829900.81	302905000000.00	16.62
2012	1827637590787.19	296828000000.00	16.24
2013	1856721507681.08	314848000000.00	16.96
2014	2039126479228.11	322694000000.00	15.83
2015	2103588360066.32	267951000000.00	12.74
2016	2294796885682.55	264542000000.00	11.53
2017	2651474262735.28	299241000000.00	11.29
2018	2702929641707.38	324778000000.00	12.02
2019	2835606256616.03	324340000000.00	11.44
2020	2671595405986.86	276410000000.00	10.35
2021	3150306839142.13	395426000000.00	12.55
2022	3416645826052.87	453400000000.00	13.27
2023	3385853132660.77	376806863636.36	11.13
2024	3530170526331.83	385503265734.27	10.92
2025	3674487920002.89	394199667832.17	10.73
सीएजीआर 2012-2022	5.37	3.42	

स्रोत: www.worldbank.org

परन्तु यह सम्बन्ध कितना घनिष्ट है और सार्थक है। इसका अनुमान परीक्षण के बाद ही लगाया जा सकता है। अनुमानित प्रतिपगमन सम्बन्ध को निम्न समीकरण से प्रदर्शित किया जा सकता है।

$$\text{LOG(GDP)} = 0.87 * \text{LOG(EXPORTS)} + 5.54$$

एफ परीक्षण तथा टी परीक्षण के अनुसार यह मॉडल 5 प्रतिशत सार्थकता स्तर पर स्वीकृत है और साथ ही 5 प्रतिशत सार्थकता स्तर पर चर के स्थिरांक भी स्वीकृत है। जो स्पष्ट करते हैं कि निर्यात में होने वाले परिवर्तन के कारण जीडीपी में वृद्धि आ रही है।

तालिका 3: स्थिरांकों के मान

चर	स्थिरांक	प्रमाप विघ्न	टी स्थिरांक	प्रायिकता	आर वर्ग	एफ स्थिरांक	प्रायिकता
LOG (EXPORTS)	0.87	0.346849	2.500277	0.0314	0.38	6.25	0.03
C	5.54	9.184939	0.603140	0.5598			

स्रोत: शोधार्थी द्वारा निर्मित

संभावित प्रतिपगमन सम्बन्ध के रेसिड्वेल्स पूर्णतः प्रसामान्य वितरित है। जिनके बीच किसी भी प्रकार का क्रमिक सम्बन्ध नहीं है एवं समलैंगिता को प्रदर्शित करते हैं। स्वतंत्र चर अर्थात् निर्यात का प्रभाव आश्रित चर पर 38 प्रतिशत है। जो बहुत मजबूत सम्बन्ध को प्रदर्शित नहीं करता फिर भी यह कहा जा सकता है कि अन्य चरों की उपेक्षा आश्रित चर स्वतंत्र चर के कारण 38 प्रतिशत प्रभावित हो रहा है।

8. उपसंहार

उपर्युक्त विश्लेषण स्पष्ट करता है कि यदि निर्यातों में इसी प्रकार से वृद्धि होती रही तो हम 2025 तक 5 ट्रिलियन डॉलर के अर्थव्यवस्था को तब तक प्राप्त नहीं पायेंगे जब तक की निजी निवेशों में वृद्धि नहीं की जायेगी। अतः भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था को इस दौड़ में लाने हेतु अभी निवेशों में मजबूती से वृद्धि की आवश्यकता है।

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प्रयागराज जिले में गरीबी उन्मूलन कार्यक्रम : जागरूकता, समस्याएँ एवं सुझाव

दीपू वर्मा एवं डॉ. निहारिका श्रीवास्तव

सारांश

भारत एक ऐसा देश है जो विश्व में आर्थिक शक्ति के रूप में अपनी पहचान बना चुका है। भारत की आर्थिक विकास की दर अन्य देशों की तुलना में अधिक है परंतु आज भी कई ऐसी समस्याएँ हैं जो विकराल रूप से उभरकर देशवासियों के लिए समस्या बन गई हैं तथा इसमें सबसे बड़ी समस्या गरीबी है। भारत में लगभग 21 करोड़ से अधिक जनसंख्या को भरपेट भोजन नहीं मिल पाता है। तथा भारत में 36.4 करोड़ लोग अब भी स्वास्थ्य, पोषण, शिक्षा, सैनिटेशन के लिहाज से बहुत प्रभाव ग्रस्त हैं। संपूर्ण विश्व की गरीब आबादी का तीसरा हिस्सा भारत में निवास करता है। ऐसी स्थिति में इस बात पर विचार करना महत्वपूर्ण हो जाता है कि क्या भारत सरकार द्वारा प्रारम्भ किये गये गरीबी उन्मूलन के लिए अपनायी गई रणनीतियों एवं कार्यक्रमों में कोई कमी है अथवा गरीबी उन्मूलन कार्यक्रम अपने उद्देश्यों को पूर्ति करने में कहाँ तक सफल हो सके हैं, अथवा इन गरीबी उन्मूलक कार्यक्रमों का क्रियान्वयन समुचित ढंग से नहीं हो रहा है। ऐसी स्थिति में सरकारी स्तर पर गरीबी उन्मूलन कार्यक्रमों का ग्रामीण एवं शहरी अंचलों में प्रभाव एवं उसके दूरगामी प्रभावों का आलोचनात्मक अध्ययन महत्वपूर्ण हो जाता है। कि प्रयागराज जिले में बीपीएल परिवारों एवं उनके बच्चों की शिक्षा हेतु प्रयास किया जाये। इससे एक ओर उनकी सामाजिक सुरक्षा में विस्तार होगा साथ ही रोजगार मिलने से कार्यों में संलग्न होकर अपनी आर्थिक सुरक्षा को भी मजबूत बना सकेंगे। यदि केन्द्र सरकार के द्वारा गरीबी उन्मूलन से सम्बन्धित प्रपत्रों को पार्षदों या शासकीय अधिकारियों के बजाय प्रत्यक्ष रूप से लाभार्थियों द्वारा स्वयं नेटवर्किंग द्वारा ऑनलाईन भरा जाये और भेजा जाये तथा साथ ही बेरोजगारी भत्ता या रोजगार कार्यक्रमों के तहत दी गई मजदूरी सीधे खाते में आये तो लाभार्थियों को ज्यादा लाभ प्राप्त होगा परन्तु इसके लिए अशिक्षित तथा कम शिक्षित व्यक्तियों हेतु हिन्दी में प्रपत्र होने चाहिए एवं टंकण के बजाय मात्र विकल्प चुनाव की व्यवस्था होनी चाहिए तथा साथ ही टंकण हेतु वहाँ ध्वनि तकनीकी व्यवस्था होनी चाहिए। जिससे अशिक्षित या कम शिक्षित व्यक्ति आसानी से प्रपत्रों को भर सके और इन योजनाओं का लाभ उठा सकें।

शब्दावली- गरीबी उन्मूलन कार्यक्रम, प्रयागराज जिला, मूलभूत आवश्यकताएँ

प्रस्तावना

भारत एक ऐसा देश है जो विश्व में आर्थिक शक्ति के रूप में अपनी पहचान बना चुका है। भारत की आर्थिक विकास की दर अन्य देशों की तुलना में अधिक है परंतु आज भी कई ऐसी समस्याएँ हैं जो विकराल रूप से उभरकर देशवासियों के लिए समस्या बन गई हैं तथा इसमें सबसे बड़ी समस्या गरीब है। भारत में लगभग 21 करोड़ से अधिक जनसंख्या को भरपेट भोजन नहीं मिल पाता है। विश्व बैंक के अनुसार 2015 में करीब 176 बिलियन लोग गरीब रेखा के नीचे थे। 2018 की न्छक्क द्वारा जारी बहुआयामी गरीब सूचकांक की रिपोर्ट सतत विकास के लक्ष्य के काफी करीब है, क्योंकि भारत में गरीबों की गणना 2015-16 के राष्ट्रीय परिवार स्वास्थ्य सर्वेक्षण IV के जिला स्तरीय गणना के आधार पर की गई है।

भारत में समय समय पर गरीब उन्मूलन से संबंधित योजनाएं चलाई जाती रही हैं खास कर के पांचवी पंचवर्षीय योजना से गरीब उन्मूलन को ध्यान में रख कर योजनाएं बनाई जाने लगी। केंद्र सरकार द्वारा गरीब उन्मूलन के लिए कई सारी योजनाएं चलाई गईं जिनमें प्रमुख रूप से महात्मा गांधी राष्ट्रीय ग्रामीण रोजगार गारंटी अधिनियम (मनरेगा), अन्नपूर्णा योजना, ग्रामीण रोजगार योजना, अन्त्योदय योजना, राष्ट्रीय पेंशन योजना, प्रधानमंत्री आवास योजना किसान विकासपत्र योजना, मुद्रा योजना, कौशल विकास योजना, प्रधानमंत्री की एकीकृत शहरी गरीब उन्मूलन योजना, प्रधानमंत्री कौशल विकास योजना इत्यादि शामिल हैं। अतः इस समस्या के समाधान हेतु प्रभावो विकल्पों को तलाशने में सर्वोच्च प्राथमिकता दी जानी चाहिए।

अध्ययन का महत्व

भारत में गरीबी सबसे प्रमुख समस्या है, क्योंकि इससे समाज में निराशा जन्म लेती है तथा समाज में विघटन का खतरा बना रहता है। इसलिए आज सरकार का प्रमुख उद्देश्य गरीब उन्मूलन हो गया है। भारतीय सरकार द्वारा विभिन्न पंचवर्षीय योजनाओं में गरीबी उन्मूलन के लिए विभिन्न योजनाओं को चलाये जाने के बावजूद भारत में गरीबी खत्म नहीं हुई। ऐसी स्थिति में सरकारी स्तर पर गरीबी उन्मूलन कार्यक्रमों का ग्रामीण एवं शहरी अंचलों में प्रभाव एवं उसके दूरगामी प्रभावों का आलोचनात्मक अध्ययन महत्वपूर्ण हो जाता है।

साहित्यिक समीक्षा

मैडसेन, इस्लाम और डौकौलीगोस (2018) ने 'ओईसीडी, 1870-2011 में असमानता, वित्तीय विकास और आर्थिक विकास' पर अपने पेपर में जांच की कि चार प्रमुख चैनल जिनके माध्यम से आर्थिक विकास के माध्यम से असमानता कम हो जाती है, बचत में वृद्धि है, निवेश, शिक्षा और ज्ञान। अध्ययन से पता चलता है कि लंबे समय में विकसित देशों में आर्थिक विकास पर वित्तीय विकास का थोड़ा प्रभाव पड़ता है।

घोष, एस. (2020), आय की असमानता पर आर्थिक विकास की अस्थिरता के सममित और

असममित प्रभाव की जांच करें। संरचनात्मक विराम का पता लगाने के लिए क्लेमेंटे-मॉन्टेनस रेयेस यूनिट रूट टेस्ट का उपयोग करना। सकारात्मक और सांख्यिकीय रूप से महत्वपूर्ण प्रभाव के साथ आय असमानता और विकास अस्थिरता के बीच एक लंबे समय तक सह-एकीकरण संबंध है।

अध्ययन का उद्देश्य

1. गरीबी उन्मूलन में केंद्र सरकार की योजनाओं के प्रति लोगों की जागरूकता का अध्ययन करना।
2. योजनाओं से जुड़ी समस्या पर प्रकाश डालना।
3. गरीब उन्मूलन में नीतिगत सुझाव प्रदान करना।

शोध परिकल्पना

1. H_0 : लाभार्थियों के बीच योजनाओं के बारे में कोई जागरूकता नहीं है।
 H_1 : लाभार्थियों के बीच योजनाओं के बारे में जागरूकता है।
2. H_0 : लाभार्थियों के बीच जागरूकता के स्तर में कोई महत्वपूर्ण अंतर नहीं है।
 H_1 : लाभार्थियों के बीच जागरूकता के स्तर में महत्वपूर्ण अंतर है।
3. H_0 : लाभार्थियों के बीच योजनाओं के जागरूकता स्तर के बीच कोई महत्वपूर्ण संबंध नहीं है।
 H_1 : लाभार्थियों के बीच योजनाओं के जागरूकता स्तरों के बीच एक महत्वपूर्ण संबंध है।

शोध पद्धति एवं अध्ययन क्षेत्र

प्रस्तुत शोध अध्ययन न्यादर्श विधि पर आधारित है। शोधकर्ता द्वारा उत्तरदाताओं का चयन प्रयागराज जनपद—मेजा, बहरीया, सिरसा, मांड़ा, मऊआइमा, फूलपुर, हंडिया; में से याद्विच्छित न्यादर्शन के आधार पर 6 में 1 तहसील प्रयागराज का चुनाव किया गया है। चयनित 1 तहसील में से याद्विच्छित निदर्शन द्वारा 1 ब्लॉक कौढ़ियारा जिसका ग्रामीण क्षेत्र बुदौना तथा 1 शहरी क्षेत्र प्रयागराज (एम कारपोरेशन ओजी) का निर्धारण किया गया है। 100-100 उत्तरदाताओं का चयन प्रत्येक ब्लॉक एवं शहरी क्षेत्र से अलग-अलग किया गया है। इस प्रकार कुल 200 उत्तरदाताओं का चयन किया गया है। प्राथमिक स्रोत के अंतर्गत शोधकर्ता ने अनुसूची द्वारा साक्षात्कार का प्रयोग किया है।

जागरूकता स्तर का विश्लेषण

जब उत्तरदाताओं से उनके क्षेत्र में गरीबी उन्मूलन योजनाओं के लागू होने को पूछा गया तो 70 प्रतिशत लोगों ने माना की प्रयागराज जनपद में यह योजनाएं लागू की है परन्तु 30 प्रतिशत लोग इस बात से सहमत नहीं थे। ऐसा इसलिए क्योंकि बहुत से लोगों को इसकी जानकारी नहीं

थी और कुछ लोगों को जिन्हें जानकारी तो थी परन्तु लाभ से वंचित थे। जब उत्तरदाताओं से यह पूछा गया कि योजना के प्रचार स्रोतों से किस हद तक योजनाओं की जानकारी है तो उत्तरदाताओं द्वारा दिये गये जबाव प्रत्येक योजना स्तर पर भिन्न-भिन्न थे। अत्योदय योजना के संदर्भ में 19 प्रतिशत लोग जानते ही नहीं थे। 65.5 प्रतिशत लोगों ने सुना हुआ था और 15.5 प्रतिशत लोगों को इसकी जानकारी थी। सर्व शिक्षा अभियान के संदर्भ में 20.5 प्रतिशत लोग अनभिग थे, 60.4 प्रतिशत लोगों ने सुना था और 19.1 लोग जानकार थे। जननी सुरक्षा योजना के संदर्भ में 42.3 प्रतिशत लोग जानकार थे। मनरेगा के संदर्भ में 58.6 प्रतिशत लोग सुना था। राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य बीमा के संदर्भ में 44.3 प्रतिशत लोगों ने सुना था और 52 प्रतिशत लोग जानकार थे। खाद्य सुरक्षा अधिनियम के संदर्भ में 27.3 प्रतिशत लोग जानते ही नहीं थे तथा 62.8 प्रतिशत लोगों ने सुना था। प्रधानमंत्री जन धन योजना के संदर्भ में 43.8 प्रतिशत लोगों ने सुना था। मिड डे मिल और प्रधानमंत्री आवास योजना के संदर्भ में 39.3 प्रतिशत तथा 38 प्रतिशत लोगों ने सुना था। इसी प्रकार प्रधानमंत्री गरीब कल्याण योजना और प्रधानमंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना तथा आयुष्मान भारत कार्यक्रम के संदर्भ में क्रमशः 44.3 प्रतिशत और 45.3 प्रतिशत तथा 45.5 प्रतिशत लोग सुने हुए थे।

जागरूकता स्तर को मापने के लिए 12 योजनाओं (उनमें से अधिकांश केंद्र प्रायोजित योजनाएं हैं) पर विचार किया जाता है। सभी लाभार्थियों के कुल अंकों के आधार पर जागरूकता सूचकांक तैयार किया जाता है। प्रत्येक चर के लिए 3 बिंदु पैमाने का उपयोग किया जाता है जो है— 0— नहीं 1—मैंने योजनाओं के बारे में सुना है और 2—मैं इसे जानता हूँ। परिणामों का विप्लेशन करने के लिए, विभिन्न जिलों के सूचकांक के कुल स्कोर को गणना के लिए शामिल नहीं किया जाता है क्योंकि आधे लाभार्थी पहले से ही इसका लाभ उठा रहे हैं और इसके बारे में जानते हैं। यह हमें पक्षपाती परिणाम दे सकता है। यहाँ षोधकर्ता सटीक परिणाम खोजने के लिए परिकल्पना परीक्षण लागू करता है।

तालिका-2 : योजनावार उत्तरदाताओं का जागरूकता स्तर (% में)

क्र० सं०	योजनायें	मैं इसके बारे में नहीं जानता	हाँ	
			मैंने सुना है	मैं जानता हूँ
1	प्रधानमंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना 2016	19	65.5	15.5
2	प्रधानमंत्री गरीब कल्याण योजना 2016	20.5	60.4	19.1
3	अत्योदय योजना 2000	17.8	40.0	42.3

4	राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य बीमा योजना 2008	35.5	58.6	5.9
5	प्रधानमंत्री कौशल विकास योजना	3.8	44.3	52.0
6	महात्मा गांधी राष्ट्रीय ग्रामीण रोजगार गारंटी योजना 2006	27.3	62.8	10
7	प्रधानमंत्री जन धन योजना 2015	08.3	13.8	77.9
8	खाद्य सुरक्षा अधिनियम	49.9	39.3	10.9
9	आयुष्मान भारत कार्यक्रम 2018	10.5	38	51.5
10	प्रधानमंत्री आवास योजना 2015	26.5	44.3	29.3
11	सर्व शिक्षा अभियान 2000-01	34.5	45.3	20.3
12	जननी सुरक्षा योजना 2005	30.9	45.5	23.6

तालिका 2 में 12 योजनाओं के बारे में लाभार्थियों के जागरूकता स्तर को दर्शाती है और आंकड़े प्रतिशत में हैं। प्रतिशत के आधार पर कहा जा सकता है कि हितग्राहियों में योजनाओं के प्रति जागरूकता है। प्रधानमंत्री जन धन योजना 2015 की पहली रैंक यह दर्शाती है कि अधिकांश लाभार्थी इसके बारे में जानते हैं, इसका कारण यह है कि यह एक महत्वपूर्ण योजना है और यह एक जागरूकता अभियान है। प्रधानमंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना 2016 ने 65.5% लाभार्थियों के साथ यह बताते हुए दूसरी रैंक हासिल की है कि वे इसके बारे में जानते हैं। इसे 2016 में भारत सरकार ने लागू किया गया। महात्मा गांधी राष्ट्रीय ग्रामीण रोजगार गारंटी योजना 2006 62.8% लाभार्थियों के बारे में जानने के साथ तीसरी रैंक हासिल की है। प्रधानमंत्री आवास योजना 2015 और अन्त्योदय योजना 2000 को समर्थन क्रमशः 44.3% और 42.3% लाभार्थियों को इसके बारे में पता है। क्रोनबैच अल्फा का मान 12 योजनाओं के लिए 0.826 है जो दर्शाता है कि सभी मापदंडों के लिए एकत्र किया गया डेटा विश्वसनीय है और यह इंगित करता है कि 12 योजनाओं का पैमाना काफी विश्वसनीय है। तालिका में के एमओ और बार्टलेट परिणाम 0.667 मान के साथ महत्वपूर्ण पाए गए जो नमूनों को मान्य करता है।

कुल व्यक्तिगत स्कोर 0 से 24 तक है और सभी लाभार्थियों का कुल स्कोर 0 से 14400 के बीच है जहां 0 व्यक्तिगत और नमूना स्तर दोनों में योजनाओं के बारे में जागरूकता की कमी को दर्शाता है। जागरूकता के स्तर की तीन श्रेणियों को इंगित करते हुए तीन अंतराल लिए गए हैं जो जागरूक नहीं हैं, मध्यम रूप से जागरूक हैं और काफी जागरूक हैं। 200 में से 97 को इस योजना के बारे

में मामूली जानकारी है जो 48.5% है और सभी लाभार्थियों का कुल स्कोर 2344 है जो एक समूह के रूप में लाभार्थियों के बीच मध्यम स्तर की जागरूकता को दर्शाता है। 200 में से 55 (27.7%) अधिकांश योजनाओं से अवगत नहीं हैं और कुल लाभार्थियों में से 23.8% योजनाओं के बारे में काफी जागरूक हैं।

तालिका-3 : लाभार्थियों का जागरूकता स्तर

जागरूकता स्तर	कुल स्कोर का अंतराल	व्यक्तिगत स्कोर का अंतराल	लाभार्थियों की संख्या
जागरूकता विहिन	0-1600	0-8	55
आंशिक जागरूकता	1600-3200	8-16	97
पूर्ण जागरूकता	3200-4800	16-24	48
कुल प्राप्त स्कोर	2344	11.72	200

स्रोत: शोधार्थी द्वारा की गई गणना

तालिका सभी योजनाओं के औसत स्कोर और प्रतिक्रियाओं के स्कोर के मानक विचलन को दर्शाती है। प्रधानमंत्री जन धन योजना 2015 (1.7), प्रधानमंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना 2016 (1.48) और खाद्य सुरक्षा अधिनियम (1.41) का औसत स्कोर सभी योजनाओं में सबसे अधिक है और राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य बीमा योजना 2008 (0.70) और खाद्य सुरक्षा अधिनियम (0.61) का औसत स्कोर सबसे कम है। प्रधानमंत्री जनधन योजना में उच्चतम मानक विचलन (0.75) है और प्रधानमंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना 2016 में फैलाव का स्तर सबसे कम है। अतः प्रथम वैकल्पिक परियोजना को स्वीकृत दिया जाता है अर्थात् जागरूकता पाई जाती है।

तालिका-4 : वर्णनात्मक सांख्यिकी

योजनायें	माध्य	पद	प्रमाप विचलन	नमूनों की संख्या
प्रधानमंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना 2016	1.48	II	.570	800
प्रधानमंत्री गरीब कल्याण योजना 2016	.99	VI	.630	800
अन्त्योदय योजना 2000	1.25	IV	.735	800
राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य बीमा योजना 2008	.70	XI	.571	800

प्रधानमंत्री कौशल विकास योजना	.97	VII	.587	800
महात्मा गांधी राष्ट्रीय ग्रामीण रोजगार गारंटी योजना 2006	1.41	III	.673	800
प्रधानमंत्री जन धन योजना 2015	1.7	I	.750	800
खाद्य सुरक्षा अधिनियम	.61	XII	.675	800
आयुष्मान भारत कार्यक्रम 2018	.83	X	.586	800
प्रधानमंत्री आवास योजना 2015	1.03	V	.747	800
सर्व शिक्षा अभियान 2000-01	.86	IX	.727	800
जननी सुरक्षा योजना 2005	.93	VIII	.735	800

स्रोत: शोधार्थी द्वारा की गई गणना

तालिका में एनोवा दिखाता है कि दो औसत वर्ग (1.847 और 55.139) के बीच बहुत अंतर है, जिसके परिणामस्वरूप एक महत्वपूर्ण अंतर एफ (799, 11) – 171.993 पी = 0.00, सार्थकता मान 0.05 है। इसलिए, पी मूल्य कम है सार्थकता मान 0.05 की तुलना में और यह इंगित करता है कि द्वितीय वैकल्पिक परिकल्पना को स्वीकार किया गया है, जिससे यह निष्कर्ष निकलता है कि लाभार्थियों के बीच जागरूकता के स्तर में महत्वपूर्ण अंतर है।

तालिका-5 : जागरूकता सूचकांक का एनोवा

		वर्गों का योग	डी एफ	माध्य वर्ग	एफ	पी मूल्य
लोगों के बीच		1475.727	799	1.847	171.993	.000
लोगों के भीतर	नमूना के बीच	606.526	11	55.139		
	रेसीड्यूवल	2817.641	8789	.321		
	कुल	3424.167	8800	.389		
कुल		4899.893	9599	.510		

स्रोत: शोधार्थी द्वारा की गई गणना

योजनाओं के जोड़े जिनकी जागरूकता का स्तर महत्वपूर्ण रूप से सहसंबद्ध है, इस प्रकार हैं

तालिका-6 : सहसंबंध मैट्रिक्स मैट्रिक्स

योजनाएं	प्रधान मंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना 2016	प्रधान मंत्री गरीब कल्याण योजना 2016	अन्वयोदय योजना 2000	राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य बीमा योजना 2008	प्रधान मंत्री कौशल विकास योजना	महात्मा गांधी राष्ट्रीय ग्रामीण रोजगार गारंटी योजना 2006	प्रधान मंत्री जन धन योजना 2015	खाद्य सुरक्षा अधिनियम	आयुष्मान भारत कार्यक्रम 2018	प्रधान मंत्री आवास योजना 2015	सर्व शिक्षा अभियान 2000-01	जननी सुरक्षा योजना 2005
सह-संबंध	प्रधानमंत्री उज्ज्वला योजना 2016	1.000										
	प्रधानमंत्री गरीब कल्याण योजना 2016	.137	1.000									
	अन्वयोदय योजना 2000	.595	.464	1.000								
	राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य बीमा योजना 2008	.259	.559	.393	1.000							
	प्रधानमंत्री कौशल विकास योजना	.477	-.093	.354	-.038	1.000						
	महात्मा गांधी राष्ट्रीय ग्रामीण रोजगार गारंटी योजना 2006	.489	.025	.467	-.153	.201	1.000					

प्रधानमंत्री जन धन योजना 2015	.219	.138	.040	-.110	.091	-.077	1.000					
खाद्य सुरक्षा अधिनियम	.795	.238	.619	.317	.433	.493	.327					
आयुष्मान भारत कार्यक्रम 2018	.662	.011	.325	.049	.521	.408	.324	.728	1.000			
प्रधानमंत्री आवास योजना 2015	.445	.107	.232	-.175	.234	.715	.188	.505	.406	1.000		
सर्व शिक्षा अभियान 2000-01	.680	.097	.586	.082	.464	.453	.357	.685	.619	.316	1.000	
जननी सुरक्षा योजना 2005	.343	-.191	.336	-.039	.302	.496	-.520	.213	.174	.042	.318	1.000

स्रोत: शोधार्थी द्वारा की गई गणनाएँ नोटरू अधिकांश चर 0.01 सार्थकता स्तर पर सार्थक हैं। तालिका से स्पष्ट है कि योजनाओं के प्रति जागरूकता के मध्य सम्बन्ध पाया जा रहा है। अतः तक्षीय वैकल्पिक परियोजना स्वीकृति की जाती है।

समस्यायें

इस योजना का लाभ कुछ जरूरतमंद लोगों को प्राप्त हो रहा था। शेष भ्रष्टाचार की भेंट चढ़ रहा था। ऐसी योजनाओं से ग्रामीण और शहरी लोगों को जो गरीबी रेखा के नीचे जीवन-यापन करते हैं, उनकी मूलभूत आवश्यकताओं की पूर्ति कुछ हद तक हो जाती है परन्तु सरकार इन योजनाओं के तहत रोटी और मकान की समस्या का निवारण करने का एक तरफ स्वयं प्रयास कर रही है तो दूसरी ओर आर्थिक विकास तथा महंगाई के चलते आवश्यक वस्तुओं के दाम भी बढ़ा रही है। इससे एक तरफ जनता को सस्ता अनाज तो मिल रहा है। परन्तु दूसरी ओर उसे पका के खाने हेतु गैस महंगी उपलब्ध हो रही है। उज्ज्वला योजना के तहत घर-घर में गैर व्यवस्था बढ़ गई है परन्तु इसके बढ़ते दामों में गरीब जनता की कमर भी तोड़ दी है। दूसरी ओर इन सबके के तहत केवल वस्तुओं के रूप में ही मूलभूत आवश्यकताओं की पूर्ति हो पा रही है। जबकि शिक्षा और स्वास्थ्य भी मूलभूत आवश्यकताओं के रूप में जुड़ चुके हैं। परन्तु उससे सम्बन्धित योजनाओं का क्रियान्वन बेहतर नहीं है। बहुत सी ऐसी भी आवश्यकताएं हैं जिन्हें पूरा करने के लिए ये योजनाएं असक्षम हैं। जैसे मुफ्त राशन व्यवस्था के अन्तर्गत मात्र चावल और गेहूँ दिया जाता है

या कभी-कभी चीनी/तेल/चना भी उपलब्ध करा दी जाती है। परन्तु वास्तव में इन्हें बाहर बाजार से ही खरीदना पड़ता है। 90 प्रतिशत जबाबदाता ऋणग्रस्तता में घिरे हुए थे। **अतः** ऐसी योजनाओं से ग्रामीण एवं शहरी विकास संभव हो रहा है परन्तु उसकी गति अत्यन्त धीमी है।

सुझाव

अध्ययन क्षेत्र में सर्वेक्षण के दौरान पता चला कि अपात्र लोग भी बीपीएल परिवारों हेतु संचालित योजनाओं का लाभ ले रहे हैं। सरकार द्वारा संचालित ऐसे कार्यक्रमों का सत्यापन उन व्यक्तियों से होना चाहिए जो प्रत्यक्ष यह घोषणा करें कि यदि उनके कार्य शैली में किसी प्रकार का दोष पाया जाता है तो उन्हें प्रत्यक्ष रूप से बिना किसी अनुग्रह, आदेश से दण्डित किया जाए। बीपीएल परिवारों हेतु संचालित योजनाएं अपने क्रियान्वयन के मुकाम तक पहुँचते-पहुँचते विचौलियों की शिकार हो रही हैं। यदि केन्द्र सरकार के द्वारा गरीबी उन्मूलन से सम्बन्धित प्रपत्रों को पार्शदों या शासकीय अधिकारियों के बजाय प्रत्यक्ष रूप से लाभार्थियों द्वारा स्वयं नेटवर्किंग द्वारा ऑनलाईन भरा जायें और भेजा जायें तथा साथ ही बेरोजगारी भत्ता या रोजगार कार्यक्रमों के तहत दी गई मजदूरी सीधे खाते में आये तो लाभार्थियों को ज्यादा लाभ प्राप्त होगा परन्तु इसके लिए अशिक्षित तथा कम शिक्षित व्यक्तियों हेतु हिन्दी में प्रपत्र होने चाहिए एवं टंकण के बजाय मात्र विकल्प चुनाव की व्यवस्था होनी चाहिए तथा साथ ही टंकण हेतु वहां ध्वनि तकनीकी व्यवस्था होनी चाहिए। जिससे अशिक्षित या कम शिक्षित व्यक्ति आसानी से प्रपत्रों को भर सके और इन योजनाओं का लाभ उठा सकें।

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ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना एवं आर्थिक विकास : उत्तर प्रदेश के विशेष संदर्भ में

अल्का सिंह एवं डॉ. निहारिका श्रीवास्तव

सारांश

अधोसंरचना से तात्पर्य उन सभी बुनियादी सेवाओं से है जो विभिन्न आर्थिक गतिविधियों को सुचारु बनाती हैं जिससे किसी देश अथवा राज्य के विकास में मदद मिलती है। मूल बुनियादी ढांचे में सभी मुख्य प्रकार के बुनियादी ढांचे को शामिल किया जाता है जैसे—सड़क, राजमार्ग, रेलवे, सार्वजनिक परिवहन, पानी और गैस की आपूर्ति आदि। ग्रामीण विकास के लिए अधोसंरचनात्मक सुविधाओं की पर्याप्तता आवश्यक है। अतः भौतिक बुनियादी ढांचे पर विचार करना आवश्यक है। प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र का उद्देश्य ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना एवं आर्थिक विकास का विश्लेषण करना तथा सुझाव प्रस्तुत करना है। जिसके लिए एक परिकल्पना का निर्माण किया गया है। प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र की शाध प्रविधि अन्वेषणात्मक अनुसंधान पर आधारित है और द्वैतियक आँकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है। बुनियादी ढाँचा जिसे भौतिक और सामाजिक बुनियादी ढांचे में वर्गीकृत किया जा सकता है, उस अनुकूल प्रणाली का प्रतिनिधित्व करता है जो आर्थिक गतिविधियों और आर्थिक विकास को सुविधाजनक बनाता है। उत्पादकता और विकास को बढ़ावा देने के अलावा, बुनियादी ढाँचा घरेलू बाजार के विकास में योगदान देता है, यह बचत जुटाता है, रोजगार के अवसर पैदा करता है, सामाजिक विकास और सामाजिक परिवर्तन की ओर ले जाता है। बुनियादी ढाँचों का विकास राष्ट्र का ही नहीं उत्तर प्रदेश के लिए भी प्राथमिकता के रूप में आवश्यक है। जिसके कारण दुनिया में सबसे तेजी से बढ़ती अर्थव्यवस्थाओं में से एक के रूप में उभरने में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभा सकता है तथा उत्तर प्रदेश राज्य को 1 ट्रिलियन अर्थव्यवस्था बनाने में सहायक हो सकता है। कई सधार पहले से ही बुनियादी ढाँचे के विभिन्न उप-क्षेत्रों में हुए हैं, जिसमें सड़क, हवाई अड्डे, बंदरगाह, बिजली और शहरी उपयोगिताएँ शामिल हैं। उत्तर प्रदेश के आर्थिक विकास को बनाए रखने और बढ़ाने के लिए इस क्षेत्र में अभी और भी विकास किया जाना बाकी है। इसके अलावा, यह जरूरी है कि बुनियादी ढाँचे का सतत् रूप से विकास हो।

शब्दावली— ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना, भौतिक और सामाजिक बुनियादी ढांचे एवं परियोजनाएं

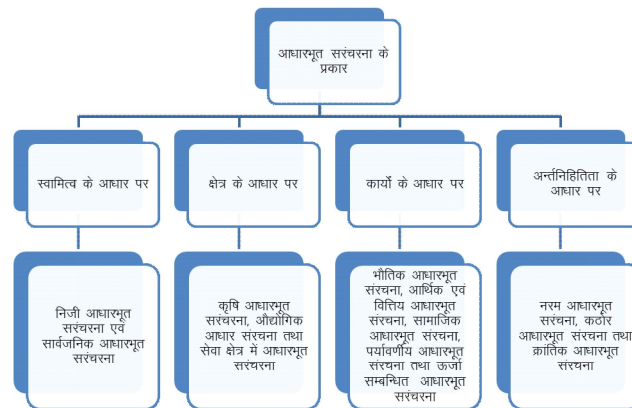
प्रस्तावना

किसी भी देश या राज्य के ग्रामीण क्षेत्र का आर्थिक विकास वहाँ उपलब्ध गुणवत्ता वाली आधारभूत सुविधाओं पर निर्भर करता है। उत्तर प्रदेश में ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना अत्यधिक पिछड़ी हुई है। अतः ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना के पिछड़ेपन को दूर करना अति अनिवार्य है। ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में इन अधोसंरचना संबंधी सुविधाओं के विकास के लिए “भारत निर्माण कार्यक्रम चलाया गया है। उत्तर प्रदेश बहुत ही बड़ा राज्य है। इतने बड़े राज्य में अधोसंरचना सुविधाएँ विकसित करने के लिए अत्यधिक निवेश की आवश्यकता है। इतनी अधिक निवेश राशि केवल सरकार द्वारा उपलब्ध नहीं करवायी जा सकती। अधोसंरचना के विकास में निजी क्षेत्र की भागीदारी को बढ़ावा देने के लिए विशेष परियोजनाएँ चलायी गयी है। इन्हें ‘सार्वजनिक निजी साझेदारी’, परियोजना के नाम से जाना जाता है। इसके अंतर्गत उत्तर प्रदेश में विभिन्न परियोजनाएँ चलायी गयी हैं, जैसे—ताज यमुना एक्सप्रेस वे, गंगा एक्सप्रेस वे आदि। हर्षमैन अवसंरचना को उपपरिव्यय पूंजी तथा सामाजिक उपपरिव्यय पूंजी के रूप में लेते हैं। उनके अनुसार वे बुनियादी सेवायें हैं जिनके बिना प्राथमिक द्वितीयक तथा तृतीयक उत्पादक गतिविधियाँ सम्पन्न नहीं हो सकती। इस प्रकार इनके अभाव में आर्थिक वृद्धि, वृद्धि प्रतिकूल रूप से प्रभावित होगी। 12वीं पंचवर्षीय योजना में अवस्थापना के विकास पर विशेष बल दिया गया जो उच्च आर्थिक वृद्धि दर बनाये रखने के साथ समावेशी विकास सुनिश्चित करने के लिए अनिवार्य है, अवसंरचना के विकास में निवेश में वृद्धि प्रत्यक्ष तथा परोक्ष रूप से रोजगार के सृजन में सहायक होगी तथा आय वृद्धि कारक होगी।

आधारभूत संरचना

अवसंरचना से आशय उस आधारभूत ढांचे या नींव से है जिसके ऊपर देश का आर्थिक विकास, विशेष रूप से विनिर्माण क्षेत्र का विकास निर्भर करता है। इस प्रकार अवसंरचना के अन्तर्गत हम उन सभी को सम्मिलित करते हैं जो आर्थिक विकास विशेषरूप से औद्योगीकरण को सुगम बनाते हैं।

चार्ट 1



स्पष्ट है अवसंरचना की कमी या अनुपलब्धता परियोजनाओं के पूरा न होने में सबसे प्रमुख कारक हैं। अतः इस पर विचार करना उपयोगी है तथा ग्रामीण विकास के लिए अधोसंरचनात्मक सुविधाओं की पर्याप्तता आवश्यक है।

शोध पत्र का उद्देश्य

1. उत्तर प्रदेश में ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना एवं आर्थिक विकास का विश्लेषण।
2. उत्तर प्रदेश में ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना एवं आर्थिक विकास पर सुझाव

परिकल्पना

H_0 : ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना एवं आर्थिक विकास का उत्तर प्रदेश की अर्थव्यवस्था पर कोई प्रभाव नहीं पड़ता है।

H_1 : ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना एवं आर्थिक विकास का उत्तर प्रदेश की अर्थव्यवस्था पर प्रभाव पड़ता है।

शोध प्रविधि

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र अन्वेषणात्मक अनुसंधान पर आधारित है। इस शोध पत्र में द्वैतीयक आँकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है तथा इसमें परिकल्पना की जांच हेतु प्रतिगमन द्वारा कार्य कारण सम्बन्ध ज्ञात किया गया है।

उत्तर प्रदेश की अधोसंरचना

उत्तर प्रदेश में अधोसंरचना के मुख्य संघटक निम्नलिखित हैं—

ऊर्जा

उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार बिजली को अन्य राज्यों से खरीदती है ताकि राज्य में इसकी पूर्ति को बढ़ाया जा सके। उत्तर प्रदेश में बिजली उत्पादन व खपत को तालिका में दर्शाया गया है—

तालिका 1. उत्तर प्रदेश में ऊर्जा उत्पादन व खपत (लाख किलोवाट में)

वर्ष	ऊर्जा उत्पादन			ऊर्जा की खपत
	जल विद्युत	ताप ऊर्जा	कुल	
2000-01	52,760	1,95,830	2,48,590	2,28,550
2005-06	12,830	1,93,696	2,06,526	3,01,093
2008-09	11,580	1,96,282	2,06,862	3,94,942
2021-22	—	—	2,48,990	9,37,310

स्रोत: उत्तर प्रदेश (विभिन्न वर्षों की)

वर्ष 2022-23 में माह अप्रैल से अक्टूबर तक औसतन ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में 17:26 घंटे आपूर्ति की गई। प्रधानमंत्री सहज बिजली हर घर योजना (सौभाग्य) के तहत गरीब परिवारों को निःशुल्क और अन्य ग्रामीण परिवारों को 50 की 10 मासिक किश्तों में बिजली कनेक्शन देने की सुविधा दी गयी। प्रदेश में निर्बाध बिजली आपूर्ति सुनिश्चित करने हेतु वित्तीय वर्ष 2017-18 से 2021-22 (मार्च 2022) तक कुल 705 नग नये 33/11 केवी विद्युत उपकेंद्र ऊर्जीकृत किये जा चुके हैं एव 1413 नग विद्युत उपकेंद्रों की क्षमता बढ़ायी जा चुकी है।

परिवहन-

उत्तर प्रदेश में परिवहन व्यवस्था में रेलवे नेटवर्क, सड़क परिवहन, वायु परिवहन, मुख्य नदियों से आंतरिक जल परिवहन आदि शामिल हैं।

(1) रेल परिवहन

इस राज्य में 5 क्षेत्रीय नेटवर्क (कुल 16 में से) राज्य के विभिन्न भागों को आपस में व अन्य राज्यों से जोड़ रहे हैं। ये क्षेत्रीय नेटवर्क हैं— उत्तरी रेलवे, उत्तर-पूर्वी रेलवे, पूर्वी-केंद्रीय रेलवे, उत्तर-केंद्रीय रेलवे व पश्चिम-केंद्रीय रेलवे। राज्य की परिवहन व्यवस्था में रेलवे का बहुत महत्वपूर्ण स्थान है। देश में रेलभाड़ों को बहुत कम रखा गया है, ताकि सामाजिक कल्याण के उद्देश्य को पूरा किया जा सके। पिछले कुछ वर्षों में रेल नेटवर्क के विद्युतीकरण द्वारा इसमें तकनीकी सुधार किए गए हैं। इसके अलावा छोटी लाइनों को बड़ी लाइनों में बदला गया है, ई-टिकटिंग की सुविधा को डाकघरों व पेट्रोल पंपों पर उपलब्ध करवाया गया है। रेलवे सिगनल व्यवस्था का आधुनिकीकरण किया गया है।

(2) सड़क परिवहन

उत्तर प्रदेश में उत्पादों व यात्रियों के परिवहन में सड़क परिवहन का अत्यधिक महत्व है। राज्य में विशाल सड़क नेटवर्क है तथा 42 राष्ट्रीय राजमार्गों द्वारा यह देश के अन्य भागों से जुड़ा हुआ है। परंतु उत्तर प्रदेश में सड़कों की क्वालिटी बहुत ही निम्न स्तर की है। यहाँ के कई गाँवों में पक्की सड़कें भी नहीं हैं। राज्य की विशाल जनसंख्या को ध्यान में रखते हुए, सड़कों की क्षमता व क्वालिटी में सुधार लाना अति अनिवार्य है। अब सड़कों के विकास कार्यों में निजी क्षेत्र की भागीदारी को भी बहुत बढ़ावा दिया जा रहा है। इसके लिए राज्य में सार्वजनिक निजी साझेदारी (PPP) परियोजनाएँ चलायी गयी हैं।

तालिका 2. उत्तर प्रदेश में सड़क नेटवर्क की लंबाई

सड़क का प्रकार	सड़क की लंबाई (मार्च 2022 तक)
राष्ट्रीय राजमार्ग	11,590 कि०मी०
राज्य राजमार्ग	10,901 कि०मी०
प्रमुख जिला सड़के	6,749 कि०मी०
अन्य जिला मार्ग	54,244 कि०मी०
ग्रामीण मार्ग	2,04,148 कि०मी०
कुल योग	2,87,632 कि०मी०

स्रोत: लोक निर्माण विभाग उत्तर प्रदेश।

(3) वायु परिवहन

वायु परिवहन सबसे तीव्र गति वाला व आधुनिकतम परिवहन माध्यम है। उत्तर प्रदेश में वायु परिवहन के विकास के लिए अनुकूल भौगोलिक विशेषताएँ हैं जैसे—विशाल मैदानी क्षेत्र जहाँ हवाई जहाज के उतरने व चढ़ने के लिए पर्याप्त जगह मिल सके। उत्तर प्रदेश में कुल 9 हवाई अड्डे हैं जिसमें 3 अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय हवाई अड्डे एवं 6 घरेलू हवाई अड्डे हैं, जो आगरा, इलाहाबाद, गोरखपुर, कानपुर, लखनऊ व वाराणसी में हैं। अंतर्राष्ट्रीय हवाई उड़ानें लखनऊ व वाराणसी हवाई अड्डों से ली जाती हैं।

स्वास्थ्य-

उत्तर प्रदेश में 3516 प्राथमिक स्वास्थ्य केंद्र, 765 सामुदायिक स्वास्थ्य केंद्र तथा 20778 स्वास्थ्य उपकेंद्र हैं, जो स्वास्थ्य सुरक्षा संबंधी सुविधाएँ, प्रदान कर रहे हैं। इसके अलावा 65 मेडिकल कॉलेज, 420 आयुर्वेदिक मेडिकल कॉलेज एवं यूनानी मेडिकल कॉलेज हैं। संपूर्ण भारत की तुलना में उत्तर प्रदेश में स्वास्थ्य सूचकों को तालिका 3 में दर्शाया गया

तालिका 3 : भारत व उत्तर प्रदेश में स्वास्थ्य सूचक

स्वास्थ्य सूचक	उत्तर प्रदेश	भारत
1. अस्पताल बिस्तरों की संख्या (प्रति एक लाख जनसंख्या)	18	43
2. जन्म दर (प्रति हजार, प्रति वर्ष)	28.7	8.2
3. मृत्यु दर (प्रति हजार, प्रति वर्ष)	8.4	7.4
4. शिशु मृत्यु दर (प्रति हजार, प्रति वर्ष)	63	55

स्रोत: आर्थिक सर्वेक्षण 2022-23

उपरोक्त सूचक इस बात की ओर संकेत करते हैं कि संपूर्ण भारत की तुलना में उत्तर प्रदेश में स्वास्थ्य सुविधाओं की कमी है।

शिक्षा-

अन्य बहुत से राज्यों की तुलना में उत्तर प्रदेश में शिक्षा का विस्तार अधिक नहीं हुआ है। जनगणना, 2011 के अनुसार, उत्तर प्रदेश में 67.68 प्रतिशत जनसंख्या शिक्षित है, जबकि संपूर्ण भारत के लिए यह औसत 74.04 प्रतिशत है। सरकार ने विभिन्न विश्वविद्यालय, कॉलेज, स्कूल व अनुसंधान केंद्रों की स्थापना की है ताकि राज्य में शिक्षा का विस्तार हो सके। इसके अलावा निजी क्षेत्र भी इसमें महत्वपूर्ण योगदान दे रहा है। उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार ने केंद्र सरकार की योजना 'सर्वशिक्षा अभियान' को लागू किया है। इसके अंतर्गत 6-14 वर्ष के आयु वर्ग के लिए प्राथमिक शिक्षा को ग्रहण करना मौलिक अधिकार माना गया है। शिक्षा के प्रसार के लिए, उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार ने 22 विश्वविद्यालय, 1,834 डिग्री कॉलेज, 16,331 हायर सेकेन्डरी स्कूल स्थापित किए हैं। वर्ष 2011 में उत्तर प्रदेश में 4 केंद्रीय विश्वविद्यालय, 22 राज्य स्तरीय विश्वविद्यालय, 14 निजी विश्वविद्यालय, 10 डीम्ड (Deemed) विश्वविद्यालय, 4 अनुसंधान संस्थान, 26 मेडिकल कॉलेज तथा विभिन्न प्रबंध संस्थान व इंजीनियरिंग कॉलेज कार्यरत हैं। अलीगढ़ मुस्लिम विश्वविद्यालय, इलाहाबाद विश्वविद्यालय, बनारस (वाराणसी) हिंदू विश्वविद्यालय, बाबा भीमराव अंबेडकर विश्वविद्यालय, आई०आई०टी० कानपुर केंद्रीय सरकार के अधीन कार्य कर रहे हैं। परंतु इन सब प्रयासों के बावजूद भी उत्तर प्रदेश में शिक्षा दर अभी भी बहुत कम है। साक्षरता के आधार पर इसका उनतीसवां स्थान है।

जल संसाधन-

राज्य में कृषि अधीन कुल भूमि के 79.7 प्रतिशत पर सिंचाई सुविधाएँ उपलब्ध हैं। उत्तर प्रदेश में कुल सिंचित क्षेत्र का लगभग 15.2 प्रतिशत नहरों द्वारा सिंचित है तथा लगभग 74.9 प्रतिशत ट्यूबवैलों द्वारा सिंचित है। यहाँ बारहमासी व लभी नदियों होने के कारण बहुत-सी नहरे भी हैं। उत्तर प्रदेश की प्रमुख नहरे हैं- शारदा नहर, आगरा नहर, पूर्वी यमुना नहर, ऊपरी गंगा नहर, निचली गंगा नहर, घाघरा नहर, गंडक नहर आदि। उत्तर प्रदेश में नदियों पर बहुत-सी बहुदेशीय नदी परियोजनाएँ चलायी गयी हैं, जैसे-शारदा जल विद्युत परियोजना, रिहंद परियोजना, गंडक परियोजना, गंगा जलविद्युत परियोजना आदि।

उत्तर प्रदेश में अधोसंरचना पर किया गया सरकारी व्यय का विश्लेषण एवं आर्थिक विकास पर प्रभाव

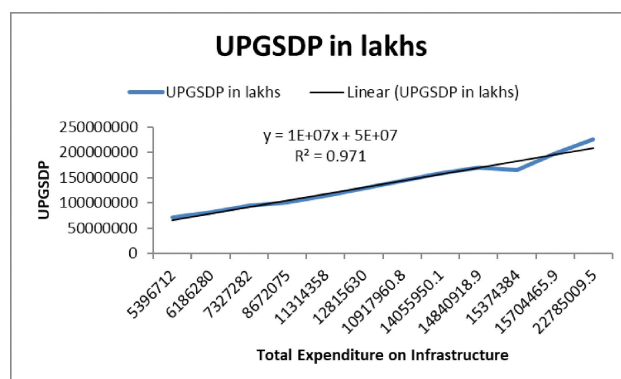
तालिका 4 में वर्ष 2011-12 से वर्ष 2022-23 तक कुल अधोसंरचना पर किये गये व्ययों को प्रदर्शित किया गया है। उसके सापेक्ष उत्तर प्रदेश की सकल राज्य घरेलू उत्पाद को भी दिखाया गया है। स्पष्ट है कि बढ़ते व्ययों के साथ राज्य आय में भी वृद्धि पायी गयी है। परिवर्तन की दर जिसे चित्र 1 में प्रदर्शित किया गया है, धनात्मक है।

तालिका 4: उत्तर प्रदेश में अधोसंरचना पर किया गया सरकारी व्यय

वर्ष	अधोसंरचना पर कुल व्यय	यूपी जीएसडीपी
2012	5396712	72405044
2013	6186280	82239292
2014	7327282	94035643
2015	8672075	101178966
2016	11314358	113780794
2017	12815630	128870023
2018	10917960.8	143992550
2019	14055950.1	158218005
2020	14840918.9	170006180
2021	15374384	164531675
2022	15704465.9	197453155
2023	22785009.5	225757506

स्रोत: Reserve Bank Of India (Various years), Handbook of statistics on Indian state

चित्र 1



परीक्षण से स्पष्ट है कि इनके मध्य सम्बन्ध सार्थक है। अनुमानित प्रतिपगमन रेखा निम्नलिखित है। स्थिरांकों के मान तथा परीक्षण मानों को तालिका 5 में प्रदर्शित किया गया है। तालिका 5 से स्पष्ट है कि मॉडल सार्थक है तथा अधोसंरचना पर किये गये व्ययों का स्थिरांक भी सार्थक है। जो स्पष्ट करता है कि इनके मध्य धनात्मक सम्बन्ध पाया जा रहा है। इन दोनों के मध्य खिंचे गये अनुमानित प्रतिपगमन निम्न प्रकार से है—

$$UPGSDP_IN_LAKHS = 9.30609814267 * TOTAL_EXPENDITURE_ON_INF + 24953806.1766$$

एफ परीक्षण तथा टी परीक्षण के अनुसार यह मॉडल 5 प्रतिशत सार्थकता स्तर पर स्वीकृत है और साथ ही 5 प्रतिशत सार्थकता स्तर पर इसके स्थिरांक भी स्वीकृत है। जो स्पष्ट करते हैं कि अधोसंरचना पर होने वाला व्यय आर्थिक विकास में सहायक है। संभावित प्रतिपगमन सम्बन्ध के रेसिडुवेल्स पूर्णतः प्रसामान्य वितृत हैं। जिनके बीच किसी भी प्रकार का क्रमिक सम्बन्ध नहीं है एवं समलैंगिता को प्रदर्शित करते हैं। स्वतंत्र चर अर्थात् व्यय का प्रभाव आश्रित चर पर 93 प्रतिशत है। जो बहुत मजबूत सम्बन्ध को प्रदर्शित करता है।

तालिका 5: उत्तर प्रदेश में अधोसंरचना पर किया गया सरकारी व्यय का विश्लेषण एवं आर्थिक विकास के बीच स्थिरांकों के मान

चर	स्थिरांक	प्रमाप विभ्रम	टी स्थिरांक	प्रायिकता	आर वर्ग	एफ स्थिरांक	प्रायिकता
TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON INF	9.306098	0.805341	11.55547	0.0000	0.93	133.53	0.00
C	24953806	10468730	2.383652	0.0384			

स्रोत: शोधार्थी द्वारा निर्मित

उत्तर प्रदेश में अधोसंरचना में सुधार के लिए उठाए गए कदम

(1) भारत निर्माण

गाँवों में अधोसंरचना सुविधाओं के विकास के लिए यह योजना चलायी गयी हैं। इसमें सभी गाँवों में पक्की सड़कें, व टेलिफोन सुविधाएँ विकसित की जाती हैं। इसके अलावा इस योजना में बिजली, स्वच्छ पेय जल, पक्के घर, बेहतर सिंचाई सुविधाएँ भी उपलब्ध करवायी जाती हैं।

(2) प्रधानमंत्री ग्राम सड़क योजना

यह योजना भारत सरकार के ग्रामीण विकास मंत्रालय द्वारा चलायी जाती है। इसके अंतर्गत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में सभी मौसमों के लिए उपयुक्त सड़कें (।सस'मंजीमत त्वंके) बनायी जाती हैं। इसमें सभी ग्रामीण मैदानी क्षेत्र जहाँ जनसंख्या 500 या 500 से अधिक है, तथा सभी पहाड़ी, जनजातीय व मरुस्थलीय क्षेत्र जाँ जनसंख्या 250 या 250 से अधिक है, वहाँ पक्की सड़कें बनवायी जाती हैं।

(3) पी०यू०आर०ए० मॉडल

इसके अंतर्गत ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में षहरी सुविधाएं प्रदान करने के लिए निम्न सुविधाएँ प्रदान की जाती हैं—

- **भौतिक संपर्क-** गाँवों को सड़कों से जोड़ना तथा सभी गाँवों में बिजली उपलब्ध करवाना।
- **डिजिटल संपर्क-** गाँवों को आधुनिक दूरसंचार व सूचना तकनीकी सुविधाओं से जोड़ना, गाँवों में इंटरनेट/ब्रॉडबैंड सुविधाएँ उपलब्ध करवाना।

- **ज्ञान संपर्क**— ग्रामीण लोगों के ज्ञान में वृद्धि हेतु अधिक स्कूल, उच्च शिक्षा केंद्र, व्यावसायिक व तकनीकी संस्थान खोलना।
 - **आर्थिक संपर्क**— गाँवों में विपणन, बैंकिंग, वेयरहाऊसिंग, बीमा सुविधाएँ आदि उपलब्ध करवाना।
- (4) मान्यवर श्री कांशी राम जी शहरी समग्र विकास योजना
इस योजना के अंतर्गत शहरों में अच्छी क्वालिटी की सड़कें उपलब्ध करवायी जाती है। वर्तमान सड़कों का अच्छा रख-रखाव किया जाता है तथा नयी सड़कें बनवायी जाती हैं।
- (5) उत्तर प्रदेश राज्य राजमार्ग प्राधिकरण
उत्तर प्रदेश के वासियों की परिवहन संबंधी आवश्यकताओं की पूर्ति हेतु इस प्राधिकरण की स्थापना की गयी है। यह राज्य में परिवहन सुविधाओं को सुदृढ़ करता है।
- (6) महामाया आवास योजना
इस योजना में अनुसूचित जाति व जनजातीय वर्ग के लोगों को पक्के घर उपलब्ध करवाए जाते हैं ताकि उनकी आवास संबंधी आवश्यकताओं को पूरा किया जा सके।
- (7) महामाया सर्वजन आवास योजना
इस योजना के अंतर्गत गैर-अनुसूचित जाति व गैर-जनजातीय वर्ग के लोगों को जो निर्धनता रेखा से नीचे रह रहे हैं, उनकी आवासीय आवश्यकताओं की पूर्ति हेतु रियायती दरों पर पक्के घर उपलब्ध करवाए जाते हैं।
- (8) ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना विकास कोश
ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना को सुदृढ़ करने के लिए राष्ट्रीय कृषि व ग्रामीण विकास बैंक— नाबार्ड (NABARD) द्वारा 'ग्रामीण अधोसंरचना विकास कोश' बनाया गया है।
- (9) जवाहर लाल नेहरू राष्ट्रीय शहरी नवीनीकरण मिशन
इस योजना के अंतर्गत शहरों में स्वच्छ पेय जल व सफाई सुविधाएँ सुदृढ़ की जाती है। सूखे शौचालयों के स्थान पर प्लश शौचालय स्थापित किए जाते हैं तथा विशेष सफाई अभियान चलाए जाते हैं।
- (10) सार्वजनिक निजी साझेदारी व अधोसंरचना
अधोसंरचना के तीव्र विकास को बढ़ावा देने के लिए सार्वजनिक व निजी साझेदारी को बढ़ावा दिया जा रहा है। निजी क्षेत्र को अधोसंरचना विकास में आकर्षित करने के लिए विभिन्न कदम उठाए गए हैं— जैसे (i) परियोजना लागत के 40 प्रतिशत तक की पूंजी पर सब्सिडी का प्रावधान, (ii) पहले 5 वर्षों की अवधि के लिए 100 प्रतिशत कर छूट तथा अगले 5 वर्षों के लिए 30 प्रतिशत कर छूट, (iii) सड़क क्षेत्र में 100: विदेशी प्रत्यक्ष निवेश की अनुमति दी

गयी है, (iv) सड़क निर्माण के लिए भूमि अधिग्रहण का कार्य व इसका व्यय सरकार वहन करेगी। अर्थात् सड़क बनाने के लिए भूमि सरकार द्वारा उपलब्ध करवायी जाएगी।

(11) अन्य योजनाएँ

- (i) नलकूप योजना के अंतर्गत राज्य के दूर-दराज व असिंचित क्षेत्रों में किसानों के लिए बड़े नलकूपों का निर्माण किया जा रहा है। (ii) ग्रामीण पेयजल योजना का क्रियान्वयन उत्तर प्रदेश जल निगम द्वारा किया जा रहा है। इस योजना का मुख्य उद्देश्य गाँवों में तथा विशेषकर प्राथमिक विद्यालयों में स्वच्छ पेयजल उपलब्ध करवाना है। (iii) डॉ० अंबेडकर ग्रामीण समग्र विकास योजना का मुख्य उद्देश्य उत्तर प्रदेश के ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों का समग्र विकास करना है, जिससे ग्राम सभाओं के सभी वर्गों के लोग विकास को मुख्यधारा से जुड़ सकें।)

उपसंहार

विगत वर्षों तक जबकि अवसंरचना क्षेत्र में भारी मात्रा में निवेश किया गया, निवेश की भारी कमी थी। अवसंरचना क्षेत्र में निवेश में कमी के कारण रहे—सार्वजनिक निजी भागीदारी (PPP) का, विशेष रूप से ऊर्जा तथा टेलिकॉम परियोजनाओं में, धराशायी होना, निजी कम्पनियों की बैलेन्सशीट का स्ट्रेन्ड होना, भूमि तथा जंगल से सम्बन्धित क्लीयरन्सेज से सम्बन्धित मुद्दे। इस समय की प्रमुख आवश्यकता इस निवेश अन्तराल को निजी निवेश के द्वारा पूरा करने की है। अवस्थापना निवेश की फंडिंग करने वाली प्रमुख संस्थायें हैं—नैशनल इन्फ्रास्ट्रक्चर इन्वेस्टमेंट बैंक (NIIB), तथा ग्लोबल संस्थायें—एशियन इन्फ्रास्ट्रक्चर इन्वेस्टमेंट बैंक (AIIB) तथा न्यू डेवलपमेंट बैंक (जिसे पहले BRICS बैंक कहा जाता था।)

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सिंचाई सुविधायें एवं ग्रामीण विकास: उत्तर प्रदेश के विशेष संदर्भ में

खुशी सिंह एवं डॉ. निहारिका श्रीवास्तव

सारांश

सिंचाई मिट्टी को कृत्रिम रूप से पानी देकर उसमें उपलब्ध जल की मात्रा में वृद्धि करने की क्रिया है और आमतौर पर इसका प्रयोग फसल उगाने के दौरान, शुष्क क्षेत्रों या पर्याप्त वर्षा ना होने की स्थिति में पौधों की जल आवश्यकता पूरी करने के लिए किया जाता है। भारत के उत्तर प्रदेश सहित सभी राज्यों में सिंचाई के महत्त्व को देखते हुए 2 जुलाई 2015 के दिन प्रधानमंत्री कृषि सिंचाई योजना को स्वीकृति दी गई। इसका उद्देश्य सिंचाई सुविधाओं को प्रभावशाली बनाते हुए हर खेत तक किसी न किसी माध्यम से सिंचाई सुविधाओं को पहुंचाना है। इस योजना को 2026 तक के लिये बढ़ाया गया है। उत्तर प्रदेश मुख्य रूप से एक ग्रामीण राज्य है जिसका 65% कार्यबल ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में वास करता है। ग्रामीण अर्थव्यवस्था राज्य आय में महत्वपूर्ण योगदान करती है। इस प्रकार, ग्रामीण अर्थव्यवस्था एवं जनसंख्या की प्रगति एवं विकास देश की समग्र प्रगति और समावेशी विकास की कुंजी है।

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र का उद्देश्य सिंचाई सुविधाओं की स्थिति का आंकलन करते हुए सुझाव प्रस्तुत करना है। जिसके लिए एक परिकल्पना का निर्माण किया गया है। प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र अन्वेषणात्मक षोध प्रविधि पर आधारित है तथा इसके लिए द्वैतियक आंकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है। इसे www.ceicdata.com तथा आर्थिक एवं सांख्यिकी निदेशालय, कृषि एवं सहकारिता विभाग, कृषि मंत्रालय, उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार की वेबसाइट से लिया गया है। सिंचाई कृषि की आधारभूत आवश्यकता होती है। इस क्षेत्र पर प्राथमिकता से ध्यान देने की आवश्यकता है ताकि हर खेत तक पानी पहुँचाने का सपना साकार हो सके और कृषि उपज बढ़ाने, खाद्य सुरक्षा का दायरा बढ़ाने और उत्तर प्रदेश के ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में गरीबी में कमी लाने में सहायता मिल सके।

शब्दावली— सिंचाई सुविधायें, उत्तर प्रदेश एवं ग्रामीण विकास

प्रस्तावना

सिंचाई मिट्टी को कृत्रिम रूप से पानी देकर उसमें उपलब्ध जल की मात्रा में वृद्धि करने की क्रिया है और आमतौर पर इसका प्रयोग फसल उगाने के दौरान, शुष्क क्षेत्रों या पर्याप्त वर्षा ना होने की स्थिति में पौधों की जल आवश्यकता पूरी करने के लिए किया जाता है। उत्तर प्रदेश मुख्य रूप से एक ग्रामीण राज्य है जिसका 65: कार्यबल ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में वास करता है। ग्रामीण अर्थव्यवस्था राज्य

आय में महत्वपूर्ण योगदान करती है। इस प्रकार, ग्रामीण अर्थव्यवस्था एवं जनसंख्या की प्रगति एवं विकास देश की समग्र प्रगति और समावेशी विकास की कुंजी है। मानसूनी वर्षा की अनिश्चितता के कारण उत्तर प्रदेश में भी सिंचाई के लिये कृत्रिम साधनों का सहारा लिया जाता है। उत्तर प्रदेश का सकल सिंचित क्षेत्रफल 216 लाख हेक्टेयर (वर्ष 2016–17 तक के आँकड़ों के अनुसार) है। उपलब्ध (2017–18) आँकड़ों के अनुसार प्रदेश का शुद्ध सिंचित क्षेत्रफल 143.3 लाख हेक्टेयर है। उत्तर प्रदेश कृषि निदेशालय के आँकड़ों के अनुसार वर्ष 2017–18 में उत्तर प्रदेश का 15.2% भू-भाग नहरों द्वारा, 74.9% भू-भाग नलकूपों द्वारा, 8.7 प्रतिशत भू-भाग कुओं द्वारा, 0.5 प्रतिशत भू-भाग तालाबों, झीलों एवं पोखरों द्वारा तथा 0.7% भू-भाग अन्य स्रोतों द्वारा सिंचित किया गया है। सरकार ने सिंचाई हेतु कई प्रयास किये हैं। इन्हीं प्रयासों की जांच हेतु प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र लिखा गया है।

शोध पत्र के उद्देश्य

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र के निम्नलिखित उद्देश्य हैं।

- उत्तर प्रदेश की सिंचाई सुविधाओं तथा ग्रामीण विकास की स्थिति का आंकलन करना।
- उत्तर प्रदेश की सिंचाई सुविधाओं तथा ग्रामीण विकास पर किये गये सरकारी व्यय की जांच करना।
- उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि क्षेत्र से प्राप्त सकल राज्य घरेलू उत्पाद पर प्रकाश डालना।
- उत्तर प्रदेश की सिंचाई सुविधाओं एवं ग्रामीण विकास के सम्बन्ध में सुझाव प्रस्तुत करना।

शोध पत्र की परिकल्पनाएं

H₀: उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचाई सुविधाओं का कृषि क्षेत्र से प्राप्त सकल राज्य घरेलू उत्पाद पर प्रभाव नहीं पड़ता है।

H₁: उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचाई सुविधाओं का कृषि क्षेत्र से प्राप्त सकल राज्य घरेलू उत्पाद पर प्रभाव पड़ता है।

शोध प्रविधि

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र अन्वेषणात्मक शोध प्रविधि पर आधारित है तथा इसके लिए द्वैतियक आंकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है। इसे www.ceicdata.com तथा आर्थिक एवं सांख्यिकी निदेशालय, कृषि एवं सहकारिता विभाग, कृषि मंत्रालय, उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार की वेबसाइट से लिया गया है।

शोध पत्र का विश्लेषण

उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचित क्षेत्र एवं कृषि योग्य भूमि क्षेत्र का विश्लेषण

कृषि के अंतर्गत कुल क्षेत्रफल में वृद्धि की प्रवृत्ति है जिसमें बहुत अधिक उतार-चढ़ाव हैं। 2007–08 में यह 527600000 हेक्टेयर और 2015–16 में 637170000 हेक्टेयर था। कृषि के अंतर्गत औसत क्षेत्रफल 593836667 हेक्टेयर था, COV 5.94% है और CGR 2.11% है।

तालिका-1 : उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि के अंतर्गत कुल भूमि क्षेत्र और सिंचित भूमि क्षेत्र का एजीआर और सीजीआर

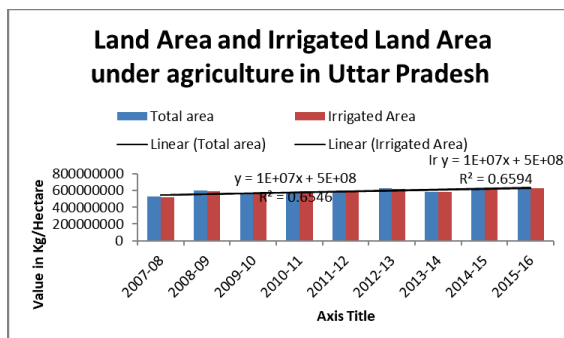
वर्ष	कुल क्षेत्रफल (हेक्टेयर में)	एजीआर (प्रतिशत में)	कुल सिंचित क्षेत्रफल (हेक्टेयर में)	एजीआर (प्रतिशत में)
2007-08	527600000		522119420	
2008-09	600490000	13.81539	595058380	13.96978
2009-10	563180000	-6.21326	557897582	-6.2449
2010-11	579490000	2.896055	574046160	2.894542
2011-12	591120000	2.006937	585662210	2.023539
2012-13	627080000	6.083367	621987840	6.202488
2013-14	587730000	-6.27512	582770220	-6.30521
2014-15	630670000	7.306076	626058890	7.428085
2015-16	637170000	1.03065	632512040	1.030758
औसत	593836667		588679193.6	
प्रमाण विचलन	35287186		35539722.45	
सीओवी	5.9422377		6.037196973	
सीजीआर	2.1187793		2.154014606	

स्रोत : Agriculture at glance-Variou Reports

कृषि के तहत कुल सिंचित क्षेत्र में वृद्धि की प्रवृत्ति है, यह 2007-08 में 522119420 हेक्टेयर और 2015-16 में 632512040 हेक्टेयर था। यह सबसे कम 2007-08, 522119420 हेक्टेयर थी।

कृषि के अंतर्गत औसत सिंचित क्षेत्र 588679193.6 हेक्टेयर है और सीओवी 6.04% और सीजीआर 2.15% है।

चित्र-1 : उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि के अंतर्गत भूमि क्षेत्र और सिंचित भूमि क्षेत्र



चित्र 1 में, समय का गुणांक समग्र अवधि में सकारात्मक है, इसका मतलब है कि इस अवधि (2007–08 से 2015–16) में बढ़ती प्रवृत्ति पाई गई है। कृषि के तहत औसत क्षेत्र और सिंचित क्षेत्र में प्रति वर्ष 10000000 हेक्टेयर का परिवर्तन होता है जिसका सांख्यिकीय परीक्षण किया जाता है। आर वर्ग का मान 0.65 है (दोनों के लिए) यह दर्शाता है कि समय सबसे महत्वपूर्ण कारक है और सार्वजनिक निवेश पर इसका प्रभाव 65% है (दोनों के लिए)। कुल मिलाकर इस दौरान विकास दर काफी कम रही।

उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचाई में सार्वजनिक निवेश का विश्लेषण

कृषि उत्पादन में सिंचाई एक मुख्य आगत है लेकिन फिर भी सिंचाई मानसून पर निर्भर करती है। जिससे बाढ़ या सूखे की समस्या पैदा होती है। अतः कृषि उत्पादन बढ़ाने के लिए अप्राकृतिक जल संसाधनों का विकास आवश्यक है। 2001–02 से सिंचाई पर सार्वजनिक निवेश में वृद्धि की प्रवृत्ति देखी जा रही है। 2001–02 में यह 205021 लाख थी लेकिन 2016–17 में यह घटकर 1054201 लाख रह गई है। लेकिन बहुत सारे उतार–चढ़ाव हैं, 2019–20 में उच्चतम औसत विकास दर 68.5% और 2003–04 में सबसे कम औसत विकास दर 0.7% है। तीन वर्षों से यह नकारात्मक विकास दर रही है। सबसे कम औसत विकास दर 2017–18 में पाई गई जो –25.5% है, यह दर्शाता है कि 2017–18 के बाद से सिंचाई पर सार्वजनिक निवेश कम हो गया है। बजट आवंटन में भी इस क्षेत्र की अनदेखी की गई है।

तालिका-2 : उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचाई और बाढ़ नियंत्रण में एजीआर और सार्वजनिक निवेश की तीव्रता

वर्ष	सिंचित क्षेत्र पर सरकार निवेश (लाख में)	एजीआर (प्रतिशत में)	सिंचित क्षेत्र के सार्वजनिक निवेश की तीव्रता
2001-02	205021		0.903381
2002-03	211704	3.259666083	0.964603
2003-04	213327	0.766636436	1.117399
2004-05	235872	10.5682825	0.964505
2005-06	293802	24.55993081	1.021781
2006-07	418321	42.3819443	1.043191
2007-08	449463	7.444522269	1.078992
2008-09	519159	15.50650443	1.098963
2009-10	498655	-3.949464422	0.9661
2010-11	600400	20.40388645	0.875059
2011-12	593421	-1.162391739	0.822825
2012-13	636849	7.318244552	0.78458
2013-14	753453	18.30952078	0.720455
2014-15	927675	23.12314106	0.674006
2015-16	1004829	8.316921336	0.693939
2016-17	1054201	4.91347284	0.89019
2017-18	785745.8	-25.46527655	0.782837
2018-19	1062902	35.27304887	0.622911
2019-20	1790833	68.48514675	0.582442
औसत 2001-11	364572.4	13.43798987	1.003398
प्रमाण विचलन	149390.6	14.25172994	0.082089
सीओवी	40.97694	106.0555193	8.181141
औसत 2011-2020	956656.5	15.45686977	0.730465
प्रमाण विचलन	357863.8	26.1026571	0.098625
सीओवी	37.40777	168.8741478	13.50163
एफ0 स्थािरांक	0.017	0.106569772	0.594213
पी0 मूल्य	0 (significant)	0 (significant)	0 (significant)

स्रोत : State Finance Report RBI;

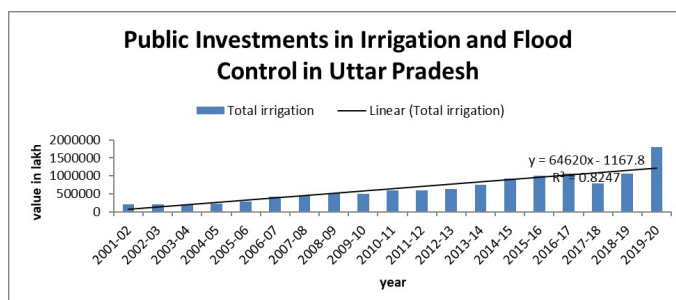
(2001-11) और (2011-20) से दो दशक के निवेश का औसत क्रमशः 364572.4 लाख और 956656.5 लाख है। दूसरे चरण का औसत (956656.5 लाख) पहले चरण (364572.4 लाख) से अधिक है जो दर्शाता है कि राज्य सरकार अब इस क्षेत्र पर अधिक ध्यान दे रही है। दूसरे चरण

में COV पहले चरण की तुलना में कम है यानी क्रमशः 37.4% और 40.9%।

सार्वजनिक निवेश की तीव्रता से पता चलता है कि राज्य सरकार द्वारा इस अवधि के दौरान दोनों चरणों में औसतन 0.6 और 0.3 प्रतिशत का निवेश किया गया। क्षेत्रीय जीएसडीपी में सिंचाई निवेश का अनुपात लगभग 1 प्रतिशत के करीब है। सम्पूर्ण स्थिति सिंचाई मद में कृषि क्षेत्र की ख़राब हालत को दर्शाती है।

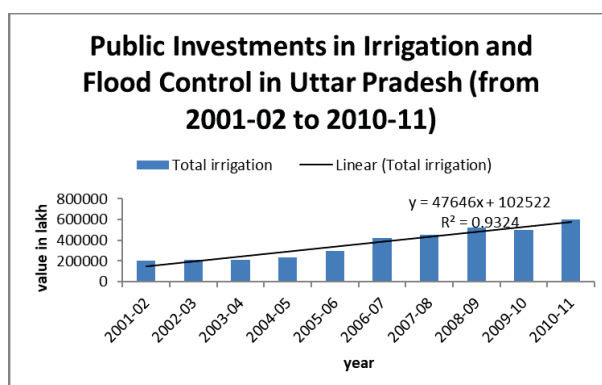
चित्र 2, 3 और 4 सिंचाई और बाढ़ नियंत्रण पर सार्वजनिक निवेश की प्रवृत्ति को दर्शाता है। चित्र 2 में, संपूर्ण प्रवृत्ति दिखाई गई है जबकि चित्र 3 और 4 पूरी श्रृंखला के चयनित भाग को दो चरणों (2001–11) और (2011–20) में दिखाता है।

चित्र-2 : उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचाई एवं बाढ़ नियंत्रण में सार्वजनिक निवेश (2001-02 से 2019-20 तक)



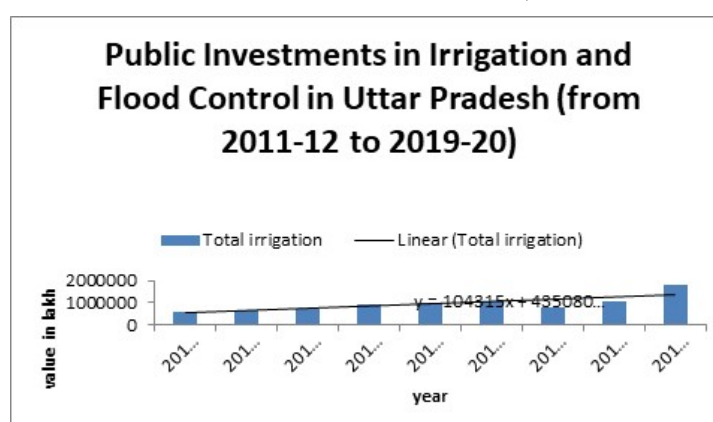
समय का गुणांक सकारात्मक है जो पूरी अवधि (2001–02 से 2019–20) के लिए बढ़ती प्रवृत्ति का प्रतिनिधित्व करता है। सार्वजनिक निवेश में प्रति वर्ष औसतन 64620 लाख का बदलाव आया है, जिसका सांख्यिकीय परीक्षण किया गया है। आर वर्ग का मान 0.82 है जो दर्शाता है कि समय सबसे महत्वपूर्ण कारक है और सार्वजनिक निवेश पर इसका प्रभाव 82% है।

चित्र-3 : उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचाई एवं बाढ़ नियंत्रण में सार्वजनिक निवेश (2001-02 से 2010-11 तक)



पहले चरण में समय का सकारात्मक गुणांक है, यह सिंचाई और बाढ़ नियंत्रण (2001–02 से 2010–11) में सार्वजनिक निवेश के पहले चरण में बढ़ती प्रवृत्ति को दर्शाता है। सार्वजनिक निवेश में औसतन प्रति वर्ष 47646 लाख का परिवर्तन होता है और इसका प्रभाव इस समयावधि के सार्वजनिक निवेश पर 93% पड़ता है।

चित्र-4 : उत्तर प्रदेश में सिंचाई एवं बाढ़ नियंत्रण में सार्वजनिक निवेश (2011-12 से 2019-20 तक)



दूसरे चरण (2011–12 से 2019–20) में भी समय का गुणांक सकारात्मक है, जो सार्वजनिक निवेश में बढ़ती प्रवृत्ति को दर्शाता है। ट्रेंड लाइन से पता चलता है कि सार्वजनिक निवेश में औसतन प्रति वर्ष 104315 लाख का परिवर्तन होता है जो सांख्यिकीय रूप से परीक्षण किया गया है। और इसका प्रभाव इस समय अवधि के सार्वजनिक निवेश पर 63% है। पहले चरण की तुलना में दूसरे चरण में सीओवी अधिक है।

उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि एवं संबद्ध क्षेत्र में सार्वजनिक निवेश का विश्लेषण

तालिका 3 से पता चलता है कि 2001–02 से 2015–16 तक उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि गतिविधियों पर सार्वजनिक निवेश में गिरावट की प्रवृत्ति रही है। 2001–02 में यह रु० 232407 लाख रुपये था जो घटकर 2015–16 में 64840.5 लाख रुपये हो गया। यानी कि 19 साल के अंदर ये करीब 6 गुना कम हो गया। यह सबसे अधिक रु० 2887982.4 लाख रुपये 2017–18 में था। इसके बाद इसमें गिरावट आई और 2019–20 में यह 1233299.9 लाख रुपये पर पहुंच गया। इस श्रृंखला में कई उतार-चढ़ाव हैं, जिन्हें औसत विकास दर से देखा जा सकता है। उच्चतम औसत विकास दर 2017–18 में 203.3% और सबसे कम औसत विकास दर 2015–16 में 4.8% है। 2010–11 में उच्चतम नकारात्मक औसत वृद्धि दर -62.1% है।

निम्नलिखित तालिका उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि और संबद्ध गतिविधियों पर सार्वजनिक निवेश की सम्पूर्ण स्थिति प्रदर्शित करती है। दो दशक के निवेश का औसत क्रमशः (2001–11) में 305639.3

लाख रूपये और (2011–20) में 1050540.933 लाख रूपये है। दूसरे चरण का औसत (1050540.9 लाख) पहले चरण (305639.3 लाख) से अधिक है जो दर्शाता है कि राज्य सरकार ने अब इस क्षेत्र पर ध्यान दिया है। मुख्य कारण यह है कि उन्होंने राज्य कृषि नीति 2005 के लक्ष्य को प्राप्त करने के लिए 2013 में राज्य कृषि नीति शुरू की और 4% की विकास दर हासिल करने के लिए सात क्षेत्रों पर प्रकाश डाला। लेकिन उन्होंने 2018–19 तक केंद्र सरकार के बराबर अपने लक्षित निवेश का आधा ही खर्च किया है। दूसरे चरण का COV भी अधिक है जो पहले चरण (61.89%) की तुलना में दूसरे चरण (74.45%) में अधिक भिन्नता दर्शाता है।

सार्वजनिक निवेश की तीव्रता से पता चलता है कि, इस अवधि के दौरान राज्य सरकार द्वारा कृषि क्षेत्र पर औसतन 0.6% और 0.3% का निवेश किया गया। 2001–02 में यह 0.8% और 2019–20 में 0.11% था। यह देखा जा सकता है कि सार्वजनिक निवेश की तीव्रता बहुत कम अर्थात् 1% से भी कम है।

तालिका-3 : उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि और संबद्ध गतिविधियों में एजीआर और सार्वजनिक निवेश की तीव्रता

वर्ष	कृषि एवं संबद्ध पर सरकारी निवेश (लाख में)	ए0जी0आर0 (प्रतिशत में)	कृषि क्षेत्र का सकल राज्य घरेलू उत्पाद (बाजार कीमत पर लाख में)	कृषि एवं संबद्ध की सार्वजनिक निवेश की तीव्रता
2001-02	232407		4083603.93	0.819214
2002-03	191491	-17.6053	4278250.10	0.702263
2003-04	151570	-20.8475	4632870.89	0.727875
2004-05	235144	55.13888	4832827.98	0.69691
2005-06	171195	-27.1957	5276153.07	0.624949
2006-07	169720	-0.86159	5669894.33	0.653609
2007-08	355748	109.6088	6379506.36	0.729607
2008-09	554311	55.81563	8120326.86	0.859243
2009-10	721570	30.17422	9310349.56	0.085432
2010-11	273237	-62.133	10471386.49	0.072906
2011-12	352417	28.97851	12415418.00	0.07252
2012-13	548693	55.69425	14951864.00	0.080523
2013-14	512346	-6.62429	16250096.00	0.078166
2014-15	703304	37.2713	15633361.00	0.091823
2015-16	736961	4.785555	17638489.00	0.086839

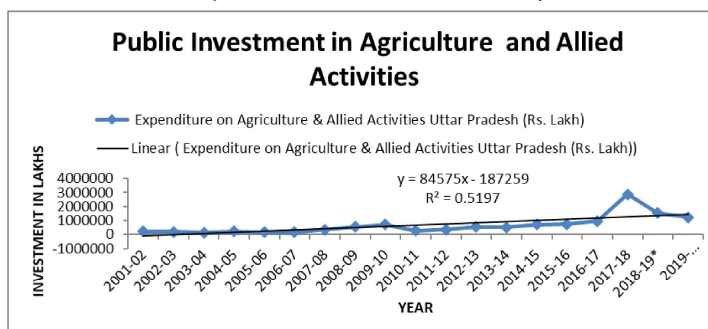
2016-17	952042	29.18486	19489787.00	1.147286
2017-18	2887982.4	203.3461	21360807.00	1.332549
2018-19	1527823.1	-47.0972	20846013.92	0.133854
2019-20	1233299.9	-19.2773	21980571.08	0.110092
औसत 2001-11	305639.3		6305516.957	0.597201
प्रमाण विचलन	189163.6032		2240024.049	0.281719
सी०ओ०वी०	61.89112566		35.52482792	47.17317
औसत 2011-2020	1050540.933		17840711.89	0.348184
प्रमाण विचलन	782214.8293		3288301.226	0.508026
सी०ओ०वी०	74.45829139		18.43144627	145.9076
एफ० स्थिरांक (Cal, 5%, 8 और 9)	0.000276109		0.274006323	0.098115
पी० मूल्य	0.00 (significant)		0.00 (significant)	0.00 (significant)

स्रोत: 1) Reserve Bank Of India (Various Issues), State Finance Statistics & Reserve Bank Of India (2019), Handbook of statistics on Indian state. * revised data **budget estimate 2) Calculated by Researcher

उत्तर प्रदेश राज्य की अर्थव्यवस्था के लिए यह बहुत महत्वपूर्ण है कि कृषि क्षेत्र को नजर अंदाज कर दिया गया है जबकि यह राज्य की रीढ़ है। सार्वजनिक निवेश इस क्षेत्र को मजबूती प्रदान कर सकता है। इसकी वृद्धि और विकास न केवल पूर्ण अवधि में बल्कि क्षेत्रीय जीएसडीपी की सापेक्ष अवधि में भी सार्वजनिक निवेश बढ़ाने के बाद संभव हो सकता है।

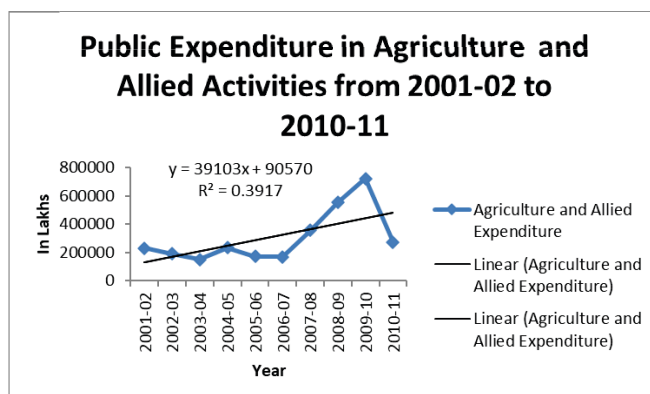
चित्र 5, 6 और 7 कृषि और संबद्ध गतिविधियों पर सार्वजनिक निवेश की समग्र प्रवृत्ति को दर्शाता है। चित्र 5 में, पूरी श्रृंखला (2001–2020) का विश्लेषण दिखाया गया है, जबकि चित्र 6 और 7 में चरणवार विश्लेषण 2001–11 और 2011–20 दिखाया गया है।

चित्र-5 : उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि और संबद्ध गतिविधियों में सार्वजनिक निवेश (2001-02 से 2019-20 तक)



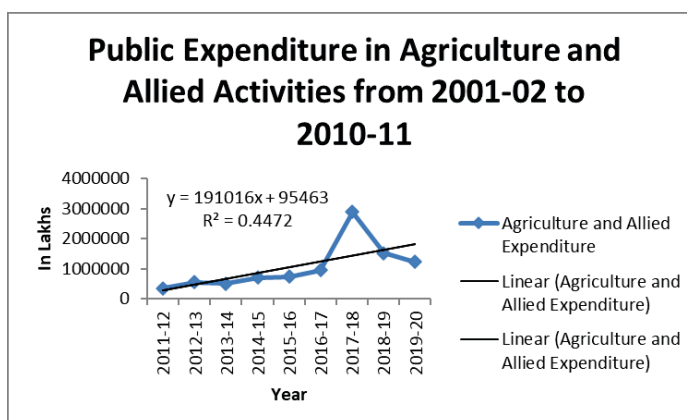
समग्र अवधि के लिए समय का गुणांक सकारात्मक है, इसका मतलब है कि इस अवधि (2001-02 से 2019-20) में वृद्धि की प्रवृत्ति पाई गई है। सार्वजनिक निवेश की 84575 लाख प्रति वर्ष किया जा रहा है। जिसका सांख्यिकीय परीक्षण किया गया है, का मूल्य आर वर्ग का मूल्य 0.52 है जो दर्शाता है कि समय सबसे महत्वपूर्ण कारक है और सार्वजनिक निवेश पर इसका प्रभाव 52% है।

चित्र-6 : उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि एवं संबद्ध गतिविधियों में सार्वजनिक निवेश (2001-02 से 2010-11 तक)



पहले चरण में समय का सकारात्मक गुणांक है, यह कृषि में सार्वजनिक निवेश के इस चरण (2001-02 से 2010-11) में बढ़ती प्रवृत्ति को दर्शाता है। सार्वजनिक निवेश में प्रति वर्ष औसतन 39103 लाख का परिवर्तन हुआ है। यह सांख्यिकीय रूप से परीक्षण किया गया है और सार्वजनिक निवेश पर समय अवधि का प्रभाव 39% है।

चित्र- 7 : उत्तर प्रदेश में कृषि एवं संबद्ध गतिविधियों में सार्वजनिक निवेश (2011-12 से 2019-20 तक)



दूसरे चरण (2011–12 से 2019–20) में भी समय का गुणांक सकारात्मक है, जो सार्वजनिक निवेश में बढ़ती प्रवृत्ति को दर्शाता है। ट्रेंड लाइन से पता चलता है कि, प्रति वर्ष औसतन 191016 लाख सार्वजनिक निवेश में वृद्धि हुई है जो कि सांख्यिकीय रूप से परीक्षण किया गया है और समय कारक का सार्वजनिक निवेश पर 44% प्रभाव पड़ता है।

निष्कर्ष

पूर्वी क्षेत्र की मिट्टी उत्तर प्रदेश के पश्चिमी क्षेत्र की मिट्टी से बेहतर है। इसलिए राज्य सरकार पूर्वी क्षेत्र की तुलना में पश्चिमी क्षेत्र में सिंचाई और बाढ़ नियंत्रण मद में अधिक खर्च करता है। इससे कृषि के क्षेत्र में पश्चिमी क्षेत्र का प्रदर्शन पूर्वी क्षेत्र से बेहतर हो गया है। अतः यह निष्कर्ष निकाला जा सकता है कि उत्तर प्रदेश में सार्वजनिक निवेश से कृषि उत्पादकता में सुधार हुआ है।

यूपी में कृषि क्षेत्र में उच्च विकास दर हासिल करने के पर्याप्त अवसर हैं। लेकिन इसका कृषि पिछड़ापन इसके विकास में बाधा बन रहा है और इसे लाभ प्राप्त करने से रोक रहा है। कृषि क्षेत्र को केंद्रित कार्यों की आवश्यकता है और अधिक संतुलित क्षेत्रीय विकास प्राप्त करने के लिए नीतिगत खामियों से निपटने के लिए अन्य राज्यों की सर्वोत्तम प्रथाओं को नियोजित किया जाना चाहिए। सौर परियोजनाएँ सिंचाई के लिए ऊर्जा समस्या का दीर्घकालिक समाधान प्रदान कर सकती हैं। “सबका साथ, सबका विकास” हासिल करने के लिए, सरकार को उपरोक्त उपाय लागू करने चाहिए।

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3. आर्थिक सर्वेक्षण (विभिन्न वर्षों के)
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विदेशी विनिमय दर एवं आर्थिक विकास : समस्या एवं समाधान

निखिल रावत एवं डॉ. निहारिका श्रीवास्तव

सारांश

विदेशी विनिमय दर अथवा विनिमय दर वह दर होती है जिस पर एक करेंसी का दूसरी करेंसी से विनिमय किया जाता है। यह दर एक करेंसी में दूसरी करेंसी की कीमत होती है। इसे व्यक्त करने का प्रचलित तरीका घरेलू करेंसी के रूप में विदेशी करेंसी की एक इकाई की कीमत है। रुपये की हर रोज बदलती बाजार आधारित विनिमय दर आधिकारिक विनिमय दर को प्रभावित करती है। लेकिन रिजर्व बैंक रुपये या विदेशी मुद्रा की मांग और आपूर्ति के माध्यम से विदेशी मुद्रा बाजार में हस्तक्षेप कर सकता है। कोई भी अर्थव्यवस्था आज तक फ्री फ्लोटिंग विनिमय दर का पालन नहीं कर सकी है। उन्हें विदेशी मुद्रा बाजार में हस्तक्षेप करने के लिए किसी प्रक्रिया की आवश्यकता होती है, क्योंकि इसमें अटकलबाजी (speculation) का स्तर उच्च होता है। प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र का उद्देश्य (1) विनिमय दर का विश्लेषण करना। (2) समस्याओं पर प्रभाव डालना। (3) समाधान प्रस्तुत करना। जिसके लिए एक परिकल्पना का निर्माण किया गया है। प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र की शोध प्रविधि अन्वेषणात्मक अनुसंधान पर आधारित है और द्वैतियक आँकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है। किसी अर्थव्यवस्था की कुल विदेशी विनिमय क्षमता को ही विदेशी विनिमय भंडार कहा जाता है। फॉरेक्स रिजर्व किसी अर्थव्यवस्था की विदेशी विनिमय परिसम्पत्ति है जिसमें सोना, एसडीआर तथा आईएमएफ में रिजर्व ट्रैच पोजीशन शामिल किए जाते हैं। एक अर्थ में यह वह उच्चतम सीमा है जहां तक कोई अर्थव्यवस्था सामान्य समय में विदेशी मुद्रा का प्रबंध कर सकती है।

शब्दावली— विदेशी विनिमय दर, आर्थिक विकास, फॉरेक्स रिजर्व

प्रस्तावना

विदेशी विनिमय दर अथवा विनिमय दर वह दर होती है जिस पर एक करेंसी का दूसरी करेंसी से विनिमय किया जाता है। यह दर एक करेंसी में दूसरी करेंसी की कीमत होती है। इसे व्यक्त करने का प्रचलित तरीका घरेलू करेंसी के रूप में विदेशी करेंसी की एक इकाई की कीमत है। रुपये की हर रोज बदलती बाजार आधारित विनिमय दर आधिकारिक विनिमय दर को प्रभावित करती है। लेकिन रिजर्व बैंक रुपये या विदेशी मुद्रा की मांग और आपूर्ति के माध्यम से विदेशी मुद्रा बाजार में हस्तक्षेप कर सकता है। कोई भी अर्थव्यवस्था आज तक फ्री फ्लोटिंग विनिमय दर का पालन नहीं कर सकी है। उन्हें विदेशी मुद्रा बाजार में हस्तक्षेप करने के लिए किसी प्रक्रिया की आवश्यकता होती

है, क्योंकि इसमें अटकलबाजी (speculation) का स्तर उच्च होता है।

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र का उद्देश्य

- (1) विनिमय दर का विश्लेषण करना।
- (2) समस्याओं पर प्रभाव डालना।
- (3) समाधान प्रस्तुत करना।

परिकल्पना

H0: भारत में विनिमय दर पिछले दस वर्षों से स्थिर है।

H1: भारत में विनिमय दर पिछले दस वर्षों से परिवर्तनशील है।

शोध प्रविधि

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र की शोध प्रविधि अन्वेषणात्मक अनुसंधान पर आधारित है और द्वैतियक आँकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है।

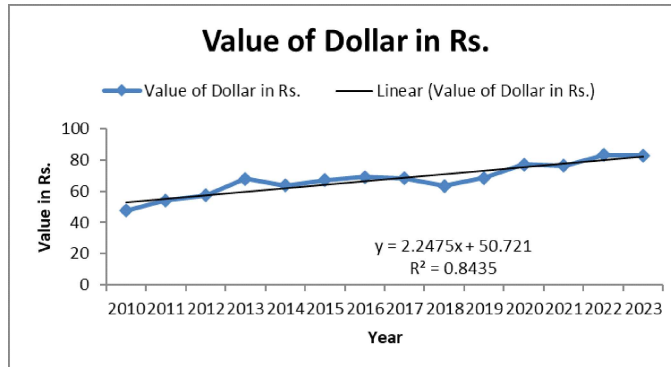
भारत में पिछले दस वर्षों में विनिमय दर (डॉलर के रूप में) विश्लेषण –

डॉलर को दुनिया का सबसे ताकतवर करेंसी भी माना जाता है। हर देश दूसरे देशों के साथ व्यापार डॉलर में ही करते हैं। निवेशक डॉलर में किसी देश में निवेश करते हैं। डॉलर को बेंचमार्क करेंसी माना जाता है और डॉलर दुनिया की दूसरी करेंसी का वैल्यू भी तय करती है। ठीक इसी प्रकार रुपये की तुलना भी डॉलर के वैल्यू के साथ की जाती है। 1947 में एक डॉलर का वैल्यू 4.16 रुपये थी। 1947 में आजादी मिलने के बाद भारतीय करेंसी को डॉलर के साथ मापने की शुरुआत हुई जो पहले ब्रिटिश राज होने के चलते पाउंड में किया जाता था। 1947 में एक डॉलर का वैल्यू रुपये के मुकाबले 4.16 रुपये हुआ करता था। 1950 से लेकर 1966 तक एक डॉलर का वैल्यू 4.76 रुपये बना रहा। लेकिन इसके बाद भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था में गिरावट, विदेशों से लिए गए कर्ज, 1962 में भारत-चीन युद्ध, 1965 में

भारत-पाकिस्तान युद्ध और 1966 में आए भीषण सूखे के कारण 1967 में एक डॉलर का वैल्यू 7.50 रुपये के बराबर हो गया। कच्चे तेल की सप्लाई के संकट के चलते 1974 में एक डॉलर का वैल्यू घटकर 8.10 रुपये पर आ गया। इसके बाद देश में राजनीतिक संकट, भारी भरकम विदेशी कर्ज लेने के चलते करेंसी में बड़ी गिरावट देखने को मिली जिसके बाद अगले एक दशक में लगातार डॉलर के मुकाबले रुपये गिरता रहा जो 1990 में 17.50 रुपये के लेवल पर आ गया।

डॉलर का भारतीय रुपया के संदर्भ में 14 वर्षों का इतिहास-

Year	Value of Dollar in Rs.
2010	47.5378
2011	54.2244
2012	57.2189
2013	67.9576
2014	63.7215
2015	67.1282
2016	69.0854
2017	68.322
2018	63.2965
2019	68.374
2020	76.97
2021	76.3125
2022	83.0019
2023	82.9334



भारत में विनिमय दर के परिवर्तन से होने वाली समस्याएं -

1. अर्थव्यवस्था झटकों का जवाब देने में असमर्थ हो सकती है —
एक निश्चित विनिमय दर का मतलब है कि सरकार के लिए भुगतान संतुलन संकट का तेजी से जवाब देने के लिए कोई तंत्र नहीं हो सकता है।
2. भंडार के साथ समस्याएं — निश्चित विनिमय दर प्रणाली के लिए बड़े विदेशी मुद्रा भंडार

की आवश्यकता होती है और इसके परिणामस्वरूप अंतरराष्ट्रीय तरलता की समस्या हो सकती है।

3. अटकलें – यदि विदेशी मुद्रा बाजार मानते हैं कि पुनर्मूल्यांकन या अवमूल्यन हो सकता है, तो अटकलों का दौर हो सकता है। इससे लड़ने से सरकार को अपने विदेशी मुद्रा भंडार के मामले में काफी महंगा पड़ सकता है।
4. अपस्फीति – यदि भुगतान घाटे के संतुलन वाले देश घाटे को ठीक करने की कोशिश करने के लिए अपनी अर्थव्यवस्थाओं को कम करते हैं, तो यह अन्य देशों के अधिशेषों को कम करेगा और साथ ही साथ अपने अधिशेषों को बहाल करने के लिए अपनी अर्थव्यवस्थाओं को अपस्फीति करेगा। यह प्रणाली को अपस्फीतिकारी पूर्वाग्रह दे सकता है।
5. नीति संघर्ष – निश्चित विनिमय दर विकास, मुद्रास्फीति और बेरोजगारी के लिए अन्य आर्थिक लक्ष्यों के अनुकूल नहीं हो सकती है और इससे नीतियों का टकराव हो सकता है।

यह विशेष रूप से सच है अगर विनिमय दर एक ऐसे स्तर पर तय की जाती है जो या तो बहुत अधिक है या बहुत कम है।

भारत में विनिमय दर से होने वाली

समस्याओं का समाधान –

1. विनिमय नियंत्रण – विनिमय नियंत्रण के अन्तर्गत विदेशी विनिमय के स्वतंत्र लेनदेन को प्रतिबंधित कर दिया जाता है। इसस्थिति में विदेशी विनिमय बाजार में आर्थिक शक्तियों के मुक्त व्यवहार की बजाय राज्य अथवा सरकार द्वारा विदेशी विनिमय को नियंत्रित किया जाता है। इस प्रकार जब विदेशी विनिमय बाजार में विनिमय नियंत्रण पूर्णरूपेण होता है तब विदेशी विनिमय बाजार पूर्णतया सरकारी निर्णयों द्वारा संचालित होता है। यह विदेशी विनिमय के मुक्त लेनदेनों को पूर्णरूप से प्रतिबंधित कर देता है। ऐसी स्थिति में सरकार अथवा देश के केन्द्रीय बैंक का विदेशी विनिमय बाजार पर सम्पूर्ण नियंत्रण होता है। देश के निर्यातों तथा अन्य समस्त स्रोतों से अर्जित विदेशी प्राप्तियाँ केन्द्रीय बैंक के अधीन होती हैं और वह देश की आवश्यकताओं एवं प्राथमिकताओं के आधार पर आयातकों को विदेशी विनिमय का आवंटन करता है। इस प्रकार केन्द्रीय बैंक विदेशी विनिमय की माँग एवं पूर्ति प्रवाहों में सन्तुलन स्थापित कर भुगतान संतुलन तथा अधिकारिक विनिमय दर को संतुलित बनाए रखने का प्रयास करता है।

विनिमय नियंत्रण की विशेषताएँ विनिमय नियंत्रण की मुख्य विशेषताएँ इस प्रकार हैं-

1. सशक्त विदेशी विनिमय व्यवहारों का विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा केन्द्रीयकरण हो जाता है और उनका संचालन सरकार अथवा केन्द्रीय बैंक द्वारा किया जाता है।

2. केन्द्रीय बैंक सरकारी विनिमय दर निश्चित करता है और इसे स्थिर रखने हेतु विदेशी करेंसियों की माँग-पूर्ति का नियमन करता है।
3. निर्यातकों द्वारा अर्जित समस्त विदेशी मुद्रा केन्द्रीय बैंक के पास जाती है और वह स्वदेशी मुद्रा में निर्यातकों को भुगतान करता है। इसी प्रकार आयातकों को विदेशी भुगतान करने हेतु विदेशी मुद्रा बेच दी जाती है।
4. लाइसेंस प्राप्त व्यापारी और विशिष्ट बैंक ही विदेशी विनिमय का लेनदेन कर सकते हैं।
5. विनिमय नियंत्रण के द्वारा व्यापार संतुलन को अनुकूल बनाया जा सकता है क्योंकि आयातों को सीमित किया जा सकता है।

विनिमय नियंत्रण के उद्देश्य देश की सरकारों अथवा केन्द्रीय बैंक द्वारा समय-समय पर विनिमय नियंत्रण को अपनाया गया है जिसके

1. विनिमय दरों का स्थिरीकरण: मुक्त विनिमय दर प्रणाली के अन्तर्गत विनिमय दरों में निरन्तर परिवर्तन उद्देश्य इस प्रकार हैं। होते रहते हैं जिससे उद्योग तथा वाणिज्य को हानि पहुँचती है।
इसलिए सरकार निश्चित विनिमय दर घोषित कर विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा उसे स्थिर बनाए रखती है।
2. विदेशी विनिमय का संरक्षण विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा मीडिक प्राधिकारी आवश्यक अथवा विलासिता सम्बन्धी वस्तुओं के आयातों को प्रतिबंधित कर आवश्यक वस्तुओं के आयातों हेतु विदेशी विनिमय की आपूर्ति कर सकते हैं।
3. पूँजी बहिर्गमन पर रोक: राजनीतिक एवं आर्थिक कारणों से यदि विदेशों में पूँजी का विनियोग होने लगे तो देश के स्वर्ण एवं विदेशी कोष समाप्त हो सकते हैं। अतः विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा पूँजी के बहिर्गमन को रोक जा सकता है।
4. विदेशी ऋण का पुनर्भुगतानरु देश, विदेशी ऋण के मूल और ब्याज का भुगतान करने के लिए, विनिमय नियंत्रण को अपनाकर विदेशी विनिमय अर्जित कर सकता है।
5. प्रतिकूल भुगतान संतुलन को सुधारना: देश अपने भुगतान संतुलन के घाटे को पूरा करने हेतु विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा आयातों को सीमित कर सकता है।
6. प्रभावी आर्थिक आयोजनरु देश में आर्थिक आयोजन की सफलता हेतु विदेशी व्यापार का आयोजित कार्यक्रमों के साथ समन्वय आवश्यक है जिससे घरेलू उद्योगों हेतु आवश्यक पूँजी उपलब्ध हो सके। इस उद्देश्य हेतु विनिमय नियंत्रण अतिआवश्यक है।
7. घरेलू उद्योगों का संरक्षण: विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा घरेलू उत्पादकों तथा उद्योगों को आयात सीमित कर विदेशी व्यापारियों की प्रतियोगिता से संरक्षण प्रदान किया जा सकता है।

विशेषतया शिशु उद्योगों और आत्मनिर्भरता प्राप्त करने हेतु ऐसा किया जाना आवश्यक है।

8. मुद्रा का अधिमूल्यन देश विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा मुद्रा की कीमत अन्य देशों की तुलना में अधिक घोषित कर आवश्यक कच्चा माल, उपभोग वस्तुओं तथा सैन्य सामग्री आदि सस्ती कीमत पर आयात कर सकता है। किन्तु यह एक अल्पकालीन उपाय है क्योंकि इससे निर्यात महँगे तथा आयात सस्ते होने के कारण भुगतान संतुलन पर प्रतिकूल प्रभाव पड़ सकता है।
9. मंदी के विस्तार पर रोक: अंतर्राष्ट्रीय आर्थिक सम्बन्धों के कारण विकसित देश आयातों एवं निर्यातों के द्वारा मंदी का विस्तार अन्य देशों में भी कर सकते हैं जिन्हें विनिमय नियंत्रण द्वारा उसी देश तक सीमित रखा जा सकता है।
10. राजस्व की प्राप्ति: विनिमय नियंत्रण के अन्तर्गत सरकार द्वारा अधिकृत केन्द्रीय बैंक अन्य देशों से क्रय की गई विदेशी करेंसी को ऊँची कीमत पर देश के व्यापारियों व नागरिकों को बेचकर राजस्व प्राप्त कर सकता है।

विनिमय नियंत्रण के तरीके

प्रत्यक्ष विनिमय नियंत्रण

प्रत्यक्ष विनिमय नियंत्रण विदेशी विनिमय को उनकी मात्रा, प्रयोग एवं आवंटन की दृष्टि से प्रत्यक्ष रूप में प्रभावित करते हैं और इनका क्रियान्वयन केन्द्रीय बैंक के द्वारा किया जाता है।

ये निम्नवत् हैं—

1. सरकारी हस्तक्षेप: सरकारी हस्तक्षेप के अन्तर्गत केन्द्रीय बैंक विनिमय दर को ऊँचा अथवा नीचा रखने हेतु विदेशी विनिमय बाजार में हस्तक्षेप करता है। इसे कीलित विनिमय दरें कहा जाता है। यदि केन्द्रीय बैंक घरेलू करेंसी की विनिमय दर को विदेशी विनिमय बाजार में प्रचलित विनिमय दर से नीची निर्धारित करता है तो इसे नीचे कीलनाश कहते हैं। ऐसी स्थिति में केन्द्रीय बैंक विदेशी करेंसियों के बदले स्थानीय करेंसी को निर्धारित दरों पर बेचता है क्योंकि नीची विनिमय दर पर स्थानीय करेंसी की माँग उनकी पूर्ति से अधिक होती है। इसलिए स्थानीय करेंसी की उपलब्धता अधिक मात्रा में आवश्यक होती है। इसके विपरीत, यदि केन्द्रीय बैंक वर्तमान विनिमय दर की अपेक्षा घरेलू करेंसी की ऊँची विनिमय दर निर्धारित करता है तो इसे शऊपर कीलनाश कहते हैं। ऐसी स्थिति में घरेलू करेंसी की माँग उसकी पूर्ति से कम होती है और निर्धारित विनिमय दर पर केन्द्रीय बैंक को विदेशी करेंसियों के बदले घरेलू करेंसी को क्रय करना होता है। फलस्वरूप विदेशी करेंसियों की अधिक आवश्यकता होती है। उपर्युक्त दोनों स्थितियों में केन्द्रीय बैंक को घरेलू करेंसी अथवा विदेशी करेंसी के विशाल संसाधनों की आवश्यकता होती है। इसलिए ऊँचा की तुलना में नीचा कीलना केन्द्रीय बैंक हेतु अधिकव्यावहारिक होता है। केन्द्रीय बैंक द्वारा

इस प्रकार हस्तक्षेप मुक्त विनिमय दर प्रणाली के अन्तर्गत विनिमय दरों में होने वाले उच्चावचनों को रोकने हेतु अल्पकालीन उपाय के रूप में अपनाया जा सकता है।

2. विनिमय प्रतिबंध विनिमय प्रतिबंध के अन्तर्गत सरकारी विनिमय नियंत्रण प्राधिकरण अर्थात् केन्द्रीय बैंक विदेशी विनिमय बाजार में घरेलू करेंसी की पूर्ति को अनिवार्य रूप से कम अथवा प्रतिबंधित कर देता है। ऐसा करने हेतु सरकार सभी प्रकार के विदेशी विनिमय व्यापार को स्वयं अर्थात् केन्द्रीय बैंक तक सीमित कर सकता है। विदेशी करेंसी के बदले में घरेलू करेंसी के विनिमय को प्रतिबंधित कर सकता है। इसके अतिरिक्त, सरकार विदेशी विनिमय लेनदेन हेतु सरकारी अभिकरण को अधिकृत कर सकता है। विनिमय प्रतिबंध के अनेक रूप होते हैं जिनमें अधिकांशतः निम्नलिखित प्रयोग किए जाते हैं:

- (i) बहु-विनिमय दरें इसके अन्तर्गत केन्द्रीय बैंक आयातों एवं निर्यातों के विभिन्न वर्गों एवं श्रेणियों हेतु अलग-अलग विनिमय दरें निर्धारित करता है जिसका उद्देश्य आयातों में कमी करना और निर्यातों के वृद्धि करना है जिससे भुगतान संतुलन को ठीक किया जा सके। उदाहरण के लिए आवश्यक वस्तुओं के आयात हेतु केन्द्रीय बैंक अपेक्षाकृत नीची विनिमय दर तथा विलासिता वाली वस्तुओं हेतु ऊँची दर निर्धारित कर सकता है। इसी प्रकार केन्द्रीय बैंक ऊँची विनिमय दर रखकर निर्यातकों को सहायिकी दे सकता है। प्रायः अदृश्य मदों और पूँजी हस्तान्तरणों की विनिमय दर अपेक्षाकृत ऊँची निर्धारित की जाती है। इसके अतिरिक्त विनिमय दरें वस्तुओं की माँग की लोच के आधार पर भी निर्धारित की जाती हैं।

बहु-विनिमय दर प्रणाली का प्रभाव आयात पर लगने वाले प्रशुल्क और निर्यात पर दी जाने वाली सहायिकी के समान होता है। साथ ही यह भुगतान संतुलन को ठीक करने का एक प्रभावी उपाय है। इसकी सबसे बड़ी कमी यह है कि यह भुगतान संतुलन को ठीक करने की बजाय अंतर्राष्ट्रीय व्यापार को सीमित कर विश्व स्तर पर उत्पादन व कल्याण को प्रतिकूल रूप से प्रभावित करता है।

- (iii) अवरुद्ध खाते देश में वित्तीय संकट की स्थिति में ऋणी देश अपने ऋणदाता देशों के खातों को अवरुद्ध कर सकता है। इसके अन्तर्गत आयातों का भुगतान विदेशी निर्यात कर्ताओं के अवरुद्ध खातों में जमा कर दिए जाते हैं और उन खातों से उन्हें मुद्रा निकालने की मनाही कर दी जाती है। किन्तु नियन्त्रणकर्ता देश इन अवरुद्ध खातों को अपने काम में ले सकता है।

रुपए की परिवर्तनीयता कृस्वर्णमान के अन्तर्गत स्वर्ण मुद्रा का कुछ शर्तों के अन्तर्गत मुक्त रूप से स्वर्ण में तथा स्वर्ण का स्थानीय मुद्रा में परिवर्तन किया जा सकता था। इस प्रकार की व्यवस्था के अन्तर्गत प्रचलित मुद्रा के संपरिवर्तन को ही मुद्रा की परिवर्तनीयता कहा जाता है। स्वर्णमान के

समाप्त हो जाने के बाद वर्तमान में प्रचलित अपरिवर्तनीय पत्र मुद्रामान के अन्तर्गत मुद्रा की परिवर्तनीयता से अभिप्राय ऐसी व्यवस्था से है जिसके अन्तर्गत देश की मुद्रा मुक्त रूप से प्रमुख विदेशी मुद्राओं में तथा प्रमुख विदेशी मुद्रायें स्थानीय मुद्रा में मुक्त रूप से परिवर्तनशील हों।

वर्ष 1992-93 के बजट में उदारीकृत विनिमय दर प्रबन्ध प्रणाली को प्रस्तावित किया गया जिसके अन्तर्गत मार्च 1992 से दोहरी विनिमय दर प्रणाली लागू की गई। इसके अन्तर्गत निर्यातक अपनी विदेशी मुद्रा प्राप्तियों का 60 प्रतिशत खुले बाजार में निर्धारित विनिमय दर पर अधिकृत विदेशी मुद्रा डीलरों को बेच सकते थे और शेष 40 प्रतिशत का विक्रय भारतीय रिजर्व बैंक द्वारा निर्धारित विनिमय दरों पर करना अनिवार्य था। साथ ही साथ केवल अत्यावश्यक आयातों के लिए ही विदेशी मुद्रा सरकार अधिकृत विनिमय दर पर उपलब्ध कराती थी जबकि अन्य आयातों के लिए खुले बाजार से ही आयातकों को विदेशी मुद्रा का प्रबन्ध करना होता था। 1993-94 में रुपये को व्यापार खाते में परिवर्तनीय बना दिया गया और खुले बाजार में एकीकृत विनिमय दर प्रणाली को देश में लागू कर दिया गया। 1994-95 के बजट में चालू खातों में रुपये की पूर्ण परिवर्तनीयता की घोषणा कर दी गई और अगस्त 1994 को भारतीय रिजर्व बैंक ने रुपये को चालू खाते में पूर्ण परिवर्तनीय घोषित कर दिया।

पूँजी खाते में रुपये को पूर्ण परिवर्तनीय बनाने हेतु रिजर्व बैंक के पूर्व डिप्टी गवर्नर एस. एस. तारापोर की अध्यक्षता में 1997 में एक विशेषज्ञ समिति गठित की गई जिसने तीन चरणों में रुपये को पूँजी खाते में पूर्ण परिवर्तनीय बनाने की सिफारिश की थी। इसके बाद पी. एस. मिस्त्री के नेतृत्व में गठित 15 सदस्यीय विशेषज्ञ दल ने भी 2008 तक रुपये को पूँजी खाते में पूर्ण परिवर्तनीय बनाने की सिफारिश की। किन्तु अपरिहार्य आर्थिक कारणों से अभी तक भी रुपये को पूँजी खाते में पूर्ण परिवर्तनीय नहीं बनाया गया है।

भारत में विनिमय नियंत्रण

भारत में द्वितीय विश्वयुद्ध के समय से ही विनिमय नियंत्रण को अपनाया गया। सितम्बर 1939 में भारतीय रिजर्व बैंक ने सूचना जारी करते हुए कहा कि विदेशी मुद्राओं का क्रय-विक्रय

केवल विनिमय नियंत्रण विभाग की अनुमति के आधार पर ही किया जा सकता है। तत्पश्चात् सम्पूर्ण ब्रिटिश साम्राज्य को एक स्टर्लिंग क्षेत्र में संगठित किया गया। बाद में पूँजी के सटोरिए प्रवाह को रोकने हेतु स्टर्लिंग क्षेत्र की मुद्राओं का क्रय-विक्रय केवल अधिकार प्राप्त बैंकों द्वारा करने की अनुमति दी गई।

द्वितीय विश्वयुद्ध के पश्चात् अयातों की निरन्तर माँग तथा निर्यातों में कमी के भय के कारण सरकार ने विनिमय नियंत्रण कानून मार्च 1947 के अन्तर्गत विदेशी विनिमय के वितरण का पूर्ण तथा स्थायी अधिकार भारतीय रिजर्व बैंक को दे दिया गया किन्तु स्टर्लिंग क्षेत्र के लोगों को प्रतिमाह 1500 पौण्ड पारिवारिक व्यय हेतु भेजने की छूट दी गई। जुलाई 1947 में विनिमय नियंत्रण क्षेत्र को व्यापक बनाते हुए स्टर्लिंग क्षेत्र की मुद्राओं को भी इसमें शामिल कर लिया गया। अब कोई भी व्यक्ति अथवा संस्था भारतीय रिजर्व बैंक की अनुमति के बिना विदेशी विनिमय नहीं खरीद सकता था।

किसी अर्थव्यवस्था की कुल विदेशी विनिम; क्षमता को ही विदेशी विनिम; भंडार कहा जाता है। फॉरेक्स रिजर्व किसी अर्थव्यवस्था की विदेशी विनिम; परिसम्पत्ति है जिसमें सोना, सडीआर तथा आई,म,फ में रिजर्व ट्रैच पोजीशन शामिल कि, जाते हैं। एक अर्थ में यह वह उच्चतम सीमा है जहां तक कोई अर्थव्यवस्था सामान सम; में विदेशी मुद्रा का प्रबंध कर सकती है।

संदर्भ सूची

- 1— लाल, ,स0,न0 (2019), "भारती; अर्थव्यवस्था", इलाहाबाद—शिवम पब्लिशर्स।

उत्तर प्रदेश में कोविड महामारी का शिक्षा प्रणाली पर असर (महामारी के पहले एवं बाद का विश्लेषण)

हिमांशु यादव

संक्षेप-

कोविड-19 महामारी के पश्चात् के वर्षों में आर्थिक मंदी तथा कम वर्षद्धि दर का दौर देखा गया। जिसका असर व्यापक रूप से शिक्षा प्रणाली पर भी पड़ा। महामारी के पश्चात् देखा गया कि किस प्रकार शिक्षा प्रभावित हुई। इस शोध पत्र में हमे इस बात की समीक्षा करेंगे कि महामारी के पश्चात् उत्तर प्रदेश राज्य में शिक्षा प्रणाली पर क्या असर पड़ा तथा उनकी समस्याओं जैसे समय से पहले स्कूली शिक्षा का त्याग, स्कूलों में नामांकन की कम दर, पुस्तकों का आभाव आदि समस्याओं में वर्षद्धि हुई। साथ ही साथ सम्पूर्ण शिक्षा प्रणाली किस प्रकार कार्यरत रही। इन समस्याओं पर चर्चा तथा उनके निवारण के तरीकों पर व्यापक प्रकाश डाला गया है।

परिचय-

कोविड-19 महामारी के पश्चात् ज्यादातर बच्चों की शिक्षा प्रभावित हुई या रूक गई। यूनेस्को के एक आकड़े के अनुसार 290 मिलियन स्कूली बच्चों की शिक्षा प्रभावित हुई। महामारी के वजह से सभी स्कूली संस्थान बन्द हो गये, जिसकी वजह से छात्रों के सामने विभिन्न प्रकार समस्यायें सामने आईं।

इनमें सबसे बड़ी समस्या बच्चों के स्कूल में प्रवेश को लेकर आई। क्योंकि सभी लाकडाउन के वजह से घरों में बन्द थे, गरीब बच्चे फीस भर पाने में सक्षम नहीं थे। सभी क्रियाकलाप बन्द होने की वजह से एक वैकल्पिक व्यवस्था आन लाइन शिक्षा प्रणाली की शुरुआत व्यापक स्तर से होती है।

परन्तु आनलाइन शिक्षा प्रणाली की अपनी कुछ अलग समस्यायें जिनमें तकनीकी ज्ञान, अच्छे नेटवर्क की उपलब्धता, सबके पास स्मार्ट फोन की

उपलब्धता आदि है। जहां आनलाइन प्रणाली ने बच्चों तथा शिक्षकों को तकनीक से जुड़ने का मौका दिया वहीं दूसरी तरफ ग्रामीण इलाकों में खराब नेटवर्क प्रणाली की वजह से बच्चों की शिक्षा प्रभावित हुई। जिन घरों में दो या दो से अधिक बच्चें स्कूल में थे उनके घर सबसे बड़ी समस्या सबके लिये स्मार्ट फोन की थी क्योंकि स्कूली कक्षायें विभिन्न ई-शिक्षा माध्यमों जैसे गूगल मीट, स्काईप,

यूट्यूब लाइव, जूम ऐप, आदि माध्यमों से संचालित की जाने लगी, बच्चों इन्ही माध्यमों से अपने विचार सम्बन्धित जानकारी नोट्स आदि अदान प्रदान करने लगे छात्रों को ईमेल के माध्यम से नये अवसर प्राप्त होने लगे जिनमें नयी नौकरियों के अवसर आदि ईमेल के माध्यम से छात्रों को प्राप्त हुए।

बच्चों की शिक्षा पर महामारी का असर-

महामारी के दौरान सभी स्कूल पूर्ण रूप से बन्द कर दिये गये थे। जब महामारी के पश्चात् स्कूल पुनः खुले तो विभिन्न प्रकार की समस्यायें सामने आई जैसे पुराने अनुपात में नामांकन न होना, बच्चों के पास किताबों का आभाव, स्कूली ड्रेस का आभाव, स्कूल की फीस का आभाव, पुराने जो ज्ञान उनके पास था उसके भूल चुके होना आदि समस्याये सामने आई।

स्कूल जब पुनः खुले तो बच्चों उस अनुपात में नहीं लौटे जिस अनुपात में वे महामारी के पहले थे। लगभग 50 प्रतिशत ग्रामीण बच्चों स्कूल नहीं आये, जिसमें विभिन्न कारण बतायें। इन कारणों में उन्होंने बताया कि उनको पढ़ाई जारी रखने में समस्या आ रही है, उनके माँ बाप दोबारा स्कूल भेजने को राजी नहीं हैं, वे दैनिक मजदूरी के कार्य में लग चुके हैं कुछ न बताया कि उनके माँ बाप पलायन कर चुके हैं या उनकी रुचि नहीं है।

एक रिपोर्ट के मुताबिक 61.7 प्रतिशत माँ बाप ऐसे थे जिन्होंने अपने बच्चों को दोबारा स्कूल भेजने का प्रयास भी नहीं किया, साथ ही साथ 83.5 प्रतिशत बच्चों ऐसे थे जिन्हे पढ़ने का मौका ही नहीं मिला। इस तरह इन बच्चों का भविष्य में अंकार में नजर आने लगा। इसमें सबसे बड़ी समस्या उनको दोबारा शिक्षा प्रणाली में शामिल करने की आई।

राष्ट्रीय आकड़ा सर्वेक्षण रिपोर्ट 2017-18 के अनुसार 5-24 वर्ष की आयु के युवाओं में केवल 8 प्रतिशत के पास ही इण्टरनेट व कम्प्यूटर संयंत्र (डेस्क टॉप, लैप टॉप, टैबलेट) उपलब्ध थे, 24 प्रतिशत घर ऐसे थे जो इण्टरनेट सुविधा को वहन नहीं कर सकते थे। इस तरह हम देखते हैं कि बच्चों के पास जो आनलाइन शिक्षा की मूल भूत आवश्यकतायें हैं उनकी व्यापक रूप से कमी थी जिससे उनकी शिक्षा लगभग रुक सी गई।

कोविड के दौरान आनलाइन शिक्षा प्रणाली-

कोविड के दौरान सबसे बड़ी चुनौती यह थी कि बच्चों के बिना स्कूल गये उनके घर पर शिक्षा कैसे प्रदान की जाये। इस समस्या का हल आनलाइन प्रणाली के रूप में सामने आया। आनलाइन की विभिन्न चुनौतियों के बावजूद आनलाइन शिक्षा प्रणाली बच्चों तक शिक्षा को पहुंचाने में मददगार रही। उत्तर प्रदेश में सभी सरकारी स्कूलों ने DIKSHA माध्यम (भारत सरकार का आनलाइन शिक्षा प्रणाली को बढ़ावा देने का माध्यम) को अपनाया।

DIKSHA के साथ उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार द्वारा एक और माध्यम PRERNA की शुरुआत की गई। जो कि कक्षा एक से आठ तक के बच्चों को लक्षित थी। PRERNA ने प्रदेश में पहले से चल

रहे विभिन्न आनलाइन संस्थाओं के साथ मिल कर आनलाइन शिक्षा को और सुविधाजनक बनाने का प्रयत्न किया।

इस प्रकार आनलाइन सुविधा और सुगम मन गई क्योंकि सरकार ने जिस संस्थाओं के साथ गठबन्धन किया था उन संस्थाओं में पहले से ही आनलाइन शिक्षा प्रणाली सुचारु एवं व्यवस्थित रूप से कार्यरत थी। तथा उनके शिक्षक अच्छी तरह से प्रशिक्षित थे।

आनलाइन शिक्षा को और सुगम बनाने के लिये शिक्षकों की आनलाइन ट्रेनिंग, शिक्षकों तथा अभिभावकों के मध्य परस्पर चर्चाएँ, आदि क्रियाकलाप शामिल रहे। उत्तर प्रदेश के राज्य शिक्षा विभाग में अपने स्तर पर भी व्यापक कार्य किया। बेसिक शिक्षा अधिकारियों के आनलाइन समूहों, खण्ड शिक्षा अधिकारियों के समूहों तथा प्रधानाध्यापकों के समूहों के साथ साथ 9 हजार से अधिक शिक्षक समूहों के माध्यम से सभी शिक्षकों तथा छात्रों तक अध्ययन एवं अध्यापन सामग्री सुचारु रूप से पहुंचायी गई जिससे छात्रों की शिक्षा कम प्रभावित हुई। जहां इण्टरनेट सेवा का लाभ कम मिलता था या कनेक्टिविटी नहीं थी वहां तक शिक्षा सामग्री को पहुंचाने के लिये दूरदर्शन तथा रेडियों माध्यमों का प्रयोग किया गया।

भारत में डिजिटल शिक्षा रिपोर्ट (2020) के अनुसार अप्रैल-जून 2020 के मध्य 1.5 घण्टे का प्रोग्राम दूरदर्शन पर चलता था जो स्वशिक्षा को समर्पित था। जून 2020 के पश्चात् उत्तर प्रदेश के शिक्षा विभाग में 4-5 घण्टे का शैक्षिक कार्यक्रम दूरदर्शन पर प्रसारित किया। साथ ही साथ लगभग 1 घण्टे का रेडियो

पर प्रोग्राम संचालित किया जो शिक्षा को केन्द्रित था। इस तरह जहां तक आनलाइन शिक्षा का विकल्प मौजूद नहीं था। वहां तक भी छात्रों तक शिक्षा को सुचारु रूप से पहुंचाया गया।

महामारी के पश्चात शिक्षा-

जब महामारी समाप्त हुई तो उसके पश्चात् शिक्षा की गुणवत्ता में एक तीव्र गिरावट दर्ज की गई। क्योंकि बच्चों को पढ़ाई गई चीजे या तो भूल चुकी थी या उनका ज्ञान का स्तर कम हो गया था। एक सर्वेक्षण में पाया गया कि कक्षा 2 से 6 के बच्चों में पूर्व के वर्षों की अपेक्षा इस वर्ष में किसी एक भाषा की सीख में कमी या हास पाया गया। साथ ही साथ उनकी गणितीय बुद्धिमत्ता कमजोर हुई। कक्षा 10 के छात्रों में यह स्थिति और भी दयनीय पायी गई। वहां केवल 13 प्रतिशत बच्चें ही गणित में 50 प्रतिशत अंक के ऊपर ला पाये।

पिछले कुछ वर्षों में शिक्षा प्रणाली के दो दौर देखने को मिला, स्कूली शिक्षा तथा दूसरी आनलाइन माध्यमों से शिक्षा। जिससे शिक्षा का क्षेत्र और भी व्यापक हुआ है। शिक्षक और छात्रों के मध्य दूरियाँ और घटी है। छात्रों को और अधिक रोचक जानकारियाँ, ज्यादा अध्ययन सामग्री, वैश्विक जानकारियाँ, तुलनात्मक ज्ञान आदि प्राप्त हुआ है। सामूहिक शिक्षा प्रणाली का तेजी से विकास हुआ है। रोजगार के नये अवसर खुले हैं। लोगों के पास अवसर खुद चल कर आ रहे हैं।

निष्कर्ष-

यह अध्ययन कोविड-19 महामारी का शिक्षा पर विभिन्न प्रभाव दिखाता है। महामारी ने व्यापक स्तर पर शिक्षा प्रणाली को प्रभावित किया जिससे विभिन्न नये विकल्पों को सोचने तथा उनको अपनी शिक्षा प्रणाली में शामिल करने का मार्ग प्रशस्त हुआ है। जिसने आनलाइन शिक्षा प्रणाली को एक नया आयाम दिया तथा शिक्षा प्रणाली में आनलाइन शिक्षा को अभिन्न रूप से शामिल किया। महामारी के दौरान हमें यह नहीं पता था कि यह महामारी कितने दिनों तक रहेगी। जिसके कारण शिक्षा मंत्रालय तथा उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार ने शिक्षा को सुचारू रूप से चलते रहने देने के लिये कई प्रकार के आनलाइन माध्यमों का निर्माण किया तथा उनको लोगों तक पहुंचाया। इन माध्यमों में ई-किताबे, आनलाइन अध्ययन-अध्यापन सामग्री आदि शामिल रहे।

परम्परागत प्रणालियों (दूरदर्शन रेडियो आदि) के साथ नई तकनीक को एक साथ लाकर शिक्षा को और भी अधिक व्यापक और सुगम बनाया। परन्तु इसके साथ ही साथ यह भी ध्यान में रखना होगा कि सभी तक कम्प्यूटर, मोबाइल, इण्टरनेट, इत्यादि माध्यमों की पहुंच सुगम हो सकें। उसके साथ ही उस माध्यम की उचित जानकारी भी प्रदान की जाये। क्योंकि आनलाइन माध्यमों के फायदे के साथ साथ उनके अपने नुकसान भी हैं।

पूर्व प्रधानमंत्री श्री अटल बिहारी वाजपेयी जी के सर्व शिक्षा अभियान नीति का अनुपालन करते हुये उत्तर प्रदेश सरकार ने एक रिपोर्ट जारी करते हुये बताया है कि छात्रों के नामांकन दर में हाल के वर्षों में वृद्धि के लक्षण देखे गये हैं। विशेष कर ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में छात्रों के स्कूल लौटने की दर से बढ़ी है परन्तु अभी भी महामारी के वास्तविक असर का अनुमान लगाया जाना बाकी है।

सन्दर्भ सूची

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बहराइच जनपद में प्राथमिक कृषि ऋण समितियों (PACS) का मूल्यांकन

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सारांश

सहकारी आंदोलन दुनिया में प्रमुख सामाजिक-आर्थिक आन्दोलन बन गया। प्राथमिक कृषि ऋण सोसायटी वास्तव में भारत में एक गाँव या छोटे गाँवों के समूह को जमीनी स्तर पर संगठित किया जाता है। यह मूलभूत इकाई है जो किसानों को उनकी वित्तीय आवश्यकताओं को पूरा करने के लिए ग्रामीण ऋण से सम्बन्धित है। यह किसानों को अल्पकालिक और मध्यकालिक अवधि के ऋण प्रदान करता है जो उनकी वित्तीय आवश्यकताओं को पूरा करने में मदद करता है इस शोध पत्र में उत्तर प्रदेश के बहराइच जनपद में वर्ष 2021 से 2023 तक के तीन वर्षों में पैक्स (चाई) के काम काजी प्रदर्शन पर अध्ययन किया गया है।

प्रमुख शब्द : प्राथमिक कृषि ऋण समितियाँ, सहकारी, कृषि ऋण, बैंकिंग संरचना।

प्रस्तावना

सहकारी आन्दोलन दुनिया में मौलिक सामाजिक, आर्थिक आन्दोलन बन गया। उसने देश में गरीबी कम करने रचनात्मक रोजगार पैदा करने और सामाजिक एकीकरण को समष्टि करने में महत्वपूर्ण योगदान दिया है भारत में सहकारी आन्दोलन ने विभिन्न क्षेत्रों में गहरी जड़ें जमा ली हैं। यह लोगो के आर्थिक और सामाजिक विकास की दिशा में भी महत्वपूर्ण भागीदारी निभा रही है। सहकारिता आम तौर पर कृषि ऋण, कृषि उपज के विपणन, उर्वरको, कीटनाशकों एवं अन्य आवश्यक वस्तुओं के वितरण से सम्बन्धित है। सहकारी बैंकिंग संरचना का भारत की ग्रामीण ऋण वितरण प्रणाली में एक अद्वितीय स्थान है। उन्होंने ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में महत्वपूर्ण प्रगति की है। कई वर्षों से वे अपने विशाल नेटवर्क, व्यापक कवरेज और देश के दूरदराज के हिस्सों तक फैली पहुँच के साथ प्रमुख संस्थागत एजेन्सी बने हुए हैं। वर्तमान में देश में 1.5 करोड़ की सदस्यता के साथ 1,99,182 लाख (PACS) पैक्स सहकारी समितियाँ चल रही हैं।

वर्तमान में 2023 तक भारत में FSS और LAMPS (किसान सेवा समितियाँ और बड़े आकार की आदिवासी बहुउद्देशीय समितियाँ) सहित 7212 सहकारी ऋण समितियाँ हैं।

अध्ययन का क्षेत्र

पैक्स अल्पकालिक ऋण संरचना में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभाते हैं, जबकि ऐसी कई एजेन्सियाँ हैं जो कृषि गतिविधियों के लिए अल्पकालिक ऋण प्रदान करती हैं। फिर भी पैक्स किसान समुदाय की सबसे पसंदीदा एजेन्सी बनी है। लेकिन पैक्स की बकाया राशि में वृद्धि, अपर्याप्त पूँजी, आधार, और प्रशिक्षित स्टाफ की कमी जैसी कई समस्याओं का सामना करना पड़ रहा है। प्रस्तुत शोध में उत्तर प्रदेश के बहराइच जनपद में पैक्स के प्रदर्शन तथा भूमिका का मूल्यांकन करने का एक प्रयास है, जिसमें समाज से सम्बन्धित मात्रात्मक एवं गुणात्मक दोनों चर शामिल हैं।

अध्ययन का महत्व

सहकारी ऋण समिति फसल उत्पादन और कृषि में निवेश दोनों के लिए ऋण प्रदान करने वाली प्रमुख संस्था है। हमारे देश में कृषि विकास में पैक्स को महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका सौंपी गई है। इन समितियों की शाखाओं के माध्यम से ही कृषि क्षेत्र में सरकार के विभिन्न कार्यक्रम क्रियान्वित किये जा रहे हैं। इन समितियों का मूल कार्य कृषि क्षेत्र का विकास करना है जो हमारे देश में बहुसंख्यक लोगों का सबसे महत्वपूर्ण व्यवसाय है। और राष्ट्रीय आय में अधिकतम योगदान करता है।

शोध अध्ययन के उद्देश्य

1. उत्तर प्रदेश के बहराइच जनपद के प्राथमिक कृषि सहकारी ऋण समितियों (चाँदे) की भूमिका का अध्ययन करना।
2. बहराइच जनपद के (PACS) के लाभ-हानि का अध्ययन करना।
3. जनपद में (PACS) के सक्रियता का पता लगाना।

शोध पद्धति

यह शोध अध्ययन बहराइच जनपद में (PACS) की भूमिका तथा प्रदर्शन की स्थिति पर केन्द्रित है। इस अध्ययन के लिए द्वितीयक आकड़ों का प्रयोग किया गया है। आवश्यक डेटा जिला सहकारी केन्द्रीय बैंक बहराइच के मुख्य शाखा कार्यालय से तथा आर0बी0आई0 की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट, नेफ्सकॉव (NAFSCOB) की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट, नाबार्ड की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट, कुरुक्षेत्र, योजना, पत्रिका आदि से संग्रहित किया गया है।

शोध परिकल्पना

1. पैक्स की सदस्यता हेतु रुचि की स्थिति का पता लगाना।
2. पैक्स की लाभ हानि की स्थिति का पता लगाना।

सम्बन्धित साहित्य की समीक्षा

मिश्रा और विश्वा स्वरूप (2009) इस पेपर में 1997-2005 के दौरान भारत के 19 राज्यों में प्राथमिक कृषि ऋण समितियों के ऋण वसूली प्रदर्शन को नियन्त्रित करने वाले कारकों को

विश्लेषण किया। इस अध्ययन में यह पाया गया कि क्रेडिट सोसाइटियों की इक्विटी पूँजी में सरकार का योगदान उनकी वसूली के लिए हानिकारक है। सहकारी समितियों के अध्ययन में यह पाया गया कि जैसे-जैसे उधार के अनुपात में जमा राशि बढ़ती है वसूली प्रदर्शन पर प्रतिकूल प्रभाव पड़ता है। ऐसा शायद इसलिए है क्योंकि गैर उधार लेने वाले सदस्यों के पास प्राथमिक कृषि सहकारी समितियों में मतदान का अधिकार नहीं है।

- कैरी मुल्ला (2013) इस अध्ययन में प्राथमिक कृषि सहकारी समितियों की स्थिति और राज्य वार उनके सम्पूर्ण कार्यों का विश्लेषण किया गया है।
- मोहित कुमार एवं वी०पी० मेहता 2000–2001 से 2014–2015 के दौरान हरियाणा में प्राथमिक कृषि ऋण समितियों (PACS) का प्रदर्शन और सम्भावनाएँ इस अध्ययन अवधि के दौरान लाभ में रहने वाले (PACS) की संख्या में कमी आई जबकि हानि में रहने वाली (PACS) की संख्या में वृद्धि हुई।

ऑकड़ों का प्रस्तुतीकरण एवं विश्लेषण-

जनपद बहराइच में पैक्स की स्थिति का विवरण

(राशि लाख में)

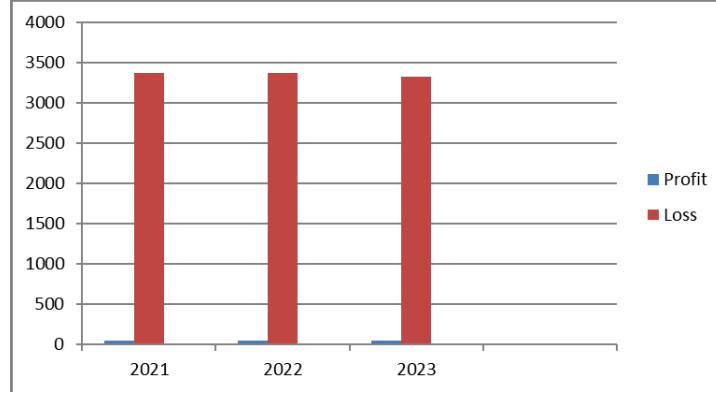
year	No of pacs	member of pacs (in No.)	Share	Reserve Fund	Deposit	Cash in hand	FD	NPA
2021	111	11716	383.03	19.73	87.03	9.53	80.19	259.89
2022	111	12108	390.17	20.19	88.37	6.51	80.19	258.04
2023	111	12589	392.80	21.08	89.54	7.43	80.19	259.20

इस तालिका से स्पष्ट है कि बहराइच जनपद में वर्ष 2021 से 2023 तक तीन वर्षों में (PACS) की संख्या 111 थी। वर्ष 2021 में (PACS) में सदस्यों की संख्या 11716 थी। जो वर्ष 2023 में बढ़कर 12589 हो गई। जिससे यह कहा जा सकता है कि (PACS) में सदस्यता हेतु लोगो ने रुचि दिखाई है। वर्ष 2021 में अंश पूँजी 383.03 लाख से बढ़कर वर्ष 2023 में 392.80 लाख हो गई तथा रिजर्व फंड में भी वृद्धि हुई है। पैक्स के डिपॉजिट वर्ष 2021 में 87.03 लाख से बढ़कर 2023 में 89.54 लाख हो गया है। (PACS) के NPA वर्ष 2021 में 259.89 लाख था, जो वर्ष 2022 में घटकर 258.04 लाख तथा पुनः वर्ष 2023 में बढ़कर 259.20 लाख हो गया है।

जनपद बहराइच में पैक्स की लाभ हानि की स्थिति

(राशि लाख में)

year	Total No. of PACS	No. of PASC in लाभ	No. of Pacs in हानि	लाभ	हानि
2021	111	6	105	50.32	3374.98
2022	111	6	105	49.79	3373.51
2023	111	5	106	48.49	3326.18



बहराइच जनपद में 111 (PACS) में से वर्ष 2021 में 06 पैक्स लाभ की स्थिति में थी तथा 106 हानि में चल रही थी। वर्ष 2022 में भी 06 पैक्स लाभ की स्थिति में तथा 105 हानि की स्थिति में थी। तथा वर्ष 2023 में 05 पैक्स लाभ में तथा 106 हानि में चल रही है। उपरोक्त तालिका से स्पष्ट है कि जनपद बहराइच में पैक्स की स्थिति अच्छी नहीं है। जिसका तालिका एवं ग्राफ के द्वारा प्रदर्शित किया गया है।

निष्कर्ष-

वर्तमान में देश में सहकारी आन्दोलन का विषम वितरण है क्योंकि सहकारी प्रसार और पहुँच में क्षेत्रीय/राज्य स्तर पर असन्तुलन मौजूद है। ग्रामीण स्तर पर सहकारी इकाइयों प्राथमिक कृषि ऋण समितियों (PACS) की भूमिकाओं और जिम्मेदारियों की समीक्षा करने की आवश्यकता है। ताकि खरीद भण्डारण और भण्डारण, प्रसंस्करण लॉजिस्टिक प्रबन्धन आदि को मौजूद किया जा सके बहराइच जनपद में पैक्स की सदस्य संख्या में मामूली सी वृद्धि हुई है। तथा 111 पैक्स में से वर्तमान में केवल 05 पैक्स ही लाभ की स्थिति में हैं। अतः जनपद में पैक्स को और अत्यधिक सुदृढीकरण की आवश्यकता है। सहकारिता मन्त्रालय द्वारा जमीनी स्तर पर पैक्स को सशक्त करने के लिए विभिन्न उपाय किये गये हैं जैसे—

1. पैक्स की कम्प्यूटरीकरण।
2. पैक्स के लिए आदर्श उपविधियाँ (मॉडल बायलॉज)
3. कॉमन सेवा केन्द्र (CSC) के रूप में पैक्स।
4. कृषि एवं परिवार कल्याण विभाग की किसान उत्पादक संघ (FPO) योजना के तहत पैक्स।
5. सहकारी क्षेत्र में विश्व की सबसे बड़ी अन्य भण्डारण योजना।

सन्दर्भ ग्रन्थ सूची

- UPUEA ECONOMIC JOURNAL

- सहकारिता– डॉ बी0एस0 माथुर
- जिला केन्द्रीय सहकारी बैंक बहाराइच का वार्षिक प्रतिवेदन
- कर्षण सहकारिता एवं किसान कल्याण मन्त्रालय की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट
- NAFSCOB की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट
- नाबार्ड की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट
- सहकारिता मन्त्रालय की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट
- आर0बी0आई0 की भारत में बैंकिंग की प्रवृत्ति एवं प्रगति सम्बन्धी रिपोर्ट
- कुरुक्षेत्र
- योजना पत्रिका ।

रोजगार स जन में सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों का मूल्यांकन: खादी एवं ग्रामोद्योग के विशेष संदर्भ में

वीरेन्द्र कुमार¹ एवं प्रो. विजय कुमार अग्रवाल²

प्रस्तावना

भारत एक श्रम बाहुल्य विकासशील अर्थव्यवस्था है, आजादी के उपरांत विगत 76 वर्षों की उपलब्धि यह है कि आज भारत की गणना विश्व के कुछ प्रमुख औद्योगिक देशों में की जाती है। वर्तमान में भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था की सकल घरेलू उत्पाद 3.7 ट्रिलियन डॉलर पहुंचने के साथ-साथ विश्व की 5 वीं सबसे बड़ी अर्थव्यवस्था बन गई है। भारत को इस सम्मानजनक स्थिति में लाने में सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों की महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका रही है। वहीं भारी उद्योगों से बढ़ती प्रतिस्पर्धा के बावजूद सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था के विकास में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा कर रहे हैं। वर्तमान समय में भारत में लगभग 633.9 लाख लोग सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों (Micro, Small – Medium Enterprises) में कार्यरत हैं और 360.41 लाख से अधिक व्यक्तियों को रोजगार का अवसर मिला है। सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों का सकल घरेलू उत्पाद में 30 प्रतिशत तथा कुल निर्यात में 50 प्रतिशत एवं कुल उत्पादन में एक तिहाई योगदान रहा है। वर्ष 1991 की आर्थिक सुधार की नीतियों (उदारीकरण, निजीकरण और वैश्वीकरण)ने सूक्ष्म, लघु व मध्यम उद्योगों के सामने कई प्रकार की समस्या उत्पन्न कर दी है। क्योंकि भारत में सूक्ष्म लघु व मध्यम उद्योगों का विकास भारत के आरक्षणरूपी कवच के अंतर्गत किया गया है। परिणाम स्वरूप यह क्षेत्र वैश्विक प्रतिस्पर्धा का सामना करने में सफल नहीं हो पा रहा है।

शब्द कुंजी:— रोजगार सृजन में लघु उद्योगों की भूमिका।

शोध उद्देश्य

- देश में लघु उद्योगों द्वारा रोजगार सृजन का अध्ययन करना।
- वर्तमान में खादी एवं ग्रामोद्योग के उत्पादन, विक्रय और रोजगार का विश्लेषण करना।
- गत वर्षों के उत्पादन का तुलनात्मक अध्ययन करना।
- भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था में लघु उद्योगों की भूमिका का अध्ययन करना।
- शोध उद्देश्यों के अनुसार सुझाव व निष्कर्ष।

शोध पद्धति

प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र द्वितीय समंको पर आधारित है। सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग (MSME's) मंत्रालय की वार्षिक रिपोर्ट 2022-23 का विश्लेषण इस शोध में किया गया है। इस शोध पत्र का मुख्य उद्देश्य सूक्ष्म, लघु व मध्यम उद्योगों की प्रगति तथा उनके रोजगार सृजन क्षमता का विश्लेषण करना है। एमएसएमई के प्राप्त आंकड़ों के आधार पर आंकड़ों का प्रस्तुतीकरण करके रेखाचित्र द्वारा मूल्यांकन किया जाएगा।

सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों की प्रगति

सूक्ष्म, लघु व मध्यम उद्यम भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था की रीढ़ की हड्डी है, जो देश के सकल घरेलू उत्पाद और विनिर्माण में एक बड़ा योगदान देते हैं। यह उद्योग वर्तमान समय में लगभग 11 करोड़ से अधिक आबादी को रोजगार का अवसर प्रदान कर रहे हैं। इस प्रकार देश के आर्थिक और सामाजिक विकास में एमएसएमई का योगदान बहुत ही महत्वपूर्ण रहा है। एमएसएमई नवउद्यमिता की पाठशाला है। यह क्षेत्र व्यक्तिगत रचनात्मक और सृजनशीलता के पथ पर तीव्र गति से आगे बढ़ रहा है। सूक्ष्म लघु व मध्यम उद्योगों का पिछले 5 वर्षों की प्रगति निम्नवत है—

तालिका 1 : सूक्ष्म एवं लघु उद्योगों की प्रगति : खादी उद्योग

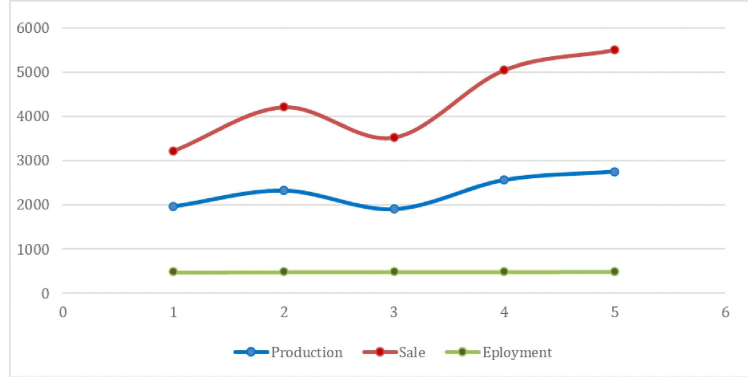
Year	Production (Rs. in Crore)	Sales (Rs. in Crore)	Employment (in Lakh)
2018-19	1963.30	3215.13	4.96
2019-20	2324.24	4211.26	4.97
2020-21	1904.49	3527.71	4.97
2021-22	2558.31	5051.72	4.97
2022-23 (Projected up to 31-03-23)	2750.00	5500.00	4.98

स्रोत— वार्षिक रिपोर्ट (2022-23) सूक्ष्म, लघु व मध्यम उद्यम मंत्रालय भारत सरकार

तालिका (1) वित्तीय वर्ष 2018-19 से खादी क्षेत्र का उत्पादन, विक्रय और रोजगार से संबंधित विवरण प्रदान करती है। वित्तीय वर्ष 2018-19 के दौरान उत्पादन 1963.30 करोड़, बिक्री 3215.13 करोड़ और रोजगार 4.96 लाख थी। जो बढ़कर वित्तीय वर्ष 2022-23 में उत्पादन 2750 करोड़, बिक्री 5500.00 करोड़ और रोजगार 4.98 लाख हो गई है। इस प्रकार उपरोक्त तालिका स्पष्ट रूप से दर्शाती है कि वित्तीय वर्ष 2020-21 को छोड़कर वर्ष 2018-19 से 2022-23 तक उत्पादन एवं बिक्री

में बृद्धि हो रही है परन्तु खादी उद्योगों की रोजगार में वषद्धि न होकर स्थिर रही है।

स्कैटर चार्ट



तालिका (1) का अध्ययन स्कैटर चार्ट से करने पर यह स्पष्ट होता है कि वित्तीय वर्ष 2020–21 को छोड़कर प्रत्येक वर्ष उत्पादन और बिक्री में सतत वषद्धि हुई है, परन्तु रोजगार सष्जन में स्थाई वषद्धि देखने को मिली है।

तालिका 2 : सूक्ष्म एवं लघु उद्योगों की प्रगति:- ग्रामोद्योग

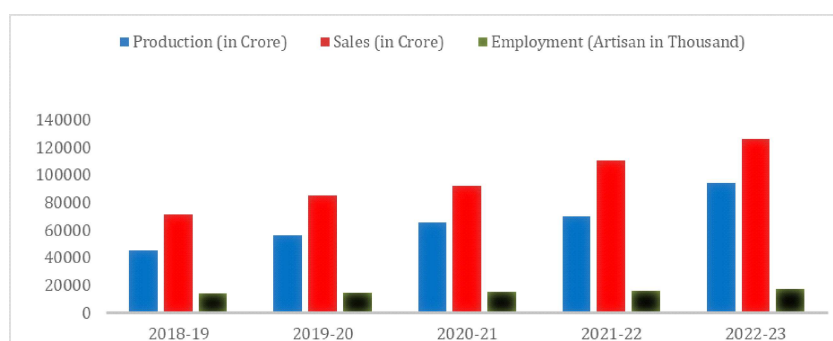
Year	Production (in Crore)	Sales (in Crore)	Employment (Artisan in Lakh)
2018-19	45454.75	71076.96	142.03
2019-20	56167.04	84864.28	147.76
2020-21	65343.07	92213.65	154.09
2021-22	70330.19	110363.51	162.64
2022-23	94162.13	125901.65	170.71
(Projected up to 31-03-23)			

स्रोत— वार्षिक रिपोर्ट (2022–23) सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्यम मंत्रालय भारत सरकार

तालिका (2) से स्पष्ट है कि सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग पिछले 5 वर्षों में स्थिर गति से विकास कर रहे हैं वित्तीय वर्ष 2018–19 से 2022–23 तक ग्रामोद्योग के उत्पादन, बिक्री और रोजगार से संबंधित विवरण दिया गया है। वित्तीय वर्ष 2018–19 के दौरान उत्पादन 46454.75 करोड़, बिक्री

71076.96 करोड़ और रोजगार 142.03 लाख थी। जबकि वित्तीय वर्ष 2022–23 के दौरान ग्रामोद्योग क्षेत्र का अनुमानित उत्पादन बढ़कर 94162.13 करोड़, बिक्री 125901.65 करोड़ और रोजगार 170.71 लाख हो गई। इस प्रकार उत्पादन, बिक्री और रोजगार में निरंतर महत्वपूर्ण वृद्धि हो रही है।

क्लस्टर कॉलम चार्ट



तालिका (2) का अध्ययन क्लस्टर कॉलम चार्ट से करने पर यह स्पष्ट होता है कि उत्पादन, बिक्री और रोजगार सृजन में सतत वृद्धि हो रही है। परंतु उत्पादन और बिक्री के तुलना में रोजगार सृजन में स्थिर वृद्धि हो रही है।

तालिका 3 : सूक्ष्म एवं लघु उद्योगों की प्रगति : खादी एवं ग्रामोद्योग (KVI)

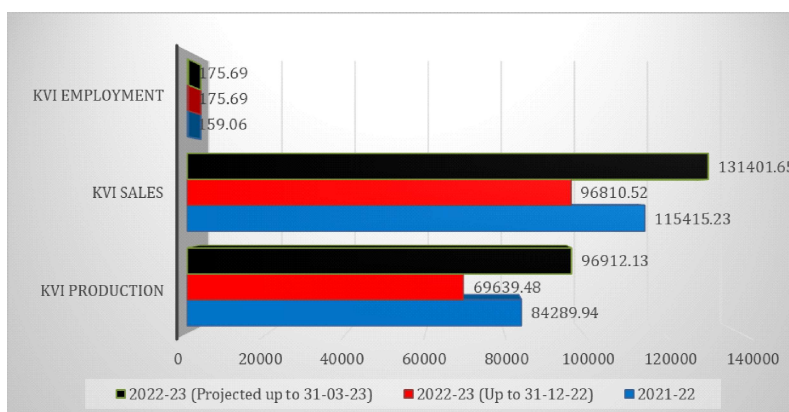
	2021-22	2022-23 (Up to 31-12-22)	2022-23 (Projected up to 31-03-23)
KVI Production	84289.94	69639.48	96912.13
KVI Sales	115415.23	96810.52	131401.65
KVI Employment	159.06	175.69	175.69

स्रोत— वार्षिक रिपोर्ट (2022–23) सूक्ष्म, लघु व मध्यम उद्यम मंत्रालय भारत सरकार

तालिका (3) से स्पष्ट है कि वर्ष 2021–22 से 2022–23 के लिए कुल उत्पादन, कुल बिक्री और कुल रोजगार के बारे में विवरण प्रदान करती है। वित्तीय वर्ष 2021–22 के दौरान कुल उत्पादन 84289.93 करोड़ से बढ़कर 2022–23 में 96912.13 करोड़ हो गया और बिक्री 2021–22 में 115415.

23 करोड़ से बढ़कर 2022–23 में 131401.65 करोड़ हो गई। वित्तीय वर्ष 2021–22 में खादी और ग्रामोद्योग उद्योग (KVI) क्षेत्र का कुल रोजगार 159.06 लाख से बढ़कर 2022–23 में 175.69 लाख हो गया। इस प्रकार यह स्पष्ट है कि खादी और ग्रामोद्योग क्षेत्र का उत्पादन, बिक्री एवं रोजगार निरंतर बढ़ता जा रहा है।

क्लस्टर बार चार्ट



तालिका (3) का अध्ययन क्लस्टर बार चार्ट से करने पर यह स्पष्ट होता है कि खादी एवं ग्रामोद्योग के उत्पादन, बिक्री और रोजगार सृजन में सतत वृद्धि हो रही है।

सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग व उत्पादन

वर्तमान में सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग कुल विनिर्माण क्षेत्र के उत्पादन में 40 प्रतिशत की भागीदारी रखते हैं। यह क्षेत्र 6 हजार से अधिक उत्पादों का निर्माण करता है जिसमें परंपरागत वस्तुओं के उत्पादन के साथ-साथ आधुनिक उत्पाद भी शामिल हैं। पूंजी की कमी के कारण एमएसएमई उद्योगों की प्रगति जिस तरह से होनी चाहिए नहीं कर पा रहे हैं, वैश्विक गुणवत्ता के अभाव में लघु उद्योग प्रतियोगिता का सामना सही रूप से नहीं कर पा रहे हैं।

सूक्ष्म लघु, व मध्यम उद्योग व रोजगार

सूक्ष्म, लघु और मध्यम उद्योगों को सदैव क्षेत्रीय विकास व बेरोजगारी दूर करने का अस्त्र के रूप में जाना जाता रहा है। यह उद्योग किसी भी अर्थव्यवस्था में रोजगार सृजन के साथ-साथ आय के विकेंद्रीकरण को बढ़ावा देते रहे हैं। भारत जैसी विकासशील अर्थव्यवस्था में जहां अदृश्य बेरोजगारी देखने को मिलती है वहां इस तरह के उद्योगों को बढ़ावा देना अधिक तर्कसंगत है। तालिका (1) का अध्ययन करने से यह स्पष्ट हुआ है कि वित्तीय वर्ष 2018–19 में रोजगार 4.96 लाख से बढ़कर 2022–23 में 4.98 लाख हो गया है। तालिका (2) से स्पष्ट है की वित्तीय वर्ष 2018–19 में रोजगार 142.03 लाख से बढ़कर 2022–23 में 170.71 लाख हो गई है। तालिका (3)

का अध्ययन करने से यह स्पष्ट हुआ है कि एमएसएमई उद्योग वित्तीय वर्ष 2021-22 से 2022-23 में खादी व ग्रामोद्योग का कुल रोजगार 159.06 लाख से बढ़कर 175.69 लाख हो गई है। इस प्रकार उपरोक्त तालिका का अध्ययन करने से यह पाया गया है कि एमएसएमई उद्योगों से प्रतिवर्ष रोजगार सृजन में वृद्धि हो रही है।

लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग की समस्याएं

पूंजी की कमी भारतीय लघु उद्योगों की सबसे बड़ी समस्या रही है आर्थिक सुधारों के बाद भी विपणन की समस्या, उपभोक्ताओं के बीच जागरूकता की कमी घरेलू और बाहरी प्रतियोगिताओं का सामना व कच्चे माल एवं उत्पादन में कमी आदि समस्याओं का सामना करना पड़ रहा है। वर्तमान में लघु उद्योग निम्नलिखित समस्याओं का सामना कर रहे हैं—

1. **वित्त की समस्या:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों के प्रति वित्तीय संस्थाओं का दृष्टिकोण नकारात्मक रहा है। इस कारण एमएसएमई उद्योगों को समय से पर्याप्त ऋण नहीं मिल पाता है। प्रतिभूत के अभाव में इन उद्योगों को महंगा ऋण प्राप्त होता है, जिससे लागत में वृद्धि हो जाने से उद्योग वैश्विक प्रतियोगिता का सामना करने में पिछड़ रहे हैं।
2. **कच्चे माल का अभाव:**—सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों को समय से कच्चा माल नहीं मिल पाता है क्योंकि ज्यादातर कच्चा माल बड़े उद्योगों के पास चला जाता है। जो भी कच्चा माल लघु उद्योगों को प्राप्त होता है उसकी गुणवत्ता अच्छी नहीं होती जिसका दुष्प्रभाव उत्पाद की गुणवत्ता पर पड़ता है।
3. **विपणन की समस्या:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों के उत्पादन की गुणवत्ता अच्छी न होने के कारण वैश्विक प्रतियोगिता से बाहर हो जाते हैं। पूंजी के अभाव में यह उद्योग अपने उत्पाद का ठीक से विज्ञापन भी नहीं कर पाते हैं जिसके कारण उनके उत्पाद की बिक्री भी प्रभावित होती है।
4. **कूल श्रम का अभाव:**—सूक्ष्म, लघु और मध्यम उद्योगों में कुशल श्रम का अभाव है। अकुशल श्रमिक उत्पादन व तकनीक के साथ सामंजस्य नहीं बैठा पाता है जिसके कारण उत्पादन में कमी से लागत में वृद्धि के साथ-साथ दुर्घटना की आशंका बनी रहती है।
5. **तकनीकी की समस्या:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु और मध्यम उद्योगों में आज के वर्तमान समय में भी आधुनिक तकनीक का प्रयोग नहीं हो पा रहा है इसका मुख्य कारण पूंजी का अभाव व तकनीकी रूप से अप्रशिक्षित श्रमिक हैं। इस प्रकार इन उद्योगों में तकनीक के अभाव में उत्पादन की अकुशलता बढ़ती जा रही है।
6. **उपभोक्ता जागरूकता का अभाव:**— भारत जैसे विकासशील देश में आज के वर्तमान समय में भी उपभोक्ता जागरूक नहीं हुआ है। वह सामाजिक दिखावे में आकर विलासिता पूर्ण वस्तुओं को क्रय कर लेता है।

7. **बड़े उद्योगों से प्रतिस्पर्धा:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों में वैश्विक उदारीकरण के बाद निरंतर आरक्षित उत्पादों की संख्या कम होती जा रही है और इन उद्योगों से निर्मित उत्पाद कई कारण से बड़े उद्योगों के उत्पाद से प्रतियोगिता नहीं कर पाते हैं। इस प्रकार सूक्ष्म लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग बड़े उद्योगों के सामने खुद को स्थापित नहीं कर पा रहे हैं।
8. **नवाचार में कमी:**— भारतीय सूक्ष्म लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग में नवाचार की कमी है और उनके द्वारा उत्पादित अधिकांश उत्पाद पुरानी प्रौद्योगिकी पर आधारित हैं इस क्षेत्र में उद्यमियों की भारी कमी है जिससे इसे नई प्रौद्योगिकियों और साधनों को अपना सकने से अवरुद्ध कर रखा है।

सुझाव

सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों का सदियों से भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था के विकास में बहुत बड़ा योगदान रहा है। यही वजह है कि समय-समय पर इन्हें बढ़ावा देने के लिए सरकार द्वारा विभिन्न योजनाएं शुरू की जाती हैं। यह उद्योग हमेशा से ही भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अदा कर रहे हैं। वर्तमान में देश में सक्रिय लगभग 6.3 करोड़ सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योग न सिर्फ देश के सकल घरेलू उत्पाद में एक बड़ा योगदान देते हैं बल्कि यह एक बड़ी आबादी के लिए रोजगार के अवसर उपलब्ध कराते रहे हैं। यदि भारत सरकार द्वारा इन उद्योगों को प्राथमिकता दिया जाए और इन्हें बुनियादी सुविधाएं उपलब्ध कराई जाएं और इस प्रकार की नीतियां बनाई जाएं, ताकि इन उद्योगों की उत्पादकता व रोजगार सृजनशीलता में वृद्धि हो सके। इन उद्योगों के समस्याओं को दूर करने के लिए सुझाव निम्नलिखित हैं—

1. **वित्त की उपलब्धता:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों को समय-समय पर सरकार व वित्तीय संस्थाओं द्वारा पर्याप्त मात्रा में ऋण उपलब्ध कराया जाना चाहिए। इन उद्योगों पर सरकार को अधिक ध्यान देने की आवश्यकता है क्योंकि वाणिज्यिक बैंक भी इन उद्योगों को ऋण प्रदान करने में कम प्राथमिकता देते हैं।
2. **कच्चे माल की उपलब्धता:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों की सबसे प्रमुख समस्या कच्चा माल विशेषकर कोयला, इस्पात और लोहा की उपलब्धता है। सरकार द्वारा कच्चे माल के वितरण की पद्धति में भेदभाव दिखता है। बड़े उद्योगों को आसानी से कच्चा माल उपलब्ध हो जाता है और लघु उद्योगों को कच्चा माल प्राप्त करने में कई तरह के कठिनाइयों का सामना करना पड़ता है। अतः सरकार को लघु उद्योगों को कच्चे सामग्री के वितरण में प्राथमिकता देनी चाहिए।
3. **विपणन में सहायता:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों के उत्पाद गुणवत्ता अच्छी न होने के कारण वह बाजारों में अपना स्थान नहीं बन पा रहे हैं। यद्यपि इन उद्योगों में निर्मित उत्पाद की अपनी एक विशेषता भी पाई जाती है। पूंजी के अभाव में इन उद्योगों का विज्ञापन न हो

पाने के कारण अच्छे उत्पादों से प्रतिस्पर्धा नहीं कर पाते हैं। अतः आवश्यकता इस बात की है कि केंद्र व राज्य सरकार इन उद्योगों को विशेष प्रोत्साहन व प्राथमिकता प्रदान करें।

4. **सरकारी परियोजनाओं को स्थानीय एमएसएम से जोड़ना:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों के प्रोत्साहन के लिए सरकार प्रस्तावित खरीदों एवं परियोजनाओं का लाभ उठाकर घरेलू विनिर्माण क्षमताओं के सृजन में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभा सकती है। उदाहरण के लिए सागरमाला, भारतमाला और औद्योगिक गलियारों जैसी सार्वजनिक परियोजनाओं को एमएसएमई क्षेत्र से जोड़ा जा सकता है।
5. **तकनीकी सहायता:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों के विकास की मुख्य समस्या है अच्छी तकनीकी का न होना। किसी भी उत्पाद की कुशलता में अच्छी तकनीक की मुख्य भूमिका होती है। यदि श्रमिकों को नवीन तकनीक का प्रशिक्षण दिया जाए तो इन उद्योगों के उत्पादन की गुणवत्ता अच्छी हो जाएगी और यह उद्योग वैश्विक प्रतियोगिता का सामना करने में सफल हो सकते हैं।
6. **एमएसएम पोर्टल:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों में औपचारिकरण और पंजीकरण के लिए सरकार द्वारा एक पोर्टल का निर्माण किया जाना चाहिए। इससे न केवल सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों में पारदर्शिता आएगी बल्कि धोखाधड़ी एवं समंको के दुरुपयोग को कम करने में सहायता मिलेगी।
7. **औद्योगिक बस्तियों का निर्माण:**— सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों को हमेशा वैश्विक प्रतियोगिता का सामना करना पड़ता है। अतः इन उद्योगों को गति देने के लिए सरकार को औद्योगिक बस्तियों का निर्माण करना चाहिए जिससे इन्हें मूलभूत सुविधाएं प्राप्त हो सकें। इससे इन उद्योगों के उत्पाद की लागत कम आएगी और यह उद्योग वैश्विक प्रतियोगिता का सामना करने में समर्थ होंगे।

लेखक के बारे में:— प्रस्तुत शोध पत्रवीरेन्द्र कुमार के द्वारा लिखा गया है। इस शोध पत्र की विषय वस्तु एवं सभी आंकड़ों का विश्लेषण प्रोफेसर विजय कुमार अग्रवाल के द्वारा किया गया है। इस शोध पत्र के प्रकाशन के लिए उपरोक्त दोनों लेखक सहमत हैं।

निष्कर्ष

सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों को भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था की रीढ़, प्रगति का आधार स्तंभ और देश के आर्थिक संरचना का द्योतक कहा जाता है। यह उद्योग बड़ी संख्या में लोगों को रोजगार का अवसर प्रदान करने में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभा रहे हैं। सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों के प्राप्त आंकड़ों और रेखाचित्रों के विश्लेषणात्मक अध्ययन के आधार पर स्पष्ट है कि खादी एवं ग्रामोद्योगों के उत्पादन, बिक्री और रोजगार सृजन में वृद्धि हुई है। कोविड महामारी के दौरानतालिका (1) में वर्ष 2020–21 के उत्पादन और बिक्री में गिरावट देखने को मिला है। इसका प्रमुख कारण औद्योगिक

इकाइयों का बंद होना है। पिछले 5 वर्षों के आंकड़ों का अध्ययन करने पर यह निष्कर्ष निकलता है कि कोविडमहामारी के पहले और बाद में उत्पादन, बिक्री और रोजगार में सतत वृद्धि हो रही है। उत्पादन और बिक्री के तुलना में रोजगार सृजन में स्थायित्व देखने को मिला है। सूक्ष्म, लघु एवं मध्यम उद्योगों को अपनी नीतियां ऐसी बनानी चाहिए कि यदि सरकार द्वारा कोई प्रोत्साहन व समर्थन प्राप्त न होने पर भी अपने अस्तित्व को बनाए रखें। एमएसएमई उद्योगों को कम लागत पर अधिकतम उत्पादन के साथ-साथ उत्पाद की अच्छी गुणवत्ता का स्तर बनाए रखना चाहिए जिससे कि यह उद्योग वैश्विक प्रतिस्पर्धा का डटकर मुकाबला कर सके।

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Miscellaneous

“Unveiling the Vital Contributions of Anganwadi Workers: Examining their Apparent Presently Significant Influence in India”

Prof. Girish Mohan Dubey & Aarchi Jain

Abstract

India has grappled with the challenges of a burgeoning population and limited resources since gaining independence, often attributed to inefficient policy implementation, notably in the health sector. Acknowledging children as crucial assets and the future workforce, the Government of India has launched the Integrated Child Development Program, emphasizing the health of children and mothers. To address child hunger and malnutrition within this program, in 1975 government established the Anganwadi centres, and rural mother and child care facilities. Anganwadi centres offer a range of services, including nutrition education, non-formal pre-school activities, and health care services. They play a pivotal role in delivering supplementary nutrition, preschool education, health and nutrition education, immunization, rehydration salts, basic medicines, health check-ups, and referral services in collaboration with public health systems. With secondary data, the study aims to highlight the indispensable role of Anganwadi in improving health conditions, particularly at the grassroots level, with a special focus on women and children.

Keywords: *ICDS Scheme, Anganwadi centres, Supplementary nutrition, Immunization*

Introduction

The Integrated Child Development Services Scheme (ICDSS), started by the Indian government in 1975, is the world’s largest community-based child development programme. This program is based on the notion of early childhood education and care (ECCE), which is offered by India’s Anganwadi system—a system that employs 1.4 million women.

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ICDS is a centrally supported plan that is carried out by state governments and union territories. The scheme is worldwide, encompassing all parts of the country. The Scheme has been renamed Anganwadi Services. The services are now offered as part of the Saksham Anganwadi and Poshan 2.0 (Poshan 2.0) (Ministry of Women and Child Development, n.d.)

The term “Anganwadi worker” comes from the Indian word “angan,” which refers to a central location of a house where social and community activities take place. In rural locations, angans are open spaces where people gather to talk, receive guests, and interact. Thus, it’s centre in the community where it is easily accessible to people in small populations for health care, preschool education, nutrition for children, etc. This Anganwadi system is primarily administered by the Anganwadi worker (Jyothi, 2021). Anganwadi workers are public health workers who work in angles and also pay visits to other people’s angans to assist them with their healthcare issues and concerns.

Anganwadi Services, a flagship program of the Government of India, is one of the world’s largest and most innovative early childhood care and development programs. This is a symbol of the country’s dedication to delivering preschool non-formal education and interrupting the cycle of malnutrition, illness, diminished learning capacity, and mortality (Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India, 2022).

The Anganwadi worker is the primary administrator of the Anganwadi system.

She is a health professional chosen from the community and receives four months of training in topics such as health, nutrition, and child care. She is in charge of an Anganwadi with a 1,000-person population. They provide outreach services to low-income families in need of immunizations, healthy food, clean water, clean restrooms, and a learning environment for newborns, toddlers, and preschool children. They also assist expecting and nursing mothers. These women take on enormous obligations. They are not only in charge of providing healthcare to children in rural India, but they also give psycho-emotional and social development assistance, such as counselling, guidance, immunization, and data gathering.

Package of six services

Services	Target Group	Services provided by
Supplementary Nutrition	Children below 6 years: Pregnant & Lactating Mothers (P&LM)	Anganwadi workers and Anganwadi helpers
Pre-school Non-formal Education	Children below 6 years: Pregnant & Lactating Mothers (P&LM)	ANM/MO
Nutrition and Health Education	Children below 6 years: Pregnant & Lactating Mothers (P&LM)	ANM/MO/AWW
Immunization	Children below 6 years: Pregnant & Lactating Mothers (P&LM)	AWW/ANM/MO
Health Check-up	Children 3-6 years	AWW
Referral Services	Women (15-45) years	AWW/ANM/MO

Review of literature

➤ (Adhikary, 2023) in his study examined Anganwadi workers' demographics, infrastructure, and Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) knowledge. Most were married, aged 41-50, with diverse education levels and extensive experience. Infrastructure deficiencies included inadequate seating, teaching materials, and essential facilities. Knowledge levels ranged from low (16.33%), to average (63.34%), to high (20%).

➤ (George et al., 2021) the study entitled "Anganwadi centres in Society" delves into the Anganwadi centres' impact on rural health, particularly women and children. It explores the correlation between Anganwadi workers' efforts and child health indicators. The findings underscore the need for addressing emerging issues to uplift healthcare services at the grassroots level effectively.

➤ Over 30 years, the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) scheme has extensively expanded to cover nearly all development blocks nationwide, providing diverse health, nutrition, and education services to children, women, and adolescent girls. (Panda, 2021) his study covered 19 States/UTs, sampling 510 AWCs and 15,300 children, and revealed that 77.4% of

children assessed fall within the Normal grade, indicating a significant reduction in malnutrition among 0 to 5-year-olds despite challenges.

➤ (Prashantha HY, 2018) evaluates Anganwadi Workers' (AWWs) comprehension of Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) and their socio-economic context. Results demonstrate differing levels of knowledge among AWWs, emphasizing the necessity for improved training and support to enhance their efficacy in providing health and nutrition services.

Relevance of the Anganwadi Scheme

- To improve the nutritional and health status of children aged 6 months to 6 years,
- To lay the groundwork for proper psychological, physical, and social development of the child.
- To reduce the rate of mortality, morbidity, malnutrition, and school dropouts.
- To achieve effective coordination of policy and implementation across various departments to promote child development.
- To enhance the capability of the mothers to look after the normal health and nutritional needs of the child through proper nutrition and health education.

Role of Anganwadi within the Society

➤ India faces significant challenges such as overpopulation, malnutrition, poverty, and high infant mortality rates, necessitating a large number of healthcare professionals. However, there is a shortage of skilled professionals. To address this, India leverages its Anganwadi system to enhance healthcare accessibility for the local population. Anganwadi workers, living among the people, possess intimate knowledge of community health issues and effectively address them. While not as trained as medical professionals, they excel in social skills, facilitating communication and trust-building within communities.

➤ India aims to provide accessible and affordable healthcare, especially to marginalized communities. To address healthcare, child mortality, malnutrition, and educational challenges, a larger workforce of medical and healthcare professionals is required. The government's ICDS scheme utilizes local resources to meet these goals. Anganwadi workers focus on holistic well-being, engaging in household affairs to grasp community issues comprehensively. They play a vital role in bridging healthcare gaps and promoting overall community welfare.

Role of Anganwadi Workers in Pre-school Education

➤ Individuals working in Anganwadi centres exhibit pioneering approaches, utilizing innovative devices to influence children's development of life skills. Their primary goal is to foster children's overall growth, evident in initiatives like translating preschool educational methods into tribal languages, showcasing adaptability across diverse backgrounds. These

centres offer diverse learning experiences, engaging children's senses—visual, auditory, and physical. Interaction, deemed crucial for young children's development, occurs in various settings: individual, partnered, small group, and large group, including group discussions. Assessment involves daily observation of children's activities, considering their skills, interests, and approaches, supplemented by family communication to understand their needs.

➤ Anganwadi centres ensure equal participation opportunities for boys and girls in various activities—musical, artistic, sports, and play—aiming to enhance their skill development.

Anganwadi's contribution to enhancing India's health situation

- To obtain community support and participation in conducting the program.
- To weigh each child once a month, record the weight graphically on the growth card, use the referral card to send mothers and kids to the PHC, sub-centers, and other places, and keep child cards for kids younger than six years old, presenting them before seeing doctors and other health professionals.
- to carry out a survey once a year of the mothers and children in the families, particularly in the relevant working region.
- to organize non-formal preschool programs for children between the age group of three to five years to introduce them to the play and creative activities that are essential to their development.
- To organize supplementary nutrition feeding for children aged 0–6 years and for pregnant and nursing mothers using food that is readily available in the area and properly prepared.
- to educate nursing and pregnant women about nutrition and health. Additionally, married women receive counseling on topics like birth control and family planning.
- AWW notifies of all birth-related information to the Panchayat secretary or Gram Sabha Sevak whoever has been designated as the village's Registrar or Sub-Registrar.
- To do home visits to provide parents with the knowledge they need to effectively support their children's growth and development, with a main focus on newborns.
- To maintain adequate records, files, and registers properly.
- To assist the PHC personnel in carrying out the program's health components, such as health screenings, immunizations, prenatal and postnatal exams, etc.
- To assist ANM in administering IFA and Vitamin A by keeping the two medications in stock at the center without keeping a stock register because doing so would increase administrative work and interfere with the scheme's principal objectives.
- To provide the ANM with the data gathered under the ICDS.

- Any work that has to be done in the village needs to be brought to the supervisors' attention, especially if it involves coordinating procedures between various departments.
- To keep in touch with other organizations, involve females from the village's primary and middle schools as well as female school employees, and acknowledge the importance of their work.
- To provide direction to Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHA) working with the National Rural Health Mission regarding the provision of medical services and maintenance of records under the ICDS program.
- To assist in running the Kishori Shakti Yojana (KSY) and, via the organizing of social awareness programs and campaigns, inspire and educate teenage girls, their parents, and the community.
- According to the scheme's instructions, AWW would also assist in the execution of the Nutrition Program for Adolescent Girls (NPAG). It is essential to keep the records that the NPAG recommends keeping.
- Anganwadi Workers can carry out their designated roles as depot holders for RCH kits, birth control, and single-use delivery kits. If the Ministry of Health & Family Welfare makes the decision, the ANM or ASHA will handle the actual distribution of delivery kits or administration of medications, except over-the-counter (OTC) drugs.
- to identify children's disabilities during house visits and send the case to the District Disability Rehabilitation Center or PHC in the area.
- To support the planning of PPI (Pulse Polio Immunization) Drives.

Objectives of the study

- To examine the expansion and advancement of the ICDS network.
- To examine the critical role Anganwadi has played in raising India's standard of health.

Research Methodology

The study is based on secondary data collected from authentic sources such as sources of bulletins, journals, magazines, newspapers, previous research recorders, and also from government websites i.e. Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS), Ministry of Women and Child Development Government of India and the Government of India Annual Reports. The studies examined variables connected to ICDS, such as the number of Anganwadi centers and the appointment of Anganwadi workers, the number of beneficiaries of supplementary nutrition and preschool education, as well as the funding allocation. This report highlights the crucial role of Anganwadi programs in improving India's health.

Analysis and Interpretation

Growth and Development of Anganwadi centre and Workers in India

The country’s Anganwadi Services began with 33 projects and 4891 Anganwadi Centres in 1975. By the end of the IX Plan, the country’s Anganwadi Services Scheme had grown to 5652 projects and 6 lakhs approved AWCs. However, the program’s coverage was not nationwide until then, as it only covered roughly 42% of the 14 lakh habitations in the country. As of June 30, 2022, the Anganwadi Services Scheme operates through 7075 fully operational projects and 13.91 lakh operating AWCs. The Supplementary Nutrition Programme now serves 9.51 crore individuals, including pregnant women and lactating mothers.

Table 1: Year-wise Anganwadi Centres and Beneficiaries in India

Year ending	No. of operational				No. of Beneficiaries in lakhs			
	Project	%	AWCS	%	Supple. Nutrition Program	%	Pre-School Education	%
31.3.2017	7074	16.66	13,54,792	16.42	983.42	18.24	340.52	19.68
31.3.2018	7075	16.66	13,63,021	16.52	892.77	16.56	325.91	18.84
31.3.2019	7075	16.67	13,72,872	16.63	875.61	16.24	301.92	17.45
31.3.2020	7075	16.67	13,81,376	16.74	855.05	15.86	245.04	14.16
31.3.2021	7075	16.67	13,87,432	16.81	831.83	15.43	230.38	13.31
31.3.2022	7075	16.67	13,91,004	16.85	949.94	17.62	285.82	16.52
Total	42449	100.0	82,50,497	100.0	5388.62	100.0	1729.59	100.0

Source: Ministry of Women and Child Development, Govt. of India

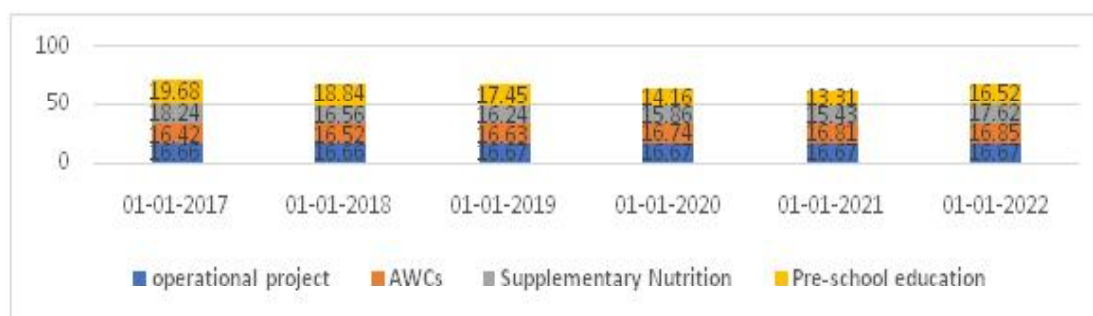


Figure 1: Percentage of year-wise Anganwadi centres and beneficiaries in India

Source: Ministry of Women and Child Development, Govt. of India

Table 1 and Figure 1 show year-wise Anganwadi centre and beneficiaries in India. In 1975, there were only 33 total operational projects during the year; by 2022, that number had increased to 7075. The percentage of operational Anganwadi centres increased from 16.42 to 16.85% during the 2017–2022 year; the percentage of beneficiaries receiving supplemental nutrition decreased from 18.24 to 17.62 percent, and the percentage of beneficiaries receiving preschool education decreased from 19.68 to 16.52 percent during the 2007–213 year. The table indicates that the number of operational projects, Anganwadi centres, supplementary nutrition, and pre-school-educated beneficiaries increased significantly year over year.

Table 2: Budget allocation for Women and Child Development services in India

(Rupees in Crore)

S. No.	Years	Budget Estimates	%
1.	2017-18	15,245.19	13.57%
2.	2018-19	16,334.88	14.54%
3.	2019-20	19,834.37	17.66%
4.	2020-21	20,532.38	18.28%
5.	2021-22	20,105.00	17.90%
6.	2020-23*	20,263.07	18.04%
	Total	1,12,314.89	100.00

Source: Ministry of Women and Child Development, Govt. of India

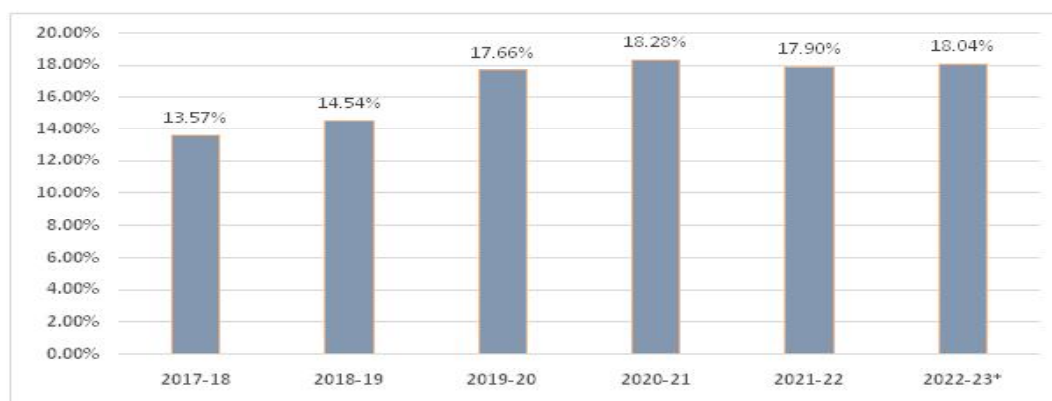


Figure 2: Budget Allocation for women and child development services in India

Source: Ministry of Women and Child Development, Govt. of India

Table No. 2 and Figure No. 2 show the Indian government's financial allotment for the development of women and children. In India, the budget for women's and children's development services was 13.57% in 2017–18; however, in 2022–2023—a noteworthy increase of 18.04% percent was allotted to these programmes. It demonstrates how the government has significantly increased funding for services related to women's and children's development.

Table 3: Revision of cost norms for supplementary nutrition

(in Rupees per day per beneficiary)

S. No.	Categories	Pre-revised rates	Revised rates
1	Children (6-72 months)	6.00	8.00
2	Pregnant women & lactating Mothers	7.00	9.50
3	Severely Malnourished Children	9.00	12.00

Source: Ministry of Women and Child Development, Govt. of India

Table 3 shows the revision of cost norms for supplementary nutrition development by the government of India. The revised cost norms for supplementary nutrition under the Anganwadi Services for children (6-72 months), pregnant women, and severely malnourished children were approved by the government in October 2017. The amended prices are as follows: rupees 8, 9.5, and 12 have replaced the prior rates of rupees 6, 7, and 9.

Conclusion

In India, the Anganwadi system represents a vital pillar of support for communities grappling with issues of poverty, disease, child mortality, and illiteracy. With over a million centres nationwide, staffed predominantly by women trained in health, nutrition, and childcare, these centres play a crucial role in delivering essential services to approximately 1000 people each. Through the ICDS program, Anganwadi workers undertake a range of responsibilities, including providing supplementary nutrition, health education, immunization, health check-ups, and non-formal preschool education.

These centres serve as hubs for promoting holistic well-being, catering not only to the needs of mothers and children but also contributing to the broader welfare of society. By immunizing children and expectant mothers, offering nutrition support, and delivering crucial healthcare services, Anganwadi centres are instrumental in addressing health disparities and promoting early childhood development.

Furthermore, by providing preschool instruction and fostering an environment conducive to learning and growth, Anganwadi centres lay the foundation for a brighter future for the younger generation. However, to ensure the effective delivery of services and the attainment of predetermined objectives, these centres must engage in rigorous monitoring and evaluation

processes. By identifying areas of improvement and implementing corrective measures, Anganwadi centres can continue to fulfill their mandate and contribute significantly to the overall welfare of society.

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"Unfolding the trends and consequences of Employment among Government and Private School Teachers in India: A NEP 2020 Perspective"

Jaya Pandey & Prof. Girish Mohan Dubey

Abstract

A teacher who is well-pleased in their job position can carry out various kinds of duties effectively & efficiently. Also, they will be in a position to fulfil the educational objectives and national goals. Quality education is entirely dependent on the excellence of the teachers, but it has been observed in the latest report of Unified District Information System for Education Plus (UDISE+) that there is a huge drop in the number of school teachers which has been dropped from 96 lakhs (2020-21) to 95 lakhs (2021-22). The primary task of the paper is to analyse the trends and consequences of employment among school teachers in India, to find what causes the decline in the number of teachers, and to suggest corrective measures. This paper is of a descriptive and exploratory nature and is based on secondary data which has been gathered from UDISE+ Annual reports from the period 2012-13 to 2021-22, Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) 2021-22, and also from various journals, government websites, periodic publications, newspapers, etc.

Keywords: *Employment; School Education; Government teachers; Private teachers; UDISE+; NEP 2020;*

1. Introduction

Over 26.52 crore students are being taught by over 95 lakh teachers in 14.89 lakh schools. It should come as no surprise that India has one of the greatest educational systems in the world. But what about the quality? The recently released Unified District Information System for Education Plus [(UDISE+), 2021-22] report packs plenty of sad news. As there has been a decline of approx. 1.89 lakh teachers. The UDISE+ is not alone in raising the scantiness of teachers in India. Many Indian academics and groups approve that there is a

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severe shortage of teachers. IZA Institute of Labour Economics, (2021) shows that eight states have net teacher deficits, which accounts for approx. 1.73 lakh teachers, of which 86% are in only four states (Bihar, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh), implying that national policymakers need to focus on teacher shortage mainly in these four states. Another study co-authored by the education advisor to India's NITI Ayog and director, of Boston Consulting Group stated that "India today suffers from the twin challenges of unviable sub-scale schools and a severe shortage of teachers", (Times of India 2019). Forbes India, (2019) also mentioned an acute shortage of educators across states with 597,906 vacancies at the secondary level and 316,865 vacancies at the higher secondary level. The majority of these vacancies, accounting for 78% are concentrated in Jammu & Kashmir, followed by 65% in Uttar Pradesh and 35% in Bihar. According to a report by The Indian Express, (2018) there is a shortfall of over five lakh elementary school teachers in India, and 14% of government secondary schools do not have the required minimum of six teachers. This teacher shortage in Indian government schools makes it difficult for students to receive a decent education. All these reports signal that there is a serious need for an improvement in the ability of the education system to retain more and more teachers. Any educational system's ability to perform successfully is primarily dependent on its teachers, students, curriculum, and infrastructure.

2. Review of Literature

Shankar (2023), in his article, mentioned problems of the teachers which are leading them to protest and these are the return of the previous pension plan, the abolition of the contractual appointment of teachers, and higher grade pay. This widespread unrest reflects their deep-seated concern and dissatisfaction with the current state of education sector.

Parvin (2021), in his paper, highlighted the problems of teachers in India, which are related to selection procedure, lack of professional development & ICT training, physical & mental pressure among teachers, not-so-handsome salary, less focus on research & innovations, poor infrastructure, traditional curriculum, employment instability, etc., are some of the major problems faced by teachers in India.

Doss et al. (2018), carried out research to compare and determine the professional burnout and occupational stress levels among teachers in government and private schools. They discovered that because of the unfavourable working conditions and misbehaviour of students, government teachers experience higher levels of occupational stress and professional burnout than private teachers.

Akhtar (2013), in her research paper, compared the reasons for absenteeism among government and private school teachers and found that the teachers from private schools avail less leave or no leave than teachers from government schools as they are more insecure about their jobs. Government teachers avail more leave as they are dissatisfied with the working conditions and are more secure about their job.

3. Research Objectives

The study revolves around the following objectives:

- A. To study the trend of employment among government and private school teachers in India.
- B. To analyse the causes of the decline in the number of teachers in India.
- C. To provide policy recommendations to overcome the problems faced by government and private school teachers.

4. Research Methodology

The paper is descriptive and exploratory in nature. To achieve the objectives of the paper, the data is mainly extracted from secondary sources, such as the Unified District Information System for Education Plus (UDISE+) Annual Reports from 2012-13 to 2021-22, Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) 2021-22, various national and international journals, government websites, periodic publications, newspapers, etc.

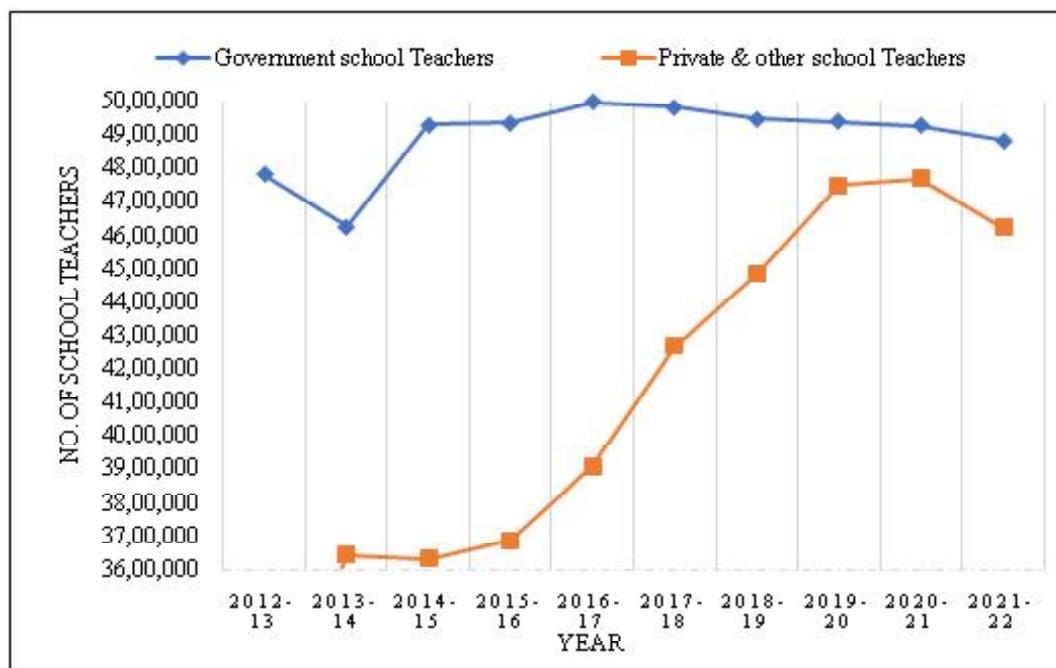
5. Employment Trend among School Teachers in India

Teachers have a huge role to play in determining the future of this nation. At present, India has 95.07 lakh teachers and is poised to become a global superpower in the coming decades still it is suffering great damage as we are losing a lot of teachers. With the help of tables and graphs drawn below current employment status of teachers has been decoded.

Table 1: Government & Private School Teachers in India

Year	Govt. Teachers	% Share	Pvt. & other Teachers	% Share	Total Teachers
2012-13	47,81,969	61.09	3044764	38.91	78,26,733
2013-14	46,26,748	55.95	3642451	44.05	82,69,199
2014-15	49,31,149	57.60	3630772	42.40	85,61,921
2015-16	49,36,414	57.30	3685508	42.70	86,21,922
2016-17	49,97,350	56.10	3908461	43.90	89,05,811
2017-18	49,81,422	53.90	4265939	46.10	92,47,361
2018-19	49,47,608	52.50	4483231	47.50	94,30,839
2019-20	49,38,868	51.00	4748709	49.00	96,87,577
2020-21	49,27,099	50.80	4769326	49.20	96,96,425
2021-22	48,82,446	51.35	4624677	48.65	95,07,123

Source: <https://dashboard.udiseplus.gov.in/#/reportDashboard/tDashboard>

Figure 1: Government and Private School Teachers in India

Source: Author's interpretation (based on Table 1)

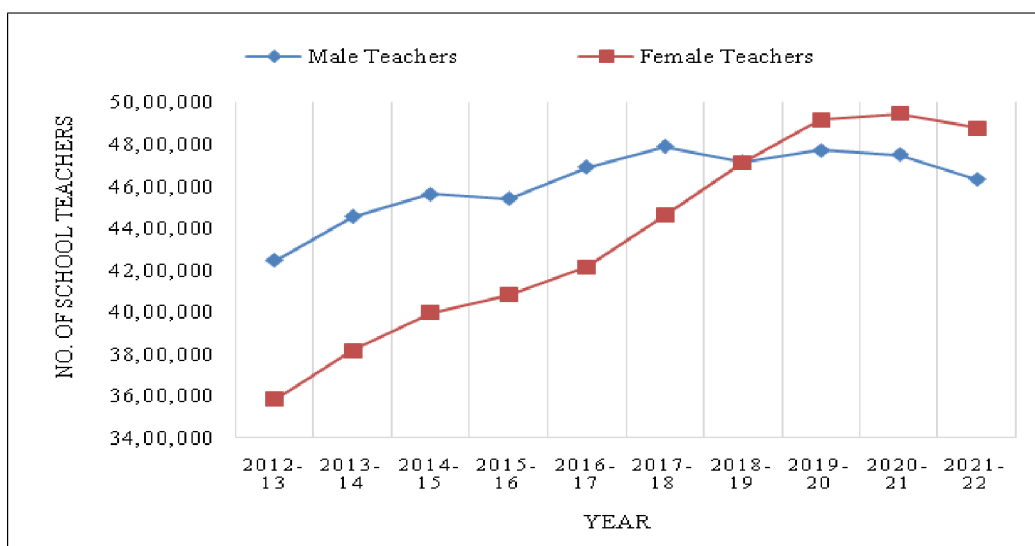
From table 1, it can be inferred that in the year 2021-22, 51.35% of teachers work in government schools, and the rest 48.65% work in private & other schools. It is observed that government schools across the country saw a decrease of over 44 thousand teachers while private school teachers declined by over 20 thousand from year 2020-21 to 2021-22. From Fig. 1 also, it is evident that the decline of government teachers has been going on for the last 5 years, as this number has dropped by approx. 1.14 lakh from 2016-17 to 2021-22. The graph depicts that the situation of private school teachers as well was also not so good, as after the year 2012-13, there was a stagnation up to 2014-15. Even the rate of increase slowed down after the year 2016-17. Eventually, there was a downfall in the no. of private school teachers in the year 2021-22.

Table 2: Male and Female School Teachers in India

Year	Male Teachers	% Share	Female Teachers	% Share	Total Teachers
2012-13	42,44,280	54.20	35,82,450	45.80	78,26,733
2013-14	44,53,791	53.90	38,15,408	46.10	82,69,199
2014-15	45,64,427	53.30	39,97,494	46.70	85,61,921
2015-16	45,38,790	52.65	40,83,132	47.35	86,21,922
2016-17	46,90,236	52.70	42,15,575	47.30	89,05,811
2017-18	47,87,647	51.80	44,59,714	48.20	92,47,361
2018-19	47,16,607	50.10	47,14,232	49.90	94,30,839
2019-20	47,71,638	49.25	49,15,939	50.75	96,87,577
2020-21	47,49,351	49.00	49,47,074	51.00	96,96,425
2021-22	46,30,391	48.70	48,76,732	51.30	95,07,123

Source: <https://dashboard.udiseplus.gov.in/#/reportDashboard/tDashboard>

Figure 2: Male and Female School Teachers in India



Source: Author's interpretation (based on Table 2)

Table 2 represents the number of male and female school teachers in India. Female teachers are dominating with the share of 51.30% followed by male teachers with 48.70%. Initially, the rate of increase in number of teachers among both the categories was satisfying as there was an increase in the number teachers, though they were increasing at a decreasing rate. After 2017-18 and up to 2021-22 there was a drop of near about 1.57 lakh male teachers. Even the school teachers from the female category witnessed a stagnation state between the years 2018-19 to 2020-21, as is visible in Fig 2. Ultimately, there was a decline of 70 thousand female school teachers from year 2020-21 to year 2021-22. Overall, there has been a decline of almost 1.8 lakh teachers in total, across different schools in the country between the year 2020-21 to 2021-22.

6. What causes the decline in the number of Teachers in India?

The report entitled “The Right Teacher for Every Child” by Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS 2023), provides an overview of the state of teachers’ qualifications, availability, and deployment across India, revealing that inadequate working conditions in the private sector and irregular recruitment procedures in the governmental sector had an impact on the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Further, the report showed that almost 38% of government school teachers taught different classes simultaneously in the same classroom. Along with that they also had to deal with declining student attendance. According to the report of Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) 2021-22, more than 50% of teachers in private schools are working without any written contracts. Private school teachers’ salary is 35% of government school teachers. Also, 57% of private school teachers are not eligible for any benefits. Kumar Sardar (2021), quoted low salaries of private school teachers as one of the important factors that discourage the working spirit. Another problem is that private schools do not receive any grants and aid from the government hampers the performance of private schools. Absolute dependence of parents on teachers is another reason quoted by Basumatary, (2017). Most of the parents neither care about their children’s home study nor evaluate their children’s progress and prefer to simply leave everything up to the teachers only. Parihar & Mahmood (2016), reported factors such as stress among teachers due to long and unsociable working hours, time pressure with deadlines, overload due to an excess number of periods, and not-so-good inter-personal relations with superiors & colleagues, etc., are the major reasons why teachers are losing interest in their profession. All this demotivates and shatters the passion of the teachers.

7. The way forward: NEP 2020 & Government initiatives to restore Teaching Profession

The National Education Policy (NEP), 2020 is a comprehensive framework, that aims to transform India’s education sector. To restore the high status of the teaching profession the NEP 2020 made following recommendations:

❖ **Pre-service Teacher Education:** Recommended introduction of 4-year integrated B.Ed. as a dual-major holistic Bachelor's degree, a 2-year B.Ed. programme for students who have already received a 3-Bachelor's degree and a 1-year B.Ed. for candidates who have received a 4-year undergraduate degree.

❖ **Providing Quality Teachers in the School System:** The selection of teacher's classroom demonstration or interview will be an integral part, apart from TET or NTA test scores.

❖ **Development of National Curriculum for Teacher Education:** A new and comprehensive National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE) will be formulated to outline an inspiring vision of teacher education, covering both pre-service and in-service teacher education.

❖ **Improving Working Conditions for Teachers:** Recommended to ensure decent and pleasant service conditions at schools, and not engaging teachers any longer in work that is not directly related to teaching.

❖ **Continuous Professional Development of Teachers and Teacher Educators:** The policy has given due importance to the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) Programme for teachers in multiple modes, such as, workshops, online teacher development modules, etc. Each teacher will be expected to participate in at least 50 hours of CPD opportunities every year

❖ **Systemic Reform for Teacher Education:** By 2030, only educationally sound, multidisciplinary, and integrated teacher education programmes shall be in force. The use of technology platforms such as SWAYAM/DIKSHA for online training of teachers will be encouraged.

❖ **Recognition and Promotion of Teachers:** Promotions and salary increase will occur only on the basis of appraisal. Performance assessment will be based on peer reviews, attendance, hours of CPD, or based on National Professional Standard for Teachers (NPST) developed by NCTE.

Other govt. initiatives are as follows:

National Initiative for School Heads' and Teachers' Holistic Advancement (NISHTHA), 21st August, 2019

To improve teachers' skills, competencies, and understanding of innovative teaching methodologies. <https://ciet.nic.in/nishthaonline.php>

National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS), 3rd October, 2017
Entrusted with the task to train the untrained in-service elementary teachers, through 'Open Distance Learning Mode'. <https://www.nios.ac.in/dled.aspx>

Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA), March, 2009
Provides financial assistance to states for teacher training. Ministry of Education,

<https://www.education.gov.in/rmsa>

National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), 17th August, 1995

Conducts programs for teacher education, including setting standards for teacher training. Formulated National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education, (NCFTE) <https://ncte.gov.in/website/index.aspx>

State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT), 27th July, 1988

Introduced new approach of training interventions, competency-based modules. <https://scert.delhi.gov.in>

National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), 27th July, 1961

Organises workshops, online courses, and provides teaching-learning materials. <https://dsel.education.gov.in/ncert>

8. Recommendations

- ❖ Teachers are regarded as the best and most knowledgeable people, but their employment conditions are not up to the par. It is urgent to restore the dignity of school teaching as a profession. Here are some of the recommendations so as to attract talented people towards this profession in significant quantity:
- ❖ First and foremost, a suitable method for choosing the right applicant has to be established. Only applicants with a strong teaching aptitude and a strong dedication for the teaching profession should be recruited.
- ❖ Teachers' professional development is a continuous process. For this purpose, new orientation programmes, seminars, symposiums, refresher courses, and short-term courses have to be offered frequently.
- ❖ Non-teaching official duties such as electoral activities, surveys/camps, clerical work, etc., should not be allowed to interfere with the teaching process.
- ❖ Teachers in schools undergo a lot of stress. It is necessary to have anti-stress programmes at workplace. In order to attain a harmonious balance between their personal and professional life, educators have to include approaches like yoga and meditation.
- ❖ Many schools presently have depressing working and service conditions. It has to be enhanced to encourage educators' commitment as well as dedication to their profession.
- ❖ At last schools should ensure competitive salaries. Monetary & non-monetary incentives and timely increment in pay will help to retain teachers in their profession.

9. Conclusion

Recruitment is a continuous process and vacancies get generated due to several factors like retirement, resignation, etc. The majority of the school teachers neither felt secure nor were satisfied with their social status, chances of promotion, and fringe benefits being presently provided to them. Hence, they prefer to quit this profession or switch their profession.

One of the articles in The Hindustan Times (2016), pointed out that, “In some states, appointments of regular teachers have almost stopped. States appear to be doing this to save money. In Delhi alone, there are more than 12,000 vacancies, which is a modest estimate.” An excellent education provides the best foundation for enduring peace and sustainable prosperity. So, both the government and private schools should recruit a greater number of teachers with professional qualifications, provide decent service conditions, and should offer career development opportunities to attract them. Thus, it is concluded that the problems that are confronted by government & private schools during the process of imparting quality education should be taken care of. Also, the government should make all possible efforts to satisfy the teachers as recommended by various Commissions on Education and the provisions of National Education Policies promulgated from time to time in the past.

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The Role of Digitalization And The Banking Sector In Implementing Various Government Schemes For Financial Inclusion (Through The JAM Trinity)

Indrani Chakravarty & Dr. Hitesh Kesarwani

ABSTRACT:

“Social Protection” includes public measures taken to prevent contingency-based or chronic deprivation. These measures aim at providing essential services and a minimum level of income to people over a life cycle, thus aiming at children, working-age adults, and the older segment. Digitalisation has taken the world by storm and the banking sector is no exception. Digitalisation is actually adaptation of a system, process, etc. to be operated with the use of computers and the internet. Digitalization uses digital technologies and digitized information and data, leveraging its power. This ushering of digitized information has helped the government to frame policies and programmes accordingly. The future of the banking sector lies in fintech or digital financial services and financial inclusion has been defined as “the process of ensuring access to financial services, timely and adequate credit for vulnerable groups such as weaker sections and low-income groups at an affordable cost”. (Committee on Financial Inclusion - Chairman: Dr. C Rangarajan, RBI, 2008). India’s digital disruptor in chief is the Government of India and what it has done is that it has laid the public infrastructure on which private models can be built to take advantage of what technology is bringing about. Jan Dhan, Aadhar and mobile have formed the Holy Trinity on which this entire interface has been built. The Committee on Medium-Term Path to Financial Inclusion (Chairman: Shri Deepak Mohanty, RBI, 2015) has set the vision for financial inclusion as, “convenient access to a basket of basic formal financial products and services that should include savings, remittance, credit, government-supported insurance and pension products to small and marginal farmers and low-income households at reasonable cost with adequate protection progressively supplemented by social cash transfers, besides increasing the access of small and marginal enterprises to formal finance with a greater reliance on technology to cut costs and

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improve service delivery. The direct benefit transfer (DBT Scheme) of the GOI has been instrumental in reaching cashless financial services at the hands of small farmers thus underplaying cumbersome processes of the past and also mitigating middlemen and thus ensuring transparency in the whole process.

KEY WORDS: *Digitalization, Financial Inclusion, PMJDY, JAM Trinity, Financial Literacy*

SCOPE OF THE STUDY:

This paper will analyze the impact of digitalization and its reach in the banking sector subsequently leading to the development and activation of financial inclusion thus reaching the benefits of government schemes and banking to the person standing last in the queue availing financial services. Various secondary data sources would be accessed for compiling the data and how the study can be used further by government and various other participating agencies in making policy decisions and framing future course of action leading to successful implementation of digitalization leading to financial inclusion. The lacuna in the area will also be analyzed and the paper would suggest measures to overcome the same.

INTRODUCTION:

The role of digitalization and the banking sector in implementing various government schemes for financial inclusion through the JAM trinity is pivotal. Digitalization enables the creation of accessible and efficient platforms for financial transactions while the banking sector acts as the backbone in providing banking services to the unbanked and the underbanked population. Government schemes, integrated through the JAM trinity (Jan Dhan Yojana, Aadhar and Mobile) leverage digital infrastructure to facilitate direct benefit transfers, subsidies and other financial services to individuals, especially in remote areas. This synergy fosters greater financial inclusion by bridging the gap between the excluded population and formal financial services, thereby promoting economic empowerment and social development. PMJDY (Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojna) was launched by the Indian Prime Minister with the motto of 'Sabka Saath Sabka Vikaas' to provide easy and accessible financial services to weaker and low-income group. It aimed at providing low-cost financial services like savings, insurance, credit, remittances etc and was designed keeping in view the needs of the bottom of the pyramid segment. PMJDY opened record accounts on its day of launch reflecting the financial instability prevailing in these areas which could be stabilized through availability of financial services and products to these people. Under this scheme, each household was required to open an account and operate it to avail its additional benefits of accidental insurance and overdrafts. PMJDY seeded every account with Aadhaar number of the beneficiary which was a measure to prevent the leakage in the payment system under Direct Benefit Transfer (DBT) scheme in order to transfer subsidies. JDY also streamlined the role of technology i.e. internet or mobile banking to reach the areas where banks could not make their presence. This integrated approach through Jan Dhan, Aadhaar and Mobile (JAM) was a step to change both rural and urban landscape by making common people financially secure

and stable so that they can attain self development and sustainability along with participation in nation building.(P Samant, A Singh, R Dwivedi,2017). The National Strategy for Financial Inclusion 2019-2024 sets forth the vision and key objectives of the financial inclusion policies in India to help expand and sustain the financial inclusion process at the national level through a broad convergence of action involving all the stakeholders in the financial sector. National Strategy for Financial Inclusion (NSFI):2019-2024(RBI REPORTS 10/01/2020)

The strategy aims to provide access to formal financial services in an affordable manner, broadening & deepening financial inclusion and promoting financial literacy & consumer protection. (RBI Reports,10/01/2020, National Strategy for Financial Inclusion (NSFI): 2019-2024)



SOURCE: RBI REPORTS National Strategy for Financial Inclusion (NSFI): 2019-2024

Defining Financial Inclusion in the Indian Context

Financial inclusion has been defined as “the process of ensuring access to financial services, timely and adequate credit for vulnerable groups such as weaker sections and low-income groups at an affordable cost”. (Committee on Financial Inclusion - Chairman: Dr C Rangarajan, RBI, 2008). The Committee on Medium-Term Path to Financial Inclusion (Chairman: Shri Deepak Mohanty, RBI, 2015) has set the vision for financial inclusion as, “convenient access to a basket of basic formal financial products and services that should include savings, remittance, credit, government-supported insurance and pension products to small and marginal farmers and low-income households at reasonable cost with adequate protection

progressively supplemented by social cash transfers, besides increasing the access of small and marginal enterprises to formal finance with a greater reliance on technology to cut costs and improve service delivery,”

Figure 1.1 - Causes of Financial Exclusion



“Digitization” and “digitalization” are two conceptual terms that are closely associated and often used interchangeably in a broad range of literatures. Digitalization allows banks to analyze transaction data and consumer behavior, helping tailor financial products and services to meet the needs of unserved populations. This data driven approach enhances financial inclusion efforts. It is needless to state that digital literacy is the need of the hour to reach the benefits of government schemes through the JAM trinity leading to financial inclusion. Digital financial literacy is critical at the present time. We know that now all financial services and products are available in digital form in almost all economies globally, including India; the present government is also focusing on cashless India and digital India (Prasad et al. 2018).

Nowadays, governments are creating initiatives to increase digital literacy among the citizens of their respective countries. As far as the Indian government is concerned, one of the latest campaigns is the Pradhan Mantri Gramin Digital Saksharta Abhiyan Yojana. Under this, the Government of India aims to provide digital literacy to 60 million citizens in rural India (Nedungadi et al. 2018). The Indian government is also promoting Digital India, which aims to ensure that government services are made available to citizens electronically by reducing paperwork (Goswami 2016).

LITERATURE REVIEW:

(MAVALE, 2014) Large part of the population is still unbanked and financially excluded and thus falls prey to poverty. Many financial reforms have been taken in the past but benefits could not be delivered to the last mile. PMJDY is a scheme for inclusion but it suffers from various challenges and obstacles which need to be worked on strategically to attain the goal. (Bhatt, Madhurima) Banks play a key role in making PMJDY a success through operating

strategically. It also discusses the previous schemes for inclusion and the shortcoming of those schemes. It analyzes the PMJDY and also suggests ways to have maximum impact on society. Many innovative methods like implementation of technology in remote areas, use of biometric verification etc should be used to open the accounts. The drawback of PMJDY is duplication of accounts which should be minimized by a proper monitoring system. (Finance Report, 2015) The report brings out three components of JAM: identification of beneficiary, transfer to the beneficiary and providing access to beneficiary. It explains the JAM preparedness index to measure the capacity to work enthusiastically to make JAM a success and suggests that the biggest obstacle in JAM's success is getting money from banks and last mile delivery. Report reflects the work done under PAHAL (NGO) for transferring subsidies which reduced the leakage by 24%. Thus spreading JAM across the country would be helpful in reducing the leakages in the system and reaching the real beneficiary. Two aspects to be considered in implementing JAM are: amount of leakages and the control by the central government. (Aishwarya Singh, 2015) reveals through her study that PMJDY has succeeded in reaching weaker sections and opening record accounts. Strategies adopted for implementation were appreciable and it has made a presence in most unbanked areas. Unavailability of agents or Bank Mitras, small remuneration or commission for agents, poor connectivity etc still acts as a hindrance at implementation stage. (Gupta, 2015) studied the performance and the problems encountered post implementation of PMJDY. Curbing the duplication of accounts, maintaining the cost of zero balance accounts and keeping these accounts active are areas of concern for the policymakers. (Singh, 2015) highlighted the achievements of PMJDY and its benefits. He also explained the steps taken by RBI under financial inclusion to connect to the financial system. The paper concluded that PMJDY is a landmark which in a short span of time attracted millions of unbanked households to connect to the formal banking system. But still certain areas need to be managed strategically including recruitment of staff, ensuring that Jan Dhan accounts are active, participation from private players, role of Gram panchayat or local bodies, role of post offices etc only then we can eradicate 'financial untouchability' which has been prevalent since decades. (P, 2015) suggests that reaching the unbanked through PMJDY will boost the rural economy and various government schemes will reach the real beneficiary. More than 70% of the Jan Dhan accounts opened are active which has led to an increase in these accounts. People have started doing transactions in these accounts, government subsidies are transferred through these accounts so that it can minimize the leakage and benefit the weaker section. Mobile banking is seen as an emerging technology that offers freedom in terms of location and timings for the use which leads to large convenience for masses in India (Laukkanen & Lauronen, 2005).

DIGITALIZATION:

Digitalization plays a crucial role in the banking sector's implementation of various government schemes for financial inclusion through the JAM Trinity (Jan Dhan Yojana, Aadhaar, and

Mobile). Digitalization enables banks to efficiently open Jan Dhan accounts for unbanked individuals. These accounts serve as the foundation for accessing government schemes and benefits. Aadhaar authentication facilitates the verification of beneficiaries, reducing duplication and ensuring targeted delivery of subsidies and welfare benefits directly into bank accounts, thus minimizing leakages. Digitalization enables seamless mobile banking services, empowering individuals, especially in remote areas, to access financial services conveniently. Mobile banking facilitates transactions, balance inquiries, and access to government schemes on the go. Digitalization allows banks to analyze transaction data and customer behavior, helping tailor financial products and services to meet the needs of underserved populations. This data-driven approach enhances financial inclusion efforts. Digitalization enhances the reach of banking services through technologies like biometric authentication and mobile banking agents, ensuring last-mile connectivity to remote areas, where physical bank branches are often inaccessible.

PRADHAN MANTRI JAN DHAN YOJANA: INITIATIVE TO REACH THE POOR:

The Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY) is a flagship financial inclusion initiative launched by the Government of India in August 2014. Its primary objective is to ensure access to financial services, such as banking savings and deposit accounts, remittances, credit, insurance, and pension, to the unbanked population of India. PMJDY aims to provide universal access to banking facilities for all households in India, particularly targeting the unbanked and underbanked segments of the population. The scheme offers basic savings bank deposit accounts with no minimum balance requirements, providing access to banking services to individuals who may not meet traditional banking criteria. PMJDY emphasizes financial literacy and awareness programs to educate individuals about the benefits of banking services, savings, insurance, and digital transactions. Account holders under PMJDY receive a RuPay debit card, enabling cashless transactions and access to ATMs, thereby promoting digital payments and financial inclusion. PMJDY provides accidental insurance coverage to account holders, offering financial security to vulnerable populations. The scheme includes an overdraft facility for eligible account holders, providing them with access to credit and emergency funds.

THE JAM TRINITY

The JAM Trinity refers to the convergence of three key initiatives introduced by the Government of India to promote financial inclusion and efficient delivery of subsidies and welfare benefits. The components of the JAM Trinity are: As mentioned earlier, the Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY) aims to ensure universal access to banking services, particularly for the unbanked population, by providing basic savings accounts, RuPay debit cards, and access to financial services. Aadhaar is India's biometric identification system, which assigns a unique 12-digit identification number (UID) to each resident of India. Aadhaar authentication facilitates the verification of individuals' identities and enables direct

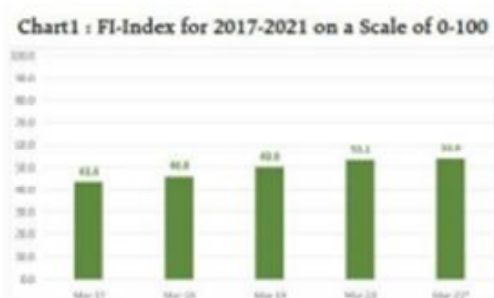
benefit transfers (DBT) by linking bank accounts to Aadhaar numbers, ensuring targeted delivery of subsidies and welfare benefits while minimizing leakages. Mobile technology plays a crucial role in the JAM Trinity by providing a platform for accessing financial services and government schemes. Mobile banking applications and USSD-based banking services enable individuals, particularly those in remote areas, to conduct transactions, check balances, and access government services using their mobile phones.

BANKS AND FINANCIAL INCLUSION

Banks have been actively expanding their branch networks and adopting innovative delivery channels to reach underserved and unbanked areas. This expansion includes setting up brick-and-mortar branches in rural and remote areas, as well as leveraging digital banking channels such as mobile banking apps and internet banking platforms. Banks have been instrumental in implementing the Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY) by facilitating the opening of basic savings accounts for millions of previously unbanked individuals. Through PMJDY, banks have also issued RuPay debit cards and provided access to insurance and pension schemes, thereby deepening financial inclusion. Banks have been working towards extending credit facilities to marginalized and economically weaker sections of society, including small farmers, micro-enterprises, and women entrepreneurs. Initiatives such as priority sector lending and microfinance have helped in improving access to credit for these segments, fostering economic empowerment and development. Banks have been actively involved in conducting financial literacy and education programs to enhance the financial awareness and capabilities of customers, especially in rural and semi-urban areas. These programs aim to promote responsible financial behavior and empower individuals to make informed decisions about savings, investments, and borrowing. Banks are increasingly embracing digital transformation to enhance customer experience and expand their reach. Digital banking services such as mobile banking, internet banking, and digital payment platforms have become essential tools for promoting financial inclusion, enabling customers to access banking services conveniently and securely, irrespective of geographical barriers. Banks have been collaborating with the government and other stakeholders to implement various financial inclusion initiatives effectively. This includes the integration of Aadhaar for biometric authentication and direct benefit transfers, as well as participation in schemes such as the Pradhan Mantri Mudra Yojana (PMMY) to provide collateral-free loans to small businesses and entrepreneurs.

Year	Access	Usage	Quality	FI-Index
Mar-17	61.7	30.8	48.5	43.4
Mar-18	63.9	33.7	51.4	46
Mar-19	67.5	38.7	52.6	49.9
Mar-20	71.6	42	53.8	53.1
Mar-21*	73.3	43	50.7	53.9

*Some of the data points are provisional.



Source: RBI BULLETIN (Financial Inclusion Index For India: 16/09/2021)

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

Objectives of Study: This paper is an attempt to understand how JAM Trinity and digitalization will benefit the banking sector in implementing government schemes for financial inclusion and areas which require more efforts to achieve the objective of financial inclusion. The broad objectives of the paper are:

- To understand the concept of JAM Trinity and its role in Financial Inclusion and the reforms made in the past for inclusion.
- To highlight the importance of financial literacy in implementation of financial inclusion.
- To analyze the performance of digitalization and the banking sector in implementing various government schemes for financial inclusion.

Data is drawn from secondary sources including research papers from journals, articles, magazines, reports, websites, books etc to arrive at the findings in the paper.

DATA ANALYSIS & FINDINGS:

Performance of digitalization and financial literacy and role of JAM trinity in inducing financial inclusion is analyzed taking various factors into account. factors include: no. of accounts opened under PMJDY, Aadhar seeded accounts, mobile and internet penetration, role of banks in implementing government schemes for financial inclusion and financial literacy. Time taken is from July 2021- December 2023. The analysis of PMJDY accounts opened indicates an increasing trend in the number of Jan Dhan accounts opened throughout

India. By the end of Dec 2021, 13 crores accounts were opened which increased to 14 crore by the end of December 2022. This number further increased by more than 1.5 crores by December 2023, indicating that the large number of Indians had strong financial needs in the form of credit, insurance etc. which were met through PMJDY and participated actively in the drive of financial inclusion. one unique feature of the Yojna was to link the Jan Dhan accounts with the Aadhaar cards. The process of Aadhaar seeding began in 2015. the analytics available on pmjdy.gov.in reflects the increasing trend in the number of Aadhaar linked with Jan Dhan accounts. This will help in direct benefit transfer of various subsidies and also prevent the leakage in the system. The duplicacy of Jan Dhan accounts can also be removed with this feature. As per the data, almost 35cr Aadhaar numbers were seeded to Jan Dhan

accounts which will help the benefits to reach the beneficiary directly. The mobile and internet penetration in India also increased from 46.93 crores to 50.09 crores which is an impressive record and is essential for financial inclusion as it leads to convenience in banking and financial transactions. Further study of the contribution of banks in financial inclusion shows that SBI and other nationalized banks have contributed significantly in reaching the benefits of financial inclusion in India with regional rural banks also playing a major role. In the state of UP and Uttarakhand also the internet penetration has increased and PMJDY accounts have covered more than half of the population in both rural and urban areas indicating significant success of digital financial literacy initiatives of GOI. The available data shows that maximum accounts under Jan Dhan Yojna were opened through Public Sector Banks (12.04%) followed by Regional Rural Banks (3.96%) and Private Banks (0.54%). There should be more participation from RRBs and Private sector banks to make the initiative a success.

LIMITATIONS OF FINANCIAL INCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS:

Financial inclusion, while crucial for economic development, faces several limitations and infrastructure challenges: In many regions, especially rural areas, lack of banking infrastructure, including ATMs and branches, hinders access to financial services. Limited financial literacy and awareness about banking products and services can prevent individuals from fully benefiting from financial inclusion initiatives. While digital banking has the potential to expand financial inclusion, disparities in access to technology and internet connectivity can widen the gap between those included and excluded leading to digital divide. Stringent regulatory requirements and documentation can pose barriers, particularly for marginalized communities or individuals without formal identification of documents. Financial institutions may offer limited products tailored to the needs of underserved populations, such as microloans or microinsurance, restricting access to essential financial services. Serving low income and rural populations may be perceived as risky and costly for financial institutions, leading to reluctance in extending services to these segments. Remote and rural areas often lack access to financial services due to their geographical isolation, making it economically unsupporting for traditional banks to establish branches.

RECOMMENDATION: Addressing these limitations requires a holistic approach involving government policies, regulatory reforms, technological innovations, and community empowerment initiatives to ensure equitable access to financial services for all segments of society.

CONCLUSION:

The success of JAM resides in expansion of banking services, adoption of technology, increase in accounts usage by the beneficiary, seeding of Aadhaar numbers etc. Efforts are required to educate people on the importance and use of banking services along with digital literacy as it will result in creation of a cashless society. The need is to achieve inclusion along with sustainability which requires designing the products which best suit the needs of every segment of the society. The objective here should not only end at opening accounts rather it should provide initial handholding support to people and help them follow the self-help model as it will result in long term sustainability and growth. Still many people do not have Aadhaar numbers or people having numbers have not linked the account with it, efforts are needed in both directions.

Technology can work as a catalyst in fostering inclusion but several remote regions face issues of poor connectivity, digital illiteracy, resistance in technology adoption etc. To cope with these issues other channels like eKYC, Mobile/Internet Banking, Rupay Debit cards, Micro ATMs etc should be encouraged along with educating and making people understand the benefits. Many accounts still are inactive so to resolve this problem the government should encourage DBT (Direct Benefit Transfer) in reaching the real beneficiary. Benefits like pension, overdraft, insurance, scholarship etc should also be transferred through these accounts. There is a need to develop strong monitoring and implementation structure mechanisms so the gap could be easily identified and necessary action can be taken. Besides these, other strategies to make the JAM successful involve recruitment of local staff and proper training, encourage PPPP (Public Private People Panchayat) model, linking MSMEs sector with PMJDY as this will generate employment and act as source of income which fosters inclusion, micro credit can also be provided through these accounts, linking postal network with Jan Dhan accounts as post offices have presence in every village. Use of ATM Van in the rural areas where people travel miles to reach the bank will not only save time but also develop a habit to use the ATM cards. Digitalization, coupled with the concerted efforts of the government and the banking sector, has the potential to transform the landscape of financial inclusion in India. By leveraging the JAM Trinity and implementing various schemes, India can advance its agenda of inclusive growth and economic development, ensuring that all segments of society have access to and benefit from formal financial services.

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Working Conditions and Quality of Life of Women Street Vendors: A Case Study of Magh Mela, Prayagraj

Shashi Singh & Dr. Ravindra Pratap Singh

Abstract

Street vending has become one of the most important economic activities that can be seen in any urban informal sector of an economy as it generates employment and income opportunities. However, Street vending activities were neglected by the government until street vendors Act, 2014 and PM SVANidhi scheme was introduced. Consequently, their contribution remained unaccounted for long and no care was taken to improve their socio-economic and working conditions. There have been very little studies specifically on women street vendors in Magh Mela location. Therefore, this study investigates access to amenities, income stability and social support of women vendors. The focus area of the study has also been to know major problems that women street vendors face in their daily working life and to evaluate whether the social protection Programme i.e., PM SVANidhi, has made any impact in reducing their struggle for survival as women street vendors. Magh mela becomes an opportunity for women street vendors when they can easily find employment therefore this particular occasion was selected for the study. The study is based on primary as well as secondary data. For the primary data, 100 respondents were selected by adopting simple random sampling in the Magh Mela location. Women street vendors were interviewed to collect data for variables taken in the study. Women vendors were found to be unaware of their basic rights and facilities provided by the government, financially vulnerable, working in unsafe and unhygienic conditions. PM SVANidhi was successful to very less extent due to the procedural hurdles and complexity. Consequently, the government should formulate policies and programmes aiming informal sector to provide them with better access to education, better working conditions and vast financial management options, which counters gender-specific vulnerability of women vendors and care should be taken more on awareness and implementation part of policies.

Keywords: Women street vendors, working conditions, quality of life, Magh-mela, PM SVANidhi

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Introduction:

Women street vendors contribute significantly to the urban informal sector of an economy. They keep our local markets vibrant by providing essential goods and services. They are seen everywhere selling goods on a stall or carts, on footpath or with basket on head. They provide us with an easy access to variety of goods and services at affordable prices. They have become very important especially to middle and poor class society because these people prefer more to purchase from vendors compare to formal sectors as they sell different type of necessary goods like vegetables, fruits, clothes, flower and bouquets, household appliances, edible items, etc., in affordable prices and at their door step. Their numbers are growing day by day because this profession has negligible entry and exit barriers, low investment, low skill, no high degree in education is required. But women in this field face many problems when they carry on their business be it related to their fund requirements, space for vending, harassment at workplace, fight with other vendors, poor hygiene, uncertainty in gainful employment, low income, etc. which has been more or less neglected by the government.

Problems of women street vendors:

- Usually, they face issues like lack of funds to start their business.
- Women vendors face majorly problems like sanitation related and unhygienic conditions at work place which in turn affects their health conditions.
- They need family support when they run any business but usually it is not available to them which makes it more difficult to carry on for long profitably.
- They need extra social security and safety at their work place which is neglected till now by the government.
- When they come in to business, they have to face patriarchal thoughts of the society, which hinders their growth in this field.

Literature Review:

R. Vara prasad and D. Subhashini (2019), in their work on, “women street vendors challenges and opportunities a study with special reference to selected cities of chittoor district” concluded that government should take necessary action to improve the living conditions of the women street vendors. Government should consider their problems seriously and make more programmes to address it.

Sheela A, Gayathri k(2023), in their study concludes that, street vendors are rising in numbers, but government is not concerned to the specific need of these vendors. They play very important role for the people of urban area by providing necessary goods and services and help in generating income with minimum investment. They face problems like inadequate space, sanitation and work place security. Government makes policies for them but street vendors still not aware of them.

D. Jangam(2023), in their paper discusses that street vendors are necessity-based entrepreneurs. It becomes an immediate opportunity for poor unemployed people to opt for street vending. But they face many difficulties because of low management skills, lack of collective action, competition from other vendors. It suggests that policymakers should act for creating a business favorable environment for street vendors in India.

Shah, George and Rao (2015), in the study expresses that, conditions of street vendors are precarious, suffer with low sales and profits, no safety and security. They are integral part of our society. They need strong legal support and awareness through schemes and programmes.

Shahid Imam(2020), in his study on street vendors in Bodh Gaya district reveals that street vendors should be socially secure, work in better environment, healthy and hygienic conditions and should be economically stable instead of working in unfavorable unhygienic and unhealthy situations. Many suggestions have been given in the study for the improvement of street vendors working conditions.

Need For the Study:

There has been no such scheme which particularly help women vendors only when they carry on their businesses but they face a lot more problems compare to the male vendors. When women are getting involved in large numbers increasingly in this occupation, problems are manifold and of different kind. Therefore, it becomes very necessary to know the actual working conditions of women street vendors and quality of life they are living and problems they face when they conduct their businesses in our study area also where lot of women vendors come from different states during the occasion.

Objectives

- To explore the Quality-of-life women street vendors are living.
- To understand job satisfaction and working condition.
- To know the financial accessibility for their economic activity including institutional credit and role of organizations towards their financial accessibility.
- To know the awareness and accessibility of PMSVANIDHI scheme launched by the government.

Research Methodology

It tells us that how research is done scientifically or systematically. Descriptive method was used for the study of women vendors. Magh mela occasion was selected as our study area, because women vendors in majority come for vending during this time. Simple random sampling was done for the selection of the respondent from our selected area of the study. Only 100 respondents were selected as per our convenience. Primary data regarding working conditions of women street vendors was collected from direct interaction with women vendors through

schedule and observations during field survey. Collected data were compiled, tabulated and were converted in to percentage. Pie chart and histogram was also used for graphical representation of data. Any secondary data used in the paper taken from authentic published journals, books, magazines and websites of the government.

Major Findings of The Study

This section represents the findings of the study. It mainly covers socio-demographic and economic profile of the respondents and their working conditions

Demographic Profile of The Respondent:

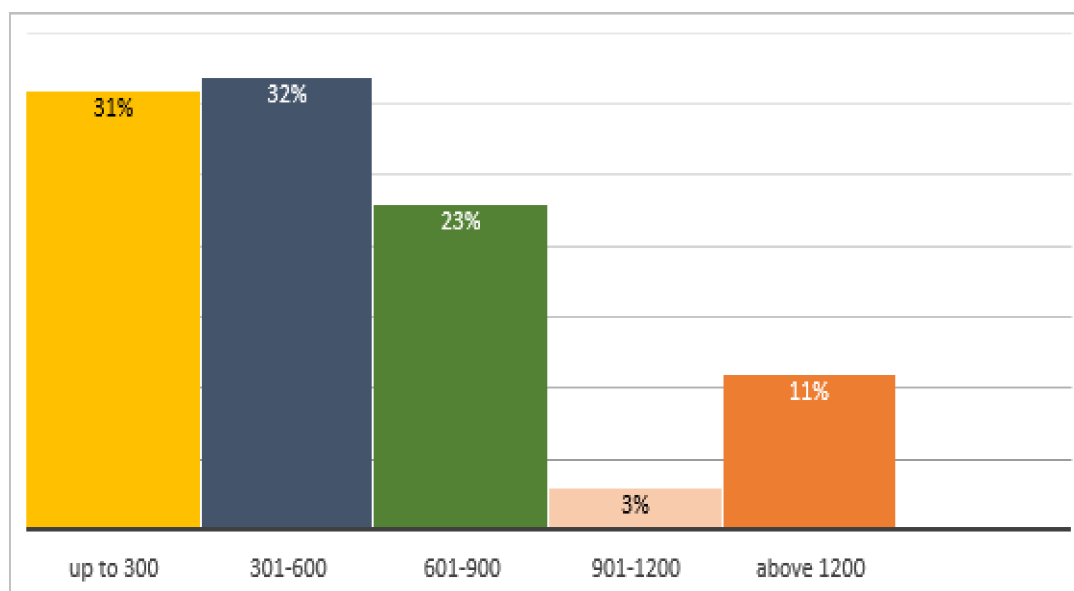
The Socio-demographic profile is represented in table no.1

Indicator	variable	% (percentage)
Age	Up to 30 years	20
	31-40 years	23
	41-50 years	33
	51-60 years	17
	Above 60 years	7
Social Category	General	9
	OBC	71
	SC	15
	ST	4
Marital status	Married	81
	Unmarried	2
	Widow	13
	Divorced	1
	Other	3
Educational status	Illiterate	71
	Lower primary	17
	Upper primary	6
	High school	2
	Intermediate	3
	Above intermediate	1

Table no. 1 source: Field survey

Interpretation: It can be seen from the above table that majority of women selling on street are of age between 41 to 50 years followed by women of age group between 31 to 40 years. Almost 90% women on street belong Hindu community and among all 71% of women who follow vending profession have never gone to schools. Some 17% women have gone to school only lower primary level not completing their full primary study also. Only 3% women studied till intermediate and only 1% above intermediate. Marital status shows that 81% of women vendors were married but 13% widow women were also found doing this vending to fulfill their living.

Fig.1. Percentage of respondents falling in particular income group on daily basis:



Source: field survey

Income level of the respondents: It represents that 31% women are earning below Rs.300 on daily basis and approximately 63% women earn below Rs. 600 per day including those earning below 300 rupee. Only a meagre quantity of women (14%) earns above Rs. 900 per day.

Working conditions and Quality of life of street vendors:

This section covers different variables regarding working conditions and quality of life of the respondents.

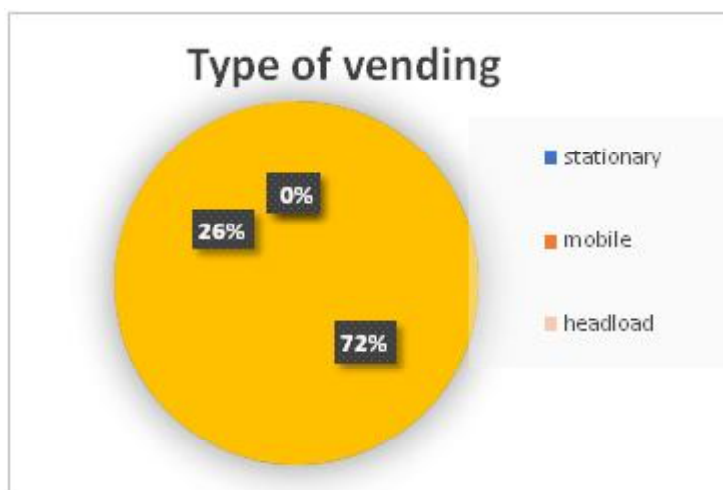


Figure.no.2Source: field survey

Figure no.2, represents the type of vendors present means how they perform their business be it on a particular place on footpath or on a cart that is mobile or with a basket on head. It shows that 72% of women do vending activity in stationary condition, 26% of women use mobile carts for selling their products and only 2% women sell by taking products on their heads.

Table no.2.Working hours of women vendors on daily basis

S.NO	Vending hours	% (percentage) of respondents
1	4-6 hours	1
2	6-8hours	3
3	8-10	29
4	Above 10 hours	68

Source: Field survey

Interpretation: Above tabulation of data shows that almost 68% of women vendors has to work for long hours like more than 10 hours a day and also 29% women work for 8 to 10 hours per day. Only a few 3% women work for 6-8 hours on daily basis. It shows that majority women have to work for very long hours per day.

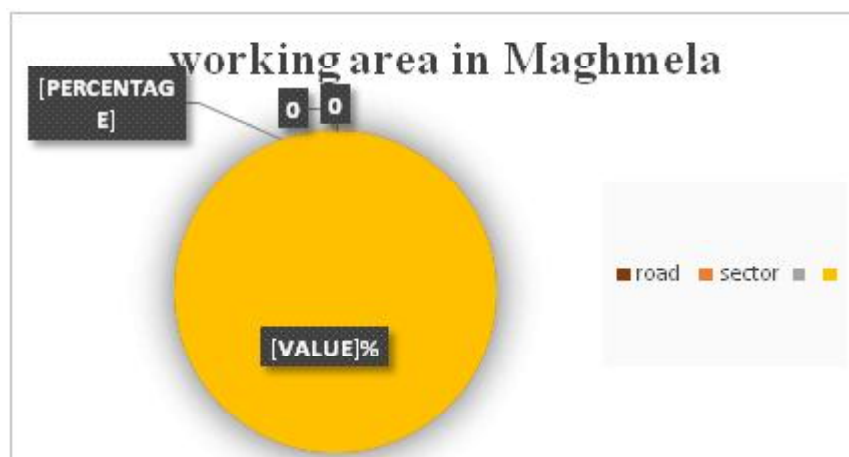


Figure No.3 source: field survey

Fig.3 shows that mostly respondents (89%) perform vending activity on road compared to sector area in Magh mela.

Products of vending	%(percentage)
Cosmetics and pooja samaggri	30
Toys and textiles	12
Utensils and Daily household appliances	28
Flowers and bouquet	10
Vegetables and fruits	4
Edible items	16

Table.no.3 Products women vendors sell at Magh mela

source: field survey

Interpretation: above table shows that most women sell cosmetics and pooja samaggri items (30%) or utensils and household appliances (28%). Also, a decent number of edible items (15%).

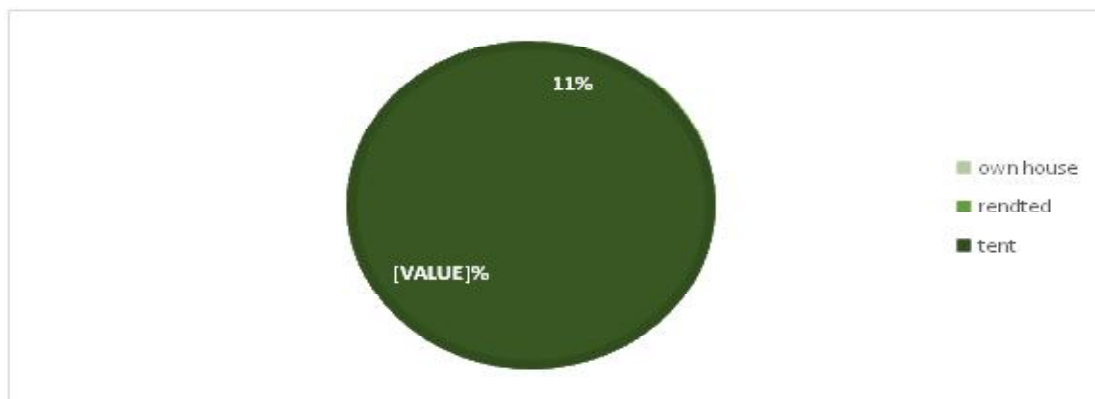


Figure.4.Residential house of women vendors staying currently.

source: field survey

Interpretation: Above figure shows that 80% of women who sell items at Magh mela live under tents for the whole occasion of Magh mela. Only 11% have their own house and 9% live in rented house currently

Table no. 4-Bribe payment to government employees

Bribe paid	Respondents (in %)
Yes	14
No	86

source: field survey

Above table shows that 14% of respondents have given bribe to government employees and mediators.

Table no.5-Source of loans taken for business purpose

Loan taken	No. of respondent
Family and relatives	39
friends	13
Local lenders	32
banks	4
SHGs	12

source: field survey

Interpretation: Above table shows that most of the respondents(39%) ask to family members and relatives when they need loans then after from local lender(32%) and SHGs but very rarely go to bank for loans.

Table no. 6-Basic facilities

Toilet facility availability	No. of respondent(%)
yes	98
No	2
Availability of drinking water	No. of respondent (%)
Handpump	2
Supply water	98

source: field survey

Above table shows that 98% respondent says that there is facility of toilet and supply of drinking water properly.

Table no.7-Medical facility at Magh mela

Availability	% of respondents
Yes	100
No	00

source: field survey

Above table shows that all respondent agrees that there is proper medical facility available in the Magh mela area.

Table no.8

Benefit from social institution (i.e., NGOs)	No. of respondents (%)
Yes	4
No	96
Reason for choosing this vending	No. of respondents (in %)
Economic crises	39
Unemployment	36
Family pressure	23
No other opportunity available	2
Type of problems faced by women vendors	
variables	No. of respondents (%)
Misbehave by govt employees	50
Harassment by local	1
Fight with other vendors	16
Sanitation and hygiene issues	24
Others	9

source: field survey

Interpretation: Table no. 8 tells us that 39% of women chose vending when they faced economic crises in their family, 36% of women started it because they were unemployed and 23% of respondent joined it due to family pressure and 2% of women doing it because they had no other opportunity available considering their capability.

Majority of women (50%) face misbehavior by government employees, 24% women had sanitation related issues while working, 16% respondent also get involved in fight with other vendors.96% of respondent get no help from any social institutions.

Table no. 9

Registered under mela authority	No. of respondents (%)
Yes	11
No	89

source: field survey

Only few 11% of respondents have registered under mela authority and 89% of respondents have not registration.

Table no.10 Magh mela area appropriate for vending

Table no.10 Magh mela area appropriate for vending	
	No. of respondents (%)
No	7
Yes	93

source: field survey

Above table represent that almost 93% of respondent consider Magh mela appropriate for vending purpose

Table no.11 Satisfaction with the present condition

Satisfied	% of respondents
Yes	43
No	57

source: field survey

Above table represent that Only 43% of respondent are satisfied with the present condition and 57% are not satisfied with their situation in vending activity

Table no.12 Awareness about PM SVANidhi scheme

Aware	(value in %)
Yes	35
No	65
Benefit received	(Value in %)
Yes	10
No	90

source: field survey

Above table represent the awareness level of respondents regarding SVANidhi scheme, which says that only 35% of respondents are aware of the scheme in which only 10% have received benefit and 65% in majority are not aware of the scheme.

Suggestions

Based on the response of the women vendors and observations during the filed survey, following suggestions can be made-

- Government should provide loans with minimum or negligible interest rate for the business purpose specially.
- Proper care should be taken to maintain hygiene in Magh mela area with proper waste disposal and sewer management especially.
- Government should form policies to make vending zones so that they can be free from misbehavior by government employees and many problems discussed above.
- Women vendors face a lot misbehave by government employees that should be checked by forming specific team regarding this.
- Government should keep check on government employees and bank employees who misbehave with vendors who goes to bank for loan and documentation process should be less stressful and easy for them.
- Care should be taken more on cleanliness of toilets along with their availability in Magh mela.
- Govt should also make awareness programmes for the schemes implemented and social institutions should be more helpful towards these socially backward and needy section of the society.

Conclusion

Women street vendors have become very visible aspect of the markets, nowadays. The findings of the study revealed that women vendors are illiterate, working for long hours to earn just meagre income per day, earn low profits, lack of funds, face sanitation issues and have bad financial accessibility to institutional credit. Non institutional credit is not enough for the vast requirement of these women vendors. If they face any mishappen in these conditions they become vulnerable for lifetime, nothing comes in their support to improve their situation. Thus, it becomes very important for the government to recognize the working conditions of women vendors and quality of life they are living, accordingly take necessary steps to improve their miserable conditions.

Government has taken few steps in recent years but it lacks implementation and awareness required among street women vendors. Their problems continue till today, hence need many more steps on urgent basis to improve their working conditions and quality of life further.

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श्रीराम मन्दिर के आर्थिक निहितार्थ: अयोध्या क्षेत्र में आय और रोजगार के अवसरों के सन्दर्भ में एक अध्ययन

प्रो० विनोद कुमार श्रीवास्तव एवं किरन पाण्डेय

सारांश

अयोध्या में राम मन्दिर भारत के सबसे महत्वपूर्ण हिन्दू मन्दिरों में से एक है राम मन्दिर दुनिया भर से बड़ी संख्या में आगंतुकों को आकर्षित कर रहा है। वर्तमान में मन्दिर प्रांगण प्रति दिन लगभग 1 लाख भक्तों को दर्शन करा रहा है जिसमें मन्दिर टूरिस्ट को करोड़ों की आय हो रही है। प्रभु श्रीराम के प्राण प्रतिष्ठा के साथ ही स्थानीय लोगों को रोजगार के नये अवसर प्राप्त हुये है वर्तमान में मन्दिर के निर्माण कार्यों में प्रतिदिन 500 से 800 कुशल एवं अकुशल मजदूरों को प्रत्यक्ष रूप से रोजगार प्राप्त हो रहा है। जिससे असंगठित क्षेत्र के श्रमिकों का जीवन स्तर ऊंचा हो रहा है मन्दिर में प्रभु श्रीराम के दर्शन हेतु काफी संख्या में आ रहे पर्यटकों के कारण लोगों को सहगामी व्यवस्था के अन्तर्गत रोजगार के अवसर प्राप्त हो रहे है जिसमें प्रमुख रूप से प्रभु श्रीराम का टीका सिम्बल, पूजा एवं प्रसाद सामग्री, कलात्मक वस्तुयें, पौराणिक एवं सांस्कृतिक कला सम्बन्धित पुस्तकें, सरयू जल का आचमन तथा छोटे, मझोले एवं लघु होटल व्यवसाय को प्रभुत्वा से सम्मिलित किया जा सकता है। प्रभु श्रीराम आधारित इन समस्त रोजगारपरक कार्यों में प्रति व्यक्ति औसतन 1500-4500 की आय प्राप्त कर रहा है जो कि लोगों के जीवन स्तर को ऊंचा उठा रहा है। अयोध्या में राम मन्दिर आर्थिक विकास में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभा रहा है। मोक्ष दायिनी सप्तपुरियों में अयोध्या को प्रथम स्थान प्राप्त है जिसके कारण पर्यटक अयोध्या में प्रथम दर्शन करने के उपरान्त अन्य पुरियों को जाते है। जिसमें प्रमुख रूप से – मथुरा, हरिद्वार, काशी, कांचीपुरम, अवन्तिका, द्वारवती, है। वर्तमान में भारत में मन्दिर देश की आर्थिक और रोजगार वृद्धि में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभा रहे है, उनके प्रभाव को समझने के लिए और अधिक शोध की आवश्यकता है। प्रस्तुत शोध पत्र “श्रीराम मन्दिर के आर्थिक निहितार्थ: अयोध्या क्षेत्र में आय और रोजगार के अवसरों के सन्दर्भ में एक अध्ययन” का विश्लेषण चारखण्डों में प्रस्तुत किया गया है। प्रथम खण्ड में विषय से

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सम्बन्धित प्रस्तावना का विवेचन प्रस्तुत किया गया हैं। द्वितीय खण्ड में उददेश्य परिकल्पना एवं महत्व का वर्णन किया गया है। तृतीय खण्ड में विकास के मापदंड को प्रस्तुत किया गया है। चतुर्थ खण्ड में शोध पत्र से सम्बन्धित निष्कर्ष को प्रस्तुत किया गया है।

प्रस्तावना

श्रीराम मंदिर के निर्माण ने अयोध्या में पर्यटकों की रूचि को फिर से बढ़ा दिया है, अमेरिका निवेश बैंक जेफरीज़ का अनुमान है कि राम मन्दिर सालाना 100 मिलियन पर्यटकों को आकर्षित कर सकता है। संरचानात्मक विकास की दृष्टि से अयोध्या में, हवाई अड्डे के विस्तार, रेलवे उन्नयन और टाउनशिप के विकास सहित कुल 10 अरब डॉलर से अधिक की परियोजनाएं संचालित की जा रही है, जो कि नवीनीकरण को बढ़ावा देती है तथा व्यापक सामाजिक आर्थिक उन्नति, रोजगार, के अवसर का आधार भी तैयार करती है। मंदिर पर्यटन में वृद्धि ने आतिथ्य क्षेत्र में तेजी ला दी है, अयोध्या में होटल खुलने और आतिथ्य परियोजनाओं की बाढ़ आ गई है। ओयो और रेडिसन जैसी अग्रणी श्रृंखलाओं ने तीर्थयात्रियों और पर्यटकों की बढ़ती आवासीय मांग को पूरा कराने के उददेश्य से नये नये होटल एवं होमस्टे को स्थापित करने में सहयोग प्रदान किया है जो कि रोजगार के अवसर पैदा कर रहा है। अयोध्या में राम मंदिर का निर्माण समावेशी विकास को बढ़ावा देने, बुनियादी ढांचे के विकास को बढ़ावा देने और सांस्कृतिक विरासत को संरक्षित करने में मंदिर अर्थशास्त्र की परिवर्तनकारी क्षमता का उद्घरण है। धार्मिक स्थल आध्यात्मिक महत्व और आर्थिक जीवन शक्ति के प्रतीक के रूप में काम करते हैं, समुदायों को स्थल बनाते हैं और सांस्कृतिक आदान प्रदान को बढ़ावा देते हैं। मंदिर पर्यटन के आर्थिक लाभ का उपयोग करके, नीति निर्माता और हितधारक सतत विकास और सामुदायिक सशक्तिकरण की दिशा का एक रोड मैप तैयार कर सकते हैं, जिससे यह सुनिश्चित हो सके कि धार्मिक स्थल आने वाली पीढ़ियों के लिए का आधार रही है।

द्वितीयखण्ड

उददेश्य, परिकल्पना एवं महत्व

उददेश्य:-

- श्रीराम मन्दिर के माध्यम से अयोध्या क्षेत्र के आर्थिक विकास का विश्लेषण करना।
- अध्ययन क्षेत्र में रोजगार के अवसरों का अध्ययन एवं विश्लेषण करना।
- मानव जीवन पर मंदिर के प्रभावों का विश्लेषण करना।
- अध्ययन क्षेत्र के सामाजिक-आर्थिक विकास का विश्लेषण करना।
- अयोध्या क्षेत्र के बुनियादी ढांचे के विकास का अध्ययन और विश्लेषण करना।

- श्री राम मन्दिर के माध्यम से जीएसडीपी के बुनियादी ढांचे का विश्लेषण करना।
- अयोध्या क्षेत्र में पर्यटन विकास का विश्लेषण करना।
- अयोध्या क्षेत्र में प्रति व्यक्ति आय की वृद्धि का विश्लेषण करना।

परिकल्पना

- श्रीराम मंदिर और आय व रोजगार में वृद्धि के बीच सकारात्मक संबंध है
- मन्दिर निर्माण एवं पर्यटन विकास के बीच सकारात्मक सह-संबंध है।
- आय और रोजगार की वृद्धि के लिए अधिक बुनियादी ढांचे को विकसित करने की आवश्यकता है।

श्रीराम मंदिर का महत्व

- धार्मिक महत्व— राम मंदिर के निर्माण के पूरा होने के साथ, हिंदुओं और मुसलमानों के बीच दशकों से चल रहे धार्मिक संघर्ष समाप्त हो गए। इससे देश में धार्मिक सदभाव को बढ़ावा मिल रहा है।
- सांस्कृतिक महत्व— अयोध्या और राम मंदिर को देश की ऐतिहासिक और सांस्कृतिक विरासत का प्रतीक माना जाता है, इस प्रकार मंदिर का निर्माण भारत की सांस्कृतिक विरासत का उत्सव मनाने और संरक्षित करने की दिशा में एक कदम है।
- सामाजिक सेवा को बढ़ावा— मंदिर के आस पास बड़ी संख्या में धर्मार्थ संस्थान खुलने की सम्भावनायें हैं। ये संस्थाएं समाज सेवा को बढ़ावा देंगी।
- आर्थिक महत्व—राम मंदिर, हिंदुओं के प्रमुख तीर्थस्थलों में से एक है जो कि अयोध्या क्षेत्र में पर्यटन को बढ़ावा देगा। यह बदले में क्षेत्र में आर्थिक विकास को प्रोत्साहित करेगा और रोजगार के उददेश्य को पैदा करेगा।
- बुनियादी ढांचागत महत्व—राम मन्दिर के निर्माण ने अयोध्या क्षेत्र के बुनियादी ढांचे के विकास की प्रक्रिया शुरू कर दी है। इस क्षेत्र में सड़कों और हवाई अड्डों जैसी प्रमुख बुनियादी ढांचा परियोजनाओं के बाद कुछ उद्योगों की सम्भावनायें हैं।
- अयोध्या में श्रीराम मंदिर से भारत में पर्यटन उद्योग का विकास—अयोध्या में प्रतिदिन लाखों से अधिक श्रद्धालु दर्शन कर रहे हैं और यह संख्या प्रतिदिन तीन लाख तक भी जा सकती है। आर्थिक विश्लेषण के अनुसार “ यदि प्रत्येक व्यक्ति यात्रा के दौरान लगभग 2500 रुपये खर्च करता है, तो अयोध्या की अर्थव्यवस्था लगभग 25,000 करोड़ रुपये तक बढ़ जायेगी।
- बिजली पर निर्भरता कम करने के लिए अयोध्या को सोलर सिटी के रूप में विकसित किया जा रहा है। पहली बार, अयोध्या को “माडल शहर” बनाने के लिए एक और ऊर्जा—सक्षम ई—बोट लॉन्च की गई थी। माननीय मुख्यमंत्री श्री योगी आदित्यनाथ जी ने सरयू घाट पर

छत पर लगी सोलर बोट सेवा का उदघाटन किया, जिसे उत्तर प्रदेश नवीन एवं नवीनीकरण ऊर्जा अभिकरण (यूपीनेडा) ने अयोध्या की सरयू नदी में नियमित संचालन की रूपरेखा तैयार कर ली है।

- मंदिर को आगंतुकों के लिए खोले जाने के बाद अयोध्या और उसके आसपास होटल उद्योग महत्वपूर्ण वृद्धि के लिए तैयार है। पर्यटन में वृद्धि की आशा करते हुए, इस क्षेत्र में होटल क्षेत्र में उछाल की संभावना है क्योंकि मंदिर में आने वाले पर्यटकों और तीर्थयात्रियों द्वारा आवास की मांग तेजी से बढ़ रही है। वर्तमान में, शहर में लगभग 590 कमरों वाले लगभग 17 होटल हैं। पर्यटकों के आगमन में अनुमानित वृद्धि को पूरा करने के लिए, 73 नए होटल पाइपलाइन में हैं, जिनमें से 40 पहले से ही निर्माणाधीन हैं। इस बीच, इंडियन होटल्स कंपनी, आईटीसी, मैरियट, लेमन ट्री, ट्राइडेंट जैसी अन्य लक्जरी होटल श्रृंखलाएं भी अवध क्षेत्र में होटल खोलने की योजना बना रही हैं।
- अयोध्या में मंदिर के उदघाटन के दौरान रेलवे के माध्यम से बढ़ी हुई कनेक्टिविटी देखी गई है, जिसमें 1,000 से अधिक ट्रेनों के संचालन से प्रमुख शहरों तक सुविधाजनक पहुंच प्रदान की गई है। भविष्य को देखते हुए, अयोध्या के साथ रेलवे कनेक्टिविटी को और बेहतर बनाने, आगंतुकों और तीर्थयात्रियों के लिए निर्बाध परिवहन सुनिश्चित करने के लिए अतिरिक्त ट्रेनों शुरू करने की योजना है।

तृतीय खण्ड:-विकास का मापदंड

अयोध्या नगरी का विकास 8 मापदंडों पर आधारित है

माननीय मुख्यमंत्री श्री योगी आदित्यनाथ जी के निर्देश के बाद अयोध्या में आठ अवधारणाओं के आधार पर विकास कार्य हो रहा है। इन आठ अवधारणाओं में प्रमुख रूप से निम्नलिखित क्षेत्रों में सम्मिलित किया गया है:-

- सांस्कृतिक अयोध्या—अयोध्या को भारत की सांस्कृतिक राजधानी के रूप में विकसित किया जाना है। योजना के तहत उसके अन्तर्गत गतिविधियां संचालित की जा रही हैं। इनमें राजसी मठों, मंदिरों और आश्रमों की स्थापना, भव्य शहर द्वारों का निर्माण और मंदिर संग्रहालय जैसी परियोजनाएं शामिल हैं।
- सक्षम अयोध्या—दैनिक नौकरियों, पर्यटन, धार्मिक और सांस्कृतिक गतिविधियों के माध्यम से रोजगार के महत्वपूर्ण अवसर पैदा करने के उद्देश्य से अयोध्या का विकास किया जा रहा है।
- आधुनिक अयोध्या—स्मार्ट सिटी, सेफ सिटी, सोलर सिटी और ग्रीनफील्ड टाउनशिप जैसी पहल के साथ अयोध्या शहर से विकसित किया जा रहा है एक पवित्र शहर में परिवर्तित किया जा है।

- सुगम्य अयोध्या—योगी सरकार अयोध्या को सुगम्य बनाने के लिए हर संभव प्रयास कर रही है, इसके अलावा, भक्त विभिन्न मार्गों से इन पवित्र शहर तक आसानी से पहुंच सकते हैं। इस योजना में मर्यादा महर्षि बाल्मीकि अंतर्राष्ट्रीय हवाई अड्डे का निर्माण, अयोध्या धाम स्टेशन का कार्याकल्प तथा सरयू को अंतर्देशीय जलमार्ग से जोड़ने का कार्य शामिल हैं
- सुरमय अयोध्या—सरकार का लक्ष्य अयोध्या को आकर्षक क्षेत्र बनाना है। “ आकर्षक शहर” इन पहलों में अयोध्या में विभिन्न तालाबों, झीलो और प्राचीन जलाशयों का सौंदर्यीकरण, पुराने उद्यानों का कार्याकल्प, नए निर्माण तथा विरासत प्रकाश व्यवस्था के माध्यम से शहर के आकर्षण को बढ़ाना शामिल है जो शहर को तारों के जाल से मुक्त करता है।
- भावनात्मक अयोध्या—अयोध्या के कणकण में श्रीराम से जुड़े होने का भाव झलकना चाहिये— इसे ध्यान में रखते हुए शहर की दीवारों, सड़कों के किनारों और चौराहों को सांस्कृतिक कला चित्रों के रूप से सुसज्जित किया जा रहा है।
- स्वच्छ अयोध्या—स्वच्छ अयोध्या माननीय मुख्यमंत्री श्री योगी आदित्यनाथ जी सरकार की सर्वोच्च प्राथमिकता है शहर को स्वच्छ बनाने के पहल में स्वच्छता अभियान से लेकर जल निकासी और सीवर प्रणाली का विकास तक शामिल है।
- आयुष्मान अयोध्या—मरीजों को गुणवत्तापूर्ण और सुविधा आधारित चिकित्सा सुविधाएं प्रदान करने के लिए अयोध्या के स्वास्थ्य ढांचे को पहले से ही मजबूत किया गया है।

निष्कर्ष

यात्रा और पर्यटन ने पहले से ही अयोध्या में 20,000 से अधिक नौकरियां पैदा की है। अब, बढ़ते पर्यटन और आतिथ्य क्षेत्र को बढ़ावा मिलने के साथ, यहां सालाना रोजगार संख्या बढ़ने की उम्मीद है अयोध्या एकमात्र लाभार्थी शहर नहीं होगा बल्कि लखनऊ, कानपुर और गोरखपुर जैसे पड़ोसी शहरों में भी स्थानीय व्यापार में उछाल आने की संभावना है। जिसमें होटल उद्योग, पर्यटन, रेस्तरां निर्माण परिवहन, डेयरी और कृषि उत्पाद जैसे बड़े व्यावसायिक क्षेत्र फलेगे, फूलेंगे— साथ ही फूल, फल, पेय, अगरबत्तीअल्टा, कपूर, घी, आदि जैसी किस्में बेचने वाले छोटे व्यापारी भी आर्थिक रूप से सम्बद्ध होंगे। बेहतर कनेक्टिविटी और बुनियादी ढांचे के साथ अयोध्या के रूप में एक नए धार्मिक पर्यटन केन्द्र का निर्माण एक बड़ा आर्थिक प्रभाव पैदा कर सकता है जिससे अवध क्षेत्र में रोजगार एवं आय के स्तरों में तीव्र विकास के साथ आर्थिक विकास को बढ़ावा मिलेगा। फूलों के व्यापार में वृद्धि एवं ईत्र बनाने में इन्ही फूलों का उपयोग किया जा रहा है जिसमें स्थानीय फूल व्यापारियों को अधिक लाभ हो रहा है तथा माली वर्ग में व्यापार की सम्भावनायें बढ़ रही है। साथ ही श्रीराम मन्दिर परिसर में प्रतिदिन पूजा अर्चना में प्रयोग की जाने वाली अगरबत्ती की कम्पनियां अनुबन्ध स्थापित कर रही है। श्रीराम मन्दिर में प्रतिदिन राम लला का वस्त्र भारत के विभिन्न प्रसिद्ध टेक्सटाइल कम्पनियों के द्वारा डिजाइन किया जाता है तथा रितु के अनुसार परिधान श्रृंगार किया जाता है।

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इक्कीसवीं शताब्दी के भारत में बढ़ती आर्थिक असमानता

मोनिका अवस्थी

1980 के दशक के बाद से लगातार भारत सहित पूरे विश्व में आर्थिक असमानता बढ़ रही है। इसीलिए विभिन्न देशों के मध्य एवं देशों के भीतर आर्थिक असमानता के विभिन्न आयामों, इनके कारणों और इनके प्रभावों को समझने में अनेक महत्वपूर्ण बहुपक्षीय वैश्विक संस्थाओं जैसे आईएमएफ, विश्व बैंक, एशियन विकास बैंक, संयुक्त राष्ट्र संघ, ऑक्सफैम, वर्ल्ड इनिक्वालिटी लैब आदि के द्वारा अत्यधिक रुचि दिखाई गई है। संयुक्त राष्ट्र संघ द्वारा वर्ष 2017 में अपनाए गए सतत विकास लक्ष्यों में भी (जिनको 2030 तक की अवधि में हासिल करने का निर्णय लिया गया) देशों के भीतर और विभिन्न देशों के बीच असमानता कम करना (लक्ष्य 10के अंतर्गत) को प्रमुख लक्ष्य घोषित किया गया है। एकेडमिक जगत में भी विभिन्न सेमिनार, कॉन्फ्रेंस इत्यादि के माध्यम से यह विषय चर्चा का केंद्र बिंदु बना रहता है। यद्यपि विभिन्न देशों के मध्य संपत्ति व आय में असमानता तो हमेशा से ही चर्चा का बिंदु रहा है परंतु वैश्वीकरण के बाद अब अधिकांश विकासशील देशों के भीतर विभिन्न वर्गों के बीच बढ़ती सामाजिक-आर्थिक असमानता की प्रवृत्तियों ने समूचे विश्व का ध्यान आकृष्ट किया है। चीन, भारत, ब्राजील जैसे विकासशील देशों में यह विषय और भी अधिक प्रासंगिक है, जहां जीडीपी की दर में वृद्धि अर्थात् राष्ट्रीय आय में वृद्धि के साथ-साथ आर्थिक असमानताएं भी तेजी से बढ़ी हैं। 2020 में चीन के वुहान से निकली कोरोना महामारी के कारण गहन रूप से व्याप्त आर्थिक असमानताओं में और अधिक वृद्धि अनुभव की गई है। इस दौरान भारत में जहां एक ओर केवल मुट्ठी भर अत्यंत अमीर लोगों की संपत्ति में बढ़ोत्तरी हुई वहीं दूसरी ओर कुल अरबपतियों की संख्या में भी वृद्धि हुई। वर्ल्ड इनिक्वालिटी लैब द्वारा जारी विश्व असमानता रिपोर्ट 2022 के अनुसार भारत विश्व के सर्वाधिक असमान देशों में से एक है जहां सिर्फ 10% सर्वाधिक धनी आबादी कुल राष्ट्रीय आय का 57% हिस्सा प्राप्त करती है और सर्वाधिक गरीब 50% जनसंख्या की हिस्सेदारी कुल राष्ट्रीय आय में मात्र 13% है। इसी के साथ सर्वाधिक धनी अभिजात्य 1% जनसंख्या कुल राष्ट्रीय आय का 22% हिस्सा अर्जित करती है। इस प्रकार यह रिपोर्ट बताती है कि भारत में नवीन आर्थिक नीति में अपनाए गए उदारीकरण, वैश्वीकरण से बढ़ी हुई आय व संपत्ति से

* *रिसर्च स्कॉलर, सीएसजेएम विश्वविद्यालय कानपुर एवम असिस्टेंट प्रोफेसर, ए पी सेन मेमोरियल गर्ल्स डिग्री कॉलेज लखनऊ*

शीर्ष 1% प्रतिशत अमीर लोगों को ही फायदा हुआ है। भारत में जहां पहले ही उच्च स्तरीय जाति, वर्ग, धर्म, नस्ल, लिंग, स्थान आदि के आधार पर असमानताएं विद्यमान हैं जोकि नागरिकों की मूलभूत सुविधाओं तक पहुंच को प्रभावित करती हैं ऐसे में कोविड-19 के कारण सामाजिक और आर्थिक असमानता पर पड़ने वाले नकारात्मक प्रभावों के साथ ही पिछले तीन दशकों में भारत में बढ़ती आर्थिक असमानता की प्रवृत्तियों को समझने का प्रयास इस पेपर के माध्यम से किया गया है।

प्रमुख शब्द— आर्थिक सामाजिक असमानता, कोविड-19, विश्व असमानता रिपोर्ट, भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था, रोजगार, कमजोर वर्ग।

भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था निसंदेह विश्व की सर्वाधिक विषमताओं से युक्त अर्थव्यवस्थाओं में से एक है। भारत जैसे विकासशील देशों में किसी व्यक्ति का जन्म, उसके माता-पिता, पैतृक संपत्ति जैसे कारक उसकी शैक्षिक उपलब्धियों, रोजगार के अवसरों की संभावनाओं आदि को निर्धारित करने में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभा कर उसके भविष्य को निर्धारित करते हैं। भारत में पीढ़ी दर पीढ़ी वंचित, आर्थिक रूप से कमजोर परिवारों में जन्म लेने वाले बच्चों के लिए आर्थिक उन्नति की संभावनाएं प्रायः कम होती हैं। यद्यपि सरकार की आर्थिक नीतियां, राजकोषीय व करारोपण संबंधी नीतियां, आय का पुनर्वितरण व हस्तांतरण, श्रम बाजार एवं पूंजी बाजार के नियम आदि अवसरों की समानता उपलब्ध कराने में महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभाते हैं और सरकार अपनी नीतियों के माध्यम से सबका साथ, सबका विकास, सबका प्रयास, और सबका विश्वास के लिए प्रयत्नशील रहती है। परंतु सदैव ही अत्यधिक गरीबी, आर्थिक विषमता की तुलना में सरकार का ध्यान अधिक आकृष्ट करती है। और सरकारें असमानता के बजाय गरीबी को दूर करने संबंधी अपने प्रयासों पर अधिक जोर देती हैं। सरकार लंबे समय में उपभोग व्यय पर आधारित आंकड़ों का प्रयोग कर गरीबी का अनुमान लगाकर उसे दूर करने के लिए जनकल्याण की नीतियों और योजनाओं के माध्यम प्रयास करती है। 1991 में उदारीकरण को अपनाने के बाद राष्ट्रीय आय तथा प्रति व्यक्ति आय में वृद्धि के साथ-साथ आय की असमानता में भी बढ़ने की प्रवृत्ति देखी गई है। बात अगर 1980 के दशक की करें तो आंकड़े बताते हैं कि 1980 से 1990 के दौरान आर्थिक विकास में वृद्धि के साथ-साथ गरीबी और असमानता में भी कुछ गिरावट हुई है। किंतु 1991 से 2004 की अवधि में आर्थिक असमानता में तेजी से वृद्धि हुई। हालांकि आंकड़े यह भी बताते हैं कि 2004-2005 के बाद राष्ट्रीय आय में वृद्धि के साथ साथ असमानता में पुनः कुछ गिरावट देखी गई। आर्थिक असमानता अन्य प्रकार की असमानताओं जैसे शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य, स्वच्छता, लैंगिक असमानता, अवसरों में असमानता आदि से प्रत्यक्ष रूप से संबंधित है। यद्यपि सभी प्रकार की असमानताओं को मापना स्वयं में एक चुनौती है परंतु आर्थिक असमानता में वृद्धि के साथ-साथ यह सभी असमानताएं भी आनुपातिक रूप से बढ़ती हैं। भारत में हाशिए पर रहने वाले विभिन्न समूह जैसे अनुसूचित जाति, अनुसूचित जनजाति, एवं महिलाओं के बीच भी न केवल आय की असमानता है बल्कि बुनियादी सेवाओं की पहुंच से भी यह वर्ग काफी हद तक वंचित है।

2020–21 में कोविड महामारी के कारण भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था ने जीडीपी में स्वतंत्रता के बाद से अब तक की सबसे बड़ी गिरावट का अनुभव किया जो -7.3% (NSO, MOSPI 2021) रही। शेयर बाजार में भी 2020 में महामारी के कारण प्रारंभिक स्तर पर बड़ी गिरावट का अनुभव किया गया परंतु कुछ ही महीनों में महामारी के असर को धता बताते हुए शेयर बाजार ने नए मानक स्थापित किए, बाजार में रिकवरी आयी और एक साल के अंदर ही बाजार पहले कि तुलना में लगभग 75% ऊपर चला गया और अरबपतियों की संपत्ति में लगभग दोगुनी वृद्धि हुई। गैर सरकारी संगठन ऑक्सफैम इंडिया की रिपोर्ट के अनुसार, 2021 में कॉविड 19 के कारण जहां भारत में 84 प्रतिशत परिवारों की आय में गिरावट आई, वहीं भारतीय अरबपतियों की संख्या 102 से बढ़कर 142 हो गई। और इनकी संयुक्त संपत्ति भी लगभग दुगुनी होकर 596 अरब डॉलर हो गई। अरबपतियों की संख्या के मामले में भारत, अमेरिका और चीन के बाद तीसरे स्थान पर आता है, परंतु दूसरा पक्ष यह भी है कि कोरोना महामारी के कारण भारत में गरीबों की संख्या में 7.5 करोड़ की वृद्धि होने का अनुमान है जो इसी अवधि में संपूर्ण विश्व में गरीबों की संख्या में होने वाली वृद्धि का 60% है। उपरोक्त आंकड़े बताते हैं कि भारत में न केवल अरबपतियों की संख्या में उम्मीद से अधिक तेजी से वृद्धि हुई, वरन अत्यधिक गरीबों की संख्या के आंकड़े भी तेजी से बढ़े हैं। विश्व बैंक की 2020 में आई एक रिपोर्ट के अनुसार 2017 में संपूर्ण विश्व में अति गरीबी में रहने वाले कुल 68.9 करोड़ लोगों में 13.9 करोड़ (20.17%) लोग भारत में रहते हैं जबकि भारत की जनसंख्या कुल वैश्विक जनसंख्या का 17.8% है। कहने का तात्पर्य है कि यद्यपि भारत में नवीन आर्थिक नीति को अपनाने के बाद धन व आय वितरण की असमानता तेजी से बढ़ी है परंतु कोरोना वायरस के चलते इसने अति गंभीर और भयावह रूप धारण कर लिया है। परंतु वास्तविकता यह भी है कि महामारी तो सदी में एक बार ही आने वाली घटना है, परंतु भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था में आर्थिक असमानता की जड़ें बहुत अधिक गहरी हैं और इसीलिए असमानता के वास्तविक कारणों को गहनता से जानने व समझने की आवश्यकता है। विश्व असमानता पर थॉमस पिकेटी और उनके सहयोगियों द्वारा वर्ल्ड इनिक्वालिटी डेटाबेस तैयार किया गया है जो समय के साथ विभिन्न देशों में धन व आय वितरण की असमानता पर अपेक्षाकृत अधिक विस्तृत जानकारी प्रदान करता है। यह डेटाबेस भारतीय अर्थव्यवस्था में धन तथा आय वितरण की असमानता में अभूतपूर्व वृद्धि की ओर इशारा करता है। इसके अनुसार भारत में विश्व के अति गरीब आबादी का सर्वाधिक प्रतिशत निवास करता है।

संपत्ति की असमानता

भारत में संपत्ति की असमानता (कुल राष्ट्रीय संपत्ति में जनसंख्या का हिस्सा: में, 1961–2020)

YEAR	Top 1%	Top 10%	Middle 40%	Bottom 50%
1961	11.9	43.2	44.5	12.3
1971	11.2	42.3	46.0	11.8
1981	12.5	45.0	44.1	10.9

1991	16.1	50.5	40.7	8.8
2002	24.4	55.6	36.3	8.2
2012	30.7	62.8	30.8	6.4
2020	42.5	74.3	22.9	2.8

स्रोत: Wealth Inequality Database

यह डेटाबेस स्पष्ट करता है कि भारत में 1961 से 1981 के दौरान कुल जनसंख्या में शीर्ष 1% धनी लोगों का कुल राष्ट्रीय संपत्ति में हिस्सा लगभग 12% के स्तर पर स्थिर रहा परंतु 1991 के बाद नवीन आर्थिक नीतियों को अपनाने से 1991 से 2020 के मध्य यह तेजी से बढ़ते हुए 42.5% के स्तर पर पहुंच गया, जबकि निम्न 50% सर्वाधिक गरीब जनसंख्या का कुल राष्ट्रीय संपत्ति में हिस्सा 1961 से 81 के बीच 12.3% से घटकर 10.9% रह गया और 1991 से 2020 के दौरान यह तेजी से घट कर मात्र 2.8% रह गया। इसी तरह कुल संपत्ति में 40% मध्यमवर्गीय जनसंख्या का हिस्सा 1981 में 45% था जो 2020 में घटकर मात्र 22.9% रह गया।

आंकड़े बताते हैं कि विश्व की अन्य प्रमुख अर्थव्यवस्थाओं की तुलना में भारत में 1% सर्वाधिक धनी और 50% अति गरीब जनसंख्या के बीच पर्याप्त अंतर विद्यमान है और यह अंतर चीन, अमेरिका, इंग्लैंड से अधिक और रूस से थोड़ा ही पीछे है।

आय असमानता

भारत में आय असमानता (कुल राष्ट्रीय आय में जनसंख्या का हिस्सा: में, 1961–2020)

YEAR	Top 1%	Top 10%	Middle 40%	Bottom 50%
1961	13	37.2	42.6	21.2
1971	11.7	34.4	44.0	22.8
1981	6.9	30.7	47.1	23.5
1991	10.4	34.1	44.9	22.2
2002	17.1	42.1	39.2	19.7
2012	21.7	55.0	30.5	15.1
2020	21.7	56.1	29.7	14.7

स्रोत: Wealth Inequality Database

आय असमानता के संदर्भ में अगर इन आंकड़ों पर गौर करें तो 1961 में सकल राष्ट्रीय आय में सर्वाधिक धनी 1% जनसंख्या का हिस्सा 13% था जो 1981 में धीरे-धीरे घट कर 6.9% रह गया परंतु 1990 के दशक के बाद इसमें वृद्धि होना प्रारंभ हुई तथा 1991 में 10.4% से बढ़कर 2021 में

21.7% हो गया। सामान्य तौर पर संपत्ति आय की तुलना में धनी वर्ग में अधिक संकेंद्रित होती है क्योंकि विरासत के माध्यम से पीढ़ी दर पीढ़ी संचयी रूप से यह स्थानांतरित होती रहती है। भारत में भी हमें यही प्रवृत्ति देखने को मिलती है। कुल राष्ट्रीय आय में निम्न 50% जनसंख्या की हिस्सेदारी 1961 से 1981 के बीच 21% से 23% के बीच स्थिर रही जबकि 2020 में यह हिस्सा घटकर 14.7% ही रह गया। इसी के साथ 40% मध्यम वर्गीय आबादी की हिस्सेदारी 1961 में 42.6% से घटकर 2021 तक 29.7% ही रह गई।

आय असमानता के संदर्भ में सर्वाधिक 1% धनी और सर्वाधिक 50% गरीब जनसंख्या के बीच अंतर भारत में विश्व की प्रमुख अर्थव्यवस्थाओं अमेरिका, चीन, रूस, फ्रांस और यूके की तुलना में अधिक व्यापक है।

आर्थिक विकास की प्रक्रिया में उच्च आर्थिक वृद्धि दर आर्थिक असमानता में वृद्धि की ओर ले जाती है यह बात सर्वप्रथम प्रसिद्ध अर्थशास्त्री साइमन कुसनेट्स ने अपने आनुभाषिक अध्ययनों से स्थापित की और आर्थिक वृद्धि के साथ बढ़ती असमानताओं को उल्टे यू आकार के वक्र (कुजनेट्स वक्र) के माध्यम से स्पष्ट किया। आय असमानता के क्षेत्र में काम करने के कारण 1971 में प्रो. साइमन कुजनेट्स को अर्थशास्त्र में नोबेल पुरस्कार भी प्रदान किया गया। विकासवादी अर्थशास्त्रियों के अनुसार विकासशील देशों में प्रायः अकुशल श्रमिकों की एक बड़ी आबादी के साथ एक छोटा पूंजीवादी क्षेत्र भी होता है। विकास के प्रारंभिक चरणों में जैसे-जैसे अर्थव्यवस्था में निवेश बढ़ाया जाता है, रोजगार के नए अवसर पैदा होते हैं, उत्पादन में वृद्धि होती है और राष्ट्रीय आय तथा प्रति व्यक्ति आय बढ़ने लगती है। परंतु इस बढ़ी हुई आय एवम संपत्ति का उचित वितरण निम्न वर्गों तक नहीं हो पाता और इसके कारण लाभ का अधिकांश हिस्सा अमीरों या पूंजीपतियों के पास चला जाता है और अकुशल श्रमिकों की बड़ी आबादी विकास दर में वृद्धि के बावजूद भी कम मजदूरी पर ही काम करती है, और इसी के कारण असमानताएं बढ़ने लगती हैं। भारत सहित विश्व के लगभग सभी देशों में यही प्रवृत्तियां देखी जा रही हैं। अमीरों की आय गरीबों की तुलना में अधिक तेजी से बढ़ रही है, और इसीलिए अमीर अधिक अमीर और गरीब अधिक गरीब होता चला जा रहा है।

1998 की तुलना में 2019 में प्रति व्यक्ति जीडीपी में 8.5 गुना वृद्धि हुई है जबकि ग्रामीण मजदूरी को देखें तो यह केवल 5.4 गुना ही बढ़ी है। परंतु इसका मतलब यह नहीं कि आर्थिक विकास गरीबों पर नकारात्मक प्रभाव ही डालता है। 1990 के दशक में गरीबी रेखा के नीचे कुल 45% आबादी निवास करती थी जो 2020 में घटकर 21.9% रह गई। इस प्रकार आर्थिक विकास जहां एक ओर आय की असमानताओं को बढ़ाता है वहीं दूसरी ओर आबादी के एक बड़े हिस्से को गरीबी रेखा से बाहर भी निकलता है। और इसीलिए उदारीकरण के बाद से ही आर्थिक विकास बनाम असमानता का मुद्दा हमेशा ही चर्चा का केंद्र में रहता है और अक्सर संसद एवं संसद के बाहर भी नीतिगत बहसों में यह मुद्दा परिलक्षित होता है। हम कह सकते हैं कि आर्थिक असमानता की कीमत पर आर्थिक समृद्धि को प्राप्त किया जाता है। अर्थात् आर्थिक विकास ने जहां एक ओर असमानता में वृद्धि की

है वहीं दूसरी ओर गरीबी रेखा के नीचे रहने वाले लोगों को भी बाहर निकाला है।

जहां एक ओर आर्थिक विकास की उच्च दर प्राप्त करना अपरिहार्य है वहीं दूसरी ओर असमानता को कम करना भी उतना ही अधिक आवश्यक है। और इसके लिए आर्थिक असमानता और आर्थिक विकास के बीच संबंध को समझते हुए उनके बीच उचित सामंजस्य स्थापित किया जाना चाहिए।

परंतु वास्तविकता यह भी है कि आर्थिक असमानता का प्रमुख कारण आर्थिक समृद्धि से राष्ट्रीय आय तथा संपत्ति में होने वाली वृद्धि का जनसंख्या के बीच उचित वितरण ना होना है। 1990 के दशक में सकल घरेलू उत्पाद में कुल अरबपतियों की संपत्ति का अनुपात 1% था जो 2020 में बढ़ कर 22% हो गया। जबकि सकल घरेलू उत्पाद के प्रतिशत के रूप में सरकार को प्राप्त कर राजस्व मात्र 12% है। अगर भारतीय अरबपतियों की कुल संपत्ति को कुल 13.9 करोड़ (2017 के आंकड़ों के मुताबिक) गरीब भारतीयों के बीच वितरित किया जाए तो प्रत्येक व्यक्ति को 317930 प्राप्त होंगे। देखने में तो यह एक बड़ी धनराशि है। ग्रामीण क्षेत्र में रहने वाला एक गरीब व्यक्ति इस राशि के साथ 18 साल में गरीबी रेखा से बाहर लाया जा सकता है जबकि शहरी क्षेत्र में एक गरीब व्यक्ति को इस धनराशि के साथ 12 वर्षों में गरीबी रेखा से बाहर लाया जा सकता है। भारत में जन्म के समय यदि एक व्यक्ति की जीवन प्रत्याशा को 70 वर्ष मान लिया जाए तो धन का यह पुनर्वितरण गरीबों की अस्थाई मदद ही कर सकता है, परंतु स्थाई रूप से गरीबी को दूर करने में यह असफल है। आर्थिक विकास के यदि दूसरे पक्ष को देखा जाए तो आर्थिक विकास गरीबी रेखा के नीचे रहने वाले लोगों को गरीबी से बाहर तो निकालता है परंतु यह पर्याप्त नहीं। भारत में लगभग आधी आबादी बहुआयामी रूप से गरीब हैं। जबकि आर्थिक विकास की दर उदारीकरण के बाद 6 से 8% ही हासिल हो सकी है। असमानता की तुलना में बड़ी आबादी को गरीबी रेखा से ऊपर उठाना अधिक आवश्यक है। अर्थशास्त्र की ट्रिकल डाउन थ्योरी के अनुसार जब कोई देश उच्च विकास दर को हासिल करता है तो विकास के लाभ स्वतः ही रिस कर निम्न स्तर पर जाकर गरीबों की आय में वृद्धि कर उनके जीवन स्तर में सुधार करता है। परंतु भारत में गरीबी के नवीनतम आंकड़े इस सिद्धांत के विपरीत प्राप्त हुए हैं। 1990 के बाद लगभग तीन दशक तक उच्च विकास की दर प्राप्त होने के बाद भी लगभग 50% आबादी गरीबी रेखा के नीचे रहने को मजबूर है। अर्थात् जो विकास हुआ है वह पर्याप्त नहीं है। भारत में गरीबी रेखा के नीचे रहने वाले प्रत्येक व्यक्ति को वर्तमान प्रति व्यक्ति आय के स्तर पर लाने के लिए 10% की आर्थिक वृद्धि दर लगातार 22 सालों तक प्राप्त करना आवश्यक है, और इतिहास गवाह है कि लगातार दो दशकों तक किसी भी देश ने दो अंकों में आर्थिक वृद्धि दर को हासिल नहीं किया है। ऐसी स्थिति में मुख्य सवाल है कि वह कौन से कारक है जो आर्थिक समृद्धि के साथ आर्थिक असमानता में कमी ला सकते हैं, अर्थात् विकास को समावेशी बनाते हैं। दूसरा प्रमुख प्रश्न है कि अगर विकास समावेशी नहीं है अर्थात् स्वतः ही आर्थिक समृद्धि के लाभ रिसकर निम्न वर्ग तक नहीं पहुंच रहे हैं तो कौन सी वह नीतियां हैं जो समावेशी विकास

को सरल, सहज और सुलभ बनाती हैं। विकासवादी अर्थशास्त्रियों का मानना है कि विकास की प्रक्रिया में प्रारंभिक चरणों में आर्थिक असमानता बढ़ती है और लंबे समय तक धीरे-धीरे उच्च विकास दर को प्राप्त करने के बाद ही अर्थव्यवस्था में असमानताएं कम होती हैं। इसका कारण उन्होंने बताया कि आर्थिक समृद्धि के दौरान किया गया निवेश पूंजी निर्माण के माध्यम से पूंजी संचय को प्रोत्साहित करता है जब इस नई सृजित हुई पूंजी का पुनर्निवेश किया जाता है तो श्रम की मांग पर्याप्त रूप से बढ़ जाती है जबकि श्रम की आपूर्ति तुलनात्मक रूप से कम होने लगती है और मजदूरी दर में वृद्धि होती है। कुशल श्रमिकों की मांग अधिक बढ़ती है जिससे उनको मिलने वाले प्रतिफल में भी वृद्धि होती है। कुशल श्रमिकों की बढ़ी हुई मांग मानव पूंजी (शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य, स्वच्छता आदि क्षेत्रों) में अधिक निवेश को प्रोत्साहित करती है और दीर्घकाल में यह सारे कारक आर्थिक विकास के कारण राष्ट्रीय आय और प्रति व्यक्ति आय में जहां एक ओर वृद्धि करते हैं वहीं दूसरी ओर आर्थिक असमानताओं को कम करने में भी सहायक होते हैं।

किसी भी समाज में असमानता विकास की संभावनाओं को नकारात्मक रूप से प्रभावित करती हैं। अगर एक प्रतिभाशाली व्यक्ति गरीबी में पैदा होता है तो उसकी क्षमता, योग्यता के लाभ से समाज वंचित हो सकता है क्योंकि ऐसे लोग सफल उद्यमी व रोजगार पैदा करने के बजाय अपना संपूर्ण जीवन कम लाभ अथवा कम आय वाले व्यवसाय में बिताते हैं। परंतु एक ऐसे समाज में भी जहां सभी लोगों को जीवन यापन का एक उचित स्तर प्राप्त हो, विकास के अवसरों में समानता हो, विभिन्न व्यक्तियों की कुशलता, क्षमता, प्रयास, उद्यम, भाग्य इत्यादि में भिन्नता के कारण असमानता विद्यमान हो सकती है। परंतु इस असमानता को दूर करने संबंधी उपाय मोटे तौर पर उस समाज के सामाजिक मूल्य विचारधारा इत्यादि से प्रभावित हो सकते हैं।

परंतु एक ऐसा समाज जहां गरीब व्यक्ति मूलभूत सुविधाओं से भी वंचित है वहां पर आर्थिक असमानता देश के विकास की संभावनाओं को बुरी तरह प्रभावित करती है और यह आर्थिक असमानता अन्य (शैक्षिक असमानता, लैंगिक असमानता, रोजगार के अवसरों में असमानता इत्यादि) प्रकार की असमानताओं को जन्म देती है, और समाज में अनेक प्रकार की सामाजिक, आर्थिक, राजनीतिक, सांस्कृतिक, धार्मिक समस्याएं को जन्म देती है।

हम कह सकते हैं कि निसंदेह भारत में आर्थिक असमानता एक बड़ी समस्या है और इसका मुख्य कारण आर्थिक विकास के दौरान हुई आर्थिक समृद्धि के लाभों का अनुचित व असमान वितरण है। इसलिए हमारी विकास संबंधी नीतियों का मुख्य जोर इस बात पर होना चाहिए कि कैसे इन लाभों का उचित वितरण किया जाए। यह कार्य सरकार के द्वारा अमीरों से प्रगतिशील दर से करों को प्राप्त कर, कर राजस्व को गरीब जनता को बेहतर आधारभूत सेवाएं (स्वास्थ्य, शिक्षा, स्वच्छ पेयजल, आवास, बिजली, पानी सिंचाई की सुविधाएं) तक पहुंच प्रदान करके किया जाता है। परंतु इसके लिए आवश्यक है कि सरकार के कर राजस्व में पर्याप्त मात्रा में वृद्धि हो। और यह लक्ष्य तभी प्राप्त किया जा सकता है जब कर आधार में वृद्धि कर, कर दे सकने में समर्थ सभी लोगों को

कर के दायरे में लाया जाए, कर के वंचन को रोका जाए और अमीरों पर ऊंची दर से कर लगाया जाए और निम्न वर्ग तक बुनियादी सेवाओं की बेहतर पहुंच के लिए ना केवल प्रभावी नीतियां बनाई जाए वरन नीतियों का उचित ढंग से क्रियान्वयन भी किया जाए एवम समय-समय पर उनका मूल्यांकन कर इस में आने वाली बाधाओं का निराकरण किया जाए ताकि सबका साथ, सबका विकास, सबका प्रयास और सबका विश्वास के लक्ष्य को हासिल किया जा सके। परंतु भारत जैसे विकासशील देशों में प्रमुख समस्या है कि करो से प्राप्त राजस्व कम है और जो भी कर राजस्व है उसमें लगभग आधा हिस्सा ही आयकर, निगम कर जैसे प्रत्यक्ष करों का है। जबकि उत्पाद शुल्क, सीमा शुल्क और जीएसटी जैसे अप्रत्यक्ष करों से प्राप्त धनराशि का कुल कर राजस्व में आधा हिस्सा है ८ जबकि एक बेहतर कर प्रणाली में प्रत्यक्ष करों का अनुपात अप्रत्यक्ष करों की तुलना में अधिक होता है क्योंकि प्रत्यक्ष करों का भार अमीरों पर पड़ता है और इससे प्राप्त धनराशि को ही गरीबों के कल्याण पर सरकार के द्वारा खर्च किया जाता है भारत की कर प्रणाली में अप्रत्यक्ष करों की दर एवं आय करों की दर में तो वृद्धि हुई है जबकि बड़े व्यावसायिक घरानों द्वारा दिए जाने वाले कॉरपोरेट टैक्स की दरों में कमी आई है। यदि संपत्ति करों पर विचार करें तो 1950 के दशक के अंत से विशुद्ध संपत्ति पर कर लगाया जाता था जिसे 2015 में हटा दिया गया जबकि संपत्ति की असमानता को दूर करने के लिए सुपर रिच व्यक्तियों पर उच्च दर से संपत्ति कर लगाना एक उचित निर्णय हो सकता है।

निष्कर्ष के रूप में कहा जा सकता है कि यद्यपि भारत में अनेक प्रकार की असमानतायें विद्यमान हैं जो सरकार, समाज व देश के विकास के लिए बाधक हैं इसमें आर्थिक असमानता सर्वाधिक महत्वपूर्ण है, और इसको दूर करने के लिए आवश्यक है कि उचित कराधान नीतियों के माध्यम से धन व आय का पुनर्वितरण गरीबों के पक्ष में किया जाए, पूंजीगत आय पर कर, शुद्ध संपत्ति पर कर, विरासत कर, उपहार कर जैसे करों पर अधिक जोर दिया जाए और इनसे प्राप्त धनराशि को उचित नीतियों के माध्यम से स्वास्थ्य, शिक्षा, और बुनियादी सेवाओं में अधिक निवेश करके अवसरों की समानता को सुनिश्चित किया जाए जो भविष्य में भारत को एक गतिशील अर्थव्यवस्था के रूप में परिवर्तित करने, समावेशी विकास को प्रेरित करने और अवसरों की समानता को सुनिश्चित करने में सहायक होंगी और 21वीं शताब्दी में भारत एक आर्थिक महाशक्ति के रूप में स्थापित हो सकेगा।

वर्तमान भारत सरकार देश में चिंता जनक उच्च असमानता के मुद्दे पर अधिक संवेदनशील है और इसे बढ़ने से रोकने के लिए उपयुक्त कदम उठाने के लिए प्रतिबद्ध भी है। सरकार के द्वारा शुरु की गई कुछ योजनाओं जैसे जनधन योजना, प्रत्यक्ष लाभ हस्तांतरण, कोरोना काल के दौरान मुफ्त राशन वितरण, उच्च मूल्य वाले नोटों का विमुद्रीकरण, कौशल विकास, स्टैंडअप इंडिया, स्टार्ट अप इंडिया, मुद्रा योजना, सबके लिए आवास, हर घर जल आदि के जरिए उद्यमिता को बढ़ावा देने रोजगार और आजीविका के अवसर में वृद्धि करने और सामाजिक सुरक्षा के लिए उन तमाम बदलावों पर जोर दिया जा रहा है जिसका मुख्य लक्ष्य चरम गरीबी को दूर करना, सतत विकास लक्ष्यों को

प्राप्त करना और असमानता को दूर करना है। यद्यपि ऐसा प्रतीत होता है कि यह उचित दिशा में उचित समय पर उठाया गया उचित कदम है। लेकिन बड़ी चुनौती को देखते हुए भविष्य में सरकारों को इस ओर अधिक प्रयास करने होंगे।

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नयी शिक्षा नीति 2020

डॉ शिवकुमार लाल

नई शिक्षा नीति 2020 को अनुमोदित करते हुए 29 जुलाई को एक वर्ष पूरे हो जायेंगे इसने राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा नीति 1986 की जगह ली। प्रधानमंत्री जी के नेतृत्व में 2014 के बाद से अब तक की बड़े निर्णयों में से एक है इस नई शिक्षा नीति का आकार लेना। इसने भारतीय शिक्षा नीति में अमूल-चूल परिवर्तन प्रस्तावित किया है। एक तरफ इसने भारतीय समाज के पारम्परिक मूल्य, संस्कृति एवं देशज मेधा को वैश्विक आधुनिकता के साथ वाया ज्ञान एवं शिक्षा जोड़ने की महत्वपूर्ण परियोजना परिकल्पित की है, तो दूसरी तरफ मातृ भाषा स्थानीय कौशल एवं लोक विवेक को भारतीय शिक्षा व्यवस्था एवं उससे जुड़े विमर्श में शामिल करने की योजना बनायी।

शिक्षा पर पिछली नितियों पर जोर मुख्य रूप से शिक्षा तक पहुच के मुद्दों पर था। 1986 की राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा नीति जिसे 1992 (एन पी आई 1986/92) में संशोधित किया गया था के अधूरे काम को इस नीति के द्वारा करने का भरपूर प्रयास किया गया है। 1986/92 की पिछली नीति के बाद से एक बड़ा कदम निःशुल्क और अनिवार्य शिक्षा अधिनियम 2001 रहा है जिसके सार्वभौमिक प्रारम्भिक शिक्षा सुलभ करने हेतु कानूनी आधार उपलब्ध करवाया।

इस नीति के आधार सिद्धान्त-शैक्षिक प्रणाली का उद्देश्य अच्छे इन्सान का विकास करना है। जो तर्क संगत विचार और कार्य करने में हो जिसमें करुणा और सहानुभूति साहस और लचीलापन, वैज्ञानिक चिन्तन और रचनात्मक कल्पना शक्ति नैतिक मूल्य के आधार हो इसका उद्देश्य ऐसे उत्पादक लोगों को तैयार करना है जो कि आपने संविधान द्वारा परिकल्पित सामावेशी और बहुलता वादी सामाजिक निर्माण में बेहतर तरीके से योगदान करे।

मूलभूत सिद्धान्त जो बड़े स्तर पर शिक्षा प्रणाली और साथ ही व्यक्तिगत संस्थानों दोनों का मार्गदर्शन करेंगे। ये है हर बच्चे की विशिष्ट क्षमताओं की स्वीकृति पहचान और उनके विकास हेतु प्रयास करना-शिक्षको और अभिभावकों को इन क्षमताओं के प्रति संवेदनशील बनाना जिससे वे बच्चे की अकादमिक और अन्य क्षमताओं में उसके सर्वांगीण विकास पर भी पूरा ध्यान दें। बुनियादी साक्षरता और संख्या ज्ञान को सर्वाधिक प्रार्थमिकता देना- जिससे सभी बच्चे कक्षा 3 तक साक्षरता और संख्या ज्ञान जैसी- सीखने के मूलभूत कौशलों को धारित कर सके।

* असिस्टेन्ट प्रोफेसर/विभाग प्रभारी-अर्थशास्त्र, श्रीदेव सुमन उत्तराखण्ड विश्वविद्यालय परिसर, (राजकीय स्नातकोत्तर महाविद्यालय) गोपेश्वर चमोली

सचीकापन— ताकि विद्यार्थियों उनके सीखने के तार तरीके और कार्यक्रमों को चुनने की क्षमता हो और इस तरह अपनी प्रतिभा और रुचियों के अनुसार जीवन में अपना रास्ता चुन सकें। कला और विज्ञान के बीच पाठ्यक्रम और पाठ्यत्तर गतिविधियों के बीच व्यवस्थापिक और शैक्षणिक धाराओं आदि के बीच कोई स्पष्ट अलगावन हो जिनसे ज्ञान क्षेत्र के बीच हानिकारक ऊंच-नीच और परस्पर दूरी एवं असंबद्धता को दूर किया जा सके।

सभी ज्ञान की एकता और अखण्डता को सुनिश्चित करने के लिए एक बहु विषयक दुनिया के लिए विज्ञान, सामाजिक विज्ञान, कला मानविकी और खेल के बीच एक बहु विषयक और समग्र शिक्षा का विकास अवधारणात्मक समझ पर जोर न कि रटंत पद्धति और केवल परीक्षा के लिए पढाई रचनात्मक और तार्किक सोच तार्किक निर्णय लेने और नवाचार को प्रोत्साहन करके के लिए नैतिकता, मानवीय और संवैधानिक मूल्य जैसे सहानुभूति, इसरो के लिए सम्मान, वैज्ञानिक चिन्तन, स्वतंत्रता, जिम्मेदारी, बहुलतावाद समानताओं और न्याय।

- बहु भाषिता और अध्ययन के कार्य में भाषा की शक्ति को प्रोत्साहन
- जीवन कौशल जैसी आपसी संवाद, सहयोग, सामूहिक कार्य, और लचीलापन
- सीखने के लिए सतत मूल्यांकन पर जोर अध्ययन अध्यापन कार्य में भाषा सम्बन्धी बाधाओं को दूर करने में दिव्यांग बच्चों के लिए शिक्षा को सुलभ बनने में और शैक्षणिक नियोजक और प्रबंधन में सभी पाठ्यक्रम शिक्षाशास्त्र और नीति में स्थानीय सन्दर्भ की विविधता और स्थानीय परिवेश के लिए एक समवर्ती विषय है।

नयी शिक्षा नीति 2020

परिचय : शिक्षा पूर्ण मानव क्षमता को प्राप्त करने, एक न्यायसंगत और न्याय पूर्ण समाज के विकास और राष्ट्रीय विकास को बढ़ावा देने के लिए मूलभूत आवश्यकता है। गुणवत्तापूर्ण शिक्षा तथा सार्वभौमिक पहुंच प्रदान करना वैश्विक मंच पर सामाजिक न्याय और समानता, वैज्ञानिक उन्नति राष्ट्रीय एकीकरण और सांस्कृतिक संरक्षण के सन्दर्भ में भारत की सतत प्रगति और आर्थिक विकास की कुंजी है। सार्वभौमिक उच्चतर स्तरीय शिक्षा वह उचित माध्यम है जिससे देश की समृद्धि प्रतिभा और संसाधनों का सर्वोत्तम विकास और संवर्द्धन व्यक्ति समाज राष्ट्र और विश्व की भलाई के लिए किया जा सकता है। अगले दशक में भारत दुनिया का सबसे युवा जनसंख्या वाला देश होगा और इन युवाओं को उच्चतर गुणवत्तापूर्ण शैक्षिक अवसर उपलब्ध कराने पर ही भारत का भविष्य निर्भर करेगा।

में शिक्षा का लक्ष्य सांसारिक जीवन अथवा स्कूल के बाद के जीवन के तैयारी के रूप में ज्ञान अर्जन नहीं बल्कि पूर्ण आत्मज्ञान और मुक्ति के रूप में माना गया था। तक्षशिला, नालंदा, विक्रमशिला और बस्लभी जैसी प्राचीन भारत के विश्व स्तरीय संस्थानों के अध्ययन के विविध क्षेत्रों में शिक्षण और शोध के ऊंचे प्रतिमान स्थापित किये थे और विभिन्न पृष्ठभूमि और देशों से आनेवाले विद्यार्थियों और विद्वानों को लाभान्वित किया इसी शिक्षण व्यवस्था ने चरक, स्त्रुश्रुत, आर्यभट्ट, बराहर्मिहर,

भाष्कराचार्य, ब्रह्मगुप्त चाणक्य, चक्रयाष्ट, उन्तामाधव, पाणिनि, पंतजलि, नागार्जुन, गौतम, गिला, शंकरन्देय, मैत्रेयी, गात्री और भिरितवाम्सुवर, विरुवस्सुवर जैसे अनेक महान विद्वानों को जन्म दिया। इन विद्वानों ने वैश्विक स्तर पर ज्ञान के विविध क्षेत्रों जैसे चर्चित खगोल विज्ञान, धातु विज्ञान, चिकित्सा विज्ञान, और शल्य चिकित्सा, सिविल इंजिनियरिंग, भवन निर्माण, लोक निर्माण और दिशा ज्ञान, योग तुलिक कला, शतरंज इत्यादि में प्रमाणिक रूप से भौतिक योगदान किये, भारतीय संस्कृति और दर्शन का विश्व में बड़ा प्रभाव रहता है। वैश्विक महत्व की इस संस्कृति विरासत को आने वाली पीढ़ियों के लिए न सिर्फ सहेज कर संरक्षित रखने की जरूरत है बल्कि हमारी शिक्षा व्यवस्था द्वारा उस पर शोध कार्य होने चाहिए और नए-नए उपयोग भी सोचे जाने चाहिए।

नयी शिक्षा नीति का विजन

इस राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा का विजन भारतीय मूल्यों से विकसित शिक्षा प्रणाली है, जो सभी को उच्चतर गुणवत्ता शिक्षा उपलब्ध कराके और भारत को वैश्विक ज्ञान महाशक्ति बना कर भारत को एक जीवन्त और न्याय संगत ज्ञान समाज में बदलने के लिए प्रत्यक्ष रूप से योगदान करेगी। शिक्षा नीति में परिकल्पित है कि हमारे संस्थानों की पाठ्यचर्या और शिक्षाविधि छात्रों में अपने नैतिक दायित्वों और संवैधानिक मूल्यों, देश के साथ जुड़ाव और बदलते विश्व में नागरिक की भूमिका और उत्तरदायित्वों की जागरूकता उत्पन्न करें। शिक्षा नीति का विजन छात्रों में भारतीय होने का गर्व न केवल विचार में बल्कि व्यवहार, बुद्धि और कार्यों में भी और साथ ही ज्ञान कौशल मूल्यों और सोच में होना चाहिए। जो मावाधिकारों स्थायी विकास और जीवन यापन तथा वैश्विक कल्याण के लिए प्रतिबद्ध हो, ताकि वे सही मायने में वैश्विक नागरिक बन सके।

भाग -1 स्कूल

यह नीति वर्तमान का 10+2 वाली स्कूली व्यवस्था और उसे 18 वर्ष के सभी बच्चों के लिए पाठ्यचर्या और शिक्षण शास्त्रीय आधार पर 5+3+3+4 की एक नयी व्यवस्था में पुर्नगठित करने की बात करती है।

वर्तमान में 3-6 वर्ष के उम्र के बच्चे 10+2 वाले ढांचे में शक्ति नहीं तक नहीं हैं कक्षा 6 वर्ष के बच्चों को कक्षा 1 में प्रवेश दिया जाता है, नये 3+3+3+4 ढांचे में 3 वर्ष के बच्चों को शामिल कर प्रारम्भिक व्यवस्था देखभाल और शिक्षा की एक मजबूत स्तम्भ स्थापित किया गया।

विद्यार्थियों को कम उम्र में यही करने के महत्व को सिखाया जायेगा और तार्किक ढांचा दिया जायेगा वाद के वर्णों में इन मुद्दों को विभिन्न थीम जैसे धोखधडी, हिंसा साहित्यिक चोरी गुण्डागर्डी फैलाना, सहिष्णुता, समानता, सहानुभूति इत्यादि की मदद से विस्तार किया जायेगा, जिसमे बच्चों को अपने जीवन का संचालन करने में नैतिक/नैतिक मूल्यों को अपनाने के लिए सक्षम बनाने के दृष्टिकोण से एवं नैतिक मुद्दों के बारे में तर्क देने एवं निर्णय लेने और सभी कार्यों में नैतिक आचारण को अपनाने से सक्षम बनाने में जोर दिया जायेगा।

जबकि ग्रेड 10 ओर 12 के लिए बोर्ड परीक्षाएं जारी रहेगी। कोचिंग कक्षाओं की आवश्यकताये समाप्त करने के लिए बोर्ड और प्रवेश परीक्षाओं की मैजूदा प्रणाली में सुधार किया जायेगा वर्तमान मल्यांकन प्रणाली के इन हानिकारक प्रमाणों की उटलन के लिए बोर्ड परीक्षाओं को समग्र विकास की प्रोत्साहित करने के लिए फिर से डिजाइन किया जायेगी छात्र अपने व्यक्तिगत हितों के आधार पर उन विषयों में कई विषय को चुन सकते हैं जिनके वे बोर्ड परीक्षा देते है। बोर्ड परीक्षाओं से आसान बनाया जाएगा। 11'9 डिग्री कार्य को अवधि और संरचनाएं के अनुसार बदलाव किया जायेगा। स्नातक 3 वर्ष की अवधि की होगी जिससे उपयुक्त प्रमाण पत्र के साथ निवास के कई विकस्य होंगे उदाहरण के तौर पर व्यवसाय तथा पेशेवर क्षेत्र में सहित किसी भी दिव्य अथवा क्षेत्र में 1 साल पूरा करने पर सर्टिफिकेट या 2 साल पूरा करने पर डिप्लोमा 3 साल कार्य कम दाय स्नातक की डिग्री 4 वर्ष स्नातक प्रोग्राम जिसमें बहुवर्णिय शिक्षा को जायेगा। क्योंकि इस दौरान यह विद्यार्थी की रुचि के अनुसार चुने हुए मेजर और माइनर पर ध्यान केन्द्रित करने के अलावा समग्र तथा बहुवर्णात्मक शिक्षा का अनुभव लने के अवसर प्रदान करता है। एवं आकादमिक केन्द्रित बैंक एवीसी स्थापित किया जायेगा जो अलग-अलग मान्यता प्राप्त उच्चतर शिक्षण स्थानों द्वारा डिग्री दी जा सके।

यदि छात्र एचईआई द्वारा निर्दिष्ट अध्ययन के अपने प्रमुख क्षेत्र (क्षेत्रों) में एक कठोर शोध परियोजना को पूरा करता है तो उसे 4 वर्षीय कार्यक्रम भी शोध सहित डिग्री दी जा सकती है। उच्चतर शिक्षण संस्थानों (एचईआई) को विभिन्न प्रयासों में स्नातकोत्तर कार्यक्रमों को मुहैया कराने की छूट होगी। (क) ऐसे विद्यार्थियों के लिए जिन्होंने 3 साल का स्नातक कार्यक्रम पूरा किया हो उन्हें 2 वर्षीय कार्यक्रम प्रदान किया जा सकता है। जिसमें द्वितीय वर्ष पूरी तरह से शोध पर केन्द्रित हो, (ख) वे विद्यार्थी जिन्होंने 4 वर्ष का स्नातक कार्यक्रम शोध के साथ पूरा करा है, उनके लिए एक वर्ष का स्नातकोत्तर कार्यक्रम हो सकता है और (ग) 5 वर्षों का एक एकीकृत स्नातक कार्यक्रम हो सकता है। पी0एच0डी0 के लिए या तो स्नातकोत्तर डिग्री या 4 वर्षों के शोध के साथ स्नातक डिग्री अनिवार्य होगी। समग्र और बहु विषयक शिक्षा के लिए आई0आई0टी0 आदि के तर्ज पर मेरू बहु विषयक शिक्षा और शोध विश्वविद्यालय नामक माडल सार्वजनिक विश्व विद्यालयों की स्थापना की जायेगी। इन विश्वविद्यालयों का उद्देश्य गुणवत्ता पूर्ण शिक्षा में उच्चतम वैश्विक मानकों को अर्जित करना होगा। ये देशभर में बहुविषयक शिक्षा के उच्चतम मानके भी स्थापित करेंगे।

वर्ष 2030 तक बहु विषयक उच्चतर शिक्षण संस्थानों द्वारा प्रदान किया जाने वाला वह 4 वर्षीय एकीकृत बी0एड0 कार्यक्रम स्कूली शिक्षकों के लिए न्यूनतम डिग्री योग्यता बन जायेगा यह 4 वर्षीय एकीकृत बी0एड0 शिक्षा और उसके साथ ही एक अन्य विशेष विषय जैसे भाषा, इतिहास, संगीत, गणित, कम्प्यूटर विज्ञान, रसायन विज्ञान, अर्थशास्त्र आदि में एक समग्र स्पूरक मेजर स्नातक डिग्री होगी आधुनिक शिक्षाशास्त्र के शिक्षण के साथ ही साथ शिक्षक शिक्षा में सामजशास्त्र, इतिहास, विज्ञान, मनोविज्ञान, प्रारम्भिक व्यवस्था शिक्षा, क्रनियादि साक्षरता, और संख्या ज्ञान भारत से जुड़े ज्ञान और इसके मूल्यों लोकाचार कला परम्पराएं और बहुत कुछ शामिल होगा।

क्रियान्वयन

केन्द्रीय शिक्षा सालाहकार बोर्ड इस नीति के सफल क्रियान्वयन के लिए राष्ट्रीय राज्य संस्थागत और व्यक्तिगत स्तर पर एकदीर्घ कालिक विजन विशेषज्ञता की निरन्तर उपलब्धता और सम्बन्धित लोगों द्वारा ठोस कदम उठाए जाने की आवश्यकता है। इस सन्दर्भ में यह नीति केन्द्रीय सलाहकार बोर्ड के सशक्तिकरण को अनुषंसा करता है जो कि ना केवल शैक्षिक एवं सांस्कृतिक विकास से जुड़े मुद्दों पर व्यापक परामर्श और समीक्षा के लिए एक फोरम प्रदान करता है बल्कि इसके कही वृहद्ध उद्देश्य है।

अधिगमत और शिक्षा पर एक बार फिर ध्यान केन्द्रित करने के लिए यह वांछनीय होगा कि मानव संसाधन विकास के प्रारूप को शिक्षा मंत्रालय एनओई के रूप में पुनः नामित किया जाय। किसी भी नीति की प्रभावशीलता उसके कार्यान्वयन पर निर्भर करती है ऐसे कार्यान्वयन के लिए कई निकायों द्वारा समन्वित एवं व्यवस्थित तरीके से बहुत सी पहल करनी होगी और कई कदम उठाने की जरूरत होगी इस लिए इस नीति के क्रियान्वयन को कई निकायों जिनमें एम0एच0आर0डी0 को केन्द्र एवं राज्य सरकारें शिक्षा सम्बन्धी मंत्रालय राज्यों के शिक्षा विभाग बोर्डस, एनटीए स्कूल एवं उच्चतर शिक्षा के नियामक निकाय, एन0सी0ई0आर0टी0 स्कूल एवं उच्चतर शिक्षण संस्थान शामिल है, द्वारा शिक्षा में शामिल सभी निकायों में योजन को लेकर आपसी समन्वय व तालमेल के माध्यम से इसके भाव एवं प्रयोजन अनुसार सुनिश्चित करने के लिए नेतृत्व प्रदान किया जायेगा।

निष्कर्ष

नई शिक्षा नीति की आवश्यकता शिक्षा के ढांचे को परिवर्तन मात्र से नहीं है, बल्कि मूल्यों का भी है। यह राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा नीति वैश्विक भारतीय शिक्षा के निर्माण के लिए स्थितियां हमें आधार देनी है भारतीय शिक्षा को वैश्विक भारतीय शिक्षा के स्तर के पहुचने के लिए जरूरी है कि शिक्षकों का एक ऐसा वर्क फोर्स तैयार हो जो इस मिशन को आगे बढ़ा सके, ऐसा करने के लिए जरूरी है कि राष्ट्रीय शिक्षा नीति 2020 की जरूरतों के मुताबिक नये शिक्षकों की नियुक्ति के साथ ही भारतीय शिक्षा व्यवस्था में सक्रिय शिक्षकों को इसके लिए विशेष रूप से प्रशिक्षित करने हेतु अनेक ट्रेनिंग प्रोग्राम एवं 'शार्ट टर्म कोर्सज' चलाए जाएं। नई तरह की शिक्षा शक्ति विकसित करने का एक इकोसिस्टम प्रस्तावित करती है। जिसका रचनात्मक क्रियान्वयन ही हमें भविष्य में नये भारत के निर्माण के लिए आधारभूत शक्ति दे पायेगा।

शहीद चन्द्रशेखर आजाद बर्ड सेंचुरी, नवाबगंज, उन्नाव : केस स्टडी

डॉ. प्रभा गुप्ता

उत्तरप्रदेश के बहुमूल्य प्राकृतिक विरासतों में से एक लखनऊ—कानपुर राष्ट्रीय राजमार्ग—25 पर लखनऊ से लगभग 45 कि.मी. की दूरी पर स्थित “शहीद चन्द्रशेखर आजाद बर्ड सेंचुरी”, नवाबगंज, उन्नाव” का उद्घाटन साल 1975 में हेमवती नंदन बहुगुणा ने किया था। तब इसका नाम ‘प्रियदर्शनी पक्षी विहार’ रखा गया था। इसके बाद साल 1984 में इसका नाम बदल कर ‘नवाबगंज बर्ड सेंचुरी’ और साल 2015 में ‘शहीद चंद्रशेखर आजाद पक्षी अभ्यारण्य’ रखा गया। पक्षी विहार की स्थापना वन्य प्राणी संरक्षण अधिनियम – 1972 के अन्तर्गत की गयी थी। इसका क्षेत्रफल 224.6 हेक्टेयर है। इस पक्षी विहार की स्थापना का मुख्य उद्देश्य स्थानीय व प्रवासी पक्षियों की सुरक्षा एवं संवर्धन किया जाना है। भारत सबसे आश्चर्यजनक और शानदार पक्षी अभ्यारण्यों की भूमि है, जो न केवल अपनी मनोरम सुंदरता के लिए प्रसिद्ध हैं, बल्कि अपनी समृद्ध और वैभवशाली जैवविविधता, विशेषरूप से पक्षी प्रजातियों के लिए भी प्रसिद्ध है। “शहीद चन्द्रशेखर आजाद पक्षी विहार,” अभ्यारण्य भी उन भाग्यशाली अभ्यारण्यों में से एक है। है। भारत में वर्तमान में 40 पक्षी अभ्यारण्य है, “शहीद चन्द्रशेखर आजाद पक्षी विहार,” नवाबगंज, उन्नाव, (उ.प्र.) भी उन में से एक है। यहां पक्षियों की चहचहाट, झरनों की गूंज पर्यटकों को अपनी तरफ आकर्षित करती है। अभ्यारण्यों के अंदर बने रास्तों के दोनों तरफ पक्षियों और वन्यजीवों की अनेक प्रजातियां देखने को मिलती हैं। इस अभ्यारण्य में हर साल 5,000 कि.मी. की दूरी तय करके साइबेरियाई पक्षियों की 250 से ज्यादा प्रजातियां यहां रहने आती हैं। यह भारत में स्थानीय एवं प्रवासी पक्षियों को देखने के लिए एक आदर्श पर्यटन स्थल है। वेदांतंगल पक्षी अभ्यारण्य तमिलनाडु में स्थित भारत में सबसे पुराना पक्षी अभ्यारण्य वहीं कुछ अन्य प्रवासी पक्षी जैसे ग्रेलैंग, गूज, पिंटेल्, कॉटन, टील रेड—क्रैस्टेड पोचार्ड, गडवाल, फावडा, कुट, मल्लार्ड, कॉमन टेल, गार्गनी टील, नॉर्थन पिनटेल, कॉमन पोचार्ड और रेड क्रिस्टेड पोचार्ड, कॉमन स्नाइप, यूरेशियन वीजन, शावलर, मार्श सैण्डपाइपर, मार्श हैरियर, लार्ज कारमोरेंट, काटन पिग्मी जैसे पक्षी 8,500 कि.मी. की दूरी तय करके यहां आते हैं। कुछ स्थानीय प्रवासी पक्षियों में यहां सारस क्रेन, चित्रित क्रेन, मोर, सफेद आइबिल,

* विभागाध्यक्ष, अर्थशास्त्र विभाग, अकबरपुर महाविद्यालय, अकबरपुर, कानपुर देहात, छत्रपति शाहूजी महाराज विश्वविद्यालय, कानपुर (उ.प्र.)

चैती, सफेद गर्दन वाला सारस, ओपनबिल स्टोर्क, पेंटेड स्टोर्क, बोली नेकड स्टोर्क, सारस क्रेन, ब्लेक हैडेड आइबिस, फीजेन्ट टेल्ड इग्रेटस, ब्लैक झोंगो, शिफरा, लेसर व्हिसलिंग टील आदि भी देखे जा सकते हैं। माह नवम्बर से प्रवासी पक्षियों का आगमन आरम्भ हो जाता है। दिसम्बर-जनवरी पक्षियों के अवलोकन का सर्वोत्तम समय है, जब हजारों की संख्या में प्रवासी एवं अप्रवासी पक्षी देखे जा सकते हैं। फरवरी के अन्त से आरम्भ कर मार्च के द्वितीय सप्ताह तक प्रवासी पक्षी अपने मूल स्थानों को लौट जाते हैं परन्तु कुछ स्थानीय पक्षी उसके बाद भी देखे जा सकते हैं। यहां अनेक प्रकार के खतरनाक सरीसृप भी पाये जाते हैं : नवाबगंज पक्षी अभ्यारण्य में पाए जाने वाले प्रमुख सरीसृपों में कोबरा, वाइपर, कटैत, रैटस्नेक और वाटर हैं। वाइपर सामान्यतः अंटार्कटिका, ऑस्ट्रेलिया, मेडागास्कर, न्यूजीलैंड समेत कई अन्य हिस्सों में भी पाया जाता है। इसके अलावा जीनस बुंगारस प्रजाति के जहरीले सांपों का यह घर है।

पक्षी विहार में आने वाले प्रवासी एवं अप्रवासी पक्षियों एवं पर्यटकों का विवरण :

वर्ष	प्रवासी पक्षी	अप्रवासी पक्षी	पर्यटकों की संख्या
2011-12	16,031	17,498	13,434
2012-13	17,789	8,516	16,257
2013-14	18,130	8,900	13,277
2014-15	26,950	11,340	15,424
2015-16	31,500	12,460	21,300

Source : website : http://www.up_tourism.com

पक्षी व्याख्या केन्द्र : जन सामान्य एवं बच्चों में वन्य प्राणियों के प्रति जन चेतना जागृत करने के लिए पक्षी व्याख्या केन्द्र बनाया गया है। इसमें मॉडल एवं विभिन्न प्रकार के साइनेज के माध्यम से पक्षियों, उनके भोजन योग्य जलीय पौधों, माइग्रेटरी पैटर्न, प्रतीक चिन्हों आदि के संबंध में उपयोगी जानकारी प्रदर्शित की गयी है। पक्षी विहार एवं अन्य वन्य जीवों से सम्बन्धित डॉक्यूमेंट्री फिल्म का भी प्रदर्शन पक्षी व्याख्या केन्द्र में किया जाता है।

इको-पर्यटन : प्रकृति, पक्षी एवं अन्य वन्यजीवों के प्रति जन चेतना जागृत करने में इको – पर्यटन का अपना महत्व है। इको-पर्यटन को प्रोत्साहित करने के उद्देश्य से पक्षी विहार में कई संरचनायें विकसित की गयी हैं जिसमें 02.3 कि.मी. में इको फ्रेण्डली साइकिल ट्रैक, 01.69 कि.मी. लम्बा पैदल पथ, पक्षी व्याख्या केन्द्र, वॉच टॉवर, चिल्ड्रेन पार्क, डीयर पार्क एवं उत्कृष्ट वन विश्राम गृह, खान-पान एवं रात्रि विश्राम की सुविधा उपलब्ध कराये जाने के उद्देश्य से पर्यटन विभाग, उ.प्र. द्वारा पक्षी विहार में पर्यटक आवास गृह (मोटेल) एवं कैफेटेरिया का संचालन किया जा रहा है। जिसमें आवासीय कक्ष, विद्युत व्यवस्था एवं भोजन व्यवस्था उपलब्ध है। कैफेटेरिया में स्वादिष्ट व्यंजनों का स्वाद ले सकते हैं। आरक्षण एवं अन्य जानकारी हेतु प्रबन्धक, नवाबगंज मोटेल,

नवाबगंज, उन्नाव एवं निदेशक, पर्यटन निदेशालय सी-13 विपिन खण्ड, गोमतीनगर, लखनऊ से सम्पर्क किया जा सकता है।

साइकिल ट्रैक एवं पैदल पथ : ईको फ्रेण्डली साइकिल 2.3 किमी में निर्मित है। पर्यटकों के भ्रमण के लिए निर्धारित शुल्क पर साइकिल उपलब्ध है। साइकिल द्वारा पक्षी विहार के सुरम्य वातावरण में भ्रमण करते हुए पक्षियों का अवलोकन किया जा सकता है। **संक्षेप में नवाबगंज पक्षी विहार में वन विश्राम भवन, चिल्ड्रेन पार्क, आइलैण्ड, कैफेटेरिया, मोटेल, बर्ड इंटरप्रिटेशन सेंटर, वाच टावर, डियर पार्क** इत्यादि सुविधयें पर्यटकों के लिए उपलब्ध हैं।

उ.प्र. में संरक्षित क्षेत्र – राष्ट्रीय उद्यान एवं वन्य जीवन विहार : उ.प्र. में संरक्षित क्षेत्र 5691 वर्ग कि.मी. है जो प्रदेश के सम्पूर्ण वन क्षेत्र का 33 प्रतिशत एवं भौगोलिक क्षेत्र का 2.4 प्रतिशत है। संरक्षित क्षेत्रों की संख्या 25 है जिसके अर्न्तगत निम्न हैं :

राष्ट्रीय उद्यान – 01 (क्ष. 490 वर्ग कि.मी.)

वन्य जीव विहार – 24 (क्ष. 5201 वर्ग कि.मी.)

संरक्षित क्षेत्रों का विवरण :

क्र.सं.	संरक्षित क्षेत्र	स्थापना वर्ष	क्षेत्रफल (वर्ग कि.मी.में)	जनपद
राष्ट्रीय उद्यान :				
1.	दुधवा राष्ट्रीय उद्यान	1977	490	खीरी, लखीमपुर
वन्य जीव विहार/पक्षी विहार :				
1.	चन्द्रप्रभा वन्यजीव विहार	1967	76	चन्दौली
2.	किशनपुर वन्यजीव विहार	1972	204	खीरी
3.	कतर्नियाघाट	1976	400	बहराइच
4.	रानीपुर वन्यजीव विहार	1977	230	चित्रकूट
5.	महावीर स्वामी वन्यजीव विहार	1977	5	ललितपुर
6.	राष्ट्रीय चम्बल वन्यजीव विहार	1979	635	आगरा, इटावा
7.	कैमूर वन्यजीव विहार	1982	501	मिर्जापुर
8.	हस्तिनापुर वन्यजीव विहार	1986	2073	मुजफ्फरनगर, मेरठ
9.	सोहगीबरवा वन्यजीव विहार	1987	428	महराजगंज
10.	सुहेलवा वन्यजीव विहार	1988	452	श्रावस्ती,

			बलरामपुर	
11.	कछुवा वन्यजीव विहार	1989	07	वाराणसी
12.	शहीद चन्द्र. आजाद पक्षी विहार	1984	02	उन्नाव,
13.	समसपुर पक्षी विहार	1987	08	रायबरेली
14.	लाखबहोसी पक्षी विहार	1988	80	कन्नौज
15.	साण्डी पक्षी विहार	1990	03	हरदोई
16.	बखीरा पक्षी विहार	1990	29	संत कबीर नगर
17.	ओखला पक्षी विहार	1990	04	गाजियाबाद
18.	समान पक्षी विहार	1990	05	मैनपुरी
19.	पार्वतीअरगा पक्षी विहार	1990	11	गोण्डा
20.	विजय सागर पक्षी विहार	1990	03	महोबा
21.	पटना पक्षी विहार	1990	01	एटा
22.	जय प्रकाश नारायण पक्षी विहार	1991	34	बलिया
23.	सूर सरोवर पक्षी विहार	1991	04	आगरा
24.	डॉ. भीमराव अम्बेडकर पक्षी विहार	2003	04	प्रतापगढ़

स्रोत : टूरिस्ट बुकलेट, (2015-2016), 'शहीद चन्द्रशेखर आजाद पक्षी विहार',

लुप्तप्राय परियोजना, उ.प्र., लखनऊ।

भारत सबसे आश्चर्यजनक और शानदार पक्षी अभ्यारण्यों की भूमि है जो न केवल अपनी मनोरम सुंदरता के लिए प्रसिद्ध हैं, बल्कि अपनी समृद्ध और विशाल जैव विविधता, विशेष रूप से पक्षी प्रजातियों के लिए भी प्रसिद्ध है। "शहीद चन्द्रशेखर आजाद पक्षी विहार," अभ्यारण्य भी उन भाग्यशाली अभ्यारण्यों में से एक है, जिसमें वन्यजीवों की इतनी विशाल श्रृंखला है। यह भारत में पक्षी और पक्षी देखने के लिए एक आदर्श पर्यटन स्थल है। वेदांतगल पक्षी अभ्यारण्य तमिलनाडु में स्थित भारत में सबसे पुराना पक्षी अभ्यारण्य है। भारत के पक्षी अभ्यारण्यों की सूची यहां दी जा रही है :

क्र.सं.	वन्य जीवन अभ्यारण्य/पक्षी अभ्यारण्य का नाम	राज्य का नाम
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6.	गागा वन्यजीव अभ्यारण्य	नई दिल्ली, उ०प्र०
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8.	भिण्डावास वन्यजीव अभ्यारण्य	हरियाणा
9.	खपरवाल वन्यजीव अभ्यारण्य	हरियाणा
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13.	रंगाथिट्टू पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	कर्नाटक
14.	कडलुण्डी पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	केरल
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16.	मंगलवनम पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	केरल
17.	मयानी पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	महाराष्ट्र
18.	ग्रेट इण्डियन बस्टर्ड पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	महाराष्ट्र
19.	लैंगटेंग वन्यजीव अभ्यारण्य	मिजोरम
20.	चित्रांगुडी पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	तमिलनाडु
21.	काजीरेकुलम पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	तमिलनाडु
22.	कुथानकुलम पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	तमिलनाडु
23.	वेदांतंगल पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	तमिलनाडु
24.	वेल्लोड पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	तमिलनाडु
25.	वेटांगुडी पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	तमिलनाडु
26.	करीबीती पक्षी अभ्यारण्य	तमिलनाडु
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40.	रायगंज वन्यजीव अभ्यारण्य	पश्चिम बंगाल

Source : List of Bird Sanctuaries in India - Hindi.examsdaily.in (16.04.2020)
www.abplive.com/states/up-uk/nawabganj-birdsanctuary-siberian-bird-come-here-after-traveling-a-distance-of-5-thousnd.kilometers-the-habitat-of-more-than-250-species-of-birds-2002236

योगी सरकार की नई पर्यटन नीति से यूपी में पर्यटन बढ़ेगा, वाइल्ड लाइफ और इको टूरिज्म का भी विकास होगा : योगी सरकार की नई पर्यटन नीति में वाइल्ड लाइफ और इको टूरिज्म को साथ रखते हुये इसमें सेंचुरी और फॉरिस्ट रिजर्व को विकसित किया जाएगा तथा इनके तहत हमारे जो भी प्राकृतिक स्थल हैं उनको भी विकसित किया जाएगा। इस नीति के तहत प्रदेश में ऐसे क्षेत्रों को चिन्हित किया जाएगा। जहाँ पर इको टूरिज्म की संभावनाएं हैं। वहीं वाइल्डलाइफ से जुड़े क्षेत्रों को भी पर्यटन के लिहाज से विकसित करते हुए यहाँ पर्यटकों के अनुकूल सुविधाओं में इजाफा किए जाने का प्रस्ताव है। वहीं पर्यटन से 22 तरह की एक्टिविटीज को जोड़ने का भी प्लान है। कैबिनेट मंत्री ए.के. शर्मा ने बताया कि पर्यटन से जुड़ी कई गतिविधियों को जो अब तक पर्यटन की व्याख्या में नहीं आती थीं, उन्हें भी शामिल किया गया है। इनमें बजट होटल, हेरिटेज होटल, स्टार होटल, हेरिटेज होम स्टे, इको टूरिज्म की इकाइयां, कारवां टूरिज्म यूनिट, प्रदर्शनी, पिलग्रिम डॉमेंट्री, धर्मशालाएं, वेलनेस टूरिज्म, एडवेंचर टूरिज्म जैसी कुल 22 एक्टिविटीज को नई नीति में जगह दी गई है। (दीप पाण्डेय, हिन्दुस्तान, लखनऊ, 17 नवम्बर, 2022)

और इस प्रकार अंत में हम कह सकते हैं कि यह पक्षी अभ्यारण्य उत्तरप्रदेश के बहुमूल्य प्राकृतिक विरासतों में से एक है। लखनऊ-कानपुर जैसे महत्वपूर्ण राष्ट्रीय राजमार्ग – 25 पर स्थित होने के बावजूद इस अभ्यारण्य को जितनी प्रसिद्धि मिलनी चाहिए थी, वह नहीं मिली है तथा अभी काफी प्रचार-प्रसार की आवश्यकता है ताकि यहां पर्यटकों को आकर्षित किया जा सके। सरकार को इस ओर ध्यान देने की जरूरत है। इस पक्षी विहार को झील के किनारे स्थित

वक्षावलियाँ एवं वन क्षेत्र मनमोहक, शान्त एवं सुरम्य वातावरण प्रदान करते हैं। कानपुर—लखनऊ मार्ग पर स्थित होने के कारण यहां हजारों की संख्या में पर्यटक आते हैं। अभ्यारण्य के भीतर पर्यटक विविध प्रजातियों, आकार एवं रंगों के पक्षियों की विविधता भरी अविस्मरणीय गतिविधियों के सुखद आनन्द के साथ वोटिंग के भी मजे लेते हैं। यदि पक्षी विहार में सुखद भ्रमण के दौरान आप आपने साथ वाइनाकुलर, बर्ड—गाइड बुक साथ रखते हैं तो पक्षियों को पहचानने में आसानी होती है, साथ ही यदि आप भ्रमण के दौरान स्थानीय स्टाफ का सहयोग प्राप्त करें तो वे आपको पक्षियों के संबंध में उपयोगी जानकारी दे सकते हैं। यहां कई ऐसे पक्षी भी हैं जो सर्दियों के मौसम में तिब्बत, चीन, यूरोप और साइबेरिया से हिमालय की तरफ पलायन करते हैं। पक्षी विहार की झील का धार्मिक महत्व भी है। किवदन्ति है कि भगवान श्री राम के आदेश पर श्री लक्ष्मण जी माता सीता को बिदूर के पास वन में छोड़ गये थे। आज वही स्थान परिहर के नाम से जाना जाता है। परिहर से अयोध्या लौटते समय श्री लक्ष्मण जी ने इसी झील के किनारे विश्राम किया था। शीतकाल में विविध प्रजाति के प्रवासी तथा स्थानीय पक्षियों के झुण्ड झील का प्रमुख आकर्षण हैं। विश्व में लगभग 10,000 पक्षी प्रजातियाँ हैं जिनमें से लगभग 1300 प्रजातियाँ भारत में पायी जाती हैं। इन्हीं में से लगभग 200 से अधिक प्रजातियाँ हिमालय पर्वत की असीम ऊँचाइयों को पार कर साइबेरिया, मंगोलिया, पश्चिमी यूरोप, चीन, मध्य एशिया आदि से, 10 हजार कि.मी. तक की दूरी तय कर विषम परिस्थितियों से बचते हुए शीतकालीन प्रवास हेतु यहां आते हैं। यहां उ.प्र. के गंगा के मैदानी भाग में अपेक्षाकृत गर्म जलवायु में प्रवासी पक्षियों को प्रचुर मात्रा में सुरक्षा प्राप्त होती है।

संदर्भ

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