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Vellappally Natesan
Manager

I feel extremely happy to bring out this biannual multidisciplinary research journal “Research Essence” of our College. This is an occasion when our P G Departments are in the process of being elevated to the status of recognized research centres. With this our College will certainly become an established venue for interdisciplinary discussions, debates and seminar. This research journal will, to a certain extent satisfy, the long awaited academic needs of our teachers and students.

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Reform in Central Devolution Criteria: A Way to Boost Revenue Mobilization in Kerala

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²Assistant Professor, Department of Futures Studies, University of Kerala, Kariavattom Campus, Thiruvananthapuram - 695581

Abstract

Presently, the Finance Commission face the increasing challenge of recommending a new criteria for tax devolution, meeting the demand of low income States without being substantially adverse to the middle income States. This paper attempts to analyze the impact of reform in devolution of central taxes criteria in boosting the revenue mobilization of Kerala. Though the States have made a common demand for an increased share in divisible pool of Central taxes, there are sharp differences in the matter of criteria which are adopted in devolution. Some analysis shows that the average growth rate in total Central transfers was lower for Kerala than for other States. It has also been coming down rather steeply. If some reform were adopted in central devolution criteria it may benefit the state. That means, higher transfers would boost the States’ revenue receipts, thereby creating fiscal space for the State Governments to incur existing and additional expenditure while at the same time providing assistance for the attainment of the fiscal targets. So the focus of this paper is to analyze the impact of reform in central tax devolution criteria in boosting the revenue mobilization of Kerala.

Keywords: Devolution; Tax devolution criteria; Revenue mobilization; Finance Commission.

Introduction

Under democratic system of governments there is a built in tendency for fiscal crisis, as there are increasing demand for righteous and egalitarian development. This coupled with fiscal illusion and fiscal profligacy of the successive governments make fiscal crisis vulnerable and very often chronic. So a healthy state finance is important for ensuring balanced regional development and for launching the entire economy to a higher growth trajectory.
Kerala, a state situating in the southwestern part of India, presumes significance in respect of several aspects. And the development experience of Kerala raises several intriguing paradoxes and problems. Like (a) high per capita consumption (b) low rate of growth, especially in agriculture sector, despite successful land reforms, high investment in major irrigation and high level of investment credit per hectare and (c) High Physical Quality of Life Index along with high incidence of unemployment and poverty. On the fiscal front, the state was functioning well up to the late eighties, having fair revenue as well as controllable fiscal deficits. However this underwent a reverse trend during the nineties onwards. The problem emerged in the form of an alarming growth of revenue and fiscal deficits, substantial rise in public debt, increasing reliance on borrowed money for meeting current expenditure and a drastic decline in capital expenditure. Though many states in the country face a fiscal crisis, what was distinct about Kerala was the liquidity crisis, the effect of a continued fiscal imbalance. And in Kerala the revenue deficit has its genesis largely in the revenue account. And the pattern of financing revenue deficits with capital receipts is fraught with grave consequences. And now the state had been dipping into its public accounts to finance its revenue deficits for quite some time. The utilization of these funds for current consumption has already started impairing government ability to meet in time, its fiduciary obligations. And this may also get the state into much more serious ways and means difficulty in the near future. A number of agendas for Kerala’s development with ambitious targets, floating around in the State today. But the fact remains that without adequate resources, these ambitious targets will remain only dreams without adequate resources. What this means is that the state must generate sufficient revenue to finance the expenditures. There comes the importance of revenue mobilization.

Under any fiscal set up, the sub national governments have two important sources of revenue- own revenue and intergovernmental transfers. Compared to the own revenue, the percentage of central transfers is very low at thirty percentage in Kerala. And the share of central transfers in the Net State Domestic Product is showing a declining trend during the last decade. This decline has accentuated the fiscal crisis of Kerala, which is much more severe than that of other States (CSES, 2003). Consequently what happened is that
the role played by Central transfers in financing Kerala’s expenditure, both revenue and aggregate has become smaller. That is the share in the tax devolution and in the grants given by the central Government to Kerala state government has been coming down. It is shown in table 1. This has significantly affected the capacity to provide services at an adequate level in terms of quantity and quality, particularly in relation to public goods like law and order and justice, and merit goods like health and education. And that is one of the most concerning problem now Kerala face.

Table 1: Share of Kerala in the Total Finance Commission Transfers to States (Rs core)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finance Commission</th>
<th>Tenth</th>
<th>Eleventh</th>
<th>Twelfth</th>
<th>Thirteenth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Share in Central Taxes and Duties</td>
<td>7217.00 (3.5)</td>
<td>11504.00 (3.1)</td>
<td>16353.21(2.7)</td>
<td>33954.3 (2.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Total Grants</td>
<td>504.81 (2.5)</td>
<td>813(1.4)</td>
<td>3254.51(2.3)</td>
<td>6371.5 (2.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Total Transfers (1+2)</td>
<td>7721.81(3.4)</td>
<td>12317(2.8)</td>
<td>19607.72(2.6)</td>
<td>40325.8 (2.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Finance Commission Reports

But still in India devolution of taxes and duties constitutes the most significant dimension of fiscal federalism (Krishna, 2004). At present, the Finance Commission face the increasing challenge of recommending a new criteria for tax devolution for meeting the demand of low income States without being substantially adverse to the middle income States. The Government of India has to satisfy the competing demands to deliver a number of essential and basic socio-economic services of the States. In this backdrop, this paper attempts to analyze the impact of reform in devolution of central taxes criteria in boosting the revenue mobilization of Kerala. Though the States have made a common demand for an increased share in divisible pool of Central taxes, there are sharp differences in the matter of criteria which are adopted in devolution. Some analysis shows that the average growth rate in total Central transfers was lower for Kerala than for other States. It has also
been coming down rather steeply. If some reforms were adopted in central devolution criteria it would have benefited the state. That means higher transfers would boost the States’ revenue receipts, thereby creating fiscal space for the State Governments to incur existing and additional expenditure while at the same time providing assistance for the attainment of the fiscal targets. So the focus of this paper is to analyze the impact of reform in central tax devolution criteria in boosting the revenue mobilization of Kerala.

**Centre-state financial relations**

In India, Centre-State fiscal relations and the relative spheres of activities of the two levels of the government constitute the most serious issue of federal finances. And here Centre-State financial relations relate to the distribution of power in resource mobilization between the Centre and States as also the sharing of expenditure responsibilities. While the Central government has greater access to tax resources, the State governments have to face the greater responsibility of delivery of public goods. That means most of the important and buoyant revenue sources are assigned to the Union Government, while major expenditure responsibilities in the social and economic sectors are assigned to State governments. The rationale underlying this design of responsibilities lies in the fact that federal governments are supposed to enjoy scale of economies in the collection of certain taxes, while expenditure responsibilities are assigned to States due to their proximity to local issues and needs. In fact, the architects of the Indian Constitution drew on the experience of some extant federations where the assignment of taxes with a wide economic base to units had led to intractable problems of conflicting tax jurisdictions (Sury, 2010). The possibility of such conflicts was avoided by assigning such taxes right from the beginning to the Union Government. While the State governments in India collect about only one-third of the total tax revenue accruing to the government sector, their expenditure obligations are disproportionately high. So to enable the States to carry out their expenditure responsibilities, the Finance Commission (FC) is assigned the task of recommending the transfer of resources from the Centre to the States.

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History: genesis of the finance commission

The Finance Commission (FC) was created as a constitutional body by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar, the, the Father of Constitution of India, to address issues of vertical and horizontal imbalances of federal finances in India in an equitable and efficient manner. Vertical imbalances refer to the mismatch between the revenue-raising capacity and expenditure needs of the Centre and the States. Horizontal fiscal imbalances exist on account of the inability of some States to provide comparable services due to inadequate capacity to raise funds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Box 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Constitutional provisions for distribution of revenues between the union and the states in India</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 268:</strong> Duties levied by the Union but collected and appropriated by the States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 268 (A):</strong> Taxes on services shall be levied by the GoI and such tax can be collected and appropriated by GoI and the States. (88th Amendment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 269:</strong> Taxes levied and collected by the Union but assigned to the States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 270:</strong> Taxes levied and collected by the Union and distributed between the Union and the States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 271:</strong> Surcharge on certain duties and taxes for purposes of the Union.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 272:</strong> Taxes which are levied and collected by the Union and may be distributed between the Union and the States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 275:</strong> Grants from the Union to certain States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Article 276:</strong> Taxes on professions, trades, callings and employments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Approaches for determining grants**

**Article 280 (3) (b):** Finance Commission to make recommendations as to the “principles” which should govern such grants in aid.

**Article 275 (1):** Specific “surcharges” to be paid to the states which are assessed to be in “need of assistance”.

Source: The Constitution of India

Dr. Ambedkar has made several provisions to bridge the gap of finances between the Centre and the States. These include various articles in the...
constitution like Article 268, which facilitates levy of duties by the Centre but equips the states to collect and retain the same. Similarly, there are Articles 269, 270, 275, 282 and 293 all of which specify ways and means of sharing resources between Union and States. It is explained in the box 1

So the Finance Commission, which came into existence in 1951, under Article 280 of the Indian Constitution, states that:

1. The President will constitute a Finance Commission within two years from the commencement of the Constitution and thereafter at the end of every fifth year or earlier, as the deemed necessary by him/her, which shall include a chairman and four other members.

2. Parliament may by law determine the requisite qualifications for appointment as members of the Commission and the procedure of selection.

And the Commission is constituted to make recommendations to the president about the distribution of the net proceeds of taxes between the Union and States and also the allocation of the same amongst the States themselves. It is also under the ambit of the Finance Commission to define the financial relations between the Union and the States. They also deal with devolution of non-plan revenue resources. Apart from its constitutional tasks of deciding the proportion of tax revenue to be shared with the States and the principles governing the grants-in-aid of the revenues of the States, the scope of the FCs broadened over time as they were assigned several other issues on government finances, particularly those relating to augmentation of State Consolidation Funds to supplementing the resources of local bodies and debt-related issues. The approach of successive FCs varied as they addressed concerns raised by States from time to time regarding the composition of the divisible pool of central taxes and interstate distribution criteria.

**Devolution of resources from centre to States**

The fundamental principle of inter-governmental transfers is discussed in clear terms in the opening paragraph of the 11th Finance Commission Report:

“A sound system of inter-governmental fiscal transfers constitutes the cornerstone of a strong and stable federal polity. Transfers serve a twofold

---

2Government of India, 11th Finance Commission Report
purpose: one, to address the vertical imbalance- the inadequacy of revenues of sub national governments to meet their expenditure liabilities, arising from the assignment of asymmetrical functional responsibilities and financial powers among different levels of government, and two, to alleviate horizontal imbalances, the disparities in the revenue capacities of the constituent units of the federation-States and local bodies in our case - in order that all of them may be in a position to provide basic public services to their citizens at a reasonable level” (11th Finance Commission Report, p.6).

Although the role of the Finance Commission’s has expanded significantly over the years, the basic mandate for FCs in respect of distribution of taxes and grants in- aid to States has remained unchanged. But each Finance Commission (FC) is required to determine the aggregate and individual shares of the States in the shareable pool of Central taxes .And also the Commission has to determine the aggregate share of States in shareable taxes, specify criteria for deciding the shares of the individual States, and the weights attached to different allocation criteria. The shareable pool of Central taxes has changed in its scope and composition. Each Finance Commission has exercised varying value judgments to determine the approach and size of the vertical and horizontal revenue transfers (Chalam and Mishra, 1997) ³. As regards the determination of the interstate shares of the states, the basic aim of the finance commission transfers has been to (i) to correct the differentials in revenue capacity and cost disability factors inherent in the economies of states and (ii) to foster fiscal efficiency among the states.

**Resource sharing: vertical and horizontal sharing**

The fiscal transfers relates to vertical and horizontal dimensions. The vertical dimensions relates to the relative shares of resources between the centre and the states taken as a group. That is the transfers from the Centre to the States as a whole. The horizontal dimension relates to the interstate distribution of the resources among the states.

**Vertical sharing process**

Vertical transfers refer to the total transfers from the central government to the States. The vertical imbalance arises since resources have been assigned more to the central government and states have been entrusted

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with the larger responsibilities. To deal with the vertical imbalances between
the Centre and the States, the FC recommends vertical transfers. The most
vital aspect of intergovernmental fiscal transfers is the size of the distributive
pool of taxes which is available for transfers. With the 80th Constitutional
Amendment, a single pool has been prescribed for all shareable Central taxes
since the Eleventh FC. Taking into consideration the factors, viz., (i) the
higher buoyancy of the Centre’s taxes than that of the States during 2000-08,
(ii) the States’ increasing responsibility with regard to rural and urban
infrastructure and (iii) the increase in the Centre’s non-tax revenues
particularly from royalties and the tele-communications sector, the Thirteenth
FC recommended raising the States’ share in Central taxes to 32 per cent for
the award period 2010-15. The data of percentage of divisible pool of various
FC is shown in table 2.

Table 2: Percentage of divisible pool of various FC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>XI</th>
<th>XII</th>
<th>XIII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tax</td>
<td>29.5% of Net</td>
<td>30.5%</td>
<td>32.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>revenue</td>
<td>proceeds of all</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>devolution</td>
<td>shareable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Union taxes and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>duties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ThFC Report, TwFC Report, TenFC Report

The spirit of larger transfers have, however, been not honored as the
Centre has been collecting resources through cesses and surcharges which are
not Part of the divisible pool. But now the share of cess and surcharge in the
Centre’s gross receipts has been increasing from around 3% during the award
period of the Tenth Finance Commission to over 12% by the period of the
Thirteenth Finance Commission. In effect, the share of the States in the gross
tax receipts of the Centre has remained more or less at the level of the Tenth
Finance Commission’s award till the Thirteenth Finance Commission’s award
period with a dip in between. It is requested, therefore, that the Fourteenth
Finance Commission consider enlarging the divisible pool by including the
revenue from cesses and surcharges which have been in existence for over
three years. If it is done, it will benefit all state including Kerala.

Horizontal sharing process (Tax Devolution)

In the process of devolution of resources from the Centre to States,
there are two major modes of transfers, viz., States’ share in Central taxes, and
grants. The key factors for determining the States’ share in Central taxes
(Horizontal distribution) have varied across FCs. Grants to States can be unconditional and general purpose or conditional and purpose specific. The proportion of Central tax devolution flowing to each State will be governed by the interstate distribution recommended by the ThFC for the years 2010-11 to 2014-15, which has been accepted by GoI. The criteria and weights for the horizontal devolution now using are indicated in table 3.

Table 3: Criteria and Weights for Ascertaining Horizontal Devolution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TwFC</th>
<th>ThFC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Criteria</td>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>Criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population in 1971</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>Population in 1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>Area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income Distance</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>Fiscal Capacity Distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiscal Discipline</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>Fiscal Discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Effort</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ThFC Report, TwFC Report

By analyzing table 3 it can be understand that the population and area criteria and their respective weights are along the same lines as followed by the TwFC. As these two criteria are equity-neutral measures of fiscal need, the income distance criterion of previous Finance Commissions has been replaced by the fiscal capacity distance criterion to bring an element of equity into the horizontal devolution formula. The latter aims to ensure that all States have the fiscal capability to provide similar levels of public services to their populace, at comparable levels of taxation. Since the fiscal discipline criterion captures the tax effort of States, the tax effort criterion has been dropped by the ThFC. In order to incentivize fiscal prudence, the ThFC has increased the weight attached to the fiscal discipline criterion to 17.5%, higher than the combined weight of fiscal discipline and tax effort set by the TwFC (15%). And the interstate share of ith state in the tax sharing formula, si, is determined as the weighted sum of state shares by the four parameters. Thus,

$$s_i = \sum_{m=1}^{4} S_i^m W_m$$

4This criterion measured the distance of the per capita GSDP of each State relative to the average of the three States with the highest per capita income.

5Fiscal capacity distance measures the distance of the estimated potential per capita tax revenue of each State using different weighted average tax ratios for General and Special Category States from that of Haryana, which ranks second under this criterion.
According to the Kerala government, the central devolution to Kerala decreased after the implementation of the 11th finance Commission's recommendation. And we know that the Kerala model of development has thrown up a large number and variety of special problems unique to the State. It is often claimed that some of Kerala’s achievements are comparable to those of advanced countries. But these have also brought in its wake some of the advanced countries’ problems. The State does not have the financial ability to tackle them all by itself. Since these problems are unique to the State, they have not received the national attention and priority that they deserve. While the federal agencies are still grappling with first generation problems in education, health care and social security, Kerala is saddled with second generation problems resulting from the very success in attaining higher levels of social development (e.g.: the problems of old age, unemployment of the educated, larger demand for higher education etc.). If Kerala is not getting its due share in Finance Commissions’ transfers, the fault lies largely in the criteria used by them in their inter-state distribution of the Centre’s tax shares. Kerala has not been getting its due share in Central taxes under the awards of the recent Finance Commissions because of four reasons:

1. The use of criteria inappropriate for the State.
2. Use of Inappropriate indicators for the criteria used
3. Inappropriate weightages given for the different criteria
4. Failure to use criteria which are relevant to the State.

So we have to analyze the different criteria adopted by the recent Finance Commissions and assess their effects on the State. So some alternative criteria which are more appropriate for the State has to be introduced. Let us check all the devolution criteria.

1. Population

One of the criteria adopted for devolution by all Finance Commissions is the size of population as it is an indicator of the budgetary needs of States. Population is the basic indicator of need for public goods and services and as a criterion it ensures equal per capita transfers across states. Besides, this is a neutral criterion; the weight attached to population has varied substantially over time. The Eleventh Finance Commission had reduced the weightages of
this factor to just 10 percent. This weightages is too small and hurts the interest of populous states like Kerala. So it has increased into 25% in twelfth and thirteenth finance commission. In giving weightages to the criterion of population, all Finance Commissions use the 1971 population figures in all cases where population is regarded as a factor for determination of devolution of taxes and duties and grants in aid. Which base year population should be used whether 1971 or the latest census is one of the most concerning problem. If we adopt 1971 data it will benefit middle income states, so the commission adopted 1971 census data.

And for the ith state the share under this criterion ($s_i^{1971-1}$) is derived by using the following formula

$$s_i^{1971-1} = \frac{pop_{i}^{1971}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} pop_{i}^{1971}}$$

Where $pop_{i}^{1971} = 1971$ population of the ith state

Surely, Population is one of the basic indicators which should get into any formula for devolution. But in the criteria we should also include most concerning issues and changes in population transition like, (a) Aging of population, (b) forest area (c) Effective density (d) urbanization, (e) the number of migrant laborers etc. That is, age composition of the population has changed with higher proportion of aged in some States that have achieved higher fertility reduction it has to be considered. And also it is not proper to ignore the cost disabilities brought about by urbanization. The pace of urbanization process in some state is increasing. It is 42.58% for Gujarat, 34.79% for Haryana, 37.49% for Punjab, 45.23% for Maharashtra, 33.49% for Andhra Pradesh, 38.57% for Karnataka, 47.72% for Kerala and 48.45% for Tamil Nadu. These demographic changes have implications for cost disabilities. So it has to be involved. And in the memorandum presented to the 14 finance commission by the state an enhanced population shares is calculated. It is shown in table 4.

According to the table 4 it can be understand that if we include various aspect of population transition we can gain more proportion from the divisible pool of central government. That is for Kerala it increased from 3.931 to 4.605.
### Table 4: Population Shares of States Enhanced with the Cost Disability Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>8.010</td>
<td>7.576</td>
<td>7.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arunachal Pradesh</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>2.693</td>
<td>2.754</td>
<td>2.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>7.757</td>
<td>7.159</td>
<td>7.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chhattisgarh</td>
<td>2.143</td>
<td>2.389</td>
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<td>5.053</td>
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<td>1.763</td>
<td>1.762</td>
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<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
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<td>0.854</td>
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<td>5.359</td>
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<td>8.256</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tripura</td>
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<td>0.361</td>
<td>0.362</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>15.439</td>
<td>14.250</td>
<td>14.257</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uttarakhand</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>1.081</td>
<td>1.081</td>
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<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>8.159</td>
<td>7.585</td>
<td>7.593</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (1) The 1971 population shares are taken from the Report of the XIII th Finance Commission;
(2) Both urbanization and the proportion of elderly is taken from the Population Census, 2011;
(3) India State of Forest Report, 2011.
2. Area

Area as a criterion in the devolution formula was first introduced by FC-X on the grounds that a state with larger area has to incur additional administrative costs to deliver a comparable standard of service to its citizens. Area is an indicator of states’ budgetary needs. For the ith state the share under this criterion ($s^a_i$) is derived through a two stage procedure. In the first stage

$$s^a_i = \frac{\text{area}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{10} \text{area}_i}$$

Where area, $i$ = area of ith state

In the second stage, the share of each state is subject to a floor of 2 per cent, i.e., states having area less than 2 per cent of the total area are assigned a share of 2 per cent, and the shares of the other states are reduced proportionately so as to restore the sum across all states to unity.

But when we analyze the size of the area as a criterion for devolution we can understand that it adversely affects relatively smaller states with high density of population. It can be argued that density of population also has fiscal implications. The density of population boosts the land prices as it has happened in Kerala and affects the capital expenditure needs of States. And also the revenue foregone by the State on account of conservation of forests, projects foregone and the indirect benefit accruing to the country on account of environmental protection should not be ignored in any distributional schema. The notifications issued by the Union Ministry of Environment and Forests following the reports of Madhav Gadgil and Kasturi Ranganseverely limit mining, quarrying and sand mining, building and construction projects, townships and area development projects and certain categories of industries. It will increase the coast disability of states. And it is only fair if the State is compensated adequately by the Finance Commission for 1) revenue loss, 2)funds spent for maintenance of forests and 3) compensation for acting as a net carbon sequestration area of the country incurring opportunity cost of economic growth and food security at least in the short run. And if these all are considered then Kerala get a better share from devolution.
3. Fiscal capacity distance

Fiscal capacity distance measures the distance of the estimated potential per capita tax revenue of each State using different weighted average tax ratios for General and Special Category States from that of Haryana, which ranks second under this criterion. The Thirteenth FC recommended using the concept of ‘fiscal capacity distance instead of income distance’. Instead of using a single average of GSDP to assess the fiscal distance between States, it recommended estimation of per capita fiscal capacity at reasonably comparable levels of taxation from their respective group averages of non-special category and special category States. The Thirteenth FC accorded the highest weight to fiscal capacity distance (47.5 percent).

For the ith state the share under this criterion ($S_i^{m=3}$) is derived as

$$S_i^{m=3} = \frac{\text{pop}_{1971} d_{i,j} \sum_{i=1}^{28} \text{pop}_{1971} d_{i,j}}{\text{pop}_{1971}$$

Where $d_{i,j} = (kY_i^* - kjY_{i,j})$ for all states except Goa, Haryana & Maharashtra

$k = \text{three year (2004-07) average tax to comparable GSDP ratio of all states}$

$k_j = \text{three year (2004-07) average tax to comparable GSDP ratio of general/special category states; } j=1,2$

$Y_i^* = \text{three year (2004-07) average comparable per capita GSDP of Haryana}$

$Y_{i,j} = \text{three year (2004-07) average comparable per capita GSDP of ith state in jth category}$

$\text{pop}_{1971} = 1971 \text{ population of the ith state}$

The issue in these criteria is whether the GSDP truly reflects the tax base. For the reasons mentioned by the XII and XIII Finance Commissions it is not. Especially, in a world of consumption taxes (value added tax or VAT, Service Tax etc.), what is the sanctity of taking GSDP as a measure of tax base? With VAT, tax falls on Consumption that too excluding services (services are taxed by the Union and the States getting a share of it). Consumption expenditure depends on disposable income. Income accruing to persons is conditioned not so much by ‘domestic production’ in the GSDP measure but the ‘national income’ which has to take into account factor incomes. It is often said that Kerala receives large amount of Gulf remittances that do not get counted in the state’s GSDP and the Tax-GSDP ratio is over
estimated. And what is forgotten is that Kerala has larger number of domestic migrant laborers- largely from Assam, Bengal, UP and Bihar- estimated to be over 2.5 million in early 2013 that too growing at the rate of 8 per cent a year. Their annual remittances to their homes are around Rs. 17,000 crores a year, which is over 5 per cent of Kerala’s GSDP. So the tax base of Kerala will be lesser than the GSDP to that extent. Hence, per capita consumption expenditure too would be an inappropriate measure of tax base. And also the population indicator used itself has some problem as we discussed earlier. So appropriate measure should be adopted. If appropriate measures were adopted it would definitely benefit Kerala.

4. Fiscal discipline

Fiscal discipline as a criterion for tax devolution was used by FC-XI and FC-XII to provide an incentive to states managing their finances prudently. Both these Commissions assigned a weight of 7.5 per cent to this criterion; latter raised its weight to 17.5 per cent. The index of fiscal discipline was arrived at by relating improvement in the ratio of own revenue receipts of a state to its total revenue expenditure to average ratio across all the states. The share of the ith state under this criterion \(S_{i}^{m=4}\) has been derived as:

\[
S_{i}^{m=4} = \frac{\text{popi}^{1971}}{\sum_{i=1}^{28}(\text{popi}^{1971})} \left( \frac{\text{f}_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{28}(\text{f}_{i})} \right) 
\]

Where, \(f_{i} = \left( \frac{A_{i}}{B_{i}} \right)_{2001-03} / \left( \frac{A_{i}}{B_{i}} \right)_{2005-08} \)

\[
A_{i} = \frac{\text{own revenue}}{\text{revenue expenditure}}
\]

\[
B_{i} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{28}(\text{own revenue})}{\sum_{i=1}^{28}(\text{revenue expenditure})}
\]

\(\text{popi}^{1971}=1971\) population of the \(i^{th}\) state

The flaw might be discerned by a comparison of the performance of the States in terms of the index of fiscal discipline between the two time periods, 2001-03 to 2005-08 and 2005-08 to 2010-2013. The top panel presents the performance between 2001-03 and 2005-08, when the growth rate of the economy was one of the highest and the tax buoyancy was improving for the States. It is seen that on an average change in the ratio was positive and higher for those States that had higher levels of the ratio initially (there are
only one or two exceptions). Under this criterion, if all states have improved their respective ratios of own revenue to total revenue expenditure, then the states with relatively higher improvement than the average receive higher transfers. Similarly, if the ratio has deteriorated in all states, then states with lower deterioration than the average receive higher transfers. The inference is that the States with better ‘discipline’ were doing better. Turning to the lower panel, the comparison is for the period 2005-08 to 2010-2013 when the growth of the economy was slipping. The change in the ratio had turned negative and the States with better ‘discipline’ were doing much worse. Thus, the performance in terms of the index did not have much to do with ‘discipline’ but the growth of the economy. It seems the index fails to incentivize factors within the control of the States. What good does such an index serve is the question which arises.

Conclusion

To sum up, the FCs has played a distinctive role in inter-governmental fiscal relations in India. The major points can be summarized as, even though the core functions of the FCs have remained broadly unchanged with respect to distributing the net proceeds of taxes between the Union and the States and defining the guiding principles for grants-in-aid of revenues, the role of the FCs has considerably changing. It is understood from the analysis that some changes in the criteria can help the state in boosting its revenue. The population indicator can be modified by the inclusion of criteria like proportion of population above 60 years, density of population, urbanization and the number of migrant laborers etc. That means the population share should be reworked to incorporate cost disabilities and its weight can be increased accordingly. And a further compensation is given to those states where the enhancement is done on account of the economic disability posed by forest cover. And also if we consider the revenue foregone by the State on account of conservation of forests, projects foregone and the indirect benefit accruing to the country on account of environmental protection, the cost disability of states due to the adoption of Environment and Forests reports and density of population in the area criteria then also the state will benefit by earning more devolution share. And if we introduce more appropriate measure than GSDP which attempts to equalize per capita tax revenues of States so that the ability to provide a level of public goods and services are augmented. And the analysis shows that the performance in terms of the fiscal discipline index
did not have much to do with ‘discipline’ but the growth of the economy. It seems the index fails to incentivize factors within the control of the States. So if the government is prepared to take into account of these issues pertaining to the indicators used in the criteria of central tax devolution and to modify them according by then it will increase our share in the devolution of resources.

It can be summed up that States like Kerala, which are now facing second-generation problems, are adversely affected by the traditional criteria for funds devolution like population and area. In a dynamic situation, there is need for change in criteria for devolution of funds to take care of the needs of states like Kerala. Definitely reform in central tax devolution criteria can boost the revenue mobilization of Kerala.

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An Empirical Analysis of Revenue-Expenditure Nexus for the Kerala State Government
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Abstract
This paper makes an effort to inquire whether a nexus exists between revenues and expenditures of Kerala government for the period ranging from 1980-81 to 2012-13 by studying the relationship between total receipts and an array of expenditure measures so as to determine whether the spend and tax or tax and spend hypotheses or fiscal synchronization hold for government finances in Kerala. The empirical analysis has been carried out using the state finances data from different sources, employing time series econometric techniques.

Keywords: Revenues; Expenditure; Cointegration; Causality.

Introduction
Kerala’s achievements in terms of high human development has put the state way ahead of other Indian states and on par with developed economies in critical areas such as literacy, healthcare, gender consciousness, labour rights and participative governance. But the fiscal stance of Kerala Government happens to be weak. The Kerala Model of Development which depicts high level of social development coupled with not so high level of economic growth has been imposing a constant burden on the State’s finances. The Government of Kerala has been experiencing the pressure of fiscal crisis for some decades now. The increasing trend in the rate of growth of the state’s expenditures coupled with the decline in the rate of growth of its revenues has triggered this fiscal crisis.

During 1970’s the government of Kerala had a comfortable budgetary position as growth in state’s revenue expenditure lagged behind the revenue receipts. The growth in state’s own tax revenue was higher than the revenue expenditure, which helped the state government to maintain the fiscal health. Yet another favorable feature was a growth of central government transfer to the state to slightly more than 21 per cent.
The growth in revenue expenditure accelerated by 15.66 per cent per annum during 1980’s whereas the state’s own tax revenue decelerated to 15.63 per cent per annum. Transfers from the central government also decreased sharply to 30.09 per cent per annum. This resulted in the deterioration of the state government’s budgetary position from a surplus of Rs.31 lakhs in the early 1970’s to a deficit of about Rs.27crores in early 1980’s and Rs.400crores in early 1990s. The situation worsened from thereon and the deficit became Rs. 4500 crores in the year 2004-05. In the year 2012-13, the fiscal deficit of Kerala Government reached Rs. 15002 crores.

The main cause of the state’s budgetary problem is the high and increasing growth of revenue expenditure and declining revenue receipts and central transfers. In 1970s, the revenue expenditure was high and was increasing at a rate of 13.65 per cent per annum. At the same time, revenue receipts and central transfers were also high and were increasing at a rate of 14.60 and 21.78 per cent per annum respectively. In 1980s, revenue expenditure fell to 2 per cent but revenue receipts and central transfers also fell to1.66 per cent and 8 per cent per annum respectively. The data shows that Kerala has lower growth rate in revenue receipts as compared to its neighbouring states- Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu.

In 1985-86, restrictions were imposed on borrowings from RBI through ways and means advances. Hence, the increase in revenue expenditure had to be accommodated by displacing capital expenditure. This is evident from the drastic fall in the growth of capital expenditure from 23.52 per cent to 9.16 per cent during 1991-2001 and 5 per cent during 2001-2005. The rapid growth of revenue expenditure in relation to growth of revenue receipts brought about the cycle of expenditure growth, leading to heavy borrowings by the state government. Subsequent result was huge deficits reflecting fiscal unsustainability of the state finances.

At this juncture, it would be interesting to study the nexus, if any, that exists between these major constituents of the fiscal crisis. That is, to check whether revenues lead expenditures or expenditures lead revenues. The causal interdependence between revenues and expenditures can have huge impact on the deficits. This is because of the fact that the major deficit management policies comprise of tax increase measures as well as expenditure cut measures. Hence, a study based on these two fiscal variables can help better in deriving strategies for deficit management. This paper makes an effort to
analyze whether a nexus exists between revenues and expenditures of Kerala government for the period ranging from 1980-81 to 2012-13 by studying the relationship between total receipts and an array of expenditure variables so as to determine whether the tax and spend or the spend and tax hypotheses or a fiscal synchronization hold for government finances in Kerala.

The tax and spend hypothesis states that revenues lead expenditures, i.e. a change in tax causes a change in expenditures. This hypothesis does not support budget deficits because tax policies are framed first and then spend accordingly. The spend and tax hypothesis is the reversal of the above case. It states that expenditures lead revenues. That is the government spends first and then decides on its financing. Another hypothesis is fiscal synchronization which means revenue and expenditure decisions are taken simultaneously.

There are a number of studies which have made use of similar methodologies to analyse the longrun relationships between the revenues and expenditures of the public authority both at the Centre as well as the State levels. Raju S (2004) has analysed the causal relationship between central government revenues and expenditures by employing Cointegration and causality tests. The results of the study indicate bi-directional causality between total government expenditures and tax revenues and revenue receipts. Raju S (2008) has examined the issue of the existence if any, of a nexus between revenues and expenditures of the central government so as to identify whether expenditures lead or follow revenues using data for the period ranging from 1950-51 to 2003-04. The findings of the study supports for both the expenditures lead revenues (spend and tax hypothesis) and revenues lead expenditures (tax and spend hypothesis) between total receipts/tax receipts and different categories of expenditures at the level of the central government for India. Chaudhuri and Sengupta (2009) have examined the temporal relationship between revenues and expenditures for four southern states comprising of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu for the period 1980-2005 using the error-correction model and Granger causality test. The study found that fiscal synchronization is supported for Kerala.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 1 introduces the scenario of the state finances of Kerala and explains the relevance of the study on the revenue-expenditure nexus in the deficit management of Kerala. Section 2 captures the trends in the state finances graphically so as to get a broad idea regarding the behavior of the state finances. The data and methodology
employed for the empirical analysis are discussed in Section 3 while Section 4
presents the results and interpretation of the empirical analysis. Finally,
Section 5 discusses the conclusion derived from the study.

Trends in Kerala State Finances

A graphical presentation of various revenue and expenditure measures
of the Government of Kerala over the period 1980-81 to 2012-13, will help to
understand the scene better. Figures 1 to 5 shows an increasing trend in
revenues and expenditures throughout the entire period and the trend evident
from the year 2000 onwards.

It can be seen from the figures that there seems to be togetherness in
the longrun trends of the various revenue and expenditure variables. This
suggests the existence of a nexus between the various revenue and expenditure
variable.

Figure 1: Trends in Total Receipts and Total Expenditures of Kerala from
1981 to 2013

![Graph showing trends in total receipts and total expenditures]


Figure 2: Trends in Revenue Receipts and Revenue Expenditures of Kerala
from 1981 to 2013

![Graph showing trends in revenue receipts and revenue expenditures]

**Figure 3:** Trends in Tax Receipts and Total Expenditures of Kerala from 1981 to 2013


**Figure 4:** Trends in Total Receipts, Development expenditure and Non Development Expenditure of Kerala from 1981 to 2013


**Figure 5:** Trends in Total Receipts, Capital Expenditure, Revenue Expenditure and Social Sector Expenditure of Kerala from 1981 to 2013


**Data and methodology**

The secondary data for various revenue and expenditure variables of the Government of Kerala annually for a period of 33 years ranging from 1980-
81 to 2012-13 has been employed for the empirical analysis. The data has been collected from various reports of the Planning Commission of India, different issues of the Handbook of Statistics on State Government Finances, Reserve Bank of India and various issues of the Kerala Economic Review.

The variables from the revenue side are:
1. Total Receipts (LTREC) = Revenue Receipts + Miscellaneous Capital Receipts.
2. Tax Receipts (LTAXREC) = State’s Own Tax Revenue + Share in Central Taxes.
3. Revenue Receipts (LREVREC) = State’s Own Tax Revenue + State’s Own Non-Tax Revenue + Share in Central Taxes + Grants-in-aid from Centre.

and those from the expenditure side are:
2. Adjusted Total Expenditure (LTEXP2) = Total Expenditure – Interest Payments (as interest payments are committed expenditures).
3. Revenue Expenditure (LREXP) = Revenue Expenditure on Social, Economic and General Services.
7. Social Sector Expenditure (LSSEX) = Expenditure on Social Services, Rural Development and Food Storage and Warehousing under Revenue Expenditure, Capital Outlay and Loans and Advances by State Governments.
All the variables are transformed into their logarithmic form and denoted by the suffix ‘L’ so as to remove the cyclical fluctuations.

The analysis proceeds as follows. Initially, the variables are tested for stationarity using the augmented Dickey-Fuller test and then the Johansen’s Cointegration test is used to check if the pairs of variables move together in the longrun. If the pairs are found to be cointegrated, we have run a Vector Error Correction Model to examine the causal interdependence. Afterwards, the direction of causality of the non-cointegrating pairs is analyzed using Granger’s Causality test.

**Results and interpretation**

The descriptive statistics of the variables are given in Table 1.

**Table 1: Summary Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>No. of Observations</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LTEXP</td>
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<td>8.898987</td>
<td>1.237772</td>
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<td>LDEXP</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.234463</td>
<td>6.461468</td>
<td>10.69505</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Descriptive Statistics for the data generated using Microsoft Excel 2010.

As the initial step for time series analysis, all the variables are subjected to the tests of stationarity in order to check for the presence of unit roots. The Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test is a widely used test of stationarity for time series data. It has been used to test the null hypothesis: the series has a unit root.
Table 2: Tests of Stationarity- Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test statistic at level</th>
<th>Test statistic at first difference</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>-4.826048**</td>
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<td>-3.080206</td>
<td>-4.764421**</td>
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<td>-5.371740**</td>
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<td>-6.570238**</td>
</tr>
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<td>-6.929369**</td>
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<tr>
<td>LREVREC</td>
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<td>-6.737845**</td>
</tr>
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<td>LTEXP2- LTREC</td>
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<td>LREXP- LREVREC</td>
<td>15.49471**</td>
<td>14.39864**</td>
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<td>25.85930**</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Critical value for the ADF test at 5% level of significance: -3.56. ** indicates rejection of null hypothesis at 5% level of significance. Lag length determined using AIC. Results generated using EViews 6.

Table 3: Results of Johansen’s Cointegration Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Trace Stat</th>
<th>Max. Eigen Stat</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LTEXP- LTREC</td>
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<td>6.375466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTEXP2- LTREC</td>
<td>6.983452</td>
<td>6.283909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LREXP- LREVREC</td>
<td>15.49471**</td>
<td>14.39864**</td>
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<tr>
<td>LDEXP- LTREC</td>
<td>27.37137**</td>
<td>25.85930**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LNDEXP- LTREC</td>
<td>14.98143</td>
<td>10.88925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSSEXP- LTREC</td>
<td>7.366377</td>
<td>7.323268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTEXP- LTXAXREC</td>
<td>11.55432</td>
<td>11.40025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** indicates 5% level of significance. Results generated using EViews 6.

The results of the ADF test shows that all variables are found to be non-stationary at level or I(0) processes but stationary at first difference or I(1) processes, except for LKEXP. LKEXP is stationary at level.

The Johansen’s cointegration test has been employed to check whether a longrun relationship exists between the revenue-expenditure pairs. Seven pairs have been considered for the analysis. The lag length for Cointegration is
determined using AIC criterion. The null hypothesis for the test is: there is no cointegration. The variable LKEXP is excluded as it is found to be stationary at level.

Table 3 reports that LREXP- LREVREC and LDEXP- LTREC are the pairs that possess a cointegrating relationship, i.e. the series move together in time. None of the other pairs favors cointegration. The existence of cointegration between pairs shows weak sustainability or inter-temporal budget constraint.

### Table 4: Results of causality and error correction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null: Revenues do not cause Expenditures</th>
<th>Null: Expenditures do not cause Revenues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1# LTEXP- LTEXP</td>
<td>LTRECE- LTEXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F test 0.26813</td>
<td>F test 0.32246 (0.7273)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2# LTEXP2- LTEXP</td>
<td>LTRECE- LTEXP2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F test 0.16851</td>
<td>F test 0.20945 (0.8124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3@ LREXP- LREVREC</td>
<td>LREVREC- LREXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECTt-1 -0.594495</td>
<td>ECTt-1 0.295703 (2.06718)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chisquare 1.774950</td>
<td>Chisquare 1.946512 (0.3779)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4@ LDEXP- LTEXP</td>
<td>LTRECE- LDEXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECTt-1 -5.753411</td>
<td>ECTt-1 0.196363 (1.12485)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi square 5.410074</td>
<td>Chisquare 2.822113 (0.2439)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5# LNDEXP- LTRECE</td>
<td>LTRECE- LNDEXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F test 2.34442</td>
<td>F test 0.00299 (0.9970)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6# LSSEXEP- LTEXP</td>
<td>LTRECE- LSSEXEP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F test 0.02413</td>
<td>F test 0.23258 (0.7942)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7# LTEXP- LTAXREC</td>
<td>LTAXREC- LTEXP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F test 0.36300</td>
<td>F test 3.89253 (0.0338)**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

@ indicates causality results from VEC model. # indicates causality results from Granger’s test. Figures in [ ] parentheses indicate t values. Figures in ( ) parentheses indicate probability values. ECTt-1 denotes Coefficient of the Error Correction Term in the lag period. ***, ** and * indicates 1%, 5% and 10% level of significance. Results generated using EViews 6.

Finally, the causal interdependence between the revenue-expenditure pairs is examined to know whether revenues cause expenditures or expenditures cause revenues.
The causal relation of the cointegrating pairs is analysed using Vector Error Correction Model (VECM). In cointegrated variables, the change in dependent variable in the current period responds to the previous period's deviation from the longrun equilibrium. The VECM can be used to study the long term causal movements through the error correction term. The error correction model analyses the shortrun dynamics and the direction of causality. Weak exogenity of a variable can be tested using the null that the coefficient of the error correction term is zero. The lag length of cointegrating regression from which lag structure is analysed is also determined by AIC criterion.

For all other pairs, Granger’s Causality test is run with the first differenced variables, to check for short run causality.

Table 4 reports the causality and error correction results. The null hypotheses are: revenues do not cause expenditures and expenditures do not cause revenues. The cointegrated pair LREXP-LREVREC exhibits longrun bidirectional causality. Also, the revenue expenditure adjusts to the deviations in the longrun much faster than the revenue receipts. It is evident from the significant values of the coefficient of the error correction term or the speed of adjustment parameter. But the chi square values show that they do not have any shortrun causality. Another cointegrated pair, LDEXP-LTREC has a unidirectional causality.

A strong longrun and shortrun causal relation from revenues to expenditures exists in LDEXP-LTREC, as both the coefficient of the error correction term and the chi square statistic is significant. Further, the coefficient (-5.75) shows that the development expenditure adjusts very fast to the deviations in the total receipts. All other pairs, subjected to Granger’s causality test are observed to have no causal interdependence except for LTEXP-LTAXREC. It shows unidirectional shortrun causality from expenditures to revenues.

**Conclusion**

The paper seeks to examine the nexus, if any, exists between revenue and expenditure pairs, in order to check tax and spend hypothesis or spend and tax hypothesis or a fiscal synchronization hold for the state finances of Kerala. The empirical results favour the presence of causal interdependence, but the direction of causality is mixed in nature. One,(LREXP-LREVREC), out of the seven pairs taken into consideration indicates bi-directional long run causal
effects. And one pair each indicates unidirectional causality. Development expenditure and total receipts (LDEXP-LTREC) favours tax and spend hypothesis as the revenues lead expenditures. That is, development expenditure depends on the revenue policies of the government. Total expenditure and tax receipts (LTEXP-LTAXREC) favours spend and tax hypothesis as expenditures lead revenues. That is, government plans total expenditure first and later it is financed through the tax revenues. Since the empirical results give equal evidence for both the hypotheses it can be concluded that revenue and expenditure decisions are taken simultaneously. That is the trends in Kerala state finances favours fiscal synchronization (i.e. revenue and spending decisions are taken at the same time), hence a mix of deficit correction policies- tax increase and expenditure containment is suggested for achieving fiscal sustainability.

The scope of the analysis is limited by the fact that we have not considered the effect of significant structural breaks, such as the effect of New Economic Policy, the Kerala Fiscal Responsibility Act etc., on the variables taken into consideration.

References


Urban Spatial Forms and Economic Dependency
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Abstract
 Among the urban systems of India, the experience of Kerala is unique. There is a rural-urban continuum that means the city dominance is clearly absent. Various historical processes have resulted in the emergence of a spatial form which is neither rural nor urban. The most outstanding among the causes of urbanization is imperialism and its impact on the pattern of settlements. The paper studies the roots and upshot of fierce colonial regime in the evolution of an urban spatial form in Kollam. The urban growth in the region has been addressed with the theory of economic dependency. The theory postulates that the centers which specialized in administrative and commercial functions due to colonial impact had emerged into urban systems. The search employs historical method to explain the process of urbanization in the city. The study brings to light that the growth of the region into an urban space was chiefly hinged on the imperial powers for foreign capital and technologies. Hence, the spatial structure of Kollam is in conformity with the theory of economic dependency.

Keywords: Rural urban continuum; Imperialism; Urban spatial form; Economic dependency; Kollam, foreign capital.

Introduction
 Whether we consider it or not there is a titanic move of labour and capital from fundamentally rustic to fundamentally built-up undertakings. It is a major topic of discussion today particularly because of the precipitous and problematic growth of large cities all over the world. According to Davis and Golden (1954) “urbanization is a finite process – a cycle through which nation pass as they evolve from agrarian to industrial society. As Lipton (1978) says “urbanization remains the hope of the hopeless, the outlet of the occasional exceptional villager, but the opium of the development expert.” Geyer and Kontuly (1993) have opined that urbanization process occurs in a series of stages. In the context of ‘continuum of development’ the urban units of various size classes in a given nation go through successive periods of fast and slow growth spurts, the effect of which are reflected in the evolution of urban
systems in both the developed and the developing countries. Most of the emergent countries started to experience urbanization only since the middle of 20th century. Subsequently, urbanization process in emerging countries exhibits different characteristics which do not follow a smooth or linear one when compared to that of the advanced countries. The morphology, the structure, the functional fabric of an urban centre may undergo transformation in the evolution of the urban system, affecting, in turn, the socio-economic dynamics of the region. Such issues have received the attention of scholars in the various fields of social science.

The study of Urbanization requires at the outset an understanding of city structure, the pattern and the nature of forces involved in its creation and maintenance (Tiwari, 1986). The basic question that concerns economic history is why some regions have highly urbanized and some others remained rural in nature. The present paper endeavours to illuminate the influence of colonial forces and interests in forming the urban pattern in Kollam City. Second, the paper considers the contours and perspectives in the processes and politics of urban transformation of the region. Basically the study employs the historical method. The present research is based on secondary sources of information.

Theoretical framework

Conventionally, two approaches are used to analyse the emergence and development of an urban system. They are (a) Modernization theory, and (b) Dependency theory.

According to modern theorists, the change from traditional to modern in third world countries was to occur through the diffusion of capital, technology, values, institutional arrangements & political beliefs from the west to the traditional societies. The basic feature of this transition is the switch from agriculture to non-agriculture employment (Davis, 1954).

The Dependency theory, explains under development in the third world countries as the negative effect of external dominance. Dependency can be defined as an explanation of the economic development of a state in terms of the external influences- political, economic, and cultural- on national development policies (Sunkel, 1969). According to Castells (1977), urbanization can be explained through the social dynamics of the penetration of the capitalist mode of production historically formed in Europe, into the reminder of the world. He identified 3 types of domination
(i) Colonial domination with direct administration of an intensive exploitation of resources and affirmation of political sovereignty; (ii) Capitalist commercial domination through unequal terms of exchange; and (iii) Imperialist industrial & financial domination.

In this view, the centers that specialized in administrative and commercial functions due to colonial impact had emerged into urban system. The dependency theorists also argued that urban regions grow by exploiting their peripheries. Most contemporary global cities were imperial metropolis, colonial capitals, or ports, so that contemporary urban hierarchies have largely resulted from colonial rule (King, 1989). King points out that the spatial morphology and location of Indian cities is such that the four largest cities are either colonial maritime ports (Bombay, Calcutta, and Madras), or political administrative centers (New Delhi). Their spatial structure shows a clear duality of traditional & modern sector. The impact of colonialism has three dimensions, modern or industrial technology, western or British culture and the colonial form of power relationship. Hence, urbanization in India is in conformity with the dependency theory of underdevelopment.

Among the urban systems of India, the experience of Kerala is unique. In Kerala, there is a rural-urban continuum that means the city dominance is clearly absent. According to Sankaranarayanan (1977) the distinguishing features of Kerala’s urban pattern are (i) the city - dominance is conspicuously absent, (ii) the urban influence is more widely diffused, and (iii) rural – urban distinction is blurred. The causes of urbanization are not one, but several. The most outstanding one is colonialisation and its impact on the pattern of settlements. In Kerala, the various historical processes have resulted in the emergence of a spatial form which is neither rural nor urban. The investment of British capital in the economy was chiefly in the plantations and varied steps were deliberately adopted to increase the area under commercialized agriculture (Sreekumar, 1988).

The high level of commercialization of Kerala’s agriculture, which allows for a more diffused pattern of urban growth compared with industry based urbanization. Another thing is the small and highly localized industries in Kerala are mainly agro-based and thus have not given rise to urban agglomeration (Biplab Dasgupta, 2000).
The history and emergence of cities

Kerala is a small state located in the southern part of India. It was formed on 1st November 1956. Before the formation of the State, it was divided into small kingdoms namely Travancore, Cochin and Malabar. The land of Kerala comprises the narrow coastal strip bounded by the Western Ghats on the east and the Arabian Sea on the west in the southern part of the Indian Peninsula. This peculiar geographical portion has helped to ensure, to some extent, its political and cultural isolation from the rest of the country and also facilitated its extensive and active contacts with the countries of the outside world.

From the ancient period itself, Kerala had a remarkable place in the history of trade. The classical writers like Pliny (1st century A.D.) and Ptolemy (2nd century A.D.) give detailed information about the thriving trade between Kerala coast and the Roman Empire. The landing of Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese Sailor, at Calicut in May 1498 marked beginning of a new epoch in the history of Kerala. Later, Dutch, French and English followed them. They made trade contracts with the rulers of Kerala. These relations with foreigners caused the emergence of commercial towns in many parts of Kerala. They were Quilon (Kollam), Alleppy, Cochin, Cranganore (Muziris), Calicut etc. Among them Quilon was the centre of trade in the early periods. Quilon was the chief port and the region around Quilon was most conducive for the growth of spices.

Under the British rule, Quilon was considered as a town since 1875 census. In this light, the present study seeks to analyze the role of colonialisation in determining the process of urbanization of a specific town – Kollam by applying the tools and techniques of dependency theory.

Regional perspective

Kollam lies in the southern position of Kerala. In the west, she is washed by Arabian Sea and Thirunelveli in the east. It is situated 70 km north of Thiruvananthapuram and south of Alleppy. As per Census reports, population of Kollam city in 2011 is 349,033; of which male and female are 168,076 and 180,957 respectively. The metropolitan population is 1,110,005 of which 529,838 are males and 580,167 are females. Now the Kollam Corporation comprises 50 wards and 8 villages. The evolution of Kollam city has a glorious past.
Early cities emerged to facilitate trade or as centres of political and religious authority (Smart, 2003). Therefore, urban centers are largely categorized as commercial towns, temple towns, tourist towns, industrial towns etc. In ancient period, Kollam was a prominent commercial centre of South India. The trade relation with the foreign countries especially the Arabs, the Chinese, the Portuguese and the later the British laid the foundation of urbanization in Kollam. Before the advent of Christianity, Kollam was known in various European countries as a trade centre with different names such as Kulam, Koulam Malay, Columbum, Kurakeni Kollam, Koulam, Coloen, then Vanchi, Nelkenda and Paithan. These names were recorded by writers like Suleiman (the Arab Traveler); Dr. Baruel, Marco Polo, Nicolo Conti (an Italian traveler) etc. Quilon was the most ancient city with a sea port and it was considered as a world trade centre connecting the nations of east and west. Thus the port city became an important commercial centre in South India. It had trade relation with western countries like Spain, Constantinople, Greece, Egypt, Rome and Eastern countries like China, Cambodia, Sumatra and Java. It acquired large amounts of foreign earnings by exporting paper, cardamom, clove, ivory, pearl, coral, cloths and other spices

It is believed that the origin of Malayalam Era, ‘Kolla Varsham’, was in Quilon. It was started on 25th July of 825 A.D. Even before the origin of Malayalam Era, many travelers quoted the importance of Kollam as a trade centre in their writings. It is not clear as to when exactly the port of Quilon first came into the lime light. According to some writers the Male (Kollam) referred to by Cosmas (6th centuary A.D) and Mahlai of the Chinese records of the Tang Dynasty (618-907 A.D.) may be identified with Quilon. Urbags, the King of Babylon, conducted trade with Kollam through sea routes. King Solomon of Israel (1015-966 B.C.) purchased rice, teakwood, apes, peacock, sandal wood, pearl, ivory, species etc through the sea port of Quilon. According to the historians, the famous temple of Jerusalem was built with the teakwood of Kerala and Quilon was famous for its teakwood. Moreover, it also had trade relation with the Phoenician city Carthage and the city of Alexandria for many centuries.

Suleiman, an Arabian traveler who had visited Quilon in 851 A.D. stated that Quilon was the chief centre of Chinese trade. The Chinese ships paid a heavy toll of 1000 Dinars each at Quilon. He has observed that Quilon was “the most considerable port in South India at that time” and that it was the...
only port in India touched by the huge Chinese ships on their homeward voyage from Persia.

Rabbi Benjamin of Tudela, a Jewish traveler from Spain, who traveled extensively in the east between 1159 & 1173 A.D. gives us an interesting account of Quilon and its people. Pepper, Cinnamon and ginger were the most important spices transacted at Quilon.

Al Kazwini (1236-1275 A.D.) an Arab geographer refers to Kulam (Quilon) as “a large city in India”.

During the reign of Ravi Varma Kulasekhara (1299-1314), Quilon retained its position of commercial prominence and developed into the premier port on the west coast. He developed the trade in spices and industry in manufacturing ships. He bestowed particular attention on the improvement of Quilon town and he is called ‘Kolamba Nagara Parishkaraka” in the literary works of the age. The town had several imposing buildings and it was connected with the hinterland by a network of broad roads. The record of the age refer particularly to the main road is the”Narayaperuvazhi”. The rulers of the Venad had provided all facilities for the development of transport.

Marco Polo, the Venetian traveler visited Quilon towards the end of 13th century throws light on the prosperous pepper trade of Quilon, particularly with China. At that time, Kublai Khan was the ruler of China. He made contract with the ruler of Venad and political relation was officially started with china.

Friar Oderic of Pordenone touched Quilon in 1322 and he refers to the flourishing trade of Quilon. Friar Jordanus of Severic came to Quilon in 1324 and refers to the extensive spice trade at the Quilon port.

Ibn Batuta (1342-1347 A.D), the African globe-trotter, also visited Quilon which he describes as “one of the finest cities in Malabar with magnificent markets and wealthy merchants”. He refers particularly to the pepper trade and the huge Chinese junks he found at the port.

Nicolo Conti (1440-41), the Italian traveler visited Quilon and impressed by the flourishing trade in ginger, pepper, and cinnamon which was carried on at the port of Quilon. But the end of 13th century, the decline of the port of Quilon started due to the fight between westerners and easterners.

Once, Quilon (Kollam) was the capital city of Venad. Even before the origin of Kollam Era (825 A.D.), Quilon took a place in the pages of world history. During the early period, Venad was not an independent kingdom, but
the king of Venad was the “Samantha” of Kerala Emperor. From 474 Kollam Era, Venad was otherwise known as Desinganad in the name of King Jayasimha. Quilon was the capital city of Venad till 1742 A.D., when Marthanda Varma captured Venad. It was one of the important urban centers of that time and considered as a notable commercial and highly globalize nucleus of that era. The rulers of the state provided all the amenities of life to promote trade. 

In short, in ancient times, it is evident that Quilon, the capital of Venad, was a fabulous city provided with all amenities of civilized life only because of their trade with the foreigners. In the Madras Census Report for 1891, Mr. H A Staurt gives a clear picture on the classification of rural and urban area. According to this report, a place with heterogeneous population, external influences, commercial and industrial features and with varied specialized professions is regarded as a town. Hence, the study tries to probe out the roots of urban spatial form in Quilon during the Colonial reign.

**The colonial impinge on urban space**

The new episode of urban history started in Kollam only after the arrival of the Europeans like Portuguese (1505), Dutch (1661), and English (1795). They came to Quilon for purpose of trade. These imperial powers, especially British, exerted power upon the state rulers to provide enough infrastructural facilities for promoting trade paved the way for industrialization in Kollam. Tremendous changes occurred in the fields of infrastructure and industry during these colonial rules. This resulted urbanization in the region.

Moreover, the analysis highlights the infrastructure development especially in the transport and communication sector, undergone in Kollam due to the trade, commercial and power interest of colonial forces particularly by the British. During the British period, it developed as an administrative and industrial core.

**Infrastructure escalation.**

The infrastructure facilities play a crucial role in the growth of towns. It is important in the sense that it will affect the distribution of commodities and thereby the prices of the products. So the rulers of the state with the motive of promoting colonial interest had given more importance for the development of transportation and communication facilities in Kollam.
Historical evidences suggest that all sought of infrastructure developments of Kollam were achieved under British rule.

The English East India Company laid the foundations of friendship by a formal treaty in April, 1723 signed by Prince Marthanda Varma and the Commander of Angengo, Dr. Alexander Ormy. This is considered as the first treaty negotiated by the English East India Company with an Indian State. Under the provisions of the treaty, the chief of the Trippappur Swaroopam undertook to construct a fort at Colachel for the English at his own cost and the company undertook to supply the artillery and ammunitions of war for the fort (Sreedhara Menon, 2006). This treaty was a fresh attempt to exert British power over the native rulers of South Kerala in developing infrastructure.

After Marthanda Varma, Travancore was ruled by Dharma Raja (1758-1798). Barthalomio, a Christian priest visited Kollam during this period. According to him, Quilon was a very prosperous city with all amenities of day today life. There were number of warehouses with plenty of cotton and spices. And it was a prominent trade centre of that time. In 1795, another formal treaty was settled between Travancore and EEC in which the Raja accepted British supremacy and in turn the company promised to help in the event of external aggression. Based on this agreement, the British East India Company posted a permanent military camp at Quilon, the capital of Travancore. Col. Macaulay was appointed as British Resident in Travancore. Eventually, the EIC began to interfere the political affairs of the State.

In 1801, Veluthampi was appointed as the “Dalawa” of Travancore by the British Resident Col. Mecaulay. At this period, in Travancore, Kollam was the centre of British Power and Military. So the Huzur Cutchery was established at Kollam and extensive bazaars were laid out. Veluthampi Dalawa was very interested in developing Kollam as a trade centre. For that he invited traders from Madurai and Thurinveli and also constructed a new road to Shenkottai. The main road that runs through Shenkottai connects the British town of Tirunelveli with the port of Quilon in Travancore (Census of India, 1901). It was a mile stone in the infrastructure development of Quilon.

Again a fresh treaty of alliance was concluded between the English and Travancore in 1805. Under this treaty Travancore became a subsidiary allay of the British and accepted their supremacy. As a result, British gained the power to interfere in the administrative affairs of the State and the Raja was force to abide the decisions of the Company. Consequently, Travancore lost its
political freedom and started to witness tremendous changes in both administration and infrastructural development.

Battle of Quilon fought on 1809 between Velu Thampi Dalwa (Prime Minister of Travancore) and Col. Chalmers of British East India Company, was a result of British East India Company’s invasion over the city of Quilon and their garrison situated near Cantonment Maidan. There were no railway connectivity in South Kerala then. Due to the importance of Kollam with public offices, Port and its trade importance, a British Garrison was stationed in Kollam.

British Resident Col Muntro was appointed as the Diwan on Travancore in 1811. Kollam was the residence of Diwan. During his period Kollam witnessed major changes in both administration and infrastructure. A stone bridge was constructed at Kollam. Agriculture and trade registered considerable progress during this period. Cultivation of wastelands and hill tops were given top priority. The restrictions on trade were removed by the abolition of several export and import duties. Freedom of trade was guaranteed within the State. Communications were improved and coinage was reformed (Sreedhara Menon, 2006).

Transport and irrigation facilities were improved during the period of Diwan Venkitta Rao (1822 – 1827). In 1832, a court was established in Quilon and a district court was also started for criminal cases. In 1834, a district school was established to promote free English education. Printing machines were imported from England and established a Government Press at Travancore. In 1855, allopathic medical system was introduced in Thangassery. Today, Thangasseri remains as an Anglo-Indian settlement.

In 1867, the first Malayalam Medium School was started in Kollam. A Registrar Office was established in 1868. In 1887, a western modeled hospital was established as part of jubilee memorial of Queen Victoria’s reign, known as Victoria Hospital. It was the first hospital in Travancore. Victoria Medical
School was also opened for women which was another milestone. Chicago road was constructed in 1887 and many other link roads were constructed to connect the internal parts of Kollam. In 1899, steam boat services were started in Kollam. A hanging bridge was built in Punalur to connect Kollam town and Shenkottai, known as ‘Suspension Bridge of Punalur”.

According to the the Census Report of 1901, the small town Shankottai, was expecting the introduction of the Railway to Quilon would impart a powerful impetus to its development. The report says that with the opening of the Tirunelveli – Quilon Railway, would lead to a direct and easy communication with the towns of Madras Presidency to promote trade. Thus in 1904, the first railway line was established in Kollam to connect the town Shenkottai, another flourishing trade centre. Now it is the second largest railway station in Kerala. It is mentioned that the railway line was the result of colonial interest of Madras State.

Neendakara Bridge was built during 1924-1934. It was another turning point in trade. The construction of the bridge was initiated by Moris E Watts, the then Diwan of Travancore with the leadership of European engineers. The bridge was built only with iron and wood. Now it is one of the busiest fishing centers in Kerala.

Electricity was introduced at Kollam in 1934. In 1937, Travancore Road Transport Service was started and Kollam – Thiruvananthapuram Highway was nationalized. All these paved the way for rapid industrialization and thereby urbanization in the region.

These developments in the field of infrastructure were the result of imperial regime. The historical evidences reveal that construction of roads, bridges and railway were the result of colonial system in order to promote the interest and power in the region.

**Administrative and industrial expansion.**

It is a notable event that a branch of British Imperial Bank was started in Kollam in 1806. But tremendous changes in the field of administration were done by Col. Muntero who was appointed as the Diwan of Travancore in1811. Then Kollam was the administrative centre. Col. Munro, in his report to the Madras Government (1818) describes the cruelty and corruptions done by the officials of Raja at that time\(^1\). He was considered as a great reformer. He abolished the system of slavery by a royal proclamation issued in 1812, introduced the modern secretarial system in administration, and established a
ware house in Quilon and appointed efficient officers for its administration. Col. Muntro was the first Diwan who had made reforms in the field of law and order and established courts in different parts of the state. Based on Dharma Sastras, he drafted a set of rules called Chattavariolas and published in 1811 for the guidance of the courts of law. He also broadened the Police Department and brought it under the direct control of the Diwan. During this period, the designation of the Karyakar was changed to Tahsildar as in British India. Customs houses were established with a view to prevent smuggling. Col. Muntro abolished several unjust feudal levies and introduced efficient system of audit and accounts. Thus he laid foundation stone to the modern administrative system in Travancore.

Even though the traditional industrial activities were concentrated on coir production, Tile factories were the first type of modern industries which started in the earlier phase of industrial development of the region. In 1880, Camaron, an English businessman established a Tile Factory at Kollam which was the second Tile Factory in India. Later, Mr. Chisholm and Ewart started a Tile Factory named Chisholm and Ewart Company in Kollam. James Dara, an English businessman of Alleppy, established a cotton mill in Kollam in 1884. It was the first industrial mill in Kerala, known as Parvathy Mills. In 1910, Thomas Stephen started another Tile Factory at Quilon. In 1915, it was renamed as Messer’s Thomas Stephen and company Limited, Kollam and registered under public sector. In the same year, Messer’s Harrison and Cross Field Limited (H&C) an English Company started ‘Quilon Tile Works’ by merging the ‘Tile factory of Camaron and Chisholm and Ewart Company. The H&C played a vital role in the industrial development of Kollam. It was regarded as the largest engineering establishment in Kerala.

In 1909, the German scientist Dr. Herr Schomberg found traces of monazite in the sand flakes on the imported coir from Sankaramangalam in Kollam District. He identified the presence of monazite in the sand remnants of coir imported from Kerala. Encouraged by the great demand in those days for thorium oxide in gas mantle, Schomberg established the first plant at Manavalakurichi (MK) in 1910 and later another plant at Chavara.

The London Cosmopolitan Mineral Company established in the year 1914 in London, took over these plants and continued operations. In 1920,
Hopkins and Williams (H & W), London based English Company started operation at MK and Chavara. The first export of ilmenite from Chavara took place in the year 1922 and the Indian ilmenite maintained a virtual monopoly in the world market. Four plants belonging to Travancore Minerals Ltd (TMC), Hopkins & William Travancore Ltd (H&W) and Fx Pereira & Sons (FXP) together exported more than three hundred thousand tons of ilmenite from Chavara since 1940.

Commercialization of agriculture is one of the important factors which lead to the industrialization process in Kollam. Trade relation with Portuguese paved the way for extensive plantation of cashew on a productive basis. This gave birth to emergence of cashew industries on a large scale. In 1925, cashew industries were started by Joseph Periera and Sathya Narayan Moorthy.

The end of 19th century witnessed the birth of modern industries in Kollam. In 1940, a Ceramic Factory at Kundara was started under Government ownership. The Plywood Factory at Punalur, the Fertilizers and Chemicals Travancore Limited at Ellur etc. were started during this period. There were small industries in the field of tile sector, engineering products, readymade garments, chocolates etc.

Conclusion

According to King (1989), a dependency theorist, all large cities of India formed as a result of colonial imperialism. The same is valid also in the case of Kollam. From the facts enumerated, it can be learnt that by adopting ways and methods illustrated by dependency theory, the alien rulers succeeded in exerting pressure upon the local rulers to develop the transportation, irrigation, commercialization of agriculture and introducing administrative system in order to promote industrialization and plantation establishments with heavy investments from the home government. It was with a clear intention of promoting colonial interests in the region. The spatial structure of Kollam shows a clear duality of traditional and modern industrial sector, the latter being dominated by colonial capital. The study brings to light the fact that the region was chiefly hinged on the imperial powers for foreign capital and technologies. Thus the very focal characteristics of economic dependency are visible in the case of Kollam. The present analysis reveals that the dominant factor accounting for the urbanization of Kollam was its link with colonial economies of the world.
Acknowledgements

I am grateful to Dr. M. Jayaprakas, DCDC, University of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram, for monitoring the progress of the paper through repeated comments and suggestions. I am also thankful to Dr. Jerry Alwin, Assistant Professor, Post Graduate and Research Department of Economics, Sree Narayana College, Sivagiri, for his constant encouragement in writing this paper.

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Power Sector and the Indian Economy: Challenges and Prospects

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Abstract
The present inquiry is an endeavour to analyse the role played by the power sector in the Indian economy. It also aims at assessing the Government’s efforts to step up the efficacy of the power sector in India. The Indian power sector is among the largest and most diversified of its kind in the world. Its importance as being one of the most critical components of infrastructure that affects both economic growth and the well-being of our nation cannot be exaggerated. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of India has been growing at the rate of 7-8% for the last several years. The liberalization and globalization of the economy is stepping up the tempo of industrial and commercial activities and this, coupled with enhanced penetration of technology into the day-to-day life of the common man, is expected to result in heightened power demand. It is accordingly essential that development of the Power Sector shall be commensurate with the overall economic growth of the nation.

Key words: India’s Power Sector; Electricity-Policy regulation; SCADA (Supervisory control and Data acquisition)

Introduction
The Indian power industry can be divided into two broad phases, pre-reform and post-reform phases. The pre-reform phase (up to 1991) can be divided into pre-independence phase (prior to 1947), post-independence phase (1947-1990) and post-reform phase. Post-independence, the Government of India decided to entrust the development of the electricity sector to respective states through the creation of State Electricity Boards (SEB’s). SEBs were expected to develop networks of transmission lines which till then had been quite under-developed, and add generation capacity. But SEBs fared miserably and by the 70s, many of the SEBs started incurring losses because of many
factors including direct political interference in SEBs operation by their respective governments, mismanagement, poor industrial relations, etc. The low tariffs for agricultural sector were sought to be covered through higher tariffs on industrial and commercial consumers. But the distortions of such cross subsidization, resulted in increasing theft and leakages, loss of accountability of revenue and misreporting. Losses of the SEBs mounted this made SEBs increasingly dependent on budgetary allocations from their respective governments reducing their ability to add generating capacity, and most importantly to carry out the periodic maintenance and upkeep of their distribution assets. Given the deteriorating financial performance and poor operating performance of SEBs, the onus of setting up new generation capacities fell increasingly on the Central Government. It was in such a situation that the central government set up two central sector utilities; NTPC (National Thermal Power Corporation Limited) for thermal generation and NHPC (National Hydro Power Corporation Limited) for hydro power. Over the 1980s, energy shortages and poor financial condition of SEBs continued. The need to control fiscal deficit led to initiation of reforms in the Electricity Sector in early 1990s with opening of the sector for private Independent Power Producers (IPP’s). Following the liberalisation and reform of the economy in 1991-92, the electricity sector too witnessed major policy and regulatory initiatives. Recognizing that electricity and other infrastructure sectors required substantial investments in the face of resource constraints; investment by the private sector (including foreign capital) were allowed in electricity generation. Prior to this, save some private sector licensees operating in a few urban areas, the electricity sector was mostly in the hands of state electricity boards (SEB’s) or central government owned utilities created to supplement the efforts of SEB’s in generation and transmission sub-sectors. As the entities got unbundled and the role of the private sector in electricity was set in motion through the IPP’s, the need for independent regulators was obvious since now there was private sector when the state itself had a significant market role. The institution of independent regulation, the Central Government’s guidance and direction of reform efforts, unbundling of the sector, legal initiatives to bring in competition, programmes to improve technical and operational efficiency of the sector to effectively procure power on a long term basis on behalf of state governments, have been initiated since then. The changes that these initiatives have brought about, while significant, have not necessarily been in the
direction intended, and the core problems of leakage, viability of distribution, tariff reform and competition still remain to be addressed successfully.

Table-I  Plan wise Growth of Electricity in India (Utilities)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl no</th>
<th>As on/ during financial year ending with</th>
<th>Installed capacity (MW)</th>
<th>No of villages electrified</th>
<th>Length of T &amp; D Lines (ckt.kms)</th>
<th>Percapita consumption ($) (kwh)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>31.12.1947</td>
<td>1362</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>23238</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>31.12.1950</td>
<td>1713</td>
<td>3061</td>
<td>29271</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>31.03.1956 (end of 1 plan)</td>
<td>2886</td>
<td>7294</td>
<td>85427</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>31.03.1961 (end of 2nd plan)</td>
<td>4653</td>
<td>21754</td>
<td>157887</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>31.03.1966 (end of 3rd plan)</td>
<td>9027</td>
<td>45148</td>
<td>541704</td>
<td>73.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>31.03.1969 (end of 3 annual plans)</td>
<td>12957</td>
<td>73739</td>
<td>886301</td>
<td>97.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>31.03.1974 (end of the 4th plan)</td>
<td>16664</td>
<td>156729</td>
<td>1546097</td>
<td>126.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>31.03.1979 (end of the 5th plan)</td>
<td>26680</td>
<td>232770</td>
<td>2145919</td>
<td>171.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>31.03.1980 (end of the 2 annual plans)</td>
<td>28448</td>
<td>249799</td>
<td>2351609</td>
<td>172.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.03.1985 (end of the 6th plan)</td>
<td>42585</td>
<td>370332</td>
<td>3211956</td>
<td>228.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>31.03.1990 (end of the 7th plan)</td>
<td>63636</td>
<td>470838</td>
<td>4407501</td>
<td>329.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.03.1992 (end of the 2 annual plans)</td>
<td>69065</td>
<td>487170</td>
<td>4574200</td>
<td>347.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>31.03.1992 (end of the 8th plan)</td>
<td>85795</td>
<td>498836</td>
<td>5141413</td>
<td>464.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>31.03.2002 (end of the 9th plan)</td>
<td>105046</td>
<td>512153</td>
<td>6030148</td>
<td>559.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>31.03.2007 (end of the 10th plan)</td>
<td>132329</td>
<td>482864</td>
<td>6939894</td>
<td>671.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>31.03.2012 (end of the 11th plan)</td>
<td>199877</td>
<td>556633</td>
<td>8726092</td>
<td>883.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>31.03.2013 (end of the 1st year of 12th plan)</td>
<td>223344</td>
<td>593732</td>
<td>8970112</td>
<td>917.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GOI, Central Electricity Authority, Ministry of Power, New Delhi, July 2013

MW-Mega Watt, T & D –Transmission and Distribution, kWh- Kilo watt hour
The most important amongst all the policies announced by the government is the enactment of the Electricity Act. The year 2003 marked a new beginning of reforms in the Electricity Sector in India with enactment of the Electricity Act replacing the legal framework for the sector hitherto governed by the Electric Supply Act of 1948 and the ERC Act of 1998. There have been a slew of regulatory changes after the enactment of the Electricity Act in 2003 which have opened up the power generation sector and driven the sector on a high growth trajectory. In pursuance of the provisions of the Electricity Act 2003, the Central Government came out with National Electricity Policy on 6th February 2005.

Over the past few years, the Government of India has undertaken several legislative measures and carried out extensive policy reforms with a view to accelerating the growth of the power sector and encouraging greater private participation. Some of these measures include National Tariff Policy, National Electricity Plan, Competitive Bidding Guidelines, and Ultra Mega Power Projects. Now 100 percent Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is allowed in generation, transmission and distribution segments. Incentives are given to the sector through waiver of duties on capital equipments under the Mega Power Policy. These policy initiatives have resulted in building up investor confidence in the power sector and have created an ideal environment for increased participation by the private sector.

Demand and supply situation

When India became independent in 1947, the country had a power generating capacity of 1,362 megawatt (MW). Today, India is the sixth largest in terms of power generation and the per capita power consumption in the country is 733.54 kilowatt-hours per year (kWh/yr). The power generating capacity has increased from 1,362 MW in 1947 to over 243,000 MW by mid of 2014. Despite significant growth in electricity generation over the years, the shortage of power continues to exist primarily on account of growth in demand for power outstripping the growth in generation and capacity additions in power generation. Historically, India has experienced shortages in energy and peak power requirements. The average energy deficit was 9.1 percent and the average peak power deficit was 12.8 percent between 2003 and 2011. However gap between demand and supply has decreased in the financial year 2014, due to huge capacity addition.
Power or electricity is the most critical component of infrastructure, which affects the economic growth and well-being of a nation [Shahi R V, 2005]. Presently, about 65 per cent of the electricity consumed in India is generated by thermal power plants, 22 per cent by hydroelectric power plants, three per cent by nuclear power plants and the rest 10% come from other alternate sources like solar, wind, biomass, etc. The power sector in India is mainly governed by the Ministry of Power. The Central Sector or Public Sector Undertakings (PSUs) constitute 29.78 per cent (68,826.63 MW) of total installed capacity, i.e., 2, 49,023 MW (as on March 31, 2014) in India. Major PSUs involved in the generation of electricity include NHPC Ltd, NTPC Ltd, and Nuclear Power Corporation of India (NPCIL). The responsibility for the inter-state transmission of electricity and the development of national grid is with the Power Grid Corporation of India. With major developments in the infrastructure sector and improvement in the standard of living, the demand for power in the country is expected to grow at a rate of 10-12% up till 2017.

**Table-II** Installed Capacity for different sources of power in India (MW) as March 31, 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Thermal</th>
<th>Nuclear</th>
<th>Hydro</th>
<th>Renewable</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coal</td>
<td>Gas</td>
<td>Diesel</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern</td>
<td>35284</td>
<td>5281</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>40578</td>
<td>1620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>58019</td>
<td>10139</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68175</td>
<td>1840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern</td>
<td>26583</td>
<td>4963</td>
<td>939</td>
<td>32485</td>
<td>1320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>25328</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25535</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-East</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1209</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>1412</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islands</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All-India</td>
<td>145273</td>
<td>21782</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>168255</td>
<td>4780</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [www.reliancepower.co.in](http://www.reliancepower.co.in)
Market size

The power sector is mainly divided into three major pillars: Generation, Transmission, and Distribution. The generation is divided into three sectors: Central Sector, State Sector, and Private Sector. Electricity production in India (excluding captive generation) stood at 911.6 terawatt-hours (TWh) in financial year 2013. Presently, about 53.7 per cent of India's commercial energy demand is met through the country's vast coal reserves. India has also invested heavily in recent years on renewable sources of energy such as wind energy. As of March 2011, India's installed wind power generation capacity stood at about 12,000 MW. The government has also committed massive amount of funds for the construction of various nuclear reactors which would generate at least 30,000 MW. In July 2009, India unveiled a US$ 19 billion plan to produce 20,000 MW of solar power by 2020 under National Solar Mission. Indian solar installations are forecasted to be approximately 1,000 MW in 2014.

Investment condition

Investment climate in India is buoyant and various macro-economic parameters are reflecting that pace of growth of economy has accelerated and macro-economic fundamentals are sound and moving towards right direction. Due to policy of liberalisation, the sector has witnessed higher investment flows than envisaged. The Ministry of Power has sent its proposal for the addition of 76,000 MW of power capacity in the 12th Five Year plan (2012-17), to the Planning Commission. The Ministry has set a target of adding 93,000 MW in the 13th Five Year Plan (2017-2022). The industry has attracted FDI worth Rs 43,530.99 crore (US$ 7.24 billion) during the period April 2000 to May 2014.

Consequences due to decentralisation in power sector

Since the beginning of 2000, large number of private investors including multinational companies came forward to invest in power sector. Even though the power production increased by five fold, the cost per unit also increased drastically with the motive of making profits by these companies. One of the Major causes for the increasing in inflation for industrial goods was due to the increasing power price. This also resulted in the closing down of many industries and industrial estates. The high price of electricity resulted in shifting many industries from Indian metros to countries like Indonesia,
Combodia etc. Hence, the government should focus on cheap and affordable power supply to encourage industrial and allied sectors growth.

**Strength of Indian power sector**

During the period 2007-12 average economic growth rate has been projected at 9% per annum. To sustain this economic growth, power sector has also to grow by 9%. To cater to the needs of economy growing at the average rate of 9%, providing reliable, affordable, secure and sustainable energy, possible options include maximizing domestic production, diversifying the fuel mix and the source of supply and maintaining sufficient reserves. This will ensure price stability as also security of supply in the energy sector. Fluctuations in the delivery price of the energy have cascading effect on the growth process itself. In the long term perspective for fuelling the likely installed capacity of 800 MW by 2031-32, coal is to remain mainstay in the overall fuel mix for power generation in the country.

**Issues and challenges**

One of the major challenges faced by Indian Power Sector is the transmission loss ranging up to 25%, due to low quality power lines, inadequate co-relation between transmission line, distribution line and grid line. India also faces the problem of looping of power which does not come up in power audit reports. As a major solution to all the above problems, the government can opt for the modern power technology technique called SCADA (Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition)-a system operating with coded signals over communication channels so as to provide control of remote equipment(using typically one communication channel per remote station).

The current power generating capacity of India is approximately 210 GW. India’s installed capacity to generate electricity is not sufficient to feed an annual economic growth of 8%. In order to meet the growing demand for electricity, between 2000-2012, India added 100000 MW a year. Even the installed capacity is under utilized because plants are not run properly. State Electricity Boards (SEB’s) which distribute electricity incur losses which exceed 500 billion. This is due to transmission and distribution losses, wrong pricing of electricity and other inefficiencies. Private sector power generators are yet to play their role in a major way; same is the case with foreign investors. There is general public unrest due to high power tariff and prolonged power cuts in different parts of the country. Thermal power plants which are the main stars of the India’s power sector are facing shortages of
raw materials and coal supply. Another significant problem is associated with fuel (gas, coal). In India though there are alternative sources to coal but about more than 50% of our power generating capacity will be depended upon coal for another 20-25 years. For the coal fired power plant; land acquisition, environment clearances are issues but the major issue is the supply of coal. In India CIL (Coal India Limited) can only produce nearly 430 Million Tons of coal on yearly basis and the production growth is only 3-4%. So for rest of the coal, power plants have to depend on costly imported coal. The enigma of using imported coal is that the operating costs are increased, which in turn causes for the profit minimisation of the generating companies or makes the end product costlier i.e. per unit cost of electricity (tariff) is increased. To surmount this problem, privatisation of the coal mines, to enhance coal production efficiency, has to be done along with right govt policy.

Government Initiatives

India has emerged as one of the fastest growing economies in the world. Its current economic performance reflects a healthy trend based on increased consumption, investment and exports. Over the next five years, this growth is expected to continue. The Government of India has identified the power sector as a key sector of focus to promote sustained industrial growth. To revamp the power sector, number of path breaking initiative have been taken in the recent past, both in terms of policy pronouncements and programmes ranging from bringing about efficiency in generation segment through introduction of super critical technology to penetration of commercial energy in the rural areas and consolidation of electricity delivery system.

Some of the initiatives taken by the Government of India to boost the power sector of India are as follows:

- The Government of India plans to buy the equity of Power System Operation Corporation Ltd (Posoco), a wholly-owned subsidiary of the Power Grid Corporation of India, at a book value of around Rs 35 crore (US$ 5.82 million).
- Agence Francaise de Development (AFD) is extending a Line of Credit (LoC) of € 100 million (US$ 134.73 million) for a tenure of 15 years to M/s Indian Renewable Energy Development Agency Ltd (IREDA) to finance renewable energy and energy efficiency projects in India.
- The Electricity Supply Companies (ESCOM) of Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh Power Generation Corporation (APGENCO) has signed a
power purchase agreement (PPA) for sharing 230 MW power generated from the Priyadarshini Jurala hydro power project.

- The Government of India has joined hands with IIT Bombay to implement cost-effective solar powered lighting solutions for the rural population, which will help save 36 million litres of kerosene.

**Future Prospects**

India currently operates 19 atomic reactors which produce 4,780 MW of electricity and has set an ambitious target of generating 63,000 MW nuclear power by 2032. With many bilateral nuclear agreements in place, India is expected to become a major hub for manufacturing nuclear reactors and associated components. Market-oriented reforms, such as the target of 'Power for all' by 2012 and plans to add 88.5 gigawatts (GW) of capacity by 2017 and 100 GW by 2022, provide high incentives for capacity addition in power generation, which would increase the demand for electrical machinery. Foreign participation in the development and financing of generation and transmission assets, engineering services, equipment supply and technology collaboration in nuclear and clean coal technologies is expected to increase. Power transmission in India, which is currently carried out largely in the 220 kilovolts (KV) and 400 kV range, is expected to move up to a higher range of 765 KV and high-voltage (HV) direct current. This presents a significant opportunity to manufacturers with capabilities in high-voltage to develop technology that can handle such requirements in the country.

**Conclusion**

Infrastructure investment in India is on the rise, but growth may be constrained without further improvements. The power sector provides one of the most important inputs for the development of a country and availability of reliable and inexpensive power is critical for its sustainable economic development. To sustain GDP growth rate of around 8-9 %, it is imperative that the power sector also grows at the same rate. Even after the considerable growth in the power sector infrastructure and the supply of electricity, many parts of the country continue to face severe power shortages as consumption by commercial and industrial consumers has been increasing at much faster rate than electricity supply. Power is one area of infrastructure where India lags far behind even in comparison to other developing countries. The per capita annual consumption of electricity in India is one of the lowest in the world at approximately 734 kWh [2008-09]. This continues economic
Development and population growth are driving the demand for energy faster than what India is producing currently. More public investment, better research and development efforts, exploration, technological innovation and use of renewable energy sources can ensure additional supply of power. Though the private sector has made some progress, it is necessary to tap this sector to come forward and produce power on a large scale. One has to appreciate the efforts made in this regard. Eg: India is already the fifth largest producer of wind power, with more than 95% investment coming from the private sector. Greater reliability on renewable energy resources offers enormous economic, social and environmental benefits.

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Metaphor Awareness of Prospective Teachers in the Conceptualisation of Peace

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Abstract

All concepts are defined within a cognitive framework. Like most concepts in social discourses, there is no universal definition for Peace. Our conceptual system is largely metaphorical. Cognitive linguists view metaphor as a cognitive instrument, which means that metaphor is not just a way of expressing ideas by means of language, but a way of thinking about things. By employing cognitive theory of metaphor, the study argues that concepts are usually conceptualized through metaphors. The study is carried out on the metaphor awareness of prospective teachers in their conceptualization of Peace, using a questionnaire as the tool. The stratified random sampling technique was adopted to draw a representative sample of 180 Prospective teachers from various training colleges under University of Kerala. The study revealed that prospective teachers depicted Peace through a large number of metaphorical concepts.

Keywords: Metaphor; Conceptualization; Peace.

Our thinking is largely determined by language. The diversity of language is not a collection of signs and sounds, but a diversity of the views of the world. Questions of meaning are an important part of the study of language and linguistic structure. The combination of concepts within a sentence is what a linguist should strive for. Metaphorical use of language essentially involves understanding or experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another (eg:- Life is a journey). The cognitive approach to metaphor claims that metaphor is not just a rhetorical device, but that plays a pivotal role in structuring not only the way we talk, but much more importantly, the way we think and act. Accordingly, metaphor is not, therefore a matter of language only, but predominantly that of mind (Black, 1978; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Gibbs, 1994). The study of metaphor is the basic conceptual process inherent to millions of utterances in natural languages.

The concepts that can be partially understood and viewed via metaphorical mapping seem numerous. The concept of PEACE, as the one
that is universally acknowledged, appears extremely interesting and adequate to be analyzed and assessed on the basis of cognitive criteria and metaphorisation processes. Likewise most concepts in social discourses, there is no universal definition of PEACE. The analysis of the concept of PEACE in this study is made in comparison with the definitions of PEACE offered by dictionaries such as Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English or Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English. To be more precise, conceptualization of PEACE in this study is based on the definitions given by one hundred and eighty prospective teachers subjected to the survey.

The reasons for taking such an approach to the problem of meaning in general and metaphor in particular highlighted on the grounds of the conceptualization of PEACE are many. Firstly, the study is devised to elicit whether or not metaphor is grounded in people’s minds. Secondly, the study allows to analyze how people understand the concept of PEACE and whether or not they possess the cognitive abilities and skills at defining the concept. Thirdly, it is hoped that the study will permit to measure people’s perception of the world through metaphor.

Let us now proceed to carry out the linguistic analysis of the concept of PEACE based on the survey and bearing in mind the definitions of the concept offered by ordinary dictionaries. For example Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary gives the following definition of PEACE: It is a state of being clam and quiet. Longmans Dictionary of Contemporary English defines Peace as a very quiet and pleasant situation in which you are not interrupted.

To the contrary here are some of the definitions of the concept of PEACE provided by the sample, according to the questions in the survey.

**What is PEACE?**

Peace is the satisfaction of the mind; peace is soul related; peace is an emotional state; peace is a feeling of the mind; peace is wisdom attainment; peace is the complete well-being of an individual; peace is a state of mind which brings relief from all sorrows; peace is health; peace is anything that gives relief to the mind; peace is the happiness of the mind; peace is enjoying life; peace is going out in rain; peace is confidence; peace is enjoying music; peace is god; peace is a lovely feeling of the mind; peace is loving and sharing; peace is an occasional happening in one’s life; peace is sharing food with the loved ones; peace is lying on mother’s lap; peace is fun; peace is sitting alone; peace is chatting with our dear ones; peace is being smart; peace
is praying; peace is taking care of the needy; peace is a positive emotion; peace is doing charitable works.

How do you associate PEACE with?
Soul; achievement; home; mind; wisdom; satisfaction; smile; family; friends; music; nature; temple; classic paintings; cool job; confidence; healthy relations; comfort; spirituality; reading comics.

How do you draw PEACE?

The definitions provided show that the prospective teachers think metaphorically and as a result define PEACE by dint of metaphorical concepts. Details are demonstrated in the following table.
Table I: Distribution of the sample based on metaphorical and non-metaphorical conceptualization of Peace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Definitions</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metaphorical</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Metaphorical</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table indicates that metaphorical definitions are about 80 percent of all definitions given by the respondents. In addition, the following table indicates which metaphorical concepts of PEACE are most common among the respondents.

Table II: Distribution of the sample based on the kind of metaphorical conceptualization of Peace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Concepts</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mind</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>God</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II shows that the most frequently found metaphor domain (for 57% of prospective teachers) in the conceptualization of Peace is that of mind. For 29% and 14% of prospective teachers, God and Family are the metaphorical concepts for peace respectively.

Table III: Distribution of the sample in the conceptualization of peace based on the kind of knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Knowledge</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct experience</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect experience</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table III shows that 60% of prospective teachers conceptualized PEACE based on their own experience, 7% of prospective teachers...
conceptualized peace based on what they have indirectly acquired and 33% of prospective teachers in both ways.

Table IV Distribution of the sample based on gender in the metaphorical conceptualization of Peace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>No. of Metaphorical respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that 77% male prospective teachers metaphorically conceptualized peace and 80% female prospective teachers responded metaphorically.

To sum up, the present study shows that the prospective teachers depict PEACE via a large number of metaphorical concepts producing such metaphorical mappings like peace is confidence; peace is a feeling of the mind; peace is wisdom attainment; peace is the complete well-being of an individual; peace is a state of mind which brings relief from all sorrows; peace is health; peace is enjoying life; peace is confidence; peace is god; peace is loving and sharing; peace is an occasional happening in one’s life etc. Furthermore it was found out that most of the prospective teachers associate peace with the concept of mind and their conceptualization is mainly based on their direct experience in life. It was also found out that gender is not a significant criterion in classifying the conceptualization of peace.

Concluding thoughts

Our concepts structure what we perceive and how we relate to the surroundings. Our conceptual system thus plays a central role in defining our everyday realities. Since communication is based on the same conceptual system in terms of which we think and act, language is an important source of evidence for what that system is like. Primarily on the basis of linguistic evidence, the study found out that most of our ordinary conceptual system is metaphorical in nature. We all naturally think using hundreds of primary metaphors. In the words of Gibbs (1994), ‘figuration is not an escape from
reality, but constitutes the way we ordinarily understand ourselves and the world in which we live’. No account of meaning and truth can be adequate unless it recognizes and deals with the way in which metaphors structure our conceptual system.

References
Feminist Retelling of Ramayana: A Study of Sara Joseph’s Selected Works
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Guest Lecturer, IHRDE, Nadapuram

Abstract
This paper focuses on the attempt of reconstructing Rama as a common man and crumbling his iconic figure in Sara Joseph’s writings. Rama throughout India is regarded as God himself, an avatar of Lord Vishnu. Many versions of Ramayana portrays him as God, while some other versions sees him as the most noble man in the world. But Sara Joseph’s writings give voice to the other marginalised characters in Ramayana. The words of these marginalised characters brings to light how the alteration of Dharma and Adharma takes place when the women characters who were deprived of justice start composing their own epics. Through her retellings Sara Joseph has succeeded in bringing out most of the injustices that predominated in the patriarchal society. In short Valmiki’ s icon of Dharma is thus constructed as the performer of Adharma.

Introduction
Retelling is a common phenomena in the context of literature for the last some centuries. The name of the book edited by Paula Richman, "Questioning Ramayanas: a South Asian Tradition (2001)" itself reveals that retelling and questioning on Ramayana was a common phenomenon in South Asia. It can be seen that atleast one rendition of Ramayana story exists in every Indian language and even in non Indian languages such as Chinese, Japanese, Malaysian, Thai, Tibetan etc. Various retellings of Ramayana can be seen in the context of Malayalam literature as well. Ramacharitam by Cheeramma, Adhyatma Ramayanam by Ezhuthachan, Mandodari by Sardar K.M. Panicker etc are some of them. Sara Joseph is a staunch proponent of women's writing in Kerala. She feels that a woman can never read and enjoy works which discusses her as mere sex objects. So she insists on re-reading such literature and the necessity for writing from the women's point of view. Sara Joseph has always questioned the existing male-female relations and the male dominated language through her short stories.

This research paper focuses on Sara Joseph's collection of short stories Puthu Ramayanam (2006) and her novel Oorukaval (2008). In Puthu
Ramayanam, she raises the question of justice and injustice, war and peace and the relationship between love and power which is the central theme of Ramayana, the epic. She brings out the political aspects of Puthu Ramayanam (2006) through the dialectics between the triumphant and the vanquished, men and women, tribal and urban, Aryan and the Dravidian. Sara Joseph has clearly stated her objectives; these stories are feminist critiques of traditional narratives of women, humiliated and mentally and physically torn apart by ambitious men. Oorukaval is a novel narrated from the point of view of Thara, widow of Vaali and Angada, Vaali's son. The novel reveals how people saw Rama as the messenger of Yama, the God of Death. This novel finds Rama as a common man with emotions and sometimes being cruel.

**Perspectives of Retelling**

The article analyses these texts based on two factors:

1. **The importance given to the women characters.**

Many characters that were marginalised in Valmiki Ramayana are portrayed as strong characters in Sara Joseph's writings. Seetha, Thara, Mandhara, Shoorpanakha and Ayomukhi are the major characters in these works. All these characters were victims to the cruelty of the male dominated society. In various interpretations of Ramayana, Shoorpanakha's improper lust is ascribed to her female nature whereas Ravana's wrong deeds were never said to spring from his male nature. The author imagined the possibilities of women's liberation through heroines who were confident, powerful, independent, witty and sensitive heroines for whom love and desire were inseperable.

Sara Joseph's stories view Ramayana from a feminist perspective. Here women are identified as silent sufferers of the custom in a male dominated society. Sara enquires into the minds of most of the women characters and tries to bring out their agonies to the readers. Differing from Ramayana, Thara is constructed as a strong character who questions the justice in the deeds of Rama and Sugriva in Sara Joseph's stories. She is a wise woman who whips Sugriva with her words and at the same time entices him with her charm. Sara Joseph weaves a myth of Thara taking the life of Angada back to her womb. Through this myth, Sara gives motherhood a new power to safeguard their children even when they are too far from their mothers. She is a courageous woman who questions the judicial system of patriarchal society.
Seetha, in Valmiki Ramayana is the noblest flower of Indian womanhood, devoted to her Lord in thought, words and deeds. She never complains in all her sufferings and was happy to obey everything Rama asked her to do including the fire ordeal. Seetha is depicted as a content wife by Valmiki. But nowhere in the epic her emotions are cared for. But many retellings that happened later focused on her sufferings and she is seen as a victim of the male dominated society. In Sara Joseph's stories, Seetha has the courage to speak out her thoughts. She learns from the situations that she encounters and acquires the ability to be resourceful. She finds Rama as a man who treated her as a mere object for pleasure. Through her words, she reveals that she never hopes that her husband will understand her. She suffers for the rivalry between the two races. But Sara glorifies her because she jumped into the fire instead of silently suffering all his cruelty.

Shoorpanakha, sister of Ravana, is depicted as a lustful woman who approaches Rama and Lakshmana for marriage. She is mutilated by the two brothers as a punishment for her excessive or improper lust. But the retellings find this mutilation not as a punishment, but as an attack on femininity. Sara Joseph also brings out her agony and anger after mutilation. She represents the suppressed class of society who suffered under feudalism. She is perceived as an aborigine who loves the flora and fauna of the forest. She feels that the upper class people insulted her caste, colour, race and sex. In short she represents the suppressed women under the patriarchal norms.

2. Transforming Rama from an iconic figure to a man of frailties.

Valmiki Ramayana portrays Rama as an ideal man full of virtues. But he is criticized in most of the retellings that happened till now. Though many retellings have tried to portray him as a compassionate man, many accused him of being cruel to the women and the weak. In Sara Joseph’s works too Rama and his deeds are questioned. She questions the deeds of Rama by allowing the preys of his deeds to speak and react. Sara Joseph’s Ramayana stories belong to the tradition of questioning patriarchy and the violence against women in such a society. Rama has become the centre of criticism in most of these stories and the novels.

Sara Joseph’s writings brings to light the major as well as the minor acts of Rama which moves him away from the image of a man of virtues. Her stories portray him as an aggressor of the weak and the women. His acts like slaying Shambuka, abandoning Seetha, killing Vaali and attacking
Shoorpanakha are all examples of his violence against the weak or the suppressed. Though these acts are there in the text of Valmiki, critics have tried to justify it. They found that Rama did all these acts for the establishment of the Sanathan Dharma. But Sara Joseph’s writings find these acts as an attack towards the weak.

In Oorukaval we can see that Rama was not a popular figure among the people of Kishkindha. They are angry with him and even wanted to kill him. But they are afraid of the iron in his hand. This anger is well expressed in the words of Athiyan. The traders tell the inhabitants of Muchli that Rama is the one who pushed Kishkindha to danger by killing Vaali. Through the words of the Muchli people, the author shows Rama as a betrayer and a person who is cruel to the weak.

In the text of Valmiki, the act of killing Vaali is glorified. It was also quoted as an example for the victory of Dharma over Adharma. But the agony of his family was never noticed by anyone. Here in the words and thoughts of Thara and Angada, the author shows that the act of killing Vaali was an unnecessary one. Thara reflects that if Rama had asked Vaali, he would have regained Seetha for Rama with pleasure. We can see her raging with anger towards Rama. She questions Sugriva and even asks Rama to kill her with the same weapon he used to kill Vaali. Here the author takes us to the thoughts going through the mind of Rama which invariably proves that he is well-conscious of the crime he has committed.

Sara also portrays Rama as a cruel man. He proclaims that the ultimate goal of his life is to kill demons. So anyone who works in favour of Rama feels that they also have the right to kill the demons. We see a terrible attack on the demons and the words of the demons tell us that it is a common occurrence. Every time they find a good place to live, the ascetics with the help of the kings attack them. Every time they are attacked, their children were killed by flinging them away, hitting them against the trees, squeezing their necks and even piercing them out of their mother’s womb. They even had to witness their children who were fleeing with terror, being caught and put to fire. Thus, Rama is pictured as a man who is ready to fight and kill for his selfish needs. The author portrays Rama as a person who has taken the demons as his innate enemies. In his words the anger towards them is well noticeable.

Though Valmiki Ramayana sees Rama as an ideal husband who has fulfilled all his duties to his wife and fought the war to revive her, Sara
Joseph’s writings never find Rama so. He always have felt that Seetha and other women in the palace lack the courage which is innate in every Kshathriya. He suspects Seetha as one who has lived with Ravana. He is not ready to take her back to Ayodhya. The stories *Kantharatharakam* and *Ashoka* tell the Ramayana story from the perspective of Seetha. One is at the beginning of their forest life and the other after the war. Both reflect the attitudes and the thoughts of Seetha. We see her in a new light which is entirely different from that of Ramayana.

Sara Joseph's works *Ashoka* and *Oorukaval* portrays the trial of Seetha. In Asoka Seetha being hurt with Rama's words, identifies herself with Lanka, the soil neglected by the triumphant. She shrunk to herself with the insult of being lead to the triumphant as a culprit. Rama saw her as defamed, treated with evil eyes and as one who sat in the lap of the vanquished. His words reveal how indifferent he was to Seetha and represents his feelings to Seetha.

More than his wife, he cared for the reputation of himself and his race. He never thought of her feelings. In *Oorukaval* Rama tells Seetha that Ravana’s abduction of her caused bad reputation to his fame as a virtuous person. He was bothered only about him and the Dharma, but not the least about Seetha.

Here Seetha herself asks for arranging a funeral pyre for her. The response of Lakshmana and the inhabitants of Lanka shows Rama’s act as a cruel one. They felt that Ravana was more human than Rama. Ravana has never performed any injustice to any woman brought to Lanka. He didn’t even touch Seetha without her permission. On the night of Seetha’s trial Angada wonders how Rama can be so indifferent after killing her. He feels that Rama is celebrating his victory under the veil of indifference. Here the author reconstructs Rama and Ravana in such a way that they are just opposite to what they have been perceived as by the readers of Ramayana.

The attack on Shoorpanakha also is interpreted as a misdeed of Rama. This incident has a major role in shaping the Ramayana story. It paves the way for the abduction of Seetha and the war between Rama and Ravana. Most Ramayana stories accuse her for her improper lust. Valmiki Ramayana defines mutilation as a punishment for cruelty as well as prostitution. But in her stories, Sara Joseph looks upon this incident from Shoorpanakha's perspective. Nose is the symbol of respectability. Breasts represent femininity as well as maternity. By cutting her nose and breasts the two princes of Ayodhya dishonoured her respectability as well as femininity. She can never forgive the
two men who raised their sword to kill the woman and mother in her. She reflects that a hero like Rama cannot do such a disgraceful deed. She never feels that there is anything wrong in her desire. Mutilating Shoorpanakha is seen as an attack on femininity as well as maternity. She suffers from the insult on one hand and the anger towards the ones who dishonoured her race and caste on the other. Even Seetha feels that what Rama and Lakshmana did to Shoorpanakha is a wrong deed. She felt it as an inhuman act of a monogamist who has great moral values. When she saw the woman running with blood gushing from her wounds, she could never understand the justice of the Aryagotra. Sara Joseph’s short story does not treat Shoorpanakha as a mere plot device. It delves into her motivations and sorrows. She portrays Shoorpanakha as a tribal woman who suffers from widowhood and dishonour due to the cruelty of the upper class. She is the signifier of the sorrowful history of the tribals. Elaborating these instances, Sara Joseph picturises Rama as a man who is not ideal, but a man of evil acts.

**Conclusion**

In these stories, Sara Joseph has tried to empower the women characters and see Rama in a different light. She retells the Ramayana stories from the perspective of the women and the minor characters. Sara allows them to speak and brings to light how the framework of legislation in the then existed structure is altered when the women and children who were deprived of justice starts writing history and the silenced starts composing their epics. She also attempts to bring out the injustices that predominated in the patriarchal society. The myths incorporated in the texts and the characters difference from the Valmiki Ramayana provides scope for further study in these texts.

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The East-West Impasse

In
Orhan Pamuk’s *The White Castle* and *My Name is Red*

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In a confusing world of fragmented identities, globalization has garnered contradictory responses. For some, it as a new phase of western imperialism and for the rest it suggests a new epoch marked by the emergence of a novel form of cosmopolitanism. In this era of globalization, creative connoisseurs have already begun the quest for new ways of exemplifying the relationship between local, national and transnational forces. This indicates the need for new answers and solutions regarding issues of global social relations. As Homi Bhabha opines, “Culture as a strategy of survival is both transnational and translational” (247). It is transnational since “contemporary postcolonial discourses are rooted in specific histories of cultural displacement”, be it a voyage out of the modernization campaign as in the case of Turkey (Bhabha 247). Again, it is “translational because such spatial histories of displacement make the question of how culture signifies” (247). Postcolonial perspectives have come so far that it deals with the complex cultural and political contingencies that exist on the cusp of the commonly opposed political spheres – East and West. This is literally true as Orhan Pamuk, the Turkish Nobel laureate, portrays Turkey – a country straddling the East and the West – in his quest for the melancholic soul of his city: Istanbul. This culturally significant hybrid location becomes the crucial point of reference in Pamuk’s fiction. The area of concern of this paper, Turkey, is thus an instance of “the transnational as translational”. This study attempts to delineate the East/West dichotomy situated within Turkish culture and its consequences endured by the plebeians, with reference to Pamuk’s novels *The White Castle* and *My Name is Red*.

The process of Europeanization has created two distinct categories of people in Turkey, the traditional Islamists and the modern secularists, which has resulted in the blending of races, languages, cultures, and systems of beliefs and values. This mixing of cultures is a principal theme in postcolonial fiction, and is often dealt within the broader context of establishing identity.
The East-West dichotomy, which is basically a cultural concept than a geographical one, tends to stereotype Islamic and Asian countries as the East and the others as the West. Edward Said posits that the European division of the world into the East and the West or the Occident and the Orient was laid on the basis of the concept of them/us or theirs/ours. And in the case of Turkey, religion becomes the key factor distinguishing the Turks: “them” from “us” the Christians. In this respect, Orhan Pamuk is certainly the “leading contemporary interpreter” of the “dilemmas and divisions of a land that is both East and West, Islamist and secular, rich and poor, and ancient and modern” (The Economist).

As Carter Vaughn Findley points out, “the political, social, and cultural succession from the Ottoman Empire to the Turkish republic is fundamental to questions of Ottoman and Turkish identity, which form one of the most important determinants of Turks’ sense of their place in the world” (6). Under Ataturk, Turkey underwent revolutionary changes in all the spheres: the Islamic empire was substituted by a secular national republic, the society was transformed extensively, and made a cultural climacteric by way of its alphabet and language reforms. Findley contends that “so deep is the imprint of Islam on the Turkish society that it and the Turkish language form the two primary markers of Turkish identity” (7). Islam means “submission” to God and a Muslim is “one who submits”. The Quran and the sharia recognize three status disparities: the difference between male and female, free and slave, Muslim and non-Muslim. The modernization of Turkey, and especially the secular law which assigns equality to all, challenged the status disparities that the sharia put forth. Mustafa Kemal undertook radical westernizing reforms which took Turkey closer to the west culturally while moving it further from western democratic practice. He aimed to strengthen the state rather than the constitution. Consequently, the Caliphate was abolished on 3rd march 1924. More secularizing measures followed. A new Directorate of Religious Affairs was created and placed under the Prime Minister. By 1928, Turkey amended its constitution and eliminated the clause assigning Islam as the state religion. Apart from such religious reforms, many crucial changes were also brought in, like the international calendar replacing the Ottoman religious and solar calendars, and the international clock being adopted in 1925 instead of the alturka time by which the day began at sunset. The dress revolution witnessed another move to minimize the differences between Turks and Europeans.
1925, men were ordered to wear western-style hats rather than the fez, and women were discouraged to wear the veil, though it was not officially banned. Later Turkey adopted the metric system, changed the call to prayer from Arabic to Turkish, and even changed the weekly day off from work from Friday to Sunday.

These laicizing reforms brought about revolutionary changes in Turkish culture and this crucial makeover underlies all the works of Orhan Pamuk. Both the novels undertaken for this study are set in historical moments that portray the rise in secular state authority. He delicately portrays the conflict between individual freedom and rigid social norms, and the quest for meaning and ideals in a secular society.

*The White Castle*, one of Pamuk’s early works to receive an English translation, is set in Istanbul during the latter half of the 17th century. The novel is a search for personal identity, at one level, and at another, an attempt to solve the enigma of a nation’s identity. In the novel, a Venetian scholar is enslaved by Turkish pirates and is eventually handed over to “Hoja”, meaning “master”, by the Pasha. During his initial days in Istanbul as a prisoner, he takes Turkish lessons but refrains from becoming a Muslim which could have made him a freeman. The traditional idea of “Islam as a superior religion” is enforced many times through Pasha, and the Venetian is admonished as an enemy of God and Muhammad. The man referred to as Hoja is obsessed with extracting Western knowledge (symbolic of Ataturk’s attempts at westernizing Turkey) from the Italian with whom he bears a striking resemblance. They work on a variety of projects like making fireworks, prediction of plague deaths, a treatise on the behaviour of ants and so on. Thus Hoja and the slave are seen engaged in various scientific experiments and treatises, which question the credulity towards Islam. Hoja’s craving for western knowledge is again representative of the attempts at westernization in the Turkish Republic. But, in the beginning itself the Venetian, who is taken captive by the Turks, realizes the fact that “Istanbul was indeed a beautiful city, but that here one must be a master, not a slave” (WC 9).

As the Venetian reveals “he [Hoja] wanted to learn what ‘they’ thought, those like me, the ‘others’ who had taught me all that science, placed those compartments, those drawers full of learning inside my head” (WC 45). The encounter with the Western Other, in the guise of his Venetian slave causes the Ottoman Hoja to question his own identity asking, “why am I what
I am?” (58). Under this heading, Hoja “wrote nothing but reasons why ‘they’ were so inferior and stupid which is reflective of the Turkish dilemma arising out of the need to become westernized to find a place in the world” (54). Despite their master-slave relationship (which was prevalent in Turkey), they realize that they are becoming intimate with each other. Their interaction becomes more and more complex as the plot progresses and this constitutes the main action of the novel. The Italian narrator realizes that he has learned as much from the master as Hoja did from him. This becomes the turning point as it marks the beginning of the protagonists’ personality. They work on a major project, a war machine, which founders in the mud during the Ottoman’s European Campaign as a result of which Hoja flees to Italy to escape responsibility for the ineffectual war machine. The slave, who has learned the minutiae of the Hoja’s life, resumes his life in Turkey as a free man, ultimately taking up the identity of Hoja. Thus the Venetian slave and his Ottoman master, who resembled each other, end up swapping identities. In the last part of the novel the Sovereign becomes a mouthpiece for Pamuk as he raises a very pertinent question to the Venetian (now in the guise of Hoja):

“Must one be a sultan to understand that men, in four corners and seven climes of the world, all resembled one another? . . . Was it not the best proof that men everywhere were identical with one another that they could take each other’s place?” (WC 136).

The Venetian who had taken the place of Hoja endures the torture with patience as he “had grown used to the fear that comes with ambiguity” (WC 136). Here again Pamuk succeeds in conveying the trauma faced by the Turkish people in such an ambiguous context.

Pamuk thus succeeds in achieving the intended effect of the “carnival”, as it can be viewed as a reaction to the omnipresent question of identity. The carnival spirit symbolizes a superior world order that will be organized horizontally. The dichotomy between official culture and the folk culture to which Bakhtin responded with his carnivalesque relativity parallels the East/West divide and other stratifications in society. Echoing Bakthin’s suspicions about the possibility of a horizontally structured world, Pamuk examines the probability of a Turkish identity which escapes the stereotype of “the other”. As Pamuk puts it, the eastern and western spirits can belong to one and the same self, as evident from the identity swapping between the two characters. Horace Engdahl, the head of the Swedish academy, had remarked that Pamuk
has “enlarged the roots of the contemporary novel through his links to both Western and Eastern cultures” (qtd in Mcgaha 42). Undeniably, Pamuk celebrates the destruction of what was formerly threatening and works to bring people together in communality. He directs the attention to the point that the conflict between westernizers and Islamists is more a lifestyle than a debate. The process of westernization which had begun years ago is still in the process. In The White Castle Pamuk turns this into a game, treating them with irony.

This “Pamukian” masterpiece is an instance of "style" as a vehicle for cultural values. Pamuk admits that most of his characters share his thoughts and temperament, but he admits his intimacy to Black, the hero of My Name is Red. The novel mourns the fear of being forgotten, the fear of art being lost, as his characters yearn for the unity, beauty and purity of a long forgotten age. For years Ottomans painted under the Persian influence, but by the end of the seventeenth century, Western influence changed the scenario. The works of the miniaturists stayed inside books as they painted for the Shahs or the kings who commissioned them; the fine art of the miniaturists were lost and forgotten when superseded by the western ways of seeing and painting which were more attractive. Pamuk claims that “my book (My Name is Red) is about the sorrow and tragedy of this loss, this erasure. It is about the sorrow and pain of lost history” (OC 270).

My Name is Red, set in 16th-century Istanbul, narrates how Ottoman miniaturists come up against an early globalization, as western styles in art threaten to outdate the skills the Ottomans have acquired and sustained over generations. The plot depicts the illustration of a book commissioned by the sultan in order to demonstrate his power to the Venetians. The readers encounter a number of miniaturists – Elegant, Olive, Stork and Butterfly – engaged in illustrating the special book under the supervision of the master painter, Enishte Efendi; but one of the miniaturists is murdered and suspicion mires the religious leaders, fellow painters and others. The use of multiple intradiegetic narrators helps the reader to comprehend the conspiracy behind the murder and the drama of the Sultan’s court in vivid detail.

The socio-cultural conflict in My Name Is Red poses the question of whether the uniqueness of traditional aesthetics can be interpreted without the disturbance of Western values. The novel is set in motion with the words of a corpse —“I am nothing but a corpse now”— who is none other than Master
Elegant Effendi, one of the miniaturists, who is murdered due to the issues related to the secret book commissioned by the Sultan (MNR 3). He cautions the reader saying “my death conceals an appalling conspiracy against our religion, our traditions and the way we see the world” as he challenges the reader to unearth the identity of the murderer (MNR 6). It is made evident through Black, the protagonist who has returned to Istanbul after twelve years, that the great preacher Nusret Hoja of Erzurum has attributed the catastrophes that had befallen Istanbul in the last decade to their disregard for the strictures of the Glorious Quran. And the plot focuses on yet another act of desecration being carried out by the miniaturists in the novel. The mysterious murderer provokes the reader to discover his identity from his choice of words and colours and this leads us to the question of “style”. Style is only a post renaissance notion embraced by western artists in the 19th century. Thus the absence of signature on an exquisite painting of Husrev and Shirin by Bihzad, the master of masters, patron saint of miniaturists, connotes that “where there is true art and genuine virtuosity the artist can paint an incomparable masterpiece without leaving a trace of his identity” (MNR 22). Questions of style haunt the murderer as he ponders on the notion that what is venerated as style is nothing but an imperfection or flaw that revealed the guilty hand. But by luck, the clues that could have been interpreted as the signature of the murderer have been erased forever by the snowfall. Thus he pacifies himself that Allah to be siding with him and Bizhad on the issue of style and signature.

Miniature paintings are small, detailed and colourful pictures which are made with paint and gilding for the purpose of animating the texts in the manuscript works. The miniature paintings highlighted the peculiar characteristics of the society it belonged in every period and thus, occurrence of different schools according to the techniques, interpretative and imaginative power of the artists become inevitable. Ottoman miniature, an art form in the Ottoman Empire, was influenced by the Persian miniature tradition as well as Chinese art. The miniatures were not signed by the painters because of the world view of the tradition that rejected individualism. It is to be noted that the works were not created entirely by one person. The head painter designed the composition of the scene and his apprentices drew the contours (tahrir) with black or coloured ink and then painted the miniature without creating an illusion of third dimension. It is different from that of European Renaissance Painting tradition and the scene depicted may include different time periods.
and spaces. The miniatures followed closely the context of the book, similar to illustrations found in picture books nowadays. The most used colours were bright red, scarlet, green and different shades of blue. The world-view underlying the Ottoman miniature painting was also different from that of European renaissance painting tradition. The painters did not mainly aim to depict the human beings and other living or non-living beings realistically, although increasing realism is found from the later 16th century onwards. The Ottoman artists wanted to hint at an infinite and transcendent reality with their paintings so they stylized and abstracted everything they depicted. An example of miniature painting is given below.

Fig. 1
(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Khosrow_and_Shirin)

This is a famous painting depicting Husrev’s first sight of Shirin, bathing in a pool, in a manuscript of Nizami's poem. "Husrev and Shirin" is a famous Persian tragic romance by NizamiGanjavi (1141–1209). Although the story was known before Nizami, it was brought to its greatest romantic height by him as he focuses on the romantic aspect of the story. Pamuk refers to these characters repeatedly in My Name is Red. A distinctive feature of Ottoman miniature is that it portrays actual events realistically yet adheres to the traditional canons of Islamic art, with its abstract formal expression.

Now, the Venetians, on the contrary, used painting techniques with which they could distinguish one man from another just by the shape of their face than depending on his outfits or medals. As an ambassador of the Sultan,
Enishte Effendi had experienced the essence of portraiture during his visits to Venice. There, he was enamoured by the portraits he saw in various palazzos, churches and houses of prosperous men. Portraiture had become an obsession among the rich to such an extent that they would insist to paint their own images somewhere in a painting. They were even ready to be portrayed as insignificant characters like: a servant or a graveside mourner or a merciless man stoning an adulteress etc. The Sultan too commissions a secret book in the Venetian style. This would symbolise the vanquishing power of the Islamic Caliph, the Sultan, in the thousandth year of the Hegira (Mohammed’s migration from Mecca to Medina) and would also serve as an olive branch extended to the Venetians. But Elegant gets murdered half-way through and fear hovers amongst the other miniaturists, Olive, Stork, Butterfly, Enishte Effendi, and Black, who investigates the murder mystery.

Pamuk hits his target as the novel takes a twist when Enishte Effendi is also killed by the same murderer. The murderer had killed Elegant since he wanted to paint as he wished without fear. But as he reveals his identity as the murderer to Enishte, he accuses the other for dragging him into sin. Fear haunts him as Enishte proclaims to continue with the book since “the birth of a new style is the result of years of disagreements, jealousies, rivalries and studies in colour and painting” (MNR 203). In an attempt to convince the murderer the relevance of Venetian art, Enishte states:

Believe me, none of the Venetian masters have your sensibility, your conviction, your sensitivity, the purity and brightness of your colours, yet their paintings are more compelling because they more closely resemble life itself. They don’t paint the world as seen from the balcony of a minaret, ignoring what they call perspective; they depict what’s seen at street level, or from the inside of a prince’s room [. . .] attempting to imitate the world directly through painting seems dishonourable to me. I resent it. But there’s an undeniable allure to the paintings they make by those new methods. They depict what the eye sees just as the eye sees it. Indeed, they paint what they see, whereas we paint what we look at [. . .] one comes to realize that the only way to have one’s face immortalised is through the Frankish style [. . .] Just a glance at those paintings and you too would want to see yourself this way, you’d want to believe that you’re different from all others, a unique, special and particular human being. Painting people not as they are perceived by the mind, but as they are
actually seen by the naked eye, painting in the new method, allows for possibility. One day everyone will paint as they do. When ‘painting’ is mentioned, the world will think of their work! (MNR 205-206)

Soon, Enishte is smashed to death and Azrael, the Angel of Death dawns on him and says “I am the one who ends man’s journey in the world” (MNR 211). At this juncture, Enishte is reminded about the Book of the Apocalypse which mentions Azrael as the angel with one thousand wings spanning East and West and that he held the world in his hands. In religious terms, an infidel like Enishte would be doomed but by allowing him to be led into afterlife by Azrael, Pamuk affirms that illustration is not the work of the devil.

As the murderer is exposed, he tries to bail himself out saying he committed the murder to save the entire workshop. He killed Elegant since he had broken away from them after working together for so long. Enishte had used the perspectival method in the last picture which portrayed objects as they appeared to the naked eye, the way the Franks painted and not according to their importance in Allah’s mind. The real controversy focused on the Sultan’s picture that would be painted at the centre. And by giving the picture an air of mystery and secrecy, Enishte instilled in them the fear of heresy. Illustrations were merely seen as an extension of border ornamentation, but as they turned to Venetian methods, their painting focused on straightforward representation forbidden by the Glorious Quran. The murderer claims that Enishte “felt a slavish awe towards of the Frankish masters [. . .] and he’d fallen completely” for the Venetian artistry (MNR 479). Further he points out two reasons as to why he killed Enishte: first, because he forced Master Osman who firmly believed in traditional art to imitate the Venetian artist, Sebastiano; and secondly, because he said that Olive was “possessed of a style” (MNR 483). This provokes the murderer since the question of “style” was considered to be an instance of “rootlessness and dishonour” though everyone secretly desired to have one (483). Elegant considered portraiture as the greatest of sins and believed that it would lead to the downfall of Muslim painting yet he doubted whether the miniaturists will be able to withstand this affliction when this plague —“the methods of the Europeans”— spreads everywhere (MNR 484). This is evident as he displays the final picture which he had pilfered from Enishte’s house the day he killed him. The final controversial picture had various figures drawn on different parts of the pages and were arranged large and small that it no longer appeared as if they were
looking at a page of the book but as the world seen through a window. The surprise is that at the centre of the picture, where the Sultan’s picture should have been, Olive, the murderer has managed to draw his own portrait. He laboured for days looking into the mirror, but failed to achieve perfection. He felt elated as he saw himself at the centre. Yet, at the same time he felt isolated and wanted to escape this trap.

The miniaturists were trained to see the world through the God's eye, a very communitarian world where the rules are set and there is an endlessness of time. In an Interview with Elizabeth Farnsworth, Pamuk says that:

So, from this single, all embracing, medieval or Islamic point of view, transition to a multi-voiced, multi-perspective, rich, western point of view, maybe is something easy to summarize [. . .] but it's full of agony. That means leaving aside a whole tradition, a whole way of seeing things [. . .] My artists, in the end, cannot acquire the ways of seeing, a post-renaissance portrait [. . .] art of making portraits.

Both novels suggest the cultural influence of Enlightenment and Renaissance on Ottoman Islam. In The White Castle Pamuk questions the East/West dichotomy through his characters: the master and the slave, thereby narrating the east/west impasse in Ottoman Turkey. Similarly, My Name is Red is also concerned with image and textual production that is not in compliance with the Islamic point of view. In both The White Castle and My Name is Red, Pamuk epitomizes the east/west dilemma confronted by the Turkish people. Thus Pamuk succeeds in capturing the existential angst through his characters and their predicament in both the novels.

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Handicraft Sector Schemes: A Growth Trend Analysis

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²UGC-Research scholar, Department of Commerce, School of Business Management and Legal Studies, University of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.
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Abstract

Handicrafts activity is predominantly carried out in the unorganized household sector. The artisans’ manufactures are household members practicing handicrafts activity jointly at their residence, who if need arises, employ other handicraft artisans for work. In India as well as in many other regions of the world, handicrafts sector is identified as the second largest sector of rural employment after agriculture. The potential of the Handicraft industry has been underestimated as this sector can contribute a lot to our economy. Artisans belong to economically backward low wage system, irregularity of work, lack of technical knowhow and lack of design. This study is beneficial for the policy makers in chalking out suitable schemes and making changes in the present schemes to develop the handicraft industry as well as artisans.

Introduction

In India, history of handicraft goes back to the beginning of civilization. It is aptly described as ‘the craft of people’. Even in those times individuality was respected and skill of hands was appreciated. Through the ages the handicrafts evolved by taking in different influence from different cultures and folk tradition. They record multipurpose. It was a mean of self expression with aesthetic approval to life.

The word ‘handicraft’ needs to be defined in the Indian context by stressing its operational meanings or characteristics so as to develop as an industrial activity catalyzing the trade and development of the country. If the characteristic of heritage is stressed in the operational definition it would follow that craft skills must be passed on and sustained by measures which protect their geographical origin, originality and affiliations with a particular community. The uncontrolled marketing of original crafts items is detrimental to artisans and actions of vested interests in distribution network should be detrimental to the economic viability of the original craft activities. The
reference to the geographical origin of a product, which is part of its cultural dimension, should make it possible to provide legal protection for craft products.

Kerala has been the cradle of several traditional crafts that form an invaluable part of its culture. Artisans in Kerala have made skillful use of materials without sacrificing the requirements of aesthetics and thus made rich contributions to the life of the community.

The state has a rich cultural heritage, which is depicted in its art and crafts. With lovely places, exotic beaches, stunning landscapes, Kerala is truly the Gods own country. Likewise, the state has an edge as far as handicrafts are concerned because Kerala has a tradition of making beautiful handicrafts with articles like ivory, bamboo, palm leaves, seashells, wood, coconut shells, clay, cloth, metals, and stone and so on. The various Kerala handicrafts available include Brass and Bell metal works, Coir and Cane product, ivory works, Lacquer ware, sandalwood carving, Textiles, Wooden Toys, Kathakali Masks and Wooden carving amongst others.

**Definitions**

Definition of handicrafts provided by the Development Commissioner: Items made by hand, often with the use of simple tools, and generally artistic and / or traditional in nature. They include objects of utility and objects of decoration'(1989). Admittedly, some handicrafts under the administrative domains of other government departments/agencies get excluded from Development Commissioner Handicrafts's definition. The refined DCH definition of handicrafts is, to mean products produced with:

1) Manual labour with minimal or no input from machines
2) A substantial level of skill or expertise
3) A significant element of tradition...The word handicraft, as used in the present volume stresses, the potential of its heritage and economics for facilitating the socio-economic development of the country or region where it is located.

**Objectives of the study**

1) To examine the important schemes implemented by Govt. of India in handicrafts sector.
2) To analyze the growth trend of various schemes implemented by the government in Kerala when compared to all India.
Methodology of the study

The trend analysis of handicrafts scheme is being studied using secondary data alone.

Secondary data

For the purpose of the study secondary data of handicrafts scheme were collected from the following source:

1. Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts), Thiruvananthapuram and Thrissur
2. Report of Planning Commission
3. Five year plan reports

Important schemes for handicraft sector in 11 five year plan

Handicrafts constitute an important segment of the decentralized/unorganized sector of our economy. It is mainly rural based, having reach in backward and in-accessible area. Originally started as a part time activity in rural areas, it has now transformed into a flourishing economic activity due to significant market demand over the years. Handicrafts have big potential as they hold the key for sustaining not only the existing set of millions of artisans spread over length and breadth of the country, but also for increasingly large number of new entrants in the crafts activity. Presently, handicrafts sector is contributing substantially in employment generation and export but this sector has suffered due to very nature of being unorganized with additional constraints like:

- lack of education
- capital
- poor exposure to new technologies
- absence of market intelligence and
- poor institutional framework.

These problems have been further aggravated due to lack of care on the welfare of the artisans. In order to address the welfare needs of artisan, different schemes have been envisaged which is discussed below.

Comprehensive welfare scheme

The scheme is aimed at addressing the welfare needs of the artisans in respect of health and insurance, and has two sub schemes.
Rajiv Gandhi Shilpi Swasthya Bima Yojana (RGSSBY)

RGSSBY aims at financially enabling the artisans' community to access health care facilities. The Scheme covers the artisans family of four, comprising self and any other three members of the family from amongst the dependent parents, spouse and children. All craft persons, whether male or female, between the age group of one day to 80 years are eligible. One artisan family receives the benefits for 3 years. The Scheme was initially being implemented only through ICICI Lombard General Insurance Company. In addition, Reliance General Insurance Company has also been engaged recently. The Scheme provides insurance cover of 1,00,000 for accidental death/disability, and medclaim benefit of 15,000 per family per annum. GOI's contribution to the premium is 80% (general artisans)/90% (artisans belonging to North East Region /SC/ST/BPL families) and the artisan's contribution is 20%/10% respectively.

Table 1 Rajiv Gandhi Shilpi Swasthya Bima Yojana(RGSSBY)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Artisans covered under RGSSBY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>18680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>77420</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)*

*- figure not available with office of DCH

Table 2 Comprehensive Welfare Scheme (Janashree bima Yojana) for handicraft Artisans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Artisans covered under RGSSBY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>30162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>966050</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)*
Janasree Bima Yojana For Handicrafts Artisans (Aam Admi Bima Yojana) - AAB Yojana

'Janasree Bima Yojana For Handicrafts Artisans' provides life insurance protection to the Handicrafts Artisans, whether male or female, between the age of 18-60 years. The Scheme was launched in 2003 and is being implemented by LIC. It provides life insurance cover of Rs.30,000 for natural death and Rs.75,000 for accidental death, or permanent disability. Additional benefits are extended in the form of an associated scheme of LIC- "Siksha Sahayog Yojana" under which not more than 2 dependent children of the beneficiary studying in classes 9 to 12 are given scholarships at the rate of 300 per quarter per child.

Human Resource Development Scheme

The aim of the HRD scheme is to provide trained and qualified work force capable of establishing a strong production base, coupled with improvements in quality and use of appropriate techniques, processes and innovative designs to meet present day market requirements. The scheme has five key components.

1) Training through established institutions
2) Training in innovative designs for artisans involved in hand block printing, terracotta, etc
3) Training of artisans /SHG leaders/NGOs in non technical skills such as micro finance/entrepreneurship development/ preparation of business pans/preparation of project reports/ packaging/ exporting procedures/ documentation
4) Conducting seminars/workshops for dissemination and creation of awareness about schemes/programmes, technological developments, market intelligence , amongst artisans and take holders, and
5) Training through Guru Shishya Parampara for passing the experts along with appropriate technology and indigenous methods by master crafts persons to the artisans and provide gainful employment in rural areas.
Table 3 Human resource Development Scheme to Handicrafts in Kerala 2008-2009,2009-2010 up to 15.03.2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of Artisans benefited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>3680</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)

Marketing Support and Services Scheme (MSS)

The objective of MSS scheme is to enhance the access of artisans to various markets and marketing channels, and also create awareness about handicrafts amongst consumers and public at large, both in domestic and international markets, along with creation of marketing infrastructure. The scheme has broad three components.

1) Domestic marketing through Crafts bazaars, exhibitions, sourcing shows, setting up Urban Hats, Emporia and Warehousing facilities and organizing workshops,
2) International marketing including workshops and training programs, craft exchange programs, participation in fairs and exhibitions, road shows, reverse buyer-seller meets and market studies abroad, and
3) Publicity and marketing.

Table 4 Marketing Support and Services Scheme for Handicrafts Artisans in Kerala from 2008 to 15.03.2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of Artisans benefited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>24410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)

Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme (DTUS)

The Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme has eight components.

1) Financial assistance to Central government sponsored institutions;
2) Skill up gradation through training of trainers and assistance to shilp gurus;
3) Financial assistance for development and supply of modern improved tools, equipment and process technologies;
4) Assistance for design and technology upgradation through workshops and integrated projects for design and development.
5) Documentation, preservation and revival of rare and languishing crafts;
6) National Award for outstanding contribution in Handicrafts sector;
7) Financial assistance for institutions to be setup under State Initiatives including Design Centers, Design Banks and Museums; and
8) Product Development for Exports.

Table 5 Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme for Handicrafts Artisans in Kerala 2008-2009, 2009-2010 up to 15.03.2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of Artisans benefited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>7350</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)

All the 5 Schemes are in the central sector and being implemented through the Development Commissioner for Handicrafts. The schemes are aimed at providing welfare measures to the artisans also need based interventions for holistic and sustainable development of the handicrafts sector.

Analysis of the study

An attempt was made to find the growth trend of handicrafts schemes introduced for the welfare of the artisans and a comparison was done on the trend of the scheme between the country’s and the Kerala state’s growth. Trend analysis was the tool used to find the same.

Growth trend analysis of handicraft schemes in 11 five year plan in Kerala

The Handicraft Artisans Comprehensive Welfare Scheme is showing a better growth trend in Kerala except in 2009-10, were it shows a negative growth. A poor growth trend is depicted in the case of Human Resource.
Table 6 Growth Trend of Handicraft Schemes in 11 Five Year Plan in Kerala

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schemes (Kerala)</th>
<th>2008-09</th>
<th>2009-10</th>
<th>2010-11</th>
<th>2011-12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handicraft Artisans Comprehensive Welfare Scheme (Janashree Bima Yojana)</td>
<td>30162 (14.55%)</td>
<td>12661 (-14.505%)</td>
<td>24432 (23.242%)</td>
<td>30898 (6.616%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Development Scheme</td>
<td>130 (-8.72%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>490 (69.230%)</td>
<td>210 (-14.285%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Support and Services Scheme</td>
<td>948 (-5.332%)</td>
<td>600 (-9.177%)</td>
<td>910 (12.916%)</td>
<td>320 (-16.208%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme</td>
<td>320 (2.81%)</td>
<td>80 (-18.750%)</td>
<td>440 (112.500%)</td>
<td>240 (-11.363%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)

Development Scheme and Marketing Support and Services Scheme in all the years except in 2010-11 were it shows a positive growth. A mixed trend is shown in Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme, were alternative years gives a positive growth; 2010-11 growth shows an all time highest figure with 112.5%. (Table 6)

Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)

Figure 1 Growth Trend of Kerala on Handicrafts Scheme
In Kerala the handicrafts schemes like Janashree Bima Yojana and Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme shows a better growth trend by analyzing the available figures. Whereas, the schemes like Human Resource Development Scheme and Marketing Support and Services Scheme shows a noticing negative trend. (Table 6). The performance of the Kerala handicrafts scheme on the year 2010-11 is showing a better growth trend for all the schemes. (Figure 1)

**Growth Trend Analysis of Handicraft Schemes in 11 Five Year Plan in India**

All the Schemes for handicrafts are showing a better growth trend in India except in Marketing Support and Services Scheme and Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme, were it shows a negative growth towards the end but still it is not a serious decline of growth. When comparing with the growth trend in India on the particular schemes, performance of Kerala is lesser than that of India’s. (Table 7)

**Table 7 Growth trend of handicraft schemes in 11 five year plan in India**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schemes (India)</th>
<th>2008-2009</th>
<th>2009-2010</th>
<th>2010-2011</th>
<th>2011-2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handicraft Artisans Comprehensive Welfare Scheme (Janashree Bima Yojana)</td>
<td>966050 (24.456%)</td>
<td>37985 (-24.017%)</td>
<td>137765 (65.670%)</td>
<td>196648 (10.685%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Development Scheme</td>
<td>3680 (-17.02%)</td>
<td>9200 (37.500%)</td>
<td>18792 (26.065%)</td>
<td>19180 (0.516%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Support and Services Scheme</td>
<td>24410 (9.406%)</td>
<td>24027 (-0.3923%)</td>
<td>35826 (12.276%)</td>
<td>34677 (-0.801%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme</td>
<td>7350 (-0.034%)</td>
<td>14280 (23.571%)</td>
<td>16250 (3.448%)</td>
<td>13250 (-4.615%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Office of Development Commissioner (Handicrafts)*

The performance of schemes throughout the country is better than that of Kerala’s were the growth trend shows a weaker position for Kerala in the analysis. (Table 7)
Similarly, that of Kerala the year 2010-11 for all the schemes were a better year for performance as the figure shows a positive growth trend for all the schemes in that particular year. It can be concluded that the working and the supervision for the year 2010-11 was efficient for all the schemes.

**Findings of the study**

Following are the major findings derived out of the study:

1. The important schemes introduced by Indian Government for handicrafts were; Handicraft Artisans Comprehensive Welfare Scheme (Janashree Bima Yojana), Human Resource Development Scheme, Marketing Support and Services Scheme and Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme.
2. The growth trend of Kerala on the identified schemes of handicrafts was lesser than that of India.
3. The year 2010-11 was the best period for the schemes throughout the country.

**Conclusion**

In India as well as in many other regions of the world, handicrafts sector is identified as the second largest sector of rural employment after
agriculture. The potential of the Handicraft industry has been underestimated as this sector can contribute a lot to our economy. Artisans belong to economically backward low wage system and they have drawbacks like irregularity of work, lack of technical knowhow, lack of design. So, to explore the benefits of handicrafts in National Income is only through efficient schemes introduced especially for handicrafts.

Following are the recommendations for the betterment of the schemes’ performance:

1. The Kerala government has to study the working model of the central as a whole, so that they can cope up with the performance of the country.
2. The year 2010-11 has to be considered the model year and should follow the policies implemented on that year by both Kerala as well as India as a whole.
3. The Kerala economy is responding better to Design and Technology Upgradation Scheme for handicrafts, so a due attention must be made to the same.

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Affluent Investors and Mutual Fund Investment

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Abstract

A mutual fund, therefore, in its rudimentary conceptualization is a collection of stocks and/or bonds, where in an investor holds a share, which represents a part of the fund holding thereof. The financial institutions, other, industries and companies were vying with one another to get the surplus funds for their requirements. This had culminated into a wide range of investment opportunities. In the light of surfeit of investment opportunities, in view of newly emerging investments and in the face of severe competition for investible funds, the study of the process of investment by the investors in mutual fund market is quite relevant. The investors behavior, their profile, variables influencing them to invest in mutual funds and selection of mutual fund schemes have been focused.

Key Words: Mutual Fund Schemes; Potential Sector; Market Volatility; Liquidity; Risk Capacity; Mutual Fund Product.

Introduction

Mutual fund in itself deemed to be an institutional entity that encompasses the commonly derived and/or schematically accumulated financial goals of the community of investors. The money collected from a plethora of sources is invested by the fund managers in various types of securities depending on their duly specified objectives. The India mutual funds industry has witnessed several structural and regulatory reforms. The people invest in mutual funds, for the purpose of earning higher rate of return by taking minimum risks. With entry of new fund houses and the introduction of new funds into the market, investors are now being presented with a broad array of fund choices. The global players are finding Indian mutual funds industry a potential sector.

Review of the literature

Chalam (2003) found the important factor influencing the investment on mutual funds are return, capital appreciation, tax saving purpose, liquidity,
marketability and safety. Majority of the investors prefer real estate investments, followed by mutual fund schemes, gold and precious metals. Majority of the investors in mutual funds are employees. They preferred only growth options compared to income options. Majority of the investors are very much interested to take the re-investment benefit rather than the regular dividend.

Mohanty (2006) analysed the weakness of mutual funds. There are non – availability of tailor-made schemes, no guarantee of returns, no control over costs, problem of managing large corpus, volatility of return depends on market conditions, which is subject to frequent market volatility and mostly investment period is medium term to long-term where expected return is more market mutual funds scheme is for short period where return is not lucrative and the instruments are lesser in number.

Kaul and Gupta (2006) analysed the investors perception on various reasons to select the mutual fund scheme. These are risk capacity and tolerance, liquidity needs, specific objectives, credibility of the sponsors, investment philosophy of the fund, performance of the scheme, dividends, entry and exact loads, expenses changed to the fund and services offered by the fund.

Panda and Nalini (2001) evaluated the cause and effect relationship between mutual fund investment decision. The buying intent of a mutual fund product by small investor can be due to multiple reasons depending upon customers risk return trade off.

Objectives of the study
The present study confines its objectives to the following:

i) To exhibit the investor’s preferences and priorities towards different mutual fund products.

ii) To examine the decision variables regarding mutual fund investment.

iii) To identify the factors influencing the investment on mutual funds.

iv) To study the problems encountered by the investors in mutual fund market.

Preferred mutual funds among the investors
The mutual funds are of several types. It is categorized by the structure investment, objective and other interior. The investors prefer the mutual funds according to their willingness. In the present study, the type of mutual are confined to only nine. The investors are asked to rank the nine
funds according to their preference. Garratt’s ranking technique is used to determine the most preferred mutual fund among the investors.

**Table No. 1** Mutual fund preferred by the investors Garrett’s Ranking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl.No.</th>
<th>Nature of mutual fund</th>
<th>Garrett’s Score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Balanced schemes</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gift schemes</td>
<td>56.42</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Income Schemes</td>
<td>54.02</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bond schemes</td>
<td>51.33</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Equity schemes</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Tax saving schemes</td>
<td>46.75</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Money market schemes</td>
<td>46.32</td>
<td>VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sector specific schemes</td>
<td>44.62</td>
<td>VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Index schemes</td>
<td>42.22</td>
<td>IX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highly preferred mutual fund scheme among the investors is balanced scheme with the score of 57.1 followed by gift schemes (56.42) and income schemes (54.02). The least preferred mutual fund schemes are sector specific schemes (44.62) and index schemes (42.22).

**Sources of Investment on Mutual funds**

The sources of investment represent the important sources of money to invest on mutual funds among the investors.

The present study confines the sources of investment on mutual funds to savings, earnings, borrowings and closure of other investments. The investors are asked to mention their important source of investment. The result is illustrated in Table 2.

**Table No. 2** Sources of Investment among the Investors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Source of investment</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Savings</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Earnings</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Borrowings</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Closing other investment</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary Data
The important source of investment on mutual funds among the investors are earnings and savings which constitutes 32.2 and 47.8 percent to the total respectively.

**Source of Information about mutual funds among the Investors**

The sources of information about the mutual funds are too many. The investors give weightage on each source of information. They are not relied on only one source of information. Since the source of information about the mutual funds is an important motivating element to invest on it, the present study has made an attempt to analyse the source of information about mutual funds among the investors. The sources are confined to agents, brokers, friends and relatives, advertisement, other investors financial advisers, newsletters and seminars. The investors are asked to rate the above said sources at five point scale. Weightage average method in used to exhibit the important sources of information among the investors.

**Table No. 3 Sources of information about mutual funds**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Source of information</th>
<th>SA 5</th>
<th>A 4</th>
<th>C 3</th>
<th>DA 2</th>
<th>SDA 1</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Agents</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>2.989</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Brokers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>2.955</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Friends Relative</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>3.766</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>155</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Advertisement</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>3.155</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Other Investors</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>3.466</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>120</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Financial Advisor</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>4.011</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>180</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>News Letters</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>2.844</td>
<td>VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Primary Data*
Form of advertisement among the investors

Nowadays, the investors are highly attracted by the advertisement to invest on mutual funds. The information about the mutual funds and the issuing companies may be advertised through so many forms. The present study confine these form of advertisement to total newspapers, magazines, national newspaper, television, phamlets, bill boards, direct mail and radio. Since the form of advertisement is equally important the investors are asked to rate these forms at five point scale. The mean score of each form of advertisement among the investors is computed to exhibit the important form of advertisement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Form of advertisement</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Local Newspaper</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Magazines</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>National Newspaper</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Television</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Phamlets</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Bill Boards</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Direct Mail</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary Data

Bill boards is the main form of advertisement which attracts the investors towards mutual fund with the mean score of 4.211 followed by direct mail with the mean score of 3.355.
Mutual fund investment decision variables

The present analysis focuses on the mutual fund investment decision function to establish the causal relationship inherently pertinent amongst the factors influencing one’s decision to invest in the mutual funds. The decision variable considered were.

i) Brand equity  
ii) Fund size  
iii) Type of fund  
iv) Type of portfolio and schemes  
v) Risk involved in the mutual fund  
vi) Reputation of fund manager  
vii) Past performance of the fund  
viii) Liquidity factors  
ix) Current market conditions  

The investor’s attitude on the above said nine variables have been analysed with the help of Garrett’s ranking method.

Table No. 5 Investors attitude on decision variables-Garrett’s Ranking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Decision variable</th>
<th>Garrett’s Score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Liquidity factors</td>
<td>59.45</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Current market conditions</td>
<td>53.46</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Risk involved in MF</td>
<td>50.22</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Depends on the size of fund</td>
<td>49.11</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Type of fund</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Type of portfolio scheme</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Reputation of fund manager</td>
<td>46.51</td>
<td>VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Brand equity</td>
<td>46.35</td>
<td>VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Past performance of the fund</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>IX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary Data

The major decision variable which influence the investors to invest in mutual fund is liquidity factor which has the highest score of 59.45, followed by risk involved in mutual funds which has the score of 50.22. Investors give
only least importance to brand equity and past performance of the investment which has the score of 46.35 and 45.7.

**Variables influencing to Invest on Mutual Funds**

The investors, prefer the investment on mutual funds for several reasons. The reasons may be related to diversification, profitability and constant return. The variables leading to invest on mutual funds among the investors are identified by Barua et al., (1982), Assocham (2004), Agarwal (1992) and ChanderSubash et al., (1992). The present study confine the variables leading to investment in mutual funds as safety, easy liquidity, stability, speculative values, diversification and low cost of investment regular saving, higher return, risk bearing, feature planning, friends and relatives, financial advisers, brokers and agents and company reputation.

The factors influencing to invest on mutual funds are narrated with the help of factor analysis.

**Table No. 7 Factors influencing to invest in Mutual Funds**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>No. of variables in</th>
<th>Eigen Value</th>
<th>Percent of variation explained</th>
<th>Cumulative percent of variation explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Risk Freeness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.017</td>
<td>11.204</td>
<td>11.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Income</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.610</td>
<td>8.946</td>
<td>20.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Savings</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.413</td>
<td>7.852</td>
<td>28.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.400</td>
<td>7.781</td>
<td>36.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.265</td>
<td>7.025</td>
<td>42.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.196</td>
<td>6.642</td>
<td>49.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Value added gains</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.116</td>
<td>6.201</td>
<td>55.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.062</td>
<td>5.898</td>
<td>61.549</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source** : Primary Data

The important factors leading to invest on mutual funds are ‘risk freeness’ and ‘income’ since their Eigen values are 2.017 and 1.610 respectively. The risk consists of 3 variables with percent of variation explained of 11.204 percent. It reveals that the security factor explain the variables influencing to invest on mutual fund to the extent of 11.204 percent.

*Interdisciplinary Biannual Journal of Sree Narayana College, Sivagiri, Varkala*
The ‘income’ factor consists of two variables with the percent of variation explained of 8.946 percent. The next factors are ‘savings’ and ‘cost’ since their respective Eigenvalues are 1.413 and 1.100 the percent of variation explained by these two factors are 7.852 and 7.781 percent.

**Problems encountered by investors in investment on mutual funds**

The investors may perceive some problems in investing their funds in mutual funds. The nature and degree of problem among the investors may differ from investors to investors. Even though the problems faced by the investors are too many the present studies confine these problems to sixteen. These problems are drawn from the reviews.

**Table No.8 Problems encountered in investing on Mutual Funds**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No</th>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Small scale investors</th>
<th>Large scale investors</th>
<th>‘T’ statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Poor fund management</td>
<td>3.1712</td>
<td>3.8589</td>
<td>-1.9902*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Inefficient fund management</td>
<td>3.1244</td>
<td>3.9617</td>
<td>-2.4417*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Poor selection of portfolio</td>
<td>3.1017</td>
<td>3.9903</td>
<td>-2.3078*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Low performance of funds</td>
<td>3.9148</td>
<td>3.1718</td>
<td>2.1903*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>High volatility</td>
<td>3.9027</td>
<td>3.2162</td>
<td>2.1981*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Higher expense ratio</td>
<td>3.8143</td>
<td>3.1344</td>
<td>2.2706*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dissolution of the company</td>
<td>3.2768</td>
<td>3.9044</td>
<td>-2.0441*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Non-publication of daily managers</td>
<td>3.0147</td>
<td>3.9697</td>
<td>-2.5148*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Frequent change of fund manager</td>
<td>3.2455</td>
<td>3.8917</td>
<td>1.9319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Load structure</td>
<td>3.1416</td>
<td>3.8713</td>
<td>-1.9801*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Delay on redemption</td>
<td>3.8644</td>
<td>3.1713</td>
<td>2.1036*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Lesser accessibility</td>
<td>3.8586</td>
<td>3.1602</td>
<td>2.0234*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Lack of adequate information</td>
<td>3.7871</td>
<td>3.0233</td>
<td>1.9807*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Recession in the bond market</td>
<td>3.1447</td>
<td>3.8789</td>
<td>-1.9033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Reduction in bank rate</td>
<td>3.0563</td>
<td>3.9233</td>
<td>-2.4803*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Uncertainty in capital market</td>
<td>3.1081</td>
<td>3.9097</td>
<td>-2.4709*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at five percent level.
The investors are asked to rate the sixteen problems at five point scale from 5 to 1 respectively. The mean score of each problem among the small and large scale investors have been computed to exhibit the importance of the problem among the investors. Regarding the perception on the problems, the significant difference among the two group of investors have been examined with the help of ‘t’ test. The resulted mean scores of each problem and the respective ‘t’ statistics are shown in table.

The highly viewed problems among the small scale investors are higher volatility, low fund performance and delay in redempting request since its means scores are 3.9027, 3.9148 and 3.8644 respectively. Among the large scale investors thee problems are poor selection of portfolio non-publication of daily NAV and reduction in bank rate since their respective mean scores are 3.99.3, 3.9697 and 3.9233 respectively. Regarding the perception on problems encountered by the investors, the significant difference among the small scale and large scale investors have been identified in the case of perception on fund performance, dissolution of the company, poor fund management, poor selection of portfolio, in efficient fund manager, delay in redemption request, lack of adequate information, lesser accessibility, non-publication of daily NAV, higher expenses ratio, higher volatility, load structure, reduction in bank rate, recession in bond market and uncertainty in capital market since their respective ‘t’ statistics are significant at five percent level.

Policy implications

With a view to increase the effectiveness of savings allocation and financing the heavy infrastructure needs of the Indian economy, particular attention should be paid to the long term strategy. The following suggestions can be guiding force in this regard.

Since the success of mutual fund business largely depends on the product innovation, marketing, customer service, fund management, committed man power etc, the following measures in these areas have to be taken on priority basis to achieve the success of mutual fund business in future.

Transparency of investment

In many cases, the NAV of the scheme is not disclosed to the public. There is a need to make it mandatory to every mutual fund to make transparency of the problem of investment and the NAV of the schemes it launched at periodic intervals. This transparency of the fund operation will
also create confidence in the minds of the investors and enable them to take suitable decisions at right time to continue or liquidate their investment.

**Efficient branch network to rural areas**

With liberalization and competition, it has become necessary for all mutual funds to market the scheme just as a new issue. In fact, mutual funds are not still able to tap large savings from the rural population just because of the lack of proper branch network. Now, time has come to spread the branch network to remote rural areas to mobilise more resources.

**Customer service and investor relations**

Investor’s service is likely to become the key area of concern of mutual funds in future with the fast increasing number of unit holding accounts. These mutual funds needs to take advantage of computer technology in a major way to extend efficient service. Investor’s relations should be given top priority by mutual funds to protect the interest of the mutual fund investors.

**Promotional techniques**

The mutual funds companies should increase their advertisement budget. They should distribute the pamphlets and brochures among walk in the banks. Since, proper counseling by banks, asset management companies and agents will motivate the investors, the companies should train their relevant people to promote the investment on financial market. Seminars and presentations should be held regularly to make the people aware of mutual funds proper hoardings should be displayed on high ways and public places, so that more and more people should come to know about mutual funds.

**Quality of the fund manager**

Quality of the fund manager is the key to good performance of any AMC. A very good performing scheme may suddenly start under-performing because of the change in the managers. Since the investors review the changes in manager and collect some information about the manager before investing on mutual funds, the AMC must try to appoint efficient fund manager and try to engage them for a long period.

**Differentiated product**

With mutual fund company should analyse the need of various investors and design the mutual funds according to the need of various segments.
Motivating financial consultants

Mutual fund companies should motivate financial consultants or other word of mouth sources as they have to act as catalysts.

Introducing innovative schemes

With the increasing awareness among the retail investors about capital markets, the mutual fund companies should come with innovative schemes to meet the requirements of the retail investors.

Attracting household investors

In the developed countries like US, the percentage of net assets held by the household investors is more than 80% of the total funds, but in India it is just around 40%. This signifies that the mutual fund companies in India should try to attract more number of household investors towards investments in mutual fund.

Conclusion

If mutual funds ensure good returns, quick liquidity and safety and create a good rapport with the investors, their future will be very bright. They act as a via media between bank deposit and share in the sense it involves a higher risk than a bank deposit and hence a better return, but a lower risk than a share and hence more safety. Hence soon it would become and ideal vehicle for investment in India. It is time for the mutual funds to act as mutual friends by creating a good rapport with the investors by rendering efficient and prompt services, no doubt there is a bright future for mutual funds in India.

Reference


Vulnerability of Migrants and Responsiveness of the State of Kerala
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Email: kappungaledk@gmail.com

Abstract
The paper examines the dimensions of vulnerability of migrant labourers in Kerala state. The state has been witnessing large inflow of migrant labourers not only from the neighbouring states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka but also from states in East India (West Bengal and Orissa), North India (Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand) and North-east (Assam, Manipur). The paper examines how the state and other agencies in Kerala responded to reduce the vulnerability of inter-state migrant workers. The paper also makes an assessment of a pioneering welfare scheme for inter-state migrant workers introduced by the Kerala government. The Central Government also should consider 'migration' as criteria for allocation of resources to different states. The paper also observes that a strategy to reach out to migrant workers coming from diverse backgrounds and speaking different languages has to be introduced as the present strategy, whether it is by the law enforcement agencies or the public service providers, fails to reach a significant segment of migrant population.

Key Words: Internal migration; inter-state migration; Vulnerability; State response.

Introduction
Keralites have been migrating to other states in India and to other countries for several decades in search of employment. It is estimated that 1.85 million Keralites have migrated to other countries (Kerala 2009) and 0.97 million people to other parts of India (NSSO 2010). According to the National Sample Survey estimates for 2007-08, the number of migrants from other states in Kerala is about one million. Thus, the inflow to Kerala exceeded outflow to other parts of the country though not to other countries.

In-migration of workers to Kerala has a long history. But the recent migration is different in terms of the profile of the migrant workers, the occupation they are engaged in and the magnitude of inflow. The migration in the 1980s and 1990s was primarily from the neighbouring states of Tamil
Nadu and Karnataka. Labourers from states as far as West Bengal, Orissa, Bihar, Assam, Uttar Pradesh, and Uttarakhand now flock to Kerala. The activities they are engaged in also got much more diversified than earlier. The migrant workers are now engaged as construction workers, casual labourers, agricultural and plantation workers, road workers, domestic workers, carpenters, masons, plumbers, electricians etc. They are also employed in jewellery making, cashew processing units, plywood factories, flour mills, quarries, brick kilns, hotels, slaughter houses, petrol pumps etc. There is also a trend towards allocating more difficult, hazardous and menial jobs to migrant workers.

Vulnerability of migrant workers

Bustamante (2011) points out that "migrants are inherently vulnerable as subjects of human rights from the time they leave home to initiate their migration. In other words, any human being is less vulnerable at home than right after he leaves it to become a migrant. The same applies to the sociological extension of the notion of home to a community of origin. The same person that migrates had more resources, both material and human, to defend and/or protect, himself, when he was at home, prior to moving elsewhere, than after the outward movement had taken place." According to Derose et al (2007), vulnerability is shaped by many factors, including political and social marginalization and a lack of socioeconomic and societal resources. Varennes (2003) states that "living in host states where they (migrants) may not master the official language(s), are unfamiliar with the workings of the legal system and administration, detached from traditional support and family networks, exposed to a society with ways of life or cultures which they may find at times alien, they may face trials that can leave them disoriented and disturbed." Thus, vulnerability of the migrants arise because of living in a place which is different in culture, language, social settings, legal protection, entitlements and consumption habits from their native places and the loss of the traditional support system they enjoyed before migration. Though these aspects are usually discussed in the context of international migration, the situation is more or less the same when migrants cross borders of states within large countries like India. In view of the host state's failure to acknowledge their presence, inter-state migrants are barely considered in policy making in the state where they live. It is also possible that their voices
may not be heard in the states of their origin. The widely held feeling among local community that they are 'outsiders' adds to their vulnerability.

a) Limited access to entitlements

Movement of people from one state to another can lead to loss of certain entitlements they enjoyed in the state where they lived before migration. In the Indian federal system, people derive their entitlements through the fundamental rights conferred on them by the Indian Constitution and the various laws enacted by the Union government and the state governments. Apart from these rights and legal protection, people are eligible to make use of various programmes/schemes executed by the central and state governments. Most of the central government schemes are applicable throughout the country. Even in central government schemes, the benefits reach the people through the state or local government. Unless otherwise specified, such benefits are available only to the permanent residents of the respective state. In such a situation, the inter-state migrants lose their entitlements when they cross borders of their native state. For instance, a migrant labourer from states like Bihar, Orissa, West Bengal or Assam who has been availing rice or wheat and other provisions at subsidized price through the Public Distribution System (PDS) in the home state is unlikely to benefit from the PDS in Kerala. Though Kerala is known to have one of the most elaborate public distribution systems in the country, none of the migrant workers we met have a ration card in Kerala which is the document required for availing the benefits under the subsidized PDS as they do not have the residential status necessary for getting the benefits. The state has also been providing essential consumption items at subsidized rates through its outlets managed by the Kerala State Civil Supplies Corporation, an apex federation of cooperatives for which also a ration card is necessary. Thus, the migrants have to depend solely on the open market and become more vulnerable to the price differences in the open market compared to the local community. In the open market, some instances where migrants were asked to pay more than what is demanded from the local population were also reported.

A similar situation exists in accessing the benefits of Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY), a health insurance scheme for poor families implemented throughout the country by the Central government. At an annual fee of Rs. 30, the scheme provides for annual coverage for inpatient care of up
to Rs. 30,000 to five members of a family. To cater to the needs of the workers belonging to BPL families who migrate, there is a facility to split the card which is given to RSBY beneficiary families. The smart card issued under the RSBY can be split at the time of first issue or subsequently at a district level office. But the families of migrant workers appear to be not making use of this facility and therefore are unable to avail the benefits of the scheme. In a taluk level government hospital in Perumbavoor, a town in Central Kerala well known for very high presence of migrant labourers, there was not even an enquiry by the migrant workers to avail of the facility. Thus, in practice, the portability of benefits of RSBY scheme remains an issue.

Usually, benefits of the schemes run by individual state governments are available to persons having resident status in the respective state. Migrants, in general, do not have resident status in the destination state. 'Comprehensive Health Insurance Scheme (CHIS)' is a scheme initiated by the Government of Kerala to extend coverage of health insurance to families which are not covered by the RSBY. The scheme benefits the 'additional poor', identified by the Kerala government\textsuperscript{13} who are ready to pay Rs. 30 and to non-poor if they are willing to pay the full premium of Rs. 778. Migrant labourers are not covered by this scheme also as they are not eligible for state specific schemes. It is clear that many of the entitlements one has in his home state are unavailable once he cross borders of state even when they are within the same country. This is despite the fact that the Indian federal system envisages full portability of the benefits across the country at least in the case of central government schemes. It appears that there is a need for better coordination between the governments in the host state, states of origin and the central government to make sure that the entitlements of inter-state migrants are not lost on account of migration. The initiative to provide unique identity to citizens which is underway in India may help to address the issue by synergizing it with entitlements of the citizens so that migrant labourers can enjoy their rights wherever they are.

b) Language barriers

One of the major problem that migrant workers faces when they reach Kerala is related to the differences in the languages spoken by the migrant workers and that of the host society. As noted earlier, though migration is between regions within the same country, language spoken by the migrants
and the local people are different. The official languages of the country are Hindi and English. But Keralites speak Malayalam. This is different from the language spoken by people in West Bengal (Bengali), Orissa (Oriya), Bihar (Hindi) or Assam (Assamese). All these languages belong to the Indo-Aryan language family while Malayalam is a Dravidian language. Being unable to speak to the local community or the service providers in their language makes them vulnerable on many occasions as may be seen late.

In view of the newly emerging situation of having to meet the requirements of people speaking different languages, the local trading community and private service providers have slowly started speaking Hindi. The migrant workers speaking Oriya or Bengali have started learning Hindi after coming to Kerala. Some of them also have started picking up Malayalam words. The private sector also has started to respond to the situation in many other ways. For instance, films in Oriya language are shown in the migrant concentration areas. The advertisements of such films are also in Oriya language. Shops in such areas also sell Video CDs of Oriya, Bengali and Hindi films and film songs. The restaurants in these areas display menu in several languages to cater to the needs of migrants from different states. There have been some attempts by the public service providers also.

c) Health and safety risks

Migrants are vulnerable because of crowded and unhygienic living conditions and inadequate provisions for their safety at the worksite. The limitations to access health care due to language barriers, lack of time, lack of knowledge about the public provisioning of health care etc. exacerbates their vulnerability. However, one advantage the migrants in Kerala is that they may be able to benefit from the relatively better health system and health care seeking practices in the state.

The presence of a public health care system which is responsive to the needs of the migrants is a necessity in states which have significant presence of migrant population. Such a system should be sensitive to the cultural, linguistic and social backgrounds of the migrants. Treatment is expected to be made available from the government hospitals almost free of cost to residents of Kerala who are poor which is ascertained by the hospital authorities on the basis of the type of a ration card they hold. With no ration card, these migrant labourers are not eligible for free/subsidised treatment in government
hospitals. But it appears that public health system has slowly started responding to the requirements of the migrants. In some of the government hospitals, health care is provided to the migrant workers free of cost. But they may have to buy some of the medicines and conduct test from labs outside the hospital for which it is paid from their pockets. Inconvenient timings of the government hospitals may be one of the reasons why they depend more on private hospitals. If they have to consult a doctor in a government hospital, they have to forgo work for the day which the migrant workers usually do not want to in their quest for maximizing the earnings. Migrants depend more on private clinics and hospitals compared to public hospitals. They prefer to consult physicians who can communicate with them at least in Hindi. When migrants who arrived recently have to seek treatment, often a Malayalee supervisor or worker accompanies them and communicates with the physician about the illness or the injury. In view of the limited ability of the Malayalee supervisor or worker to communicate with the migrant labourers in their language, all the necessary details of the illness or accident may not be communicated to the doctor. Moreover, the migrant worker has no way to ensure that his/her illness or accident is properly communicated. Our study among migrant workers from Tamil Nadu (Surabhi and Kumar 2007) found that nearly one-third of them usually approach a local chemist for treatment. The doctors of a Government Medical College in Kerala who examined a group of about 200 migrant labourers in a work site in 2011 found that the labourers showed a "dangerous tendency to buy medicines of their choice from medical stores directly without consulting a doctor."

While migrant labourers avail themselves of curative care, though often not at the desired level, the temporary nature of their employment and stay limits the chances of being covered by preventive care. However, of late, the public health system in the state is slowly realising the implications of not addressing the health issues of the migrant population as it has started affecting the health of the local population also. The incidence of Malaria has been reported among migrant workers in different parts of Kerala, a state which has long back eradicated the disease. This has prompted the authorities to initiate interventions to prevent the spread of such diseases. Some efforts to create awareness among the migrants through pamphlets printed in Hindi, Oriya and Bengali have been undertaken. However, public health personnel
agree that only a section of the migrants is reached through such interventions. They attribute it to inadequate human resources available at their disposal. The availability of public health staff for field work has not changed even in pockets where migrants are concentrated in large numbers. Also, the strategy employed is to reach out to the migrant labourers through their employers where the willingness of the latter is a major determinant. Moreover, such a strategy will not help to reach out to casual labourers, domestic workers and those employed in small establishments. In response to the increasing presence of migrant labour and in view of the current attention on the link between migration and spread of HIV/AIDS, state-funded AIDS Control Society is implementing targeted intervention programmes among the migrant workers. The project titled 'Migrant Suraksha Project' is implemented with the help of non-governmental organizations.

The migrants are more vulnerable to safety risks at work place. Instances of migrant workers working at dangerous heights without necessary protection have been reported in the media. Often the local community accepts this by saying that "they are willing to climb any heights and work there dangerously". The necessary precautions to ensure the physical safety of workers in the industrial units also leave much to be desired. Added to this, the poor language skills prevent them from understanding the safety precautions that the employer or his supervisor gives them verbally. In the event of an accident at worksite, the migrant worker is usually taken to a private hospital of the employer's choice. Usually the employer meets the hospital expenses.

d) Limitation to access education

The children of migrant workers usually stay back in their home villages. Large majority of the newly coming migrants from distant states are young and unmarried. Of the children staying in Kerala, language barriers pose problems in availing the educational facilities here. A few single teacher schools have been started under the national school education programme viz., Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. A single teacher school for the children of Bengali migrants, started in Central Kerala, was closed down as the Bengali teacher left Kerala to get married. The difficulty to recruit teachers with knowledge in languages such as Oriya, Bengali or Assamese is one of the problems related to the education of migrants' children. A migrant labourer from Uttarakhand who sends his four year old child in a private pre-school in Kerala told us that
he will leave Kerala when the girl attains the age of six. He feels that the language (Malayalam) and curriculum the child learns in Kerala may not be good for her future as she has to live the rest of her life in Uttarakhand.

e) Unequal wages

Unskilled migrant labourers get Rs. 300-350 for a day's work. If accommodation and provisions for food are given, there is a cut on their wages to the tune of about Rs.100. These wages are lower than the wages for local labour by about Rs. 100. But in large scale construction as well as infrastructure works, migrant workers are generally recruited through contractors or agents who settle wages, after retaining part (Rs. 20-50) of their earnings from the payments received from the employer. Even if they do not come through contractor or agent, some of them pay money to the labourers who have come to Kerala from the same state earlier to find jobs and provide necessary support. One of the migrant labourers said "When we come, we know nothing. So we call up people already here and ask them to find job for us. When they help, we give them some money. What else can be done? Otherwise we will be absolutely lost as we don't know the language."

The earnings of the workers increased after migration is about 3-4 times their earlier earnings in home state. It is also much higher than the minimum wages fixed by the state government for unskilled workers. While there is substantial difference between the monetary wages for casual work in Kerala and in their home villages, it is important to note that the difference in real wage rates to the migrant workers may not be as high, as they have to incur much higher costs for living in Kerala than in their native places (eg. rent, cost of food, transportation, communication etc.). Our study among labourers from Tamil Nadu mentioned earlier showed that about one-third of the workers had to work for more than nine hours, a restriction fixed under Factories Act. According to anecdotal evidences and newspaper reports, the workers from the state of Tamil Nadu are relatively better off in terms of wages and living and working conditions compared to workers who have migrated recently from other states in the country. The wide network of Tamil workers in the region and their concentration in some places help them in finding jobs and also provides them considerable bargaining power. Some of the contractors and employers opine that workers from Orissa, Bengal, Assam etc. are more tolerant to poorer working and living conditions and it is easier.
to extract labour from them

f) Identity and Police Surveillance

Migrants are sometimes being branded as 'unreliable outsiders' and criminals by some local people. The Police also have contributed to fostering of this branding. No doubt, there are migrants from other states in the Criminal List published in the website of the Police Department. To distinguish the migrant workers from the criminals who have migrated to Kerala from other states, there is a need to have some identification documents for the workers. The Grameen Vikas Trust (GVT) initiated one such programme in Madhya Pradesh. GVT worked closely with the local governments of source villages and has developed an informal system of identity cards for migrants. With these cards, migrants have some protection against official harassment (Deshingkar and Grimm 2005). As may be seen later, the state government has initiated a scheme to issue identity cards to migrant workers by enrolling them in a welfare scheme. The lack of documents to prove their identity has been hindering the enrolment in this welfare scheme.

The Police have justification for keeping the migrants under surveillance. Some of the incidents such as the arrest of a Maoist leader of Andhra Pradesh state from a hideout among migrant labourers in 2007 and the arrest of two migrant workers in connection with the killing of a fellow local worker resulted in giving more attention to the migrant labourers. The Police have been collecting details such as photograph, residential address of the labourer, nearest police station to his residence and also names of contact persons to verify the information given by the migrant labourer. Some instances of how the police respond to the situation is worth citing. In a meeting of one of the residents' associations in the city, a Police Officer in the local police station is reported to have warned the residents of the need for taking additional precautions while renting out the premises to the migrants. While, it may be justifiable to some extent seen from the crime detection angle, the message that is passed on to the local people can act against accessing houses by the migrants. The researcher and a few other local people were having tea in a wayside tea shop. Two migrant workers from North India were also waiting for tea. A police jeep stopped in front of the tea shop and the inspector singled out the migrant workers and questioned their whereabouts. Bewilderment and shame were visible in their faces. The incident did not
evoke any sympathy among the local residents.

In terms of physical safety outside the work place, the migrant workers are relatively safe though a few incidents of minor clashes between local people and migrants have been reported recently. But it appears that there is a need to improve their sense of security. A labourer from Orissa told us "We need to be cautious always. When someone goes out we tell them to be careful, come back soon and all. We have not gone out in the night much. When someone gets delayed, we get worried as to whether some problem has come up." Another migrant worker told us "our friends have told that they have been asked for the identity card. Sometimes, if they are not able to produce the card, they are then sent back. But we want to stay here for the money. We stay here but are a bit afraid."

**Legal protection**

This section examines a variety of legal instruments that are meant to protect their rights which are derived from the legislations of the central and state governments. Among them, the most important one is the Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act (1979). The Act is intended to regulate the employment of inter-state migrant workers and to provide for their conditions of service. The Act specifies that equality of wages should be ensured between migrant labourers and others. The Act also provides for displacement allowance equivalent to half month wages. They are also entitled to get journey allowance to meet the travel from place of residence to place of work as also wages during the period of such journeys. The Act states that it shall be the duty of every contractor to "provide and maintain suitable residential accommodation". Prescribed medical facilities also have to be provided free of charge. It is also the duty of the contractor to ensure suitable conditions of work. The Act also stipulates that in case of fatal accident or serious bodily injury to workers, the contractor has to intimate the specified authorities of both the host state and state of origin and also the next-of-kin of the workers. Contractors and establishments are required to be licensed and registered by a notified registering authority. The contractor is required to issue a passbook to every worker, giving details about the worker, including payments and advances. The Act is applicable only to establishments and contractors employing five or more inter-state migrant workers.
In spite of having a legal framework to protect the migrant workers, instances of violation of the existing laws do happen in the state. While the wages received by the migrant workers are usually higher than the minimum wages in the state, there exists difference in the wages received by the migrant labour and the local labour. However, the most important issue is the failure of the employers and contractors to honour their commitments to provide 'decent' working and living conditions. For instance, The Hindu dated January 7, 2007 reports about the pitiable accommodation provided to the migrant workers by a contractor in Kochi. About 30 workers were provided accommodation in three portions of a small house. The Hindu dated March 10, 2005, reported another instance of violation of the rules pertaining to migrant workers working in Thiruvananthapuram city. The report says that the Labour Department has initiated action against a construction firm involved in the City Roads Development Scheme in Thiruvananthapuram on the charge of violating the provisions of the Inter State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Condition of Service) Act. The action was initiated on the basis of reports that migrant labourers were being denied minimum wages and proper living conditions in the labour camps run by the firm in the city. The department found that the wage registers, muster rolls and particulars of migrant workers were not being maintained properly. The company did not adhere to the welfare clauses in the Act, such as free medical care, proper living conditions and journey and displacement allowances. According to the report, several firms were employing migrant labourers without Government sanction. The law stipulates that labour contractor recruiting more than five migrant workers should get a recruitment license from the home state of the labourer and an employment license from the Labour Department of the State where they are to be employed. The report says that the firms and also contractors ensure that no records of the worker related transactions are maintained to prevent any scrutiny by law enforcers. In the absence of a comprehensive enforcement mechanism, the employers and contractors are able to violate laws. There are several government agencies to enforce the legal rights of the workers. They include the Labour Department, Police Department, Department of Factories and Boilers, Health Department and different welfare boards. These agencies have not been geared up to meet the increasing flow of migrant workers from diverse backgrounds. There is also
only limited cooperation among them.

**Welfare scheme for migrant workers**

In India, social security is listed in the Directive Principles of State Policy and is one of the subjects in the Concurrent List in the Constitution of India, which is federal in nature. Kerala state has been a front runner among the states in India in initiating social security schemes for different vulnerable sections of the society. These schemes, implemented mainly through different welfare boards, have been successful in extending social security to a limited extent to majority of the vulnerable groups. Extending the coverage of social security net to workers in the unorganised sector is identified as one of the major priorities of the state government (Government of Kerala, 2009).

The state government introduced a welfare scheme for the migrant workers on the May Day of 2010. Under the scheme titled 'Inter State Migrant Workers Welfare Scheme', a membership card is issued to each migrant worker who gets enrolled. Each registered worker would get up to Rs. 25,000 as healthcare assistance for in-patient care in empanelled hospitals in case of accidents or chronic diseases. However, the worker is eligible to get only Rs. 100 per day and the maximum limit fixed per episode of disease is Rs. 2000. If the labourers become incapable of undertaking jobs for more than six months due to accidents or chronic diseases, they are eligible to get a special assistance of up to Rs. 25000. The labourers who have registered in the scheme continuously for three years are also eligible to enjoy a retirement benefit of Rs. 1000 per year subject to a minimum of Rs. 10,000 and a maximum of Rs. 25,000. Financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 50,000 in the event of death in accident at work site and Rs. 10,000 in the event of natural death is provided to the dependents of the migrant labourers. An additional assistance of Rs. 5000 to Rs. 15000 (depending on the distance to the state of origin) is also given for transporting the body to their native places. There is also a provision for assistance of Rs.3,000 per annum for the education of the children of migrant labourers who are studying beyond Class X in Kerala. The scheme is implemented through the Kerala Construction Workers Welfare Fund Board which is also running a scheme for the welfare of the construction workers. The migrant worker will be required to pay an annual contribution of just Rs. 30. The Welfare Board, which is financed mainly from the cess on construction activities, will credit twice that amount in her/his account. The
The government will provide the rest of the money needed for the welfare measures. The welfare fund package is in addition to the assistance available to inter-State migrant workers under the Inter State Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act and the rules framed under it. The welfare fund scheme would be monitored by an advisory committee chaired by the State Labour Commissioner and comprising representatives of various trade unions.

The scheme, though pioneering, has certain inherent weaknesses. The programme targets to enroll half a million workers which is much lower than the total number of migrant workers in the state. That the actual number of workers registered in the first 18 months of its existence is only about 18000 indicate that most of the migrant workers remain outside the protective umbrella. One reason for the failure to enrol most of the migrant workers is the lack of awareness about the welfare scheme among the target group. During one of the Focus Group Discussions we had with migrant workers, none of them were aware of the scheme, though they felt that such a scheme is attractive. There was no strategy to communicate directly with the migrant workers coming from different regions of India and speaking different languages and dialects. Most of the communication was through advertisements in the print media which was in Malayalam, the local language or English which is also different from the language of the migrant workers. There is very little chance that migrants take note of these advertisements.

As noted above, the scheme is administered by the Board which operates the welfare scheme for construction workers. As of now they are primarily targeting the builders. They contact the builders and ask them to enroll the migrant workers working with them. For registration, the workers have to furnish copy of the identity cards, which majority of whom we met did not have. Obviously the builders register only migrant workers who have a proof of their identity. Another reason for exclusion of a significant section of the migrant population arises from the stipulation that the employer has to certify that the worker is working with him, which many of the employers are unwilling. A large section of the migrant workers are employed in the Plywood industry. But the Owners of Plywood Units are not willing to certify the employment of the worker for registration under the scheme. The above requirements also prevent the casual migrant labourers who do not have a
permanent employer from availing the benefits of the scheme. Similar is the situation with domestic workers and seasonal workers employed in plantations, agricultural farms etc. As a result, the enrolment which is only less than two per cent of the estimated migrant labour force in the state 18 months after the initiation of the scheme.

In the case of other labour welfare schemes in the state, trade unions played a major role in enrolment. A study of the construction workers' welfare fund in Kerala (Nair, 2004) reveals the important role played by the trade unions in bringing the workers into the fold of the welfare scheme. The necessary promotional work and support to enroll the workers in the scheme was done mostly by the trade unions. Large majority of the workers covered by the study also reported that they became members with the assistance of trade unions. Such an approach was not possible for the enrolment of inter-state migrant workers mainly because the trade unions do not have any significant presence among them.

The initiative of the state government to institute a welfare scheme for migrant workers, in spite of its weaknesses, needs to be appreciated. It also indicates that the visibility of this 'invisible people' has increased in administration and governance aspects in the state. The state government, in the future, may have to think about constituting a separate mechanism to implement the scheme as presently the scheme is faced with constraints due to inadequate personnel. Currently, the staff of the Construction Welfare Fund Board is implementing this additional scheme without any change in the staffing pattern. They are also constrained because of the non-availability of vehicles and other facilities necessary for undertaking the field work. It is also important that the representatives of the migrant labourers are present in the monitoring committee. Kerala, a state known for participatory democracy, can not shed its responsibilities to involve the beneficiaries in the implementation of the scheme.

**Conclusion**

Kerala is a state in India known for its social development and implementation of social protection mechanisms for labourers. Due to the limitations in portability of entitlements, the migrants are not able to enjoy some of the entitlements from central government and state governments they had enjoyed before migration. Thus, even when the migrant workers are from
the same country, the host state fails to extend them all the protection that is available to the local labour. This being a national level problem, it has to be addressed for the country as a whole. But the introduction of a unique identity viz., Aadhaar may help to transfer the rights of migrants from one state to another provided a better coordination is worked out among host states and states of origin. The additional entitlements or benefits in the destination state are not provided to migrants as permanent resident status is necessary to become beneficiaries. So even if a state is relatively better off in terms of legal and social protection, the benefits are not automatically transferred to the migrant workers. However, such an environment will have some demonstration effect.

Inter-state migrants are faced with language barriers in accessing health care and in protecting their rights. Though there has been some response to address the issue both by the migrants as well as the host society including public agencies, many of the problems remain unattended. Though the officials accept that the communication should not be in the local language (Malayalam) or English, there is an erroneous perception among many that it is sufficient to have it in Hindi, the national language. As mentioned earlier, many of the migrant workers cannot speak or read Hindi. The state has to initiate information dissemination in the mother tongue of the migrant workers. Such a communication strategy can be undertaken with the cooperation of governments in the states of origin. Coordination between host state, states of origin and the central government may be necessary in other aspects such as extending the benefits of the public distribution system, sharing of information on migrant workers who are sent back to home state when infected with contagious diseases like Malaria, incidence of such diseases in the states of origin etc. There is also a need for considering migration as one of the criteria in central allocation to states. Some of the programmes for creating awareness about the rights in destination state can be organised in the states of origin. It is also possible that the states of origin can contribute to the welfare funds for migrant workers implemented in the destination state to make it more attractive. At present, only the host state contributes to the funds.

The state agencies and the rural and urban local bodies in Kerala have to revamp their enforcement mechanism to make sure that the migrant workers
are able to enjoy 'decent' living and working conditions as also to help them benefit from the public service providers. There is also a need to strengthen the public facilities taking into account the increasing need of the migrant population. Trade unions also have to get involved in ensuring the labour rights of the migrant workers, to pressurise the government agencies to enforce the legal provisions and to make sure that the benefits of the welfare schemes reach them.

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ഇതിവാൻ, ഹേന്ദ്രാമിനെക്കാൾ അനേകം വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, അനേകം ഹേന്ദ്രാമിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, എല്ലാ പ്രത്യേകിച്ചും അപ്രത്യേകിച്ചും വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാളു്, കൊല്ലിനെക്കാൾ വിജ്ഞാനാംശങ്ങളിലാണ്‌ പാൾ.
എല്ലാ കൂട്ടം നവാഗതാരമാർ വിദ്യാസിവിജ്ഞാനശാസ്ത്ര -
ഭൂവിഷ്യത്തിന്റെ പ്രകടനത്തിന്റെ പ്രോസസിലൂക്കളും -
ചില കോലത്തിൽ - അതിന്റെ
കാരണമാണ് നിവാശ്മവിജ്ഞാനശാസ്ത്ര സ്വാധീനം ചെയ്യുന്നതിന്
മാറ്റക്കാരനെ അന്താ്തിന്തകയാണ് കാരണമായി അതിനു പുണ്യസിവിജ്ഞാനശാസ്ത്ര ക്ഷേത്രം മറികടന നടത്തുന്നതിന്.
അവതാരികൾ


കളിക്കിലെ ഫോബിഷ്, (1992) ബ്ലാസിസ് ഫിഷിക്സ് പാചകവുകൾ കുടുംബിന്റെ പ്രസ്താവന (മാർച്ച്-ഫെബ്രുവരി, പെഴ്സിസ് 2) ഡേവിഡ് വെൽഡ്‌മിക്കറി നിർവഹിക്കുന്നു, ഇൻറെപ്ലിൻ.


ആധുനികനായി അമേരിക്കൻ, (1982) കെയിൻസ് ഫിഷിക്സ് പാചകവുകൾ കുടുംബിന്റെ പ്രസ്താവന (മാർച്ച്-ഫെബ്രുവരി) ഡേവിഡ് മാനസ് നിർവഹിക്കുന്നു N.B.S Ktm.

ജോൺ ലാൻഡ്‌വെയർ (2000) ജനറൽ പ്രസ്സ് പ്രിന്റിംഗ് കെൽ DCB. Ktm

ജോൺ ലാൻഡ്‌വെയർ (2002) ബ്ലാസിസ് ഫിഷിക്സ് പാചകവുകൾ, D.CB. Ktm

ആദ്യായന പ്രസ്താവന നിറയെ ജനറൽ പ്രസ്സ് പ്രിന്റിംഗ് ബ്ലാസ് കെൽ DCB. Ktm


അസ്റ്റ്രോണൈമികകൾ

ഫ്ലന്ലെസ്സിലെ ൽ. കാൽപ്പന്കാല വേൾഡ്‌വൈന്സ് ഡി നോർമ്മേഡിയ, 1820.

ജോൺ മാപ്ല്ലാനി, അരിയൻ കിയേട്ടലേളന്റെ ക്ഷേത്രം (പ്രസ്താവന), ഡെകാബറിയൻ ആപ്രൽ, 2010 June.