MDV-102
Dynamics of Development

Indira Gandhi National Open University
School of Extension and Development Studies

Block

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May, 2018

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ISBN:

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Further information on the Indira Gandhi National Open University courses may be obtained from the University's office at Maidan Garhi, New Delhi.
Printed and published on behalf of the Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi by the Registrar, MPDD, IGNOU, New Delhi.
Laser Typeset by Tessa Media & Computers, C-206, A.F.E.-II, Okhla, New Delhi.
Printed at:

MDV-102 DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT

Development is a dynamic concept. Any discussion on development is incomplete without a constituent of dynamics of development. With the changing scenario and globalization in vogue, it is essential to know about the dynamics of development. The prime aim of this course is to impart knowledge about the topics relevant in the context of dynamics of development.

MDV-102 has four blocks namely Dynamics of Change, Dynamics of Development I, Dynamics of Development II and Dynamics of Development III .

Block 1: on **'Dynamics of Change'** comprises four units viz., Change: An Overview; Process of Change; Change Management and Project Change Management. .

Block2: 'Dynamics of Development –I' consists of four units, namely, Development Dynamics: An Overview; Development Processes, Approaches and Strategies; Social and Cultural Dynamics of Development and Development Agencies.

Block 3: 'Dynamics of Development-II' consists of four units, namely, Conflict, Violence and Social Movement; Social Exclusion and Discrimination; Marginalization and Freedom, Entitlement and Human Rights.

Block4: 'Dynamics of Development-III' consists of three units, namely- Development and Disparity, Development and Displacement and Inclusive Development.

BLOCK 1 DYNAMICS OF CHANGE

Block 1 has four units viz., Change-An Overview, Process of Change and Change Management and Project Change Management

Unit-1 is on **'Change- An Overview'** which gives an account of meaning, concept and types of change. It also describes in detail various theories of change, approaches and dimensions of change and its relationship with extension and development.

Unit-2 is on **'Process of Change'** which discusses stages of change, role of change agent, change cycle and barrier to change.

Unit-3 is on **'Change Management'** which deals with the meaning and process of change, models and strategies of change management. The aspects covered in this unit are factors influencing the strategies of change management and project change management.

Unit -4 is on '**Project Change Management'** Project change management is a systematic way of ensuring that the changes are introduced in a controlled and coordinated manner to achieve the strategic vision.

UNIT 1 CHANGE-AN OVERVIEW

Structure

1.1 Introduction
1.2 Change - Meaning and Characteristics
1.3 Types of Change
1.4 Theories of Change
1.5 Approaches to Change
1.6 Social Change and Cultural change
1.7 Steps in Social Change
1.8 Dimensions of Social Change
1.9 Consequences of Change
1.10 Factors of Social Change
1.11 Let Us Sum Up
1.12 References and Selected Readings
1.13 Check Your Progress - Possible Answers

1.1 INTRODUCTION

If you look around, you will find that ten years ago the face of India was quite different from what we are familiar with today, and ten years from now, India will be totally different from what it is today. The same principle is applicable to each and every being. This is because change is a natural, universal, and inevitable social phenomenon. In our present hi-tech scenario, society is changing very fast. If one wants to know at what rate society is changing, I think the correct answer is - at the click of the mouse. In this techno-phallic society, social change is happening exponentially. What is important to note is whether change is leading towards a positive end or not. Is change helping society in extension or development, or is the outcome just the reverse.

Although we know a good deal about the conditions processes of change, we have no satisfactory explanation of *why* change occurs. Possibly the explanation lies in the human capacity for becoming bored. Most of the higher species, whenever not hunting, eating, or mating, simply go to sleep-as much as twenty hours a day. Humans cannot sleep that much, and human boredom may be the true cause of social change. Another answer is simply to assume that change is a *constant* in the universe, which needs no explanation. A constant is something which is always present. Populations grow and decline; fashions come and go; mountains are pushed upward and erode away; even the sun is gradually burning itself out.

After reading this Unit, you will be able to

- explain the meaning and characteristics of change
- differentiate between different types of change
- distinguish between social change and cultural change

- discuss steps in social change
- discuss the dimensions and factors of social change

1.2 CHANGE – MEANING AND CHARACTERISTICS

1.2.1 The Meaning of Change

Your elders might tell you that things were not easy during their time. This is so because every thing has become very easy now, due to telecommunications, internet, technological evolution, etc. I'm sure you might have experienced the luxury of booking tickets *via* the internet sitting comfortably at home which is very different from the traditional way of going to a counter, standing in a queue, and getting tickets booked. The same is true for paying bills, or, for any sort of inquiry, or information. In this changing scenario, even our relationships are under constant flux. The way we are bonding with each and every other person is also changing. We are moving very fast from informal, personal face-to-face relationships, to formal impersonal distant relationships. This suggests that change is universal and omnipresent. Change, since time immemorial, has affected each and every aspect of our life, whether it is lifestyles, food habits, thought processes, language, art, relationship, religion, family, marriage, systems of society

(Political, economic, legal, administrative), etc.

Here, we need to understand that there are two types of processes which work in society – one which sustains the social system, and, the other, which brings about change in the system. The first process may be termed, conformity, or, status quo. The latter may be called the process of cultural and social change. In simple terms, change denotes a difference in anything observed over a period of time. Similarly, social change means observable differences in any social phenomenon over a period of time, and cultural change means observable differences in any cultural phenomenon over a period of time. Broadly speaking, there are two types of social change processes: (i) a process which sustain the social system; and (ii) a process which brings about change in the system, and a change of the system.

1.2.2 The Characteristics of Change

After understanding the concept of change along with social change and cultural change, now it is important to understand the nature and characteristics of change. The main characteristics of change are given below

a) **Change is universal**. No society is static, whether it is the primitive society, or the most civilized one. The speed and rate of change is relative, it differs from society to society, and from time to time.

b) **Social change is community change**. It does not refer to the change in the life of an individual, or life patterns of several individuals. It is a change, which occurs in the life of the entire community.

c) **The speed of social change is relative.** It is not the same throughout society. Social change in urban areas is faster than in rural areas. The speed and rate of social change is relative, because the nature and speed of social change is

affected by, and related to the time factor. The speed of social change differs from time to time, because the factor which causes change does not remain the same with the change of time. In India, industrialization started after 1947. Hence, the speed of social change is faster after 1947 than before 1947. In 1991, the policies of liberalisation, globalization, and privatization were introduced and they revamped the Indian economy, affecting each and every aspect of India. Hence, there is a difference in the rate of change before 1991 and after 1991 in India.

d) **Change is a law of nature**. It is natural. It can occur either in natural course, or, as a result of planned efforts. It is also a natural tendency, that our needs keep changing. To satisfy our desire for change and our changing needs, social change becomes a necessity.

e) **It is difficult to predict the exact form of social change**. There is no inherent law of social change according to which it assumes definite form. For example, it is assumed that industrialization will increase the speed of urbanization, but we cannot predict the exact forms, and which social relationships will be impacted in future, on account of industrialisation.

f) **One change leads to many changes in a chain-reaction sequence**. For example, technology has changed the domestic system of production. The changed domestic system of production brought women from the home to the factory and the office. The employment of women resulted in their independence from the bondage of man, and it brought about a change in women's attitude and ideas. It meant a new social life for women. It, consequently, affected every aspect of the family life.

g) **Social change is multi-factorial**. Many factors work together to induce a change. This is because, social phenomenon are complex and mutually interrelated, and interdependent.

h) **Social change may be broadly classified as modifications or replacements**. As for example, the joint family system is changing to nuclear family. The Gurukul system has changed to the centralized school system. Society's ideas about women's right, religion, government, and citizen's right to information and education stand modified today.

1.3 TYPES OF CHANGE

Change is a complex phenomenon. Its direction can be forward or backward, towards progression or regression. There are different manifestations, or types of changes which are going on around us. All change is not planned change. How is planned change to be distinguished from and interrelated to other forms of human change? A paradigm in which eight species of change may be identified, may help to answer this question (Table 1.1). Along the vertical axis of the paradigm we have shown two variables of dichotomized for convenience: mutual goal setting, and deliberateness of change. Along the horizontal axis, power distribution among the parties to the change is shown: 5/.5 indicates a fairly equal distribution of power, and 1/10 indicates a one-sided power situation. We have omitted the element of 'valid knowledge' from the paradigm, since we are assuming that valid knowledge with respect to change is not possible where mutual goal setting is not undertaken.

Table 1.1: Paradigm for Change Processes

Power Ratio	Mutual Goal Setting		Non mutual Goal Setting (or goals set by one side)	
	Deliberate on the part of one or both sides of the relationship	Non deliberate on the part of both sides	Deliberate on the part of one side of the relationship	Non deliberate on the part of both sides
.5/.5	Planned change	Interactional change	Technocratic change	Natural change
1/10	Indoctrinational change	Socialization change	Coercive change	Emulative change

Source: Warren G.Bennis, 1976, The Planning of Change

Following are the types of change:

a) **Planned change** entails mutual goal setting by one, or both parties, an equal power ratio and deliberateness, eventually, at least, on the part of both sides.

b) **Indoctrinal change** involves mutual goal setting and is deliberate, but involves an imbalanced power ratio. Many schools, prisons, and mental hospitals or other 'total institutions' fall into this category.

c) **Coercive change** is characterized by non mutual goal setting (or, goals set only by one side), an imbalanced power ratio, and one sided deliberateness. Coercive change, as we are using the term, may be exemplified by the thought control and brainwashing practices of the communists. Here, there is little, or, no opportunity to engage in mutual goal setting. The deliberateness originates from one party, the change agent.

d) **Technocratic change** may be distinguished from planned change by the nature of the goal setting. Technocratic means to bring about change is solely dependent on collecting and interpreting data. Technocratic change follows primarily an engineering model, where a client defines his difficulties as deriving from inadequate knowledge, and assumes that his lack of knowledge is accidental, or, a matter of neglect - not something that is functionally a part of him. The technocrat colludes in his assumption and merely makes and reports his findings.

e) **Interactional change** is characterized by mutual goal setting, a fairly equal power distribution, but with no deliberateness on either side of the relationship. Unconsciously either may be committed to changing the other in some direction. Such changes can be observed among good friends who help each other. Change occurs in such transactions, possibly with beneficial effects, but there is a lack of self consciousness about it, thus, a lack of any definite change-agent-client relationship.

f) **Socialization change** has a direct kinship with the interactional hierarchical control. Parent-child relationships would be the most obvious example, although counsellor-camper and teacher–pupil relationships would also be

applicable here. Greater deliberateness on the 'adult' side of the relationship brings specific cases of socialization into the indoctrination or planned change categories.

g) **Emulative change** is the sort of process we associate with formal organization, where there is a clear cut superior-subordinate relationship. To this extent it closely resembles Kelman's concept of influence through the process of identification. Change is brought about, possibly unconsciously, through a form of identification with, and emulation of, the power figures by subordinates.

h) **Natural change** refers to changes brought about with no apparent deliberateness and no goal setting on the part of those involved. It is a residual category, or encompassing all "accidents", un-anticipated consequences, and changes brought about in connection with cataclysms such as earthquakes and floods. It may be that this category includes the operation of all those factors and comes with our limited knowledge which cannot be properly defined.

1.4 THEORIES OF CHANGE

Having discussed the meaning, characteristics, and types of change, let us now discuss various theories of change. The main theories of change are discussed below.

a) **Theory of Deterioration:** some theorists identify social change with deterioration. They are of the opinion that man lived in perfect state of happiness in the golden age. However, deterioration began to take place, and now, man has reached an age of comparative degeneration. A similar notion is available in ancient Oriental and Indian mythologies, among others. According to Indian mythology, man has passed through four ages – *Satyug*, *Treatayug*, *Dwaparyug*, and *Kalyug*. The *Satyug* was the best age. In *Satyug*, man was honest, truthful, and perfectly happy. Thereafter, degeneration began to take place. The modern age is the age of *Kalyug*, in which man is deceitful, false, dishonest, selfish, and, consequently, unhappy. The claims of these theorists are understandable, as we can observe deterioration in every walk of life today.

b) **Cyclical Theory:** according to this theory, human society goes through cycles. According to Spengler, society has a predetermined life cycle which includes birth, growth, maturity and decline. Modern society is in its last stage. It is in its old age. But since history repeats itself, society, after passing through all the stages, returns to the original stage, and the cycle begins once again.

c) **Linear Theory:** there are a group of theorists who subscribe to the linear theory of social change. According to them, society advances in a linear fashion moving actually to an even higher state of civilization, and in the direction of improvement. This can be witnessed in the institution of marriage which in the course of time has passed from promiscuity to group marriage to polygamy to monogamy. Similarly, society has taken a linear course of development transcending the primitive hunting and food gathering state to

the settled agrarian state to capitalist industrialism. Similarly, the institution of family has taken a linear course of change from the extended joint family system to joint family to nuclear family. Hence, as per linear theory, society changes in a linear direction.

d) **The Theory of Social and Cultural Dynamics**: this theory was propounded by P. Sorokin. Sorokin has attempted to include both cyclical and linear change. In his view, culture may proceed in a given direction for a time, and, thus, appear to conform to a linear formula. But, due to internal forces within the system, there will be a shift of direction, and a new period of development will be ushered in. The new trend my be linear or oscillating or may conform to some particular type of curve. At any rate, it also reaches limits, and another trend takes place. However, Sorokin identifies two types of culture, one sensate culture, and the other as ideational culture. In sensate culture, human interaction and symbolic expression are primarily designed to gratify the senses. Its philosophy is based on what can be learned, or perceived through the sense. The other cultural type is ideational, appealing most to the mind, or, the soul. Ideational art is abstract. Its philosophy is based on faith and religion. Sorokin believed that all societies alternate between sensate and ideational culture. The alternation is not regular or cyclic but it occurs repeatedly. Hence, sensate culture begins to develop as an inevitable reaction to a highly organized ideational culture and *vice versa*. As, for instance, Indian society, which is spiritual in nature, is now becoming materialistic; and western society, which is materialistic, is bending towards spiritualism. The theory is questioned by those who ask: why is it natural for a society to change from its main cultural theme, and, why is the change between only two alternatives, sensate and ideational. Despite the criticism this work stands as a landmark.

e) **Theory of Cultural Lag**: Ogburn suggested that technology is the primary engine of progress, but tempered by social responses to it. Thus, his theory is often considered a case of technological determinism. Ogburn posited four stages of technical development: invention, accumulation, diffusion, and adjustment. *Invention* is the process by which new forms of technology are created. Inventions are collective contributions to an existing cultural base that cannot occur unless the society has already gained a certain level of knowledge and expertise in the particular area. *Accumulation* is the growth of technology, because new things are invented more rapidly and old ones are forgotten, and some inventions (such as writing) promote this accumulation process. *Diffusion* is the spread of an idea from one cultural group to another, or from one field of activity to another, and, as diffusion brings inventions together, they combine to form new inventions. *Adjustment* is the process by which the non technical aspects of a culture respond to invention, and any retardation of this adjustment process causes cultural lag.

f) **Lewin's three-step change theory**: according to Lewin, the first step in the process of changing behaviour is to unfreeze the existing situation, or status quo. The status quo is considered the equilibrium state. Unfreezing is necessary to overcome the strains of individual resistance and group conformity. Unfreezing can be achieved by the use of three methods. First, increase the driving forces that direct behaviour away from the existing

situation, or status quo. Second, decrease the restraining forces that negatively affect the movement from the existing equilibrium. Third, find a combination of the two methods listed above. Some activities that can assist in the unfreezing step which includes: motivate participants by preparing them for change, build trust and recognition for the need to change, and actively participate in recognizing problems and brainstorming solutions within a group.

g) **The Lippitt seven-step theory of change**: the Lippit seven- step theory focuses on the role of the change agent throughout the evolution of the change. The seven steps are listed below.

i) Diagnose the problem.

ii) Assess the motivation and capacity for change.

iii) Assess the resources and motivation of the change agent. This includes the change agent's commitment to change, power, and stamina.

iv) Define progressive stages of change.

v) Ensure the roles and responsibilities of change agents are clear and understood. Examples of roles include the motivator, facilitator, and subject matter expert.

vi) Maintain the change through communication, feedback, and group coordination.

7) Gradually remove the change agents from relationship, as the change becomes part of the organizational culture.

h) **Prochaska and Diclemente's theory of change**: the Stages of Change Model was developed by James Prochaska and Carlo DiClemente. The idea behind the SCM is that behavioural change does not happen in one step. Rather, people tend to progress through different stages on their way to successful change. Also, each of us progresses through the stages at our own rate. In each of the stages, a person has to grapple with a different set of issues and tasks that relate to changing behaviour.

i) Evolutionary Theories

All evolutionary theories assume that there is a consistent direction of social change carrying all societies through a similar sequence of stages from the original to the final stage of development. Also, evolutionary theories imply that when the final stage is reached, evolutionary change will end. August Comte, a French scholar sometimes called the founder of sociology, saw societies passing through three stages of growth:

i) the *theological stage,* guided by supernatural wisdom

ii) the *metaphysical stage,* a transitional stage in which supernatural beliefs are replaced by abstract principles as cultural guidelines and

ii) the *positive, or scientific , stage,* in which society is guided by evidence-based scientific laws.

j) Functional and Conflict

Functionalists accept change as a constant which does not need to "explained."

Changes disrupt the equilibrium of a society, until the change has been integrated into the culture. Changes which prove to be useful (functional) are accepted and those which are useless or dysfunctional are rejected.

Many conflict theorists follow the Marxist pattern of evolutionary change, but conflict theory itself has no special theory of change . Instead of viewing change as the constant, conflict theory views social conflict as the constant, and change as the result of this conflict. Since conflict is continuous, change is continuous. Change produces new interest groupings and conflict between these produces further change.

1.5 APPROACHES TO CHANGE

After studying the theories of change, let us now discuss about the approaches to change.

The various approaches to change are:

a) **Conflict Resolution Approach**: there is much discussion in both the academic and practitioner literature about conflict resolution as an important vehicle for social change and the role of interveners in either fostering social control (status quo) or social transformation. Most ethnic conflict interventions have explicit goals of creating some form of social or systemic change, though their pathways for change differ considerably.

b) **Empirical-Rational Approaches:** some practitioners implicitly base interventions on assumptions of rational, self-interest focusing on providing the right information, education or training to allow people to change of their own volition, ensuring the right people are in the right place to bring about much needed, practical changes, clarifying or re-conceptualizing 'the problem' to enhance overall understanding and promoting visioning to stimulate creativity and best-case scenarios.

c) **Normative-Re-educative Approaches**: many others in the field, focus on the socially constructed nature of conflict and the non cognitive resistances and supports for change such as cultural values and norms. Perhaps the most widely used approach in current conflict interventions, these efforts focus on working collaboratively with parties to identify problems and facilitate solutions. It aims to improve problem solving capacities, forums, and mechanisms within a system, and foster new attitudes, values, skills, and norms for interaction among people who make up the system.

d) **Power-Coercive Approaches**: at times, practitioners also focus on the role of moral, political and economic power to address asymmetries and injustices in conflict situations. For example, they work with disempowered parties to introduce non-violent action strategies and foster local peace movements. Social justice and peace building is also promoted through institutional, legislative, and policy change as well as influencing or changing leadership or power elite. Because they often create change through processes of confrontation and conflict enhancement, however, these strategies are used more circumspectly for certain conflict stages or conditions.

e) **Critical Mass Approach**: drawing implicitly on diffusion of innovation theory, many practitioners discuss the importance of developing a 'critical

mass' of individuals who have adopted constructive conflict resolution knowledge and skills in initiating positive social change. When this critical mass of individuals exists, change spreads rapidly and crystallizes to become self-sustaining in society.

f) **Ripple Effects Approach**: in understanding how small-group conflict interventions can create largescale social change, many practitioners discuss the impact that participants can have on those within their personal and professional spheres of influence. Often referred to as a ripple effect or transfer effect, programme's suggest that the individual and relational changes that occur during small-group interventions will have ever-widening circles of impact as participants take their new learning back into their respective communities and organizations.

g) **Overcoming Resistance Approach:** although their methods address such issues practically, practitioners rarely focus explicitly on the importance and difficulties of dealing with resistance to change. Lewin's model of unfreezing-movement-refreezing is useful in focusing on the processes of overcoming resistance to change such as basic conservative tendencies and system justification.

1.6 SOCIAL CHANGE AND CULTURAL CHANGE

In this section you will study about the social and cultural change, the two important categories of change.

1.6.1 Social Change

Social change is any change that basically alters the established forms of social relationships, thus transforming in some measure, the social structure. It is a change that reflects in all aspects of social life, i.e., family, neighbourhood, play group, work group, religion, economic, political spheres, and leisure activities. Social change may be partial or total, though mostly it is partial, a change resulting from enacting a law prohibiting untouchability might be called a partial change in society. Social change can be defined as '' a process by which alteration take place in the structure and function of a social mechanism ''. Evolution, invention of new techniques, adaptation of new ideas are examples of social change. Alteration, both in the structure and function, of a social system occur as a result of such a thing. Social change and development takes place in societies. The wheel of social change cannot be stopped. The process of social change starts when an innovation spreads in a society. Social change is accepted easily in some societies, while others show rigidness in acceptance.

There is a great confusion about social and cultural change. Some have made a distinction between social change and cultural change, while others have considered these two terms as one and the same thing.

For Gillin and Gillin and Davison and Gettys, there is no difference between social and cultural change, since all culture is social in its origin, meaning and usage.

Gillin and Gillin write, "Social changes as variations from the accepted modes of life, whether due to alteration in geographic conditions in cultural equipment,

composition of population or ideologies". For these writers, social change is a part of cultural change. Cultural change is broader than social change which envelopes social change also in its fold. For them, society is the product of culture. However, there are sociologists who see a difference between the two. Maciver and Page write: "Social change is a distinct thing from cultural or civilisational change. Cultural change includes change in ideology, administrative system, technology, etc. Cultural change indicates changes in the accepted mode of life, habit patterns, and lifestyle, e.g. invention of T.V., new forms of music, art, dance, etc".

Fairchild defines social change as a "variation or modification in any aspect of social process, pattern or form. It may be progressive or regressive, permanent or temporary, planned or unplanned, unidirectional or multidirectional".

Lundberg, Schrug and Larson have defined social change as "any observable difference in any social phenomena over a period of time".

Robert MacIver and Charles H. have defined social change as "changes in social relationship". Wilberg F. Moray defined social change as "significant alteration in social structure, i.e., patterns of society including consequences and manifestation of such structure and body mean -- norms, values, cultural products and symbols".

For Davis, "Social change is only a part of a broader category of change called 'cultural change'. Cultural change refers to all changes occurring in any branch of culture including art, science, technology, philosophy, etc, social change refers to change in the social structure, e.g., changes in the social institutions, modifications, family relations, etc., whereas cultural change refers to change in material and non material elements".

1.6.2 Cultural Change

Before going on to discuss cultural change, let us discuss the term, culture. Culture, according to Herskovitz is the man made part of the environment. For instance, it may be very hot outside, but inside, the house is air cooled. This air cooled part of the house is man made, hence, it is a part of the culture. Similarly, everything inside your house which is man made is part of culture. Culture manifests itself in two forms – material culture and non material culture. Material culture is the concrete part of culture, , i.e., anything which is man made and is visible, can be touched and sensed, e.g., table, chair, refrigerator, chalk, pen, etc. The non material aspect of culture includes anything which is man made, but is abstract, e.g. language, belief system, morality, etc.

According to Tylor, culture is that part of a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and capacities acquired by man as member of society. In this definition, the phrase 'any other capabilities and capacities acquired by man as member of society' is very important. So, what ever we learn as a member of society is our culture, whether it is in concrete form, the dressing style, cuisine, etc., or, in the abstract form, i.e., language, conception of God, truth, etc.

Any change in the material or non material aspects of culture is cultural change. According to David Dessler, cultural change is the modification or discontinuance

of existing 'tried' and 'tested' procedures transmitted to us from the culture of the past, as well as the introduction of new procedures, e.g., inventions and popularization of automobiles, addition of new words in language, changing concept of property, morality, new form of music, art, dance, new styles in architecture and sculpture, new rules of grammar or meter, the general trend towards gender equality, etc., all of which represents cultural changes.

Almost all important changes involve both social and cultural change. Change in one aspect affects each and every other aspect. This is because one change may lead to many other changes. For instance, basic change like a change in the ways in which a society earns its living, or conducts its economic activity, and exploits the environment can affect almost all the other components of society. This is because, society and culture are an integrated whole. For example, as the population changes, technologies expand, material equipment changes, ideologies and values take on new components and institutional structure, and functions are reshaped. Since culture is a part of society, cultural change is part of social change. Cultural change is narrow, while social change is wider in approach.

In these sections, you studied about change- meaning and characteristics, types of change, theories of change, approaches to change, and social and cultural change. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Explain a few important characteristics of change.

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2) Identify any five social changes and cultural changes occurring around you.

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1.7 STEPS IN SOCIAL CHANGE

Change has a few steps as given below

a) Discovery.

b) Invention.

c) Innovation.

d) Diffusion of innovation.

e) Social change.

a) Discovery is a shared human perception of an aspect of reality which already exists. Discovery becomes a factor of social change only when it is put to use. A discovery adds something new to the culture because although this reality may always have existed it becomes part of the culture.

b) Invention: new combinations of existing things (discoveries) is called invention. It is a long process to invent anything. There are two types of invention.

   i) Material invention.

   ii) Social invention.

c) Innovation is more developed and refined form of invention. One of the greatest pains of human nature is the pain of new idea. It makes you think, e.g., your firmest belief may be untrue. It is natural that people resist new ideas, and disposes more or less to will. When we have an innovation, then it is time to diffuse it in society.

d) Diffusion of innovation: There are a lot of ways to diffuse innovations in a society. The most effective and popular ways are listed below.

   i) Channels of communication

   ii) Mass media.

   iii) Interpersonal communication.

e) Social Change: After successful diffusion of innovation, we can see and feel the social change in the following order.

Discovery —> Invention —> Innovation —> Social change.

1.8 DIMENSIONS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Three major dimensions for analysis of social change are given below

a) The Structural Dimension

b) The Cultural Di-mension

c) The Interactional Dimension.

a) The Structural Dimension

Changes in the structural dimension refer to changes in the struc-tural forms of society that involve changes in roles, emergence of new roles, changes in the class or caste structure, and changes in social institutions such as the family, the government, the school or educational systems. Some changes in the structure of the rural family, village council, or *Panchayat* (in India), have been discussed earlier. What is also involved is a shift in the location of roles, a modification of number and type of functions performed by various components of society, and a modification of chan-nels of communication among roles.

b) The Cultural Dimension

Changes in cultural dimension refer to changes that take place in the culture of a society, such as through discovery, invention, new tech-nology, contact with other cultures involving diffusion, and cultural borrowing. It involves the integration of new elements into the culture, replacement of old forms, and rejection of some new elements and forms. At the same time, it is not implied that all that comes to a culture is diffused, and all that is subjected to the process of diffusion is finally integrated into a culture. New forms and elements may be rejected or modified. However, cul-tural innovation, diffusion, and integration are all involved in the pro-cess of social change in its cultural dimension. Both, the material and non ma-terial aspects of a culture are involved.

c) The Interactional Dimension

The interactional dimension of social change refers to changes in social relationships in society as identified under five dimensions, such as frequency, social distance, instrumentality, directionality and interactive. Modi-fication and change in structure of the components of society, together with alterations in its culture bring about changes in social relations. Frequency, social distance, instrumentality, directionality, and interac-tive form constitute a schematic arrangement of specific dimension of change in social relationships, in terms of which social change in respect of social interaction can be analyzed. For example, social change in a village as a result of urbanization can be analyzed in terms of variation of frequency of social contacts and relations within the village, of the shift from primary to secondary group relationship, from gemeinschaft to gesellschaft types of relationships, of the shift from interaction among equal status lives to contractual interaction that cuts across these lives, of the shift from cooperative forms of relations to those that are more divisive and com-petitive, and of the shift from the value of individuals as persons to personal relationships as a value in itself, to impersonality where the individual is valued as a means to an end.

1.9 CONSEQUENCES OF CHANGE

Social Effects of Discovery and Invention: No social change leaves the rest of the culture entirely unaffected. Even an “additive” innovation draws time and interest away from other elements of the culture. Some innovations are shattering in their impact. When the Europeans passed out the steel axes to the Yir Yoront of Australia, the gift appeared to be an innocuous gesture, but the stone ax was so tightly integrated into the culture that a chain reaction of disruption spread through the social structure.

1) Ogburn distinguished three forms of the social effects of a single mechanical invention, is illustrated by the many effects of the radio, or the automobile, which shortens travel time, supports a huge manufacturing and servicing industry; provide a market for vast quantities of gasoline and oil

2) *Succession , or the derivative social effects of a single invention,* means that an invention produces changes, and so on. e.g., the inventor of the cotton gin (a) simplified cotton processing, and made cotton more profitable;

this result (b) encouraged the planting of more cotton: and the planting 9c) required more slaves

3) *Convergence, or the coming together of several influences of different inventions,* may be variously illustrated. The automobile, the electric pump, and the septic tank made the modern suburb possible.

1.10 FACTORS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

A group of theorists focus on the causal factors behind social change, rather than the direction of change. According to them, there are certain forces, social or natural, or both, which bring about social changes. They point to the presence of certain forces and circumstances which determines the course of social change. Each and every theorist has pointed out different factors underlying change. A brief discussion on the main factors of change has been given below.

a) **Biological factors**: the biological factors of social change include flora, fauna and human beings. The human biological environment includes the factors that determine the numbers, the composition, the selection, and the hereditary of the successive generations. The human element in society is always changing, thereby, continuously inducing regular changes. For example, a change in the population, both in number and composition, affects society at large. In societies where the number of female children is greater than the number of male children, one can observe the existence of polygamous marriages (one man with two, or more, wives). In societies where there are more males than females, polyandrous marriages (one women with several husbands) are prevalent.

b) **Physical factors**: the physical factors of social change include floods, famines, earthquakes, natural disaster, etc. You might have observed the impact of these physical factors in changing the life of a community. Physical factors govern social conditions because every culture develops in some sort of physical setting. If the physical setting changes, a society is bound to change. For example in poles and in deserts there is not much scope for art and learning as all the available time is spent in arranging materials to keep oneself alive. The situation is just the opposite in areas where there is ample scope for development of art and culture due to a settled lifestyle and agrarian economy.

c) **Technological factors**: the technological factors of social change include changes in production technology, the means of communication, and transportation, etc. The technological inventions in the form of factory machines, home appliances, multimedia, online business, banking, shopping, etc., have dramatically changed our working and life. We can see how the internet has revolutionized society. With the help of technology we now perform age old activities in less time, with better efficiency, and effectiveness. Hence, technological factors are one of the important sources of social change.

d) **Economic factors**: the economic interpretation of social change has been explained by Karl Marx. Marx heavily emphasized the importance of economic factors in his theories of Historical Materialism and Economic

Determinism. According to him, the sub structure (economic system) of society determines the super structure (religion, legal framework, political system, etc.). Marx stated that the character of a society depends on economic activity, and the means and modes of production which transforms itself in to the norms of society, i.e., the norm of barter, trade, exchange, property, etc. The change in these norms introduces further changes throughout the fabric of society. According to him social revolution takes place when there is a conflict between the existing relations of production, or the existing property relations and the new modes of production. He is of the opinion that, throughout history, there have been two conflicting classes in different epochs of history, i.e., masters and slaves in primitive societies, feudal lords and serfs in feudal societies; and, now, factory owners and workers in capitalist societies. He pointed out that the inherent weaknesses of one system gives birth to a new system. This way social change is a continuous phenomenon because it is based on the dialectic principle of thesis (opinion), antithesis (contra-opinion) and synthesis (a mix of opinion and contra-opinion). Hence, society keeps changing on account of this dialectic process and changes in economic system.

e) **Cultural factors:** the influence of cultural factors on social change has been explained by Ogburn in his Cultural Lag theory. According to him, the various elements of culture do not change at the same rate. Some parts change more rapidly than others, and, that since there is a correlation and interdependence of parts, a rapid change in one part of our culture requires readjustments through other changes in various correlated parts of culture. He stated that nonmaterial culture is often slow to respond to rapid inventions in material culture. This is easy to witness as people are reluctant to give up old values, customs, and beliefs in favour of new ones. When nonmaterial culture does not adjust itself readily to the material change it falls behind the material culture, and the result is a lag between the two. This lag between non material and material culture has been called Cultural Lag. Ogburn concluded that the problem of adjustment in modern society is to enable the non material aspect of culture to catch up with the material aspect. That means that man, in order to remove the gaps between the two parts of culture, should adopt his ways of thinking and behaving to the state of his technology.

f) **Legal factors**: law is an important formal means of social change. Legal regulations either may, or may not, confirm to the pattern of society. If the law does not conform with society, it faces opposition. But if the law is stringently upheld, it induces a change in social organization. For example, child marriages have been a customary practice in many communities in India, but after the introduction of the Child Marriage Restraint Act, child marriages have reduced, and the same happened with the sati system, now almost unheard of in India, after the introduction of Sati Prohibition Law. The law relating to marriages, widow remarriages, girls share in property, right to information, etc., has changed society.

All of the above theories point out how social change influences extension and development. If the nature of social change is controlled we can get result in the desired direction, but, now, the point of contention is how to study and analyse extension and development *vis-à-vis* change. To answer this question, in the next discussion, we will focus on the approaches to change.

In these sections, you studied about approaches to change, social and cultural change, steps in social change, dimensions of social change, consequences of change and factors of social change. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 2*.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What are the steps in social change? Explain any one.

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2.) Based on your understanding of this unit, give some examples for the following factors of Social Change.

Technological Factors .....

Economic Factors .....

Physical Factors .....

1.11 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we discussed the meaning and characteristics of change, and found that change is an integral part of society. One change may lead to a sequence of changes. We then took a closer look at two aspects of social change: (1) changes in the social structure itself which bring about changes in the pattern of social relations (social change); and, (2) the changes in attitudes and motivations, or changes in the values themselves (cultural change). Then, we discussed the characteristics, types, theories, and approaches to social change. Based on theoretical input we learnt that social change takes into consideration causes and consequences, their nature, and differential impact on various sections of society.

Hence, in this unit, we learnt that the term change implies that the object to which it is applied becomes different over time. This means that social change suggests no law, no theory, no direction, and no continuity. Change is a broad concept. It includes both progression and regression. Evolution, revolution, development, progress, and social movements are all concepts of social change.

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1.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress -1

1) Explain a few important characteristics of change.

Answer: Change is universal. No society is static, whether it is the primitive society or the most civilized one. Social change is community change. It does not refer to the change in the life of an individual, or life patterns of several individuals. It is a change, which occurs in the life of the entire community. The speed of social change is relative. It is not the same throughout society. Social change in urban areas is faster than in rural areas.

2) Identify any five social changes and cultural changes occurring around you.

Answer: This has to be answered by the student from personal experience and observation.

Check Your Progress -2

1) What are the steps in social change? Explain any one.

Answer: Change has a few steps as given below

a) Discovery.

b) Invention.

c) Innovation.

d) Diffusion of innovation.

e) Social change.

a) Discovery is a shared human perception of an aspect of reality which already exists. Discovery becomes a factor of social change only when it is put to use. A discovery adds something new to the culture because although this reality may always have existed it becomes part of the culture.

2) Based on your understanding of this unit give some examples for the following factors of Social Change: technological factors, economic factors, and physical factors.

Answer: Technological factors: the use of a computer in place of type writer.

Economic Factors: changes brought about through the use of credit cards, the use of technology which leads to very quick results of products.

Physical Factors: include changes which take place due to floods, famines, earthquakes, natural disaster, etc.

UNIT 2 PROCESS OF CHANGE

Structure

2.1 Introduction

2.2 The Change Process: Meaning and Components

2.3 Change Agent and Its Role

2.4 The Stages of Change

2.5 The Change Cycle

2.6 The Barriers to Change

2.7 Let Us Sum Up

2.8 References and Selected Readings

2.9 Check Your Progress - Possible Answers

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of social change is a very broad one. It consists of a constellation of various processes of change in social structure, in terms of place, time, and context. Since it is so broad, it is bound to be somewhat imprecise, tentative, and value neutral. This unit discusses the meaning and components of the processes of change, change agent, and stages of change. We will analyze the processes of change with reference to the change cycle, barriers to change, and approaches to change.

After studying this unit, you will be able to

- explain the meaning and components of the change process
- discuss the concepts of change agent, stages of change and change cycle
- narrate the barriers to change

2.2 THE CHANGE PROCESS: MEANING AND COMPONENTS

In academic terms, change is considered neutral. It implies that the object to which it is applied becomes different with time. According to this view, social change suggests no law, no theory, no direction, and no continuity. The idea of continuity is introduced when we refer to social change as a process. A process means a continuous change taking place in a definite manner through the operation of forces present from the very beginning, within the situation. Examples of processes are communi-cation, socialization, accommodation, integ-ration, disintegration, competition, and conflict. To study a process, we observe a series of transitions between one state of being and an-other. A process may be up or down, forward or backward, towards progress, or regressive. Thus, process means movement from one stage to another with a definite direction. A process is both system-sustaining and system-transforming. A given social system or social structure is regenerated through some process of social change, whereas some other processes may bring about situations of malfunctioning and breakdown. Social processes are a part of social structure, and we come across these frequently in system-sustaining and system-changing exercises.

Broadly speaking, there are two types of social change processes: (1) those that sustain the social system; and (2) those that bring about change in the system and change of the system. The first process may be termed conformity, status quo, and continuity. The latter may be called the process of cultural and structural change.

Social change is universal. Its pattern and factors may vary from time to time and from place to place. Change can be seen in terms of the elements of time and history in relation to a given society or social phenomena. Maciver and Page write in this regard: "Society exists only as a time-sequence. It is a becoming, not a being; a process and changing equilibrium of present relationships". A social structure is a nexus of present relationships. It is sustained by those members who participate in social relationships. Social change means change in social structure. Change in social values, institutions, property relations, economic pursuits, personnel and role distribution may be cited as examples of social change in modern society. Social change is always relative in terms of time, space and context. Resistance to social change is also quite a common feature as change disturbs the ongoing social order and relations.

2.2.1 Components of the Process of Change

Short descriptions of various components of the process of change follow.

A) **Stimuli forcing human beings to change:** personal and social aspirations for change emerge from the forces pressing towards innovation or adoption of new technology. The four stimuli for change are:

i) Man is continually making efforts to modify the natural resources to solve problems. These are weather control (coolers, air conditioners, afforestation, etc.), production of electricity, atomic power, chemical control of pests and diseases, etc. This makes the set up of society complicated and new problems like labour manage-ment, new patterns of working, and new patterns of leadership and cooperation begin to emerge.

ii) This creates the need to utilize and adjust to the changes that we are continuously creating in our environment. Planners look ahead to adjustments and changes in our way of life. Legislators enact new laws to take account of changed conditions of living and the new resources which have become available; educators organize the specialized units of knowledge, which must be trans-mitted to our young people if they are engaged in these new processes of utilization and adjustment. Administrators coordinate our adjustment efforts; and all of us grapple with the problems of changing our personal goals, desires, expectations, and patterns of behaviour.

This creates situations in which we are always required to revise our definitions about what is good health, good performance, efficiency, effective use of our resources, and, so we constantly use innovations, i.e., use of DDT was once advocated, but because of the problem of pollution and DDT's adverse effects on our health, its use has now been banned at certain places. The problem of hippies opened the eyes of the advocates of western culture to the problems of material wealth. People have now started thinking in terms of the values in vogue in oriental countries like India.

iii) The competitive process of comparing ourselves with others is another impetus towards innovations. It provides us with the motivation for progress through discovering improved or changed ways of doing thing.

iv) The pain and disorganization that arises from finding that our familiar ways of behaviour no longer work in a new environment is a stimulus to change.

B) Problem-solving efforts of different strata of society compel change: four types of dynamic systems: (i) The individual personality, (ii) the face-to-face group, (iii) the organizations, and (iv) the community, are related with change in a society.

i) Individual personality: different personality systems have various customary ways of solving problems. Some personality systems exhibit patterns of trust, while others exhibit patterns of distrust. Some systems try to create a relationship of submissive dependence, others strive for dominance; yet others seek an extreme of dependence, or minimal contact. As internal or external conditions changes, the personality system is confronted with the challenge and often with the stark necessity of modifying its customary and stabilized patterns in order to cope more effectively with the new conditions. The desirability of improving one's performance may provide a challenge which incites one to seek help, or the pain of personal maladjustment may create a readiness for change. If a person is in a state of considerable frustration because he has recently been dressed down by his boss, or, he is subject to a conflict between some of his subordinates, for instance, his sense of social values may conflict with his need to express hostility. He may be out of mood and be harsh to his wife, or his clerk, or other subordinates, or may go out for a vigorous walk, and may organize a counter attack against the source of his frustra-tion, or his boss. So it depends on the individual personality how he adjusts or behaves in a particular situation.

ii) Face-to-face group: Such groups include committees, staff associations, families, work groups, clubs, etc. We can visualize the internal dynamics of these systems much more easily than the internal dynamics of individual personality systems. We can watch the interaction between sub-parts of groups. We all know of the conflicts bet-ween the chairman and members of the committees or bodies, etc. These are face-to--face group difficulties. These call for change so that the conflicts and difficulties may be solved.

iii) The organizations: This is a larger social system which comprised the commu-nity. These are the parts of the community which have a more or less clearly defined and specialized function requiring the loyalty and labour of a group of people who are organized in a relatively systematic relationship and whose efforts are coordinated by some kind of formal leadership structure. These are business organizations, welfare agencies, educational institutions, government bureaus, religious associations, political parties, farmers' organizations, women's associations, youth clubs, etc.

The internal process of such systems usually involves interactions among officially defined sub-parts, such as various departments of a business organization. In organizations, the relation-ships among sub-parts are likely to be formalized and, hence, face-to-face interactions are more feasible.

iv) **The community**: This is made up of a variety of interacting sub-parts, individual citizens, informal interest groups, organized occupational or political sub-groups, eco-nomic and social strata, geographical units, political sub-divisions, etc. The stresses and strains set up by these interacting sub-parts and the necessity of maintaining com-munity services to all constituent units have resulted in a variety of stabilized structural arrangements and problem solving procedures.

2.3 CHANGE AGENT AND ITS ROLE

A change agent is an individual who influences clients' innovation-decisions in a direction, deemed desirable by a change agency.

Seven roles can be identified for the change agent in the process of introducing an innovation in a client system. These are as follows:

a) **To develop a need for change**: a change agent often initially helps clients become aware of the need to alter their behaviour. In order to initiate the change process, the change agent points out new alternatives to existing problems, dramatizes the importance of these problems, and may convince clients that they are capable of confronting these problems. The change agent assesses clients' needs at this stage and also may help to create needs.

b) **To establish an information-exchange relationship**: once a need for change is created, a change agent must develop rapport with his or her clients. The change agent can enhance the relationship with clients by being perceived as credible, competent, and trustworthy, and by empathizing with the clients' needs and problems. Clients must accept the change agent before they will accept the innovations that he or she promotes. The innovations are judged on the basis of how the change agent is perceived.

c) **To diagnose problems:** the change agent is responsible for analyzing clients' problems to determine why existing alternatives do not meet their needs. In arriving at such diagnostic conclusions, the change agent must view the situation with empathy from the clients' perspective.

d) **To create an intent in the client to change:** after a change agent explores various avenues of action that clients might take to achieve their goals, the change agent seeks to motivate their interests in the innovation.

e) **To translate an intent to action:** A change agent seeks to influence clients' behaviour in accordance with recommendations based on the clients' needs. Interpersonal network influences from near-peers are most important at the persuasion and decision stages in the innovation decision process. The change agent can operate only indirectly here, by working with opinion leaders to activate social networks.

f) **To stabilize adoption and prevent discontinuance**: Change agents may effectively stabilize new behaviour through reinforcing messages to clients who have adopted, thus 'freezing' a new behaviour. This assistance is given when a client is at the implementation or conformation stage in the innovation decision process.

g) **To achieve a terminal relationship:** The end goal for a change agent is to develop self-renewing behaviour on the part of the clients. The change agent is to develop self-renewing behaviour on the part of the clients. The change agent should seek to put him or herself out of business by developing the clients' ability to be their own change agents. In other words, the change agent seeks to shift clients from a position of reliance on the change agent to one of self reliance.

In this section you studied about change process its meaning and components, change agent and its role. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Who is a change agent? What is his/her role?

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2) Select some social change of your interest in extension and write five statements that you believe represent varying degrees of agreement and disagreement towards that social change?

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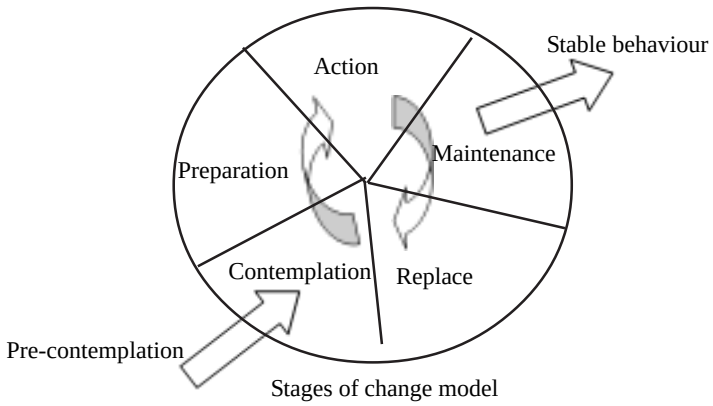
2.4 THE STAGES OF CHANGE

Before you begin to make changes in your life, I would like to introduce you to a useful theory called the Stages of Change Model (SCM), which models the stages that the mind and body go through when undergoing change. The Stages of Change Model was originally developed in the late 1970's and early 1980's by James Prochaska and Carlo DiClemente at the University of Rhode Island when they were studying how smokers were able to give up their habits. The

SCM model has been applied to a broad range of behaviours including weight loss, injury prevention, overcoming alcohol, and drug problems, among others. The idea behind the SCM is that behaviour change does not happen in one step. Rather, people tend to progress through different stages on their way to successful change. Also, each of us progresses through the stages at our own rate. So expecting behaviour change by simply telling someone, for example, who is still in the 'pre-contemplation' stage that he or she must go to a certain number of meetings in a certain time period is rather naive (and perhaps counterproductive) because they are not ready to change. Each person must decide for himself or herself when a stage is completed and when it is time to move on to the next stage. Moreover, this decision must come from inside. The long term change cannot be externally imposed. In each of the stages, a person has to grapple with a different set of issues and tasks that relate to changing behaviour.

The stages of change are

- precontemplation (not yet acknowledging that there is a problem behaviour that needs to be changed)
- contemplation (acknowledging that there is a problem, but not yet ready or sure of wanting to make a change)
- preparation/determination (getting ready to change)
- action/willpower (changing behaviour)
- maintenance (maintaining the behaviour change)
- relapse (returning to older behaviour and abandoning the new changes)



Stages of change model

a) **Precontemplatio**n: in this stage, people are not thinking seriously about changing and are not interested in any kind of help. People in this stage tend to defend their current bad habit(s) and do not view it as a problem. They may be defensive in the face of other people's efforts to pressure them to quit. They do not focus their attention on quitting and tend not to discuss their bad habit with others. This stage is called 'denial'.

b) **Contemplation**: in the contemplation stage, people are more aware of the personal consequences of their bad habit and they spend time thinking about their problem. Although they are able to consider the possibility of changing, they tend to be ambivalent about it. In this stage, people are in a teeter-totter, weighing the pros and cons of quitting or modifying their behaviour.

Although they think about the negative aspects of their bad habit and the positive associated with giving it up (or reducing), they may doubt that the long term benefits associated with quitting will outweigh the short term costs. It might take as little as a couple of weeks, or as long as a lifetime to get through the contemplation stage. In fact, some people think and think and think about giving up their bad habit and may die never having gotten beyond this stage. On the plus side, people are more open to receiving information about their bad habit, and more likely to actually use educational interventions and reflect on their own feelings and thoughts concerning their bad habit.

c) **Preparation/Determination**: in the preparation/determination stage, people have made a commitment to make a change. Their motivation for changing is reflected by statements such as: "I've got to do something about this — this is serious. Something has to change. What can I do?" This is sort of a research phase: people are now taking small steps toward cessation. They are trying to gather information (sometimes by reading things like this) about what they will need to do to change their behaviour. Or, they will call a lot of clinics, trying to find out what strategies and resources are available to help them in their attempt. Too often, people skip this stage, they try to move directly from contemplation into action and fall flat on their face because they haven't adequately researched or accepted what it is going to take to make this major lifestyle change.

d) **Action/Willpower**: this is the stage where people believe they have the ability to change their behaviour and are actively involved in taking steps to change their bad behaviour by using a variety of different techniques. This is the shortest of all the stages. The amount of time people spend in action varies. This is a stage when people most depend on their own willpower. They are making overt efforts to quit or change a behaviour, and are at the greatest risk of relapse. Mentally, they review their commitment to themselves and develop plans to deal with both personal and external pressures that may lead to slips. They may use short term rewards to sustain their motivation, and analyze their behaviour change efforts in a way that enhances their self confidence. People in this stage also tend to be open to receiving help and are also likely to seek support from others (a very important element).Hopefully, people will then move to the next stage.

e) **Maintenance**: maintenance involves being able to successfully avoid any temptations to return to the renounced bad habit. The goal of the maintenance stage is to maintain the new status quo. People in this stage tend to remind themselves of how much progress they have made. People in maintenance constantly reformulate the rules of their lives and are acquiring new skills to deal with life and avoid relapse. They are able to anticipate the situations in which a relapse could occur, and prepare coping strategies in advance. They remain aware that what they are striving for is personally worthwhile and meaningful. They are patient with themselves and recognize that it often takes a while to let go of old behaviour patterns and practice new ones until the new habits are second nature to them. Even though they may have thoughts of returning to their old bad habits, they resist the temptation and stay on track.

f) **Relapse**: along the way to permanent cessation or stable reduction of a bad habit, most people experience relapse. In fact, it is much more common to have at least one relapse than not. Relapse is often accompanied by feelings of discouragement and seeing oneself as a failure. While relapse can be discouraging, the majority of people who quit do not follow a straight path to a life time free of self destructive habits. Rather, they cycle through the five stages several times before achieving a stable lifestyle change. Consequently, the Stages of Change Model considers relapse to be normal. In fact, relapses can be important opportunities for learning and becoming stronger. Relapsing is like falling off a horse — the best thing you can do is get right back on again. However, if you do "fall off the horse" and relapse, it is important that you do not fall back to the precontemplation or contemplation stages. Rather, restart the process again at preparation, action or even the maintenance stages.

g) **Transcendence**: eventually, if you 'maintain maintenance' long enough, you will reach a point where you will be able to work with your emotions and understand your own behaviour and view it in a new light. This is the stage of 'transcendence', a transition to a new life. In this stage, not only is your bad habit no longer an integral part of your life but to return to it would seem atypical, abnormal, even weird to you. When you reach this point in your process of change, you will know that you have transcended the old bad habits and that you are truly becoming a new "you", who no longer needs the old behaviour to sustain yourself.

2.5 THE CHANGE CYCLE

Change has always been a necessary aspect of life and work, and our world is changing more rapidly than ever. It is likely that one will have to cope with a variety of changes in the near future. The components of change cycle are:

a) Stages of Change

b) Sudden Change

c) Many cycles of change

d) The positive and negative change cycle

Your success and fulfilment - your emotional, mental, spiritual, and physical well being - depend on how well you adapt to change. People react, respond, and adjust to change in a sequence of six predictable stages. The Change Cycle model identifies the thoughts, feelings and behaviour associated with each stage of change. There is no better map to assist you in navigating through the changes.

A) Stages of Change

Stage 1 **Loss to Safety*:*** in Stage 1, you admit to yourself that regardless of whether or not you perceive the change to be good or 'bad' there will be a sense of loss of what 'was'.

Stage 2 **Doubt to Reality**: in this stage, you doubt the facts, doubt your doubts and struggle to find information about the change that you believe is valid. Resentment, scepticism, and blame cloud your thinking.

Stage 3 **Discomfort to Motivation:** you will recognize Stage 3 by the discomfort it brings. The change and all it means has now become clear, and starts to settle in. Frustration and lethargy rule until possibility takes over. *The Danger Zone:* The Danger Zone represents the pivotal place where you make the choice, either to move on to Stage 4 and discover the possibilities the change has presented, or to choose fear and return to Stage 1.

Stage 4 **Discovery to Perspective:** Stage 4 represents the 'light at the end of the tunnel'. Perspective, anticipation, and a willingness to make decisions give a new sense of control and hope. You are optimistic about a good outcome because you have choices.

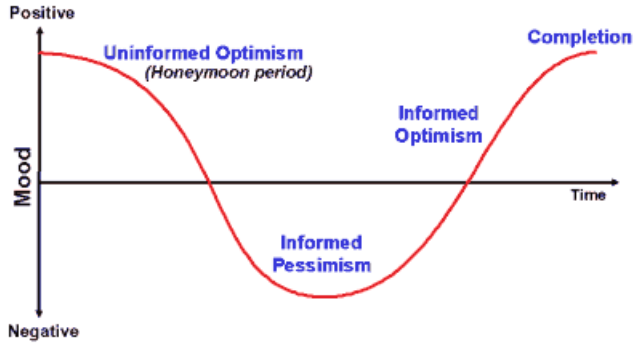
Stage 5 **Understanding:** in Stage 5, you understand the change and are more confident, think pragmatically, and your behaviour is much more productive.

Stage 6 **Integration*:*** by this time, you have regained your ability and willingness to be flexible. You have insight into the ramifications, consequences, and rewards of the change - past, present, and future.

B) **Sudden Change:** change always follows this basic process, although it may sometimes start at Step Two, with no warning. An accident or an unexpected business reversal are such changes. With sudden change there is no sense that, "Something's up!" You cannot prepare in advance, but the other steps in the change cycle remain the same. Starting at step two, you must first determine the nature of the situation. What has happened? What is the danger? What is the possibility? Once the issue can be stated, then a plan of action must be formulated and put into place. With experience and adjustment the plan is successful, and you return to a new normality.

C) **Many Cycles of Change**: if you assess your life, you will find that you are on several cycles of change at once. One cycle is at work and when you are at home there is another. These cycles are not often synchronized. Family changes, church changes, and community changes add to the complexity. In some areas, you are being led into change and in others, you are the person who is leading others into change. Emotionally one will also undergo a variety of experiences. As one goes through loss in one area of one's life in another, one is beginning to regain hope. The emotional wheels of life keep turning through the four phases of loss, suffering, hope, and happiness. Balancing all of this intricacy of change is where the real challenge of change is found.

D) **The positive and negative change cycle:** just as there is a negative cycle of emotions experienced when the change is not to the liking of the person in question, so also there is a positive cycle. Not all people experience change as a bad thing, some will benefit from the change, while others just find change in itself intriguing and exciting. The change cycle is given in the following figure followed by discussion.



i) **Uninformed optimism**: in the first stage of positive change, people are excited and intrigued by the change. They look forward to it with eager anticipation, building a very positive and often over optimistic view, for example that it will be much easier for them to resolve all of their current issues. And, for a time after the change (sometimes sadly short), there is a 'honeymoon period', during which they are positively happy with the change.

ii) **Informed pessimism**: the honeymoon period does not last forever and the rose tinted glasses start to fade as the untidiness of reality starts to bite. The person finds that things have not all fallen into place, that other people have not magically become as cooperative as they expected, and that things are just not as easy as they had expected. This pushes them over into a period of gloom when they realize that perfection, after all, is not that easy to attain. This may evidence itself in mutterings and grumblings, but still does not reach the depths of the depression stage of negative change perception (unless the person flips into a delayed negative cycle).

iii) **Informed optimism**: before long, however, their original optimism starts to reassert itself, now tinted by a resignation to the reality of the situation. After all, things are not that bad, and a positive sense of potential begins to creep back. As they look around them and talk to other people, they make realistic plans and move forward with an informed sense of optimism.

iv) **Completion:** eventually, things reach a relatively steady platform of realistic and workable action. The person is probably happier than they were before the change started and, with their realistic vision, have the potential to reach giddier heights of happiness as they achieve more of their potential.

2.6 THE BARRIERS TO CHANGE

People naturally resist change – including those who are in dysfunctional situations. One reason is that where we are now is known. For example, we may find ourselves in a bad situation, but it is nevertheless a known situation – and many people prefer the known to the unknown. If we want people to be able to initiate and sustain change we must be aware of the barriers to change. Let us discuss the barriers to change and how to overcome the barriers to change.

A) Barriers to change

A degree of resistance is normal since change is disruptive and stressful. Moreover, a degree of scepticism can be healthy especially where there are weaknesses in the proposed changes. However, resistance will also impede the achievement of organizational objectives.

Some of the reasons for resistance to change are discussed below

Kotter and Schlesinger have identified basic causes of resistance to change. These are:

i) Parochial self interest: individuals are more concerned with the implications for themselves.

ii) Misunderstanding: communications problems and inadequate information.

iii) Low tolerance of change: sense of insecurity and different assessment of the situation.

iv) Disagreement over the need for change: disagreement over the advantages and disadvantages.

Some negative comments that are often received on proposed changes

- "My needs are already being met".
- "There is no justification for change".
- "I don't like the way they propose to do it".
- "The risks outweigh the benefits".
- "It will now be harder for me to meet my own needs".

Organisational barriers to change

- Structural inertia
- Existing power structures
- Resistance from work groups
- Failure of previous change initiatives

B) Individual barriers to change

- Tradition and set ways
- Loyalty to existing relationships
- Failure to accept the need for change
- Insecurity
- Preference for the existing arrangements
- Break up of work groups
- Difference in personal ambitions
- Fear of: loss of power, loss of skills, loss of income
- The unknown
- Redundancy
- Inability to perform as well in the new situation

Inappropriate change management

- Change is often resisted because of a failure in the way it is introduced
- Failure to explain the need for change
- Failure to provide information
- Failure to consult, negotiate, and offer support and training
- Lack of involvement in the process
- Failure to build trust and sense of security
- Poor employee relations

Why change should be welcomed.

Change can produce positive benefits for the individual.

- Opportunities for personal change and development
- Provides a new challenge
- Reduces the boredom of work
- Opportunity to participate and shape the outcome

C) Overcoming resistance to change: Six Change Approaches

Kotter and Schlesinger set out six change approaches to deal with resistance to change:

i) Education and Communication - where there is a lack of information or inaccurate information and analysis, one of the best ways to overcome resistance to change is to educate people about the effort. This helps people to see logic in the change effort.

ii) Participation and Involvement - people should be invited to participate and involve themselves in the change effort; this way they will not resist change.

iii) Facilitation and Support - where people are resisting change due to adjustment problems, managers can head off potential resistance by being supportive of employees during difficult times.

iv) Negotiation and Agreement - where someone or some group may lose out in a change, and where the individual or group has considerable power to resist, managers can combat resistance by offering incentives to people to change.

v) Manipulation and Co-option - where other tactics will not work or are too expensive, an effective way will be manipulation to co-opt the resisters. Co-option involves a patronizing gesture that brings a person into a change management planning group. This often involves selecting leaders of the resisters to participate in the change effort.

vi) Explicit and Implicit Coercion - this is used where speed is essential and is only a last resort. Managers can explicitly and implicitly force employees into accepting change by making clear that resisting change can lead to losing jobs, firing, transferring, or not promoting employees.

In this section you studied about stages of change, change cycle and barriers to change. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 2*.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Talk with several of your colleagues and ask them about their individual barriers to change and compare them with the one given in this unit.

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2) Does the change agent has a role in the process of introducing an innovation in a client system?

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2.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we discussed the meaning of process of change. Next, we took a closer look at components of the process of change, followed by a detailed discussion on the role of change agent in the process of change. The other three important aspects covered in this unit are the stages of change, the change cycle and the barriers to change. We also took a closer look at components of the processes of change.

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2.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress-1

1) Who is a change agent? What is his/her role?

Answer: A change agent is an individual who influences clients' innovation-decisions in a direction deemed desirable by a change agency. Seven roles can be identified for the change agent in the process of introducing an innovation in a client system. These are: 1. To develop a need for change. 2. To establish an information-exchange relationship. 3. To diagnose problems. 4. To create an intent in the client to change. 5. To translate an intent to action. 6. To stabilize adoption and prevent discontinuance. 7. To achieve a terminal relationship.

2) Select some social change of your interest in extension and write five statements that you believe represent varying degrees of agreement and disagreement towards that social change.

Answer: The introduction of high yielding varieties is the change that interests me and the degrees of agreement and disagreement towards the introduction to high yielding varieties are:

(a) Improved the crop yields, (b) Local varieties vanished from the farmers' fields, (c) Poverty and hunger reduced, (d) Cost of cultivation increased, (e) Economic profits with less area

Check Your Progress -2

1) Talk with several of your colleagues and ask them about the individual barriers to change and compare with the one given in this unit?

Answer: To bring change in the individuals' behaviour, attitude is really a very big task. So many hurdles will come in that process. After talking to your colleagues compare their views. Refer to 2.6 also.

2) Does the change agent has a role in the process of introducing an innovation in a client system?

Answer: Yes, the change agent should follow each of the steps in the process of introducing an innovation in a client system. These steps are to develop a need for change, to establish an information-exchange relationship, to diagnose problems, to create an intent in the client to change, to translate an intent to action, to stabilize adoption and prevent discontinuance, to achieve a terminal relationship.

UNIT 3 CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Structure

3.1 Introduction

3.2 The Meaning of Change Management

3.3 The Process of Change Management

3.4 Models of Change Management

3.5 The Strategies of Change Management

3.6 Factors Influencing the Strategies of Change Management

3.7 Implementation of Change Management Strategies

3.8 Change Management: Skills Required

3.9 Project Change Management

3.10 Let Us Sum Up

3.11 References and Selected Readings

3.12 Check Your Progress - Possible Answers

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Change is inevitable and is bound to occur in a routine manner from time to time. Customarily, any change is resisted and therefore, the management of change is a vital task for the managers or the change agents. In the process of change management, the manager or the change agent adopts several process, models and strategies. In the previous unit, you learned about the process of change. Now, in this unit, you will learn about the change management process, strategies and models.

After going through this unit, you would be able to

- define change management
- discuss various change management processes and strategies
- implement change management strategies
- explain skills required for change management
- handle project change management

3.2 THE MEANING OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Change is the order of the day and, in fact, it is inevitable and bound to occur. Change is of two types: unplanned change, and planned change. Change which is spontaneous, or occurs at random is called unplanned change. Change which may be initiated by a change agent, to deal with some identified gap, is called planned change.

As change is imperative, it has to be managed. Change management is a systematic approach to deal with change from the perspective of an organization, and from

the view point of change agent. In other words, change management is about enabling organizations or individuals to successful adoption to change. Managing change is a matter of moving from one state to another, that is, from the problem state to the solved state. At the heart of change management lays the change problem, that is, some future state that is to be realized, and some current state that is to be left behind. It requires some structures or organized process to facilitate the transformation from one to another.

3.3 THE PROCESS OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT

The change management process consists of a sequence of steps or activities that a change management team or project leader would follow to manage the change. The process of change management consists of three aspects such as phases of change management process, the psychology of transition and steps in change management.

I) Phases of Change Management Process

The three important phases of change management are

Phase I Preparing for Change

Phase II Managing Change

Phase III Reinforcing Change

Phase I Preparing for Change

The change manager, or the change agent, has to prepare change management strategies on how to deal with the change .The preparation for change means that one has to define the change, access its dimensions and intensity, and develop strategy to deal with the change. Second, it requires the preparation of change management, and last a model to deal with the change. Thus, preparation for change management is the stepping stone of the change management process.

Phase II Managing Change

The management stage includes detailed planning and implementation of the change management plan. In a real life situation, a lot depend on the skills of the change manager.

Phase III Reinforcing Change

In the reinforcing stage, detailed data are collected, analyzed, and gaps are identified. Here, the resistance is also identified. After that, corrective measures are implemented.

i) The Psychology of Transition

We will better understand the change management process with the help of a figure (Figure 3.1) on psychology of transition/change. There are three stages in the psychology of transition; the first stage is called stage of topsy turvy, or the stage of uncertainty, or confusion. The second stage is the stage of consistency called, ‘the neutral zone’, It is the stage of implementation. The third stage is the stage of the ‘New Beginning’, where people mostly adopt the change and it is reinforced.

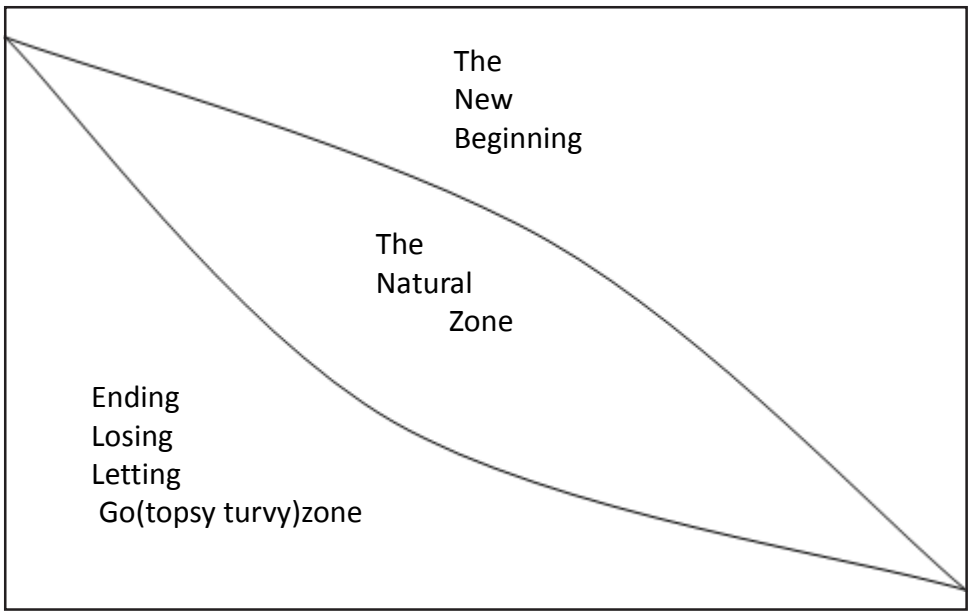

Figure-3.1: Psychology of Transition

II) Steps in Change Management

Various steps followed in the change management process are as follows:

Step1 Preparation for change

As a first step, in the preparation stage, the change manager has to focus on the following aspects

- identification of the required change
- determine the major issues
- identify the obstacles
- determine the degree of risk involved, and the cost of change
- try to understand why change is resisted
- recognize the need for change, identify current position, devise a suitable method.

Step 2 Building a Vision

The second step, in the change management is building a vision. In this stage, the following aspects have to be taken into consideration

- Develop a clear vision
- Make people understand what a change involves
- What is the proposed change
- What action is required
- What will be its effect
- How to manage the change

Step 3 Plan the change

In the planning stage, the following aspects have to be taken into consideration.

1) Devise appropriate strategy to introduce change

2) Design the change
3) Discuss the need for change, and the full details of what is involved
4) Involve people in planning the change
5) Communicate the plan to all who are concerned
6) Devise a time scale for change
7) Produce an action plan for monitoring change
8) Understand why change is resisted.

Step 4 Implementing the change

The activities involved in implementing the change follow

- Implement the strategy on change management
- Check and record the progress in implementing the change
- Make sure that change is occurring and is permanent
- Improve on the weak areas and identified gaps
- Overcome resistance to change
- Involve all people who are affected by change
- Devise an appropriate reward or incentive system
- Ensure that all strategies involved in the change are adoptable

Step 5 Monitoring and Reviewing Change

The activities involved in monitoring and reviewing change follow

1) Recording and monitoring the change
2) Measuring progress against set targets
3) Ensuring that the desired results are achieved
4) Has the process been successful
5) Monitoring how those affected by change feel about the new situation
6) How can those who do not respond to change are to be helped
7) Sustaining the change, preventing any back sliding

3.4 MODELS OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Different academicians and organizations have developed various models for change management. Here, we will discuss two change management models.

I.ADKAR Model

It is a simple change management model to help to all those who are involved in the management of change. It is used as a resistance management tool and an assessment device which help the change management team to effectively organize their work.

This model helps the change management team to answer following questions like

- Why is communication important during change?
- Why do people resist change?
- Why do people become perturbed and distracted during the implementation of change?
- How do you identify the barriers to change?
- How can one manage resistance to change?

The ADKAR model is given in Fig.3.2 and Table-3.1.

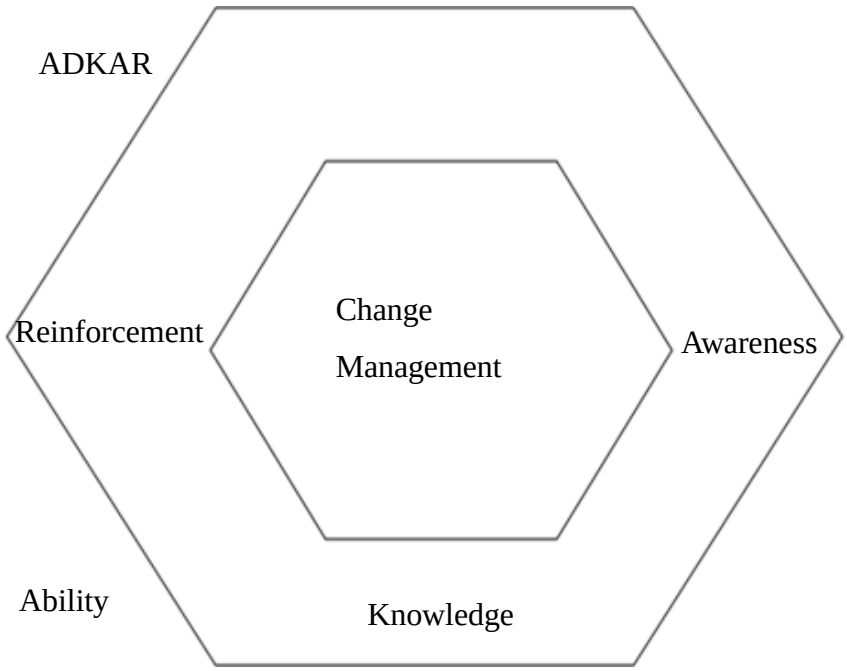

Figure-3.2

Table-3.1 ADKAR Model

A	Awareness	Recognize the need for change
D	Desire to change	Want to change and ready to participate in the change process
K	Knowledge	Knowing about the change, what to change and how it can be done
A	Ability	Able to change with required skills and behaviour
R	Reinforcement	Consolidating and strengthening change. In other words, sustaining change

II) CRET Model

The Centre of Reengineering and Enabling Technology (CRET) has emphasizes three focuses while dealing with change. Those are process, people, and technology. The CRET has developed a "blended process" by integrating Business Process Reengineering (BPR) methods, and Change Management (CM) methods. The CRET model had five phases given in Table- 3.2

Table-3.2 Phases of CRET Model

Phases	CRET Model
1. Clarification	• Defining the change. • Assessing the current organization or groups readiness for change. • Identifying the approach
2. Analysis	• Developing and confirming. • Organizational readiness to change. • Determine communication needs and planning
3. Transition Planning.	• Building capability for identifying and managing change. • Integrating them in to an integrated management plan
4. Transition Management	• Implementation of change plans. • Tracking and reporting of actual Vs planned results

Source: http:// www.crethq.com/

3.5 THE STRATEGIES OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Several strategies are adopted for the management of change. The three broad strategies widely adopted are

i) Force Coercion Strategies

ii) Rational Persuasion Strategies

iii) Shared Power Strategies

i) Force Coercion Strategies

Under the force coercion strategy, the team leader or the change agent uses the power bases of legitimacy, rewards, and punishments as primary inducements to change. The outcomes of force coercion strategies are immediate and are followed, either because of fear, or because of allurement, but, with little commitment. The force coercion strategy may be applied directly and indirectly. Direct strategy involves the exercise of formal authority or legitimate power that is either, by offering special rewards, and /or threatening punishment. In the indirect strategy, the change agent resort to bargaining, obtaining, control of important resources, or getting small favours in return, or IOUs. In both versions, the force coercion strategy has limited results. Although, it can be done quickly by using force, yet the usual result is temporary.

ii) Rational Persuasion Strategies

The change agent adopts the persuasion strategy to bring about change. They try to persuade people through their knowledge by citing empirical data and case studies. This is one type of informational strategy adopted, with the presumption that rational people will be guided by the factors of reason and

self interest in deciding whether or not to support a change. Accomplishing change through this strategy depends on the persuasive skills of the change agent. The change agent can also take the help of an outside consultant in order to adopt this persuasion strategy. A successful rational persuasion strategy helps unfreeze and refreeze a change situation. As compared to force coercion strategy, the impact of rational persuasion strategy last longer.

iii) Shared Power Strategies

The shared power strategy is also called re-educative strategy. This approach is based on empowerment and is highly participatory in nature. A shared power strategy identifies or establishes values and assumptions from which support for a proposed change will naturally emerge. Here, the power is shared by the change agent and other persons as they work together to develop new consensus to support the needed change. Managers or change agents, by using the shared power strategy, implement change. They also need to have reference power and the skills to work effectively with other people in group situations. They must have the willingness to share and allow others to participate in making decision affecting the nature of change and its method of implementation. The process is slow but its result is long lasting and change is internalized.

3.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE STRATEGIES OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT

There are many change strategies and the change agent has to select one by reading the situation and its relevance. A number of factors guide the change agent in selecting a particular change strategy. A few important factors are as follow

i) Degree of Resistance

The change agent has to read the degree of resistance to change. Strong resistance may require a coercive strategy. Otherwise, it will be less effective, and, sometimes, even counter productive.

ii) Target Population

Both the number and nature of population are important for adopting a particular strategy. A large population requires a different strategy from a small population. Further, if there are a large number of qualified persons, it may require a different strategy compared to a large number of illiterate people.

iii) Time Frame

Time is very important in selecting a change strategy. If the change has to be adopted in a shorter period it requires a different strategy than a longer period change. For instance, if some employees are to be shifted for a short period to an office away from headquarters, it requires a different strategy than if they have to be shifted for a longer period on permanent basis.

iv) Expertise

Adopting a particular type of change requires expertise available with the organization. Implementation of change depends on the skills of the change

agent. It is always more difficult to handle the mind of a man than a machine. Therefore, expertise is important.

v) Stakes

High stakes argue for a mix of all four strategies. When the stakes are high, no change agent can be taken to adopt change.

In these sections, you have studied about the meaning of change management, the processes of change management, models of change management and the strategies of change management. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What do you mean by change management?

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2) What are the factors one has to take into consideration while selecting a change strategy?

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3.7 IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Not only is the selection of strategies important, the implementation of strategies is significant for change management, too. Heresy and Blachard devised three approaches for designing and implementing change strategies. These are

- Force Field Analysis
- Patterns of Communication
- Change Cycle

3.7.1 Force Field Analysis

Force Field Analysis, a technique for diagnosing situations was given by Kurt Lewin. According to Lewin, in any situation of change, there are two forces such

as driving forces and restraining forces. First, driving forces are those forces which visualize forces affecting a situation that are pushing in a particular direction and keep it going. For example, to enhance productivity, incentives like minimum support price and subsidies on firm inputs may be called the driving forces. On the other hand, restraining forces are those forces which act to restrain or decrease the driving forces. For example, restraining forces countering to restrain production are lack of subsidies, strikes, old and obsolete machines. An equilibrium of these two forces will be reached when the sum of these two forces are equal in magnitude. This is given in figure 3.3.

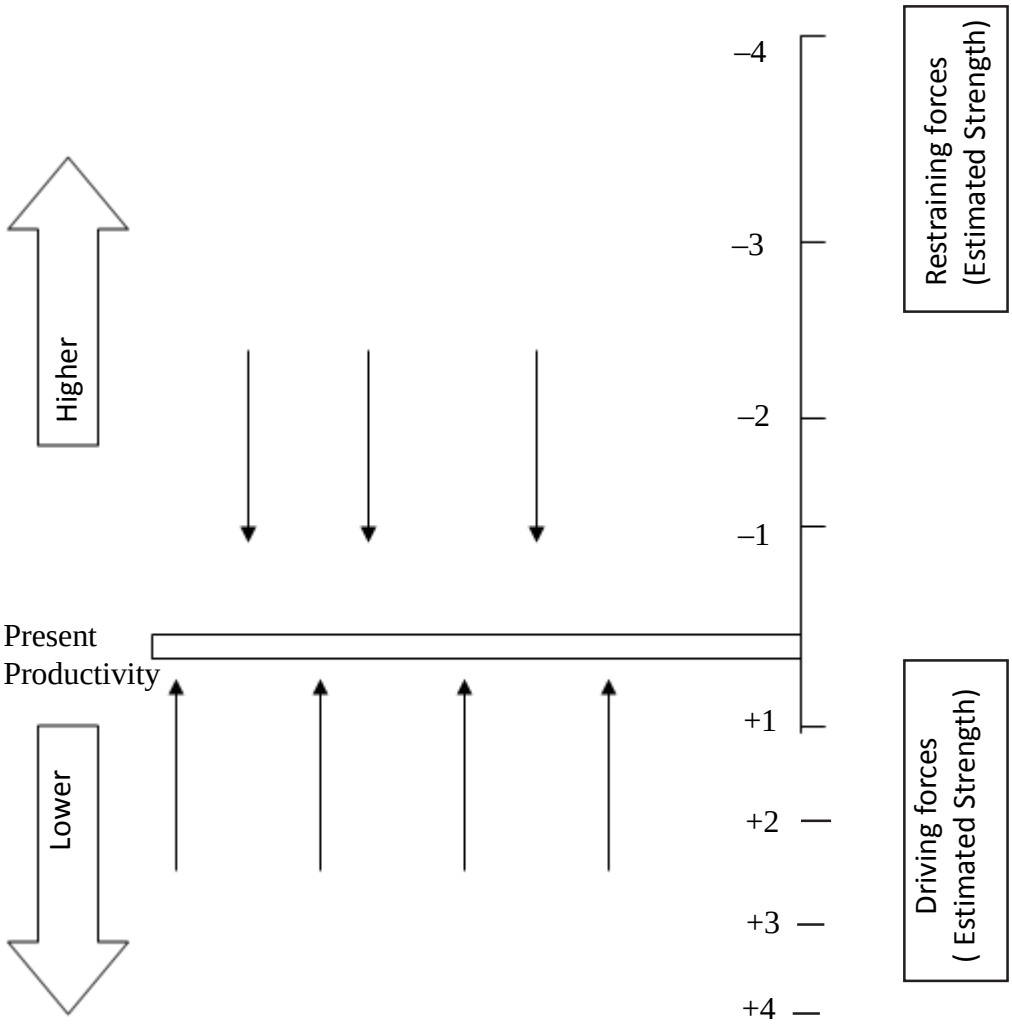

Fig. 3.3 Driving and Restraining Forces

Source: *Hersey, P and Blanchard K (1993), Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources; Prentice Hall of India, New Delhi*

Before finalizing a change strategy, the change agent should identify the factors that help the change effort (the driving forces), and take note of factors that will work against the change effort (the restraining forces). If the change agent starts implementing a change strategy without such an analysis, he, or she, may face a number of difficulties. The force field analysis will be helpful when the change agent wants to review and know the discrepancy between what is actually happening and what would likely happen.

3.7.2 Pattern of Communication

Communication is another important strategy to implement change. Communication customarily means the transfer of information from one entity to the other. According to Luthans, communication has a behavioural component and the only means by which one person can influence another is by behaviour; that is, the communicative exchanges between people provide the sole method by which influence or effects can be achieved. The Business Dictionary.com defines communication as a "two-way process of reaching mutual understanding, in which participants not only exchange information but also create and share meaning."

Hersey and Blanchard have devised two types of communication structure for the implementation of change strategy.

These are:

i) The Star Communication

ii) The Circle Communication

Fig.3.4: Star Communication

i) The Star Communication pattern, the leader, or the star, as given in figure-3.4 is the main communication person with whom all other members, could communicate. At the same time all other members cannot communicate with each other. This is an autocratic structure of communication. For example, in the figure- 3.4, the star communicator may be the departmental or unit head with whom each member communicates, and, later on, he or she communicates with others. Thus, the star communication is authoritative in nature and provides less opportunity to team members to jointly share their vie ws with the team leader.

On the other hand, in circle communication, as given in figure-3.5, every person can communicate with one another.

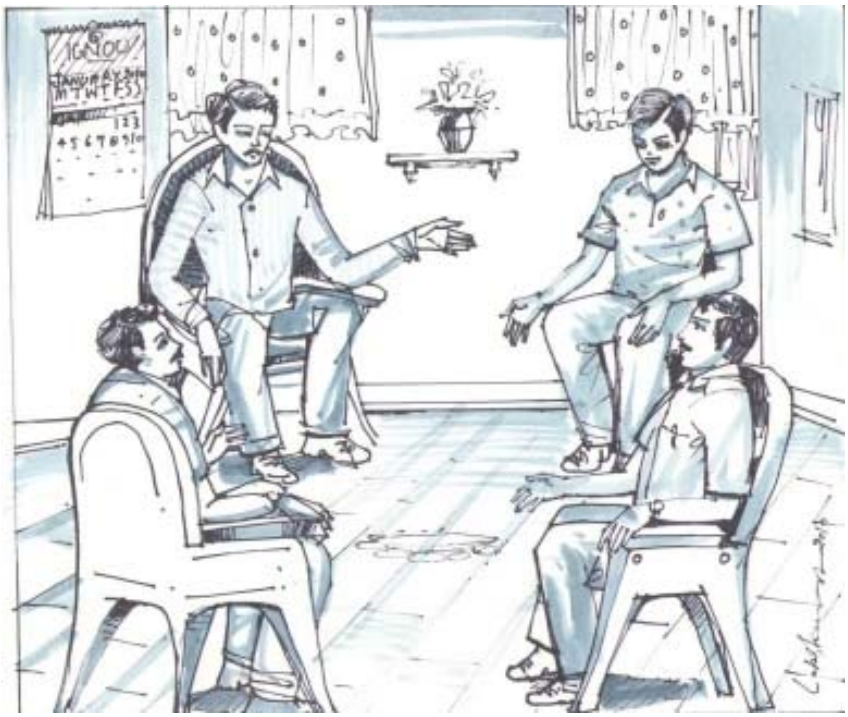

Fig.3.5: Circle Communication

ii) **The Circle pattern of communication** is democratic in nature, where each group member has the freedom to communicate with each other. There is no supreme boss who commands the group members. Thus, the selection of a participative and directive change strategy depends on the use of the communication pattern. It is, therefore, important that the change agent, before implementing a change, should know the existing communication pattern. The change agent has to be well understood and receptive to the ideas of the people, for which, he or she has to be a good listener.

Listening

Listening is an active communication process, where one must be an active participant in the communication process. The listener must be active when the speaker is speaking so that he, or she, can respond. There as four different types of listening:

i) Appreciative listening

ii) Discriminative listening

iii) Critical listening

iv) mphatic listening

i) **Appreciative Listening**: is the type of listening, where the listener gains pleasure or satisfaction out of listening. He also appreciates the speaker so that the communication takes place in a congenial manner.

ii) **Critical Listening**: in critical listening, the listener is critical about the speaker and doubtful about the credentials of the speaker. The listener is also suspicious about whether the message that has been given is logical, or, whether he, or she, is being manipulated. This kind of communication is not healthy communication.

iii) **Discriminative Listening**: in this case, the listener is able to distinguish what the speaker communicates to him, so that he, or she, can pinpoint the strength and weakness of the talk.

iv) **Emphatic Listening**: here, the listeners' emphasis is on understanding the speaker's feeling and is supportive.

The effective listening follows certain cycle which is called HURIER. The expanded version of HURIER is as follows:

H = Hearing

U = Understanding

R = Remembering

I = Interpreting

E = Evaluating

R = Responding

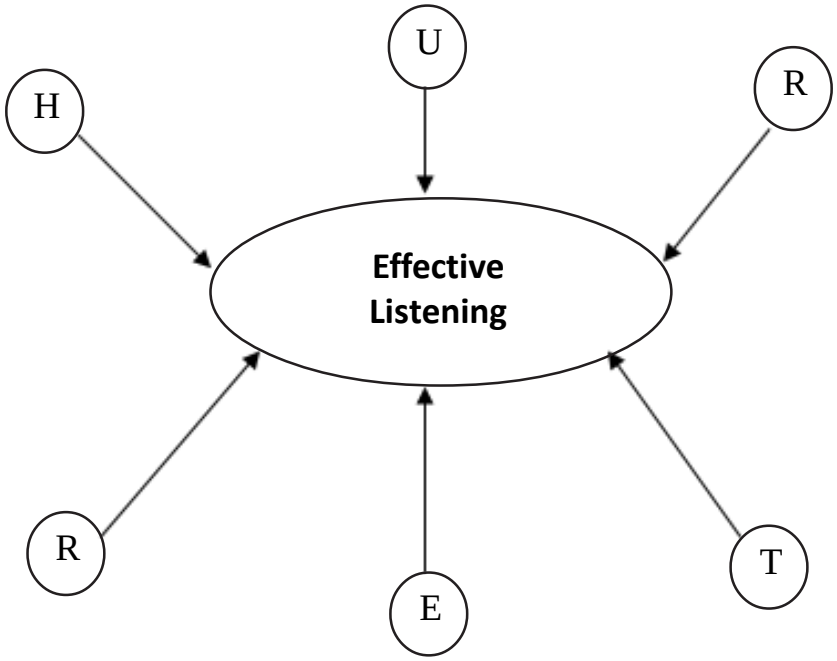

Fig. 3.6: Effective Listening

v) **Hearing**

The change agent for change management must attentively and carefully listens to what is said by the members. A fault in hearing will affect the decision making process.

vi) **Understanding**

The change agent should properly understand what is being said. Understanding is fundamental to appropriate decision making. Only clear understanding of the problem of the manager will enable him or her to take right kind of decision. The resistance to change requires clear understanding of the pros and cons of the problem.

vii) **Remembering**

Remembering what is being said. Some time after understanding even the frivolous attitude towards the listener by the change agent will lead to poor

remembering of the things what is said. Poor remembrance will sometimes lead to faulty interpretation.

viii) Interpreting

The change agent should interpret what is heard properly. Faulty interpretation will create confusion and, possibly, strong resistance from problem raisers. The change agent, therefore, should have accurate interpretation skills.

ix) Evaluating

The change agent should evaluate what is heard before passing judgment. Proper evaluation of what is being said, and, thereafter, passing judgment will add value to the judgement of the manager. A good manager is a good evaluator.

x) Responding

The change agent should respond after going through all these stages. Response is the end product of all these previous activities. If the change agent does not respond to the questions and problems raised by the workers, then they may think negatively. They may perceive the change agent as being either adamant or callous towards the issues raised by the employees, or people.

Friedman has given the following six steps for better listening.

i) Decide to be a better listener and have a personal commitment to become a better listener.

ii) Welcome the client; be friendly, so that the speaker feels that he or she is interested and actively listening.

iii) Concentrate on listening. This will make it more interesting and will prevent distractions from listening.

iv) The listener must have an open mind, be amenable, patiently hear them out completely, and avoid jumping into conclusion.

v) Give the feedback that you are listening. Too much silence will give impression that you are not listening.

vi) Make a note while you are listening, so that you can review it and recall it while analyzing the communication.

Besides listening there are other essentials of effective communication which a change manager needs to adopt for effecting change. These are listed, below.

- Communicate consistently, frequently through various channels, such as writing, audio video, focus group discussions, use of internet, etc.
- Clearly communicate the vision, the mission, and the objectives of the change management effort.
- Give sufficient time to people to ask questions and make a sincere effort to answer their questions and queries.

3.7.3 Change Cycle

The change cycle is also an important approach to change management. The change cycle aims at modifying or changing the employee's knowledge,

understanding, behaviour and values which are vital to change management. It is people who resist change. Therefore, management of people is critical to change management. There are two types of change cycles: the participative change cycle and the directive change cycle. In the participative change cycle, the change agent involves the group leader or members in gaining their support for the change. This is done with an assumption that the group will accept the change and develop a positive attitude towards change. The change agent at the outset imparts knowledge and then work on attitude. Then the change agent works on individuals, and last, on group. Harsey and Balachard have presented participative change in the form of a diagram (diagram 1).

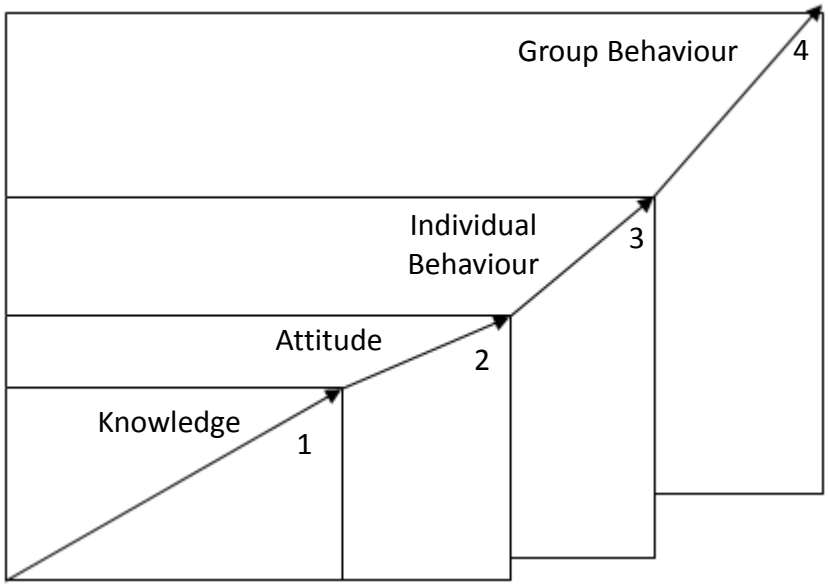

Diagram -1:Participative Change Cycle

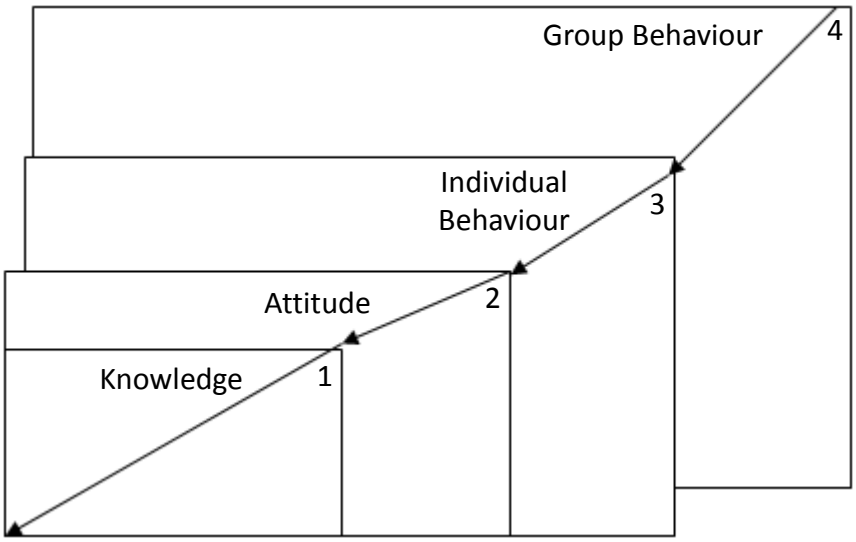

Diagram-2:Directive Change Cycle

From Bottom to Top Approach

On the other hand, in the directive change cycle, the change agent tries to manage change by giving direction. This is more autocratic and authoritative in nature, as compared to participatory change cycle which is more democratic in nature. The directive change cycle is given in diagram-2.

From Top to Bottom Approach

In the directive change cycle, direction is given from above, while in participative change cycle it goes from below. The change agent has to adopt the strategy according to the need of the situation.

The merits of directive change cycle are

- it is very useful where there is need for quick decision making
- it is more workable in a small organization having a few number of employee
- it is less expensive

The demerits of the directive change cycle are

- sometimes, the decision will be autocratic
- it is less democratic and does not take into account the views of the people
- it will lead to resentment in a bigger organization

The merits of the participative change cycle are

- it is democratic in nature
- the solution provided would be long lasting
- there will be less resistance from people

The demerits are

- it more time consuming
- it sometimes lead to groupism among the employee, which could create problems for the managers

3.8 CHANGE MANAGEMENT: SKILLS REQUIRED

The manager, or the change agent, must possess or acquire certain skills for the management of change. A few skills required for change management are

- skill in clearly communicating a strategic vision
- system skills
- marketing Skill
- Skills in consensus driven management

i) Skill in clearly communicating a strategic vision

The change agent must clearly communicate the short term and long term goals and strategic vision to people. Besides, he or she must clarify the role of change to the people. The change agent must spell out the role of change to achieve the vision. A clear cut understanding will face fewer obstructions.

ii) System Skills

The change agent must not only make people aware about the vision, but also make the employees aware about the system. There are 'hard system' and 'soft system' skills. The hard system is the maintenance of data of the organization, while the soft system generally refers to compensation systems, appraisal systems, promotion systems, and reward or incentive systems.

iii) Marketing Skills

The manager or the change agent must posses marketing skills. He has to a keep close eye on what is happening outside and appraise the people. He or she must have the skill to market ideas. In this globalized and competitive world, marketing skill occupies a prominent place for adopting and managing change.

iv) Skills in Consensus Driven Management

Census driven management, or, the shared vision, is the key to success. The change agent must have talent and skill to pull his/her team together. Gaining a consensus takes time and commitment, but, later on, it makes thing easy for better management of change.

3.9 PROJECT CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Project change management is a systematic way of ensuring that the changes are introduced in a controlled and coordinated manner to achieve the strategic vision. The project change management is important for following reasons.

i) The projects seldom run according to formulated plan. If it is does function properly, then achieving the project goal becomes difficult.

ii) The project management enables the manager to identify the problem on time, so that corrective measures are taken.

iii) The project manager, through project management instrument, would be able to know, from time to time, what we are doing and what is required.

Thus, project change management encompasses all the processes necessary to determine where we are, as compared to where we planned to be, and to initiate actions required to get back on track.

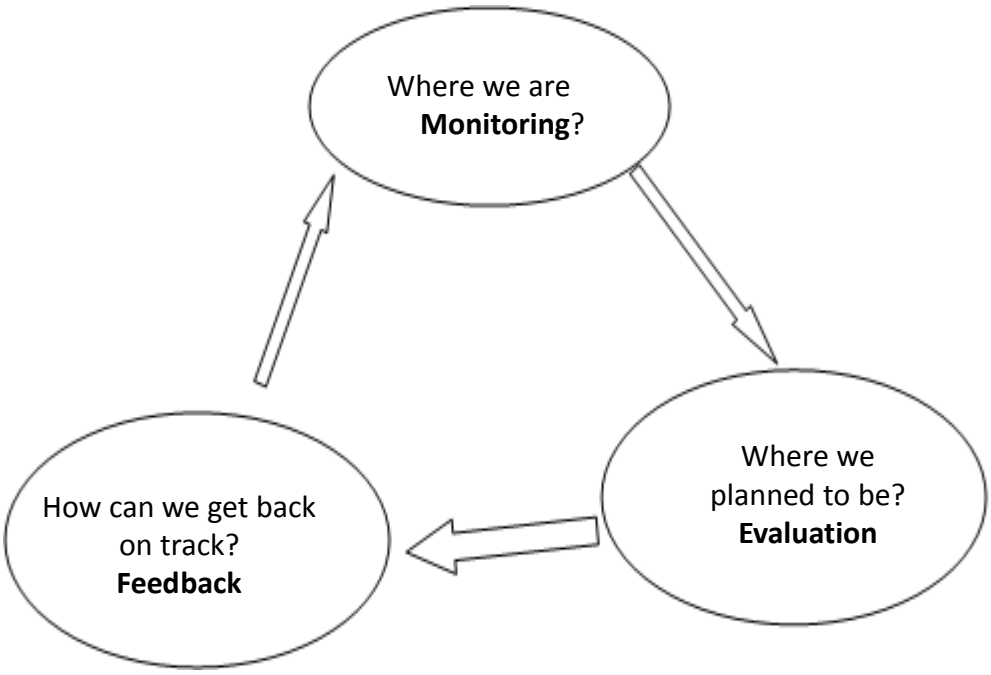

Fig.3.7 : Steps in Project Change Management

Phases of Project Change Management

The five important phases of project change management are given below.

i) Project change definition

ii) Project change planning

iii) Project change execution or implementation

iv) Project change monitoring

v) Project change evaluation

vi) Feedback.

i) Project Definition

The first step in managing a project is to define its scope in terms of mission, aims, and objectives, constraints and performance measures. The manager has to involve the team for developing the objectives, identifying its constraints and observing its resources and environmental factors. The participatory approach is best suited in this phase.

ii) Project Planning

During the project planning phase, the project manager has to take into consideration several aspects such as project overview, network development, network integration, and identification of specific performance indicators.

iii) Execution/Implementation

In this phase, the project is implemented as per the plan and sequence and the targeted beneficiaries.

iv) Monitoring

The project mechanism must put in place necessary monitoring system. The monitoring mechanism needs to be one of the integrated aspects of project formulation. It will ensure effective implementation of the plan.

v) Evaluation

The project must put into place necessary evaluation system. This will take into consideration all the activities undertaken initiating from the input, processes and output of a change intervention.

vi) Feedback

In this phase, the manager or the change agent has to see that the following events have occurred.

a) See that a change needs to occur, has occurred.

b) Documents the deviants.

c) Follow the approved process for documenting and approving requested changes.

d) Provide feedback so that only approved or planned changes are implemented.

Thus, project change management helps the manager to effectively implement change. By following the above mentioned procedure, he or she can effectively plan, implement, monitor, and provide feedback to see that the planned changes have taken place.

In these sections you studied about implementation of change strategies, the change management-skills required and project change management. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress2*.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What is a change cycle?

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2) Project change management is an integrated process- Illustrate.

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3.10 LET US SUM UP

In this unit you have learnt the importance of change management and various processes to be adopted for the management of change. The two different change management models such as ADKAR model and CRET model, and the change management strategies have been discussed in this unit. This unit also discusses the skills required for effective change management. Project change management has been presented in the last section of the unit, which provides insights to the project manager on managing a project.

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3.12 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress- 1

1) What do you mean by change management?

Answer: Change management is a systematic approach to deal with change from the perspective of an organization, and from the viewpoint of the change agent. In other words, change management is about enabling the organization or individual to successfully adopt to change. Managing change is a matter of moving from one state to another, that is, from the problem state to the solved state.

2) What are the factors one has to take into consideration while selecting a change strategy?

Answer: One of the factors that the change agent has to take into consideration while selecting a change is the degree of resistance to change. Strong resistance may require a coercive strategy. Otherwise, it will be less effective and sometimes even counter productive. Second, when the target population is large, it requires a different strategy from one that is appropriate for a small target population. Third, the timeframe: if the change has to be adopted in a short period it requires a different strategy from that which requires a longer period.

Check Your Progress-2

1) What is a change cycle?

Answer: A change cycle is an important approach to change management. The change cycle aims at modifying or changing the employee's knowledge, understanding, behaviour and values which are vital to change management. It is people who resist change. Therefore, management of people is critical to change management. There are two types of change cycles: the participative change cycle and the directive change cycle. In the participative change cycle, the change agent involves the group leader or members in gaining their support for the change.

2) Project change management is an integrated process-Illustrate.

Answer: Project change management is an integrated process. The five important phases of project change management are: (i) project change definition; (ii) project change planning (iii) project change implementation; (iv) project change monitoring; (v) project change evaluation; and (vi) feedback. All these phases are integrated and separation of one will create problems in project change management, and it will be difficult for the manger to manage the project effectively.

UNIT 4 PROJECT CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Structure

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Meaning, Importance and Scope of Project Change Management

4.3 Processes of Project Change Management

4.4 System Approach to Project Change Management

4.5 Let Us Sum Up

4.6 References and Selected Readings

4.7 Check Your Progress -Possible Answers

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Change is inevitable and however, management of change is critical to development. Development customarily means change and therefore change management is vital in development studies. The development projects and programmes are being launched in various sectors of the economy in order to bring changes in the socio-economic status of the people in general and those are belonging to the developing countries in particular. Aljaz Stare has remarked that a project without chances does not exists , therefore, we must find a way to limit the negative impact of changes or even to take an advantage of them. Frame (2003) believes that the project team must be ready for change so that changes do not surprise them.

After reading this unit you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning and importance of project change management
- Analyze processes of project change management
- Describe system approach to project change management
- Discuss key considerations relating to management of project change

4.2 MEANING, IMPORTANCE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT CHANGE MANAGEMENT

4.2.1 Meaning of Project Change Management

According to experts changes are a constant in projects. Since project is a dynamic process functioning in a changed environment, then changes in the project bound to occur and therefore effective management of project changes is vital to the achievement of project goal and objectives. Frame(2003) believes that the project team must be ready for change so that changes do not surprise them. While Kerzner (2006) indicated that the purpose of risk and change management is to reduce the number and range of surprises as much as possible. Thus risks and changes therefore appear to be “hand in hand’ so enterprises often set up a uniform approach to deal with both (Stare, 2010). Heldman (2005) holds the view that the project change management deals with control of costs, time and risk involved in the projects. To Stare (2010) changes, updates and corrective measures should be treated as a normal result of the process of monitoring and control, while

change management refers to change in scope, schedule, budget, sometimes even technical elements or elements of quality. Thus project change management is defined by the body of concepts, steps and strategies used to manage, control and implement "change' within a project.

Some of the reasons of occurrences of change are: (i) changes are inevitable in nature and bound to occur; (ii) changes are in response to change in the market and government policies and programmes; (iii) change in the technology which is expected to reduce cost and improve the project success; (iv) industrialization and modernization process adopted in a country bring changes in the development project; (v) economic reform by the economy; and (vi) change occurred in global scenario and expectations from the international donor agencies.

4.2.2 Importance of Project Change Management

The main purpose of the project change management is not to prevent changes rather than to strengthen the changes made in the project design and its impact on the target group. Some of the importances of the project change managemtn are:

i) The project manager gathers information about each change and analyzes the effect of the change on the entire project.

ii) It encourages the project implementers as well as the beneficiaries to come up with the new ideas and better ways of doing things which improves the project performance.

iii) The project manager where the project changes have occurred should always assess the impact of that change on the project's scope, duration, cost, risk, quality and resources.

iv) The project inflicted thrust responsibility on the project manager to negotiate with the donor on the one hand and maintain relationship with the beneficiaries on the other hand and make them understood about the purpose behind the change in the project.

4.2.3 Scope of Project Change Management

The project management is the process of guiding a project team by the project manager through a series of tasks and activities that eventually lead to the completion of a defined goal and fulfillment of objectives their-in, with a defined target date for completion. The scope of project change management largely relates to following aspects of the projects:

i) **Vision and Mission:** The change which is being inflicted on the project with regard to its vision and mission. Vision and mission are key to any development project and the project change management analysis begins with its analysis of vision and mission.

ii) **Aim and Objectives:** Whether the change has been made in aim and objectives of the project. Any change in the aim and objectives will impact the project costs, output and outcome.

iii) **Timing:** The project change will affect the time. Any addition to project objectives will enhance the time and vice versa. The timely completion of the project is one of hall marks of project management.

iv) **Cost:** Project change either can increase or decrease the project costs. In order to properly manage the project, the project manager has to reset the cost and the project budget is appropriately amended. In effect, the initial budget establishes expected costs, and the changed budget controls the costs of subsequent changes

v) **Output:** The project change influences and impact the output of the project. Any addition to the project objectives is expected to indicate the additional achievement with regards to the output variables and any deletion may reduce the elements in output.

vi) **Outcome:** An evaluation of project outcome is essential to change the impact and outcome of project changes. The outcome depends on the project changes. The expectations from the project depend on the addition and deletion of objectives at the time of making project changes.

In this section, we discussed about the meaning, importance and scope of poject change management. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Briefly describe the reasons for occurrences of changes in the project.

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2) Explain two important scope of project change management.

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4.3 PROCESSES OF PROJECT CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Change is bound to occur in the project and the management of the change in the project is the job of the project manager in order to achieve the goal and objectives

of the project. During the project management process, all changes to the baselines for scope, budget, schedule, quality and risk are documented and analyzed as part of the project change management process. Some of the steps involved in the various process of project change management are narrated below:

i) **Description of the Change:** At the outset the project manager has to give the description of the project and how it will affect the goal and objectives of the project.

ii) **Scope of the Project Change:** The description of scope of the project change and its impact on the deliverables at the lowest, middle and highest level of project management. The scope will also delineate its effect on the various group of beneficiaries for which the development project is meant for.

iii) **Resources and Work:** The project change obviously would affect the physical and financial resources on it. Its impact on the number of people deployed and to be deployed for carrying out the activities in order to achieve the goal and objectives of the project.

iv) **Cost:** The financial burden of the project and cost involved in carrying out various project activities. Project change can either increase or decrease the cost of the project. In order to properly mange changes, the project manager has to set the limits on change related costs, so that the budget is appropriately managed.

v) **Duration and Activity Mapping:** Any change in the project will affect the duration and time schedule of the project. If the goal and objectives are curtailed then the duration will be reduced and if new objectives are added then the duration and activity mapping to be changed accordingly. The Gantt Chart has to be prepared and necessary change will be made in the soft ware.

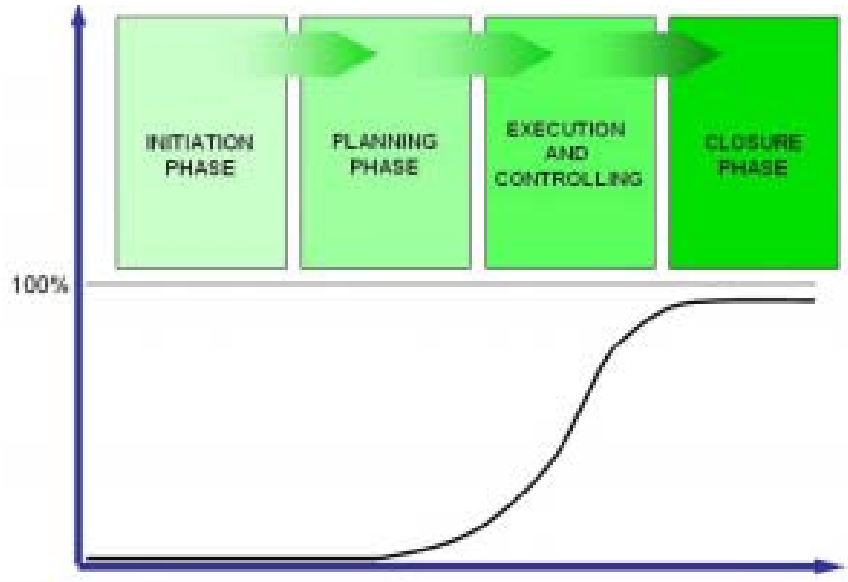
vi) **Risk:** The project manager has to review the list of identified risks. Then has to determine whether the change request affects any of the existing risks or creates new risks.

vii) **Quality:** Last but not the least, the project manager has to assess whether the change request will affect the quality or specifications of any of the project deliverables.

4.4 SYSTEM APPROACH TO PROJECT CHANGE MANAGEMENT

The system approach to project change management is essential in order to balancing the scope, time and resources, managing the risks and changes. It aims at systematically dealing with the project change at its various stages such as initiation, implementation, and completion. It is the scientific way of dealing with a project change and managing it appropriately. Import steps in system approach to project change management are as follows: (i) Initiating; (ii) Planning; (iii) executing; (iv) Monitoring and Evaluation; and (v) Closing.

Project Curve



Source: http://www.bcs.org/upload/pdf/hapostolopoulos-230212.pdf(accessed on 21/2/2018).

i) **Initiating:** The first step in system approach to project management is to initiate change process. In this stage following exercises have to done and the aspects which have to be largely looked into are: (i) confirm that changes are really required; (ii) appoint initial study team; (iii) indentify and record constraints and assumptions; (iv) review resource requirements; (v) evaluate options and alternatives; (vi) perform cost benefit analysis; (vii) prepare and revise the detailed project report taking into consideration the changes.

ii) **Planning:** At this step the project manager has to prepare and develop a project management plan. While preparing project management plan following aspects have to be given due consideration: (i) confirm project scope, client requirements and the interests: (ii) establish a structure and project operation chart such as matrix of responsibilities; (iii) perform critical path analysis and develop Gantt Chart; (iv) selection of manpower for the project; (v) estimation of project cash flow; (vi) develop communication plan; (vii) develop quality plan; (ix) assess risks; and (x) finally freeze project baseline plan.

iii) **Execution:** The third step is the execution or implementation of project changes. During the execution of the project changes following aspects have to be given due consideration: (i) Discuss the project change and how to deal with the project change; (ii) hold launch meeting; (iii) issue work plan; (iv) implement work and solve problems; (v) update project record; (vi) review risk; and (vii) plan for sustainability.

iv) **Monitoring and Evaluation:** Monitoring and evaluation is one of the important activities of the project change management. In this stage following aspects are kept into consideration: (i) constitute monitoring team and prepare monitoring schedule; (ii) prepare monitoring performa; (iii) prepare quarterly or half yearly monitoring report; (iv) conduct mid-term evaluation; (v) conduct final project evaluation.

v) **Closing:** The final activity is the closing of the project. In this stage the project manager conducts following activities: (i) conducts final post-project review; (ii) revisit cost benefit analysis; and (iii) prepare final summary report.

In these two sections, we discussed about the processes of project change management and system approach to project change management. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress -2.*

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What issues are largely taken into consideration in the processes of project change management?

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2) Explain the aspects covered during the planning stage of project change management.

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4.5 LET US SUM UP

The project change management is one of the important components of change management relating to development. The development projects and programmes are undertaken in various areas of development in order to raise the quality of life of the people. The socioeconomic changes are brought about through various projects and programmes implemented in the society by the government as well as national international development organizations.

In this unit how to manage project change has been discussed. The various components covered in this unit are meaning, scope and importance of project change. Besides, the other aspects covered are processes of change management and system approach to change management.

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4.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS – POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress-1

1) Briefly describe the reasons for occurrences of changes in the project.

Answer: Some of the reasons of occurrences of change are: (i) changes are inevitable in nature and bound to occur; (ii) changes are in response to change in the market and government policies and programmes; (iii) change in the technology which is expected to reduce cost and improve the project success; (iv) industrialization and modernization process adopted in a country bring changes in the development project; (v) economic reform initiated by the economy; and (vi) change occurred in global scenario and expectations from the international donor agencies.

2) Explain two important scope of project change management.

Answer: The two scopes of project change management are described below:

i) **Vision and Mission:** The change which is being inflicted on the project with regard to its vision and mission. Vision and mission are key to any development project and the project change management analysis begins with its analysis of vision and mission.

ii) **Aim and Objectives:** Whether the change has been made in aim and objectives of the project. Any change in the aim and objectives will impact the project costs, output and outcome.

Check Your Progress-2

1) What issues are largely taken into consideration in the processes of project change management?

Answer: During the processes of the project change management the issues largely taken into consideration are the scope, budget, schedule, quality and risks are documented and analyzed as part of the project change management process.

2) Explain the aspects covered during the planning stage of project change management.

Answer: At the planning stage of the project change management, the project manager has to prepare and develop a project management plan. While preparing project management plan following aspects have to be given due consideration: (i) confirm project scope, client requirements and the interests: (ii) establish a structure and project operation chart such as matrix of responsibilities; (iii) perform critical path analysis and develop Gantt Chart; (iv) selection of manpower for the project; (v) estimation of project cash flow; (vi) develop communication plan; (vii) develop quality plan; (ix) assess risks; and (x) finally freeze project baseline plan.

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May, 2018

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ISBN:

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Further information on the Indira Gandhi National Open University courses may be obtained from the University's office at Maidan Garhi, New Delhi.

Printed and published on behalf of the Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi by the Registrar, MPDD, IGNOU, New Delhi.

Laser Typeset by Tessa Media & Computers, C-206, A.F.E.-II, Okhla, New Delhi.

Printed at:

BLOCK 2 DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT-I

Block 2 is "Dynamics of Development I" It has four units namely; Development Dynamics: An Overview; Development Processes, Approaches and Strategies; Social and Cultural Dynamics of Development and Development Agencies.

Unit 1 on '**Development Dynamics: An Overview'** covers the role of market in Development, the role of community in Development and Dualism in Development Dynamics.

Unit 2 on '**Development Processes, Approaches and Strategies**' gives an illustration about various processes, alternative approaches possible to development. It also covers various strategies of development.

Unit 3 on '**Social and Cultural Dynamics of Development**' deals with the emerging concepts of social and cultural development, social development theory, social development index, cultural obstacles to economic development, social aspiration in the determinants of development and summary of social development principles.

Unit 4 on '**Development Agencies'** which gives an illustration of role played by the national and international agencies in development.

UNIT 1 DEVELOPMENT DYNAMICS: AN OVERVIEW

Structure

1.1 Introduction

1.2 The Role of Market and State in Development

1.3 The Role of Community in Development

1.4 Dualism in Development Dynamics

1.5 Let Us Sum Up

1.6 References and Selected Readings

1.7 Check Your Progress - Possible Answers

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In course 1, you studied introduction to development and development theories, and now you are aware that development is a dynamic concept. Therefore, it is very important to learn about the dynamics of development. As you know, there are many actors who are playing their roles in the process of development. Here, in this unit, you will get to know the main actors who play important roles in the development process: the government, the market, and the community. This unit will also cover dualism in development dynamics.

After studying this unit, you will be able to

- explain about the market and state as institutions for economic development
- discuss the essence of a community as an institution that lubricates the functioning of markets and governments
- describe modernization as a process that enhances the efficiency and effectiveness of traditional and customary institutions.

1.2 THE ROLE OF MARKET AND STATE IN DEVELOPMENT

You are familiar with the term, market, where there are two actors, one called the buyer, and the other, the seller. A market is an organisation which coordinates voluntary transactions between producers and consumers of goods and services. A simple example is the morning bazaar for vegetables where producers and consumers transact directly amongst themselves. It can acquire more complex forms where consumers' demand meets producers' supply, after passing through various stages of transportation and storage activities, across space, and over time. Transactions in a free market are voluntary by definition, and based upon the free will of buyers and sellers. However, a free market, to be perfectly competitive, also envisages that information is perfectly accessible to all participants. In such a situation, economic gains are distributed by coordinating the activities of self-interest seeking participants.

The state, in contrast, is an organisation that lays down the rules and regulations for coordinating economic activities. The state is bestowed with legitimate coercive power to enforce these rules and regulations. The state may also enforce conscription of certain resources, say by military draft, or through taxation, irrespective of an individual's will, and assume responsibility for the provisioning of public goods, such as defence and security, law and justice, and roads, that may not be supplied by a free market.

Despite the apparently opposing mechanisms in distributing economic gains that promote social welfare, both market and state are inseparable. Market transactions could be efficiently undertaken by establishing conflict resolution mechanisms to facilitate the execution of contractual obligations between transacting parties. An important pre-condition for the functioning of markets is a clear understanding and assignment of property rights on goods and services. On the other hand, police and judicial services are important functions of the state to uphold property rights, and, to enforce contracts according to laws stipulated by the state. The state draws, to varying degrees, upon its authority to conscript resources from transacting parties, or, transaction proceeds. This often has a profound influence on the outcomes relating to the distribution of economic gains for the parties.

Economies of any contemporary significance can hardly be visualised to exist without the essential elements of a state and markets. Although, their interdependence may vary widely, this may not be negligible, even in small subsistence economies. A nationwide market and a nation state are, thus, the core organisations in a modern world. Economic systems differ significantly in their combinations of the size and form of the state and markets. A pertinent question, then, is to ask what combination of these two organisations may promote development. A useful starting point may lie in our understanding of the relative merits and demerits of the market and the state.

Orthodox economics from Adam Smith onwards and, the neoclassical school postulate that competition in a free market induces an allocation of resources that achieves a social optimum. The building block of neoclassical theory is the market mechanism of adjustment in prices to equate demand and supply of a commodity (or service). To understand this mechanism of competition, assume that a commodity (that satisfies a particular need, or, want has a homogenous form, and is otherwise indistinguishable from products in the same category) is sold at different prices, by different sellers. All buyers would flock to the lowest priced product seller, thus, bidding up its price. There would be no buyer for higher priced products, forcing such sellers to bid down their prices. This mechanism continually operates to adjust the prevalent price, until demand equates supply of the commodity. If the price is too high, demand falls short of supply. As a result, unsold stocks pile up, forcing sellers to lower the price. On the other hand, if the price is too low and attracts too many buyers, the price would be bid up to induce more supply, or, to curtail demand. Total demand and supply are, thus, equated, and a free market establishes a single price.

The demand curve for a commodity in a competitive market, according to Alfred Marshall, is the schedule of decreasing marginal utility from additional units of consumption. Analogously, the supply curve is a schedule of rising marginal cost for additional units of production. Therefore, the point at which marginal utility and marginal costs intersect on the demand-supply curves represents an

equilibrium that optimises utility. This equilibrium, according to neoclassical economics, in a free and competitive market, also represents efficient resource allocation, and maximizes, as well, societal (economic) welfare.

1.2.1 Market Failure

Left to itself, if markets could achieve a socially desirable allocation of resources, then there should be no need for coercive government intervention to nudge economic activities. However, markets by themselves are seldom able to achieve optimality in all economic activities. The divergence of market equilibrium from the point of Marshallian net utility maximization (or, Pareto optimality, where nobody can be made better off without making someone else worse off), is termed market failure. Government has a role to correct such failures. The market may, however, facilitate efficient allocation of resources only in private goods, that is, those for which individual property rights are well established. Those assigned such rights are entitled to use the goods (and services), while others are obliged to pay for their use. But, market failure is observed commonly in the supply of public goods. For example, the services provided by police and judicial courts to maintain law and order, could be utilised jointly (non-rivalry) by an unidentifiable number of people (potentially the entire population). But, it may be difficult to impose appropriate charges on actual users, only (non-excludability). There exists, then, an incentive for all to utilise such public goods, albeit without sharing the cost (free riders). Private entities, seeking profit, may not care to produce such goods (and services), and they would have to be provided by a government.

In reality, there are no pure public goods (completely non-rival and non-excludable), or, pure private goods. For example, automobiles that serve transportation needs are private goods, as only those who pay the costs can utilise them. But, exhaust from running automobiles also pollutes the air that we breathe, and these vehicles may also be dangerous when involved in accidents. In that sense, the use of automobiles may produce negative public goods (or, 'public bads'). The Market equilibrium level for automobile production, therefore, tends to be higher than the socially optimum level. To correct this market failure, a government could enforce measures that raise costs of automobile use, such as an anti-pollution tax, or an accident insurance charge.

Market failure may also occur with private goods without an accompanying public bad by-product (or joint product). For example, for a market mechanism to achieve social optimality, it must satisfy the conditions for perfect competition. Among others, such conditions include free and perfect information among all participants, especially on the price and quality dimensions of commodities. Further, no participant can be allowed to muster enough power to influence market prices. In reality, though, wide information asymmetries exist between buyers and sellers, especially on product or service quality. For example, it is often difficult for consumers to judge the quality of professional services, such as those of medical or legal practitioners. Similarly with certain financial services by banks or insurance companies, especially on safety of deposits, or, on risk coverage. If information asymmetry bestows special advantages to the sellers and suppliers, or, exposes buyers to disadvantages, then market transactions may likely be smaller than the socially optimum level. In certain cases, market transactions may even disappear completely. Such forms of market failure may need to be corrected by government intervention to limit permits for undertaking

business, government guarantees to eliminate disadvantages, subsidies to reduce private costs, etc.

In case market equilibrium diverges significantly from a socially optimal equilibrium, due to concentration of market power (say due to seller monopoly or buyer monopoly), then, correctives, such as anti-trust laws may be required. In contrast, in the case of industries that are characterised by network-based delivery systems and / or increasing returns to scale (such as electricity, drinking water, etc.,) allowing for a regional monopoly may be socially desirable and efficient. However, the government may, then, regulate prices, or, undertake production in the public sector to circumscribe monopoly pricing.

Government activities that correct for market failures acquire public good characteristics. An even more important role for the government relates to redistribution that promotes fairness. Equity is a social objective that is as important as efficiency in economic production. Often, equitable distribution of benefits may enhance economic efficiency by promoting social stability. Inequity often raises societal costs by fomenting crime and disrupting normal economic transactions. While a market mechanism may be desirable to promote economic efficiency, it is unlikely to achieve socially desirable income distribution. Governments then use their coercive power to promote redistribution. Among others, such redistributive measures include a progressive income tax system and social security provisions that enhance economic welfare.

1.2.2 Government Failure

Often, the supply of public goods is determined through a political process, and there is no guarantee that this supply will be socially optimal. It is a commonly held view that supply shortages in public goods present a major bottleneck for growth in developing economies. However, the dangers in oversupply of public good may hardly be overstated. It must be recognised that the supply of public goods entails costs that are ultimately financed through taxation. If a government activity designed to correct for market failure entails higher budgetary cost than social benefits from that corrective measure, it may likely result in oversupply. In addition, governments in developing economies are prone to oversupply public goods of relatively low social demand, often to the neglect of those vital for economic development.

Advances in areas of political economy, public choice theory, theory of incentives, etc., throw some light on the behaviour of governments constituted of political leaders who would follow an objective to maximise their likelihood of continuing in office. In such a situation, budgetary allocations among various public goods may be based on considerations that are significantly different from what may contribute to maximise gains in social and economic welfare. In particular, issues that strengthen political support often hijack the economic welfare agenda. For example, a public good such as basic scientific research that benefits society as a whole is likely to be undersupplied. Benefits from such goods may likely be distributed widely among a large number of people in future. But, it is unlikely that a strong pressure group may emerge to press forth this demand. On the other hand, pressure groups may emerge easily for some infrastructure projects (that may could, also, result in oversupply) if there exists an opportunity for large private benefits to a few contractors and / or a relatively small number of residents in a community.

Governments, especially in developing economies, often acquire monopoly characteristics while drawing constitutionally determined legitimate coercive powers. There is, thus, a strong incentive for the size of governments to expand if only for the sake of greater power and position of bureaucrats. The government is a repository of a large body of information. Often, there lies an incentive to manipulate this information that ordinary citizens may find difficult to comprehend, in favour of certain goods. For example, national security issues may be exaggerated to increase the size of military, while fiscal profligacy concerns may be underplayed. Unlike in a private sector entity, the perception on bankruptcy of governments may be nuanced and difficult to visualise. In the absence of profit incentives and weak perception on bankruptcy, government organisations are susceptible to falter on efficiency issues. Further, bureaucrats and pressure groups with vested interests may resist expenditure reduction, or, budget re-allocations from one category of public goods to another. These conditions conspire to yield an oversupply of unnecessary public goods, often, in combination with undersupply of public goods that are critically needed for economic development. Such inefficient budget allocation is a typical case of government failure.

Government failure however, is not limited to misuse of budgetary allocation. It may also arise out of certain regulations that may bias resource allocations. Regulatory interventions contributed positively towards pollution control and vehicular safety. For example, the compulsory and regular checks on automobiles by authorised garages in Japan promoted safety of both drivers and pedestrians, as well as controlled emissions of noxious gas. These regulations made significant social contribution when automobiles made in Japan were, relatively speaking, of low quality, and prone to trouble. Over a period of time, while the quality of cars improved significantly, assuaging both safety and emission concerns, the garages organised themselves in a manner that protected only their vested interests, and, perhaps made for negative social contribution.

Regulatory interventions may become entrenched with vested interests seeking institutional rents, or, skimming excess profits. Firms protected by regulation may raise funds and ballots to support politicians in exchange for their support to continue with the regulation. Often firms are seen to reemploy officials retiring from regulating agencies. Several regulatory prescriptions survive long beyond their useful lives, negating most of the gains brought forth when first introduced. Quite often regulations and regulatory agencies morph into another avenue for corrupt practices. It is common to cite incidents of failure and, as the case may be, to deride governments or markets. In reality, however, it may be extremely difficult to exculpate any one. It is also common to pit the market against government, giving rise to a perception that these are substitutes, when indeed they play a complementary role. It is less often that we adequately appreciate the success of these respective institutions. Developing societies need to evolve sufficiently to transform their perception of markets and governments as being parasitically disposed, into one where they share a predominantly symbiotic disposition.

In this section you studied the role of market and state in development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress-1.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What is a market? Explain the role of the market in development.

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2) Does failure of government lead to the rise of the market? Illustrate.

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1.3 THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY IN DEVELOPMENT

In the continually evolving nature of societies, economic institutions, such as the market and the state, always face a distinct probability of failure on certain aspects. Such failures occur on account of the relative inertia of the institutions that prevents them from keeping pace with the ever-changing needs of a society. However, failures in these circumstances also provide the requisite incentive to look for tools and options to set them right.

Asymmetry in information across various agents such as NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations), Civil Society groups, etc. is a typical reason for several lapses observed in markets or governments. There is growing consensus that democratic systems, are, perhaps best suited to acknowledge the lapses and facilitate appropriate triggers for correctives. Often, ideologies that have withstood the tests of time, and may come to be grounded in religious (customary) practices, also play a vital role.

Up till now, you have studied the role of the market in development and the success and failure to effectively deal with development. Besides, these two actors, today, community and community based organizations also play an important role. In your locality you might have seen that community organisations like youth clubs, mahila mandals, and panchayats collect fund for various welfare activities, such as education of the poor, healthcare of the poor, preparation of a common club house, etc. Thus, community organisations now play an important role in development.

Asymmetry in information presents a dichotomy in the incentives facing differing agents and may give rise to the problem of moral hazard. Simply stated, moral hazard refers to a situation where an individual's rational actions to preserve her self interest conflicts with another agent's (rational) actions. The other agent is also acting in her own self-interest. Self interest, however, risks a connotation of selfishness, and may not be the best description of an individuals' disposition as an economic agent. The frequency of moral hazard situations, it is believed, may be reduced among people when they undergo intense personal interactions. Such interactions nurture mutual trust, thus, enhancing individual capacity to predict another's behaviour. Further, these may serve as useful and effective brakes in preventing a downward slide along the slippery path of moral hazard. Intense personal interactions bring forth issues of mutual interest that often result in the formation of communities held together by mutual trust.

Theoretically, community may have a wide domain ranging from the family to the national community. It is not uncommon to also hear about an international community. In developing economies, however, a community typically signifies a tribe or, a village with individuals bonded by blood and locational affinities. According to Populin, "a community is a unit of social and territorial organisation in which people live, work and attend school and carry on many other activities which are a part of daily living". In relatively urbanised developed economies, community relationships (or, interest groups) are formed through channels such as workplace, schools, colleges, church, sport, hobby clubs, etc. Communities often exhibit a significant influence on business transactions and political activities. Recent controversies relating to land acquisition for industrialisation have queered the pitch by portraying certain communities as fetters on modernisation. However, these communities are critical to avert failures in the market mechanism and in the role of the state to support development.

Three important reasons for which community participation in the development process become essential, are as follows

i) at first, the market mechanism co-ordinates the actions of profit seeking individuals through competition, by signalling price changes

ii) second, the state induces people to adjust resource allocation by using coercive powers at its command

iii) last, a community, however, works differently from a market, or, a state, to guide members towards voluntary consensual cooperation.

Community participation is a process by which a community identifies its needs, or, objectives, gives priorities to them, develops the confidence and will to work at them, finds resources to deal with them, and, in doing so, extends and develops cooperative and collaborative attitudes and practices within the community.

In several subtle ways, the community and state may assume similar forms. For example, a village is a community where villagers cooperate voluntarily. However, villagers may chose to authorise particular individuals to exercise certain coercive powers in the administration of village affairs when it assumes the form of a small state. However, a community and a state are functionally separable. In what follows, we attempt to illustrate the role of community in development by: (a) fostering cooperative action; (b) promoting trust as social capital; and (c) supply of local public goods.

a) Cooperation

The importance of cooperation to improve efficiency in resource allocation and improve benefits (or minimise costs to individuals), may be illustrated by what is popularly known as the Prisoners' dilemma in game theory. The Prisoners' Dilemma (in this specific situation, highlighting benefits from cooperation) may be illustrated as follows. Assume that there are two suspects (A and B) who have been charged with committing a crime. They are taken into custody and confined in separate cells. In their cells, they are respectively interrogated by a prosecutor. The prosecutor threatens each suspect with a heavy penalty, should he continue to deny the charges, while the other suspect confesses. Alternatively, the interrogator tempts each suspect with a small reward, should he confess to the offence while the other party maintains denial. A typical pay-off matrix for such a game may be the following.

B's Strategy

A's Strategy

Strategies	**Cooperation**	**Non-Cooperation**
Cooperation	3, 3	-5, 1
Non-Cooperation	1, -5	-3, -3

Both A and B are faced with two strategic choices, to either cooperate (with each other) or not. Note that cooperation here refers to cooperation between the suspects, not, cooperation of a suspect with the investigation agency. Non cooperation of a suspect with the other may be interpreted as defection from the community. If both A and B cooperate with each other and continue to deny, they may be set free and enjoy a positive pay off of 3 units each. Alternatively, if A decides to cooperate while B chooses to defect, then A ends with a penalty of 5 units while B gets a small reward of 1 unit. The situation gets reversed if A decides to defect while B chooses to cooperate. Note that the suspects are isolated and act simultaneously without any information on other's action. If both A and B choose to defect, they end up with a penalty of 3 units each.

Typically, in such a situation, suspects would adopt a maximin approach whereby they adopt a strategy that maximises their pay-off from among the minimum pay-offs for their alternative strategies. The minimum expected pay off if A chooses to cooperate is -5, while the minimum pay off if he chooses to defect is -3. The maximum between these two pay-off (that is -5 and -3), is -3 and, therefore, A chooses to exercise the strategy which assures this, and he defects. A similar approach is adopted by B. As a result both end up defecting and with a penalty of 3 units each. Thus, while it is possible for the two suspects to gain 3 units each, in the absence of cooperation (alternatively interpreted as presence of moral hazard) they end up with penalties.

This example of Prisoner's Dilemma illustrates how inability to establish cooperative relationships, due to the absence of communication and trust, may push society to a worse outcome than hitherto possible.

b) Trust as Social Capital

The example cited above pertains to an undesirable activity, or, a public bad, but, contrary to what one may like to believe, such situations occur with greater frequency in the context of public goods. Situation analogous to Prisoners' Dilemma are faced commonly by various transacting agents in a society. Is it then possible to improve the outcome of economic transactions say, by use of the legal apparatus provided by the state? In theory, the dilemma can be prevented, if contractual terms and penal clauses against possible violation (non cooperation) could be detailed in a written agreement. This further envisages that a mechanism to appeal for mediation by a third party, such as a court, is possible should a conflict arise. In practice, however, it is difficult to lay down a complete contract detailing all possible situations of conflict, say about product quality, delivery time, etc. with all considerations for future contingencies. The problem is especially confounding for new products that may be technologically complicated and where it is difficult to predict beforehand the contingencies that may arise in development and production stages. In hiring labour, it may be difficult to express clearly, and, in detail, the specific skills and knowledge that a prospective employee may be required to possess. Contingencies that may possibly influence such a transaction are theoretically infinite. Thus, it may not be possible to stipulate, in advance, all appropriate counter measures for all contingencies under the 'bounded rationality' of human beings.

Next, third party mediation, especially formal court procedures may entail significant costs. This could often be inhibiting for arbitration on conflicts involving small sums of money. The scale of production and transactions may be typically small in developing economies. Thus, in developing economies, legal means may have only limited utility in solving a typical problem of prisoners' dilemma. The difficulty may be compounded in economies where formal laws and judicial system are less than adequately evolved.

The basic tenet of prisoners' dilemma is lack of communication and mutual trust between transacting parties. It is possible to prevent such situations by developing trust through formation of community relationships. One possible mechanism for such relationships involves a move away from spot and isolated transactions (between anonymous agents based solely on the price parameter) to long term continuous transactions (repeated games). Mutual trust, created from long term continuous transactions, could be further reinforced by multiple interlinked transactions. For example, a trader may not only purchase a commodity from a particular producer continuously, year after year, but supply him with materials and credits, too. Mutual trust, enhanced by intensified interactions and communication, along with the threat of losing a multifaceted cooperative relationship, may be a strong force to curb moral hazard for both parties. The psychological basis of mutual trust could be strengthened by incorporating personal elements in business transactions, such as exchanges of gifts and attendance at weddings and funerals, etc. Such mutual trust facilitates other collaborative relationships promoting the scope for widening of a community. Mutual trust between transacting individuals when elevated to a moral code in society, induces large reductions in transaction costs. Transaction costs typically include the cost of contract negotiation and enforcement. If one could trust the other party in a contract, the potential for worries from possible default may be commensurately reduced. Thus, trust accumulated through personal interactions

in a community, increases efficiency and reduces costs associated with the division of labour. In this regard, trust is a kind of social capital similar to physical capital, such as roads and harbours.

c) Supply of Local Public Goods

Mutual trust gained from personal interaction comprises social capital for the community. Such trust is a form of local public good that benefits a limited group. In this sense, a community possess a comparative advantage, over markets, or, even a state, in supply of local public goods. This supplements the comparative advantage of a market mechanism to supply private goods, and, of a state to supply national public goods. Indeed, a community may be most effective in discouraging free riding (or identifying and excluding potential free riders).

While there is always some opportunity for free riding (that is, enjoying the benefits of say a village road, but not contributing to its costs, say voluntary labour), trust forged amongst members of a community often works towards raising the supply of local public goods to a social optimum. Efficiency in this supply depends on the effectiveness of the likely social sanctions facing those who violate the community's implicit agreement. Any social formation lacking the requisite, or critical, level of trust capital would fail to provision adequately for local public goods. A higher level of government, like the state, then has to intervene to bridge this deficiency. In most cases this inevitably leads to undersupply of local public goods or high cost, inefficient provisioning.

In this section, you read about the importance of community in development dynamics. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress-2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What is meant by community?

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2) How is the role of community different from that of a market or a state?

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1.4 DUALISM IN DEVELOPMENT DYNAMICS

In the previous section you studied the role of various actors such as the market, state, and community in development dynamics. Another important aspect of development dynamics is dualism, where two opposite system coexist. The two types of dualism discussed in this section of development dynamics are

i) traditional versus modern sector

ii) the one sector model versus the dual sector model of growth

1.4.1 The Traditional versus the Modern Sector

The process of transforming an economy to portray development involves significantly more than a mere increase in incomes and subsequently, consumption levels. It includes certain aspects that make for a living standard, or, quality of life. This constitutes, among others, changes in the way people conduct their life and social relations, manage their wants by commercialisation and urbanisation, organise their political roles, etc. This process of change in the form of institutions and customs embodies modernisation.

Economic change and modernisation are often viewed as autonomous processes that interact in a myriad ways. These interactions, under various conditions either synergise, or, negate the march towards development.

Consider an economy consisting of two sectors that are distinguished in two ways: technological and institutional. One sector has a modern technology, and is assumed to be relatively more productive. People engaged in this sector are geographically scattered, function anonymously, and possess poor information about each other. In contrast, the other sector is traditional, and uses less productive technology. However, people engaged in this sector are relatively less dispersed geographically, and have relatively good information on their neighbours.

Now, consider a situation when some people in the economy seek loans (either to augment current consumption, or, to enhance capital infusion in their activity). Loan transactions, in any situation, run some risk of default by some borrowers. As a result, lenders may be reluctant to lend to those unable to furnish sufficient collateral. In such a situation, superior information in the traditional sector that enables lenders to monitor borrowers better, extends worthy borrowers as good, or better access to credit than they may hope for in the modern sector.

The quality of credit may, thus, be better in the traditional sector. In contrast, credit in the modern sector would be more productive, albeit associated with higher risk. There appears to be a trade off in the traditional sector and the modern sector, between relatively better quality of credit, and the relative potential to raise productivity. Now, consider the possibility of migration, which is arguably a one way flow from the traditional to the modern sector. Only those facing strong incentives would move out of the traditional sector. Two groups, at the extreme ends on an income (or wealth) scale are likely to make this transition.

First, the wealthy, also assumed to be more productive, may be motivated to exercise the option to migrate, and further raise their productivity. On the contrary, the poorest may also migrate as they have nothing to lose from the transition. This, however, assumes that transition is costless. In reality, though, there are

likely to be some transition costs that may inhibit migration. Second, more people transit to the modern sector if the interest rate is either very low, or, very high. At low interest rates, the temptation to default is weak and, therefore, the advantage in the traditional sector from better monitoring is small. In contrast, when interest rates are very high, consumption loans may be unaffordable. In the absence of any uptake, such loans may be rendered redundant. As long as there are a sufficiently large number of people in the traditional sector, high quality information may exist for most of the people, and on average the economy-wide market for consumption loans may work well. This allows lenders to charge a higher rate of interest than otherwise. If the rate of interest in the modern sector is higher, people may then be reluctant to transit from the traditional sector. This may consist of equilibrium with a lower than desirable socially optimal rate of transition out of the traditional sector.

Now, suppose everyone in the traditional sector was forced to move to the modern sector. From the lenders point of view, because of lower quality of information, there may be fewer credit-worthy people, that is, those who present lower credit risks. But, competition among lenders to patronise these (more reliable / less risky) people may drive down interest rates. Then, more people may access consumption loans, even in the modern sector. The number of people working in more productive sectors may rise, and social surplus could be larger.

The dynamics of development in this model is a two-way interaction between the process of growth and the process of institutional change. On one hand, the rate of growth of the economy depends on the number of people who take advantage of new technology. Growth, then, may be constrained by the institutional difference between traditional and modern sectors. On the other hand, long term survival of traditional institutions depends on the rate of growth. As the economy grows, capital becomes abundant and the price of loans in both sectors falls. Declining interest rates reduce agency costs in modern sector, and comparative advantage of the traditional sector in provision of loans also diminishes. People may be further encouraged to migrate to the modern sector. Therefore, in development dynamics, both the traditional and modern sector co-exist and complement and supplement each other. For faster development, the growth rate of both the sectors is essential.

1.4.2 One Sector vs. Two Sector Models

The Ramsey-Cass-Koopmans (RCK) model, sometimes referred to as the one sector model of growth, is a simple, flexible model amenable to a wide range of assumptions. The RCK model continues to be popular in modern economics with its representation of the economy as an optimal control problem. It is utilised to analyse the performance of an economy with rational and utility maximising individuals. It constitutes a representative household, or, individual, who has time for labour, and an endowment of capital from a previous period. Such a household or, person may choose between labour and leisure, and between consuming, or, saving current output. Labour produces output and saving this output generates wealth.

Attributes of the representative household, or individual are inherent throughout the economic system. Individuals have endowments of labour (l) and capital (k). Let, labour earn a wage, w, and capital commands an interest rate, r. The income (y) of the individual is then $y = wl + rk$. However, capital also depreciates at a

rate ä. It is further assumed that r > ä, or else there would be little incentive to hold capital. All income that is not immediately consumed is saved, and invested in the form of k.

Now, rational individuals value future consumption less than present consumption. This is referred to as time discounting. Assume that the representative household discounts future consumption at the rate, ñ. It, then, follows that r must equal ñ + ä. Suppose, r exceeds ñ + ä, then this may lead to excessive saving by postponing current consumption. On the contrary, if r is less than ñ + ä, then people may consume excessively leaving very little savings. Every individual is intuitively driven to maximise utility (Ut) over time (t). Utility is derived out of current consumption and leisure. Growth in this model is essentially determined by savings that are ploughed back into the Economy.

On the contrary, the Dual Sector model, developed by Lewis, is a model framed to explain the growth of a developing economy. The two sectors in such an economy are: (i) a traditional agricultural sector; and (ii) a modern industrial sector. The traditional agricultural sector is characterised by surplus labour that transits to the modern industrial sector. Over time, growth of the industrial sector absorbs surplus labour from the traditional agricultural sector, fostering further industrialisation and stimulating sustained development.

Apart from abundant labour, the traditional agricultural sector is also characterised by relatively low wages and low productivity, although it utilises a labour intensive production process. In contrast, the modern industrial sector is characterised by a relatively higher wage rate, and rising productivity. Initially, there exists a demand for more workers in the industrial sector, though, it is assumed to be utilising a relatively capital intensive production process. Profits made by capitalists are reinvested as capital stock in the modern industrial sector. However, the traditional agricultural sector is less amenable to investment and capital formation, and a low priority is accorded to improving the marginal productivity of labour in this sector. Thus, the hypothetical developing nation's investment goes towards physical capital stock in the industrial sector.

The traditional agricultural sector which is traditional in nature is constrained by the availability of cultivable land. Further, the marginal product of labour in the traditional agricultural sector (that is, the increase in farm output from employing an additional farm labourer) is assumed to be zero. This follows from the law of diminishing marginal returns that runs out its full course on the fixed land input. With marginal productivity set at zero, there exist a number of farm workers who do not contribute to agricultural output. This group is denoted as surplus labour and this cohort could move to another sector without any decline in agricultural output.

To take advantage of higher wages from the industrial sectors, over time, workers may tend to transition from the agricultural to industrial sector. Total agricultural product would remain unchanged, while total industrial product would rise due to the additional labour force. But, additional labour may also drive down marginal productivity and wages in the industrial sector. Over time, the marginal productivity of workers in the industrial sector would be determined by two factors: (a) an increase due to investment fostering capital formation; and (b) a decline, due to more workers transiting from the traditional agricultural sector.

Eventually, the wage rate in the agricultural and industrial sectors would equalise, as workers leaving the agricultural sector would drive down productivity and wages in the industrial sector, while raising marginal productivity and wages in the agricultural sector. The end result of this transition process is that, agricultural wage equals industrial wage, and the marginal product of labour equates across agricultural and industrial sectors.

Growth in this model is, therefore, driven by a continuous supply of labour from the traditional agricultural sector. As long as the number of workers transiting to the industrial sector equals the number of surplus labourers in the agricultural sector, then, regardless of who actually transits, general welfare and productivity continue to rise.

Reality, however, is more complicated than what the theory may predict. The introduction of new productivity enhancing technologies in agriculture, and, intensive (as opposed to extensive) use of labour render more of them as surplus. The differential between agricultural and industrial wages should be sufficient to incentivise transition between the sectors. Industrial sector expansion comes to a halt when this monetary incentive is not strong enough for labour to transit. In other words, transition may not be costless. The relative bargaining power of workers also influences the cost of labour. In practice again, some relatively strong assumptions on individual rationality, perfect information, and almost limitless capital formation potential in industry, may not be realised. However, the model presents a general theory of labour transiting to modern sector in developing economies.

In this section, you have studied dualism in development dynamics. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress-3.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What are the two essential differences between the traditional and modern sectors?

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2) What are the differences between the one sector growth model and the dual sector growth model?

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1.5 LET US SUM UP

This unit began by defining the specific domains of the essential institutions of development, namely, markets and governments. This was followed by examples highlighting the common causes of failures, or, of limitations in effectiveness of these institutions, especially in less developed countries. The role of community-based interactions to lubricate the functioning of markets and governments was discussed. Special emphasis was laid on the mechanism to build trust that can ultimately lead to realising certain goals of development by fostering growth by reducing the costs of transactions. A common economic activity that relies significantly on trust, apart from other observable attributes, or, quantifiable inputs, concerns the market for credit and debt. Access to, or, availability of credit is often seen as an important factor to facilitate resource allocation. Efficiency in resource allocation, in turn, is the principal ingredient of development. Further, the process of modernisation is vacuous if it fails to reduce the cost of credit, or, to motivate improved productivity of labour. Finally, simple models were described, where growth is led by ploughing back savings as investments, or, by labour transiting to more productive sectors of the economy.

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1.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress- 1

1) What is a market? Explain the role of market in development.

Answer. Market is a place where the buyers and sellers meet and buying and selling activities takes place. Market plays an important role in development. As the prices of goods are determined as per their demand in the market, therefore, the sellers those who are largely the private actors emphasise on the quality of goods and services in order to fetch a competitive price in the market. Thus market many a time fulfils the qualitative dimension of development.

2) Does failure of government lead to the rise of the market? Illustrate?

Answer. The monopoly in the market sometimes hampers the wellbeing of the disadvantaged. Therefore, the intervention of state has become imminent. The state interventions in public health, health and education has helped the development of the socio-economically disadvantaged section of the society.

Check Your Progress -2

1) What do you mean by community?

Answer. Customarily, community means a tribe or a village with individuals bonded by blood or locational affinities. In Indian context, the community can also be defined in terms of religion and location such as Muslim community, Hindu community, Tribal community, etc. Each community tries to develop their own community when they perceive it in the prism of parochialism.

2) How is the role of community different from that of a market or a state?

Answer. The role of community is different from those of the market and government, in the following ways:

i) At the outset, they initiate co-operative action through consultation and mutual understanding; and

ii) Secondly, they generate social capital through collection for public good; and

iii) Thirdly, they made available local public goods which are cost effective.

Check Your Progress- 3

1) What are the two essential differences between a traditional and a modern sector?

Answer. The one sector model is characterised by a sector which is governed by mainly the traditional economy, where labour is the fundamental factor of production. While in the dualistic model both labour and capital play important role. There are different types of dualism such as socio-cultural dualism, ecological dualism, technological dualism, enclave dualism, financial dualism, etc.

2) What are the differences between one sector and dual sector growth model?

Answer. The Ramsey-Cass-Koopmans (RCK) model, sometimes referred as one sector model of growth. It is utilised to analyse the performance of an economy with rational and utility maximising individuals. It constitutes of a representative household / individual, who has time (for labour**)** and an endowment of capital from previous period. On the contrary, the Dual Sector model comprising of traditional and industrial, developed by Lewis, is a model framed to explain growth of a developing economy. The traditional agricultural sector is characterised by surplus labour that transits to the modern industrial sector. Over time, growth of the industrial sector absorbs surplus labour from the traditional agricultural sector, fostering further industrialisation and stimulating sustained development.

UNIT 2 DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES, APPROACHES AND STRATEGIES

Structure

2.1 Introduction

2.2 The Evolution and Role of Development Economics

2.3 Alternative Approaches to Development

2.4 The Processes of Development: Theoretical Perspectives

2.5 Strategies for Development

2.6 Let Us Sum Up

2. 7 References and Selected Readings

2.8 Check Your Progress -- Possible Answers

2.1 INTRODUCTION

You might frequently hear and talk about development, which you normally measure in terms of increase in income, infrastructure, quality of life, etc. Development is a dynamic concept. The processes, approaches and strategies of development vary from one country to another. They also vary in different regions within the same country, and from one community to another. In this unit, you will read about the processes, approaches and strategies of development. Before narrating these three key aspects, we will discuss the evolution and role of development economics in development, in the first section.

After studying this unit you should be able to

- Explain the evolution and role of development economics
- Discuss alternative approaches to development
- Narrate various process of development from theoretical perspectives
- Explain various strategies of development.

2.2 THE EVOLUTION AND ROLE OF DEVELOPMENT ECONOMICS

After World War II, some of the terms used to describe the economic situation in developing economies were 'vicious circle of poverty', or, a 'low-level equilibrium trap'. The goal of development is to take these economies out of this situation and settle them on a path of self-sustaining growth. This is what Schumpeter had in mind, even though, perhaps, he did not have contemporary developing countries in mind. He considered development, in contrast to mere growth, of an economy, as "a distinct phenomenon, entirely foreign to what may be observed in the circular flow, or in the tendency towards equilibrium. It is spontaneous and discontinuous change in the channels of flow, which forever alters and displaces the equilibrium previously existing". Schumpeter further emphasized the role of innovation and concomitant anticipation of private entrepreneurial profit as major factors in driving development. However, economists writing after the mid-1940s, and in the 1950s, visualized a dominant

role for the state in initiating, and sustaining the development process. As a corollary, comprehensive national development planning, under state patronage, gained currency. However, state interventions in one developing country after another appeared to open-up yawning gaps which resulted in an overemphasis on development planning.

Adam Smith's hypothesis of the 'invisible hand' was rigorously re-stated as a fundamental theorem of welfare economics under the neo-classical paradigm. This is discussed in a later section. First, under a set of mild restrictions on production technology and individual preferences, the equilibrium following from a laissez-faire (least intervention) policy is the Pareto Optimal. Pareto optimality is obtained when any departure from it cannot prevent at least one individual becoming worse-off. Simply put, benefits for some can come only at the expense, or loss in welfare of others. However, the Pareto optimal does not imply that equilibrium is fair. The distribution of income emerging from a laissez-faire policy could be unequal. Second, given a set of certain restrictive assumptions (including the absence of technological externalities, or of increasing returns to scale in production, and of convexity of consumer preferences), a Pareto optimum may be sustained as a competitive equilibrium, provided income (or initial endowments) could be redistributed through lump sum transfers, or other non-distortionary means. Thus, both, the efficiency of resource allocation and distributional equity, could possibly be achieved, although with redistribution, rather than laissez-faire, possibilities. Arrow and Debreu extended the 'static' or 'certainty' theorems to cover resource allocations in time, space, and in uncertain states of nature.

The focal subject in development economics attempts to explain differences in standards of living both within and between countries. Development economists also ask the question: why do standards of living change with varying speed, within, or across countries. They work with governments in less developed countries (LDCs) to help formulate policies that promote growth, or to remove hindrances to growth. Economic thinking on what policies work, or do not work, has also evolved significantly over the past several decades. For example, investing in assets such as machines and factories remained a priority for a long time, but in more recent decades, investment in education and health, for example, building more schools, and training more doctors and nurses, is considered to be more effective. While many economists view government planning as essential for development, several among them emphasise limited government intervention and a wider role for free markets.

Debates and controversies are a constant feature of economics, as indeed, they fashion almost all research. These debates have characterized development economics with constantly evolving views on what constitutes 'development' itself. Significant effort has gone into liberating its scope from the narrow confines of income, or wealth, to encompass hard-to-measure attributes of well-being, and happiness. A common approach has been to supplement the income, or wealth dimension, with several other dimensions that also serve a desirable social objective. In order to distinguish development from mere growth (in average incomes), and to lay emphasis on both inter and intra-generational aspects, the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development defined sustainable development as: "In particular, sustainable development approach calls for a multi-dimensional metric along economic, environmental and social attributes".

Over the years, a clear trend has emerged, with gradual movement away from narrow measures of 'standards of living' as indicators of development, towards broader and arguably more comprehensive measures for 'quality of life'. However, assigning a line separating the 'less developed' from 'developed' countries involves large elements of subjectivity. While certain broad ranges of average per capita income are often used to categorize economies along the 'development' scale, countries that follow varying conventions to define the 'poor' (that is those for whom development remains elusive also used as indicators of development and backwardness). In absolute terms, the terms 'underdeveloped', 'developing' and 'developed' could be explained with examples. For example, there are three geographic clusters, arguably constituting the lower end on a development scale, which house a majority of relatively poor countries.

These are: (i) sub-Sahara African countries (located south of the Sahara Desert) such as Nigeria, Ethiopia, Kenya, and Zimbabwe; (ii) Central and South Asia, including some countries from the erstwhile Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) countries, such as Tajikistan and Uzbekistan, as well as densely populated countries, like India, and Bangladesh (iii) Latin America, including Mexico and Central American countries such as Nicaragua and Haiti, and South American countries, such as Brazil and Peru.

However, wide differences in standards of living are apparent even within these three areas. Broadly speaking, poverty is much more widespread and severe in sub-Saharan Africa than in Latin America which includes relatively richer countries, such as Chile and Argentina. Relatively poor countries also exist in East Asia (China and Vietnam), Eastern Europe (Bulgaria and Romania), the Middle East and North Africa (Iraq and Algeria). In recent years, though, some countries (namely, Mexico, Brazil, and China) have successfully transited to the group of middle income countries.At the upper end of the development scale are the relatively rich countries, also referred to as the more developed countries (MDCs). These include, (i) The United States of America and Canada, in North America, (ii) Several West European countries (for example, Germany, United Kingdom) (iii) Australia and New Zealand (iv) some EastAsian countries (for example, Japan, Singapore) (v) A few Middle Eastern countries (for example, Kuwait and Bahrain).

On the other hand, if we take the performance of various countries, in relative terms of development, then we can consider the following points: (a) The average income in Uganda more than doubled between 1975 and 2004, but during that period it has more than tripled in Chile, quadrupled in Thailand, and grew almost 11 times in China. Thus, some of these countries managed to break out of the category of LDCs, and safely perched themselves in the bracket of middle income countries (b) Not all LDCs experienced growth. For example the average income declined by more than 45, 60, and 75 per cent respectively in Zambia, Sierra Leone, and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Besides, wide differences are also observed in achievements along development indicators for quality of life. (c) The average expectation of life at birth (that is the number of years that a newborn child can expect to live), increased from 38 to 48 years in Mali, from 54 to 68 years in Honduras, and from 45 to 64 years in Bangladesh over nearly three decades since the early 1970s, but, it declined from 54 to 47 years in Kenya, from 50 to 37 years in Zambia, and from 56 to 37 years in Zimbabwe over the same interval (UNDP 2006). The search for explanations to such widely divergent outcomes constitutes an important agenda of studies in development economics.

2.3 ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT

After studying the importance of development economics, you will learn about the alternative approaches to development, discussed in this section.

The three main approaches to development are as follows

i) The Marxian Approach

ii) The Structuralist Approach

iii) The Market versus Government Intervention Approach

i) The Marxian Approach

In the Marxian approach, the forces of production represented by available technology at any point in historical time, and the existing relations of production, represented by the institutions governing ownership and access to the means of production, determine equilibrium. Exogenous technical progress, that is, shifts in the forces of production, disturbs this equilibrium, inducing a realignment of relations of production that results in a new equilibrium which replaces the pre-existing equilibrium. In this linear view, capitalistic production relations supplant feudal relations, as changes in technology (particularly after the industrial revolution) make feudal relations obsolete. The recurrent crises predicted for mature capitalism were expected to lead to socialism and eventually to communism. The rational-choice school of Marxism (also known as neo classical Marxism) however, does not view the world in the rigidly deterministic way described above, and allows some scope of action for individuals.

ii) The Structuralist Approach

In the structuralist approach to development, rigidities of various kinds preclude the rapid and quantitatively significant response of an economy to changing incentives as conveyed by market signals. Thus, for example, the supply response to improved terms of trade for agriculture, the dominant sector in early stages of development, is said to be negligible, at least in the short to medium term. The prospects of acquiring growing amounts of foreign exchange through exports of traditional products, that are deemed essential for obtaining or financing vital imports, may then be considered to be low. Even if market failures, in the neo classical sense, were absent, development could be hampered, unless some strategy is adopted (for example, import substituting industrialisation) that alleviates structural rigidities. The dualism between traditional agriculture and modern industries or rural and urban sectors, is another example of structural rigidity. However, in behavioural terms, neither is the origin of the rigidities, nor is their persistence, satisfactorily explained in the structuralist approach.

iii) Market versus Government Intervention Approach

Whatever the approach, development remains the objective of any economy in the world. In Sen's words it is the 'expansion of choices' that has several dimensions, and this, can be only achieved through a concerted effort of the government, and a well-functioning market. Recent theoretical advances

investigate the origins and consequences of incomplete market, imperfect information, transaction costs, and imperfect competition to guide strategic behaviour. These postulate that the allocation of resources may not be Pareto optimal, and so, envisage a role for government intervention.

The analytical case for state intervention in developing economies was based on the arguments of all-pervasive externalities and significant scale-economies, particularly in network based infrastructure sectors, such as transport and communications. Further, developing economies are likely to have segmented and imperfect capital markets, with limited intermediation from the financial system. The entrepreneurial class in such economies is likely to be minuscule, both because of constraints on entrepreneurial activity, and stunted markets for risk pooling, or sharing. Under such circumstances, it was argued, that market failure may be the rule rather than an exception. The state may then have to perform the role of a Schumpeterian entrepreneur (indulging in creative destruction). It may further have to intervene in markets, through a mechanism of taxes and subsidies, to facilitate adequate accounting for externalities.

This also brought to question the 'trickle down' hypothesis which suggests that higher gains by a relative minority in the population could, eventually, lead to gradual sharing of these benefits with those who may not gain directly from a reform programme. Two forms of reform, or developmental change, may be deciphered. These have often been studied in the context of tax and subsidy policies, but are relevant, also, for more general policy analysis. First, a reform may be Pareto improving, if it improves the wellbeing of at least one individual, and reduces the wellbeing of none. That is, wellbeing, as measured by, say, the income level, or, say, the consumption level, should improve, or, at least not decline, for all, or at the least, for one, irrespective of their social merit. But, note that it makes no reference to ranking (along the income, or consumption scale) of households that might be altered due to these reforms. In reality, though, retaining the relative ranking may be an important concern. This, then, calls for an alternative form, described as Dalton improvement. According to Dalton's principle, there exists a prior social ranking of households. A transfer is approved, if it distributes from high-ranking (rich) to low-ranking (poor) households, without altering the ranking itself. For example, if one looks at taxation as a negative income transfer (burden), then the shifting of this burden from the poor (have-nots) to the rich (haves) can be considered to be fair, as long as it does not disturb the ordinality (as measured on the income scale) of the individuals (households) in the economy. In reality, adopting a policy programme, or finding a solution that satisfies either criterion (that is Pareto improving or Dalton improving) may be difficult to attain. In particular, consider the example of a revenue neutral tax reform programme. By definition, such a programme violates the Pareto criteria as it would involve some losers and some gainers. In the case of revenue-non-neutral programmes, there may be multiple solutions that satisfy both criteria, making it difficult to exercise an easy choice. These reform criteria, however, serve an important purpose. It may be stated that Dalton improving reforms are geared towards reducing inequality say, in income distribution, or in consumption, or of opportunities, or as in the example above, tax incidence, etc.. In contrast, Pareto improving reforms are geared towards increasing the size of the cake, but, are not necessarily geared to address the issue of inequality, and, are distinct from a programme of sharing (distribution) of the cake.

In a sense, a Pareto improving reform appears to be more in consonance with measures such as poverty reduction programmes that involve growth aspects, while Dalton improving reforms are geared towards addressing issues that relate to inequality reduction, and redistribution programmes. While desirable from a social perspective, programmes that could possibly deliver such outcomes often face severe administrative hurdles, and even opposition from certain groups.

In this section, you studied the evolution and role of development economics and alternate approaches to development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 1.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What is Development Economics?

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2) Write a short note on the Structuralist approach.

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2.4 THE PROCESSES OF DEVELOPMENT: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Paul Rosenstein-Rodan, Kurt Mandelbaum, and Ragnar Nurksemade seminal contributions to modern development economics. The need for industrialisation, and the problems of Eastern Europe in the aftermath of World War II, added new dimensions to the literature. Simon Kuznets and W. Arthur Lewis, with their insightful analysis, highlighted the special concerns in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The theories discussed below go on to describe the process of development. However, given the complex nature of processes involved, most descriptions of this nature, are susceptible to limitations when they are applied to specific country situations. This should not be construed as a complete failure of the theory to identify, and, to describe the process of development. Further, the dynamic and evolving nature of the development defies the certainty that theoretical descriptions offer.

With this background, the following theoretical models attempt to classify various philosophical strands that theorize the processes underlying development in modern literature. These are:

i) The Linear Stages of Growth Model

ii) The Structural Change Theory

iii) The International Dependence Theory

iv) The Neo Classical Theory

2.4.1 The Linear Stages of Growth Model

The linear-stages-of-growth model was accorded a framework (in the 1950s) by W. W. Rostow in "The Stages of Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto". The Rostow framework differed from Marx's earlier exposition, and focused on accelerated accumulation of capital. The manifesto said that both domestic and international savings are utilized to spur investment. This serves as the primary engine to promote economic growth and hence, development. The model posits five consecutive stages that all countries must pass through on the way to development. These stages are (i) Traditional society; (ii) Pre-conditions for take-off; (iii) Take-off ; (iv) Drive to maturity; and (v) Stage of high mass-consumption. Increase in capital investment that leads to greater economic growth is illustrated mathematically with simple versions of the Harrod-Domar Model.

This theory, developed in the early years of Cold War, largely derives its credence from the success of the Marshall Plan. The Marshall Plan (officially the European Recovery Program) was formulated in the United States of America to rebuild, create a stronger foundation for the countries of Western Europe, and to repel communism after World War II. The reconstruction plan, developed at a meeting of the participating European states, was established on June 5, 1947. The plan was in operation for four years beginning in April 1948. During that period nearly 13 billion USD in economic and technical assistance, were given to help the recovery of European countries that joined Organisation for European Economic Co-operation. By the time of the completion of this plan, the economy of every participating state, with the exception of Germany, had grown well beyond their pre-war levels. Over the following couple of decades, many regions of Western Europe enjoyed unprecedented growth and prosperity. The Marshall Plan also came to be seen as one of the first steps towards integration that erased certain trade barriers, and fostered the setting-up of institutions to coordinate economic activity at a continental level. However, a major criticism of the theory following this plan pertains to a presumption that the prevalent conditions in developing countries are similar to those in post World War II Europe. The theory inadequately accounts for the distinctive milieu of political, social, and institutional features that hinder development. It came to be recognized that capital accumulation, while necessary, may not be sufficient to foster development.

2.4.2 The Structural Change Theory

Policies and programs that are geared to influence changes in economic structures are the subject matter of investigations of structural change theory. Structural change theory postulates the process of development that helps economies make a transition from rural and subsistence agricultural practices to modern, urbanized, and industrially diverse manufacturing and service activities. Two major strands

of this theory gained prominence. The one proposed by W. Lewis, known as the two-sector surplus model. In this model, agrarian societies are assumed to possess significant surplus labor that could be utilized to spur the urban industrial sector. The other, proposed by Hollis Chenery, is essentially an empirical investigation into the 'sequential' process by which the economic, industrial and institutional structure of an underdeveloped economy is transformed over time, and, to see how that permits new industries to replace traditional agriculture as an engine of economic growth. Such contributions in the literature popularized the patterns of the development strand of structural change theory.

Some researchers have questioned the critical assumption regarding the existence of surplus labor in a two-sector surplus model. Empirical studies confirm that labour surpluses are often only seasonal in nature. Further, drawing this labour away to urban areas could, potentially, cause a collapse of the agricultural sector. A major shortcoming with 'patterns of development' literature has been the absence of a formal theoretical framework. Both strands of the structural change theory inadvertently emphasize an urban centric agenda, often with adverse consequences for rural areas.

2.4.3 International Dependence Theory

The linear stages of growth and structural change models were severely limited in their ability to explain situations of the kind faced by less developed countries (LDCs) over prolonged periods. The decade of 1970s saw the emergence of international dependence theories. Originating in developing countries, the international dependence theories posited that obstacles to development were primarily external to the economy. These theories portrayed developing countries as being economically and politically dependent on powerful developed countries that are guided by self-interest, and have dominance as an objective. There are three major forms of this theory (a) the neo colonial dependence theory; (b) the false paradigm theory; and (c) the dualistic dependence theory.

a) The Neo Colonial Dependence Theory

With its roots in Marxism, this theory proposed that the failure to develop was an outcome of the historical evolution of the international capitalist system. Richer countries used their political power to exploit developing countries and gain control over their resources, as was the case during the colonial period. Although most of the developing countries are independent, they tend to be dominated by tiny elite groups who cornered the benefits from an exploitative relationship with developed countries. These elite groups often worked as conduits to perpetuate a situation of dependence, to the detriment of a vast majority of their own people. Protagonists of this theory view international trade, as well as the idea of a global economy, with scepticism, and as the principal forerunner for a vicious cycle of downward spiralling underdevelopment.

b) The False Paradigm Theory

The false paradigm theory relates to contributions in economic literature that often see underdevelopment as being fostered by well-meaning, but inappropriate advice from aid agencies, and other MDC (more developed countries) trained economists. Often referred to as 'one-size fits-all' programmes, these have been criticised for worsening the prospects of several LDCs. In particular, the external

advice tended to overlook several important institutional features, including, traditional social structures, highly unequal ownership of land, disproportionate, elitist control over financial assets, and access to credit.

c) The Dualistic Dependence Theory

According to this theory, when key international economic decisions are made in developed countries, there is an inherent intent on the part of these countries to maintain continued dependence of developing countries. While shedding light on some historical obstacles to development, the international dependence theory appears to be silent on the way forward for the less developed economies. On the contrary, it was perceived that several developing economies have managed to achieve high rates of growth. Thus, the evidence goes against the contention of economic exploitation. Indeed, by reorienting their outlook towards international trade, developing countries have made significant gains. Increasingly, developmental economists recognise that using a theory that emphasises 'external' obstacles to development may only serve as a convenient method to put off efforts that are necessary for development. Despite several shortcomings, the discourse originating with dependency theories played a critical role in highlighting issues of inequality. Further, it also sowed that the 'institutions' and 'governance' as key developmental concerns.

2.4.4 The Neo Classical Theory

A radical shift away from the international dependence theory began to emerge in the 1980s. The neo classical theory essentially argued for unobstructed free markets as the best conduit for rapid and successful development. Unfettered markets, it came to be believed, would not only foster competition, they would also ensure the efficient allocation of resources that, in turn, would push a developing economy on to a stable growth path. Surprisingly, the theory evolved almost alongside the rise of conservative governments in the western economies.

Three differing strands of this theory gradually began to take shape. These are: (i) the free market approach; (ii) the public choice theory; and (iii) the market-friendly approach. Of these, the first two contended that markets should be totally free, and that any government intervention is necessarily bad. The public choice theory, associated with libertarianism, is perhaps more radical in arguing that governments themselves are rarely good, and therefore, their intervention should be minimal. The market-friendly approach has gained currency in more recent years. While continuing to advocate free markets, the theory recognises several market imperfections, especially in the developing economies. It, thus, argues in favour of government intervention to fix several such imperfections. The three approaches essentially differ on the nature and extent of market regulation.

Robert Solow was one of the pioneers of the neo classical theory of development. In the Solow model, workers produce output by using tools and machines in factories (collectively referred as capital). Income per worker increases with an increase in output per worker. Workers can produce more output when they work with more tools. Thus, in Solow's model, growth (in income) requires capital accumulation. Firms should, therefore, be willing and able to invest in equipment that makes workers more productive. Solow also recognised that there are only so many machines that any given worker could use. Thus, at some point increasing capital becomes less and less helpful in raising workers' productivity. Growth

(in income) in such a situation can be sustained only if accompanied by technological progress, or innovations, to make resources (labour and capital) more productive over time.

Romer, a renowned development economist, argued that government fiscal and monetary policies alone are unlikely to promote economic growth. Fiscal policies, such as greater government spending, or cuts in taxes (that may translate to higher consumption expenditure) could, at best, provide a short run stimulus to the economy. When government or people consume more, firms also produce more to satisfy this demand. However, more consumption expenditure implies less saving, and less saving leads to less deposit in banks for firms to borrow. This makes it harder for firms to expand through capital accumulation. Thus, the boost to economic activity from an increase in spending is only temporary. Similarly, monetary policy measures that are designed to increase money supply may also induce a temporary surge in spending. But, in the long run they do little to raise an economy's stock of capital, or advanced technology.

Like Solow, Romer emphasises production method improvements for long run economic growth, and further elaborates how this could be achieved. Specifically, he highlights the role of knowledge accumulation from investment in education, and in research and development. Romer also suggested that governments could consider subsidising research that facilitates innovation, and resist extending support to dying industries that fail to innovate.

2.5 STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPMENT

In the earlier sections, three broad approaches of development were discussed: Marxian, structuralist, and neo-classical. Now, let us discuss various strategies of development. The strategies adopted for development vary from the developed to developing nations. Some of the important common strategies of development discussed below are as follows:

a) The Agricultural Transformation Strategy

Countries attempt to transform the structure of their economies by adopting modern agrarian technologies, with significant improvement in agricultural yields. Often, the newer technologies are relatively more capital intensive. If appropriately supplemented by an industrialisation programme, excess labour (from agriculture) may be absorbed in the industrial sector, and enhance the country's productivity.

b) The Export Orientation Strategy

Countries, specifically certain Asian economies like South Korea, and more recently China, have successfully derived large gains from this strategy. In some countries, export orientation, or dependence on exports, could even be higher than domestic demand. Also referred to as outward orientation, this strategy runs the risk of being severely impacted by the vagaries in the international economic climate. Countries that adopt this strategy need strong exchange rate management programmes.

c) The Import Substitution Strategy

Several developing economies adopted this strategy to pursue goals of self-sufficiency. This strategy is more pronounced in the agricultural sector dominated

economics driven by the innate need for food and nutritional security. Often this strategy also entails strong thrift (savings) programmes, supplemented by policies that facilitate foreign direct investment.

Several developing economies adopted this strategy to pursue goals of self-sufficiency. This strategy is more pronounced in the agricultural sector dominated economics driven by the innate need for food and nutritional security. Often this strategy also entails strong thrift (savings) programmes, supplemented by policies that facilitate foreign direct investment.

d) The Urbanization Strategy

An urbanization policy often entails a coherent migration programme. If executed well, this strategy plays a vital role in bringing huge gains in economic efficiency (in terms of resource utilization) and all-round productivity improvements (increasing returns to scale of operation, improved network, and infrastructure). During the 1950s and the early 1960s, there was vigorous emphasis on industrialization and urbanization. But, gradually, country after country realized that the answer to the problems of development was not necessarily urbanization and industrialization. They realised that the whole development process should be so articulated that urbanization should promote rural development, and that rural development should back up urban development.

e) The Decentralization Strategy

In recent years, many countries in the world have talked of decentralization. It is believed that decentralization would hasten the development process. In actual practice, the centralization process weakens popular participation, which is an indispensable element of development. The votaries of decentralization, believe that a decentralized system which allows participatory development from below is a must for a developing society. However, many also believe that a proper blend of centralized and decentralized systems is necessary for faster development, giving the argument that "centralization in autarchic forms is bad, and so is decentralization in anarchic forms."

f) Socio-Economic Planning Strategy

The post World War II period saw the resurgence of economic planning as a major strategy of development. The Russian experience of centralized planning boosted the morale of these developmental economists. Centralized planning gradually led to decentralized planning for faster development of regional and local areas. In India, planning has percolated to even state, district, and village levels. Decentralized planning has been emphasized on the grounds that it provides better allocation of resources, and faster development at the grassroots level.

g) The Growth with Distribution Strategy

The controversy of growth measured in terms of GNP, or per capita income as a strategy of development, as against distributive justice, or quality of life is well known. India, and several other countries, such as China have a similar view point. Growth first, and distribution second, with the belief in the tickle down effect suits the interest of the ruling elites of the LDCs, and the interest of the

aid-giving countries as well. It was further believed that once growth began, everyone's interest could be taken care off. But, the question of social justice, the upliftment of the poor, and the issues relating to the quality of life was almost lost. Therefore, the strategy of growth with distributive justice has occupied centre stage in discussions in developing countries. It is by no means to contend that countries face similar problems or achieve similar successes from adopting a particular strategy. Nor can one presume that a country that has successfully gained from a chosen strategy might be equally successful with others. Different countries at different points of time lay somewhat more, or less emphasis on some particular strategy or another. The experience with outcomes from those strategies depends, not just on the initial economic conditions, but on the social, cultural, and religious contours, too. Often, the pace of adoption of a strategy may be critical in determining success in implementation.

In this section, you have read about theoretical perspectives and strategies for development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress -2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Briefly describe Rostow's stages of growth model as a process of development?

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2) Why is decentralisation considered an important strategy for development?

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2.6 LET US SUM UP

This unit begins with a brief description of the scope and domain of the subject of development economics, and identifies some broad grouping of countries on the basis of their development. Alternative strategies, such as the Marxian approach, the structuralist approach, and the market versus government intervention approach have been discussed. In the last section, various strategies of development have been discussed.

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2.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress- 1

1) What is Development Economics?

Answer: Development economics is a branch of economics which deals with the development aspects such as growth and development, standards of living, quality of life, and so on. Development is a dynamic concept, and so is development economics.

2) Write a short note on the structuralist approach.

Answer: The structuralists believe that the development of an economy depends on the structure of the economy. The terms of trade and other structural factors, such as dualism of agriculture and industry, rural and urban sector influence development.

Check Your Progress -2

1) Briefly describe Rostow's stages of growth model as a process of development?

Answer:W.W .Rostow has given the stages of growth model. According to him, the various stages of growth are:

(i) Traditional Society (ii) Pre-conditions for take-off(iii) Take off (iv) Drive to maturity (v) Stage of high mass consumption. According to Rostow, both domestic and international savings foster economic development.

2) Why is decentralization considered as an important strategy for development?

Answer: Decentralisation is considered basic strategy for development because it hastens the process of participation which is central to the development of developing societies. Many European countries and India follow decentralisation as a strategy for development.

UNIT 3 SOCIAL AND CULTURAL DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT

Structure

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Social Development: Emerging Concepts

3.3 Social Development Theory

3.4 Social Development Index

3.5 Social Processes of Development

3.6 Social Dynamics of Development

3.7 Culture and Cultural Dynamics

3.8 Cultural Obstacles to Development

3.9 Let Us Sum Up

3.10 References and Selected Readings

3.11 Check Your Progress - Possible Answers

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this unit is to provide a general introduction to the dynamics of social and cultural development. It is now well understood that historical, institutional, social, cultural, demographic, political, and ecological factors are all of great importance for the analysis of economic development. It is also well known that the concept of development is much broader than that of economic development alone. Development involves a wide range of changes in a variety of social indicators, such as health, education, technology, or life expectancy, which are directly, or, indirectly linked to economic changes, but, which need to be studied in their own right. Although, demographic and human factors play an important role in the primary production process, other social factors such as health, disease, mortality, life expectancy, and education are important as independent aspects of development.

The social and cultural dynamics of development are processes that result in the change of social structure in a manner that improves the capacity of a society to fulfil its aspirations. The aspirations range from a variety of issues including personal security, safety, happiness, nutritional satisfaction, education, and include health issues, hygiene, emotional, and intellectual satisfaction. It can also be summarized as the process of organizing human energies and activities at higher levels to achieve greater results. Development increases the opportunities for greater utilization of human potential, and society develops by consciousness. The process that is subconscious in the society emerges as conscious knowledge in pioneering individuals. Therefore, one can say that development is a process, and not a programme. While, not all social change constitutes development, the term is usually applied to changes that are beneficial to society, it may result in negative side-effects, or, consequences that undermine, or, eliminate existing ways of life that are considered positive. Therefore, the social and cultural dynamics of development are continuous processes of change which are

influenced by development quite substantially, and, they determine the direction of further and future development.

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- Establish relationship between society, change and development
- Explain the basic issues of social transformation
- Analyse various indicators of social and cultural change
- Identify the functional dimensions of society and development, and various problems of social change

3.2 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT: EMERGING CONCEPTS

Social development is a cross-cutting approach to development that promotes policies and institutions in support of

- greater inclusiveness and equity in access to services, resources, and opportunities
- greater empowerment of poor and marginalized groups to participate in social, economic, and political life
- greater security to cope with the chronic or sudden risks, especially for the poor and marginalized groups and segments

Social development is the capacity of individuals and communities to take upon themselves the direction of their own development. The notion of human resource development becomes central in social development, as individuals collectively form a society. The old formulation that literacy leads to development is quite different from the new notion that literacy is embedded in social practice and has social meanings. Approaching the question of literacy from this perspective is not to consider education as an independent commodity, but to analyse carefully the literate competencies needed in a specific society, and to link education and literacy to the social practices people are involved in. Only by approaching literacy in this manner can adult literacy be seen as integral to the development process.

Social development can be summarized as the process of organizing human energies and activities at higher levels to achieve greater results. The development process increases the stances and opportunities for the utilization of human potential. In the absence of a valid theory in the sphere of social development, the concept of social development remains largely a process of trial and error experimentation. The dismal consequences of transition strategies in most Eastern Europe countries, the very halting progress of many African and Asian countries, the increasing income gap between the most and least developed societies, and the distressing linkage between rising incomes, environmental depletion, crime and violence, reflect the fact that humanity is vigorously pursuing a process without the full knowledge needed to guide and govern it effectively. Social development consists of two interrelated aspects – learning and application. Society discovers better ways to fulfil its aspirations, and it develops organizational mechanisms to express that knowledge to achieve its social and economic goals. The process of discovery expands human consciousness, and the process of application enhances social organization. Society develops in

response to the contact and interaction between human beings and their material, social and intellectual environment.

3.3 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Historically, society has developed by a trial and error process of physical experimentation, not unlike the way children learn through a constant process of physical exploration, testing and even tasting. Physically, this process leads to the acquisition of new physical skills that enable individuals to utilize their energies more efficiently and effectively. Socially, it leads to the learning and mastery of organizational skills, vital attitudes, systems and institutions that enable people to manage their interactions with other people and other societies more effectively. Mentally, it leads to the organization of facts as information and the interpretation of information as thought. The conceptual mind is the highest, most conscious human faculty. Conceptual knowledge is the organization of ideas by the power of the mind. That conceptual knowledge becomes most powerful when it is organized into a system. Theory is a systematic organization of knowledge. A comprehensive theory of social development would provide a conceptual framework for discovering the underlying principles common to the development process in different fields of activity, countries, and periods. It would also provide a framework for understanding the relationships between the accumulated knowledge generated by many different disciplines. If pursued to its logical conclusions, it would lead to not just a theory of social development, but a unifying theory of knowledge—which does not yet exist in any field of science or art. Historically, advances in our understanding of material and biological process have far outstripped advances in our understanding of social processes. As a result, vast social potential has been created, but society has not yet acquired the capacity to fully utilize it for its own development. A theory of development should aim at a knowledge that will enable society more consciously and effectively to utilize its development potentials.

In most discussions, development has been conceived in terms of a set of desirable results — higher incomes, longer life expectancy, lower infant mortality, and more education. Recently, the emphasis has shifted from results to the enabling conditions, strategies and public policies for achieving those results — peace, democracy, social freedoms, equal access, laws, institutions, markets, infrastructure, education, and technology. But, still little attention has been placed on the underlying social process of development that determines how society formulates, adopts, initiates, and organizes, and few attempts have been made to formulate such a framework.

A very large number of factors and conditions influence the process. In addition to all the variables that influence material and biological processes, social processes involve the interaction of political, social, economic cultural, technological and environmental factors as well. The basic principles of development theory must be as applicable to the development of early tribal societies as they are to the emergence of the post modern global village. Development theory must be a theory of how human society advances through space and time.

However, social development theory remains elusive because the very nature of social learning is a subconscious seeking by the collective that leads ultimately

to conscious knowledge. We experience first and understand later. Our mental comprehension perpetually lags behind physical experience and struggles to catch up with it. Our view is that the very intensive, concentrated global experience of the past five decades provides fertile soil for the formulation of a more synthetic conceptual framework for social development. Such a framework can vastly accelerate the transfer and replication of developmental achievements around the world and make possible more conscious and rapid progress even for the most advanced societies in the world.

These observations suggest a starting point for formulation of a comprehensive conceptual framework.

- Social Development theory should focus on underlying processes rather than on surface activities and results, since development activities, policies, strategies, programs, and results will always be limited to a specific context and circumstance, whereas social development itself encompasses a potentially infinite field in space and time.
- The theory should recognize the inherent creativity of individuals and of societies in which they fashion instruments and direct their energies to achieve greater results. It should view development as a human creative process, rather than as the product of any combination of external factors, or, objective instruments that are created and utilized as the process unfolds, and whose results are limited to the capacity of the instruments. Society will discover its own creative potentials only when it seeks to know the human being as the real source of those potentials.
- The implication of this view is that even though it may be influenced, aided or opposed by external factors, society develops by its own motive power and in pursuit of its own goals. No external force and agency can develop a society.

3.4 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDEX

The council for social development has enlisted certain indicators for social development, where a composite social development index has been made considering six major indicators of social development. These indicators are: demographic indicators, health indicators, basic amenities indicators, educational attainment indicators, economic deprivation indicators, and, social deprivation related indicators. The index has been constructed at two points of time, namely, 1991 and 2001and separately for each state. In the case of larger states with a population of more than 5 million the indexing exercise was done separately for rural and urban areas, whereas in the smaller states a combined area index was used.

In the Social Development Report 2008, besides the computation of the social development index (SDI) at the state level, the index was extended in two particular directions – capturing the disparity in development of different social groups, and, measuring gender disparity in social development. The SDI also captures social deprivation by developing separate SDIs for SCs, STs and others, on one hand, and for gender differences on the other. A brief description of the indicators and sources of the data used in the computation of the SDI are given below in tabular form.

Indicators	Sources
Demographic Indicators	
Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (CPR)	National Family Health Survey (NFHS) Report-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Total fertility Rate (TFR)	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Infant Mortality Rate (IMR)	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets and Sample Registration System (SRS; October 2006) for all smaller States.
Health Indicators	
Percentage of Institutional Delivery	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Percentage of Undernourished Children	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Basic Amenities Indicators	
Percentage of Households Living in Pucca House	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Percentage of Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Percentage of Households with Toilet Facility	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Percentage of Households with Electricity	NFHS-III(2005-06) State-wise Fact Sheets
Educational Attainment Indicators	
Literacy Rate	National Sample Survey (NSS) 61st Round, Report No.516. (2005-06)
Pupil-Teacher Ratio	7th All India Education Survey (2002)
School Attendance Rate	National Sample Survey (NSS) 61st Round, Report No.516. (2005-06)
Economic Deprivation Indicators	
Unemployment Rate	NSSO and National Sample Survey (NSS) 61st Round, Report No. 515
Gini Ratio for Per Capita Consumption Expenditure	Sachar Committee Report, 2006

Social Deprivation Related Indicators	
Ratio between Literacy of the Scheduled Caste Population and Average Literacy of the Population	NSS 61st Round, Report No.516, Sachar Committee Report 2006 and Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, 2006
Ratio between Literacy of the Scheduled Tribe Population and Average Literacy of the Population	NSS 61st Round, Report No.516, Sachar Committee Report 2006 and Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, 2006
Ratio between Monthly Per Capita Consumption Expenditure of Muslims to the Total Population	NSS 61st Round, Report No.516, Sachar Committee Report 2006 and Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, 2006
Ratio between Literacy of Female Population and Average Literacy of Total Population	NSS 61st Round, Report No.516, Sachar Committee Report 2006 and Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, 2006
Ratio between Female Unemployment Rates to Total Unemployment Rates	NSS 61st Round, Report No.516, Sachar Committee Report 2006 and Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, 2006
Child Sex Ratio	NSS 61st Round, Report No.516, Sachar Committee Report 2006 and Office of Registrar General and Census Commissioner of India, 2006

Source: http://www.csdindia.org/social-development-report/social-development-index

3.5 SOCIAL PROCESSES OF DEVELOPMENT

We have described social development as the release and channelling of social energies through more complex social organization to enhance productive capacity and achieve greater results. This process depends upon mechanisms to direct and channel the collective energies of the society into new and more productive forms of activity. We can identify four distinctly different levels, or, types of mechanisms that serve this function: social aspirations, government authority, socio-cultural structure, and social know-how, in the form of science, technology, and productive skills.

i) Social Aspiration

Economically, development occurs when productivity rises, enabling people to produce more, earn more, and consume more. To do so, they have to be motivated to learn new skills, adapt to new work processes, and, to adopt new technology, changes which, in past ages, have met with considerable resistance. The driving force behind the whole movement is psychological. At the deepest level, the energies of society are directed by the collective's

subconscious aspirations. Society's self-conception of what it wants to become releases an aspiration of the collective for accomplishment. That aspiration exerts a powerful influence on the activities of the society. India's twin revolutions were spurred by a growing aspiration of Indian society for security, prosperity, and enjoyment. A similar aspiration spurs middle class Americans, today, to invest their savings in the stock market.

We have traced the evolution of social aspirations in India from pre-Independence to the present day. The earliest expression was an aspiration for political freedom and self-determination. After Independence this aspiration evolved into an urge for self-sufficiency, a willingness to try new things and take risks. More recently it has matured into a movement of rising expectations permeating all levels of Indian society.

ii) Role of Government authority

Like social aspirations, the authority of the government has the capacity to direct the flow of social energies through the instruments of law, public policies, administrative procedures, controls, incentives, and fear of punishment. Here, too, there is a graded hierarchy of stages through which government influences the development process. Monarchy is a highly centralized form of government organization with a significant capacity to restrict freedom and prevent unwanted activities, but with very limited power to promote social development because of its limited power to positively motivate and direct human initiative. Modern authoritarian states have augmented the power of government to compel and control by evolving complex organizational mechanisms to reach out into every field of social activity. Its members submit, by necessity, to the power of the state, but continuously seek ways around the strictures and demands it places upon them. As the 20th century experiments in Eastern Europe amply demonstrate, its power as an instrument for development is severely limited. Countries with authoritarian governments that have succeeded in releasing social initiative for economic development, such as China, Taiwan and South Korea, have done so by loosening social control over economic activities, while retaining it over political activities.

Modern forms of democracy greatly enhance the development capabilities of society. They are not only capable of enforcing a rule of law which, to a large extent, the population willingly accepts as being in its own interest. They also promote far greater development of individual aspirations, thought, capacity, skill, and initiative. The accountability of a democratically elected government necessitates that it continuously institute measures perceived as beneficial to the electorate. Working through decentralized self governing structures, it empowers more and more centres of activity in society, leading to greater creativity and innovation. The basic human rights it endorses elevate aspirations and release human energies for higher accomplishment.

The impact of democracy on development was illustrated by the Nobel laureate economist, Amartya Sen (1999), when he observed that no democratic country with a free press and independent judiciary has suffered a famine in this century. India's Green Revolution is a powerful testament to the power of governmental authority, though, in this, and every other instance, government's role cannot substitute for social readiness and social

initiative, it can only aid in preparing that readiness, releasing that initiative, and organizing the new activities.

iii) Socio-cultural authority

Government exercises authority over its citizens through law, administration, and enforcement. Society exercises a far more persuasive authority over its members through its ideas, attitudes, customs, and values. Different societies may develop at very different rates and in different directions under very similar forms of government, due to differences in social and cultural authority. Modern societies are far more free and tolerant than those of previous centuries, yet, they continue to exert a very powerful force on their members; only, the character of that force has changed. From being predominantly negative in the form of prohibitions and strictures, now the force of social authority acts far more as a spur to initiative, than a bar. The pressure felt by middle and working class families to 'keep up with the Joneses' has become pervasive throughout the world. The bold initiative of a poor farmer in rural India to dig a bore well and become prosperous could act as stimulus for the rapid development of ten surrounding villages because the competitive pressure of social authority would compel his neighbours to keep up with his level of accomplishment.

The spread of education tends to enhance this tendency. Apart from the practical knowledge and skills it imparts, modern education also instils a greater sense of individual self respect and social rights that impel an individual to seek and maintain his, or, her status in society. Here, we include the complete range of capacities that determine the ability of the people to physically direct their energies to achieve productive results. The most important of these are scientific knowledge, technology, and productive skills. These may appear very different in nature and action from social aspirations, government, and social authority, but the character of their influence on development is quite similar. They provide the direction for the efficient organization of mental, social, and material energies. Each of them carries with it an inherent authority, and, imposes a certain discipline on the expression of social energies. This authority usually takes the form of an impersonal authority of standards, rules, and systems, such as the rules for maintaining an orderly flow of air traffic.

Adopting a higher level of technology, whether it involves the cultivation of hybrid wheat, space travel, or electronic commerce requires adherence to more stringent procedures and greater organization, without which, it does not work. The Internet is a recent example of a technology that promotes freer and easier commercial and personal transactions, but accomplishes it by imposing rigorous standards of discipline on users in the form of a common computer language for communication.

In this section, you have read about social development: emerging concepts, social development theory, social development index, social processes of development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 1.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Describe the role of a democratic government as a determinant of development.

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2) Explain, in brief, the conceptual framework of social development theory.

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3.6 SOCIAL DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT

After reading the meaning and indicators of social development, let us now discuss various social dynamics of development. The various social dynamics of development are as follows:

- We define social development, in its broadest social terms, as an upward directional movement of society from lesser to greater levels of energy, efficiency, quality, productivity, complexity, comprehension, creativity, choice, mastery, enjoyment, and accomplishment. The development of individuals and societies results in increasing freedom of choice, and an increasing capacity to fulfil its choices by its own capacity and initiative.
- Growth and development usually go together, but they are different phenomena subject to different laws. Growth involves a horizontal or quantitative expansion and multiplication of existing types and forms of activities. Development involves a vertical or qualitative enhancement of the level of organization.
- Social development is driven by the subconscious aspirations and will of society for advancement. The social will seeks progressive fulfilment of a prioritized hierarchy of needs – security of borders, law and order, self sufficiency in food and shelter, organization for peace and prosperity, expression of excess energy in entertainment, leisure and enjoyment, knowledge, and artistic creativity.
- The development of society occurs only in fields where that collective will is sufficiently strong and seeking expression. Development strategies are

most effective when they focus on identifying areas where the social will is mature, and when they provide better means for the awakened social energy to express itself. Only those initiatives that are in concordance with this subconscious urge will gain momentum and multiply. The development of the collective is subconscious. It starts with physical experience which eventually leads to conscious comprehension of the process. Conscious development that is based on conceptual knowledge of the social process accelerates development, and minimizes errors and imbalances.

- Society is the field of organized relationships and interactions between individuals. Only a small portion of human activity is organized for utilization by society, so only a small portion of development potential (of technology, knowledge, information, skills, systems) is tapped.

- Every society possesses a huge reservoir of potential human energy that is absorbed and held static in its organized foundations—its cultural values, physical security, social beliefs, and political structures. At times of transition, crises, and opportunities, those energies are released and expressed in action. Policies, strategies, and programs that tap this latent energy and channel it into constructive activities can stir an entire nation to action and rapid advancement.

- The act is the basic unit of social organization. The evolution of more complex and productive activities woven together by people to form systems, organizations, institutions, and cultural values constitute the fabric or web of social organization.

- The essential nature of the development process is the progressive development of social organizations and institutions that harness and direct the society's energies for higher levels of accomplishment. Society develops by organizing all the knowledge, human energies, and material resources at its disposal to fulfil its aspirations.

- The process of forming organizations takes place simultaneously at several levels: the organization of peace and physical security in society; the organization of physical activities and infrastructure; the organization of productive processes through the application of skills and technology in agriculture, industry and services; the organization of social processes we call systems, laws, institutions and administrative agencies; the organization of data as useful information; the organization of knowledge through education and science; and, the organization of higher social and cultural values that channel human energy into higher forms of expression. Each of these levels of organization admits of unlimited development. Each of these levels of organization depends upon, and, interacts with the others. Elevating the organization at any of these levels increases the utilization of resources and opportunities and accelerates development.

- Development requires an enormous investment of energy to break existing patterns of social behaviour and form new ones. Development takes place when surplus social energies accumulate beyond the level required for functioning at the present level. The social energy may be released in response to the opening up of a new opportunity, or, confrontation by a severe challenge. Where different cultures meet and blend, explosive energies for

social evolution are released. The expression of surplus energy through existing forms of activity may result in growth — a quantitative expansion of society at the existing level of organization. Channelling the surplus energy into more complex and effective forms of organized activity leads to development — a qualitative enhancement in the capabilities of the society. The fresh initiatives that lead to this qualitative enhancement usually occur first in the unorganized activities of society that are not constrained and encumbered by the inertia of the status quo.

- The rate and extent of development is determined by prevalent social attitudes which control the flow of social energies. Where attitudes are not conducive, development strategies will not yield results. In this case the emphasis should be placed on strategies to bring about a change in social attitudes — such as public education, demonstration, and encouragement of successful pioneers.

- Development proceeds rapidly in those areas where the society becomes aware of opportunities and challenges and has the will to respond to them. Increasing awareness accelerates the process.

- Social progress is stimulated by pioneering individuals who first become conscious of new opportunities and initiate new behaviours and activities to take advantage of them. Pioneers are the lever, or, spearhead for collective advancement. Pioneers give conscious expression to the subconscious urges and readiness of the collective. Development occurs when pioneering individual initiatives are imitated by others, multiplied and actively supported by the society. Society, then, actively organizes the new activity by establishing supportive laws, systems and institutions. At the next stage, it integrates the new activity with other fields of activity and assimilates it into its educational system. The activity has become fully assimilated as part of the culture when it is passed on to the next generation as values through the family.

- Development is a process, not a program. Development is an activity of a society as a whole. It can be stimulated, directed, or assisted by government policies, laws, and special programs, but it cannot be compelled, or, carried out by administrative or, external agencies on behalf of the population. Development strategy should aim to release people's initiative, not to substitute for it.

- All resources are the creation of the human mind. Something becomes a resource when human beings recognize a productive or, a more productive use for it. Since there are no inherent limits to human inventiveness and resourcefulness, the potential productivity of any resource is unlimited. Human beings are the ultimate resource and the ultimate determinant of the development process. It is a process of people becoming more aware of their own creative potentials and taking initiatives to realize those potentials. Human awareness, aspiration, and attitudes determine society's response to circumstances. Development occurs only at the points where humanity recognizes its power to determine results.

- The development of social organizations takes place within a larger evolutionary context in which the consciousness of humanity is evolving along a continuum from physical to vital to mental. This evolution is

expressed as a progressive shift in emphasis from material resources to technological and information resources; from the social importance of land to the importance of money and knowledge; from the hereditary rights of the elite to fundamental rights for all human beings; from reliance on physical forms of authority to laws and shared values. As society advances along this continuum, development becomes more conscious and more rapid.

3.7 CULTURE AND CULTURAL DYNAMICS

Culture is a bond that ties the people of a region or community together. It is that one common bond which brings the people of a community together. The customs and traditions that the people of a community follow, the festivals they celebrate, the kind of clothing they wear, the food they eat, and most importantly, the cultural values they adhere to, bind them together. Culture is seen as a system of social control, wherein people shape their standards and behaviour behaviour. The cultural values form the founding principles of one's life. They influence one's principles and philosophies of life. They influence one's way of living and, thus, impact social life. The importance of culture lies in the fact that it is a link between people and their value systems.

Culture refers to the pattern of human activity and the symbols which give significance to this activity. Culture is represented through the art, literature, costumes, customs, and traditions of a community. Different cultures exist in different parts of the world. The natural environment greatly affects the lifestyle of the people of that region, thus, shaping their culture. The diversity in the cultures around the world is also a result of the mindsets of people inhabiting different regions of the world. The cultural values of a community give it an identity of its own. A community gains a character and a personality of its own, because of the culture of its people. Culture is shared by the members of a community. It is learned and passed from the older generations to the newer ones. For an effective transfer of culture from one generation to another, it has to be translated into symbols. Language, art and religion serve as the symbolic means of transfer of cultural values between generations. In this sense, culture primarily refers to characteristic mental maps and values shared by members of a group or society. It excludes the material objects and artefacts that are produced by members of a culture. On the other hand, it also excludes institutions which structure human behaviour. There is a tendency to think of cultures as homogenous patterns.

It should also be kept in mind that there are contradictions and conflicts within every culture. There are cultural universals, which apply to all members of a social community, and cultural alternatives, which do not. There are cultural specialties, elements that are specific to certain subgroups in a community. In every society, there are a variety of groups with their own subcultures. Some of these are dominant insider groups, others are outsiders. Elements of cultural pattern may even be in conflict with each other. Cultures, as well as countries, are formed by the emergence of value systems (social stages) in response to life conditions. Such complex adaptive intelligences form the clue that bonds a group together, defines who they are as a people, and reflects the place on the planet they inhabit. These cultural waves, much like the Russian dolls (a doll embedded within a doll, which is again embedded within a doll) have formed, over time, into unique mixtures and blends of instructional and survival codes, myths of

origin, artistic forms, life styles, and senses of community. While they are all legitimate expressions of the human experience, they are not equal in their capacities to deal with complex problems in society. Cultures should not be seen as rigid types, having permanent traits. Instead, they are core adaptive intelligences that ebb and flow, progress and regress, with the capacity to lay on new levels of complexity, or, value systems, when conditions warrant. Much like an onion, they form layers on layers on layers. There is no final state, no ultimate destination, and no utopian paradise. Each stage is but a prelude to the next, then the next, then the next.

3.8 CULTURAL OBSTACLES TO DEVELOPMENT

The debate about cultural obstacles to development is done after a universal assumption that people across the world agree on the content and goals of development. It is well accepted that development is inevitably a highly value-laden concept, but that one can indeed identify the contours of a development concept, including increased welfare, productivity, health, education, and, an extension of political and social freedoms. If one looks at the dynamics of socioeconomic development from a macro perspective, the differences in dynamics in different parts of the world would be obvious. Some of the selected examples of the possible impacts of culture on development follow.

i) The caste system

In traditional Hindu societies in India, the caste system acts as an obstacle to the most efficient use of human capabilities and talents in the economic process. The caste system defines a religiously legitimized hierarchy of social estates, which are restricted in their interactions with each other. The groups also differ in political influence, landholding, and so forth. In the caste system, physical labour is typically a low caste activity, with correspondingly low status. Though caste has now been rejected as an organizing system in modern India, it still is deeply embedded in social life. According to Lal (1988), the caste system itself is the prime cause of slow economic growth in post independence India. In his view, the slow rate of growth between 1950 and 1990 is primarily due to inappropriate policies.

ii) The low status of physical work and efforts

In many cultures there are negative attitudes towards physical labour and effort. In African societies, the heaviest physical work in food production is usually left to the women, while men engage in activities that are associated with higher status. Another example of differences in work ethic is provided by Malaysia. The indigenous Malay population tends to look down on physical labour as something suitable for Chinese coolie labourers who were imported in the nineteenth century to work in mines and plantations.

iii) Gender discrimination

Inequality between the sexes and discrimination against women is embedded, in different degrees, in most world religions and cultures. Like the caste system, occupational discrimination by sex is a potential obstacle to the optimal use and

allocation of human talents. In a great many societies, women have less access to paid jobs, health services, and, in particular, education. In some of the most orthodox Islamic societies, women are prohibited from engaging in education and paid work outside the house.

iv) The mysterious role of ethnic minorities in economic development

The economic role of the ethnic minorities is a dilemma and a puzzle of development. The Chinese have been extremely successful as entrepreneurs all across East and Southeast Asia where they are minorities, likewise, the Palestinians in the Arab world, and Indians and Pakistanis, who dominate business activities in East Africa. In Europe, Jews have played a prominent role in finance, business, culture, and in intellectual pursuits. The interesting thing about these successful minorities is that they often originated from rather traditional cultures, and from societies that had long been economically stagnant. In spite of their economic success, or, perhaps because of it, these groups have usually been discriminated against.

v) Traditional versus Modern cultures

Modernization theorists posited a dichotomy between traditional and modern societies. The economic core of modernization is industrialization, which requires a measure of congruence between economic development and the social and cultural environment. The dichotomy between modern and traditional societies involves changes in a number of cultural and institutional dimensions. Some of the most frequently mentioned dichotomies are given below.

a) Modernisation theory: dichotomies between modern and traditional societies

- Achievement versus ascription. In modern societies, social positions are assigned to individuals on the basis of achievement - meritocratic criteria. In traditional societies, social positions are assigned on the basis of birth, social origin, and other ascription, or arrangement into classes or categories.
- Mobility versus hierarchy. Modern societies are characterized by increased upward and downward social mobility in comparison with traditional static hierarchical societies.
- Rational versus traditional behaviour behaviour. Modern societies are characterized by rational thinking about ends and means. In pre-modern societies traditionally defined patterns of behaviour behaviour predominate.
- Future orientation versus fatalism. In modern societies, people believe that their actions influence their future. They are willing to make long term investments in a better future for themselves and their children. Traditional societies are characterized by fatalism and a short term horizon.
- Nuclear families versus extended families. It is argued that extended families and kinship relationships act as a break on economic development, because of the strong pressure towards redistribution

amongst the extended family impedes capital accumulation. Modernization involves the breakdown of extended families and the emergence of nuclear families.

- Increased role for civil society. Modernisation implies an increased role for unions, parties, political pressure groups, and other associations of civil society.
- Single- stranded versus multi-stranded social relationships. Many transactions in modern markets and modern bureaucracies are anonymous and specialized (single-stranded). In traditional societies, relationships are more personal and involve many dimensions. There are a variety of economic and financial exchanges, relationships of kin and tribe, friendship, relationships of authority and dependence in traditional societies.
- Individual orientation versus collectivist, or, communal orientation. In traditional societies, social obligations are more important than in modern societies, where people feel free to pursue their individual interests.

b) Reaction to Western penetration and cultural disruption

Reactions to Western cultural dominance and to modernization and economic change in general have taken a variety of forms, including traditional opposition movements; modern nationalist movements; Marxist and social movements. Some of the changes that have affected traditional communities' world over are given below.

- The accelerated rate of change implicit in the development process.
- Demographic growth, urbanization, education, and marginalization of traditional economic activities.
- The break up of traditional units of community, such as village and extended family.
- The overwhelming impact of Western culture, which is frequently transferred only in the rudimentary form of consumption oriented-behaviour behaviour and technology.
- The impact of mass communications, especially through radio and television.
- Homogenizing efforts at building national identity through mass media, political organizations and the school system, which conflict with geographic, tribal and kinship lines of affiliation.
- Inadequate adaptation of education and training to the opportunities of employment and the needs of self employment.
- Rapid loss of authentic traditional cultural legacies, which are primarily orally transmitted, due to increased mobility and perceived lack of short term relevance for the young.

vi) The role of the individual and the process of value creation

Society has no direct means to give conscious expression to its subconscious collective aspirations and urges. That essential role is played by pioneering

conscious individuals–visionary intellectuals, political leaders, entrepreneurs, artists and spiritual seekers who are inspired to express and achieve what the collective subconsciously aspires to, and is prepared for. Where the aspirations and actions of leaders do not reflect the will of the collective, it is ignored or rejected. Where it gives expression to a deeply felt collective urge, it is endorsed, imitated, supported, and systematically propagated. This is most evident in times of war, social revolution, or communal conflict.

India's early freedom fighters consciously advocated the goal of freedom from British rule long before that goal had become a conscious aspiration of the masses. The leaders spent decades urging a reluctant population to conceive of itself as a free nation, and to aspire to achieve that dream. When, finally, the collective endorsed this conception, no foreign nation had the power to impose its will on the Indian people.

During the World Academy of Art & Science's meeting on development theory in Washington DC in May 1999, there was a broad consensus of participants that the formation of values was a critical aspect of the development process. Here, we propose to re-examine the process of development as a process of value formation. If gross physical actions are the most visible and tangible form of human initiative, the creation of values is the most subtle and intangible. Yet human existence is powerfully determined by the nature of its values. Physical skills, vital attitudes, mental opinions, and values represent a gradation of internal organizing principles that direct human energies, and determine the course of individual and social development.

All human creative processes release and harness human energy and convert it into results. The process of skill formation involves acquiring mastery over our physical-nervous energies so that we can direct our physical movements in a precisely controlled manner. In the absence of skill, physical movements are clumsy, inefficient, and unproductive, like the stumbling efforts of a child learning to walk. Human beings acquire social behaviour behaviours in a similar manner. Here, apart from the physical skills required for communication and interaction with other people, vital attitudes are centrally important. Each, social behaviour expresses not just a movement, but an attitude and intention of the person. Acquiring social behaviours requires gaining control over our psychological energies and channelling them into acceptable forms of behaviour. The developmental achievements of modern society are founded upon such intangible social attitudes as confidence in the government, trust in other people, tolerance, and cooperation. Without such attitudes, our money would become valueless paper and our institutions would cease to function.

The same process takes place at the mental level. The mind's energy naturally flows as thought in many different directions without any structure to contain, or, organize it. The acquisition of knowledge involves construction of a mental structure of understanding that is analogous to the structure of skills and attitudes that govern the expression of our physical and vital energy. It forms an organizational framework for learning, and application of what is learned. Human values are formed by a similar process and act in a similar manner. Although the word is commonly used with reference to ethical and cultural principles, values are of many types. They may be physical (cleanliness, punctuality), organizational (communication, coordination), psychological (courage, generosity), mental

(objectivity, sincerity), or spiritual (harmony, love, self-giving). Values are central organizing principles or ideas that govern and determine human behaviour. Unlike the skill or attitude that may be specific to a particular physical activity, or, social context, values tend to be more universal in their application. They are expressed in everything we do. Values can be described as the essence of the knowledge gained by humanity from past experiences, distilled from its local circumstances and specific contexts to extract the fundamental wisdom of life derived from these experiences. Values give direction to our thought processes, sentiments, emotional energies, preferences, and actions. Centuries of experience have been distilled by society into essential principles. Values such as hard work, responsibility, integrity in human relations, tolerance, and respect for others, are not just noble ideas or ideals. They are pragmatic principles for accomplishment which society has learned and transmitted to successive generations as a psychological foundation for its further advancement. The values of a society are a crucial aspect of its people's self-conception of who they want to become.

Because values are intangible to our senses, and their formation is the result of a very long process, we tend to overlook their central role in development. Social values constitute the cultural infrastructure on which all further social development is based. In this sense, values are the ultimate product of past development and the ultimate determinant of its future course.

In this section, you have read about social dynamics of development, cultuire and cultural dynamics and cultural obstacles to development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Explain, in brief, the emergence of culture.

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2) How is gender discrimination a cultural obstacle to economic development?

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3.9 LET US SUM UP

There are enormous issues linked with the social and cultural dynamics of development, and in this section we have discussed the concepts, dynamics, meanings, and broad issues involved in social development. We have seen that the social and cultural dynamics of development are a continuous process of changes which are substantially influenced by development, and that the process also determines the direction of further and future development. We have covered the emerging concepts of social and cultural development, social development theory, social development index, cultural obstacles to economic development, and determinants of development: social aspiration, and, lastly, a summary of social development principles.

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3.11 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress -1

1) Describe the role of a democratic government as a determinant of development.

Answer: Modern forms of democracy greatly enhance the development

capabilities of society. They are not only capable of enforcing a rule of law, which, to a large extent, the population willingly accepts as in its own interest, they also promote far greater development of individual aspirations, thought, capacity, skill, and initiative. The accountability of a democratically elected government necessitates that it continuously institute measures perceived as beneficial to the electorate.

2) Explain, in brief, the conceptual framework of social development theory.

Answer: The following observations suggest a starting point for the formulation of a comprehensive conceptual framework.

- Social development theory should focus on underlying processes rather than on surface activities and results, since development activities, policies, strategies, programs, and results will always be limited to a specific context and circumstance, whereas social development itself encompasses a potentially infinite field in space and time.

- The theory should recognize the inherent creativity of individuals and of societies, by which they fashion instruments and direct their energies to achieve greater results.

- The implication of this view is that even though it may be influenced, aided, or opposed by external factors, society develops by its own motive power, and in pursuit of its own goals. No external force and agency can develop a society.

Check Your Progress- 2

1) Explain, in brief, the emergence of culture.

Answer: Cultures, as well as countries, are formed by the emergence of value systems (social stages) in response to life conditions. Such complex adaptive intelligences form the glue that bonds a group together, defines who they are as a people, and reflects the place on the planet they inhabit. These cultural waves, much like the Russian dolls (a doll embedded within a doll, which is again embedded within a doll) have formed, over time, into unique mixtures and blends of instructional and survival codes, myths of origin, artistic forms, life styles, and senses of community.

2) How is gender discrimination a cultural obstacle to economic development?

Answer: Inequality between the sexes and discrimination against women is embedded, to different degrees, in most world religions and cultures. Like the caste system, occupational discrimination by sex is a potential obstacle to the optimal use and allocation of human talents. In a great many societies, women have less access to paid jobs, health services, and in particular education. In some of the most orthodox religious societies, women are prohibited from engaging in education and paid work outside the house.

UNIT 4 DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES

Structure

4.1 Introduction

4.2 The Role of Government Agencies and Institutions in Development

4.3 The Role of Financial and Non Financial Institutions in Development

4.4 The Role of Multilateral and Bilateral International Agencies in Development

4.5 The Role of the United Nations Agencies in Development

4.6 Let Us Sum Up

4.7 References and Selected Readings

4.8 Check Your Progress -Possible Answers

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier units, you learned about the dynamics and the process of development. In this unit, you will study the role of development agencies in the dynamics and the process of development. Development agencies are agencies whose goal is to accelerate development within a specified geographical location – a city, region, or state - by providing the necessary resources and assistance in a specified span of time. A development agency engages in directing development, or facilitating development, through by providing inputs, guidance, finance, markets, technology, etc. Some development agencies are privately owned and others are run by government. Both kinds of development agencies play an important role in assisting the various development efforts in an area. Besides various international agencies, such as the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, also extend financial and technical support in different areas of development. In this unit, you will read in detail about their role, responsibilities, and functions.

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Discuss the role of governmental development agencies in development
- Explain the role of financial and non financial institutions of development
- Narrate the type, nature, and extent of multilateral and bilateral assistance provided by the international agencies for development.

4.2 THE ROLE OF GOVERNMENT AGENCIES AND INSTITUTIONS IN DEVELOPMENT

In this section, you will read about the role of government agencies in development. Various government agencies play important roles in directing the development activities to be pursued in both the short and the long run. The role of a few important government agencies that play an important part in development in India is discussed. These agencies are:

i) Niti Aayog (formerly Planning Commission)

ii) The Finance Commission of India

iii) State Finance Commission

iv) State Planning Board

v) District Planning Boards Committees

i) Niti Aayog (National Institution For Transforming India)

The National Institution for Transforming India, also called NITI Aayog, was formed via a resolution of the Union Cabinet on January 1, 2015. NITI Aayog is the premier policy 'Think Tank' of the Government of India, providing both directional and policy inputs. While designing strategic and long term policies and programmes for the Government of India, NITI Aayog also provides relevant technical advice to the Centre and States. The Government of India, in keeping with its reform agenda, constituted the NITI Aayog to replace the Planning Commission instituted in 1950. This was done in order to better serve the needs and aspirations of the people of India. An important evolutionary change from the past, NITI Aayog acts as the quintessential platform of the Government of India to bring States to act together in national interest, and thereby fosters Cooperative Federalism.

Functions:

To evolve a shared vision of national development priorities sectors and strategies with the active involvement of States in the light of national objectives:

- To foster cooperative federalism through structured support initiatives and mechanisms with the States on a continuous basis, recognizing that strong States make a strong nation
- To develop mechanisms to formulate credible plans at the village level and aggregate these progressively at higher levels of government
- To ensure, on areas that are specifically referred to it, that the interests of national security are incorporated in economic strategy and policy
- To pay special attention to the sections of our society that may be at risk of not benefiting adequately from economic progress
- To design strategic and long term policy and programme frameworks and initiatives, and monitor their progress and their efficacy. The lessons learnt through monitoring and feedback will be used for making innovative improvements, including necessary mid-course corrections
- To provide advice and encourage partnerships between key stakeholders and national and international like-minded Think tanks, as well as educational and policy research institutions.
- To create a knowledge, innovation and entrepreneurial support system through a collaborative community of national and international experts, practitioners and other partners.
- To offer a platform for resolution of inter-sectoral and inter- departmental issues in order to accelerate the implementation of the development agenda.
- To maintain a state-of-the-art Resource Centre, be a repository of research on good governance and best practices in sustainable and equitable development as well as help their dissemination to stake-holders

- To actively monitor and evaluate the implementation of programmes and initiatives, including the identification of the needed resources so as to strengthen the probability of success and scope of delivery
- To focus on technology upgradation and capacity building for implementation of programmes and initiatives
- To undertake other activities as may be necessary in order to further the execution of the national development agenda, and the objectives mentioned above.

ii) Finance Commission of India

The Constitution of India provides for the establishment of a Finance Commission for the purpose of allocation of certain resources of revenue between the Union and the State Governments. The President of India established the Finance Commission under Article 280 of the Constitution.

The qualifications, powers and procedures of the Commission itself are regulated by the Finance Commission (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1951. The Finance Commission is constituted to define financial relations between the Centre and the States. Under the provision of Article 280 of the Constitution, the President appoints a Finance Commission for the specific purpose of devolution of non-plan revenue resources.

Under Article 280 of the Constitution, the Finance Commission is required to make recommendations to the President about

- The distribution of net proceeds of taxes to be shared between the centre and the states, and the allocation between the states of the respective share of such proceeds.
- The principles which should govern the grants-in-aid by the center to states out of the Consolidated Fund of India.
- The measures needed to augment the consolidated fund of a state to supplement the resources of the Panchayats and the Municipalities in the State on the basis of the recommendations made by the State Finance Commission.
- Any other matter referred to it by the President of India, in the interests of sound finance.

The Finance Commission has the following powers :

- The Commission shall have all the powers of the Civil Court, as per the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908.
- It can call any witness, or, can ask for the production of any public record, or document, from any court or office.
- It can ask any person to give information or documents on matters as it may feel to be useful, or relevant.
- It can function as a civil court in discharging its duties.

iii) State Finance Commission

The 73rd constitutional amendment envisages that in every five year, the state government shall appoint a Finance Commission to review the financial aspects of the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRI), and Urban Local Bodies (ULBs). The State Finance Commission (SFC) will give recommendations with regard to

i) The distribution between the state and the Panchayats of the net proceeds of taxes, duties, tolls and fees leviable by the state which may be divided between them, and how allocation would be made among the various levels of panchayats

ii) What taxes, duties, tolls and fees may be assigned to the panchayats

iii) Grant –in-aids to the panchayats.

The report of the commission together with the action taken report shall be laid before the state legislature. Many states have appointed their third State Finance Commission. The State Finance Commission reports are referred to in the matter of the allocation of resources to different sectors in the states.

iv) State Planning Boards

The State Planning Boards were formed, primarily, to assist the Planning Commission in allocating resources to states, to enable the state governments to formulate development plans based on a scientific assessment of the resources of the state, and the growth priorities. The boards were assigned the task of preparing an Annual Economic Review to be presented, along with the Budget Document to the state legislatures.

The main functions of the State Planning Boards are:

- To assess the resources of the state, and to prepare schemes for their effective utilisation
- To assist the District Planning Officers in preparing district plan proposals, so that they may be incorporated in the overall Plan
- To ascertain the obstacles to growth of the state economy, and to suggest measures for removing regional imbalances.
- To monitor the progress of Plan schemes, and to suggest changes in developmental policies
- To decide Plan priorities.

v) District Planning Boards and Committees

The decentralized planning process started long ago in India, and, in 1969, the Union Planning Commission issued guidelines for preparing district plans. Realizing that the planning machinery and competency were not yet developed at the district level at the time, efforts were redirected, in later years, to strengthen the state level planning process. In the early 1980s, a Working Group, under the Chairmanship of Professor C.H. Hanumantha Rao, was constituted to develop guidelines for district plans. Based on the recommendations of this Committee, the Seventh Five Year Plan adopted decentralized planning at the district level as one of the major strategies to achieve plan targets.

Local self-government is the prime instrument of decentralization at the grass root level. The intention of local self-government is to shift from bureaucratic administration to democratic administration, and to formulate, and execute development programmes through people's participation, and to instill political consciousness among the people. They act as vehicles in carrying back to the people the power that really belongs to them. They ensure self-governance through directly elected representatives.

According to Dr. D.R. Gadgil, the primary requirements of district planning are the knowledge of local conditions, and the association of local people with the formulation, and the implementation of development plans. The well known Economist, Gunnar Myrdal pointed out, way back in 1968, "The ideal has always been that the plan should come from the people and meet their wishes and needs, and have their support in thought, as well, as deed". The points put forth in favour of decentralized planning are

- it facilitates the formulation of locally relevant programmes, with reference to natural endowments, and felt needs of the people
- it makes bureaucrats more accountable to the people
- it also facilitates the participation of ordinary people in the planning and development process

At the state level, the District Planning Board, and, more recently, after the 73rd Constitutional Amendment, the District Planning Committees have begun to function. The important functions of District Planning Board are

i) To formulate a long term district perspective plan, and to evolve a strategy of planned development for the district, on the basis of felt needs of the people, and local priorities

ii) To prepare a priority-wise list of schemes and programmes, taking into account the resources available from the plan fund and community contribution, well before the beginning of each year

iii) To take appropriate measures for the proper implementation of schemes and programmes and projects

iv) To monitor the progress of projects, and for this purpose the District Planning and Development Board may meet as frequently as necessary. The Board will send performance reports to the State Planning Board at regular intervals.

v) To encourage the panchayats and other local bodies to implementat development projects themselves. They are responsible for the maximum involvement of people, and for developing confidence in their leadership, and in their ability to implement development work. The involvement should be both in terms of financial and physical parameters

vi) To make efforts to generate additional resources for developmental work with the cooperation of people. NGOs, NRIs, and other agencies and;

vii) Any other related function that might be assigned by the State Planning Board.

In the 73rd Constitution Amendment, Article 243 ZD envisages that there shall be a District Planning Committee in every district to consolidate the plans

prepared by the panchayats and municipalities in the district. Now, in most states, the District Planning Committees (DPC) have been constituted. The Act envisaged that the chairman of the Zilla Parishad (the District Panchayat) be the chairman of DPC. However, in many states, DPCs are headed by District Commissioners. The function of the DPCs is more, or less, equivalent to the District Planning Board. Recently, the DPC has been instrumental in the preparation of District Agriculture Plan, District BRGF (Backward Region Grant Fund) plan and District NREGS (National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme) now called MREGA (Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme) Plan in most of the states.

4.3 THE ROLE OF FINANCIAL AND NON-FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS IN DEVELOPMENT

Besides the apex planning bodies mentioned in the preceding section, various banking and non-banking institutions also play important role in the development of the nation.

4.3.1 The Role of Financial Institutions

A few important financial institutions providing finance for developmental activities in India are described, below.

i) The Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI)

The Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI) is the tenth largest bank in the world in terms of financing development. The National Stock Exchange (NSE), The National Securities Depository Services Ltd. (NSDL), Stock Holding Corporation of India (SHCIL) are some of the institutions which have been built by the IDBI. The IDBI is a strategic investor in a large number of institutions, which have revolutionized the Indian financial markets.The IDBI's role as a catalyst to industrial development encompasses a wide spectrum of activities. The IDBI can finance all types of industrial concerns covered under the provisions of the IDBI Act. With over three decades of service to the Indian industry, the IDBI has grown substantially in terms of size of operations, and its portfolio. The IDBI also undertakes and supports wide-ranging promotional activities that include entrepreneurship development programmes, the provision of consultancy services for small and medium enterprises, assistance in upgrading technology, and programmes for the economic uplift of the underprivileged.

ii) The National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD)

NABARD was set up by the Government of India as a development bank with a capital base of Rs 2,000 crore provided by the Government of India and the Reserve Bank of India. It is an apex institution handling matters concerning policy, planning and operations in the field of credit for agriculture and for other economic and developmental activities in rural areas. It has mandate to facilitate the flow of credit flow for the promotion and development of agriculture, and for integrated rural development. The mandate also covers supporting all other allied economic activities in rural areas, promoting sustainable rural development, and taking measures that usher in prosperity in the rural areas. Essentially, it is a

refinancing agency for financial institutions offering production credit and investment credit for promoting agriculture and developmental activities in rural areas.

NABARD performs the following functions

- Initiate measures towards institution-building for improving the absorptive capacity of the credit delivery system, including monitoring, formulation of rehabilitation schemes, restructuring of credit institutions, training of personnel, etc
- Coordinate the rural financing activities of all the institutions engaged in developmental work at the field level, and maintain liaison with the government of India, state governments, the Reserve Bank of India, and other national level institutions concerned with policy formulation
- Prepare, on an annual basis, rural credit plans for all the districts in the country. These plans form the base for annual credit plans of all rural financial institutions.
- Monitor and evaluate projects that are refinanced by it
- Promote research in the fields of rural banking, agriculture, and rural development
- Function as a regulatory authority - supervise, monitor, and guide cooperative banks and regional rural banks.

One of the milestones in the field of micro-financing achieved by NABARD is helping the government and nongovernmental organizations in opening of SHGs.

iii) Commercial Banks

In post-independence India, in order to facilitate improvements in agricultural production and attain food self-sufficiency, the thrust of the policy was to ensure sufficient and timely credit at reasonable rates of interest to as large a segment of the rural population as possible through the commercial banks. The strategy was threefold: (i) Expansion of the institutional base (ii) Directed lending to disadvantaged borrowers (iii) Credit provision at concessional rates of interest, and (iii) The nationalization of commercial banks was done to promote financing facilities in rural areas.

During the post-independence period, commercial banks came a long way in providing rural credit to the rural community, with a substantial spread of branches in rural and semi-urban areas comprising 68% of their total outlets as on 31 March 1991. The period since 1991-92 has seen rapid expansion of credit to agriculture. This includes credit extended by the Regional Rural Banks. During this period, the Government also took some major initiatives to boost agricultural production and productivity through enhanced credit flow, and by way of building agricultural infrastructure, particularly, irrigation and connectivity in rural areas.

iv) Co-operative Societies

The cooperative movement in India owes its origin to agriculture, and allied sectors. Towards the end of the 19th century, the problems of rural indebtedness and the consequent conditions of the farmers created an environment for chit

funds and cooperative societies. Farmers generally found the cooperative movement an attractive mechanism for pooling their limited resources to solve shared problems relating to credit, supplies of inputs, and the marketing of agricultural produce.

The experience gained from working with cooperatives led to the enactment of the Cooperative Credit Societies Act, 1904. Subsequently, this was comprehensively revised to the Cooperative Societies Act. This Act provided for the creation of the post of Registrar of Cooperative Societies and to the registration of cooperative societies for audit, and other purposes.

In 1958, the National Development Council (NDC) recommended a national policy on cooperatives. Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru had strong faith in the cooperative movement. While opening an international seminar on cooperative leadership in South East Asia he had said, "But, my outlook at present is not the outlook of spreading the cooperative movement gradually, progressively, as it has done. My outlook is to convulse India with the Cooperative Movement, or rather with cooperation to make it, broadly speaking, the basic activity of India, in every village as well as elsewhere; and finally, indeed, to make the cooperative approach the common thinking of India...Therefore, the whole future of India really depends on the success of this approach of ours to these vast numbers, hundreds of millions of people".

The cooperative sector plays a distinct and significant role in the country's socio-economic development. There has been a substantial growth in this sector in diverse areas of the economy over the past few decades. The number of all types of cooperatives increased from 1.81 lakh in 1950-51, to 4.53 lakh in 1996-97. Cooperatives have operated in various areas of the economy such as credit, production, processing, marketing, input distribution, housing, dairying, and textiles. In some of their areas of activity, such as dairying, urban banking, housing, sugar and handlooms, the cooperatives have achieved some success, but, there are larger areas where they have not been so successful.

4.3.2 Role of Non-Financial Institutions

i) Non -Governmental Organisations

Socioeconomic development is a process of mutual endeavor which calls for participation from all segments of the society. But, due to the limited capability of the national government in most third world countries, it has become increasingly difficult to respond effectively to the growing and diversified needs of the vast majority at the grassroots level. It is here that the role of the non governmental organisations (NGOs) becomes important.

NGOs are voluntary organisations other than cooperatives, Self-Help Groups (SHGs), etc. Voluntary organisations are known for their human touch, dedication, great initiatives, self-reliance, contextual innovations, flexibility, togetherness with community, and ability to reach the masses in the most effective manner. These organisations are now considered partners of government in all their endeavours concerning the needy, the poor, children and women and their environment. NGOs are an important link between people at the grassroots, civil society, and the state. They are instrumental in creating awareness and implementing development programmes in agriculture, watershed development,

women's empowerment, education, de-addiction, removal of superstitions, health and family welfare, human rights, disaster management, etc.. They are, thus, representative of alternative modes of development thinking in India. NGOs have been doing commendable work by reaching out to people in all spheres of socioeconomic life. They have a long history in India, and have been associated with developing easy and quick rapport with people at the grass root level.

ii) Self Help Groups (SHGs)

The Self Help Group (SHG), Bank Linkage Programme, was started as a pilot project by NABARD, in 1992. It led to the evolution of a set of RBI approved guidelines to banks to enable SHGs to transact with banks. Initially, there was slow progress in the programme up to 1999, as only 32,995 groups were credit linked during the period, 1992 to 1999. Since then, the programme has grown rapidly, and the cumulative number of SHGs financed increased from 4.61 lakhs on 31 March 2002 to 10.73 lakhs on 31 March 2004, and has grown further, to 29.25 lakh groups, as on 31, March 2007.

The credit provided by NABARD to SHGs has supplement their incomes by initiating entrepreneurial activities at the grassroots level. This has been a very successful development initiative, undertaken by NABARD. Commercial banks also play a major role in the promotion of SHGs. Under the bank linkage movement, more than 11.88 lakh SHGs have linked to banks for the provision of credit. Reforms in the commercial banking system include the removal of procedural and transactional bottlenecks, including the elimination of the Service Area Approach, reducing margins, redefining over dues to coincide with crop cycles, new debt restructuring policies, one time settlement, and relief measures for farmers indebted to non institutional sources.

In this section, you have read about the role of government agencies and institutions in development, the role of financial and non-financial institutions in development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 1.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What are the key functions of Niti Aayog?

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2) Discuss the roles, functions, and powers of the Finance Commission of India.

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4.4 THE ROLE OF MULTILATERAL AND BILATERAL INTERNATIONAL AGENCIES IN DEVELOPMENT

In this section, you will read about key international agencies that provide assistance to the development sector. You may have heard of some of them, such as the World Bank, Asian Development Bank.

4.4.1. Multilateral International Agencies

A few important multilateral international agencies that provide assistance in the development field are discussed:

i) World Bank

The World Bank is a vital source of financial and technical assistance to developing countries around the world. It is not a bank in the ordinary sense. It is made up of two unique development institutions—the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), and the International Development Association (IDA), both owned by 186 member countries. The World Bank is like a cooperative, where its 186 member countries are shareholders. The shareholders are represented by a Board of Governors. They are the ultimate policy makers at the World Bank. Generally, the governors are ministers of finance, or some equivalent from member countries.. They meet once a year, at the Annual Meetings of the Boards of Governors of the World Bank Group, and the International Monetary Fund.Both institutions, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), and the International Development Association (IDA), play different, but collaborative roles to advance the vision of inclusive and sustainable globalization. The IBRD focuses on middle income and creditworthy poor countries, while the IDA focuses on the poorest countries in the world. Together they provide low interest loans, interest free credits, and grants to developing countries for a wide range of activities that include investments in education, health, public administration, infrastructure, financial and private sector development, agriculture, and environmental and natural resource management.

ii) International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development aims to reduce poverty in middle income and creditworthy poorer countries by promoting sustainable development through loans, guarantees, risk management products, and analytical and advisory services. Established in 1944 as the original institution of the World Bank Group, the IBRD is structured like a cooperative that is owned and operated for the benefit of its 186 member countries.

The IBRD raises most of its funds from the world's financial markets, and it has become one of the most established borrowers since issuing its first bond in 1947. The income that IBRD has generated over the years has allowed it to fund development activities, and to ensure its financial strength, which enables it to borrow at low cost and offer its clents favourable borrowing terms. To fulfill its goals, it

- preserves borrowers' financial strength by providing support in crisis periods, which is when poor people are most adversely affected
- uses the leverage of supports long term human and social development needs that private creditors do not finance
- financing to promote key policy and institutional reforms (such as a safety net, or anticorruption reforms)
- creates a favorable investment climate in order to catalyze the provision of private capital
- provides financial support (in the form of grants made available from the IBRD's net income) in areas that are critical to the wellbeing of poor people in all countries.

Middle income countries, where 70 per cent of the world's poor live, have made profound improvements in economic management and governance over the past two decades, and are rapidly increasing their demand for the strategic, intellectual, and financial resources that the World Bank has to offer. The challenge facing the IBRD is to better manage and deliver its resources to meet the needs of these countries.

iii) International Development Association (IDA)

The International Development Association is a part of the World Bank that helps the world's poorest countries. It complements the World Bank's other lending arm — the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development— which serves middle income countries with capital investment and advisory services.

Loans from the IDA are designed to address issues in primary education, basic health services, clean water supply and sanitation, environmental safeguards, business climate improvements, infrastructure, and institutional reforms. These projects are intended to pave the way towards economic growth, job creation, higher incomes, and better living conditions.

The International Development Association helps to reduce poverty by providing no-interest loans and grants for programs that are aimed at boosting economic growth, and improving living conditions. The IDA funds help the poorest countries deal with the complex challenges they face in striving to meet the Millennium Development Goals. They must, for example, respond to competitive pressures, as well as the opportunities of globalization; arrest the spread of HIV/AIDS; and prevent conflict, or deal with its aftermath. The IDA's goal is to reduce inequalities both across, and within, countries by allowing more people to participate in the mainstream economy, reducing poverty, and promoting equal access to the opportunities created by economic growth. The IDA also provides grants to countries at risk of debt distress.

iv) Asian Development Bank (ADB)

The Asian Development Bank is a multilateral development finance institution whose mission is to reduce poverty in the Asia Pacific Region. Although the ADB claims to operate in the interest of Asia's poorest citizens, civil society

groups have long been concerned about the ADB's role in promoting sustainable and equitable growth in the region. The ADB was founded in 1966 with the goal of eradicating poverty in the region.

The Asian Development Bank is a many-sided development bank that is owned by around 67 member nations. The Asian Development Bank has provided India with loans of huge amounts over the years. The Asian Development Bank has helped India to reduce its level of poverty, improve infrastructure, and has given a boost to its economy.

The main objective of the Asian Development Bank is to help its members, who are developing countries, by providing them with technical assistance, grants, loans, and guarantees. With over 1.9 billion people living on less than $2 a day in Asia, the institution has a formidable challenge. It **undertakes the following, in the Asia Pacific Region**

- Provide loans and equity investments to its developing member countries (DMCs)
- Provide technical assistance for the planning and execution of development projects and programs, and, for advisory services
- Promote and facilitate investment of public and private capital for development
- Assist in coordinating development policies and plans of its DMCs.

India and the Asian Development Bank have had a relationship since 1966, when India became a member of the ADB. India holds around 224,010 shares in the ADB, and the percentage of votes that the country holds is 5.374%. The Asian Development Bank has provided India with large amounts of loans for various sectors, such as infrastructure, energy, financial, health, agriculture, and industry.

4.4.2 Bilateral International Agencies

Apart from the external multilateral assistance from the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, and the International Monetary Fund, there is provision for bilateral assistance as well. Many countries, such as Canada, Germany, Japan, UK, and USA, assist India and other developing countries on a regular basis. An outline of some of the organizations, and their role in developmental activities is given below.

i) Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)

Canadian bilateral economic assistance to India began in 1951. Until March 2005, the total Canadian bilateral economic assistance to India amounted to $ 2.743 billion (Canadian). The bilateral economic assistance mainly comprised development assistance, food, and technical assistance. Canadian assistance has been channelised through the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). The assistance extended by CIDA since 1, April, 1986, has been in the form of grants.

The Canadian bilateral assistance is provided in the form of grants to implement projects. The main objectives of CIDA's country policy programme for India had been

i) to promote economic and social policy reforms

ii) to contribute to India's capacity to promote environmentally sound development

iii) to assist in building a stronger economic relationship between the private sectors of both the countries.

ii) The Indo-German Bilateral Development Cooperation Programme

Since 1958, Germany has provided both financial and technical assistance to India, under the Indo-German Bilateral Development Cooperation Programme. Financial assistance is now being provided as soft loans, development loans (long term, and with reduced interest), Special Facility for Renewable Energy & Energy Efficiency, and as grants. During the Indo-German Annual Consultations, held in May, 2006, in New Delhi, a decision was taken to focus on the following sectors

- Energy
- Environmental policy
- Economic reforms.

Even though the health sector will not form a priority area for Indo-German Development Cooperation, activities in the field of health care financing, social health insurance, the prevention of pandemic contagious diseases (HIV/AIDS, Polio), and support to related health sector reforms have a place in the programme.

The existing Indo-German Bilateral Cooperation Programme is largely focused in the states of Madhya Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, West Bengal, and Orissa, though Germany is willing to offer development programmes to other parts of the country as well, particularly in the States of the North East ,and Uttarakhand.

iii) The Japan Bank for International Cooperation (JBIC), and the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA)

Japan has extended financial assistance for India's development programme since 1958. Initially Japanese aid to India was canalized through the Government owned Export-Import Bank of Japan (J-EXIM). During 1975-76, aid was canalized through the Overseas Economic Cooperation Fund (OECF) of Japan. From 1976-77 onwards, both project, and commodity aid was canalized through the OECF. With effect from 1 October, 1999, J-EXIM and OECF have merged, and a new agency, Japan Bank for International Cooperation, is the channel for both the Overseas Development Agency (ODA) programme, as well as for the international economic programmes of the Government of Japan. The Japanese ODA loan assistance to India is received through JBIC, and grants in aid, and technical cooperation are received through JICA.

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) facilitates the grant in aid programme of the Government of Japan, and implements the technical cooperation programme. By way of technical cooperation, JICA provides approximately Rs 35-40 crores to India in a financial year. The main components of Technical Cooperation are

- Technical Cooperation Projects
- Development Study
- Dispatch of Experts
- Follow-up Cooperation Programme
- Training of Indian Government personnel.

iv) The Department for International Development (DFID)

The United Kingdom has provided bilateral assistance to India since 1958. At present, the UK is the largest external bilateral development partner, in terms of grants. The UK's assistance is channeled through the Department for International Development (DFID). This bilateral assistance from UK is provided in the form of grants routed through the Government of India's budget, which includes direct payment by DFID for consultancy services, experts, training, etc.

The priority areas of the UK's assistance are mainly in the social sectors, such as health and family welfare, rural development, environment, slum development, education, and programmes that relate to the Millennium Development Goals. DFID has chosen Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, and West Bengal as its priority states. DFID also supports local NGOs and civil society projects through the Poorest Areas Civil Society project (PACS), and the Orissa Civil Society Poverty Programme (OCSPP). The funds for NGO projects are disbursed by DFID to the concerned NGOs. DFID also provides assistance through various multilateral agencies through trust funds with the World Bank, ADB, UNICEF, UNDP, and others in the social sector.

v) The US Agency for International Development (USAID)

Bilateral development assistance from the US to India started in 1951, and until March, 2006, the total assistance extended to India is, approximately, US$ 14.7 billion. The assistance, mainly administered through USAID, comprises development assistance, agricultural commodities, and technical assistance. The assistance extended by USAID at present is entirely in the form of grants in areas such as family planning services, AIDS prevention and control, disaster management, environment, and energy.

vi) European Commission (EC)

The EC extends development cooperation assistance to India since 1976. This assistance to India is entirely in the form of grants, and currently focuses on the areas of environment, public health, and education.

In the initial stages, the EC's development assistance was in the form of project financing. However, with the support of the Health & Family Welfare Sector Programme, the EC shifted their strategy to a sector based approach. The EC, in their Country Strategy Paper for India for 2002-2006, again changed in their strategy by adopting a partnership approach with one or two Indian states in order to deploy the bulk of their resources in these States for health, education and the Health and Family Welfare Sector Development Programme is implemented by the European Commission with the aim of reforming the health care system in India by focusing on primary health care services.

4.5 THE ROLE OF THE UNITED NATIONS AGENCIES IN DEVELOPMENT

Besides these multilateral and bilateral agencies, the United Nations agencies also provide assistance to promote the development of various sectors in developing countries. Some of the important agencies are discussed below .

i) The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) was set up in 1977, on the recommendation of the World Food Conference, which supported the setting up of an institution that would finance agricultural development projects, primarily for the expansion of food production in developing countries. The recommendation was endorsed by the United Nation's General Assembly, and this fund was set up as the 13th specialised agency of the United Nations.

Up to 31 March, 2006, 12 projects with assistance from IFAD amounting to US$ 322.07 million had been implemented in India. Presently seven projects with a total assistance of US$ 157.72 million are under implementation. These are on community resource management, tribal development, micro finance and livelihood security.

ii) The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

The United Nations Development Programme is the largest source of development cooperation in the UN system. The overall mission of the UNDP is sustainable human development through high priority to poverty alleviation, gender equity and women's empowerment, and environmental protection. The UNDP derives its funds from voluntary contributions from various donor countries. India's annual contribution to the UNDP has been to the extent of US$ 4.5 million (Rs. 20.25 crores), which is the largest among the developing countries.

The resources of the UNDP are distributed across countries, taking into account population and per capita Gross National Product. The country-specific allocation of UNDP resources is made every five years under the Country Cooperative Framework (CCF) .

The CCF focuses on the following thematic areas

- Promoting human development and gender equality
- Capacity building for decentralization
- Poverty eradication and sustainable livelihoods
- Vulnerability reduction and environment sustainability

iii) The United Nations International Children's Fund (UNICEF)

UNICEF was created by the United Nations General Assembly in 1946 to provide energy food and health care to children in countries devastated by World War II. UNICEF relies on contributions from government and private donors. UNICEF supports activities in the following areas

- Early child development through a focus on children under three years of age, and with special attention to early learning and care, low birth weight

and malnutrition, sanitation and hygiene, routine immunization, and safe motherhood

- The promotion of universal elementary education, particularly for girls, by concentrating on: (a) girls from difficult backgrounds including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes; (b) enhancing learning achievements; (c) and, mobilizing community involvement in schools
- The protection of children who are vulnerable to labour, trafficking, and sexual exploitation, as well as promoting an enabling environment for addressing protection issues
- The prevention of HIV/AIDS among children through: (a) imparting life skills to young people; (b) scaling up national efforts in the prevention of mother-to-child transmission; (c) and, advocating policy development and community-based actions to respond to those affected by HIV/AIDS
- Emergency preparedness and response to reduce vulnerabilities, and support the continuity of sector interventions.

The results of the UNICEF Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) programme have contributed to reduced infant and maternal mortality in the following manner

- An increased percentage of children have been fully immunized
- There is improved quality and access to the health system
- There are improved home practices, including management of childhood illness in selected districts
- The promotion of care practices for pregnant and lactating women and newborns.

iv) World Food Programme (WFP)

The The World Food Programme was first established in 1960. Governed by an Executive Board, it has representatives from 36 countries. It is the food aid branch of the United Nations, and is one of the world's largest humanitarian organizations. The main aim of the WFP is to eradicate hunger and malnutrition. The main goals of the WFP are to

- Save lives in refugee, and other emergency situations
- Improve the nutrition and quality of life of the most vulnerable people at a critical times in their lives
- Help build assets to promote the self reliance of poor people and communities, particularly through labour intensive work programmes.

The WFP has undertaken development projects support to supplementary feeding through ICDS; forestry, through food for work; livestock and dairy development; irrigation and rural development activities; and, assistance during natural calamities, such as floods in Assam, Madhya Pradesh, the super cyclone in Orissa, the earthquake in Gujarat, and tsunami assistance in Tamil Nadu and Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

In India, the WFP implements its projects through five-year Country Programme (CP) cycles, keeping in step with the Five Year Plan of the Government of India. The Country Programme (2003-2007) focuses on assisting the Government of India to improve their food based programme by creating replicable models to overcome the issue of food insecurity within the country. The priority for WFP operations in India is to address the specific problems of hunger and malnourishment amongst children and women. Consistent with the 10th Five Year Plan of the Government of India, the current CP focuses on nutrition, education for girls, and asset creation in regions with high levels of food insecurity, and low levels of human development. The most recent CP has two major goals

- To play a catalytic role in the country's efforts to reduce vulnerability, and eliminate hunger and food insecurity among the hungry and poor
- To promote and demonstrate models that provide immediate and long term food security in the most food insecure districts, in the least developed states of the country.

The activities under the current CP include

- Improving the nutritional status of children and women by providing support to the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS).
- Investing in human development, with a special emphasis on girls through a food for education programme. The aims of this activity are to contribute to the achievement of the government's goal of universal elementary education, and to assist the Ministry of Tribal Affairs in establishing a successful model for school feeding.
- Improving food security through disaster mitigation and the preservation and creation of assets through a food for work programme. The primary goal of the activity will be to improve the long term household food security of the most disadvantaged people through preservation, and creation of assets such as dug wells, ponds, field bunds, and forests.

v) The World Health Organization (WHO)

The World Health Organization is the international agency within the United Nations' system that is responsible for health programmes. The WHO objectives, as set out in its constitution, is the attainment, by all people, of the highest possible level of health. Health is defined in the WHO constitution as a state of complete physical, mental and social wellbeing, and not merely the absence of disease, or infirmity. Its major goal is to combat disease, especially infectious diseases, and to promote the general health of people.

The WHO's Country Office (WCO) in India collaborates with the Government of India. The primary partnership of the WCO is with the Union Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, with which it has day-to-day liaison with the ministry's International Health Division. WCO is guided by its Country Cooperation Strategy (CCS). The most recent CCS, 2006-2011, is the basis for undertaking technical assistance in collaboration with the Government of India, the states, development partners, and civil society. The CCS is the WHO's tool for alignment with national health strategies and priorities, as well as for harmony with other UN agencies, and development partners.

The WCO is organised around core programme clusters. Each of the core clusters has programmes on diseases such as communicable and non-communicable diseases or focuses on a specific area in the health sector such as child and adolescent health, and the health system. The WCO also has special programmes that focus on specific initiatives, such as the National Polio Surveillance (NPSP), Routine Immunization, Disease Surveillance, Revised National Tuberculosis Control (RNTCP), Emergency and Humanitarian Action.

vi) The United Nations Population Fund (UNPF)

The United Nations Population Fund (UNPF) was formed in 1969 by the name United Nations Fund for Population Activities. The UNPA supports programmes in Arab states in Europe, Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean, and sub Saharan Africa. The main trust of the UNFPA is to "reduce poverty, and to ensure that every pregnancy is wanted, every birth is safe, every young person is free of HIV/AIDS, and every girl and woman is treated with dignity, and respect." The main thrust of UNFPA is

- Universal access to reproductive health
- Universal primary education, and closing the gender gap
- reduce maternal and infant mortality
- enhance life expectancy
- and to reduce HIV infection rates.

In this section, the role of multilateral and bilateral international agencies and the role of united nations agencies in development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Financial institutions play a key role in the country's path to development. Discuss this in the light of the role played by the IDBI and NABARD.

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2) What are the objectives of UNICEF's RCH Program?

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4.6 LET US SUM UP

Development agencies play an important role in the development of a nation. In India, the National Planning Commission, the Finance Commission, the State Finance Commission, and State Planning Board play vital roles in the formulation of national and state plans. At the district level, under the umbrella of decentralized planning, the District Planning Committees are being involved in preparation of district development plans. This unit also discusses the role and the functions of various bilateral and UN agencies, such as the World Bank, the ADB, UNICEF, USAID, CIDA, along with others and their work in the development of various sectors. The development agencies, including NGO's and banks, also play an important role in the socioeconomic development of a nation.

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4.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress -1

1) What are the key functions of Niti Aayog?

Answer: To foster cooperative federalism through structured support initiatives and mechanisms with the States on a continuous basis, recognizing that strong States make a strong nation

- To develop mechanisms to formulate credible plans at the village level and aggregate these progressively at higher levels of government
- To ensure, on areas that are specifically referred to it, that the interests of national security are incorporated in economic strategy and policy

- To pay special attention to the sections of our society that may be at risk of not benefiting adequately from economic progress

2) Discuss the roles, functions and powers of the Finance Commission of India.

Answer: Under Article 280 of the Indian Constitution, the Finance Commission is required to make recommendations to President regarding

1) The distribution of net proceeds of taxes to be shared between the Centre and the States, and the allocation between the states of the respective share of such proceeds

2) The principles which should govern the grants-in-aid by the Center to the states out of the Consolidated Fund of India

3) The measures needed to augment the consolidated fund of a State to supplement the resources of the panchayats and the municipalities in the state, on the basis of the recommendations made by the State Finance Commission.

Check Your Progress- 2

1) Financial institutions play a key role in the country's path to development. Discuss this in the light of the role played by the IDBI and by NABARD.

Answer: The IDBI is vested with the responsibility of coordinating the working of institutions that are engaged in financing, promoting, and developing industries. It has evolved an appropriate mechanism for this purpose. NABARD initiates measures toward institution-building for improving the absorptive capacity of the credit delivery system. This includes monitoring, formulation of rehabilitation schemes, restructuring of credit institutions, training of personnel, etc. NABARD coordinates the rural financing activities of all the institutions engaged in developmental work at the field level, and maintains liaison with the government of India, state governments, with the Reserve Bank of India, as well as with other national level institutions that are concerned with policy formulation.

2) What are the objectives of the UNICEF's RCH Program?

Answer: The UNICEF Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) programme contributes to the reduction of infant and maternal mortality by realizing the following

a) An increased percentage of children, fully immunized

b) Improved quality and access to the health system

c) Improved home practices, including the management of childhood illness in selected districts

d) Promoting care practices for pregnant and lactating women and newborns.

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School of Extension and Development Studies

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May, 2018

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ISBN:

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Further information on the Indira Gandhi National Open University courses may be obtained from the University's office at Maidan Garhi, New Delhi.

Printed and published on behalf of the Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi by the Registrar, MPDD, IGNOU, New Delhi.

Laser Typeset by Tessa Media & Computers, C-206, A.F.E.-II, Okhla, New Delhi.

Printed at:

BLOCK 3 DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT-II

Block 3 has four units namely -Violence, Conflict and Social Movements, Social Exclusion and Discrimination, Marginalization and Freedom, Entitlement and Human Rights.

Unit-1 is on **'Violence, Conflict And Social Movements'** which gives an account of conflict: concept, causes and consequences, violence: concept, causes and consequences, dynamics of conflicts and violence, social movements: theories and dynamics and stages and types of social movement.

Unit-2 is on **'Social Exclusion and Discrimination'** which discusses stages of change, role of change agent, change cycle and barrier to change.

Unit-3 is on **'Marginalization'**, this unit discusses meaning and nature of marginalization, types of marginalization, causes of marginalization, levels of marginalization, marginalized groups and measures overcome marginalization

Unit-4 is on **'Freedom, Entitlement And Human Rights',** it discusses the types of Entitlement, Human Rights and Freedom. violence- concept, causes and consequences, dynamics of conflicts and violence, social movements: theories and dynamics, stages and types of social movement.

UNIT 1 VIOLENCE, CONFLICT AND SOCIAL MOVEMENTS

Struture

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Conflict: Concept, Types, Causes and Consequences

1.3 Violence: Concept, Causes and Consequences

1.4 Dynamics of Conflicts and Violence

1.5 Social Movements: Theories and Dynamics

1.6 Let Us Sum Up

1.7 References and Selected Readings

1.8 Check Your Progress-Possible Answers

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The idea of conflict is basic to our understanding and appreciation of our exchange with reality of human action. Conflict can be treated broadly as a philosophical category denoting the clash of power against power in the striving of all things to become manifest. Or, conflict can be seen simply as a distinct category of social behavior, as two parties trying to get something they both cannot have. Moreover, conflict can be apprehended as a potentiality or a situation, as a structure or manifestation, as an event or a process. Defining what exactly , a social movement is, can be difficult. It is not a political party or interest group, which is, stable political entities that have regular access to political power and political elites; nor is it a mass fad or trend, which is unorganized, fleeting without goals. Instead they are somewhere in between. Some characteristics of social movements are they are" involved in conflictual relations with clearly identified opponents; are linked by dense informal networks; and they share a distinct collective identity". Violence is the use of physical force to injure people or property. Violence may cause physical Pain to those who experience it directly, as well as emotional distress to those who either experience or witness it. Individuals, families, schools, workplace, communities, society and the environment all are harmed by violence.

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning of violence, conflict and social movements
- Describe the types and causes of violence, conflict and social movements
- Discuss the consequences and remedies for violence and conflict

1.2 CONFLICT: CONCEPT, TYPES, CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES

1.2.1 Conflict: Meaning and Concept

It is difficult to conceive of a human community where there is no conflict among members or between persons in the company and outsiders. At the same time, the degree to which conflict is physically violent varies widely. There are such as the Yanomano, where feuding and warfare are an ongoing condition of life, in

contrast to the Fore of New Guinea where open physical expression of differences is rare and strongly discouraged. Conflict is an integral aspect of political life. It involves efforts of two or more mutually opposed parties to obtain scare resources at each other's expense through destroying, injuring, thwarting or otherwise controlling other parties. Societies can differ greatly in their levels of conflict behavior, the ways in which conflicts are played out, and the mechanisms for dispute settlement which are utilized to control or direct conflicts when they occur. There is variation in the nature of conflict. Conflicts in some societies or between members of a society and outsiders are violent, while in some cases, where there are clearly disagreements and differences, open violence is rare?. Political violence, from this perspective, is not simply present or absent in a society. At one end violence is common, perhaps endemic; at the mid-point conflict is common, but it takes more institutionalized forms; at the low end, conflict rarely becomes physically violent.

Conflict is therefore universal, as Heracleitus pointed out. Our very experience presupposes conflict in its generation, and our knowledge, apart from its priority categories, is based on such conflict. Our learning about ourselves, others, and reality, our growth and development, and our increasing ability to create own heaven or hell comes through conflict. The desire to eradicate conflict, the hope for harmony and universal cooperation, is the wish for a frozen, unchanging world with all relationships fixed in their patterns-with all in balance. One in which we cannot hope or plan for a better tomorrow, but can only follow our inevitable course, with the determined ups and downs of a wooden horse on a merry-go-round.

Conflict is present when two or more parties perceive that their interests are incompatible, express hostel attitudes, take or pursue their interests through actions that damage the other parties. These parties may be individuals, or small or large groups, and countries. Interests can diverge in many ways:

i) Over resources-territory, money, energy sources, food-and how they should be distributed.

ii) Over power, how control and participation in political decision-making are allocated.

iii) Over identity, concerning the cultural, social and political communities to which people feel tied.

iv) Over status, whether people believe they are treated with respect and dignity and whether their traditions and social positions are respected.

v) Over values, particularly those embodied in systems of government, religion, or ideology.

1.2.2 Types of Conflict

The various type of conflict are:

i) Latent Conflict-Sometimes an observer may believe that parties interests are incompatible but the respective parties are not aware of these incompatibilities. This may be caused by self-delusion, rationalization, lack of knowledge, or suppressed information. We call such unacknowledged or barely recognized conflicts of interests latent. Conflicts become manifest when these unacknowledged contrary interests becomes conscious and voiced.

ii) Peaceful Conflict-is handled according to regulated mechanisms to pursue competing interests. Various factors regulate conflict: national constitutions and laws, family and clan structures, court systems, religious codes, habits of decorum, debate and discourse, among other mechanisms. These can be informal and tacit-social mores and customs. They can also be highly formal and institutionalized, as in a nation's written statutes. Elections are a classic way that conflicts can be addressed peacefully. Peaceful conflict resolution mechanisms can be traditional or modern, local, national, or international.

iii) Violent Conflict-Conflicts can become violent when parties go beyond seeking to attain their goals peacefully, and try to dominate or destroy the opposing parties' ability to pursue their own interests. Conflicting interests can be pursued without violence or coercion: not all conflicts are violent. Conflicts handled peacefully and non-coercively can be positive events. Societies can progress when parties' changing needs are identified and accommodated, as happens when minorities are recognized and better served. With so much violent around the world, we might assume that violent conflict and coercion are the natural order of things: human beings are inherently aggressive, and wars and violent conflicts are inevitable. Yet violence does not always occur, even when interests differ: violence is not inevitable.

1.2.3 Causes of Conflict

Following are a few important causes of conflict:

i) Systemic Causes: Structural Conditions

Systemic determinants cause objective changes in parties' material circumstances; environmental deterioration, population growth, resource scarcity and competition, the colonial or Cold War legacy, breakdown of values and traditions, poverty, the marginalization of pastoralists, and ethnicity are all examples of systemic causes of conflict. Systemic sources of conflict are pervasive and affect large numbers of people. Their influence on the probability of conflict operates slowly. Measures like international programs or government policies that seek to prevent or reduce conflicts by treating their systemic sources show results over the long term.

ii) Proximate causes: Political and Institutional Factors

Proximate sources are problems in the social, political, and communications processes and institutions that mediate the effect of systemic conditions on peoples' lives and behavior. Proximate factors are crucial influences on whether systemic conditions give rise to violent reactions or to more peaceful ways of dealing with conflicting interests. The linkage between proximate determinants and manifestations of violent conflict are easier to discern and their effect is more direct. Government policies, social organization, economic reform programs, the problems of political liberalization, militarization and external military aid can all be proximate sources of conflict.

1.2.4 Immediate Causes:

A) Acts and Events

The most immediate and direct causes of violent conflict are found in actions and events that trigger violent actions-for instance , a government cracks down on an oppressed group which prompts a rebellion. Because they are more visible, these factors may be relatively easier to influence.

B) External and Internal Factors

The source of the cause of conflict is another major dimension influencing a country's position on the spectrum from conflict to peace. Domestic and regional factors can encourage or help to head off violent approaches to resolving tensions, as can exogenous factors carried out by third parties. Internal and external determinants of conflict can be systemic, proximate or immediate. A favored hypothesis is that conflict is a result of population pressure. Too many people make too many demands on each other and create intolerable frustrations, thus provoking social conflict.

1.2.5 Consequences of Conflict

Countries suffer from many different consequences of violent conflict. Violent conflict kills people in different ways-although it is often difficult to estimate how many. Civilians and soldiers are killed in combat; people die because of a higher prevalence of diseases; and people are killed because of an increase in violent crime. Wars force mass migration. Countries that have experienced violent conflict also face a high risk of renewed conflict. Conflict Also has economic consequences. It leads to unemployment and loss of income owing to disruption of economic activity, destruction of infrastructure, uncertainty, increased cost of doing business. Futhermore, social spending is often cut to accommodate increased military spending

1.2.6 Prevention and Control of Conflict

Conflict prevention strategies may distinguish between operational prevention(measures applicable in the face of imminent crisis) includes early warning, mediation, conciliation, preventive disarmament and preventive deployment using interactive means.

Structural prevention often elaborated under peace-building initiatives and comprising political, institutional (governance) and development reforms, capacity enhancement and advocacy on the culture of peace.

1.3 VIOLENCE: CONCEPT, CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES

1.3.1 What is violence?

Violence is the use of physical force to injure people or property. Violence may cause physical pain to those who experience it directly, as well as emotional distress to those who either experience or witness it. Individuals, families, schools, workplaces, communities, society, and the environment all are harmed by violence.

Violence is a social and health problem for all who experience and witness it. Violence takes many forms, including:

- Family violence, often referred to as domestic abuse, child abuse, child maltreatment, spouse abuse, and wife battering
- Peer group violence, which includes workplace violence, school violence, gang violence, and bullying
- Sexual violence, which includes rape * , date rape, marital rape, intimate partner abuse, and child sexual abuse
- Abuse of power, which includes mistreatment of children, students, elders, people with disabilities, and others who are smaller or less powerful than the abuser
- Community violence, which includes assaults, fights, shootings, homicides, and most forms of peer violence
- Hate crimes and hate speech, which target victims based on gender, age, race, ethnicity, religious belief, or sexual orientation
- Media violence, shown on television, in film, and in video games.

1.3.2 Why do people behave violently?

Research indicates that violent behavior may have many different causes, some of which are inborn but most of which are learned from experiencing or witnessing violent behavior by others, particularly those who are role models.

- bullying is when a person repeatedly intimidates or acts aggressively toward those with less power or ability to defend themselves.
- rape is when a person forces another person to have sexual intercourse. or engage in other unwanted sexual activities.

1.3.3 Causes of Violence

The causes of violence are:

i) Genetics

Chromosomes carry genetic messages from parents to offspring, and there is some research that suggests that, in some cases, aggressiveness may be inherited.

ii) Brain injury

Injury to the front parts of the brain may remove some Personal Control Over Anger And Aggression.

iii) Antisocial personality disorder

People with antisocial personality disorder often behave violently even as children. They may disregard their own safety and the safety of others. People with this disorder do not seem to understand that violence harms other people, and they do not seem to have a conscience that tells them right from wrong. The terms sociopath and psychopath sometimes are used to describe people with antisocial personality disorder.

iv) Alcohol and substance abuse

Drinking and drugs often play a role in violence. For some, these substances interfere with otherwise good judgement or behavior. Some people try to use alcohol or drugs to treat their feelings of anger or depression, but instead feel worse. Violence toward others—or towards themselves—can result.

v) Desensitization

Constantly viewing violence at home, in communities, or on television can lead people to believe that violence is a normal part of life. People who are surrounded by violence may reach a point where they no longer notice violent events or remember that peaceful behavior is a possibility.

vi) Learned helplessness

People who resign themselves to the belief that violence is an inevitable part of their lives may give up trying to avoid or escape that violence. They may become passive and unable to create safety for themselves or their families. Battered wives who remain at home with battering husbands, for example, may believe that trying to escape violence is hopeless.

vii) Social Modeling

Children learn by observation and by imitation. Children who observe their home, school, or media role models behaving in violent ways may come to believe that turning angry feelings into angry actions is acceptable behavior, or even the most effective way to solve problems. Such children may never learn peaceful behaviors orcooperative ways to solve problems.

Parents who model abusive behavior at home can create a cycle of violence, teaching children to grow up to be abusive adults. The importance of positive role models and the dangers of negative role models should not be underestimated.

1.3.4 How is Violence treated and Prevented?

People who experience or witness violence should react immediately. Police and violence hotlines should be called in an emergency. People who have been injured should be taken to a clinic or hospital emergency room for treatment. When an immediate crisis has ended, a family doctor or school counselor or member of the clergyshould be contacted for counseling and referrals. Shelters and child protection agencies can help battered women and children. Counseling can help batterers and their families to learn better behaviors for managing stress, conflict, and anger. Therapists can help people with post-traumatic stress disorder * achieve emotional recovery from the aftermath of violence.

1.3.5 Social Modelling and Self Regulation

Social psychologist Albert Bandura has been studying social modeling, observational learning, aggression, and self-regulation since the 1970s. Bandura's theories indicate that role models (social modeling) can influence people toward creativity or toward violence. If children observe violent behavior at home, in school, or on television, they may come to believe that turning angry feelings into angry actions is acceptable behavior. When these children become angry themselves, they will display the behaviors they have observed, and they even

may create new angry behaviors that go beyond what they have learned from their models.

Another important aspect of Bandura's research focuses on self-direction and self-efficacy, or people's beliefs about their own abilities to influence and affect the world around them. If children observe adults failing to control their own angry feelings or violent behaviors, or if they observe violent behavior going unpunished, they may come to believe that peacefild behaviors cannot succeed or are not worthwhile activities. They may lose their motivation to learn cooperative problem-solving skills, or they may quit before they achieve success in using these skills.

Post-traumatic stress disorder is a mental disorder in which people who have survived a terrifying event relive their terror in nightmares, memories, and feelings of fear. It is severe enough to interfere with everyday living and can occur after a natural disaster, military combat, rape, mugging, or other violence.

Those who commit violent acts or have violent or angry feelings need to receive treatment. Emotional problems, drug and alcohol abuse, and other conditions which make a person more violence-prone need to be dealt with. The social forces that prevent violence—family, friends, and the community—need to take positive steps to make violence less likely and to increase safety.

Physical violence is never an acceptable form of behavior. Everyone has choices. Becoming aware of the problems, deciding not to follow violent patterns, and making a commitment to learn new ways of relating are the keys to change. It is never too late to change the pattern of violence in families, communities, or society.

In this unit, you have read about conflict: concept, causes and consequences and violence: concept, causes and consequences. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 1.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What do you understand by conflict and violence?

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.....

.....

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2) What are the types of conflict? Explain any one

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1.4 DYNAMICS OF CONFLICTS AND VIOLENCE

The dynamics of conflicts and violence can be broadly categorized into the following types:

1.4.1 Caste Dynamics

In the past four decades, types of ethnic conflicts in india have increased and exhibited the extremes of violence between the upper castes Hindus and scheduled Castes, between Hindus and Muslims and between Hindus and Sikhs. The caste system in India has been a feature of India's social milieu from time immemorial. The caste system is very rigid and is discriminating against the lower caste that are exploited and suppressed by the upper castes. The Scheduled castes represent either depressed or backward or 'unclean' low castes. Low caste Hindus had always been accepted as inferior members of the society and was, therefore, excluded from active participation in public life. They were traditionally placed in an unprivileged position. Their economic condition has been poor, their social status low, and their political participation altogether absent.

1.4.2 Community Dynamics

According to the constitution of India, two types of people are considered as minority communities in the country. First is religious minority and second one is linguistic minority. In religious minorities, followers of all religions except Hindus are considered as Minorities on national and state level. This includes the following religions:Muslims, Chritians Sikhs, Buddhists, Jains and Parsis.

Linguistic minorities are those who have different first language than the first language of majority of the people in the state.Thus, for example, Gujarati speaking people living in Maharashtra are linguistic minorities in Maharashtra.There are minority commissions on national and sate levels. Religious minorities get special benefits, especially in the field of education and educational institutions.

The commissions looks into the matters related to minorities. Minority communities can establish their own educational institutions, and can reserve 50% seats of students reserved for own community members. Common problems affecting minorities are on the rise .Some of the major problems of minorities are discussed below:

i) Problem of Identity

Because of the differences in socio-cultural practices, history and backgrounds, minorities have to grapple with the issue of identity everywhere which give rise to the problem of adjustment with the majority community.

ii) Problem of Security

Different identity and their small number relative to the rest of the society develops feeling of insecurity about their life, assets and well-being. This sense of insecurity may get accentuated at times when relations between the majority and the minority communities in a society are strained or not much cordial.

iii) Problem Relating to Equity

The minority community in a society may remain deprived of the benefit of opportunities of development as a result of discrimination. Because of the

difference in identity, the minority community develops the perception of the sense of inequity.

1.5 SOCIAL MOVEMENTS:THEORIES AND DYNAMICS

Sociologists have developed several theories related to social movements . Some of the better-known approaches are outlined below. Chronologically they include:

- collective behavior/collective action theories (1950s)
- relative deprivation theory (1960s)
- marxist theory (1880s)
- value-added theory (1960s)
- resource mobilization (1970s)
- political process theory (1980s)
- framing theory (1980s) (closely related to social constructionist theory)
- new social movement theory (1980s)

1.5.1 Deprivation theory

Deprivation theory argues that social movements have their foundations among people who feel deprived of some good(s) or resource(s). According to this approach, individuals who are lacking some good, service, or comfort are more likely to organize a social movement to improve (or defend) their conditions.

There are two significant problems with this theory. First, since most people feel deprived at one level or another almost all the time, the theory has a hard time explaining why the groups that form social movements do when other people are also deprived. Second, the reasoning behind this theory is circular – often the only evidence for deprivation is the social movement. If deprivation is claimed to be the cause but the only evidence for such is the movement, the reasoning is circular.

1.5.2 Mass Society Theory

Mass society theory argues that social movements are made up of individuals in large societies who feel insignificant or socially detached. Social movements, according to this theory, provide a sense of empowerment and belonging that the movement members would otherwise not have.

Very little support has been found for this theory. Aho in his study of Idaho Christian Patriotism, did not find that members of that movement were more likely to have been socially detached. In fact, the key to joining the movement was having a friend or associate who was a member of the movement.

1.5.3 Structural Strain Theory

Social strain theory, also known as value-added theory, proposes six factors that encourage social movement development

1) structural conduciveness – people come to believe their society has problems

2) structural strain – people experience deprivation

3) growth and spread of a solution – a solution to the problems people are experiencing is proposed and spreads

4) precipitating factors – discontent usually requires a catalyst (often a specific event) to turn it into a social movement

5) lack of social control – the entity that is to be changed must be at least somewhat open to the change; if the social movement is quickly and powerfully repressed, it may never materialize

6) mobilization – this is the actual organizing and active component of the movement; people do what needs to be done

This theory is also subject to circular reasoning as it incorporates, at least in part, deprivation theory and relies upon it, and social/structural strain for the underlying motivation of social movement activism. However, social movement activism is, like in the case of deprivation theory, often the only indication that there was strain or deprivation.

1.5.4 Resource mobilization theory

emphasizes the importance of resources in social movement development and success. Resources are understood here to include: knowledge, money, media, labor, solidarity, legitimacy, and internal and external support from power elite. The theory argues that social movements develop when individuals with grievances are able to mobilize sufficient resources to take action.The emphasis on resources offers an explanation why some discontented/deprived individuals are able to organize while others are not.

In contrast to earlier collective behavior perspectives on social movements—which emphasized the role of exceptional levels of deprivation, grievance, or social strain in motivating mass protest—Resource Mobilization perspectives hold "that there is always enough discontent in any society to supply the grass-roots support for a movement if the movement is effectively organized and has at its disposal the power and resources of some established elite group." Movement emergence is contingent upon the aggregation of resources by social movement entrepreneurs and movement organizations, who use these resources to turn collective dissent in to political pressure.Members are recruited through networks; commitment is maintained by building a collective identity, and through interpersonal relationships.

Resource Mobilization Theory views social movement activity as "politics by other means": a rational and strategic effort by ordinary people to change society or politics. The form of the resources shapes the activities of the movement (e.g., access to a TV station will result in the extensive use TV media). Movements develop in contingent opportunity structures that influence their efforts to mobilize; and each movement's response to the opportunity structures depends on the movement's organization and resources.

Critics of this theory argue that there is too much of an emphasis on resources, especially financial resources. Some movements are effective without an influx of money and are more dependent upon the movement members for time and labor (e.g., the civil rights movement in the U.S.).

1.5.5 Political Process Theory

Political process theory is similar to resource mobilization in many regards, but tends to emphasize a different component of social structure that is important for social movement development: political opportunities. Political process theory argues that there are three vital components for movement formation: insurgent consciousness, organizational strength, and political opportunities.

Insurgent consciousness refers back to the ideas of deprivation and grievances. The idea is that certain members of society feel like they are being mistreated or that somehow the system is unjust. The insurgent consciousness is the collective sense of injustice that movement members (or potential movement members) feel and serves as the motivation for movement organization.

1.5.6 Four Stages of Social Movements

One of the earliest scholars to study social movement processes was Herbert Blumer, who identified four stages of social movements' lifecycles. The four stages he described were: "social ferment," "popular excitement," "formalization," and "institutionalization" Since his early work, scholars have refined and renamed these stages but the underlying themes have remained relatively constant. Today, the four social movement stages are known as:

- Emergence,
- Coalescence,
- Bureaucratization, and
- Decline

Although the term decline may sound negative, it should not necessarily be understood in negative terms. Scholars have noted that social movements may decline for several reasons and have identified five ways they do decline. These are:

- Success,
- Organizational failure,
- Co-optation,
- Repression, or
- Establishment within mainstream society

Stage 1: Emergence

The first stage of the social movement life cycle is known as the emergence, or, as described by Blumer, the "social ferment" stage (Within this stage, social movements are very preliminary and there is little to no organization. Instead this stage can be thought of as widespread discontent . Potential movement participants may be unhappy with some policy or some social condition, but they have not taken any action in order to redress their grievances, or if they have it is most likely individual action rather than collective action. A person may comment to friends and family that he or she is dissatisfied with conditions or may write a letter to the local newspaper or representative, but these actions are not strategic and not collective. Further, there may be an increase in media coverage of negative conditions or unpopular policies which contributes to the general sense of discontent.

Stage 2 Coalescence

At this next stage in the life cycle, social movements have overcome some obstacles which many never overcome. Often, social unrest or discontent passes without any organizing or widespread mobilization. For example, people in a community may complain to each other about a general injustice, but they do not come together to act on those complaints and the social movement does not progress to the next level. Stage two, known as coalescence, or the "popular stage," is characterized by a more clearly defined sense of discontent. It is no longer just a general sense of unease, but now a sense of what the unease is about and who or what is responsible. Rex D. Hopper in examining revolutionary processes, states that at this stage "unrest is no longer covert, endemic, and esoteric; it becomes overt, epidemic, and exoteric. Discontent is no longer uncoordinated and individual; it tends to become focalized and collective" . Further he states "this is the stage when individuals participating in the mass behavior of the preceding stage become aware of each other" . At this point leadership emerges and strategies for success are worked out. Also, at this stage mass demonstrations may occur in order to display the social movement's power and to make clear demands. Most importantly this is the stage at which the movement becomes more than just random upset individuals; at this point they are now organized and strategic in their outlook.

Stage 3 is known as bureaucratization. This stage, defined by Blumer as "formalization," is characterized by higher levels of organization and coalition based strategies. In this stage, social movements have had some success in that they have raised awareness to a degree that a coordinated strategy is necessary across all of the SMOs. Similarly, SMOs will come to rely on staff persons with specialized knowledge that can run the day-to-day operations of the organization and carry out movement goals. Social movements in this stage can no longer just rely on mass rallies or inspirational leaders to progress towards their goals and build constituencies; they must rely on trained staff to carry out the functions of organizations. In this phase their political power is greater than in the previous stages in that they may have more regular access to political elites. Many social movements fail to bureaucratize in this way and end up fizzling out because it is difficult for members to sustain the emotional excitement necessary and because continued mobilization becomes too demanding for participants. Formalization often means that paid staff can fill in when highly enthusiastic volunteers are not readily available . The gay rights movement is an example of a movement that has passed through this stage. The gay rights movement moved from agitation and demonstrations to having many formal organizations that now work toward the goals of the gay rights movement. Some of these organizations include the Human Rights Campaign and the Gay and Lesbian Alliance Against Discrimination (GLAAD). If they did not form these bureaucratic organizations, many movements would have most likely faded away and their demands would have gone unmet.

Stage 4 Decline

Finally, the last stage in the social movement life cycle is decline, or "institutionalization." Decline does not necessarily mean failure for social movements though. Instead, Miller argues, there are four ways in which social movements can decline: • Repression, • Co-optation, • Success, and • Failure.

In this unit, you have read about dynamics of conflict and violence and social movements. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What are the major problems faced by minorities? Explain briefly.

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2) What are the stages of social movement ?Explain any one

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1.6 LET US SUM UP

The idea of conflict is basic to our understanding and appreciation of our exchange with reality of human action. Conflict can be treated broadly as a philosophical category denoting the clash of power against power in the striving of all things to become manifest. Or, conflict can be seen simply as a distinct category of social behavior, as two parties trying to get something they both cannot have. Moreover, conflict can be apprehended as a potentiality or a situation, as a structure or manifestation, as an event or a process. Defining what exactly , a social movement is, can be difficult. It is not a political party or interest group, which is, stable political entities that have regular access to political power and political elites; nor is it a mass fad or trend, which is unorganized, fleeting without goals. Instead they are somewhere in between. Some characteristics of social movements are they are" involved in conflictual relations with clearly identified opponents; are linked by dense informal networks; and they share a distinct collective identity". Violence is the use of physical force to injure people or property. Violence may cause physical Pain to those who experience it directly, as well as emotional distress to those who either experience or witness it. Individuals, families, schools, workplace, communities, society and the environment all are harmed by violence.

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1.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress- 1

1) What do you understand by conflict and violence?

Answer: Conflict is present when two or more parties perceive that their interests are incompatible, express hostel attitudes, take or pursue their interests through actions that damage the other parties. Violence is the use of physical force to injure people or property. Violence may cause physical pain to those who experience it directly, as well as emotional distress to those who either experience or witness it.

2) What are the types of conflict? Explain any one

Answer: The types of conflict are:Latent conflict, peaceful conflict and violent conflict.

Violent Conflict-Conflicts can become violent when parties go beyond seeking to attain their goals peacefully, and try to dominate or destroy the opposing parties' ability to pursue their own interests.

Check Your Progress- 2

1) What are the major problems faced by minorities? Explain briefly.

Answer: The major problems faced by minorities:

i) Problem of Identity

Because of the differences in socio-cultural practices, history and backgrounds, minorities have to grapple with the issue of identity everywhere which give rise to the problem of adjustment with the majority community.

ii) Problem of Security

Different identity and their small number relative to the rest of the society develops feeling of insecurity about their life, assets and well-being.

2) What are the stages of social movement ?Explain any one

Answer: Stage 1: Emergence, Stage 2: Coalescence, Stage 3: is known as bureaucratization and Stage 4: Decline

The first stage of the social movement life cycle is known as the emergence, or, as described by Blumer, the "social ferment" stage (Within this stage, social movements are very preliminary and there is little to no organization. Instead this stage can be thought of as widespread discontent .

UNIT 2 SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND DISCRIMINATION

Structure

2.1 Introduction
2.2 Factors , Dimensions and Types of Exclusion
2.3 Socially Excluded Groups
2.4 Impact of Exclusion
2.5 Discrimination and Discriminated Groups
2.6 Factors and Dimensions of Discrimination
2.7 Measures to Promote Inclusive Development
2.8 Let Us Sum Up
2.9 References and Selected Readings
2.10 Check Your Progress-Possible Answers

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Social exclusion remains a malaise in all societies. Social exclusion is a process by which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society within which they live. The term "social exclusion" was originally coined by Rene Lenoir, in France in 1974 to refer to various categories of people such as "mentally and physically handicapped, suicidal people, aged invalids, abused children, substance abusers, delinquents, single parents, multi-problem householders, marginal, a social persons, and other social misfits" .But this term encompasses many dimensions: social, economic, legal and political. In India, unique forms of exclusion are observed where certain group like the dalits, experience systematic exclusion in regard to accruing the benefits of development, and institutional inequality and discrimination have been prevailed in the society. It hampers democracy, development, and social integration. Dalits are excluded in every walk of life. The Indian social

system, which was based on the principle of purity and pollution, was a system of inequality. This system denied equality before law, equal opportunity of the law and equal protection of the law. Thus, it was a source of social exclusion, and thereby a source of violation of human rights as well.

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- To understand the factors, dimensions and types of exclusion
- To describe impact of exclusion and discrimination and discriminated groups
- Explain factors, dimensions of discriminated groups and measures to promote inclusive development

2.1.1 Social Exclusion: Concept and Meaning

Exclusion as a social phenomenon is expressed in different forms all over the world. Social exclusion and discrimination are practiced on the basis of ethnicity, gender and religion. In Indian society, mainly, the caste and patriarchal systems

are the source of social exclusion. Social hierarchy of traditional social system in India presents inequality between the highest and lowest castes. But in reality, the downtrodden communities are excluded from interaction and denied access to resources through iniquitous social arrangements.

The concept of social exclusion has been defined differently among social scientists, by western and Indian. According to Silver ,social exclusion is multidimensional process of progressive social rapture, detaching groups and individuals from social relation and institutions and preventing them from full participation in the formal, normatively prescribed activities of the society in which they live. Amartya Sen observes that social exclusion emphasizes the role of relational feature in deprivation.

Bauvinic summarizes the meaning of social exclusion as the inability of individual to participate in the basic political, economic and social functioning of society and goes on to add that it involves "the denial of equal access of opportunities imposed by certain groups in society upon others." On the whole, social exclusion may be termed as a process by which, certain groups are wholly or partly denied from full participation in the development activities-social, economic, cultural and political life of societies. Thus, social exclusion refers to process in which individuals and entire communities of people are systematically blocked from rights, opportunities and resources (e.g. housing, employment, healthcare, civic engagement, democratic participation and due process) that are normally available to members of society and which are key to social integration.

Social exclusion is about the inability of our society to keep all groups and individuals within reach of what we expect as a society. It is about the tendency to push vulnerable and difficult individuals into the least popular places, furthest away from our common aspirations.

The term social exclusion is of relatively recent origin; however, it encompasses a wide range of social and economic aspects. Different scholars decipher this notion in various contexts. Broadly, it indicates the relative deprivation of any person or group of persons on various predetermined criterion. Caste- based occupational groups in India, like that of manual scavengers, constitute one such socially, economically, psychologically and politically marginalised section of the society. In India, social exclusion revolves around some sections of the population, particularly, dalits, adivasis, women and minorities. They are the victims of social exclusion by caste, sex, ethnicity and by religion. In the society, they are isolated, discriminated and deprived of equal access to social and economic opportunities. Therefore, in the Indian context, the core feature of social exclusion is the denial of equal opportunities by certain groups of the society which impose themselves upon others that leads the inability of an individual to participate in the basic political, economic and social functioning of society.

Amartya Sen believes the concept of social exclusion is useful because of its emphasis on the role of relational issues in deprivation. He then goes further, arguing that it is important to distinguish between exclusion which is in itself a deprivation (that is, the exclusion has constitutive relevance) and exclusion which is not in itself negative, but which can lead to other deprivations which do not have constitutive relevance. Sen cites landlessness and lack of access to the credit market as examples of this latter type of exclusion, which have what he

calls 'instrumental importance'. That is, landlessness or not having access to the credit market may not be impoverishing in themselves, but may lead to other deprivations (such as income poverty) through causal consequences, such as the inability to take advantage of income-generating activities that require collateral or an initial investment and use of credit.

2.2 FACTORS, DIMENSIONS AND TYPES OF EXCLUSION

2.2.1 Factors of Exclusion

i) Spatial Factors

Spatial inequalities include disparities between rural and urban areas, and also between geographically advantaged and disadvantaged areas. Spatial disadvantage may result from the remoteness of a location which makes it physically difficult for its inhabitants to participate in broader socio-economic processes. Or it may operate through the segregation of urban environments and the 'subcultures' of violence, criminality, drug dependence and squalor which can often characterize urban slums and excluded neighbourhoods. In some cases, ghettos of marginalized religious or ethnic groups can form as the direct result of communal violence. In many countries, these disparities are increasing, partly as a consequence of the uneven impact of trade and globalization. These disparities are particularly worrying where they overlap with political or ethnic divisions.

The spatial dimension of exclusion cannot be entirely separated from its resource and identity dimensions since it is usually culturally and economically marginalized groups that inhabit physically deprived spaces. Activities of economic and political importance are often concentrated in urban centres. These centres also benefit from a constant inflow of new material, and financial and human resources from the peripheries. Government policies can also be biased towards these areas. As a result of this, and the constant leakage of resources to the central regions, peripheral areas often have difficulty in self-sustaining economic development.

ii) Migration

Migration can act both as a way of moving out of poverty, and a cause of social exclusion. For example, foreign remittances can help receiving households to increase their income and consumption levels, as well as their capabilities to face socioeconomic shocks. However, rural-urban migrants for example, often do not benefit from the same political, social and economic rights as other urban citizens. They often find themselves in insecure, low-paid jobs, or become concentrated in vulnerable areas such as slums and deprived housing estates, with high levels of criminality and violence.

Similar conditions can also sometimes affect foreign immigrants or refugee groups, generating mutual mistrust and resentment. 'Host'-immigrant tensions can be increased by perceptions of religious, ethnic or cultural 'otherness' that can sharpen social divisions and potentially contribute to conflict. (However, findings from West Africa suggest that cultural similarities between

immigrants and host populations can actually worsen immigrant-host relations.)

Where policy directly or indirectly discriminates against migrant and immigrant populations – through, for instance, the targeting of immigrants by law enforcement in the first case, or the failure to provide language assistance to foreign migrants in the second – this process may become cyclical, with structural exclusion driving low educational attainment, low employment, vulnerability to crime and consequent community tensions. There are thus fears that the exclusion of migrants can pose a threat to stability.

2.2.2 Dimensions of Exclusion

- Political exclusion can include the denial of citizenship rights such as political participation and the right to organise, and also of personal security, the rule of law, freedom of expression and equality of opportunity. Bhalla and Lapeyre argue that political exclusion also involves the notion that the state, which grants basic rights and civil liberties, is not a neutral agency but a vehicle of a society's dominant classes, and may thus discriminate between social groups.
- Economic exclusion includes lack of access to labour markets, credit and other forms of 'capital assets'.
- Social exclusion may take the form of discrimination along a number of dimensions including gender, ethnicity and age, which reduce the opportunity for such groups to gain access to social services and limits their participation in the labour market.
- Cultural exclusion refers to the extent to which diverse values, norms and ways of living are accepted and respected.

These relationships are interconnected and overlapping, and given the complexity of influences on individuals, it is impossible to identify a single specific cause in the context of social exclusion. People may be excluded because of deliberate action on the part of others (e.g. discrimination by employers); as a result of processes in society which do not involve deliberate action; or even by choice. However, more generally, the causes of social exclusion that lead to poverty, suffering and sometimes death, can be attributed to the operations of unequal power relations.

2.2.3 Types of Exclusion

There are clear links between the concept of social exclusion and a rights-based approach to development. Social exclusion analysis can help to identify which groups are being denied access to their rights, and which actors or organizations are blocking their access. A social exclusion analysis is useful even when rights are not on the agenda, because it can help focus attention on those within society who are denied access to resources, institutions or decision-making processes. Social exclusion therefore also links to development agendas focusing on citizenship, participation, democratisation and accountability.

i) **Social exclusion:** addresses the political nature of deprivation, in that it examines the links between people's lack of citizenship status and their levels of poverty.

ii) **Political Exclusion:** Political aspects of exclusion can include the lack of political rights, such as political participation and the right to organise; alienation from or lack of confidence in political processes; and lack of freedom of expression and equality of opportunity. Citizenship is centred on the capability of exercising individual and collective rights, and inequalities in this capability can generate a social hierarchy, made up of first- and second-class citizens. This often means that not all individuals are equal before the law, and that they do not all have the same access to public goods supplied by the state.

iii) **Economic Exclusion:** The distribution of resources and the accumulation of wealth is an unequal process, which is based on power relations, the capacity of various groups to lobby for their interests and influence the government's agenda, and the targeting of government policies. Economic exclusion also refers to the exclusion of workers (either totally or partially) from three basic markets: labour, credit, and insurance. Whilst this exclusion plays an important role in the reproduction of inequality, it is also itself the result of inequalities, in access to resources, employment, education, and public services. Educational status and particularly illiteracy, can be an important cause of exclusion from the labour market.

2.3 SOCIALLY EXCLUDED GROUPS

i) Scheduled caste (SC) groups

While the practice of 'untouchability' is banned in India, many of the associated actions and norms persist. People belonging to SC groups, who constitute 16.2% of the population (Census 2001), experience discrimination in one or more ways. They are often forced to live apart from the rest of society. They face discrimination while accessing services, and receive poorer quality of services. They get lower wages and face discrimination in the marketplace.

ii) Scheduled tribe (ST) groups

ST groups make up 8.2% of India's population (Census 2001). They generally live in remote forest areas and often speak a different language. Areas inhabited by ST groups tend to be rich in natural and mineral resources. In many cases, this has led to exploitation and forced displacement of forest-dwellers.

Further, negative stereotyping is used to justify their exclusion from services and economic opportunities. Apart from notified ST groups, PACS covers nomadic tribes (NTs), denotified tribes (DNTs) and 'primitive' tribes that may not be listed as STs.

iii) Muslims

Muslims constitute 13.4% of India's population (Census 2001). A 2006 report of the Prime Minister's high-level committee on 'Social, Economic and Educational Status of the Muslim Community of India' (Sachar Committee) recognises the social exclusion of Muslims, which results in low scores against a broad range of socio-economic indicators.

iv) Women

Girls and women in India face gender discrimination at every stage of their life, starting even before they are born. Women belonging to socially excluded groups face greater challenges. Apart from the discrimination all women face as a result of patriarchy, women from socially excluded groups suffer oppression and exploitation on multiple levels..

v) People with Disabilities

People with disabilities social and physical barriers to accessing services and livelihood opportunities. Service providers, government, markets and places of employment are, by and large, not equipped to enable the full participation of people with disabilities. Thus, disability causes poverty, and poverty intensifies disability.

According to the United Nations, one person in 20 has a disability. More than three out of four of these live in a developing country. Recent World Bank estimates suggest they may account for as many as one in five of the world's poorest . Disability limits access to education and employment, and leads to economic and social exclusion (DFID, 2000). Poor people with disabilities are caught in a vicious cycle of poverty and disability, each being both a cause and consequences of the other. Therefore, it is argued that poverty alleviation is a key solution in preventing directly and indirectly.

Breaking the chain of economic dependency of the poor requires the eradicator of poverty to help overcome the problems of social and economic deprivation. In this sense, poverty eradication can be regarded as a prerequisite to development. Individuals with disabilities are often excluded from the labour market. Even when included, people with disabilities often work fewer hours and in lower-paying or lower- skilled positions. In some instances, individuals with disabilities are unable to work in the competitive marketplace. For those who are so disabled that competitive work is impossible.

2.4 IMPACT OF EXCLUSION

i) Health and Education

The greater poverty of socially excluded groups often translates into poorer levels of health and education, particularly when their poverty is combined with remoteness and lack of infrastructure and social services.

ii) Income Inequality

Social exclusion can lead to and result from disparities in income distribution, with the wealthiest segments of a country's population receiving the greatest proportion of its national income, income inequality arises from inequities in the distribution of assets such as land, credit and education.

iii) Violence and Insecurity

When individuals or groups and particularly youth, feel excluded from power structures, and deprived of legitimate outlets to express their grievences, violence can provide an opportunity for them to have a voice and to gain control over their own lives.

iv) Subjective Well –being

The psychological aspects of exclusion are also important. These include the absence of power, voice and independence, and vulnerability to exploitation and humiliation. When people are treated as lesser because of the colour of their skin, their sex, what they do for a living, and where they live, they can come to internalize a sense of lack of worth that profoundly affects their sense of what they can do and what they are due by society.

In this section, you studied factors, dimensions, types of exclusion, socially excluded groups and impact of exclusion. Now, answer the question given in Check Your Progress 1.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Who are the Scheduled caste? How are they excluded.

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2) What are the types of exclusion? Explain any one.

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2.5 DISCRIMINATION AND DISCRIMINATED GROUPS

2.5.1 Discrimination: Concept and Meaning

Discrimination may be defined as the effective injurious treatment of persons on grounds rationally irrelevant to the situation. Individuals are denied desired and expected rewards or opportunities for reasons related not to their capacities, merits, or behavior, but solely because of membership in an identifiable out-group. Although a discriminatory relationship bears similarity to a caste system, it is fundamentally different. In both, the victims are barred in some degree from access to values such as housing, jobs, educational facilities, full participation in culture, voting, and so forth. In a caste system, however, the excluded accept the barriers as legitimate, whereas in discrimination there is a conflict because the outsiders desire and feel they have a right to the rewards and opportunities which

the insiders tend to monopolize. The former find it necessary to challenge this monopoly. This conflict is not primarily the result of a failure in communication; on the contrary, the two contending groups are well informed about their differences in status and power. They share the same goals-even though they do not achieve them equally. Thus, whenever discrimination prevails it is always accompanied by challenge, tension, aggression and defence, and flux.

Certain conditions are necessary before discrimination will emerge and persist:

1) There must be scarcity of rewards and opportunities, both material and psychic. The greater the scarcity, the greater the pressure for recourse to discrimination.

2) But scarcity is-beyond the sheer subsistence level- a culturally defined concept.

   There would be no such pressure unless both insiders and outsiders agreed upon the desirability of the scarce values.

3) In order for discrimination to operate, there must be an unequal distribution of power, which enables the insiders to impose their monopoly and perpetuate it. Thus, scarcity, shared goals, and unequal power are necessary conditions for discrimination.

Discrimination rests upon several motives, personal and social. First , there is the possibility of direct economic, social or political benefit through exploitation. Second, there is the gain that derives from monopolistic control over desired values; for example, the union that restricts membership and thus gains economic advantage for its members. Third, there is discrimination that is motivated by fear or loss, or negative profit. This rests upon the discriminator's presumption that he will be punished for failing to discriminate the employer, the union official, the real estate broker, the admissions committee of a club or medical school, the employment agency, may or may not be prejudiced; but they discriminate because they assume that their economic or status interests will suffer if they do otherwise, since they believe themselves to be dependent upon a prejudiced work force, membership, body of alumni, clientele, or colleagues.

2.5.2 Discriminated Groups

i) Tribals

Tribal societies in India have a very ancient and alive history and heritage of their own. They have their own cultural, religious, social, economic and political structures handed down generations for centuries. The indigenous people's myths, stories, tales and songs reflect their social, political and cultural organizations. Nature, environment and ecology play the most important role in their lives. They have developed their religious beliefs and practices around these life-giving forces. Historical data abounds with the fact that the tribal's were the original settlers where most of them live today, or which their ancestors had occupied centuries ago. But their history has been one of exploitation, subjugation and marginalization. As the tribal's settled in the forest establishment a symbiotic relationship with nature and built up their social , economic and religious lives, the plains men through deceit, fraud and force took away years of hard labour, individual-collective toil and dispossessed the tribals of their livelihood, culture and religion. In

spite of their oppression and exploitation the tribal communities did not surrender.

ii) Women

Sen argues that what is important normatively for a person's well-being is what she is "able to do or to be," not just what possessions or income she holds. In contrast, standard economic analysis has tended to focus on money-related spheres of income and wealth. Those things that persons actually accomplish - such as being well nourished, having decent shelter, being disease-free, and appearing in public without shame - are called functionings. Having adequate income is itself one important functioning, because it gives people access to basic goods and services and it conveys important social-symbolic information about one's social location . The bundle, or choice, of the functionings that a person can select entails his or her capability set. A person who has adequate access to food but who fasts for religious reasons has the capability to be well nourished, while a poor, starving person does not have such a capability. Neither the fasting person nor the starving one has the functioning of being well nourished, but the former enjoys a kind of freedom that the latter does not. Sen asserts that the emphasis on capability and functionings, rather than on money, is a more careful way of focusing on those aspects of human development and well-being that we have reason to value. He argues that a society's commitment to treating its citizens as moral equals is best expressed in terms of establishing an equality of "basic capability". Because many kinds of functioning are important for a well-lived life, the capability approach takes a wide view, emphasizing functionings related to various spheres of life: education, nutrition, healthcare, political participation, and so on. Sen has noted that the most basic functioning, or condition of well-being, is literally life itself. Stated differently, dying prematurely robs persons of the chance to function in any sphere of life. Sen asserts that differential treatment in common experiences of education, nutrition, and health is the principal cause of missing women.

iii) Manual Scavengers

Manual scavenging is the removal of excreta (night soil) manually from "dry toilets", ie, the toilets without modern flush system. The system of building public toilets and employing people to remove excreta was introduced during British rule in India, when municipalities were constituted. That time, often containers were used in such toilets, that needed to be emptied daily. After the invention of flush type toilets, all other types of toilets disap- peared from the western world. However, this inhumane practice continues in many developing couptries including India. The sociocultural and economic realities of modern India reveal a series of paradoxes. While legally manual scaveng- ing is banned, caste apartheid and poverty perpetuate this practice. In India, manual scavenging is a caste-based occupation carried out by dalits. The manual scavengers have different caste names in different parts of the country: Bhangis in Gujarat and Uttar Pradesh, Phakis in Andhra Pradesh and Sikkaliars in Tamil Nadu. These communities are invariably placed at the bottom of the caste hierarchy as well as dalit sub-caste hierarchy. Refusal

to perform such manual task leads to physical abuse and a social boycott. Man- ual scavengers are exposed to the most virulent forms of viral and bacterial infec- tions that affect their skin, eyes, limbs, respiratory and gastro-intestinal systems.

iv) Dalits

Dalit ('oppressed' or 'broken') is not a new word. Apparently it was used in the 1930s as a Hindi and Marathi translation of 'Depressed Classes', the term the British used for what are now called the Scheduled Castes. In 1930, there was a Depressed Classes newspaper published in Pune called Dalit Bandhu (Friend of Dalits"). The word also used by B.R.Ambedkar in his Marathi speeches. In the Untouchables, published in 1948, Ambedkar chose the term 'broken men', an English translation of 'Dalit', to refer to the original ancestors of the Untouchables for reasons which must have been self-evident because he did not explain them. The Dalit Panthers revived the term and in their 1973 manifesto expanded its referents to include the Scheduled Tribes, 'neo-Buddhists, the working people, the landless and poor peasants, women, and all those who are being exploited politically, economically and in the name of religion'. There has thus been a narrow definition, based on the criterion of caste alone, and a broader one to encompass all those considered to be either similarly placed or natural allies. Since the early 1970s, the word has come into increasingly wider usage in the press and in common parlance where it is normally used in the original, narrower, caste–based sense.

Simply, dalit means downtrodden or oppressed. Dalits have now occupied a central stage in the contemporary politics of the country. In the past, they were pushed outside the central political arena and excluded from the power game of acquiring offices of governance. Now they can no longer be ignored and taken for granted. Not that they have gained all that they strived for, but their voice cannot be throttled. No political party functioning in parliamentary politics, nor those who avow revolutionary politics can afford to ignore them. Besides asserting for dignity and identity, they raise questions on the present socio-economic structure and cultural ethos .Dalits are the poor and downtrodden. Generally, dalit includes those termed in administrative parlance as Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Other

Backward Classes (OBC). However, in day-to-day usage in political discourse, the term is so far mainly confined to SCs. The present paper also confines itself mainly to Scheduled Castes. They are the castes identified by the president of India under Article 341 and put under a schedule. The term Scheduled Caste was first used by the British in the Government of India Act, 1935. Prior to this, some of these castes were included among the Depressed Classes- a category used for the first time at the beginning of the 20th century (Gupta 1985). Traditionally, in the Hindu social order they are placed at the bottom of the hierarchy, considered 'Ati-shudras' or 'Avarna', they are treated as untouchables. However, all ex-untouchables do not find a place in the Schedule, and all castes under the Schedule, and all castes under the Schedule did not experience untouchability to an equal degree in the recent or distant past.

The Hindu social order consists of four varnas: (1) Brahmins (2) Kshatriyas (3)

Vaishyas (4) Shudras. There is another social category beyond this hierarchy which is known as outcaste or dalits. Though the concept of scheduled caste find places in the constitution of India but Indian constitution does not give any specific definition of the term "Scheduled Caste". Indian society has been divided by the rigid caste system. The institution of caste system entails a hierarchical relationship on the basis of purity and pollution. In India, caste system exhibits social discrimination and inequality. The dalits occupies the lowest position in the Hindu social structure as they were excluded in every walk of life.

Dalits, the Scheduled Castes (SCs) constitute a significant part of the Indian population. This social group is among the most subordinated and poorest in India. More than half of the SC population are concentrated in the five states of Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. The deprivation of this group is closely linked with the historical process of economic and social exclusions and discrimination on caste status involving the historical denial of civil and cultural rights, the right to education, health and employment.

v) Muslims

Muslims are economically backward, compared to other sections of the community, because

a) the number of Muslim industrialists is negligible, and there are none in the front ranks-a typically petty- bourgeois complaint, but a significant index in a capitalist-landlord regime all the same;

b) the abolition of zamindari and intermediary tenures in Uttar Pradesh and some other states has more adversely affected Muslims, large numbers of whom were retainers and dependants of Muslim zamindars, who in turn constituted a far larger proportion of their class than warranted by the Muslim share of total population;

c) Muslims being a heavily urban community, accounted for a very large section of artisans such as weavers and metalworkers and these strata have continuously suffered under the de-industrialization of colonial India, and then under the present regime when craft unemployment has grown enormously; and

d) Muslims are discriminated against in matters like the grant of licences and permits

Muslims are educationally backward. Figures such as the number of Muslim candidates successful in higher secondary examinations or the number of Muslim pupils in comparison to the total are often cited, on the basis of different surveys. The fact that there are proportionately fewer school pupils and college students among Muslims than in other major communities seems well established. It is probable that the literacy rate among Muslims is also lower. The reasons offered for this are:

a) inherited backwardness owing to the failure of Muslims to take to modern education in time;

b) economic backwardness prevents parents from sending children to school; Discrimination is practised against Muslims in employment.

c) In public services, such as police, where Muslims tended to be well represented, they have been excluded by deliberate design (for example, G B Pant's secret circular in Uttar Pradesh) for a very large number of years. Even when there is no deliberate discrimination against Muslims, they tend to be excluded because employment and promotion are so heavily made on caste basis.

d) Since the Muslims are educationally backward, they are not recruited in adequate numbers through open, competitive examinations.

e) Indian business being still largely governed by bonds of family and caste, very few Muslims are employed by industrial and commercial firms.

vi) Dalit Christians

Dalit Christians are those converted to Christianity from the scheduled castes, but excluded from official list of scheduled castes, made by the Government of India (GOI).The term, Christian dalits, was adopted in preference to the nomenclature, Christians of scheduled caste origin)CSCOs) or harijan Christians, to emphasise the dignity and humanity of dalits.

There are about 16 million dalit Christians in the country and form over 60 percent of the total Christian population of 25 million. The Christian dalits increasingly share a general sense of oppression/discrimination in the church and society, on account of their low-caste origin. Arising out of this double discrimination they suffer multiple alienations:

i) from the rest of the dalits

ii) from upper caste Christians

iii) from the upper castes in society

iv) from the government agencies, and

v) from cultural conflicts leading to confusion in their self-identity (Christians or scheduled caste)

vii) Elderly People

"Old Age" is usually associated with declining faculties, both mental and physical, and a reduction in social commitments (including sport participation) of any person. The precise onset of old age varies culturally and historically. It is a social construct, rather than a biological stage. The persons in India, who have attained the age of sixty years and above, are defined as elderly for the purpose of availing old age benefits.

As per 2001 Census, total population of Senior Citizens (60+) was 7.7 crore, of which population of males and females was 3.8 crore and 3.9 crore respectively.

- The institution and functioning of the family as a support structure for older people is under severe pressure because of poverty. Unemployment and changing attitudes and as such external support is needed to strengthen the family and provide supplementary income;
- Since the older people are disadvantaged by stereotypes which largely discredit the poor older workers in the unorganized sector, necessary

measures are required to create opportunities, increase the competence of older workers and counterbalance this negative image;

- Incidence of widowhood among women even before reaching old age results in a serious disadvantaged experience of old age;
- Lack of food is a major cause of poor health; priority for elderly in these circumstances receiving nutritional supplements is highly desirable.
- The configuration, design and general physical environment in which older people live including housing, transport, work place and recreation could be made more user friendly to achieve greater independent personal mobility, safety and convenience;
- Systematic and analytical studies on the needs of the elderly in India, both urban and rural, are required to add substance to the many preliminary and exploratory studies already made;
- On account of the shortage of trained personnel in many specialist fields, the training of professionals to organize and promote services and programmes for the elderly needs to be given high priority, especially in such areas as family support, financial provisions, health.

2.6 FACTORS AND DIMENSIONS OF DISCRIMINATION

2.6.1 Factors of Discrimination are Discussed

i) Intrapsychic Factors

The various factors discussed here, including prejudice, group competition, modern racism, stereotypes, and statistical discrimination, represent just a few of the varied intrapsychic influences that may affect discrimination. It is important to emphasize, however, that the behavioral manifestation of discrimination does not allow one readily to assume any particular underlying intrapsychic motivation, just as a lack of discrimination does not presume the absence of prejudice.

ii) Organizational Factors

Beyond the range of interpersonal and intrapsychic factors that may influence discrimination, a large body of work directs our attention toward the organizational contexts in which individual actors operate. Tilly's analysis of durable inequality emphasizes the importance of organizational dynamics in creating and maintaining group boundaries. "Durable inequality arises because people who control access to value-producing resources solve pressing organizational problems by means of categorical distinctions"). Although actors "rarely set out to manufacture inequality as such," their efforts to secure access to valued resources by distinguishing between insiders and outsiders, ensuring solidarity and loyalty, and monopolizing important knowledge often make use of (and thereby reinforce the salience of) established categories in the service of facilitating organizational goals Tilly's analysis places organizational structure at the center stage, arguing that "the reduction or intensification of racist, sexist, or xenophobic attitudes will have relatively little impact on durable inequality, whereas the

iii) The role of networks

In addition to examining how organizational policies and practices shape the behavior of decision makers and gatekeepers, researchers must acknowledge that some mechanisms relevant to the perpetuation of categorical inequality might operate independently of the actions of individuals. Indeed, many organizational policies or procedures can impose disparate impact along racial lines with little direct influence from individual decision makers. The case of networks represents one important example. The role of networks in hiring practices is extremely well documented, with networks generally viewed as an efficient strategy for matching workers to employers with advantages for both job seekers and employers. At the same time, given high levels of social segregation McPherson the use of referrals is likely to reproduce the existing racial composition of the company and to exclude members of those groups not already well represented analysis of noncollege jobs, controlling for spatial segregation, occupational segregation, city, and firm size, Mouw finds that the use of employee referrals in predominantly white firms reduces the probability of a black hire by nearly 75% relative to the use of newspaper ads. Petersen et al. using data on a high-technology organization over a 10-year period find that race differences in hiring are eliminated when the method of referral is considered, suggesting that the impact of social networks on hiring outcomes is strong and may be more important than any direct action taken by organization members. Irrespective of an employer's personal racial attitudes, the use of employee referrals is likely to reproduce the existing racial composition of an organization, restricting valuable employment opportunities from excluded groups Networks and network composition may matter not only for the purposes of obtaining information and referrals for jobs, but also within jobs for the purposes of informal mentoring, contacts, and relevant information important to advancement. Mechanisms of homosocial reproduction, or informal preferences for members of one's own group, can lead to network configurations of informal mentorship and sponsorship that contribute to the preservation of existing status hierarchies. The wide-ranging economic consequences that follow from segregated social networks corresponds to what Loury , refers to as the move from "discrimination in contract" to "discrimination in contact." According to Loury, whereas earlier forms of discrimination primarily reflected explicit differences in the treatment of racial groups, contemporary forms of discrimination are more likely to be perpetuated through informal networks of opportunity that, though ostensibly race-neutral, systematically disadvantage members of historically excluded groups.

iv) Structural Factors

The majority of research on discrimination focuses on dynamics between individuals or small groups. It is easiest to conceptualize discrimination in terms of the actions of specific individuals, with the attitudes, prejudices, and biases of majority group members shaping actions toward minority group members. And yet, it is important to recognize that each of these decisions takes place within a broader social context. Members of racial minority groups may be systematically disadvantaged not only by the willful acts of particular individuals, but because the prevailing system of opportunities and constraints favors the success of one group over another. In addition to

the organizational factors discussed above, broader structural features of a society can contribute to unequal outcomes through the ordinary functioning of its cultural, economic, and political systems (see also National Research Council 2004, chapter 11). The term structural discrimination has been used loosely in the literature, along with concepts such as institutional discrimination and structural or institutional racism, to refer to the range of policies and practices that contribute to the systematic disadvantage of members of certain groups. In the following discussion, we consider three distinct conceptualizations of structural discrimination, each of which draws our attention to the broader, largely invisible contexts in which group-based inequalities may be structured and reproduced.

2.6.2 Dimensions of Discrimination

i) **Gender-based violence** - Women tend to face higher rates of violence because discrimination on the basis of gender renders them among the most powerless members of society. Racial discrimination often results in violence. Women who face discrimination based on both race and gender are thus doubly at risk of violence. Women from marginalized communities may be reluctant to report violence for fear of inaction or indifference by, or hostility from, State authorities who may even condone such violence, or for fear of being stigmatized within their own communities. They may also face language barriers or cultural insensitivity when seeking redress. In some societies, gender-based violence may be perceived as "justified" by racial, national, cultural or religious traditions, and a State's reluctance to remedy the situation can pose further problems for women. Those wishing to challenge such practices are often accused of adopting Western cultural norms and turning their backs on tradition.

ii) **Economic**

There are several forms of economic discrimination. The most common form of discrimination is wage inequality, followed by unequal hiring practices. Most forms of discrimination against minorities involve lower wages and unequal hiring practices. Hiring discrimination is similar to wage discrimination in its pattern. It typically consists of employers choosing to hire a white candidate over a minority candidate, or a male candidate over a female candidate, to fill a position. Even so, studies have shown that it is easier for a white male to get a job than it is for an equally qualified man of color or woman of any race. Many positions are cycled, where a company fills a position with a worker and then lays them off and hires a new person, repeating until they find someone they feel is "suitable"—which is often not a minority.

While hiring discrimination is the most highly visible aspect of economic discrimination, it is often the most uncommon. Increasingly strong measures against discrimination have made hiring discrimination much more difficult for employers to engage in. However this is only the case in formal hiring arrangements, with corporations or others subject to public scrutiny and overview. Private hiring, such as apprenticeships of electricians, plumbers, carpenters, and other trades is almost entirely broken down along racial lines, with almost no women in these fields and most minorities training those of their own race.

Although price discrimination mentions services, service discrimination is when certain services are not offered at all to minorities, or are offered only inferior versions. According to at least one study, most consumer discrimination falls into this category, since it is more difficult to verify and prove. Some assertions of discrimination have included:

- offering only high-cost plans for insurance or refusal to cover minorities
- refusing to offer financing to minorities
- denial of service

iii) Who Are The Educationally Discriminated In India?

- Various studies have pointed out that the children from socially and economically deprived communities hardly get any chance to get a minimum level of education and most of them are working children. There is a general agreement about the segment of society that is not attending school and they belong to Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), minority,

- Urban poor, other backward castes and people living in remote rural areas .According to the NSSO 551h Round data (I 999-2000), only about 27 per cent of the rural males and about 12 per cent of rural females from the poorest 20per cent families could complete primary and higher level of schooling as against about 66 per cent male and 42 per cent female population from the

- Richest 20 per cent families. Similarly, only 30 per cent people belonging to SC / ST complete their primary schooling against nearly 48 per cent from the higher castes. It is experienced that a sizeable section of the child population belonging to backward communities living in rural areas is still deprived of basic education. Many of them are forced to join the workforce at an early age.

- Girls do not attend school as they remain engaged in household chores, particularly sibling care and boys are involved in wage-earning activities. Marginalization of these groups seems to continue in a vicious circle and it is experienced that a low level of education is both the cause and manifestation of backwardness of marginalized groups, especially those with a low income

- Making them more vulnerable to poverty and exclusion from the mainstream development process generation after generation.

2.7 MEASURES TO PROMOTE INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT

Inclusive Development consists of ensuring that all marginalized and excluded groups are stakeholders in development processes.

UNDP maintains that many groups are excluded from development because of their gender, ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, disability or poverty. The effects of such exclusion are rising levels of inequality around the world. Development cannot effectively reduce poverty unless all groups contribute to the creation of

opportunities, share the benefits of development and participate in decision-making. The goal of inclusive development is to achieve an inclusive society, able to accommodate differences and to value diversity.

The Constitution, resolves to secure to all citizens .... 'equality of status and of opportunity,' and directs the government to be proactive to ensure equal opportunity. Equality, equal access and equal opportunity concepts are elaborated in Articles 14 (right to equality), 15 (access to education) and 16 (public employment). The '... state shall not discriminate.... on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth ....' .

Clause (4) of Article 15, states, "Nothing .... shall prevent the State from making any special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes." Interestingly, 'socially and economically backward classes (SEBC)' precedes mention of the SCs and the STs. Clause (5) directs the state to make a special provision by law for the advancement of the 'socially and educationally backward classes' through admission to educational institutions including private, aided or unaided.

Article 16 provides for equal opportunity in government employment, and cautions the state not to discriminate on the grounds of religion, race, etc..; and clause (4) provides for making provisions for reservation of appointments in favour of 'any backward class' which .... in the opinion of the state, is not adequately represented in the services under the state. Thus, the onus of identifying a 'backward group/ class' rests with the state.

All explanations of Articles 14, 15 and 16 emphasise that the group classifications should not be arbitrary, must be compatible with the 'objective of classification' and pre-existing inequality should not be ignored. Therefore, any group of citizens (not arbitrarily formulated), including those named in the Constitution, namely religion, race, caste, sex, descent, and place of birth/residence should form the basis for backwardness. Backwardness can also be assessed based on occupation, workplace, age, language, etc., which are not arbitrary in nature.

The state is directed by the Constitution "to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may a social order in which justice, social, economic and political, shall inform all the institutions of the national life" [Article 38(1)]. An amendment in 1976 states "The state shall, in particular, strive to minimise the inequalities in income, and endeavour to eliminate inequalities in status, facilities and opportunities, not only amongst individuals but also amongst groups of people residing in different areas or engaged in different vocations [Article 38(2)]."

In this section, you studied , discrimination and discriminated groups, factors and dimensions of discrimination and measures to promote inclusive development. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress 2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Who are the Dalits? Briefly explain.

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2) Who are the religious minorities? How are they discriminated? Briefly explain any one?

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2.8 LET US SUM UP

Social exclusion is a process by which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society within which they live. In India, unique forms of exclusion are observed where certain group like the dalits, experience systematic exclusion in regard to accruing the benefits of development, and institutional inequality and discrimination have been prevailed in the society.

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2.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress -1

1) Who are the Scheduled caste? How are they excluded.

Answer : While the practice of 'untouchability' is banned in India, many of the associated actions and norms persist. People belonging to SC groups, who constitute 16.2% of the population (Census 2001), experience discrimination in one or more ways. They are often forced to live apart from the rest of society. They face discrimination while accessing services, and receive poorer quality of services. They get lower wages and face discrimination in the marketplace.

2) What are the types of exclusion ? Explain any one.

Answer: The types of exclusion are: social, economic, political.: Political aspects of exclusion can include the lack of political rights, such as political participation and the right to organise; alienation from or lack of confidence in political processes; and lack of freedom of expression and equality of opportunity. Citizenship is centred on the capability of exercising individual and collective rights, and inequalities in this capability can generate a social hierarchy, made up of first- and second-class citizens. This often means that not all individuals are equal before the law, and that they do not all have the same access to public goods supplied by the state.

Check Your Progress- 2

1) Who are the Dalits ? Briefly explain.

Answer: Dalits, the Scheduled Castes (SCs) constitute a significant part of the Indian population. This social group is among the most subordinated and poorest in India. More than half of the SC population are concentrated in the five states of Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh. The deprivation of this group is closely linked with the historical process of economic and social exclusions and discrimination on caste status involving the historical denial of civil and cultural rights, the right to education, health and employment.

2) Who are the religious minorities? How are they discriminated? Briefly explain any one?

Answer: Religious minorities are Christians, Muslims, Sikhs. Muslims are economically backward, compared to other sections of the community, because

a) the number of Muslim industrialists is negligible, and there are none in the front ranks-a typically petty- bourgeois complaint, but a significant index in a capitalist-landlord regime all the same;

b) Muslims are discriminated against in matters like the grant of licenses and permits and muslims are educationally backward.

UNIT 3 MARGINALIZATION

Structure

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Meaning and Nature of marginalization

3.3 Types of Marginalization

3.4 Causes of Marginalization

3.5 Levels of Marginalization

3.6 Marginalized Groups

3.7 Measures To Overcome Marginalization

3.8 Let Us Sum Up

3.9 References and Suggested Readings

3.10 Check Your Progress-Possible Answer

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Marginality is an experience affecting millions of people throughout the world. People who are marginalized have relatively little control over their lives and the resources available to them. This results in making them handicapped in making contribution to the society. A vicious circle is set up whereby their lack of positive and supportive relationships means they are prevented from participating in local life, which in turn leads to further isolation. This has tremendous impact on development of human being as well as society at large. As the objective of the development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy a productive, healthy and creative life, it is most important to address the issue of marginalization. This unit deals in detail the various aspects of marginalization.

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define marginalization
- Explain how marginalization creates development deprivation
- Delineate the nature of marginalization
- Discuss the various types of marginalization
- Explain the effect of marginalization

3.2 MEANING AND NATURE OF MARGINALIZATION

The term "Marginalization" generally describes the overt actions or tendencies of human societies, whereby those perceived as being without desirability or function are removed or excluded (i.e., are "marginalized"…) from the prevalent systems of protection and integration, so limiting their opportunities and means for survival. The following are some of the definitions:

Peter Leonard defines marginality as "being outside the mainstream of productive activity and/or social reproductive activity".

Encyclopedia of Public Health defines marginalization as "To be marginalized is to be placed in the margins, and thus excluded from the privilege and power found at the center".

Laitin observes that "'marginality' is so thoroughly demeaning, for economic well-being, for human dignity, as well as for physical security. Marginal peoples can always be identified by members of dominant society and will face irrevocable discrimination."

Merriam-Webster's online dictionary defines marginalize as "to relegate to an unimportant or powerless position within a society or group"

ghana s. gurung and Michael Kollmair mentioned that the concept of Marginality is generally used to analyse socio-economic, political and cultural spheres, where disadvantaged people struggle to gain access to resources, and full participation in social life. In other words, marginalized people might be socially, economically, politically and legally ignored, excluded or neglected and therefore vulnerable to livelihood change.

According to Sommers & et. Al. "Socio-economic marginality is a condition of socio-spatial structure and process in which components of society and space in a territorial unit are observed to lag behind an expected level of performance in economic, political and social well being compared with average condition in the territory as a whole"

The above definitions which are mentioned in different context show that marginalization is a slippery and multi-layered concept. To further clarify the meaning and concept let us discuss certain features of marginilization:

- Sometimes, the whole societies can be marginalized at the national and global level, while classes and communities can be marginalized from the dominant social order within the local level. In some other context, the same community can be marginalized in certain country (Jews in German, Russia etc.) where as not marginalized in another country (Jews in USA).
- Marginalization also increases or decreases at certain stages of life cycle. For example, the marginalized status of children and youth may decrease as they get older; the marginalized status of adults may increase as they become older; the marginalized status of single mother may change as their children grow up.
- Individuals or groups might enjoy high social status at one point of time, but as social change takes place, they may lose this status and become marginalized.

Thus, marginalization is a complex as well as shifting phenomenon linked to social status.

3.2.1 Nature of Marginalization

The nature of marginalization is multi-dimensional, multi-causal historical phenomenon. There are no general laws to understand and comprehend the complex nature of marginalization. The analytical tools that can be used in most of the cases include class, in relation to specific social, cultural, economic and political conditions, as well as ideological systems, social awareness and human action. The nature of marginalization varies in different settings. For example the marginalization of women in Iraq is not same as in India, though they broadly share some features. The religious ideological system, patriarchy, political-

economy of a country and the overall social system have impact on the marginalization of specific group or individual.

The nature of marginalization also varies in relation to elderly people living in different countries and culture. In some societies elderly are given more respect compared to other and hence subject to less marginalization. The strong and supportive traditional family system often provide better respect and care to elders than public aided system available in most of the Europe and USA. Similarly the level of awareness among the marginalized groups plays very important role and the nature varies accordingly. Organized communities who are aware about their rights demand more justice than the unorganized communities. This also depends upon the political-economy of a country, where they live in. For example, the physically challenged people have formed organization in USA and Europe more effectively than other countries and demand more justice. This cannot always happen if the political-economic system is not supportive. Usually democratic institutions are favorable for most of the disadvantaged groups

3.3 TYPES OF MARGINALIZATION

In the previous section, you studied about the meaning and nature of marginalization, in this section you will study the types of marginalization.

To be marginalized is to be distanced from power and resources that enable self determination in economic, political and social settings. Though there are various types of marginalization, we identify some broad types such as social, economic and political marginalization.

i) Social Marginalization

Marginality is both ascribed and acquired in a social setting. The experience of marginality can arise in a number of ways. For some people, those severely impaired from birth, or those born into particularly marginal groupings (e.g. lower castes in India, members of ethnic groups that suffer discrimination - the Romans in Europe, Indigenous people in Australasia and the American continent, African Caribbean people in Britain), this marginality is typically life-long and greatly determines their lived experience. For others, marginality is acquired, by later disablement, or by changes in the social and economic system. As global capitalism extends its reach, bringing more and more people into its system, more communities are dispossessed of lands, livelihoods, or systems of social support.People who are marginalized have relatively little control over their lives and the resources available to them. They may become stigmatised and are often at the receiving end of negative public attitudes. Their opportunities to make social contributions may be limited and they may develop low self confidence and self esteem. Social policies and practices may mean they have relatively limited access to valued social resources such as education and health services, housing, income, leisure activities and work. The impacts of marginalization, in terms of social exclusion, are similar, whatever the origins and processes of marginalization, irrespective of whether these are to be located in social attitudes (such as towards impairment, sexuality, ethnicity and so on) or social circumstance (such as closure of workplaces, absence of affordable housing and so on). Different people will react differently to marginalization depending on the personal and social resources available to them.

Another problem is that people born in the marginalized community lack the required social and cultural capital to participate in the mainstream development process. Their social networks are weak and vulnerable. Lack of social capital deprive an individual to have access to resources such as economic, educational and cultural and other support system and hence create social isolation and limit their participation in the development process.

ii) Economic Marginalization

Economic marginalization as a process relates to economic structures, in particular to the structure of markets and their integration. To the extent that the markets that some individuals or groups engage in are segmented from the economy in general, these individuals can be said to be marginalized from the rest of the economy. Segmentation and exclusion may, however, have non-economic and non-financial origins, for example in discrimination by gender, caste or ethnicity. Here integration takes on a broader meaning. People who are experiencing marginalization are likely to have tenuous involvement in the economy. The sources of their income will vary. These experiences affect men and women differently and vary with age. Poverty and economic marginalization have both direct and indirect impacts on people's health and well being.

iii) Political Marginalization

Political marginalization does not allow the group to participate democratically in the decision making and hence lose their right to every social, economic and political benefit. Political empowerment is one of the most important tools for accessing other social and economic privileges.

In every societies lack of political empowerment affect large sections of people that include women, ethnic minorities, migrants, disabled persons, elderly etc. So far as the gender is concerned, we find the participation of women is minimized across the globe. It is men who are leading the power and politics in the world. This hold is not restricted to the political chair rather this hold is true weather one considers party leadership, elected office, appointed offices, or the policymaking levels. This is particularly acute in the third world countries where women participation in the political affairs is mostly linked with the social cultural and religious environment which is male oriented and that ultimately restraint women participation. This kind of marginalization is also felt by ethnic minorities, migrants, disabled persons, elderly, etc.

In this section, In this section , you studied the meaning and nature of marginalization and types of marginalization.. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress-1.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What do you mean by marginalization?

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2) What do you mean by political marginalization?

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3.4 CAUSES OF MARGINALIZATION

Frank Herbert "All men are not created equal, and that is the root of social evil" Development is always broadly conceived in terms of mass participation. Through marginalization, a majority of people are deprived of across the globe. It is a complex problem and there are many factors that cause marginalization. Some of the important factors that are responsible for marginalization discussed below are: Exclusion, globalization, displacement, disaster- natural and unnatural.

i) Exclusion

Marginalization is a process denying opportunities and outcomes to those 'living on the margins' and enhancing the opportunities and outcomes of those who are 'at the centre'. Marginalization combines discrimination and social exclusion. It offends human dignity and it denies human rights, especially the right to live effectively as equal citizens. Caste and Class systems in many societies across the globe create an exclusion for many groups and communities and hinder their productive participation in economic and social development. For further discussion on exclusion please refer the section on "Inclusive development".

ii) Globalization

Globalization is a controversial and much debated topic and the responses are both positive and negative in the context of development. So far as the marginalization is concerned, globalization played certain role. Increased openness is seen by some as a panacea for development, while for others, it is a recipe for disaster for the poor. Globalization at present (the post-1980 period) has also marginalized much of the third world and low-income developing countries. Apart from East and South Asia, all the world's less-developed regions grew faster during the relatively less globalized era of the 1950s and 1960s. Yet all regions have expanded their exposure to international trade. While it is true that some middle-income developing countries as well as the most populous countries, India and China, are doing well out of globalization, the benefits of globalization are far more being widespread in the South. The following table attest the fact that how the era of globalization is a cause of concern for many underdeveloped countries. In the case of Africa, Latin America and some parts of Asia the human development indicators have been declining. Simultaneously, the gaps between the rich and poorer nations have been also increasing.

iii) Displacement

The magnitude of forced population displacements caused by development programmes was staggering. The increasing construction of development projects consistently displaced a massive number of tribal, poor and weaker sections.

This result further marginalized the already poor people. As a consequence we find social unrest, resistance and disharmony in many parts of the globe. More details about the displacement and its impact are discussed in the section on "Inclusive development".

iv) Disaster- Natural and Unnatural

Disasters are global phenomena and a serious challenge to development. Vulnerability is linked to broader social issues, such as poverty, but also social exclusion, conflict and marginalization. There are three broad classification of disaster and their combine devastating impact is on development is staggering:

i) **Natural:** earthquake, volcanic eruption, hurricane, tornado, ice storm, flood, flashflood, landslide, wildfire, insect infestation, and disease outbreaks. These kinds of disasters may be further sub classified as meteorological, oceanographic (tsunami or sea storm), hydrological, or biological events.

ii) **Technological:** Associated with technological advances i.e. explosives, unexploded ordinance, toxic spills, emissions of radio-isotopes, and transportation accidents. It also include: hazmat incidents involving carcinogens, mutagens, or heavy metals; dangerous processes such as structural failure of devices and machines or installations and plants, such as bridges, dams, mines, power plants, pipelines, high rise buildings, vehicles, and trains.

iii) **Social:** These include incidents primarily involving social unrest, examples are hijacking, riots, demonstrations, crowd rushes, and stampedes, terrorist incidents as well as bombings, shootings, and hostage taking.

Throughout human history, these disasters have played a major role in the economic development and survival of humanity. The extent of damage caused by all these disasters is clearly connected to a country's socio-economic level. The impacts of both natural and unnatural disasters are closely related to poverty, education, quality of health, gender related issues, and changing policy scenarios in relation to global socio-economic characteristics and stakeholder partnerships. Poorer, illiterate, women are more vulnerable to these disasters and their preparedness is weak during and after the disaster and hence they are further pushed to marginalization.

3.5 LEVELS OF MARGINALIZATION

Marginalization simultaneously happens at micro and macro level. Often they intersect each other in many ways. The following section will discuss how marginalization occurs at different levels i.e. individual, group/community and global level.

i) Individual

Marginalization at the individual level results in an individual's exclusion from meaningful participation in society. They face discrimination across different social institutions such as family, schools and neighbourhood, at work places, religion. Single parents, person with disability, gays, elderly are marginalized individually as most of them have no association with communities (not an organized form).A single mother's contribution to society is not based on employment resulting in the mother's ineligibility of social assistance for many

decades. In modern society, caring work is devalued and motherhood is seen as a barrier to employment. Single mothers are marginalized for their significant role in the socializing of children and due to views that an individual can only contribute meaningfully to society through employment. As a result, single mothers continue to suffer from material deprivation, as well as their children.Another example of individual marginalization is the exclusion of individuals with disabilities form the labour force. Employer views that hiring individuals living with disabilities as jeopardizing productivity, increasing the rate of absenteeism, and creating more accidents in the workplace. Employer often concern of the excessive high cost of accommodating people with disabilities. The marginalization of individuals with disabilities is prevalent today across the globe despite legislative protection, the Employment Equity Act, academic achievement, skills and training.

ii) Communities

Many communities experience marginalization, with particular focus in this section on aboriginal communities and women. Marginalization of aboriginal communities is a product of colonization. As a result of colonialism, aboriginal communities lost their land, were forced into destitute areas, lost their sources of income, and were excluded from the labour market. Additionally, aboriginal communities lost their culture and values through forced assimilation and lost their rights in society. Today various communities continue to be marginalized from society due to the development of practices, policies and programs that "met the needs of white people and not the needs of the marginalized groups themselves". Yee also connects marginalization to minority communities when describing the concept of whiteness as maintaining and enforcing dominant norms and discourse.

A second example of marginalization at the community level is the marginalization of women. Moosa-Mitha discusses the feminist movement as a direct reaction to the marginalization of white women in society. Women were excluded from the labor force and their work in the home was not valued. Feminists argued that men and women should equally participate in the labor force, the public and private sector, and in the home. They also focused on labour laws to increase access to employment, as well as recognize childrearing as a valuable form of labour. Today women are still marginalized from executive positions and continue to earn less then men in upper management positions.

iii) Global

Earlier we have already discussed the marginalized impact of globalization and the increasing gap between rich and poor nations. Globalization (global-capitalism), immigration, social welfare and policy are broader social structures that have the potential to contribute negatively to one's access to resources and services, resulting in marginalization of individuals and groups as well as nations. Globalization impacts the lives of individuals and groups in many capacities with the influx of capitalism, information technology, company outsourcing / job insecurity, and the widening gap between the rich and the poor.

3.6 MARGINALIZED GROUPS

As has already been mentioned earlier, marginalization can simultaneously occur at various levels i.e at international, national, regions, groups etc. In this section we will be discussing about the most vulnerable groups marginalized in almost every society.

i) Women

Under different economic conditions, and under the influence of specific historical, cultural, legal and religious factors, marginalization as one of the manifestation of gender inequality could have a variety of forms in this or that country.

That is, women may be excluded from certain jobs and occupations, incorporated into certain others and marginalized in others. They might be segregated in employment and in different occupations and jobs and in general they are always marginalized relative to men in every country and culture. Women (or men) don't present a homogeneous category whose members have common interest, abilities or practices. Women belonging to lower class, lower castes, illiterate and poorest region have different levels of marginalization than their rich counterparts.

ii) People with disabilities

People with disabilities have had to battle against centuries of biased assumptions, harmful stereotypes, and irrational fears. The stigmatization of disability resulted in the social and economic marginalization of generations with disabilities, and like many other oppressed minorities, left people with disabilities in a severe state of impoverishment for centuries.

iii) Ethnic Minority

Ethnic minority refers to the people of the same race or nationality who share a distinctive culture. A minority is a sociological group that does not constitute a politically dominant voting majority of the total population of a given society. A sociological minority is not necessarily a numerical minority- it may include any group that is subnormal with respect to a dominant group in terms of social status, education, employment, wealth and political power.

Usually a minority group has the following characteristics:

1) Suffering discrimination and subordination
2) Physical and/or cultural traits that set them apart, and which are disapproved by the dominant group,
3) A shared sense of collective identity and common burdens,
4) Socially shared rules about who belongs and who does not determine minority status, and
5) Tendency to marry within the group. In South Africa under Apartheid, white South Africans were a majority even though there were many more black South Africans.

Every large society contains ethnic minorities. They may be migrant, indigenous or landless nomadic communities. In some places, subordinate ethnic groups may constitute a numerical majority, such as Blacks in South Africa under Apartheid. International criminal law can protect the rights of racial or ethnic minorities in a number of ways. The right to self-determination is a key issue.

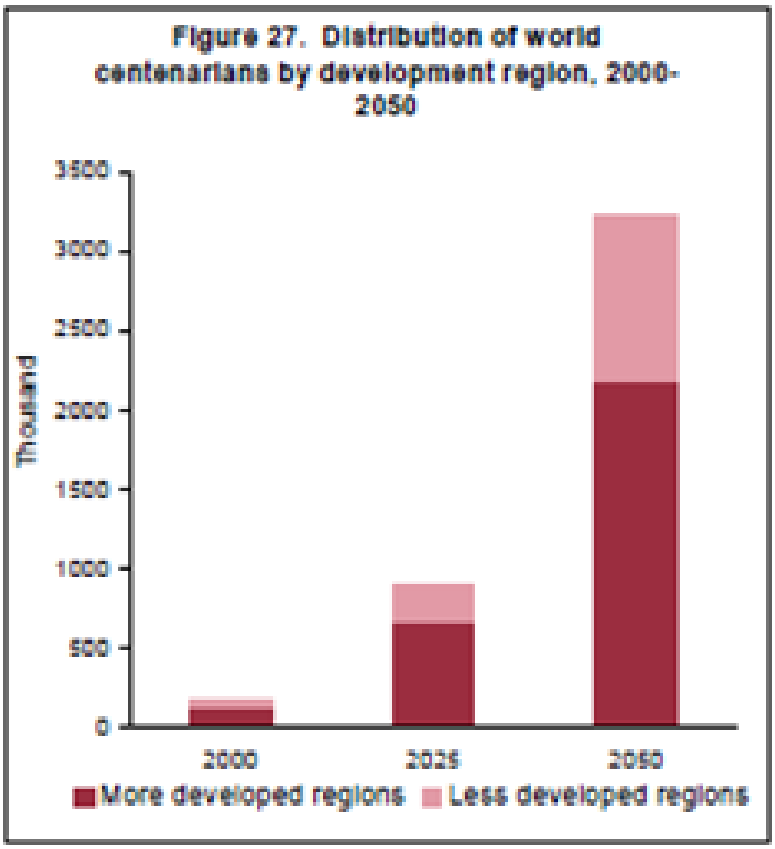
Persons belonging to religious minorities have a faith which is different to that held by the majority. Most countries of the world have religious minorities. It is now widely accepted in the west that people should have the freedom to choose their own religion, including not having any religion (atheism or agnosticism), and including the right to convert from one religion to another. However, in many

countries this freedom is constricted. For example in Egypt, a new system of identity cards requires all citizens to state their religion- and the only choices are Islam, Christianity or Judaism (See Egyptian identification card controversy).

iv) Elderly

Ageing is an inevitable and inexorable process in life. A notable aspect of the global ageing process is the progressive demographic ageing of the older population itself. For most nations, regardless of their geographic location or developmental stage, the 80 or over age group is growing faster than any younger segment of the older population.

The UN Report (2002) on World Population Ageing 1950-2050 reveals that people 80 or older currently constitute more than 3 per cent of the population of Northern America and almost 3 per cent of the population of Europe, compared with less than 0.9 per cent in Asia and in Latin America and the Caribbean, and less than 0.4 per cent in Africa. A regional difference is projected to persist over the next 50 years. By 2050, about 1 in 10 individuals will be aged 80 or older in the more developed regions, while the corresponding ratio will be 1 in 30 in the less developed regions. In the least developed countries only 1 in 100 persons will be 80 or over. In 2050, 19 countries, mostly in Europe, are projected to have at least 10 per cent of their population aged 80 years or over.



Source: UN World Population Ageing 1950-2050, Population Division, DESA, United Nations.

The demographic composition is changing in many countries i.e in Eastern and Northern Europe, women currently outnumber men by more than 5 to 3 among the population aged 60 or over, thus adding not just elderly but also the elderly women as the majority of marginalized groups among them.

3.7 MEASURES TO OVERCOME MARGINALIZATION

3.7.1 'Common Domain', the Fundamental Rights – Part III of the Constitution

The Constitution has provided a definite space for both the 'domains' i.e. 'common' as well as 'separate'. In Part III of the Constitution, which deals with the Fundamental Rights is divided into two parts viz. (a) the rights which fall in the 'common domain' and (b) the rights which go to the 'separate domain'. In the 'common domain', the following fundamental rights and freedoms are covered:

i) people's right to 'equality before the law' and 'equal protection of the laws'; [Article 14]

ii) prohibition of discrimination against citizens on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth; [Article 15 (1) & (2)] authority of State to make 'any special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens' (besides the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes); [Article 15 (4)]people's right to 'equality before the law' and 'equal protection of the laws'; [Article 14]

iii) prohibition of discrimination against citizens on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth; [Article 15 (1) & (2)]

iv) authority of State to make 'any special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens' (besides the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes); [Article 15 (4)]

v) citizens' right to 'equality of opportunity' in matters relating to employment or appointment to any office under the State – and prohibition in this regard of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth; [Article 16(1)&(2)]

vi) authority of State to make 'any provision for the reservation of appointments or posts in favour of any backward class of citizens which, in the opinion of the State, is not adequately represented in the services under the State; [Article 16(4)]

vii) people's freedom of conscience and right to freely profess, practice and propagate religion – subject to public order, morality and other Fundamental Rights; [Article 25(1)]

viii)right of 'every religious denomination or any section thereof – subject to public order, morality and health – to establish and maintain institutions for religious and charitable purposes, 'manage its own affairs in matters of religion', and own and acquire movable immovable property and administer it 'in accordance with law'; [Article 26]

ix) prohibition against compelling any person to pay taxes for promotion of any particular religion'; [Article 27]

x) people's 'freedom as to attendance at religious instruction or religious worship in educational institutions' wholly maintained, recognized, or aided by the State.[Article 28]

3.7.2 'Separate Domain' of Minority Rights

The Minority Rights provided in the Constitution which fall in the category of 'Separate Domain' are as under:-

i) right of 'any section of the citizens' to 'conserve' its 'distinct language, script or culture'; [Article 29(1)]

ii) restriction on denial of admission to any citizen, to any educational institution maintained or aided by the State, 'on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them'; [Article 29(2)]

iii) right of all Religious and Linguistic Minorities to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice;[Article 30(1)]

iv) freedom of Minority-managed educational institutions from discrimination in the matter of receiving aid from the State;[Article30(2)]

v) special provision relating to the language spoken by a section of the population of any State;[Article 347]

vi) provision for facilities for instruction in mother-tongue at primary stage;[Article 350 A]

vii) provision for a Special Officer for Linguistic Minorities and his duties; and [Article 350 B]

3.7.3 India's Multi-Culturalism Interwoven in The Constitution

The various Articles of the Constitution providing rights to the minorities, clearly and firmly point out to only one direction: that of a multi-religious, multi-cultural, multi-lingual and multi-racial Indian society, interwoven into an innate unity by the common thread of national integration and communal harmony. By the yardstick adopted by the framers of the Constitution and crystallized into its provisions the Indian Nation is not just a conglomeration of individual inhabitants of this State; it comprises of two distinct categories of constituents. The two-tier commonwealth of Indian Nation includes, on one hand, every citizen of India individually and, on the other hand, the multitude of religious, linguistic, cultural and ethnic groups among its citizens. The Indian Nation is an enormous coparcenary in which the individual citizens are also members of their own respective branches taking the form of religious, cultural, linguistic and ethnic groups. And all these groups, like all individuals, have the same Fundamental Rights to enjoy and the same Fundamental Duties to discharge.

In this section, you studied about the causes, levels of marginalization , marginalized groups and measures to overcome marginalization. Now, answer the questions given in Check Your Progress-2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What are the important factors responsible for marginalization?

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2) How does marginalization affect women?

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3.8 LET US SUM UP

Development is always broadly conceived in terms of mass participation. Marginalization deprives a large majority of people across the globe from participating in the development. It is a complex problem and there are many factors that cause marginalization. This complex and serious problem need to be addressed at the policy level.

3.9 REFERENCES AND SELECTED READINGS

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3.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWER

Check Your Progress-1

1) What do you mean by marginalization?

Answer: The term "Marginalization" generally describes the overt actions or tendencies of human societies whereby those perceived as being without desirability or function are removed or excluded from the prevalent systems of protection and integration, so limiting their opportunities and means for survival. In more simple term it is the process of exclusion from the privilege and power found at the center or mainstream enjoyed by the privileged section.

2) What do you mean by political marginalization?

Answer: Political marginalization does not allow the group to participate democratically in the decision making and hence lose their right to every social, economic and political benefit.

Check Your Progress-2

1) What are the important factors responsible for marginalization?

Answer: Marginalization is a process denying opportunities and outcomes to those 'living on the margins' and enhancing the opportunities and outcomes of those who are 'at the centre'. There are many factors that cause marginalization. Some of the important factors that are responsible for marginalization are exclusion, globalization, displacement, disaster- natural and unnatural.

2) How does marginalization affect women?

Answer: Marginalization causes gender whereby women are excluded from certain jobs and occupations, incorporated into certain others and marginalized in others. They might be segregate in employment and in different occupations and jobs and in general they are always marginalized relative to men in every country and culture. The marginalization in case of women belonging to lower class, lower castes, illiterate and poorest region has deeper impact in their life.

UNIT 4 FREEDOM, ENTITLEMENT AND HUMAN RIGHTS

Structure

4.1 Introduction
4.2 Entitlement
4.3 Human Rights
4.4 Freedom
4.5 Let Us Sum Up
4.6 References and Selected Readings
4.7 Check Your Progress-Possible Answers

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.1.1 Meaning of Freedom, Entitlement and Right

"The original meaning of the word 'freedom,' writes Friedrich A.Hayek, "meant always the possibility of a person's acting according to his own decisions and plans, in contrast to the position of one who was irrevocably subject to the will of another, who by arbitrary decision could coerce him to act or not to act in specific ways. The time honored phrase by which freedom has often been described is therefore independence of the arbitrary will of another. In this sense 'freedom' refers solely to a relation of human beings to other human beings, and the only infringement on it is by coercion by other human beings. Freedom from in this sense is absence of coercion by others; and this in addition to being the fundamental and original sense of the term, is undoubtedly the most important kind of freedom-from.

An entitlement is a guarantee of access to benefits based on established rights or by legislation.

A "right" is itself an entitlement associated with a moral or social principle, such that an "entitlement" is a provision made in accordance with legal framework of a society. Typically, entitlements are laws based on concepts of principle ("rights") which are themselves based in concepts of social equality or enfranchisement.

In a casual sense, the term "entitlement" refers to a notion or belief that one (or oneself) is deserving of some particular reward or benefit—if given without deeper legal or principled cause, the term is often given with pejorative connotation (e.g. a "sense of entitlement").

1998 is a year of celebration for advocates of human rights worldwide. It marks the 50th anniversary of the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) by the General Assembly of the United Nations. As individual human beings, we each have an innate sense of the basic rights and freedoms that belong to us and cannot be denied by any government. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, signed on December 10, 1948, is the primary international

statement of the fundamental and inalienable rights of all members of the human family. As such it represents one of humanity's greatest achievements. Prior to the creation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), such a powerful and unequivocal instrument for the protection of individual rights and freedoms have never existed. The promise made when UN member states pledged to "achieve, in cooperation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms", can never be retracted.

The UDHR (Universal Declaration of Human Rights) has also provided the framework for the adoption of the UN Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; the UN Covenant on Civil and political Rights; and many other legally binding international human rights treaties. It represents at once humanity's minimal expectations and its greatest hopes for upholding the inherent dignity of all human beings.

4.2 ENTITLEMENT

An entitlement is a guarantee of access to benefits based on established rights or by legislation. A "right" is itself an entitlement associated with a moral or social principle, such that an "entitlement" is a provision made in accordance with legal framework of a society. Typically, entitlements are laws based on concepts of principle ("rights") which are themselves based in concepts of social equality or enfranchisement.

In a casual sense, the term "entitlement" refers to a notion or belief that one (or oneself) is deserving of some particular reward or benefit—if given without deeper legal or principled cause, the term is often given with pejorative connotation (e.g. a "sense of entitlement").

In the United States, Social Security and Medicare are examples of entitlement programs. Originally the term "entitlement" in the United States was used to identify federal programs that, like Social Security and Medicare, got that name because workers became "entitled" to their benefits by paying into the system, but in recent years the meaning has been used to refer also to benefits, like those of the food stamps program, which people become eligible to receive without paying into a system. Some federal programs are also considered entitlements even though the subscriber's "paying into the system" occurs via a means other than monetary, as in the case of those programs providing for veterans' benefits, and where the individual becomes eligible via service in the U.S. military.

One may be entitled to protection, prizes, money, jobs, promotions, goods and services and to honours (or deprivations) according to general rules, such as laws, and to particular rules (of contests, contracts, lotteries, elections, markets, or games).How does one deserve what one is entitled to?

Legislators or rule-makers, who must decide what entitlements to create or justify, do so by deciding what activities, achievements, efforts, merits, qualities, needs, or violations, deserve praise, blame, assistance, reward, or punishment and should lead to entitlements.

Entitlements usually rest von specific, explicit and authorative rules, which often can be legally enforced. Contractual entitlements may rest on nothing else, i.e.,

you paid for and therefore are entitled to receive the goods or services you purchased.

Robert Nozick believes that one is entitled one's natural gifts and to the advantages and disadvantages they produce. Nozick implies that one deserves one's natural gifts no less than anything else. In contrast John Rawls believes that one's natural gifts are nit morally deserved. Therefore the possessors do not deserve the differential advantages they may achieve by virtue of their natural gifts and society should minimize these advantages. Rawls' not only thinks that the distribution of inequalities by a "natural lottery" cannot be morally justified, but also that, regardless of distribution, inequalities as such cannot be morally justified, although he concedes that they may be useful by increasing the social product, and should be allowed if they increase the income of the least advantaged.

There are various types of entitlements. These are given below:

1) **Subjective Entitlement** - One aspect of an entitlement is a subjective feeling of security or self-assurance. From its earliest days, a primary goal of the common law has been to induce a subjective sense of security. People believing they have rights feel and act differently than those believing their well-being is at the sufferance of others. The income of the least advantaged.

2) **Unconditional Entitlement**-The term "entitlement" is sometimes used to uggest a benefit that one need not earn or a benefit that is not subject to conditions or reciprocal obligations.

3) **Positive Entitlement**- An "entitlement" also can be a legally enforceable individual right. This is the meaning of the term, denoted a "positive entitlement," that is probably most familiar to attorneys. It also may be the definition people most commonly have in mind when making moral arguments about society's duties to its less fortunate members.

Nozick's entitlement theory comprises 3 main principles:

1) **A principle of justice in acquisition** - This principle deals with the initial acquisition of holdings. It is an account of how people first come to own common property, what types of things can be held, and so forth.

2) **A principle of justice in transfer** - This principle explains how one person can acquire holdings from another, including voluntary exchange and gifts.

3) **A principle of rectification of injustice** - how to deal with holdings that are unjustly acquired or transferred, whether and how much victims can be compensated, how to deal with long past transgressions or injustices done by a government, and so on.

Nozick believes that if the world were wholly just, only the first two principles would be needed, as "the following inductive definition would exhaustively cover the subject of justice in holdings":

1) A person who acquires a holding in accordance with the principle of justice in acquisition is entitled to that holding.

2) A person who acquires a holding in accordance with the principle of justice in transfer, from someone else entitled to the holding, is entitled to the holding.

3) No one is entitled to a holding except by (repeated) applications of 1 and 2.

Thus, entitlement theory would imply "a distribution is just if everyone is entitled to the holdings they possess under the distribution" (Nozick 1974:151). Unfortunately, not everyone follows these rules: "some people steal from others, or defraud them, or enslave them, seizing their product and preventing them from living as they choose, or forcibly exclude others from competing in exchanges" (Nozick 1974:152). Thus the third principle of rectification is needed.

In this unit, you have read about freedom and entitlement. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress-1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What do you understand by freedom?

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2) What is entitlement?

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4.3 HUMAN RIGHTS

The classic definition of a human right is a right which is universal and held by all persons. The concept of human rights manifests itself in the literary, artistic, religious, legal, and political structures of all societies. Philosophers have traditionally divided rights into two categories: positive and negative. If a citizen has a right to freedom of speech, for example, then the state has a duty of non-interference. This so-called negative right allegedly imposes no burdensome or costly duty upon the state. The standard view of the positive right holds that welfare rights require extensive governmental action. " A human right by definition is a universal moral right, something which all men, everywhere, at all times ought to have, something of which no one may be deprived without a grave affront to justice, something which is owing to every human being simply because h is human" (Cranton 1973). One of the definitions cited most often is that of Wasserstorm. According to him ,"Any true human right, it is said, must satisfy at least four requirements: First, it must be possessed by all human beings, as well

as only by human beings. Second, because it is the same right that all human beings possess, it must be possessed equally by all human beings. Third, because human beings are possessed by all human beings, we can rule out as possible candidates any of those rights which one might have in virtue of occupying any particular status or relationship, such as that of parent, president, or promise. And Fourth, if there are any human rights, they have the additional characteristic of being assertable, in a manner of speaking, 'against the whole world'" (Wasserstorm 1979).

As one can see from the definitions, human rights are presumed to be universal in character.

4.3.1 Genesis of Human Rights Movement in India

Rude shock received from the imposition of the national emergency in India in 1976 made the articulate and vocal sections of society sensitised to human rights. Absence of democratic rights during those eighteen months galvanised students, intellectuals, political activists, trade unionists, artists into action. The educated middle class of India had thrived on an uninterrupted flow of democracy in its national life since it gained independence in 1947. The emergency rule was marked by detention without trial for a large number of people—students, youth, political personalities—news censorship, trespassing without legal sanction of private premises, taping of telephones, interception of letters and constitutional amendment curtailing basic rights to life and freedom in the name of national security and violation of civil liberties. Television being monopoly of the government was totally controlled by the ruling party .Hundreds of thousands of people joined massive rallies to protest against the anti-democratic acts of the government and to mobilise public opinion to safeguard the Indian democracy. Organisations such as Citizens for Democracy, People's Union for Civil Liberties (PUCL), People's Union for Civil Liberties and

Democratic Rights (PUCLDR) and Chhatra Yuva Sangharsh Vahini were at the forefront of human rights struggles at the national level. Dozens of state-level and city-based groups were also formed during this period. For example, Committee for Protection for Democratic Rights (Mumbai), Association for Protection of Democratic Rights (APDR) and Andhra Pradesh Civil Liberties Committee (APCLC) in Hyderabad.

With the national emergency lifted in 1977, horror stories of custodial violence and barbaric acts of torture in the police custody and prisons started pouring into the mainstream newspapers. Bright young men and women opted for investigative journalism as a career. Newly formed civil liberties and democratic rights groups started bringing out their newsletters and journals in English, Hindi and several regional languages. And organizations working against repression of the workers, poor, peasants, dalits, women and tribal people joined 'democratic rights movement'. This set the tone for human rights movements in India during 1990s that established their networks from local and regional to global level.

4.3.2 Human Rights versus Natural Rights

Natural law was considered to be standard against which all other laws were to be judged. Eventually natural law evolved into natural rights, which are considered to be the modern manifestations of natural law.

Natural law/rights theorists have asserted the existence of specific rights such as the right to liberty, the right to life, the right to self-preservation, the right to property, the rights to freedom from torture and the right to participate.

4.3.3 Natural Rights and Legal Rights

Natural and legal rights are two types of rights theoretically distinct according to philosophers and political scientists. Natural rights are rights not contingent upon the laws, customs, or beliefs of any particular culture or government, and therefore universal and inalienable. In contrast, legal rights are those bestowed onto a person by a given legal system.

The theory of natural law is closely related to the theory of natural rights. During the Age of Enlightenment, natural law theory challenged the divine right of kings, and became an alternative justification for the establishment of a social contract, positive law, and government — and thus legal rights — in the form of classical republicanism. Conversely, the concept of natural rights is used by some anarchists to challenge the legitimacy of all such establishments.

The idea of human rights is also closely related to that of natural rights; some recognize no difference between the two and regard both as labels for the same thing, while others choose to keep the terms separate to eliminate association with some features traditionally associated with natural rights. Natural rights, in particular, are considered beyond the authority of any government or international body to dismiss. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights is an important legal instrument enshrining one conception of natural rights into international soft law. Natural rights were traditionally viewed as exclusively negative rights, whereas human rights also comprise positive rights. Even on a natural rights conception of human rights, the two terms may not be synonymous.

The idea that animals have natural rights is one that has gained the interest of philosophers and legal scholars in the 20th century.

4.3.4 Thomas Hobbes

Thomas Hobbes (1588–1679) included a discussion of natural rights in his moral and political philosophy. Hobbes' conception of natural rights extended from his conception of man in a "state of nature". Thus he argued that the essential natural (human) right was "to use his own power, as he will himself, for the preservation of his own Nature; that is to say, of his own Life; and consequently, of doing anything, which in his own judgement, and Reason, he shall conceive to be the aptest means thereunto." (Leviathan. 1,XIV)

Hobbes sharply distinguished this natural "liberty", from natural "laws", described generally as "a precept, or general rule, found out by reason, by which a man is forbidden to do, that, which is destructive of his life, or taketh away the means of preserving his life; and to omit, that, by which he thinketh it may best be preserved."

In his natural state, according to Hobbes, man's life consisted entirely of liberties and not at all of laws – "It followeth, that in such a condition, every man has the right to everything; even to one another's body. And therefore, as long as this natural Right of every man to everything endureth, there can be no security to any man... of living out the time, which Nature ordinarily allow men to live." This would lead inevitably to a situation known as the "war of all against all", in

which human beings kill, steal and enslave others in order to stay alive, and due to their natural lust for "Gain", "Safety" and "Reputation". Hobbes reasoned that this world of chaos created by unlimited rights was highly undesirable, since it would cause human life to be "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short". As such, if humans wish to live peacefully they must give up most of their natural rights and create moral obligations in order to establish political and civil society. This is one of the earliest formulations of the theory of government known as the social contract.

Hobbes objected to the attempt to derive rights from "natural law," arguing that law ("lex") and right ("jus") though often confused, signify opposites, with law referring to obligations, while rights refer to the absence of obligations. Since by our (human) nature, we seek to maximize our well being, rights are prior to law, natural or institutional, and people will not follow the laws of nature without first being subjected to a sovereign power, without which all ideas of right and wrong are meaningless – "Therefore before the names of Just and Unjust can have place, there must be some coercive Power, to compel men equally to the performance of their Covenants..., to make good that Propriety, which by mutual contract men acquire, in recompense of the universal Right they abandon: and such power there is none before the erection of the Commonwealth." (Leviathan. 1, XV)

This marked an important departure from medieval natural law theories which gave precedence to obligations over rights.

4.3.5 John Locke

Locke (1632–1704) was another prominent Western philosopher who conceptualized rights as natural and inalienable. Like Hobbes, Locke was a major social contract thinker. He said that man's natural rights are life, liberty, and property. It was once conventional wisdom that Locke greatly influenced the American Revolutionary War with his writings of natural rights, but this claim has been the subject of protracted dispute in recent decades. For example, the historian Ray Forrest Harvey declared that Jefferson and Locke were at "two opposite poles" in their political philosophy, as evidenced by Jefferson's use in the Declaration of Independence of the phrase "pursuit of happiness" instead of "property." More recently, the eminent legal historian John Phillip Reid has deplored contemporary scholars' "misplaced emphasis on John Locke," arguing that American revolutionary leaders saw Locke as a *commentator* on established constitutional principles. Thomas Pangle has defended Locke's influence on the Founding, claiming that historians who argue to the contrary either misrepresent the classical republican alternative to which they say the revolutionary leaders adhered, do not understand Locke, or point to someone else who was decisively influenced by Locke. This position has also been sustained by Michael Zuckert.

According to Locke there are three natural rights:

- Life: everyone is entitled to live once they are created.
- Liberty: everyone is entitled to do anything they want to so long as it doesn't conflict with the first right.
- Estate: everyone is entitled to own all they create or gain through gift or trade so long as it doesn't conflict with the first two rights.

The social contract is an agreement between members of a country to live within a shared system of laws. Specific forms of government are the result of the decisions made by these persons acting in their collective capacity. Government is instituted to make laws that protect these three natural rights. If a government does not properly protect these rights, it can be overthrown.

4.3.6 Moral versus Legal Rights

Legal positivists claim that a right exists only if it is enforceable. Legal rights which exist by virtue of legislative enactment, common law, and so on, are, therefore, the only type of rights possible. Other theorists, such as natural law/ rights theorists, hold that moral rights are prior to and independent of legal rights.

December 1998 marks the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR).Two international covenants based on the UDHR were subsequently adopted. They are the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). Some of the human rights guaranteed by the ICESCR include the universal right to work, the right to just and favorable working conditions, the right to form trade unions and to strike, the right to social security and the right to an adequate standard of living. Some of the rights guaranteed by International Convention on Civil and Political Rights ICCPR are self-determination – including political status and economic and cultural development, ensure rights without discrimination, ensure equal enjoyment of treaty rights between men and women, derogation of rights to be limited to specific circumstances, certain rights may not be derogated from and derogation must be consistent with certain rules, the right to life, which shall be protected in law, the right to be free from inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, the freedom from slavery and servitude, the right to liberty and freedom from arbitrary arrest or detention, people deprived of their liberty shall be treated with humanity.

4.4 FREEDOM

4.4.1 Freedom –to

To many writers**,** and certainly to many philosophers, the freedom-from we have described are incidental: the main sense of freedom is freedom to. When we are free, we are free to do many things; the wider range of choices, the freer we are. In this sense, freedom is highly correlated with ability; the wider range of choice, the grater is the ability to do various things. Freedom to also gives a person greater power (not necessarily political power): it enables people to control aspects of their environment, including other people (if they wish to),as they would not be able to do if they lacked the means to do it.

4.4.2 Freedom to Vote

There is a special area of freedom to that deserves separate mention: the ability to vote, which is something one is free to do in democracies but not in most totalitarian nations.

It is most important to emphasize, however, that while freedom is an enormously great value, it is not the sum of all values. A person can be free and yet miserable. A person may be free from tyranny and oppression and yet depressed, psychotic,

or unhappy because of painful injuries. A person may be free to do many things and yet unhappy doing any of them.

"Freedom may mean freedom to starve, to make costly mistakes, or to run mortal risks. In the sense in which we use the term (freedom-from), the penniless vagabond who lives precariously by constant improvisation is indeed freer than the conscripted soldier with all his security and relative comfort."

Nor is it even desirable that a person should be as free as possible in either sense.

1) A person should be free from others controlling his life, but not if he is a small child or an imbecile. In any case, there are many desirable laws restricting people's behavior, such as traffic laws, yet every law is a restriction on one's freedom from control by others.

2) A teenager who has just inherited a million dollars is freer to do many things than his peers are, but so much money so early in life may ruin him; it might be better if he had this freedom to spend so early in life, before he could handle it. Freedom is a heady wine, which needs to be tempered with responsibility, restraint, and rational thought. Having a considerable degree of it is, at best, a necessary condition for one's happiness or well-being, never a sufficient condition.

4.4.3 Freedom and the Market

For the free market to operate, there must be freedom from the whims of dictators and bureaucrats. The market can survive, though crippled, with some degree of interference, but when the interference becomes severe enough a man from being able to estimate probabilities into the future, or when his taxes become so high that it is no longer worth his while to continue in operation, the market is no longer able to function so as to produce a vast quantity of goods and services at competitive prices. Freedom –from is indispensable to the market, and is indeed its chief condition.

Freedom to is a highly beneficial consequence of the unimpeded operation of the market. When entrepreneurs are free from economic controls imposed on their activities by others, they will produce a proliferation of goods which the public is then free to consume. This freedom-to on the part of the public is the direct result of freedom from controls which makes the market able to function.

According to T.H. Green, we can speak about two meanings of 'freedom' in the personal sphere. The first is the juristic meaning of freedom, which is the 'power to act according to preference'. Freedom in its second meaning Green calls 'true freedom'. It is found in the pursuit of self-perfection, in the pursuit of something that the individual believes to be truly good and that will bring him permanent satisfaction. The juristic meaning of freedom is its 'pri- mary' meaning; this is how we first understand freedom. It is an expression of 'man's assertion of himself against other men and against nature'. It is 'the first form of self-enjoyment ... of the self-conscious spirit'. It is at a later stage of the individual's development that she discovers 'true' freedom. When the exercise of juristic freedom ceases to satisfy the individual, since it no longer brings her a feeling of self-fulfilment, she discovers a new kind of freedom that can be achieved in the process of self-

improvement. In brief, Green defines juristic freedom as doing what you like and 'true' freedom as doing what you ought. A more formal account can be given of the difference between juristic and 'true' freedoms: 'true' freedom is related to moral action, while juristic freedom is related to what might be called 'ordinary' action Green explains why we use 'freedom' in different senses. The meaning of freedom varies because freedom is related to the individual's will, and consequently to the individual's understanding of what is good. Green states: 'the nature of the freedom really differs according to the nature of the object which the man makes his own, or with which he identifies himself'." Because the individual's idea of what is good changes throughout his lifetime, the circumstances that make him free change as well. The development of an individual's understanding of the good is paralleled by a change in the meaning of freedom. For Green, this is a matter of personal development. The individual may start with an understanding of freedom as the capacity to do as he wishes. But once he has done what he wished to do, he then wants to do something different, and

Green believes, something qualitatively different-that is, something more difficult and of a larger scale. Green's idea is that, just as individuals undergo character development, the idea of freedom also progresses from one stage to another.

According to Amartya Sen, the relation of the market mechanism to freedom and thus to economic development raise questions of at least two distinct types, which need to be clearly distinguished. First, a denial of opportunities of transaction, through arbitrary controls, can be a source of un freedom in itself. People are then prevented from doing what can be taken to be-in the absence of compelling reasons to the contrary-something that is within their right to do so.The difference that is made by seeing freedom as the principal ends of development can be illustrated with a few simple examples. Even though the full reach of this perspective can only emerge from a much more extensive analysis (attempted in the chapters to follow), the radical nature of the idea of "development as freedom" can easily be illustrated with some elementary examples.First, in the context of the narrower views of development in terms of GNP growth or industrialization, it is, often asked whether certain political or social freedoms, such as the liberty of political participation and dissent, or opportunities to receive basic education, are or are not "conducive to development." In the light of the more foundational view of development as freedom, this way of posing the question tends to miss the important understanding that these substantive freedoms (that is, the liberty of political participation or the opportunity to receive basic education or health care) are among the constituent components of development. Their relevance for development does not have to be freshly established through their indirect contribution to the growth of GNP or to the promotion of industrialization. As it happens, these freedoms and rights are also very effective in contributing to economic progress; this connection will receive extensive attention in this book. But while the causal relation is indeed significant, the vindication of freedoms and rights provided by this causal linkage is over and above the directly constitutive role of these freedoms in development.

A second illustration relates to the dissonance between income per head (even after correction for price variations)and the freedom of individuals to live long and live well. For example, the citizens of The difference that is made by seeing freedom as the principal ends of development can be illustrated with a few simple examples. Even though the full reach of this perspective can only emerge from a

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A second illustration relates to the dissonance between income per head (even after correction for price variations) and the freedom of individuals to live long and live well. For example, the citizens of Gabon or South Africa or Namibia or Brazil may be much richer in terms of per capita GNP than the citizens of Sri Lanka or China or the state of Kerala in India, but the latter have very substantially higher life expectancies than do the former. To take a different type of example, the point is often made that African Americans in the United States are relatively poor compared with American whites, though much richer than people in the third world. It is, however, important to recognize that African Americans have an ***absolutely*** lower chance of reaching mature ages than do people of many third world societies, such as China, or Sri Lanka, or parts of India (with different arrangements of health care, education,and community relations). If development analysis is relevant even for richer countries (it is argued in this work that this is indeed so),the presence of such intergroup contrasts within the richer countries can be seen to be an important aspect of the understanding of development and underdevelopment.

A third illustration relates to the role of markets as part of the process of development. The ability of the market mechanism to contribute to high economic growth and to overall economic progress has been widely-and rightly-acknowledged in the contemporary development literature. But it would be a mistake to understand the place of the market mechanism only in derivative terms. As Adam Smith noted, freedom of exchange and transaction is itself pan and parcel of the basic liberties that people have reason to value.

4.4.4 Organizations and Values

Many other examples can be given to illustrate the pivotal difference that is made by pursuing a view of development as an integrated process of expansion of substantive freedoms that connect with one another.

A broad approach of this kind permits simultaneous appreciation of the vital roles, in the process of development,of many different institutions, including

markets and market-related organizations,governments and local authorities, political parties and other civic institutions, educational arrangements and opportunities of open dialogue and debate (including the role of the media and other means of communication).Such an approach also allows us to acknowledge the role of social values and prevailing mores, which can influence the freedoms that people enjoy and have reason to treasure. Shared norms can influence social features such as gender equity, the nature of child care, family size and fertility patterns, the treatment of the environment and many other arrangements and outcomes. Prevailing values and social mores also affect the presence or absence of corruption, and the role of trust in economic or social or political relationships. The exercise of freedom is mediated by values, but the values in turn are influenced by public discussions and social interactions, which are themselves influenced by participatory freedoms. Each of these connections deserves careful scrutiny.

The fact that the freedom of economic transactions tends to be typically a great engine of economic growth has been widely acknowledged, even though forceful detractors remain. It is important not only to give the markets their due, but also to appreciate the role of other economic, social, and political freedoms in enhancing and enriching the lives that people are able to lead. This has a clear bearing even on such controversial matters as the so-called population problem. The role of freedom in moderating excessively high fertility rates is a subject on which contrary views have been held for a long time. While that great eighteenth-century French rationalist Condorcet expected that fertility rates would come down with "the progress of reason," so that greater security, more education and more freedom of reflected decisions would restrain population growth, his contemporary Thomas Robert Malthus differed radically with this position. Indeed, Malthus argued that "there is no reason whatever to suppose that anything beside the difficulty of procuring in adequate plenty the necessaries of life should either indispose this greater number of persons to marry early, or disable them from rearing in health the largest families." But it is especially important to recognize that this particular controversy is just one example of the debate between profreedom and antifreedom approaches to development that has gone on for many centuries. That debate is still very active in many different forms .

4.4.5 Development as Freedom

Development can be seen, it is argued here as a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy. Focussing on human freedoms contrasts with narrower views of development, such as identifying development with the growth of gross national product, or with the rise in personal incomes or with industrialization, or with technological advance, or with social modernization. Growth of GNP or of individual incomes can, of course, be very important as *means* to expanding the freedoms enjoyed by the members of the society. But freedoms depend also on other determinants, such as social and economic arrangements (for example, facilities for education and health care) as well as political and civil rights (for example, the liberty to participate in public discussion and scrutiny).Similarly, industrialization or technological progress or social modernization can substantially contribute to expanding human freedom, but freedom depends on other influences as well. If freedom is what development advances, then there is a major argument for concentrating on that overarching objective, rather than on some particular means, or some specifically chosen list of instruments. Viewing development in terms of expanding substantive freedoms directs attentions to the

ends that make development important, rather than merely to some means that, inter alia, play a prominent part in the process.

Development requires the removal of major sources of unfreedom: poverty as well as tyranny, poor economic opportunities as well as systematic social deprivation, neglect of public facilities as well as intolerance or overactivity of repressive states. Despite unprecedented increases in overall opulence, the contemporary world denies elementary freedoms to vast numbers-perhaps even the majority- of people. Sometimes the lack of substantive freedoms relates directly to economic poverty, which robs people of the freedom to satisfy hunger, or to achieve sufficient nutrition, or to obtain remedies for treatable illnesses, or the opportunity to be adequately clothed or sheltered , or to enjoy clean water or sanitary facilities. In other cases, the unfreedom links closely to the lack of public facilities and social care, such as the absence of epidemiological programs, or of organized arrangements for health care or educational facilities, or of effective institutions for the maintenance of local peace and order. In still other cases, the violation of freedom results directly from a denial of political and civil liberties by authoritarian regimes and from imposed restrictions on the freedom to participate in the social, political and economic life of the community.

Freedom is central to the process of development for two distinct reasons:

1) *The evaluative reason:* assessment of progress has to be done primarily in terms of whether the freedoms that people have are enhanced;

2) *The effectiveness reason:* achievement of development is thoroughly dependent on the free agency of people.

4.4.6 Forms of Un freedom

Very many people across the world suffer from varieties of un freedom. Famines continue to occur in particular regions, denying to millions the basic freedom to survive. Even in those countries which are no longer sporadically devastated by famines, under nutrition may affect very large numbers of vulnerable human beings. Also, a great many people have little access to health care, to sanitary arrangements or to clean water and spend their lives fighting unnecessary morbidity, often succumbing to premature mortality. The richer countries, sometimes too often have deeply disadvantaged people, who lack basic opportunities of health care, or functional education, or gainful employment, or economic and social security. Even within very rich countries, sometimes the longevity of substantial groups is no higher than that in much poorer economies of the so –called third world. Further, inequality between women and men afflicts-and sometime prematurely ends-the lives of millions of women, and, in different ways, severely restricts the substantive freedoms that women enjoy Moving to other deprivations of freedom, a great many people in different countries of the world are systematically denied political liberty and basic civil rights. It is sometimes claimed that the denial of these rights helps to stimulate economic growth ad is “good” for rapid economic development.

4.4.7 Two Roles of Freedom

There are two distinct reasons for the crucial importance of individual freedom in the concept of development, related respectively to *evaluation* and *effectiveness* First, in the normative approach used here, substantive individual freedoms are

taken to be critical. The success of a society is to be evaluated, in this view, primarily by substantive freedoms that the members of that society enjoy. This evaluative position differs from the informational focus of more traditional normative approaches, which focus on other variables, such as utility, or procedural liberty or real income. Having greater freedom to do things one has reason to value is

i) significant in itself for the person's overall freedom, and

ii) important in fostering the person's opportunity to have valuable outcomes.

Both are relevant to the evaluation of freedom of the members of the society and thus crucial to the assessment of the society' development.

The second reason for taking substantive freedom to be so crucial is that freedom is not only the basis of the evaluation of success and failure, but it is also a principal determinant of individual initiatives and social effectiveness. Greater freedom enhances the ability of people to help themselves and also to influence the world, and these matters are central to the process of development.

In this unit, you have read about human rights and freedom. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress-2*.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) Explain the concept of Natural rights?

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2) What do you understand by Human rights?

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4.5 LET US SUM UP

The original meaning of the word 'freedom,' "meant always the possibility of a person's acting according to his own decisions and plans, in contrast to the position of one who was irrevocably subject to the will of another, who by arbitrary decision could coerce him to act or not to act in specific ways. The time honored phrase by which freedom has often been described is therefore independence of the arbitrary will of another. In this sense 'freedom' refers solely to a relation of human beings to other human beings, and the only infringement on it is by coercion

by other human beings. Freedom from in this sense is absence of coercion by others; and this in addition to being the fundamental and original sense of the term, is undoubtedly the most important kind of freedom-from.

An entitlement is a guarantee of access to benefits based on established rights or by legislation. A "right" is itself an entitlement associated with a moral or social principle, such that an "entitlement" is a provision made in accordance with legal framework of a society. Typically, entitlements are laws based on concepts of principle ("rights") which are themselves based in concepts of social equality or enfranchisement.

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4.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress- 1

1) What do you understand by Freedom?

Answer: Freedom means the possibility of a person's acting according to his own decisions and plans, in contrast to the position of one who was irrevocably subject to the will of another, who by arbitrary decision could coerce him to act or not to act in specific ways.

2) What is entitlement?

Answer:the term "entitlement" refers to a notion or belief that one (or oneself) is deserving of some particular reward or benefit—if given without deeper

legal or principled cause, the term is often given with pejorative connotation (e.g. a "sense of entitlement").

Check Your Progress -2

1) Explain the concept of Natural rights?

Answer: Natural rights are rights not contingent upon the laws, customs, or beliefs of any particular culture or government, and therefore universal and inalienable.

2) What do you understand by Human rights?

Answer: The classic definition of a human right is a right which is universal and held by all persons. The concept of human rights manifests itself in the literary, artistic, religious, legal, and political structures of all societies.

MDV-102: Dynamics of Development

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May, 2018

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ISBN:

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Further information on the Indira Gandhi National Open University courses may be obtained from the University's office at Maidan Garhi, New Delhi.

Printed and published on behalf of the Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi by the Registrar, MPDD, IGNOU, New Delhi.

Laser Typeset by Tessa Media & Computers, C-206, A.F.E.-II, Okhla, New Delhi.

Printed at:

BLOCK 4 DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT-III

Block 4on 'Dynamics of Development – III' consists of three units namely, 'Development and Disparity', Development and Displacement', and 'Inclusive Development'.

Unit 1 on **'Development and Disparity'** discusses the basic concepts of development as well as disparity. This unit, besides covering a few important indicators of development, also covers the meaning of the term disparity, and types of disparity in the global and regional contexts.

Unit 2 on **'Development and Displacement'** discusses Meaning of Development and Displacement, Scale of Displacement, Cause and Impact of Displacement, Urbanization Induced Displacement, Development vs Displacement, Protests and Resistance, Displacement: A Global scenario and Rehabilitation and Resettlement

the definition of economic development and how it is different from economic growth. This unit also discusses some of the common measures used in the measurement of economic development. It also gives an account of the obstacles to economic development and features of underdeveloped countries.

Unit 3 on **'Inclusive Development'** gives an account of the genesis and relevance of inclusive development. It explains the importance of inclusive development and factors that affect inclusive development. Besides, it also comprises various processes and approaches to inclusion.

UNIT 1 DEVELOPMENT AND DISPARITY

Structure

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Development :Its Indicators

1.3 Meaning of Disparity

1.4. Types of Disparities

1.5 Causes of Disparity

1.6 Measures to Overcome Disparity

1.7 Let Us Sum Up

1.8 References and Selected readings

1.9 Check Your Progress - Possible Answers

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses the basic concepts-development as well as disparity. Despite development, disparities has remain a grave concern. For example, in the community where you are staying you will find some households have good material possession like beautiful houses, car, good quality household materials like refrigerator, microwave oven, sofa sets, etc, while many might not have even sufficient accommodation for living. This is an example of economic disparities. This unit besides covering a few important indicators of development, also covers in detail the meaning of the term disparity and the types of disparity. It examines the types of disparity in the global and the regional context and also examines disparity in the inter-state and the intra-state contexts. It also discusses rural-urban disparity. The section also discusses the characteristics of developed countries and the criteria for the identification of backwardness. It also discusses the contexts, social as well as economic, in which disparity take place. In the end, the unit discuss the causes of disparity and the measures to overcome disparity.

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the indicators of development
- Describe the meaning and types of disparities
- Discuss the causes of disparities measures to overcome them

1.2 DEVELOPMENT : ITS INDICATORS

1.2.1 Concept and Indicators of Development

Development has no precise definition**.** There are, however, a few identified indicators: economic, social, psychological, cultural and political on the basis of which development is said to have taken place. Among the economic indicators of development are: income, expenditure, growth – industrial as well as agricultural. Social indicators of development constitute literacy, health, etc. Among the psychological indicators are: the feeling of well-being (satisfaction), change in attitude, etc. The cultural indicators include modern/traditional cultures which tend to influence other cultures. Lastly, the political indicators also play

an important role in defining development, because political situations within a country may influence policies of other countries.

Let us begin with the economic indicators. It is said that development of a country, state or a region has taken place if the per capita income or per capita expenditure has increased. This means that people have more income as a result of which their purchasing power has gone up and their expenditure patterns have gone up. This is an indicator that development has taken place. If the annual growth rate in the industrial sector or the agricultural sector has increased, or even if the over all growth rate has increased, then again it can be said that the country has moved from one stage of development to the other.

The social indicators of development include literacy, health, etc. If percentage of literates in a country has increased from, say, 65% to say, 90%, it can be said that the country has developed. Similarly, if the per capita expenditure on health has increased, or the Infant Mortality Rate (that is the number of children who have died before completing one year per one thousand live births) has declined from say, 65 per 1000 live births to say, 45 per 1000 live births, it can be said that the country has moved from one stage of development to the other. Similarly, if malnutrition has been reduced from say, 30% to say, 15 %, this also indicates that the country has developed.

The psychological indicators of development include a behavioural change in people's attitude or a feeling of satisfaction or well-being among people. If the country experiences a behavioural change in the attitude of people in matters of health, hygiene, cleanliness, etc., then we can easily conclude that the country is developing.

Similarly, if people are happy about things and express their satisfaction about the state of affairs in the country, then again it can be said the country has moved from stage of development to the other. The cultural indicators of development include the practice of modern/traditional cultures, which tend to influence other cultures. If India is able to influence the world through its cultures, then India can be said to be moving from one stage of development to the other. Mahatma Gandhi's philosophy of life, which has had a major impact on the world, was based on certain Indian traditions, customs and values to which he strictly adhered and which helped him bring about changes in world's thinking on several issues pertaining to life. This is an aspect of cultural development.

1.3 MEANING OF DISPARITY

After studying the indicators of development, you will know tha meaning of disparities:

Disparity means the condition or fact of being unequal, as in age, rank, or degree

- Age disparity: young, middle –aged,old
- Rank disparity: chaprasi, clerk, officer
- Degree: poor, average, excellent (as in condition of a car) or developed, developing, under-developed (as in status of a country)

We talk of disparity for the simple reason that we have to make comparisons between equals and if there is a disparity in a group among which comparisons

are made, such comparisons are not justifiable. Let us take the example of a school which has conducted an essay competition on the importance of Independence Day for children belonging to class VII to class XII. Children from these classes would belong to ages ranging from, say, eleven years to, say, eighteen years. It is but natural that children in the lower age group will have lesser knowledge about Independence Day compared to children in the upper age group. Even if the knowledge levels are the same, the level of comprehension would differ among children belonging to various age groups. Older children would be able to perform better based on their experiences compared to younger children. Such a competition would not be fair from the point of view of younger children.

Similarly, it is not justifiable to evaluate the performance of a chaprasi, a clerk and an officer serving an organization, on the same yardstick, as their levels of understanding, their levels of intelligence, their knowledge base, etc. differs from each other. An officer's performance would be judged on the basis of certain yardsticks which would be different from that of a clerk or a chaprasi.

Countries may not be new and old, but they are at different levels of development. Some countries like USA, Norway, Sweden, etc. are at a much higher stage of development compared to say, countries like Bangladesh, Nepal, etc. or some South African countries. Comparisons between such countries may not be justifiable. So, if disparity between the status of various countries exist, they cannot be compared in terms of their levels of development.

Disparity and development are the two sides of a coin. Disparity creates bottlenecks to development. Lesser the disparity, greater will be the chances of development and greater the disparity, lesser will be the chances that development takes place. For example countries like USA, Norway, Sweden, etc. have lesser disparities in terms of per capita income, per capita consumption and availability of resources between the rich and the poor, etc., compared to countries like India, Bangladesh, Nepal, etc., where disparities are higher between the rich and the poor.

Now you must have some idea about the meaning of development: its indicators and meaning of disparity. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What do you mean by development? Is it a multi-dimensional concept. Explain

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2) Disparities are of different types? Illustrate?

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1.4 TYPES OF DISPARITIES

After explaining disparities, it is better now to discuss about the types of disparities. A few important types of disparities are as follows:

i) Global Disparity

ii) Inter-State Disparity

iii) Intra-State Disparity

iv) Rural-Urban Disparity

i) Global Disparity

The simple meaning of global disparity is the disparities that exists between the nations. Commonly, one hears that America is much more developed than India.

For example, socio-economic disparity exists at the global level and that is why countries are classified into two categories: developed and underdeveloped. There are countries which are in the process of developing and such countries are referred to as developing countries. Each country is at a different level of development, which causes disparity between countries. Some countries have been endowed with resources in abundance, while there are countries which are extremely poor in resources. Resources are of various types – material resources, man-power resources, natural resources and financial resources. Differences in availability of resources, by and large, cause disparity between countries and put them at different levels of development.

The following table shows the level of global socio-economic disparity that exists between a group of developed as well as a group of underdeveloped/developing countries. This is described in Table 1.

Table 1: Socio-Economic Indicators of a few countries

Countries	**Socio-Economic Indicators reflecting Global Disparity**				
	Gross Domestic Product per Capita in US Dollars (2006)	Human Poverty Index (2006)	Life Expectancy at birth in years(2006)	Infant Mortality Rate (2006)	Adult Literacy % 15 years & above (2006)
Group A					
Bangladesh	1,155	36.9	63.5	52	52.5
India	2,489	28.5	64.1	57	65.2
Nepal	999	33.3	63.0	46	55.2
Pakistan	2361	33.6	64.9	78	54.2
Sri Lanka	3896	16.9	71.9	11	90.8

Group B					
Japan	31,951	-	82.4	3	-
Norway	51,862	-	79.9	3	-
Sweden	34,059	-	80.7	3	-
UK	32,654	-	79.2	5	-
USA	43,968	-	78.0	6	-

Sources: *Human Development Report, UNDP, 2008 and State of the World's Children, UNICEF, 2008*

It is quite evident from the table that global disparity exists and some countries are much more developed compared to some other countries. If we look at the Human Development Index (HDI) of each of the countries taken in this table, we find that the rank ranges from no.2 for Norway to 147 for Bangladesh. If we look at the second column which gives figures for the Gross Domestic Product per Capita, the figures vary widely between the two groups of countries.

In the first group (Group A) are those which have GDP per capita as low as 999 USD for Nepal and as high as 3896 USD (US Dollar is the currency of United States) for Sri Lanka. On the contrary, we have countries in Group B where the GDP per capita is as low as 31,951 USD for Japan and as high as 51,862 USD for Norway for the year 2006.

Column 3 of the table gives figures for the Human Poverty Index (HPI). As we can see, the countries of Group B are all highly developed and figures for these countries for the Human Poverty Index have not been calculated. However, for countries belonging to Group A, the Human Poverty Index have been calculated as poverty exists in all these countries. Even within the Group A countries, we find differences in values of HPI, ranging from as low as 104 for Sri Lanka to as high as 147 for Bangladesh.

The Life Expectancy at Birth, given in the next column of the table shows a difference of up to 20 years between the Group A and Group B countries. The table shows that life expectancy at Birth is the lowest in Nepal (63 years) belonging to Group A compared to the highest in Japan (82.4 years) belonging to Group B. The average difference in life expectancy at birth between the two groups of countries would be about 15 years, which is a huge difference.

There is a marked difference in Infant Mortality Rates (number of deaths occurring in the age group of up to one year per thousand live births) between countries belonging to the two groups. In group A, the average IMR is 48.8, while that in Group B, the average is 4. If we exclude Sri lanka from Group A, which has a low IMR of 11, the average of IMR in Group A would go up to 58.2.

In Group B, the literacy figures have not been calculated, as there is hardly any illiteracy in countries belonging to this group. However, in Group A, the literacy rate is around 57-58%, except for Sri Lanka, where the literacy rate is over 90%.

ii) Inter-state Disparity

Like global disparities, there are also exist a disparities between the States in India. When you will discuss with some of the more educated people around you, they will say that Punjab and Haryana are more developed than Orissa and Bihar. The percentage of people living below the poverty line in the later two States are higher than the former two States.

Widening socio-economic disparities across the Indian states exist even today as they existed even 50 years ago. One of the principal justifications for introduction of five year plans and the establishment of the Planning Commission was to ensure a process of regionally balanced and socially equitable development. Through public and directed private investments, as well as various other interventions and public policies, balanced development across the regions was pursued during the first four decades of planning. Though such policies were not completely successful, a measure of regional balance in development was maintained.

The role of government in general, and the central government in particular, in the economic activities of the nation changed substantially since the initiation of economic reforms in 1991. The private sector, which was controlled and contained in various ways, has since then been encouraged to play a more important role. Market forces, rather than government directions, would decide the investment decisions – where to invest, what to produce, whom to sell to, and so on. The locations and priorities were to be market-determined rather than government-determined. The government would have to be a facilitator for private initiatives and expected to restrict its economic activities to areas that were purely in the domain of the government.

The experience of a decade of economic reforms clearly indicates that one of its major victims has been balanced regional growth. Private investments have increasingly gone to relatively developed regions that have better social, economic and physical infrastructure and better governance, especially in terms of speedy decision-making processes. Five major states, namely, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, that together account for less than one-third of the population of the country, accounted for almost two-third of the private investment proposals over the last 10 years since August 1991. The same set of states benefited from over 60% of the commercial bank credit and financial flows from national level financial institutions like Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI), Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI), etc. In contrast, another set of seven major states, namely Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa and Assam together accounting for 55% of the population received less than 30% of the private investment proposals and a similar share of bank credit and other institutional finances during the last decade.

A recent ranking of all districts in the country by the National Population Commission (NCP) on the basis of a composite index of socio demographic progress clearly brings out the wide socio-economic disparities among the major Indian states. Out of the 569 districts covered by the report, 190 belonged to the forward group of states consisting of eight major ones which included the five economically better performing states plus Punjab, Haryana and Kerala. Another 299 districts belonged to the group of backward states, which consisted of the seven economically backward states.A reflection of inter-state disparity can also be noticed through the Planning Commission data on poverty (Uniform Reference

Period) and the Economic Survey data on literacy. The table below gives an account of states which are below the national average in terms of percentage of people below the poverty line and states which are above the national average.

Table 2: Percentage of population living below the poverty line

Inter-State Disparity in terms of percentage of People below the Poverty Line	
States	**Percentage of people below the Poverty Line (2004-05)**
States with less than 10 % population below the poverty line	
Haryana	14.0
Himachal Pradesh	10.0
Jammu and Kashmir	5.4
Mizoram	12.6
Punjab	8.4
Chandigarh	7.1
Daman & Diu	10.5
ALL INDIA	**27.5**
States with more than 30 % population below the poverty line	
Bihar	41.4
Chhatisgarh	40.9
Jharkhand	40.3
Madhya Pradesh	38.3
Orissa	46.4
Uttarakhand	39.6
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	33.2

Source: *Planning Commission, Government of India; Website: http://www.planning commission.nic.in*

The table above shows that seven states are having poverty ratios of less than 15 % and seven with poverty ratios of more than 30 %. The table reflects the wide inter-state disparity in poverty ratios. The table below gives data on literacy rates for states, showing disparity in literacy rates between states. Six states above the national average and six states below the national average have been identified in the table.

Table 3: Percentage of literacy in Different States

Inter-State Disparity in terms of Percentage of Literates (Census 2001)

States	Percentage of Literates
States with literacy percentage above all India literacy rate	
Delhi	81.67
Goa	82.01
Kerala	90.86
Lakshadweep	86.66
Mizoram	88.80
Puducherry	81.24
ALL INDIA	**64.84**
States with literacy percentage below all India literacy rate	
Arunachal Pradesh	54.34
Bihar	47.00
Jammu & Kashmir	55.52
Jharkhand	53.56
Rajasthan	60.41
Uttar Pradesh	56.27

Source: *Economic Survey, 2007-08*

The table shows that there is acute inter-state disparity in terms of literacy rates, with the first group of states having an average literacy rate of around 85 % compared to the second group of states where the literacy rate happens to be around 55 %.

iii) Intra-state Disparity

Like the inter-state disparities, you can recall that in your state some of the districts are better developed as compared to other districts. For example, if you are a student from Orissa and Madhya Pradesh, then you can know that in Orissa , Kalahandik district is less developed as compared to Cuttack district and Bastar district of Madhya Pradesh , which is less developed than Bhopal. Intra-state disparity refers to disparity within the state. Let us take the example of intra-state disparity in rural poverty in the state of Uttar Pradesh. The following table shows that districts within the state have various levels of disparity, ranging from very high of 74.65 percent in Kaushambi district to very low 6.6 percent in Bagpat district in terms of percentage of people below the poverty line in the rural areas of Uttar Pradesh.

Table 4: BPL (rural) in different Districts of Uttar Pradesh

Intra-State Disparity reflected through the Proportion of Rural Population Below Poverty Line (%)

Very High (Above 50%)		High (40% To 50 %)		Moderate (20% To 40%)		Low (Below 20%)	
Distric	**%**	**District**	**%**	**District**	**%**	**District**	**%**
Kaushambi	74.65	Kanpur	49.93	Gonda (Nagar)	36.95	Moradabad	19.77
Hardoi	74.00	Pratap-	49.09	Kannauj garh	35.85	Agra	19.43
Bahraich	72.11	Lucknow	49.06	Balrampur Budh Nagar	35.69	Gautam	19.00
Mirzapur	68.38	Ghazipur	48.50	Azamgarh	32.87	Hathras	17.91
Sonbhadra	64.53	Jalaun (Orai)	48.34	Farukkh-abad	32.64	Etah	17.26
Kanpur Dehat	60.87	Faizabad	48.22	Rampur	31.83	Mathura	16.24
Shravasti	60.53	Basti	47.64	Maharaj-ganj	30.76	Aligarh	14.64
Unnao	59.51	Etawah	46.34	Lalitpur	30.47	Firozabad	13.61
Ambedkar Nagar	59.15	Barabanki	46.15	Jhansi	29.19	Budaun	12.24
Rae Bareli	57.78	Sant Kabir Nagar	45.99	Gorakhpur	28.24	Muzaffarnagar	11.68
Sitapur	57.46	Hamirpur	45.32	Allahabad	28.17	Deoria	11.67
Chitrakoot	55.13	Pilibhit	45.23	Bareilly	27.50	Bulandshahar	10.34
Sultanpur	54.62	Jaunpur	43.65	Saharanpur	24.56	Meerut	8.38
Shahjahan pur	54.11	Mau	43.34	Jyotiba Phulle Nagar	24.45	Ghaziabad	7.12
Ballia	51.55	Orraiya	43.23	Varanasi	24.24	Baghpat	6.66
Lakhimpur Kheri	51.01	Chandauli	43.10	Bijnor	23.67		
		Fatehpur	42.77	Sant Ravidas Nagar	22.74		
		Siddharth Nagar	42.74	Mahoba	21.33		
		Kushi Nagar	42.66				
		Mainpuri	42.52				
		Banda	40.85				

Source: *Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India, BPL Survey 2002*

iv) Rural-urban disparity

Like poverty, disparities in terms of literacy, health indicators also prevails across the districts of different states. You studied the disparities among the districts,

but you are well aware that disparities exists between rural and urban areas. Rural-urban disparity has been prevalent in India for ages. Rural areas are considered to be backward areas in terms of availability of basic infrastructure – roads, electricity, water and sanitation facilities, schools and hospitals, etc. In contrast, these facilities are mostly available in urban areas. It is because of the absence of such facilities that rural areas lag behind urban areas in terms of basic indicators of development – poverty, illiteracy, unemployment, etc. The table below gives an indication of the extent of rural-urban disparity prevalent in the country.

Table 5: Disparities indicators in Rural and Urban areas of India

**No. of persons (or person days) unemployed per 1000 persons (or person days)*

Rural-Urban Disparity in Selected Socio- Economic Indicators		
Indicators	**Areas**	
	Rural	**Urban**
Percentage of people below the poverty line	28.3	25.7
Percentage of literates	53.0	74.0
Percentage of regular wage-employers	7.0	41.0
Average earning per day in Rs.	48.63	62.64
Percentage of self-employed	59.5	43.0
Unemployment rates* (usual status**)	23.0	53.0

***** Usual status means unemployed on an average in the reference year***

Source: *Planning Commission, Government of India; Website: http://www.planningcommission.nic.in,National Sample Survey Organization, 60th Round (2004-05), National Sample Survey Organization, 62nd Round (2005-06)*

Table 5 shows that both poverty and illiteracy are higher in rural areas compared to that in urban areas. The percentage of regular wage employers is also lower in rural areas, vis-a-vis the urban areas. There is marked difference between the average earnings per day in rural areas compared to urban areas. It is for this reason that more people in urban areas are self-employed (59.5 % in rural areas compared to 43 % in urban areas). The higher degree of self-employment also results in unemployment rates being low in rural areas (23.0 %) compared to that in urban areas (53.0 %).

1.5 CAUSES OF DISPARITY

Up to now you studied meaning and types of disparities, now in this section, we will explain to you the causes of disparities. Some of the root causes of disparity are as follows:

- Attitude of Government: For example – SCs, STs are given lesser attention in development compared to the population belonging to the general category.
- Attitude of people: For example - living in urban areas is considered superior compared to living in rural areas; girls are considered less deserving than boys, so are given less attention.

- Historically some areas/regions have been endowed with better resources. For example - irrigation facilities were available in Punjab during pre-British times, making the state agriculturally more prosperous, compared to other states.
- Preferential treatment given to some states in terms of private sector investments – for example, states like Gujarat, Karnataka, etc., are given more attention compared to backward states like Bihar, MP and Rajasthan.

1.5.1 Attitude of the Government

There is a gap between the SCs and STs and the rest of the population with respect to the availability of basic civic amenities such as electricity, housing, water supply and toilet facilities. Access to and benefits from the public health system have been uneven between the general population and those belonging to the SC/ST categories. The cumulative impact of the disparities is reflected in high levels of poverty - about 36% among SCs in rural areas and 39.2% in urban areas. The STs fare even worse than the SCs with 47.3% of them living in poverty in rural areas and 33.3% in urban areas.

The National Sample Survey data of 2004-05 revealed that literacy rate was the lowest (52%) among the STs, followed by 57% among the SCs and 64% among other backward classes (OBCs). The health status of both SCs and STs was far worse compared to the general population. The National Family Health Survey (NFHS)-3 found that children belonging to SCs and STs were at a greater risk of dying compared to other children. The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) for STs was 62; for SCs it was 66 and for the general population it was much lower (57). The under-five mortality rate was higher among STs (96) than among SCs (88) as against 74 for the general population. Overall, the under five mortality rate was 23% higher among the Other Backward Castes (OBCs), compared to the population in the general category.Although the enrollment trends among SC and ST children are encouraging, compared to the situation in 2005, their pace of progress is much slower compared to the general population because of lesser attention being given by teachers, especially in government schools. The Anganwadi workers are also reported to be ill- treating children belonging to the SC and ST categories. Despite all this, the government's attitude towards the SC and ST population has not changed. The resources allocated for the welfare of the SCs and STs are not in proportion to their needs. The policies and programmes specifically formulated for these categories of population have also not been effectively implemented. Thus, discrimination against the SC and ST population continues even after six decades of independence.

1.5.2 Attitude of people

The attitude of people, in general, reflects their preference for urban living compared to life in the rural areas. Serving the population belonging to the villages is a difficult proposition for the doctors, teachers and other civil servants. Since life is more comfortable in urban areas, people have a liking for things which are urban. Development of cities and towns are considered more appropriate compared to development of villages by most people.

The attitude of people towards the girl child has always been one of indifference. They consider girls to be liabilities, for her marriage in India is an expensive affair as it carries with it the unlawful tradition of dowry. Girls are not sent to

school beyond a certain age as they are supposed to manage household chores and are also supposed to take care of their younger siblings. Girls are discriminated against in matters of food, clothes, schooling and provision of basic health services. This is the general attitude of people towards the girl child. This attitude and preference in the mind set of the people lead to disparities.

1.5.3 Resource rich states

Certain states are endowed with abundant natural resources, which have placed them at a higher level compared to others. For example, while Gujarat is supposed to be better endowed with resources used for the growth of the textile industries, Punjab has been better endowed with irrigation facilities making it agriculturally more advanced compared to other states. However, there are states extremely rich in mineral resources like Jharkhand or extremely rich in forest resources like Chhattisgarh, but they have not been able to make optimal use of their resources, because of the government's callous attitude or because of the insurgency factor that prevails in these states.

1.5.4 Private sector investments

Some states are being given more attention by private companies who tend to invest more and more in these states, as private investors see a lot of growth potential in these states. States like Karnataka, Gujarat, etc. are being given preferential treatment by private companies, compared to many other states like Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, etc. Since government's control after liberalization has markedly declined, private sector investments largely governed by markets forces are coming up in a big way in some states. This would further increase inter-state disparity.

1.6 MEASURES TO OVERCOME DISPARITY

After knowing the causes of poverty, it is better now to discuss about measures to overcome disparities. Some of the important measures required to overcome disparities are as follows:

The following measures need to be adopted to overcome disparity:

- Changed attitudes of people – to get rid of caste and class considerations.
- Preferential treatment to be given to backward regions, states, areas, etc.
- Good governance to remove inter-regional, inter-state and intra-state disparity.
- Transparency in governance – more knowledge about Right to Information Act, legal literacy, etc.
- People's participation in development going down to the panchayat level.
- Accountability to the people.

1.6.1 Changed attitudes of people

If disparity is to be removed, there need to be a complete change in the attitudes of people. People who consider factors like class, caste, gender, age, etc., important for development are actually creating hindrance in development by perpetuating disparity. It is very important for the people to realize that factors like these

create serious bottlenecks in the development process and are factors that affect certain sections of society. If development is to take place, it is important that all sections of society participate in the development process and also reap the fruits of development.

1.6.2 Preferential treatment to backward areas/regions

It is important for the government and the private sector to realise that disparity can be removed only if greater attention is given to areas which are backward, which means more investments need to be made in backward regions by private companies and increased allocations need to be made by the government in backward regions. It is also important to formulate special policies and programmes for the backward regions, like the ones that presently exists for the North- Eastern region. These investments may not give adequate returns initially, but may, in the long run remove disparities.

1.6.3 Good governance

Governance is the art of governing – which means managing the affairs of a country or state or even a block or a village. Good governance refers to effective planning, management and monitoring of activities in order to bring about effective improvement in the affairs of the country or a state and equitable distribution of the gains of development. It also refers to providing equal access to basic services to all sections of the population and equal opportunities for individual growth. Thus, the better the governance, the lesser would be the disparity.

1.6.4 Transparency

Transparency is absolutely essential to check disparity and ensure that development takes place. Transparency can be ensured if people have access to information. This is possible through the provision of information about various legislations to the masses, such as the Right to Information Act, legal literacy, etc. If systems are not working in an organisation, it is because of lack of accountability and transparency. Since people are not aware of the right to information, they are not able acquire knowledge about the system's failure within an organization and to raise their voice against non-functioning of systems within an organization. The more the transparency in an organization, the greater would be the growth of the organization. If all organizations in a country, for example, have adequate systems in place, there would be no disparity.

1.6.5 People's participation in development

It is very important that people's participation is ensured at all stages of development and at all levels – right from the top level to the grassroots level. When people are participating in the development process, it is in their interest to ensure that all sections of the society benefit equally from the process. If only a small section of the population is benefiting from the development process, it means that over a period of time disparity would crop in. In villages, where discrimination on the basis of caste and class and gender is extremely pronounced, the Panchayati Raj system can play a major role through people's involvement in the development process.

1.6.6 Accountability

It is also important to ensure that people are made accountable for the non-functioning of systems within the government. This can be done if people are involved at every stage of development – right from the stage of planning a programme to its execution and monitoring. It is important for the people to realise that programmes are meant for people and they need to be executed and monitored by them. The concept of ownership of a programme or scheme should vest with the people and then only they would feel accountable. If a road, for example, is in a bad shape making life difficult for the commuters, it is the people – the road users - themselves who need to be blamed. That is why we have good roads and bad roads in the same city, causing disparity in the availability of services. Good roads are those for which the road users are willing to take the onus of accountability. Bad roads are those about which road users are not concerned.

After reading about the types and causes of disparities and measures to overcome disparities. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 2.*

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What are the various types of disparity?

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2) What possible measures can be taken to overcome disparity?

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1.7 LET US SUM UP

We have discussed several concepts and issues related to development and disparity in this unit. It is now important for us to briefly sum up what we have discussed so far. This will help us to get a better understanding of the subject matter of this unit and will also help us to review our own understanding of the subject matter.We started the unit with the meaning of development. Next, we discussed the meaning and types of disparities. Disparities creates bottlenecks to development. Lesser the disparity, greater will be the chances of development

and greater the disparity, lesser will be the chances that development takes place. Later on, we discussed the different types of disparities – global, regional, inter-state, intra-state and rural-urban disparity.

Then the next section was devoted to the causes of disparity. It was pointed out that disparity was caused due to the indifferent attitude of the government towards the SC and ST population; due to the indifferent attitude of people towards issues of class, caste, gender and age discrimination. It was also mentioned that disparity is caused as certain states are endowed with abundant resources, which have placed them at a higher level compared to others. In the last section in this unit, we discussed the measures that needs to be taken to overcome disparity and some measures have been taken by the Government of India for reduction of poverty.

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5) Development, Displacement and Disparity : *India in the Last Quarter of the Twentieth Century;* edited by Nirmala Banerjee and Sugata Marjit, Orient Longman, 2005.

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1.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS – POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress-1

1) What do you mean by development? Is it a multi-dimensional concept? Explain

Answer: Development has no precise definition**.** There are, few identified indicators: economic, social, psychological, cultural and political on the basis of which development is said to have taken place. Among the economic indicators of development are: income, expenditure, growth – industrial as well as agricultural. Social indicators of development constitute literacy, health, etc. The cultural indicators include modern/traditional cultures which tend to influence other cultures.

2) Disparities are of different types? Illustrate?

Answer: Global disparity*:* Some countries are much more developed compared to some other countries. In terms of GDP per capita- some countries have

higher Gross Domestic product per Capita, life expectancy at birth is higher, infant mortality is much lower.

Regional disparity: can be seen to exist at two levels – global level as well as at the national level. At the global level, certain regions like the Sub Saharan and African regions are poor in resources compared to, for example, regions in the Middle East and Europe **.**

Check Your Progress-2

1) What are the various types of disparity?

Answer: The various types of disparities are**:**

Global Disparity,Inter-State Disparity (Disparity between States),Intra-State Disparity (Disparity within States),Rural-Urban Disparity.

2) What possible measures can be taken to overcome disparity?

Answer: The possible measures to be taken to overcome disparity are:

Changed attitudes of people – to get rid of caste and class considerations, Preferential treatment to be given to backward regions, states, areas, good governance to remove inter-regional, inter-state and intra-state disparity, transparency in governance – more knowledge about Right to Information Act, legal literacy, people's participation in development going down to the Panchayat level, accountability to the people.

UNIT 2 DEVELOPMENT AND DISPLACEMENT

Structure

2.1 Introduction
2.2 Meaning of Development and Displacement
2.3 Scale of Displacement
2.4 Causes and Impact of Displacement
2.5 Urbanization Induced Displacement
2.6 Development vs Displacement
2.7 Protests and Resistance
2.8 Displacement: A Global scenario
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2.10 Let Us Sum Up
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2.12 Check Your Progress-Possible Answers

2.1 INTRODUCTION

After independence when India launched the task of nation building, it chose the path of planned development. This was flagged off with the launching of Five-year Plans. Since economic development was conspicuously poor, planners focused more on economic development defined mainly as the growth of GNP, which was symbolized by new factories, dams, mega projects, mining etc. Dams were even referred as the 'temples of modern India' and as symbols of progress and prosperity. Though these mega projects have provided power to growing industries, irrigation to thirsty lands and above all, have brought economic prosperity to the nation, they nevertheless, led to forced displacement of tens of thousands of people from their ancestral lands. The temples of modern India have become temples of doom for the uprooted people. Such projects have changed the patterns of the use of land, water and other natural resources that prevailed in the areas. People dependent upon land, forest and other natural resources for their livelihood have been dispossessed of their subsistence through land acquisition and displacement.

In recent years, one social issue that has caused intense debate among academics, social activists and planners is the involuntary displacement of people from their productive

assets (land) and homes, due to industrial or infrastructure projects. Though the process into urbanisable lands. All this has unleashed a situation where more and more people are being displaced from their communities and traditional ways of life. of acquisition of land for setting up mining, irrigation, transportation of mega-industrial projects (mostly in the public sector) is not new, the intensity of adverse effects was never comprehended in the past as it is today. The liberalization of the economy, growing needs of infrastructure in fast-growing cities and new partnership in industrial or economic sectors have threatened

traditional sources of sustenance of people. More and more agricultural lands are being depleted for setting up industrial or infrastructure projects. The situation is aggravated due to major conversion of agricultural lands voluntarily or involuntarily

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the concept of development and displacement
- Explain the scale and intensity of displacement
- Describe the consequences of development and displacement

2.2 MEANING OF DEVELOPMENT AND DISPLACEMENT

2.2.1 Development

Is development theory a matter of social science or of politics? Writers have different views on the degree of autonomy of development theory. Some treat development theory primarily as part of social science and thus emphasize the influence of classical economic and social thought (e.g. Preston 1996, Martinussen 1997). Others implicitly view development theory mainly as ideology – like a ship rocked in a sea of political pressures and shifting tides. They consider political leanings, in a broad sense, as more important in shaping development theory than theoretical considerations (e.g. Andre Gunder Frank 1971) and Lord, a banker or IMF official.

According to Björn Hettne, 'Development in the modern sense implies intentional social change in accordance with societal objectives' (2008: 6).Since not all societal objectives are developmental (some are simply concerned with establishing authority, etc.) the criterion of improvement and define development as the organized intervention in collective affairs according to a standard of improvement. What constitutes improvement and trends in Development Theory and what is appropriate intervention obviously varies according to class, culture, historical context and relations of power. Development theory is the negotiation of these issues.

In modern development thinking and economics, the core meaning of development was economic growth, as in growth theory and Big Push theory. In the course of time mechanization and industrialization became part of this, as in Rostow's Stages of Economic Growth (1960). When development thinking broadened to encompass modernization, economic growth was combined with political modernization, that is, nation building, and social modernization such as fostering entrepreneurship and achievement orientation. In dependency theory, the core meaning of development likewise was economic growth or capital accumulation. Its distorted form was

dependent accumulation which led to the 'development of underdevelopment', and an intermediate form was 'associated dependent development'. The positive goal was national accumulation (or autocentric development).Alternative development thinking introduced new understandings of development focused on social and community development and 'human flourishing (Friedmann 1992). With human development in the mid-1980s came the understanding of

development as capacitation, following Amartya Sen's work on capacities and entitlements. In this view the point of development, above all, is that it is enabling. The core definition of development in the Human Development Reports of UNDP is 'the enlargement of people's choices'.

Indian economist Amartya Sen, talk of 'human development', wherein three elements are included (UNDP, 1990):

a) Standard of living, measured by per capita income (through some kind of productive work) adjusted to purchasing power parity (PPP);

b) Physical well-being measured by life expectancy (signifying nutrition and health), and

c) Education measured by adult literacy rate and mean years of schooling.

2.2.2 Displacement

The **displacement** of people refers to the forced movement of people from their locality or environment and occupational activities. It is a form of social change caused by a number of factors, the most common being armed conflict, natural disasters, famine, development and economic changes may also be a cause of displacement.

In regard to **population displacement** resulting from development there are typically two types: direct displacement, which leads to actual displacement of people from their locations and indirect displacement, which leads to a loss of livelihood. Forced to leave the home region to which they are attached and for which they have the knowledge to make a living most effectively, displaced populations often become impoverished. The displacement of people as a result of development projects, policies and processes therefore constitutes a social cost for development.

Displacement is mainly understood within the context of internally displaced people (IDP).The plight of internally displaced people (IDP) is only recently receiving serious attention. Hitherto, attention was principally focused on refugees as defined by various international conventions and protocols. Thus, even though the United Nations Convention dealing with aspects of the refugee problem has been in effect for nearly half a century, there is no global instrument yet to deal especially with internally displaced people. This neglect is attributable to political-ideological positions during the Cold War which greatly affected social theory. The Left shunned the theorizing of internal population displacement because Communist countries were major producers of internally displaced people, while the Right avoided it because the third world allies of the West were easily the worst culprits. In addition, the Right was concerned about the economic consequences of extending protection to the so called internally displaced. It is not surprising that the international refugee regime, influenced as it were by liberal, if not right wing, scholarship preferred to ignore the problem of internal population displacement.

The current interest in internally displaced people is still conditioned by the traditional misconceptions about refugees which insists on the need to separate the former from refugees. In its legalistic form, for example, the traditional view exiles in their own home considers that people must cross an international

boundary before they are classified as refugees; otherwise they are "internally displaced". Also, analysts are almost unanimous in attributing internal displacement to inter-group conflicts within states, the reason being that conflicts in the post Cold War era have been less between states than they have been within states (Evans, 1994; van de Goor et al. 1996)..

2.3 SCALE OF DISPLACEMENT

Though millions of people have been displaced because of various planned development schemes since independence, no reliable data exists on the extent of displacement and rehabilitation. Only a few official statistics are available. Some case studies indicate that official sources, by and large, tend to underestimate the number of persons displaced by development projects. Among development projects, dams are the biggest agents of displacement. India has the distinction of having the largest number of river valley projects in the world. For rapid irrigation and hydroelectricity production, there are a total of 3,643 dams (major and medium) which have been constructed during the period 1951-90. Together with 53.9 lakh displaced by medium dams, a total of 164 lakh people have been displaced by all dams during the period of 1951-90. Although there are no comprehensive figures of the relationship between the income and social status of projected affected areas, some micro studies point out that a considerable number of the ousted have been small and marginal farmers, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and other weaker sections of the society.

Thus, backward communities, and more particularly people in tribal regions have been most affected in the process of development since they live in resource-rich regions. Tribal areas produce most of the country's coal, mica, bauxite and other minerals. Due to rapid industrialization in tribal areas, 3.13 lakh people have been displaced from their ancestral lands. In addition to direct displacement, mining activity also affects the livelihoods of thousands more as water tables get disrupted, an excessive burden is dumped on fertile agricultural land and forests are cut. Not only are communities deprived of their vital subsistence resources, their long-term sustainability is also jeopardized.

The past few decades have witnessed rapid economic growth in the country and the process forms a part of 'planned development'. This is manifested in the setting up of large-scale projects in power generation, mining, industry, infrastructure development, irrigation and even in creating new urban settlements.

2.3.1 Asia and the Pacific

While development-induced displacement occurs throughout the world, two countries in particular – China and India – are responsible for a large portion of such displacements. According to Fuggle et al. (2000), the National Research Center for Resettlement in China has calculated that over 45 million people were displaced by development projects in that country between 1950 and 2000. Taneja and Thakkar (2000) point out that estimates on displacement in India from dam projects alone range from 21 million to 40 million. The WBED report notes that, in 1993, World Bank projects in China accounted for 24.6 per cent of people displaced in Bank-assisted projects, while Bank-assisted projects in India accounted for 49.6 per cent of the Bank total.

2.3.2 Latin America and the Caribbean

While overall displacement in Latin America and the Caribbean is not as high as in Asia, the region has seen a number of large and controversial resettlement operations. The study by La Rovere and Mendes (2000) provides a detailed discussion of Brazil's Tucurí Dam Project, Phase I of which was built between 1975 and 1984 and displaced 25,000-35,000 people, despite a pre-project prediction of displacement affecting only 1,750 families in the region.**2.3.3 Europe, the United States, and Canada**

Large-scale DIDR(Development-Induced Displacement And Resettlement) is not common in industrialized countries in Europe and North America today. However, history is replete with examples of displacement-inducing projects in these countries, particularly in North America. The WCD case study report by Ortolano et al. (2000) offers a detailed examination of the Grand Coulee Dam Project in the United States – a project that extended over some forty years between 1933 and 1975 and displaced approximately 5,100-6,350 people (both indigenous and non-indigenous) in the region, while also adversely affecting (without compensation) indigenous populations north of the border in Canada. Berman (1988) provides a critical discussion of the displacement and resettlement of 300 indigenous families from land protected by treaty to make way for the Garrison Dam in the United States in the 1950s.

2.4 CAUSES AND IMPACT OF DISPLACEMENT

2.4.1 Causes of Displacement

In India, the following are causes of displacement:

i) Political causes, including secessionist movements

a) Since independence, north-east India has witnessed two major armed conflicts: the Naga movement primarily led by the national Socialist Council of Nagaland, and the Assam movement led by the All Assam students Union and largely taken over by the extremist United Liberation Front of Assam. The violence and retaliatory responses from the government and other forces opposed to secessionists continue to generate a steady flow of displaced people.

b) In Kashmir's 'war' between state forces and militants, the killing of Kashmiri Pandits by fundamentalist secessionist groups, the widespread anarchy created by political instability and the continuous violation of fundamental human rights by both the state and militant groups, have led to large scale displacement mainly of Kashmiri pundits (estimated at 250,000), to Jammu and cities like Delhi.

ii) Identity-based autonomy movements

Identity-based autonomy movements, have also led to violence and displacement. This has happened in Punjab and more recently in the Bodo Autonomous Council area of western Assam. 'Cleansing' of non-Bodo communities by the Bodos, through plunder, arson, massacre and persecution, has forced a large number of non-Bodos to flee. They now live in camps.

iii) Localized Violence

Internal displacement has also arisen from caste disputes (as in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh), religious fundamentalism (as in urban riots in Bombay, Coimbatore, Bhagalpur and Aligarh) and aggressive denial of residency and employment rights to non-indigenous groups by supporters of the 'son-of-the soil policy' (as in Meghalaya by the Khasi students and in Arunachal Pradesh against the Chakmas).

iv) Environmental and development induced displacement

In order to achieve rapid economic growth, India has invested in industrial projects, dams, roads, mines, power plants and new cities which have been made possible only through massive acquisition of land and subsequent displacement of people.

v) Disaster-induced displacement

Natural disasters have caused major loss of life and widespread social, economic, and environmental destruction over the last decade. Usually, it is less-developed countries and/or regions that are affected most, with those most vulnerable in such areas at higher risk. Disasters affect men and women differently and also have a different impact depending on the cultural and socio-economic context. This is important for disaster reduction approaches and sustainable development. Women, due to their greater marginalization and gender inequalities, are thought to be more at risk, although there is a lack of gender-sensitive statistics. Their vulnerability arises from their unequal work burden, due to productive and reproductive responsibilities, their lack of control over resources, restricted mobility, and limited education and employment opportunities.

2.4.2 Causes of Displacement in the International Scenario:

i) Internally Displaced Persons

One of the major challenges today is the growth in the number of **internally displaced persons (IDPs)** worldwide. While there are no official definitions of an internally displaced person, the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement set by of Office for the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) holds internally displaced persons to be *"persons or groups of persons who have been forced to flee, or leave, their homes or places of habitual residence as a result of armed conflict, internal strife, and habitual violations of human rights, as well as natural or man-made disasters involving one or more of these elements, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised state border"*.

Accordingly, the **internally displaced** are people who are forced to flee their homes, often for the very same reasons as refugees - war, civil conflict, political strife, and gross human rights abuse - but who remain within their own country and do not cross an international border. They are therefore not eligible for protection under the same international system as refugees. Also, there is no single international body entrusted with their protection and assistance. Estimates on the number of IDP estimates are often very rough, and they tend to differ greatly in terms of the source (governments, international agencies, non-governmental organisations). This is partly because IDP movements, in contrast to forced migration, typically involve short distances and often short time frames.

In addition, internal movements are much less recorded than international movements. One reason is that the inherent interest of a receiving country in who is entering is absent in the case of internal movements, which are free of restrictions and subject to fewer administrative hurdles. In addition, considering that they are still living in the country where they have been persecuted, the internally displaced may be less willing to register than those who enjoy the protection of their asylum country.

ii) Environmental Displacement

This category includes people displaced by environmental change (desertification, deforestation, land degradation, water pollution or inundation), by natural disasters (floods, volcanoes, landslides, earthquakes), and by man-made disasters (industrial accidents, radioactivity). A 1995 report claimed that there were at least 25 million environmental refugees, that the number could double by 2010 and that as many as 200 million people may eventually be at risk of displacement (Myers and Kent 1995).

Refugee experts reject such apocalyptic visions and some argue that there are no environmental refugees as such. While environmental factors do play a part in forced migration, displacements due to environmental factors are always closely linked to other factors, such as social and ethnic conflict, weak states, inequitable distribution of resources and abuse of human rights. Thus it is difficult to define who is affected by an environmental or disaster , or to quantify this category in any meaningful way. The emphasis on environmental factors can be a distraction from central issues of development, inequality and conflict resolution (Black 1998; Castles 2002).

iii) Disaster Displacement

This category covers people forced to move by natural disasters (floods, hurricanes, volcanoes, earthquakes, landslides) or disasters resulting from human activities (industrial accidents, environmental pollution, radioactive emissions). Displacement by natural disasters has become increasingly significant to humanitarian agencies, following the great loss of life and destruction caused by the Asian Tsunami of 26 December 2004, and the by the hurricanes in the USA in September 2005. Problems of humanitarian assistance in such major emergencies are in many ways similar to those caused by conflicts, and often the same relief organizations are involved

The increasing frequency of extreme natural events may be due to global warming, and is thus to some extent the result of human behaviour.

iv) People-trafficking

The trafficking of women and children for the sex industry occurs all over the world. Women in war zones are forced into sex slavery by combatant forces, or sold to international gangs. It is important to distinguish between people-trafficking and people-smuggling. People who wish to migrate to a country to which they cannot gain legal admission may use the services of people-smuggling organizations. This applies particularly to low-skilled persons seeking work in the informal sector in developed countries. Smuggled migrants decide voluntarily to pay a fee to smugglers for a service. They participate in a commercial transaction - albeit on unequal terms, which may lead them into debtbondage. By contrast,

the movement of trafficked persons is based on deception and coercion and is for the purpose of exploitation. The profit in trafficking comes not from the movement but from the sale of a trafficked person's sexual services or labour

in the country of destination. Most smuggled migrants are men. Most trafficked persons are women and children (Gallagher 2002).

2.4.3 Impact of Displacement

The consequence of the present pattern of development is the continuing powerlessness of the weaker sections due to displacement and without any benefits from these development projects.Since Independence, development projects of the five year plans have displaced about five lakh persons each year primarily as a consequence of land acquisition. Changes in land use, acquisition for urban growth and loss of livelihood have also caused environmental degradation and pollution. Tribal regions are more particularly affected in this process of development. A significant number of displace tribal's have historically been dependent on natural and common resources for their subsistence. Their displacement on a massive scale adds a serious dimension to the problem. These tribal communities have an ethos and a way of life based significantly upon their natural resource base. Due to developmental projects, they are forced to move out of areas where they have lived for generations. Apart from depriving them of their lands and livelihood, displacement, other traumatic psychological and socio-cultural consequences, tribal's also have been victimized on the basis of their political rights. These include dismantling of the production system, scattering of kinship groups and family systems, disruption of trade and market links.

Displacement lead to a lot of problems especially for women, because of displacement , traditional occupations, such as agriculture, fishing, basket-making, etc, become unfeasible, either because of unavailability of raw material once the forest or the water source is taken away, or due to the dispersion of the clientele as a consequence of the breakdown of the community network. As a result, the women find that they have to settle for unskilled wage labour which is most often irregular and underpaid. Migration of the men in search of employment, undoubtedly is another outcome of displacement, which increases the workload and responsibilities of the women. Given the high mortality rates among women, it is likely that they will be the worst affected by displacement-induced morbidity. Similarly the nutritional and health status of the women, which is lower than that of the males even under normal circumstances, is bound to proportionally go down in the event of an overall decrease in the health status caused by displacement. Displacement also means a breakdown in community and family networks. For women, community and family networks are extremely important support system. Since their dependence on them is greater, breakdown of these networks creates tremendous insecurity and trauma, which the women experience more than the men who are usually mobile and relatively less dependent on these networks. Even collection of fodder and fuel or water is often not a purely economic activity. It is an opportunity to socialize and exchange confidences and news, and therefore, have a social relevance.

Displacement leads to increased unemployment, insecurity and poverty this in turn increases social problems reflected by alcoholism, prostitution, gambling and theft. These social problems affects directly the lives and status of the women by way of violence inflicted on them. Loss of self-esteem or fall in status of the

men especially in their own eyes often manifests itself in the increased violence against women and children.

The post-independence development-induced displacement has mostly caused downward "spiral of impoverishments". The long drawn out, dehumanizing, disempowering and painful process of displacement has led to widespread traumatic psychological and socio-cultural consequences. It causes dismantling of production systems, desecration of ancestral sacred zones or graves and temples, scattering of kinship groups and family systems, disorganization of informal social networks that provide mutual support, weakening of self-management and social control and disruption of trade and market links etc. essentially, the very cultural identity of the displaced community and individual is subjected to massive onslaught leading to a very severe physiological stress and psychological trauma. The entire process of displacement is disempowering because it breaks up socio-political organizations opposing the project or the development process itself. In the case of tribal's, the experience of displacement becomes much more monstrous. They encounter tremendous odds in dealing with the market economy. Their unfamiliarity with modern technology and skills coupled with official indifference to their entry into the mainstream economy, pushes a majority of tribal's into conditions of servility and bondage.

In this unit, you have read about meaning of development and displacement, scale , causes and impact of displacement. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress-1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What do you understand by displacement?

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2) What are the consequences of displacement?

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2.5 URBANISATION INDUCED DISPLACEMENT

Another important process that has been alienating people from their productive lands is the urbanization of fringe areas of growing cities all around the country. In fact, urbanisation induced displacement is much larger in intensity than the

'involuntary' displacement, caused due to setting up of industrial/infrastructure projects. However it goes largely unnoticed except for stray reports in newspapers because much of the lands (converted into urbanisable lands) are sold out 'voluntarily' by the owners, or are 'surrendered' under threats from builders/ mafia. In addition, many local governments declare green lands close to city boundaries as 'urbanisable' lands, which are then utilized by municipalities, housing boards or development authorities for urban use. In fact, several housing schemes undertaken by development authority or a housing board in new 'urbanisable' zones remain incomplete or unattractive to potential beneficiaries due to the absence of adequate infrastructure. Or, such acquired lands remain unused or are encroached. The lands transferred by farmers to city dwellers lead to haphazard growth on the urban periphery and prove a challenge to planners in terms of providing basic amenities in such areas. For example, the unchecked growth of metropolitan cities like Bangalore, Pune or Kanpur.

Urbanization of fringe areas of growing cities all around the country is by the builders in connivance with politicians e.g., the Vasai-Virar region-a green hinterland of Mumbai, known as the lungs of Mumbai for its greenery-became the target of the builder mafia. In connivance with politicians, they constructed hundreds of unauthorized buildings in the 'green' zone, and then influenced the politicians overnight 8,000 ha of the coastal lands as 'urbanisable lands'.

2.6 DEVELOPMENT VS DISPLACEMENT

An intense debate is on about the implications of the present model of development to Indian society. Here, the model of development is broadly understood in terms of the technological and industrial interventions for 'modernising' Indian society similar to the western path of development. It includes recent trends in the 'globalisation' of national economies with the key role for 'multinationals' and international financial organizations. Though it is too early to assess the full impact of such processes, early visible trends point out disturbing happenings. Drawing lessons from economies like Brazil and Mexico, it is observed that such model of development creates or adds to widespread inequalities in society, erodes traditional sources of livelihood, uproots people from their community way of life into atomized individuals pitted against each other in an opportunistic economic system, creates a consumer culture resulting in a depletion of natural resources, increases economic dependence on outside financial/technological organizations, and reduces political autonomy of the host society. Thus, non –sustainability of such a model of development, given the context of third world societal formulations, and conditioning of the social order to suit the economic order (the market economy), emerges as two implications with far reaching consequences. As this model of development necessitates the setting up of large industrial, infrastructural and related projects-mostly in locations close to the natural resources-it alienates people from their traditional sources of sustenance, such as lands, forests and village habitats. The products of these mega projects rarely reach the affected people. Moreover, the displaced families hardly get fair treatment from the project in terms of resettlement and rehabilitation. They have no say in the legitimacy of setting up such projects as the government is empowered with legal rights in the name of public interest to acquire their property and assets. The power to acquire private property for public use is an attribute of sovereignty and is essential to the

existence of a government. The power of eminent domain was recognized on the principle that the sovereign state can always acquire the property of a citizen for public good, without the owner's consent. The right to acquire an interest in land compulsorily has assumed increasing importance as a result of requirement of such land more and more every day, for different public purpose and to implement the promises made by the farmers of the Constitution of the people of India. It is in this context that involuntary displacement is seen as offshoot of the model of development and people have started questioning its legitimacy. Though the debate has been alive for long, it drew wide attention in the context of the Sardar Sarovar project. The Narmada Bachao Andolan mobilized thousands of affected families and like-minded people against the 'anti-people' stance of such large industrial/irrigation projects. The growing social activism against mega-projects has, however, blurred the distinction between a 'right' project and a 'wrong' one (against the common interest of the people. With the same logic, infrastructural projects requiring huge investments in large Indian cities essentially promote this model of development and therefore are questionable. The proponents of development and displacement often argue that the monetary income of the displaced person improves. Walter Fernandes debunked this proposition. He says that out of 700 persons from 13 projects whom they interviewed in Andhra Pradesh, monetary income had improved in less than 30 cases. It deteriorated in remaining cases, at times by more than 80%.Fernandes further argues that even when monetary income rises, the lifestyle of the displaced people does not necessarily improve. Those who measure change through the improvement of monetary income alone ignore the fact that before displacement a large number of the displaced persons belonged to the non-monetised or semi-monetised informal economy.

2.7 PROTESTS AND RESISTANCE

The growing awareness among communities who face displacement, has given rise to a wide range of protests all over the country. This resistance is not new. In numerous parts of the country, by the middle of the 19th century itself, communities had mobilized to oppose colonial policies of resource extraction. This opposition was significantly manifest in tribal areas where these communities did not acquiesce quietly in the face of external intervention. There were protests and rebellions against colonial laws such as the Forest Act of 1876 and tribal peasants were waging struggles against state intervention in forest resources based on their own moral economy. Protests against dams were evident as early as the 1920s, when for instance, Senapati Bapat launched an organized resistance against dams in Maharashtra. In post-independence period, progress, national self sufficiency, industrialism, and the large development project were seen as synonymous. The first major protests against displacement as well as against the logic of large technological interventions in nature were in the mid-1960s, primarily in tribal areas arising out of an immediate perceived threat to their livelihood and lifestyle. The voices of conscientious engineers like Kapil Bhattacharya, who painstakingly documented the critical fallacies in the Damodar Valley Projects, inspired other political activists, including political leaders like Ram Manohar Lohia, and collective resistance (at least seeking better resettlement) grew in several parts of the country. Bu the late 1960s and early 1970s, communities facing displacement were mobilizing and agitations were visible, particularly in Maharashtra which became the first state to promulgate

an overreaching law protecting some of the rights of the displaced. Today's struggles-from Narmada valley to coastal Kerala, from south Bihar to thane- are part of this historical tradition. They are contesting the dominant patterns of economic development with their inherent propensity to displace and uproot communities from their sources of subsistence and meaning. They are asserting the need to both democratize the dominant patterns of economic development as well as to seek alternatives to them. The protests by tribal and other vulnerable communities are also challenging the use of development programmes which sustain dependency on the governmental apparatus as well as resettlement exercises which legitimize greater control by this apparatus over the lives and livelihoods of those dispersed by development interventions.

Narmada Bachao Andolan is the most powerful mass movement, started in 1985, against the construction of huge dam on the Narmada river. Narmada is the India's largest west flowing river, which supports a large variety of people with distinguished culture and tradition ranging from the indigenous (tribal) people inhabited in the jungles here to the large number of rural population. The proposed Sardar Sarovar Dam and Narmada Sagar will displace more than 250,000 people.

The Tehri Dam is the highest dam in India and one of the tallest in the world. It is a multi-purpose rock and earth-fill embankment dam on the Bhagirathi river near Tehri in Uttarakhand, India. The Tehri Dam has been the object of protests by environmental organizations and local people of the region. In addition to the human rights concerns, the project has spurred concerns about the environmental consequences of locating a large dam in the fragile ecosystem of the Himalayan foothills. There are further concerns regarding the dam's geological stability. The Tehri dam is located in the Central Himalayan Seismic Gap, a major geologic fault zone. This region was the site of a 6.8 magnitude earthquake in October 1991, with an epicenter 500 kilometres (310 mi) from the location of the dam. Dam proponents claim that the complex is designed to withstand an earthquake of 8.4 magnitude, but some seismologists say that earthquakes with a magnitude of 8.5 or more could occur in this region. Were such a catastrophe to occur, the potentially resulting dam-break would submerge numerous towns downstream, whose populations total near half a million. The relocation of more than 100,000 people from the area has led to protracted legal battles over resettlement rights, and ultimately resulted in the project's delayed completion.

2.8 DISPLACEMENT: A GLOBAL SCENARIO

Development projects remain one of the primary causes of displacement worldwide. Evictions are commonly involuntary. It is estimated that over 250 million people worldwide were displaces in the name of development over the past twenty years and the number of people affected is growing despite the proliferation of international human rights instruments which stipulate that forced evictions can occur only in "exceptional" circumstances in which displacement is "unavoidable" and sole for the purpose of promoting the general welfare."

Between Sea-Level Rise and Melting Glaciers

By Vikram Kolmannskog

As citizens of a delta-nation, Bangladeshis are used to living with and benefiting from flooding, but now climate change is contributing to an increase in floods, riverbank erosion, cyclones and other disasters. The country is faced with sea-level rise from one side and melting Himalayan glaciers affecting the rivers on the other side. A sea-level rise of one metre would threaten to put 50 per cent of the country under water. A high number of Bangladeshis have already lost their livelihoods as a result of natural disasters, and have been forced to look for work elsewhere. Today, most Bangladeshi migration is internal, and predominantly from rural to urban areas. In some cases heads of households migrate temporarily to find work. In others, entire families move and settle permanently.

Main source: Poncelet, A., 2009. Bangladesh. EACH-FOR.

Case study: Rwanda

Between 800,000 and 1 million people were killed in the 1994 genocide in Rwanda, when hard-line Hutu groups sought to eliminate Tutsi and Hutu moderates. After the Tutsis won the upper hand in the war, an estimated 3 million people became uprooted as Hutus fled to neighbouring countries in fear of reprisals; at the same time, exiled Tutsis returned to Rwanda. In 1996, many Hutu refugees chose or were forced to return to a deeply traumatized country.

GBV (Gender based violence)

During the conflict, the result of old ethnic hatreds, thousands of women and girls were the target of gender-based violence – estimates are that 250,000-500,000 survived rape (in addition to all those who were raped before being killed). Atrocities committed against women and girls also included sexual slavery, forced incest, purposeful HIV transmission and impregnation, and genital mutilation. GBV was present before 1994. Most Rwandan women were confined to agricultural and domestic work, and discrimination against women and girls was common, as evidenced, for instance, in existing practices of forced marriage and forced sex in marriage. However, problems like domestic violence, sexual abuse, HIV-infection, and prostitution, among others, have increased in the climate of devastation left by the conflict.

Source:http://www.forcedmigration.org/research-resources/expert-guides/gender-and-forced-migration/fmo007.pdf

2.9 REHABILITATION AND RESETTLEMENT

Project Affected People (PAPs) are not uniform category. Prior to displacement, they were divided on social, economic and gender bias. Accordingly, post-displacement

experiences also vary and are influenced by their displacement statuses. Those with sizeable lands or educational/occupational skills and are at a distinct

advantage compared with the marginal farmers or unskilled labourers (mostly the SCs/STs).Those who succeed in converting their compensation money into productive assets (like operating a shop, tractor/trolley for contract work or purchasing land for land), in fact, gain from the displacement. The same holds true for those few lucky ones who get regular jobs in the project. The gainer are, in fact, the most vocal against the project. The 'left out' either wait indefinitely for a job and other benefits from the project, or become reconciled to their fate. Women , the aged and marginalized are the main sufferers and need priority in any rehabilitation programme.

2.9.1 Aims of resettlement

- To seek to empower the client and facilitate long-term solutions to their needs around rehousing.
- To identify the best available options for the client's rehousing.
- To make best use of the often scarce housing resources available, as fairly as possible, and without discrimination to those who will make best use of them.
- To ensure that clients nominated or referred to other organisations are suitable for those organisations.
- To seek to equip clients, either through training and advice given by the resettlement service or by referral to appropriate agencies, with skills and knowledge in the following areas:
- Welfare benefits - seeking to maximize the client's income.
- Training and employment/career options.
- Tenancy rights and responsibilities.
- Cooking/domestic/home maintenance skills - if these are sought.
- Social skills/networking.

Involuntary resettlement destroys productive assets and disorganizes productive systems, and creates a high risk of chronic impoverishment that typically occurs along one or several of the following dimensions: landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalization, food security, morbidity and social disarticulation.

In this unit, you have read about urbanization induced displacement, development vs displacement, protests and resistance, displacement: a global scenario, rehabilitation and resettlement. Now , answer the questions given in Check Your Progress-2.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) How does urbanisation induced displacement? Explain briefly?

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2) What are the various ways to rehabilitate the displaced people?

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2.10 LET US SUM UP

Displacement due to 'Development' in India is not new, though resettlement and rehabilitation as a policy measure certainly is. The colonial period has produced a vast segment of displaced people. The forest resources, river systems and mineral base that attract the 'developmental projects' have already seen a 'displaced' segment of the Indian society. In the Indian context, it is of interest to note that most of the developmental projects are located in the most backward areas and populated by various small nationalities – otherwise called tribals. These segments, with the enactment of land settlement laws, forest laws and commercialisation of forest products and minerals, have undergone a metamorphosis, where legally the access to the various natural resources are denied and these segments are treated as hostages within their environment. Another productive segment was also a part of displacement due to the process of de-industrialisation and forced commercialisation of agriculture – these comprise the differentiated peasantry, the artisanal groups and the traditional service groups.

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2.12 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANWSERS

Check Your Progress -1

1) What do you understand by displacement?

Answer: Displacement means involuntary displacing of people from their productive assets (particularly land) and homes, due to industrial or infrastructure projects.

2) What are the consequences of displacement?

Answer: The consequence of the present pattern of development is the continuing powerlessness of the weaker sections due to displacement and without any benefits from the development projects.

Changes in land use, acquisition for urban growth and loss of livelihood have also caused environmental degradation and pollution. Tribal regions are more particularly affected in this process of development. A significant number of displace tribal's have historically been dependent on natural and common resources for their subsistence.

Check Your Progress -2

1) How does urbanisation induced displacement? Explain briefly?

Answer: Urbanisation induced displacement takes place because of urbanization of fringe areas of growing cities .Moe and more lands are required to built buildings and other commercial property due to which people are displaced from their roots.

2) What are the various ways to rehabilitate the displaced people?

Answer: The various ways to rehabilitate the displaced people are:

- To seek to empower the client and facilitate long-term solutions to their needs around rehousing.

- To identify the best available options for the client's rehousing.
- To make best use of the often scarce housing resources available, as fairly as possible, and without discrimination to those who will make best use of them.
- To ensure that clients nominated or referred to other organisations are suitable for those organisations.

UNIT 3 INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT

Structure

3.1 Introduction
3.2 Inclusive Development: Meaning and Importance
3.3 Processes of Inclusion
3.4 Approaches to Inclusion
3.5 Factors Affecting Inclusive Development
3.6 Inclusive Development Policy Measures
3.7 Let Us Sum Up
3.8 References and Selected Readings
3.9 Check Your Progress-Possible Answer

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the other two units you studied about the development and disparities and sustainable development. Besides, these two, there is another important concept that has arrested the attentions of the social scientists in the dynamics of development which is inclusive development. Though late, it is understood now that development cannot be possible without the empowerment and participation of every individual, especially the poor and excluded who constitute the majority of population. The failure of the market forces to bring equity based development is already experienced by many countries. The world has witnessed the disparities and inequalities despite the opulence and progress of few at the cost of masses. The recent development thinking based on inclusiveness however, takes into account a holistic approach.

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Define inclusive development and explain the importance of inclusive development
- Explain various processes and approached to inclusion
- Describe factors affecting inclusive development
- Discuss inclusive development policy measures

3.2 INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT: MEANING AND IMPORTANCE

3.2.1 Meaning of Inclusive Development

Etymologically "Inclusive Development" is a combination of two words "inclusive" and "development" meaning a sense of belonging: feeling respected, valued for who you are; feeling a level of supportive energy and commitment from others so that you can do your best work. The process of inclusion engages each individual and makes people feeling valued which is essential for the development of not only of the individual but also for the entire society where they live in. The concept "inclusive development" though catch phase in recent

policy and political domain across the globe, has had its civilizational root in almost all major ancient civilizations across different parts of the world.

You might have heard the word "Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam" (from "vasudha", the earth; "eva" = emphasizer and "kutumbakam", "family") which is a Sanskrit phrase means that the whole world is one single family. The theory originates in ancient Indian texts called the Upanishads and is considered an integral part of the Hindu Philosophy. Here inclusion means a broader interrelationship among people across the society. The analogy of family signifies that the relationships among people are much more encompassing and feeling togetherness.

The inclusive development has been a practice in the ancient Indian civilization. Evidences found in Indus valley civilization shows that the urbanization spread across hundreds of kilometers provided facilities to the masses i.e common facilities like roads, bath room, transport and storage. Similarly, the village republic which has been existing in India for centuries is a form of inclusive development.

Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam has also seen to be similar to the ancient African concepts like Ubuntu. It is an ethic or humanist philosophy focusing on people's allegiances and relations with each other.

Ubuntu

Archbishop Desmond Tutu explains Ubuntu as follows (2008):

"One of the sayings in our country is Ubuntu - the essence of being human. Ubuntu speaks particularly about the fact that you can't exist as a human being in isolation. It speaks about our interconnectedness. You can't be human all by yourself, and when you have this quality - Ubuntu - you are known for your generosity.

We think of ourselves far too frequently as just individuals, separated from one another, whereas you are connected and what you do affects the whole world. When you do well, it spreads out; it is for the whole of humanity.

Ubuntu according to Nelson Mandela:

"A traveller through a country would stop at a village and he didn't have to ask for food or for water. Once he stops, the people give him food, entertain him. That is one aspect of Ubuntu but it will have various aspects. Ubuntu does not mean that people should not address themselves. The question therefore is: Are you going to do so in order to enable the community around you to be able to improve?

Confucius (551-479 BC), the Chinese thinker and social philosopher, whose teachings and philosophy have deeply influenced Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Taiwanese and Vietnamese thought and life, mentioned "In a country well governed, poverty is something to be ashamed of. In a country badly governed, wealth is something to be ashamed of". Inclusive development is a very much part of the Chinese thinking since ancient to modern. The concept of Xiaokang which is described in the box is a testimony of this.

Xiaokang

Well-Off (All Inclusive)

Xiaokang (Chinese: pinyin: xiÎokâng) is a term that describes a society basically "well-off" whereby the people are able to live relatively comfortably. The term was first used in Classic of Poetry written as early as 3000 years ago.

The concept evolved over the years. The Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping used the terms Xiaokang society in 1979 as the eventual goal of Chinese modernization. The concept was further emphasized in mainland China in the 1990s under Jiang Zemin, in which many in China felt was focusing too much on the newly rich and not enough on mainland China's rural poor. Furthermore there has been a fear in some circles that Chinese society has become too materialistic placing material wealth above all other social needs.

In recent years, *xiaokang* has taken on a broader meaning. In 2002, the Sixteenth National Congress of the Communist Party of China established the objective of building an "all-inclusive". This concept also underpins Premier Wen Jinbao's statement that China's development strategy should be in accordance with the "five-balanced": balancing urban and rural development, balancing development among regions, balancing economic and social development, balancing man and nature, and balancing domestic development and opening to the world. In this context, infrastructure has a central role to play in the balancing act to create the *xiaokang* society.

In the 18th century, Adam Smith, the Scottish moral philosopher and a pioneer of political economy in his Wealth of Nations mentioned "No society can surely be flourishing and happy of which by far the greater part of the numbers are poor and miserable". Mahatma Gandhi, the father of the nation of India and great visionary of the century also observed "No culture can live if it attempts to be exclusive".

There has been also better and wider understanding about the development. The philosophical understanding of development has undergone massive change in the last few decades. Interdisciplinary approaches hailing from philosophy to spiritualism is gaining space in the newer form of development thinking that takes into account the entire globe are emerging to fill the gap. Alternative thinking has developed in recent years i.e Development as freedom (Amartya Sen), development in terms of Gross National Happiness (in Bhutan), Mahbub ul Haq, Founder of the Human Development Report, Muhammad Younus (who popularized Gramin Bank in Bangladesh), Joseph Stieglitz et.al. to further the philosophy of "inclusive development".

It is now widely understood that the real and sustained social and economic progress cannot truly occur if a large segment of society are marginalized. This is the reason why inclusive development as a strategy for all-round development seems to have wide appeal among all the stakeholders- government, organizations, intellectuals and civil society organizations.

In recent years, inclusive development approach is the thrust area of the United Nations, World Bank and Asian Development Bank. Inclusive development, according to UN refers to ensuring t all phases of the development cycle (design,

implementation, monitoring and evaluation). The Economic and Social Council of the United Nations in its Forty-sixth Session (February 2008) emphasized on integrating women and disabled into the development process by addressing the causes of discrimination. UNDP's inclusive development approach integrates the standards and principles of human rights: participation, non-discrimination and accountability. The four important inclusive development approach of the UNDP to achieve Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are: (1) creating productive and gainful employment, (2) effective and efficient social safety nets to protect those who cannot work or who earn too little, (3) enhancing public services by building schools and hospitals, training teachers and doctors, and providing access to water, sanitation and transportation, all of which requires public spending and finally (4) well-designed fiscal policies – the way a government collects and spends public resources - can play a major role in stimulating growth and reducing poverty. The limitation of the growth centric approach also changed in recent years. The inclusive development is one of the important policy initiatives of the World Bank and Asian Development Bank that covers a wide range of issues such as disability, gender, regional disparities, environment etc.

3.2.2 Importance of Inclusive Development

We all aspire for a developed human society where human being can lead long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable, to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living and to be able to participate in the life of the community. Development is possible only through the process of mass participation, which can be possible through the process of inclusion. According to Amartya Sen "Human development is about creating an environment in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives in accord with their needs and interests. People are the real wealth of nations. Development is thus about expanding the choices people have to lead lives that they value. And it is thus about much more than economic growth, which is only a means-if a very important one-of enlarging people's choices". On the other hand, the exclusion of individuals and groups can become a major threat to social cohesion and dangerously affect the humanity. Today the world is witnessing severe ethnic problem, insurgencies, caste violence and various other forms of social unrest, unemployment, poverty, malnutrition etc. which are severely affecting the peaceful existence of the human being. These exclusions are not a simple rather a complex phenomena.

There are multiple and varied sources of exclusion:

- Structural/economic (iniquitous economic conditions; low wages, dual and segregated labour markets; etc.);
- Historical oppression (colonialism);
- Discrimination;
- The absence of legal/political recognition;
- Institutional/civic non acceptance;

Now the major challenge is to create an inclusive society to provide opportunity to all to join in the path of development. In the current scenario, the disparities and exclusions are also alarming. During this phase of intense globalization, we are simultaneously witnessing growing dissent among various groups, castes,

regions as well as nations around the globe. Today, we live in a world of unprecedented opulence which is only monopolized by a microscopic few. We also have a large section of people living in deprivation and lack of human dignity. This contradiction between opulence and deprivation is perhaps one of the important characteristics of today and the key development challenge is how to overcome this. The neo liberal ideology that promotes free market, anti-welfarist, libertarian and paradoxically and sometimes socially authoritarian policies further widen the gap between the rich and the poor.

Since last decade there has been growing realization among the development thinkers about the need for more sustainable and long term development with equity for humanity. This has come a long way after experiencing the negativity of the one sided development. Hence there has been now more emphasis on the wider perspectives that include not only the economic, but also political, cultural, social, psychological aspects of human being. This development is in harmony with equity and social justice. Inclusive development, in this context, is a counter force to such kind of undesirable and unequal development. Inclusive development promotes human wellbeing through sense of belonging and feeling respected, building capability, enhancing choices and freedom. It is based on the premises of equity. Thus it is desirable for development of every society.

In this section you studied about the meaning and importance of inclusive development for total development. Now, you would be able to answer the questions relating to this sections which is given in *Check Your Progress 1*.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What is inclusive development?

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2) What do you mean by *Ubuntu*?

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3.3 PROCESSES OF INCLUSION

In the earlier section you studied about the meaning and importance of inclusive development. In this section you will study the process of inclusion. The three distinct processes of inclusion are: (i) social inclusion; (ii) economic inclusion and (iii) political inclusion. Let us discuss them one by one.

i) Social Inclusion

Social inclusion is an overarching framework for addressing various social policy issues, including income inequality, skill levels, education, health inequalities, housing affordability, and work-life balance. Social inclusion is now a part of the framework of laws of the European Union, Asian countries and African and several other countries. United Kingdom's National Action Plan on Social Inclusion states: "Poverty and social exclusion are complex and multidimensional problems. While household income clearly has an important impact on well-being, there are many other factors that help or hinder efforts to transform the lives of those suffering from poverty. Housing, health, education, and employment status may all have a role to play. And people are influenced by what sort of neighbourhood they live in, and whether they feel safe from crime or anti-social behaviour." Social inclusion promotes more active participation of people living in the community. The Canadian Council on Social Development, drawing on the work of Amartya Sen sees an inclusive society as characterized by a widely shared social experience and active participation, by a broad equality of opportunities and life chances for individuals and by the achievement of a basic level of well-being for all citizens. It is one of the most important aspects of inclusive development.The 'social' of inclusion has been adopted by governments as a moral, and indeed legal, imperative to foster development. Yet, it is one of the most complex notions, characterized by a lack of shared understanding about what it means to be socially included and about the necessary conditions to achieve social inclusion. A key barrier to understanding arises from the fragmentation of policy in relation to different arenas of inclusion/exclusion. So, for example, race/ethnicity, gender and disability are all addressed in different ways, by different government departments, with different solutions, and with varying degrees of ineffectiveness. Joined-up working has been a much-used cliché which has not been accompanied by connected thinking about the different groups who are at risk of exclusion.

ii) Economic Inclusion

There has recently been a rapid growth in international literature and research on the links between economic growth and social capability and their impact on well-being. The relationship between a productive economy and a society that enjoys high levels of participation, connection and cohesion, and their combined impact of peoples' well-being is well appreciated by the scholars in recent times. They view that inclusive economy improves the well-being of people by directing policy to ensure that there are broad based opportunities to participate in society and the economy.

Gramin Model in Bangladesh A Case of Economic Inclusion

A very successful case of economic inclusion is the Gramin model introduced in Bangladesh by Muhammad Yunus, the Nobel laureate.

Gramin Model started to diversify in the late 1980s when it started attending to unutilized or underutilized fishing ponds, as well as irrigation pumps like deep tubewells. Gradually, these diversified interests started growing into separate organizations, as the fisheries project became Grameen Motsho (Grameen Fisheries Foundation) and the irrigation project became Grameen Krishi (Grameen Agriculture Foundation). Over time, the Grameen initiative has grown into a multi-faceted group of profitable and non-profit ventures, including major projects like Grameen Trust and Grameen Fund, which runs equity projects like Grameen Software Limited, Grameen Cyber Net Limited, and Grameen Knitwear Limited, as well as Grameen Telecom, which has a stake in Grameenphone (GP), biggest private sector phone company in Bangladesh.

The success of the Grameen model of microfinancing has inspired similar efforts in a hundred countries throughout the developing world and even in industrialized nations, including the United States.

iii) Political Inclusion

Inclusiveness in political spheres is vital for social development. The democratic and participatory political organization empowers people to raise their voices against the injustices and deprivation. Since independence, Indian constitution guarantees the participation of all section in the political process. Indeed two relatively new types of participatory practices (allowing an interaction between the people and the government without the recourse to political parties) have been particularly used by urban middle classes: legal provisions that encourage the interpellation of the government by civil society organizations or even by individuals, such as the Public Interest Litigation and the Right to Information Act; and schemes aiming at promoting local participation through neighborhood associations.

Resulting from the increasing openness of public institutions to social categories hitherto marginalized, with two main avenues of inclusion: quotas and caste based political parties. Quotas were enshrined in the Constitution of independent India, making it a pioneer in policies of affirmative action, or “compensatory discrimination”; in 1950 they concerned two categories : the Scheduled Castes (SCs) and the Scheduled Tribes (STs), and three fields : public employment, institutions of higher education and political representation - seats were reserved in the national Parliament and in state Assemblies, in proportion to the demographic weight of SCs and STs, i.e. 15% and 7.5% respectively. Over the years, quotas were extended to Other Backward Classes (OBCs), but only in the fields of public employment and higher education. Lately, electoral quotas - at the local level – have been introduced for a fourth category: women.

The ambitious (but disparately implemented) decentralization policy passed in 1992 is an important element of these two dimensions of democratic renewal: on the one hand, it provides for substantial quotas in local assemblies for women (33%), for SCs, for STs and also, in some states, for OBCs (in proportion to the local demographic weight of each category), at all three levels of local self-government: village, block, and district (or municipality in urban areas). On the other hand, it provides for the creation of Wards Committees where elected representatives and representatives of the civil society can meet and jointly manage local affairs.

In this section you studied about the meaning and importance of inclusive development and processes of inclusion. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress 2.*

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) What is inclusive development?

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2) Write a note on economic inclusion?

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3.4 APPROACHES TO INCLUSION

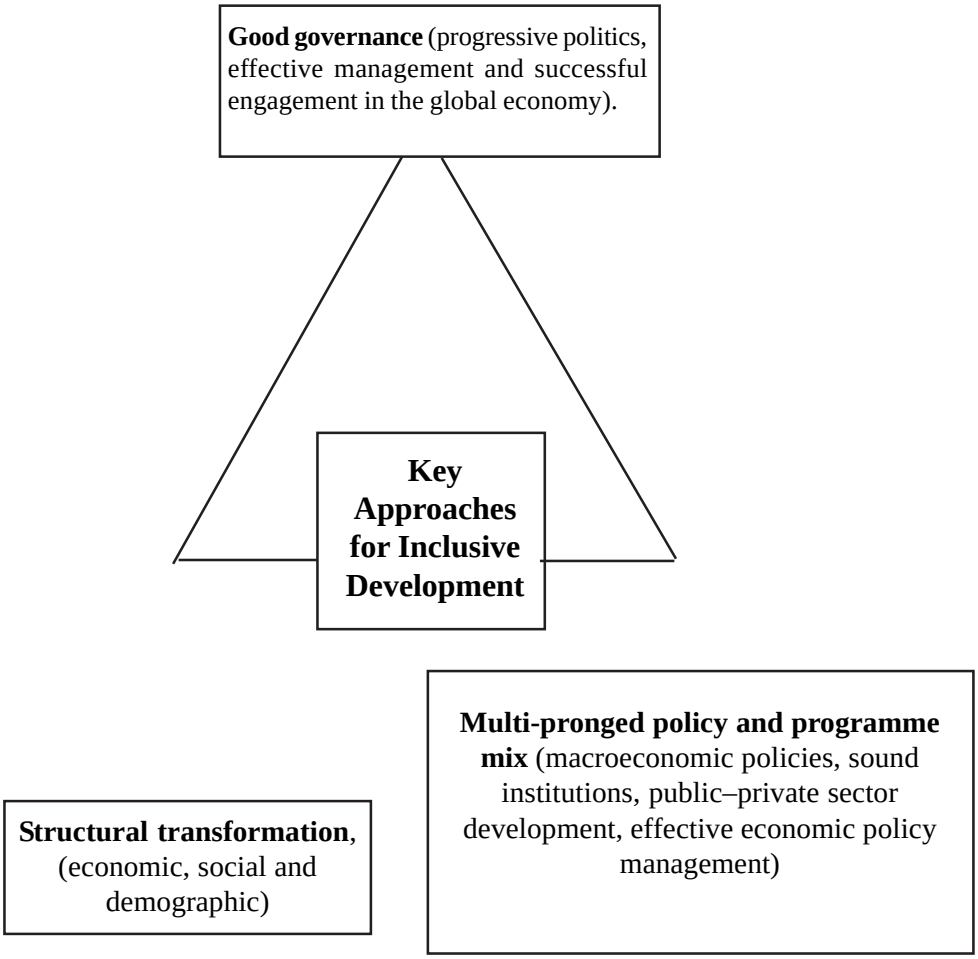
In this section, you will study various approaches to inclusion. Inclusion and exclusion are very deeply rooted in the society and both economic as well as non economic factors like norms, culture, belief system, historical legacy, political system influence the level of inclusion/exclusion. Thus, the approach towards inclusive development varies from situation, country, culture, history and political economy. Several developing countries especially Asian countries have their own approach to inclusive development.

Ironically, it is only recently that development experts, international organisations and governments have acknowledged that the very notion of development necessitates inclusiveness. Michael Chibba has narrated the approaches to inclusion by giving the examples of USSR and USA in the following quote: "The impetus to this perspective resulted from the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991 (and with it, the communist ideology) and the subsequent rise- led especially by the United States – of the neo-liberal ideology which has included, inter alia, emphasis on governance matters, the vision of relegating the state's role to the provision of an enabling environment for development, and elevating the role of markets to be central to economic and social progress. Within this context, the neo-liberal model includes emphasis on democracy and market fundamentalism, or the laissez-faire approach to capitalism, which upholds the principle of non-intervention by government in economic affairs. One of the recent policy thrusts associated with this neo-liberal model has been an inclusive development approach, including pro-poor growth or essentially growth that focuses on the poor in terms of equity"

Michael Chibba (2008) identified various possible approaches to address inclusive development:Inclusive and sustainable growth requires, inter alia, good governance, progressive politics, effective management and successful engagement in the global economy – indeed, an inclusive growth approach is the preferred one in Asia.

- Inclusive development requires addressing issues of structural transformation, especially economic, social and demographic aspects.
- A multi-pronged policy and programme mix is indispensable to an inclusive development agenda, and this includes sensible macroeconomic policies, sound institutions, public–private sector development, effective economic policy management, consensus-building on public policies and programmes, and policies and interventions tempered to socio-economic and cultural factors.

Michael Chibba's research conducted in one of the 12 high growth countries of the past quarter century suggest that while each of the above approaches to inclusive development is valid, also required in practice or in the 'real world' is a multi-pronged policy and programme mix that is indispensable to an inclusive development agenda. This approach includes sensible macroeconomic policies, sound institutions, effective economic policy management, consensus-building on public policies and programmes, and policies and interventions tempered to socio-economic and cultural factors.



In the context of developing countries, El-Erian and Spence observes "inclusive and sustainable growth entails immense challenges that are economic, political and social. Yet the record shows that only 12 countries in the world (eight of which are Asian) have achieved sustained high growth – that is, annual growth rates of 7% or more over a period of two or more decades (data from the Commission on Growth and Development 2008). On the one hand, such a record is not encouraging for the majority of developing countries in the world. While the probability of success of achieving high, sustainable and inclusive growth in any given developing country is evidently impossible to foresee with certainty, it nevertheless is achievable".

The Asian Development Bank have proposed that inclusive growth should focus on two specific areas to address extreme poverty and rising inequalities in Asian countries: creating economic opportunities and broadening access to opportunities to support social inclusion. Research conducted at the Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex takes a different approach to the subject, as 'Asian paths to development have often challenged received wisdom on development'. Beginning with the observation that rapid economic growth often threatens social stability and cohesion, Cook's treatise has the premise that growth alone is not a sufficient condition to work towards sustained poverty reduction and inclusive development. The strength of her inclusive development approach lies in her focus on structural transformations associated with rapid economic growth and their implications for inclusive development. On this point alone, her treatise deserves special mention as an incremental inclusive development approach.

3.5 FACTORS AFFECTING INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT

This section will highlight some of the major factors affecting inclusive development. Though there are several complex factors, yet some of the major factors are important to mention here. This section has a brief discussion on factors such as inequity, social exclusion, deprivation, disparity and displacement affecting inclusive development. It is also important to note that all these factors are not clearly distinctive from each other rather interrelated and affect each other in a number of ways.

i) Inequity

One cannot ignore the fundamental inequalities in society, many of which cannot be explained by differences in individual aptitude or inclination. The socio-economic and political structure plays very significant role in sustaining those inequity consequently hindering the development. Inclusive development is based on the premises of equity. As has already been discussed above, the growing inequity in the wake of rapid globalization bring new and multiple challenge to the inclusive process.

Internationally equity groups are those who have been historically excluded, under-served, including Blacks, Latinos, Asian/Pacific Islanders, American Indians, women, persons with disabilities, and the economically disadvantaged. Now there is more enlarged list of groups that include other groups, most prominently gays, lesbians, and bisexuals, remain frequent targets of harassment and discrimination.

Now there has been growing concern on how to bring sustainable development which is not possible without equity. One of the pioneering thinkers on equity and sustainable development is Amarya Sen. He is probably best known for his work on the causes of famine, which has considerably influenced the academic field of development studies as well as the policies of the UNDP. The central argument in this book "Poverty and Famines" is that famine is not caused by a negative (Malthusian) relationship between population and food supply, but by the inability of famine-prone individuals to access food in times of great need, even when food supplies are adequate. Hence, hunger and famine can be the result of a food demand problem but due to a human-made inequitable distribution system of food, and not necessarily a supply problem, as it is often presented.

Inequity thus is a serious problem causing human deprivation. Amartya Sen advocates the principle of equality which is based on the capability to functioning. According to Sen, capability to functioning is of two kinds: elementary ones such as being in good health, nourished, sheltered and the more complex, social ones such as having self respect, taking part in the life of the community etc. Achievement of an individual is the set of these realized functioning. Whereas capability refers to the real options that someone has in order to pursue his subjective functioning who prefers most. Inequalities related to class, gender, communities deprive human freedom and thus decreasing our capability to function.

ii) Social Exclusion

The concept of social inclusion has the advantage of situating individuals in a social and relational context instead of individual characteristics. Moreover, the experience of exclusion of some sort, unlike the experience of poverty or discrimination, is nearly universal. Inclusion or exclusion as concept is very complex and intertwined with the very psychic and social life of the individual. The social structure itself promotes inequality and excludes people from participating in the social life. The practice of patriarchy, caste and various other forms also exclude many in the society and hence create a hindrance to progressive and developed social living. There is no easy strategy to overcome inequality and promote inclusiveness in all aspect of socio-cultural and economic life.

Social inclusion is an affirmative action to change the circumstances and habits that lead to (or have led to) social exclusion. Social Inclusion is a strategy to combat social exclusion, but it is not making reparations or amends for past wrongs as in Affirmative Action. It is the coordinated response to the very complex system of problems that are known as social exclusion. The notion of social inclusion can vary according to the type of strategies organizations adopted.

"Social exclusion is about the inability of our society to keep all groups and individuals within reach of what we expect as a society...[or] to realize their full potential." The problem of social exclusion is usually tied to the problem of equal opportunity, as some people are more subject to such exclusion than others. Marginalization of certain groups is a problem even in many economically more developed countries, including the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States (US), where the majority of the population enjoys considerable economic and social opportunities.

Social structure plays a very pivotal role in creating exclusion and inclusion. Countries like India having citizens from multi ethnic, multi religion and multi

cultural background creates a state with amazing diversity. At the same time this often poses a great challenge to the harmony of the country. The constitutional democracy guarantees the equality of all citizens before the law and promotes affirmative action to all section underrepresented in social spheres.

iii) Poverty

The impacts of exclusion are felt by those who are excluded, predominantly the poor. The more profound the exclusion — that is the more ways in which an individual or community experiences multiple exclusions — the more devastating the impacts. Poverty is serious challenges to the inclusive development which must be tackled in a systematic manner. According to UNDP (1998) "…Human poverty is deprivation in multiple dimensions, not just income. Industrial countries need to monitor poverty in all its dimensions — not just income and unemployment, but also lack of basic capabilities such as health and literacy, important factors is whether a person is included in or excluded from the life of a community." World Bank defines "Poverty is hunger. Poverty is lack of shelter. Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not having access to school and not knowing how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear for the future, living one day at a time. Poverty is losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water. Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom". The poor rarely take part in decision-making that affects their lives, and as a consequence they cannot claim a share of development; development passes them by. The poor are vulnerable to societal or personal calamities, and to harassment and exploitation by more powerful groups in society. In short, the poor are trapped in a vicious circle of poverty from which it is extremely difficult to escape.

Through inclusion the poor will develop enhanced capability and be able to expand ability to become more productive and earn higher income. Giving the example of inclusive education and health care, Amartya Sen had remarked that "the more inclusive the reach of basic education and healthcare, the more likely it is that even the potentially poor would have a better chance of overcoming penury".

iv) Disparity

Wide spread disparities in terms of region, gender, caste and class etc. are evident in different parts of the world. Disparities are the result of a set of factors i.e natural differences, socio-cultural conditions and policy decisions.

Natural factors, such as differences in colour and race of a person, agro-climatic conditions, where they live in, endowment with natural resources or geographical location, such as distance to a seaport or a centre of commerce, determine the potential for economic development of an area or a region. Some conditions, such as climate and natural endowments, are largely invariable, while others can be improved through such infrastructure as roads to overcome isolation and irrigation to overcome arid conditions. Socio-cultural factors, such as values and traditions that encourage or discourage social and economic mobility, innovation and entrepreneurship, form a second set of factors. Policy decisions are those undertaken by the ruling class or government to impact on development. The government policies often promote disparities due to biased and vested interest. For example favouring big corporate at the cost of masses, rural vs

urban, regional favouritism etc. are very much prevalent across the world at both national and international level. Inclusive development will address these disparities in a manner that promote more equity.

v) Displacement

By their high frequency, cumulative magnitude, and destructive socio-economic and cultural effects, forced displacements have come to be recognized as a severe pathology of development. These processes give rise to massive socio-economic losses, to pain and suffering, to growing resistance movements.As high as 26 million people are seriously affected and denied the benefit of development due to the displacement. Out of these, women and children and senior citizens are the most disadvantage group affected by the displacement.

Table 1: Internal Displaced Persons (IDPs) as a percentage of country's population

Country	IDPs as percentage of population
Cyprus	Up to 23%
Somalia	13%
Sudan	12.4%
Iraq	9.6%
Colombia	5.7% – 9.3%
Zimbabwe	4.2% – 7.4%
Azerbaijan	6.7% – 7.1%
Georgia	5.7% – 6.3%
Lebanon	2% – 9%

Source: *"Internal Displacement: Global Overview of Trends and Development 2008", A Report by Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, Norwegian Refugee Council Chemin de Balexert 7–9, CH-1219 Châtelaine (Geneva), Switzerland, www.internal-displacement.org, Page-13*

Quite a substantial number of people as proportion to the national population are affected by internal displacement in above countries given in Table-1. This displacement poses potential risk to the development process.

Cernea has identified eight interlinked potential risks intrinsic to displacement.

1) **Landlessness**- Expropriation of land removes the main foundation upon which people's productive systems, commercial activities, and livelihoods are constructed.

2) **Joblessness**- The risk of losing wage employment is very high both in urban and rural displacements for those employed in enterprises, services or agriculture. Yet creating new jobs is difficult and requires substantial investment.

3) **Homelessness**- Loss of shelter tends to be only temporary for many people being resettled; but, for some, homelessness or a worsening in their housing standards remains a lingering condition. In a broader cultural sense, loss of a family's individual home and the loss of a group's cultural space tend to result in alienation and status deprivation.

4) **Marginalization**- Marginalization occurs when families lose economic power and spiral on a "downward mobility" path. Many individuals cannot use their earlier-acquired skills at the new location; human capital is lost or rendered inactive or obsolete. Economic marginalization is often accompanied by social and psychological marginalization.

5) **Food Insecurity**- Forced uprooting increases the risk that people will fall into temporary or chronic undernourishment, defined as calorie-protein intake levels below the minimum necessary for normal growth and work.

6) **Increased Morbidity and Mortality**- Displacement-induced social stress and psychological trauma, the use of unsafe water supply and improvised sewage systems, increase vulnerability to epidemics and chronic diarrhoea, dysentery, or particularly parasitic and vector-borne diseases such as malaria and schistosomiasis.

7) **Loss of Access to Common Property**- For poor people, loss of access to the common property assets that belonged to relocated communities (pastures, forest lands, water bodies, burial grounds, quarries and so on) result in significant deterioration in income and livelihood levels.

8) **Social Disintegration**- Displacement causes a profound unraveling of existing patterns of social organization. This unraveling occurs at many levels. When people are forcibly moved, production systems, life-sustaining informal networks, trade linkages, etc are dismantled.

Thus, there is an urgent requirement for inclusive approach to integrate the displaced people in the mainstream development.

3.6 INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT POLICY MEASURES

Many countries especially the democracies all over the world responded to the inequalities in the society by enacting legislations and incorporating equality clauses in their constitutions. Policies such as "compensatory discrimination" or "protective discrimination" are intend to include members of groups whose members have relatively limited access to society's most esteemed position. The group preferences, quota, reservation or positive discrimination have exists in different names and different countries.

Inclusive development has been promoted in many countries through affirmative action. The meaning of "affirmative action" which is a part of inclusiveness has evolved over time in the US when President John F. Kennedy first used the term in 1961. The affirmative action policies assured that no person would be denied opportunities simply because of group she/he happened to born into. The affirmative action assured equality of opportunity to all Americans and to end discrimination against members of groups that had historically been exposed to a great deal of discrimination- mostly African American. The experience in the United Kingdom shows us that public understanding of and a political commitment to social inclusion can yield important policy changes across a variety of issue areas. These policies include a $10-per-hour minimum wage, substantial tax credits for low-income individuals, and the right for employees to request flexible work schedules. These measures have been viewed by the government

as investments in individuals and economic growth. Furthermore, the social-inclusion approach has provided a framework to coordinate initiatives across government agencies, reducing tendencies toward programmatic silos. Together these policy changes resulted in income gains that moved lower-income individuals closer to the middle.

United Kingdom has taken several measures to promote inclusive development. The post-war state strategy was to build good "race relations". In 1970s, UK has taken several measures such as Sex Discrimination Act in 1975, Race Relations Act in 1976. During this time UK also promoted positive discrimination to overcome disadvantage through training, education and provision of facilities.

Similar examples are also found in African and Asian countries. The South African National Congress (ANC) Government of Nelson Mandela inherited a legacy of apartheid and racial disparity between the majority Africans and minority whites in South Africa. In 1994 multiracial democratic election brought the majority Africans (75 % of the total population) to political power even though most of them were economically marginalized. The ANC led government asked the assembly to pass the Employment Equity Bill on August 21, 1998 to facilitate the disadvantaged people specifically Blacks. There were some discriminatory laws for Blacks and their racial classification; job reservation laws which reserved some jobs exclusively for whites; All the central business districts and major cities are today under the white hands. The Employment Equity Bill requires all companies with 50 employees or more, to implement the quota-based Affirmative Action Policy. The designated groups are Blacks (including African, Indian and other colored minorities), women and the disabled. If a company fails to meet the quotas, the department of Labour will impose a fine of between US $80,000 and $150,000. The company in violation of the requirements of the bill will also be denied government contracts and subsidies.

Asian countries like Malaysia and Sri Lanka have their respective inclusive development strategy.

3.6.1 Inclusive Development Policy Measures in India

A few important inclusive development policy measures taken by the government of India are discussed below:

The India constitution has envisaged 'inclusive' clauses in order to prevent discrimination. Article 15 of the constitution of India prohibits discrimination on the ground of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth. Article 16 which lays emphasis on equal opportunities reads that " no citizen shall on grounds only of religion, race, caste, descent, sex, place of birth, residence or any of them be ineligible or discriminated against in respect of employment or office of the state. Moreover, article 16(4) of the constitution also proclaim that nothing in this article shall prevent the state from making any provision for the reservation of appointments or posts in favor of any backward classes of citizens, which in the opinion of the state is not adequately represented in the service under the state.

The government of India consciously admits that there are millions of displaced persons while drafting the National Rehabilitation Policy in 1994 for formulating welfare measures for the displaced.

Many policy measures such as formulation of National Commission for Women (NCM); National Council for Empowerment of Women; National Policy for Empowerment of Women; National Resource Centre for Women has been taken by the government of India for the empowerment of women. Besides, the reservation of seats in the Local Self Government Institutions is a step for gender inclusiveness.

There is reservation for the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other back Wards (OBCs) in the admission to the government educational institutions and also in the government jobs. This is an illustrious measure taken by the government for the inclusion of the excluded groups. The reservation of seats in the Parliament and State Assemblies for the SCs and STs is an example of political inclusion.

The government of India has also constituted Minority Commissions from time to time to suggest measures for the welfare of the minority.

The Eleventh Five Year Plan, which was approved by the National Development Council on 19 December 2007, provides a comprehensive strategy for inclusive development, building on the growing strength of the economy, while also addressing weaknesses that have surfaced. The 11th Plan vision focuses on faster, more broad-based and inclusive growth and is designed to reduce poverty and focuses on bridging the various divides that continue to fragment the society. A key element of the strategy for inclusive growth identifies provisioning of access to basic facilities such as health, education, clean drinking water, etc. It is not assured simply by a rise in per capita income but also better health and education are the necessary pre-conditions for sustained long-term growth.

The government of India has recently launched NREGS (National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme, now, Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme) in 2005 to provide a minimum guaranteed wage employment of 100 days in every financial year to rural households with unemployed adult members prepared to do unskilled manual work. One of the inclusive features of the scheme is that a minimum of 33 percent reservation is to be made for women, where the number of applicant is very large. Further, one of the works identified in the scheme is the provision of irrigation facility to land owned by households belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Several studies have found that the large numbers of beneficiaries of the scheme are the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women.

In this section you studied about the approaches to inclusion, factors affecting inclusive development and inclusive development policy measures. Now, answer the questions given in *Check Your Progress-2*.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: a) Answer the following questions in about 50 words.

b) Check your answer with possible answers given at the end of the unit.

1) How does poverty affect inclusive development?

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2) What are some of the Inclusive Development Policy Measures in India?

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3.7 LET US SUM UP

There are enormous challenges to development. Inclusiveness is one of the major policy options available for promoting development. In this section we have discussed the concepts, meanings and broad issues in Inclusive Development and what are the key approaches followed by various countries across the globe. Factors that are affecting inclusive development such as inequity, exclusion, poverty, disparity, displacement are discussed. Major inclusive processes such as social inclusion, economic inclusion, political inclusion that are undertaken by various countries are also highlighted.

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3.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-POSSIBLE ANSWER

Check Your Progress-1

1) What is inclusive development?

Answer: Inclusive development refers to the development with a sense of belonging. It benefits the masses by making them feel valued, empower them and enable them to participate in the development process. Inclusive development goes against the spirit of discrimination and exclusion. It rather encourages people to be actively part of the development by using their full potential.

2) Write a note on economic inclusion.

Answer: Economic inclusion is vital for development as it ensures every individual's productive participation in the economy. The relationship between a productive economy and a society that enjoys high levels of participation, connection and cohesion, and their combined impact of peoples' well-being is well appreciated by the scholars in recent times. They view that inclusive economy improve the well-being of people by directing policy to ensure that there are broad based opportunities to participate in the economy.

Check Your Progress -2

1) How does poverty affect inclusive development?

Answer: The impacts of exclusion are felt by those who are excluded, predominantly the poor. Poverty is lack of shelter. Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not having access to school and not knowing how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear for the future, living one day at a time. The poor rarely take part in decision-making that affects their lives, and as a consequence they cannot claim a share of development; development passes them by.

2) What are some of the Inclusive Development Policy Measures in India?

Answer: The India constitution has envisaged 'inclusive' clauses in order to prevent discrimination. Article 15 of the constitution of India prohibits discrimination on the ground of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth. Article 16 which lays emphasis on equal opportunities reads that " no citizen shall on grounds only of religion, race, caste, descent, sex, place of birth, residence or any of them be ineligible or discriminated against in respect of employment or office of the state. Many policy measures such as formulation of National Commission for Women (NCM); National Council for Empowerment of Women; National Policy for Empowerment of Women; National Resource Centre for Women has been taken by the government of India.

MDV-102: Dynamics of Development

BLOCK 1	**DYNAMICS OF CHANGE**
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BLOCK 2	**DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT-1**
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BLOCK 3	**DYNAMICS OF DEVELOPMENT-II**
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