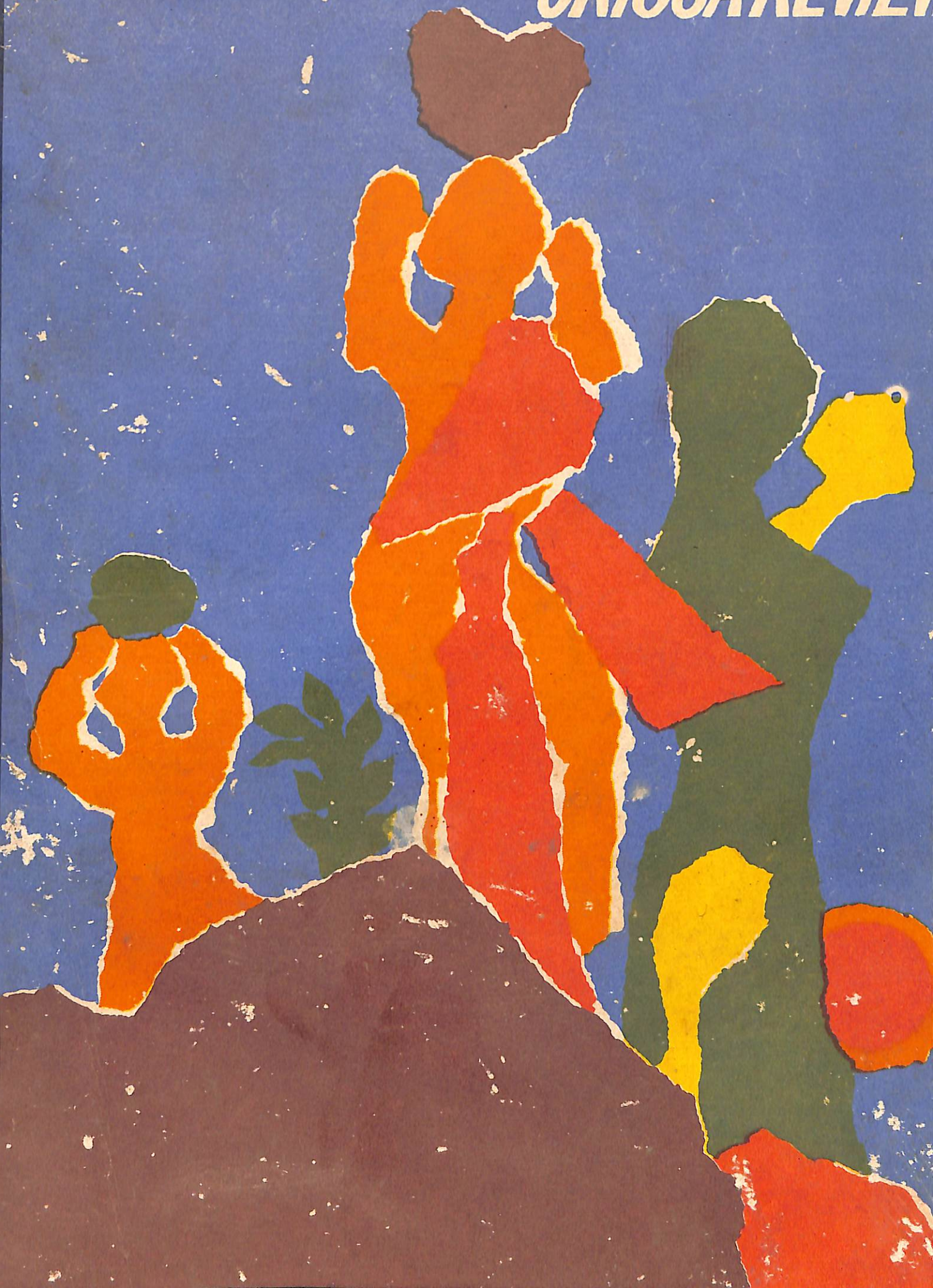


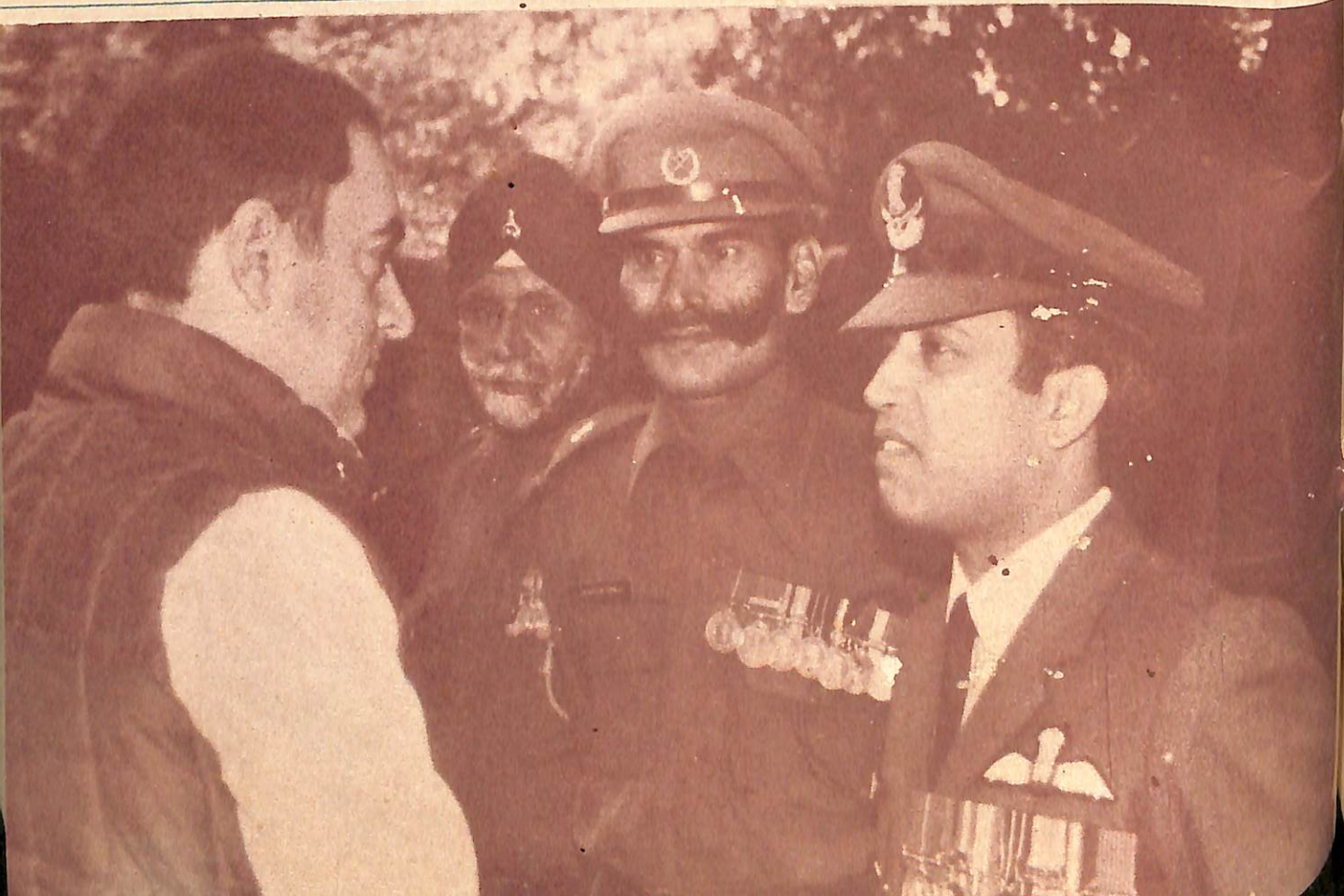
ORISSA REVIEW





ଅମର ଜବାନ ଜ୍ୟୋତି 'ରେ ପ୍ରଧାନମନ୍ତ୍ରୀଙ୍କ ଶ୍ରଦ୍ଧାଞ୍ଜଳି • P.M. LAYING A WREATH AT THE AMAR JAWAN JYOTI .

ପ୍ରଧାନମନ୍ତ୍ରୀ ଶ୍ରୀ ରାଜୀବ ଗାନ୍ଧୀଙ୍କ ସହ ଏହିଠି ପ୍ରଥମ ମହାକାଶ ସୂଚୀ ଶ୍ରୀ ରାଜେଶ ଶର୍ମା • RAJIB GANDHI WITH SRI RAKESH SHARMA



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CONTENTS

	Page
The Basic Approach of the Seventh Plan.	1
Monitoring and Evaluation Unit for Agricultural Extension Programme in Orissa Analysis of T. and V. System.	6
The New Dimensions of Training of Civil Service Personnel.	9
Impact of Regulated Markets in the Efficiency of Marketing in India.	15
Delimitation of "C. B. D" of Cuttack City	19
Indian Education To-day & Tomorrow	23
Poison in Human Food	29
Food and Nutrition in Tribal Orissa	31

The Basic Approach of the Seventh Plan

Dr. Baidyanath Mishra

XX

The Seventh Plan is now in the formative stage. It may undergo radical changes after the formation of a new Planning Commission. However, the Approach Paper gives only some broad indications of the pattern of development which is more or less unassailable. We cannot only think of growth nor only social justice. In the fifties and sixties, growth was given highest importance on the assumption that the benefits of growth will 'trickle' down to different sections of the community. Since the benefits did not 'trickle down', poverty eradication programmes were built into the planning system in order to improve the economic wellbeing of the poorer sections of the community. But these programmes did not materially improve the situation firstly because these were mostly relief operations. Where poverty is colossal, relief operations cannot touch the fringe of the problem. On the other hand, they will impoverish the nation. Secondly, all these poverty eradication programmes like N. R. E. P., R. L. E. G. P. and I. A. D. P. did not create assets, only transferred assets from one section of the community to another. Such programmes did not therefore create any multiplier or spread effect.

The planning programmes of last several years have taught us two important lessons. Poverty cannot be eradicated by relief. We will have to remove poverty through creation of productive employment opportunities.

Productive employment will generate growth, create assets and thus ameliorate the economic condition of the poor and destitute who will be engaged in such pursuits. At the same time growth through productive employment will create a multiplier effect for bringing about a change in the economic scene. Secondly, it is also seen that poverty originates in villages and when it cannot be contained there, it overflows to towns and cities in the form of slum dwellers. This clearly illustrates that if we have to eradicate poverty, the focus of attention should be shifted from the urban areas to rural areas.

It seems to us that the Approach Paper of the Seventh Plan has taken these two factors into account while formulating the major objectives of the Plan. The major objectives of the Seventh Plan are : Food, Work and Productivity. The rationals of these objectives are examined below.

Let us take the question of food first. There has been tremendous improvement in food production during recent years. Beginning from 100 m. tonnes (+ 5 m. tonnes) in 1970, food production increased to 130 m. tonnes (+ 5 m. tonnes) in 1980. In the year 1983-84, food production increased to 152 m. tonnes. The trend of foodgrains production increasing from less than 3 per cent to above 4.5 per cent in terms of gross output is indeed significant. All the same, the target for food production

has been estimated at 5 per cent for the Seventh Plan. Several reasons can be attributed to this. In spite of the increase in foodgrains production, *per capita* availability of foodgrains in India has remained stagnant for a long time and needs improvement for welfare considerations. Secondly, the Seventh Plan goal of greater equity and reducing poverty will result in greater demand for food, as the elasticity of demand for food is very high in the low income group.

It may also be mentioned here that without a decrease in price of foodgrains, the poor people cannot afford to purchase the required amount of food to maintain their livelihood. Those who do not have or those who are not purchasers of food, they can only benefit by a reduction of price of essential commodities like food. But in case of India, prices have been rising since the Second Five-Year Plan. This goes against the principle of equity. If we take only the last decade, we find that during the period 1970-71 to December 1983, the index (1960—100) of all-India consumer price has gone up from 184 to 559 and the food index from 195 to 631. This has produced a disastrous effect on the poor and has vitiated the equity measures pursued by the Government of India.

Another reason why high priority has been given to food production is to attain self-sufficiency in foodgrains. By the end of the century, our population may go up to 950 million to 1,000 million. The Planning Commission has estimated that food requirement *per capita* is about 125 to 130 Kg. per year. We also require some seeds and some surplus for export. This implies that we have to increase foodgrains production to the extent of about 250 million tonnes or 100 million tonnes more than what we are producing today. This is not difficult in the sense that we have now the technology to cope with the requirements. In the eastern region, there is a big gap between the potential and the actual. The new technology is utilised only to the extent of 25 to 30 per cent. That is why the Planning Commission has laid stress for increasing foodgrains production among the less developed regions and

small and marginal farmers. For the purpose, eastern region in particular and some parts of Central and Southern India have been identified. We do not think, anybody can have any exception to this approach.

The second thrust is to increase work potential. As we have already pointed out, generation of gainful and productive employment is essential to reduce poverty and improve the economic wellbeing of the poor. It is estimated that at the end of 1983-84, there was a backlog of about 20 million unemployed persons in the country. At least 5 to 6 million people are being added on to the employment market each year and the organised (including small-scale industry) sector of industry is hardly in a position to absorb about 1.0 to 1.2 million persons a year. Unemployment situation is therefore grave and calls for immediate action. Thus generating greater employment for gainful activities has been given highest priority in the Seventh Plan. In the earlier plans, employment has been treated at most as an end product of a production profile. In the Seventh Plan, a positive policy of employment generation has been aimed at.

For this purpose, great emphasis has been given on the growth of agriculture, specially among less developed regions and small and marginal farmers through irrigation and cropping intensity which are expected to generate significantly larger employment opportunities. The agricultural growth is estimated at 4 per cent per year. Though the long-term annual growth of agriculture has been of the order of 2.7 per cent, during the Sixth Plan, a growth rate of 3.9 per cent has already been achieved. Therefore, an increase in gross irrigated area to the extent of around 20 million hectares and an increase in fertilizer production to the extent of 4.3 million tonnes could easily increase the rate of growth to 4 per cent. The agricultural target does not therefore seem to be ambitious. But what is more important is that agricultural development will increase employment potential to a considerable extent. A Technical Note on the Sixth Plan in India (1980—85) estimates that employment-investment ratio (in terms of person years per million

rupees) varies from 0.024 in the Real Estate Business to 115.625 in the construction sector with the ratios for agriculture and manufacturing sectors being 44.73 and 12.62 respectively. Investment in agriculture to the extent of 18 per cent of total outlay in the public sector will definitely add substantial employment. We will rather propose to increase outlay in agriculture to the extent of 36 per cent to increase employment opportunities.

Further increase in intensity of cropping will increase employment opportunities to a considerable extent. In Japan, Taiwan and South Korea, the number of persons profitably employed per hectare of land is twice as much as in India. The present intensity of farming in India is about 1.22. If we can increase the intensity to 1.5, unemployment problem will be marginal. In Punjab and Haryana, unemployment is marginal due to increase in intensity. The Approach Paper envisages increase in intensity of farming by increasing irrigation facility with supporting credit and institutional facilities and other inputs. Improvement in agriculture supported by other labour intensive industries and other anti-poverty and rural development programmes like IRDP, NREP, etc. and massive construction and reforestation activity are expected to generate additional employment of the order of 40 million standard persons per year.

Finally we come to productivity. The capital output ratio is quite high. It is 5.65 or 6 to one. The Seventh Plan proposes to reduce it to 5.04 to one. The high capital output ratio necessitates increased investment. But there is plenty of scope for reducing capital-output ratio. For example, labour cost in India is 10 to 12 per cent of that in the highly developing countries of the world and the lower cost of production has been achieved due to low labour wages in countries like Japan in earlier decades and at present times in South Korea and China.

Many things can be done to improve efficiency. One is to increase the productivity of agriculture. In agricultural sector, the rate of production per hectare in India is as low as 0.9 tonne as against 2.5 to 4 tonnes per hectare in other agricultural-

cum-industrial countries. We can at least increase the productivity in agriculture in the country as a whole to at least 1.8 to 2 tonnes per hectare—the level already achieved in some parts of the country through instruments of policy and supply of inputs like fertilizers and other modern inputs.

Again, apart from technological choice, other related matters like proper management of projects, operational efficiency and complementary investments to have better utilisation of capacity would bring down the I C O R. For example, in the power sector, it is possible to increase the plant load factor from 48 per cent as at present to 55 per cent as achieved earlier by providing a marginal complementary investments. Similarly it would be possible to reduce I C O R for about 50 per cent of the items. This coupled with a shift of emphasis in favour of agricultural development would not only help bring down ICOR but also generate relatively more employment.

In spite of all these, poverty cannot be eradicated so soon. According to a recent estimate of the Planning Commission, the population in poverty is increasing by about 4 million a year. A study of Montek Ahluwalia shows that population in poverty increases by 5 million every year. The Approach Paper Projections indicate that poverty level would reduce to 10 per cent by 1994-95. There has been a great deal of controversy regarding the success of poverty eradication programmes of the Government. The Mid-term Appraisal of the Planning Commission claimed that poverty ratio has come down from 51.1 to 41.5 and the total number of persons below poverty from 339 millions to 282 millions in 1981-82. This claim has been disputed by many including Prof. Rajkishna and Sundaram and Tendulkar.

Whether poverty has been reduced or not, we have to wrestle with this problem for a long time. The Approach Paper lays great stress on NREP, RREGP and IRDP to improve the economic well being of the poor by creating rural employment. These programmes have been criticised on several counts. For example, it is said that identification of beneficiaries is very often faulty. Secondly, these are individual

beneficiary oriented programmes and not group development programmes. And in these programmes, there is quite a great deal of leakage. Thirdly, there is no proper monitoring or evaluation of these programmes. Fourthly, these programmes do not create assets but only transfer assets and therefore vested interests have grown in perpetuating such programmes. And so on. The Approach Paper suggests to improve these programmes with better planning, closer monitoring and tighter organisation for effective implementation. Backward and forward linkages will be fully provided so that beneficiaries are able to make full use of the assistance. The IRDPs which are now largely individual oriented will, whenever necessary, be given a wider base through the organisation of the beneficiaries into clusters or groups in order to improve the viability of the programmes. These programmes will be integrated with agricultural and rural development as far as possible by using them to create infrastructure such as drainage and field channels, roads and social infrastructure required for growth of small-scale industries.

Thus it is seen that the basic priorities for the Seventh Plan are food, work and productivity with which nobody can quarrel. For this, it is proposed to have a strategy built around higher agricultural growth and creation of employment, improvement in efficiency and in quality of production and technological upgradation in industry and infrastructure, the use of less capital-intensive and more labour intensive techniques and shift in investment priorities towards items of mass consumption and measures to improve the quality of life.

Though we fully endorse the objectives we have some reservations regarding strategy and operational mechanism. The Resource Paper aims at a public sector plan outlay of Rs. 1,80,000 crores at 1984-85 prices. Now it is estimated that resources gap in Seventh Plan would be about Rs. 32,000 crores even with a deficit financing of Rs. 10,000 crores and additional resource mobilisation of Rs. 36,000 crores. The resource gap which was about 5 per cent for the Sixth Plan is now placed at 18-19 per cent in the Seventh Plan

excluding deficit financing. It is therefore difficult to envisage how a plan outlay of such a huge magnitude can be made possible. The rate of growth of a little more of 5 per cent is not high. Even though the long-term rate of growth of national income has been of the order of 3.5 per cent in the Sixth Plan, we have come to a level of almost 5 per cent in the Sixth Plan. But the question is how to fill up the gap in resources without creating inflationary pressures in the country. The order of deficit financing and additional resource mobilisation proposed in the Approach Paper are as such inflationary. Inflation has been a terrible tragedy of Indian planning. We cannot take comfort in the sense that in some other countries, the rate of inflation is higher. In fact inflation has negated most of the benefits of development and welfare programmes in the country. There is no policy framework in the Approach Paper to contain inflation. If we cannot contain inflation, a higher magnitude of plan outlay will have no meaning, nor a growth rate of 5 per cent per year. So a suitable policy framework should be devised to improve operational efficiency, prevent leakage, decentralise the process of decision making and so on to contain inflation or to reduce the plan outlay of the public sector. Inflation and equity cannot go together.

There has been a lot of controversy with regard to saving rate. The Approach Paper estimates a saving rate of 26 per cent in the year 1984-85. In the light of saving performance of around 22.4 per cent in 1983-84 based on Reserve Bank's quick estimates, reaching a 26 per cent saving rate in 1984-85 may not appear easy. Similarly the Approach Paper estimates a population growth of about 1.8 per cent and the terminal year population at 803 million. The projections made by Sundaram and Tendulkar show that the estimates of the Approach Paper are less by 36 million in the terminal year. If the assumptions of the Approach Paper become unrealistic, all the calculations made in the Approach Paper regarding the rate of growth of income, improvement in per capita income, etc. would go away. This would be another case of failure in reaching the desired targets.

We would like to make a final point regarding to equity, social justice, eradication of poverty, all these which are bound to assume a high priority in our development plan. No amount of welfare or relief programmes will reduce the extent of poverty unless we bring about a structural change in the economy. In the development plan, vested interests are growing. The 'trickle down' formula has been reversed in welfare programmes than elsewhere. What we mean is that only some benefits of development and welfare programmes trickle down to the poor, the rest is being appropriated by a number of vested interests. As a first step, we suggest a reorganisation of the rural economy so as to alter the power balance in the villages. Professor A. K. Sen has pointed out that poverty is a function of entitlements. To be able to live above the poverty line, one must possess assets/skills which can produce

enough food or income to buy the food above the subsistence level. In 1971-72, about 60 per cent of the rural households owned less than 10 per cent of agricultural land while 2 per cent at the top owned almost one-fourth of the land. The distribution has not altered since then. Out of 347 million acres of cultivated area, only 2 million acres (about half a per cent) has been distributed by June 1983. This does not augur well with the equity programme of the Seventh Plan. In addition to the structural change in rural areas, a lot of things has also to be done to improve administrative efficiency and prevent concentration of economic power in the urban areas. Space does not permit us to analyse all these problems. But without such changes and requisite policy instruments and their viability and adequacy in the light of past experiences, the major thrust of the 'Approach Paper' will be a dream rather than a reality.

Vice-Chancellor,

O. U. A. T., Bhubaneswar.

MORE INDIGENT ARTISTES GET PENSION

338 eminent indigent artistes in the field of dance, drama, music, literature and sports have been granted monthly pension of Rs. 200 each till the period ending December 1984. The number of such recipients was only 10 during the year 1980 who were in receipt of lesser amount of pension of Rs. 100 per month.

During the year 1984, seven folk artistes on traditional palla musics and 3 indigent journalists namely Saibashri Khalli Acharya of Berhampur, Giridhari Mishra of Keonjhar have been granted pension at the same rate. Late Bhagaban Pati of Cuttack was also granted pension under this scheme. So far, a sum of Rs. 7,20,000 has been spent during the current financial year on this score.

The pension scheme envisages that the writers, artistes, sportsmen, journalists who devote their life in their respective fields and leading their life miserably are eligible for a monthly pension of Rs. 200 each.

finding mechanism, but rather it assists the extension workers how best their work and devotion are appreciated by the farmers in the State. In other words, it reminds the planners and administrators, the shortcomings and problems faced by the field workers in discharging their duties for effective implementation of the T and V Programme. The report prepared by the M and E unit acts as a mirror upon which entire T and V Programme can be reflected.

Cernea and Tepping² (1977) have identified that the monitoring and evaluation unit should have three zones of concentration.

- (i) the visits of the VAWs to the contact farmers,
- (ii) the extent to which the recommended practices (impact points) conveyed by the VAW are adopted or not adopted, and
- (iii) the yields obtained by farmers in the project area.

All these informations seem to be very simple but if these informations are collected unbiased and reported to the Secretary of Agriculture quite correctly, the T and V Programme will approach to success with a relatively higher efficiency. The monitoring and evaluation unit collects data from the contact and non-contact farmers through printed questionnaires for the purpose of meaningful analysis. The Agricultural Economist, who is, generally the Joint Director (Agriculture) in the Monitoring and Evaluation Unit interpretes and summarizes these results with the aid of statistical tools for preparing standardised reports. The M and E unit includes Sr. Agricultural Economist, Senior Statistician and Senior Rural Sociologist for the purpose of studying and reporting the exact field problems, farmers' attitude and the impact of technology transfer through T and V system of agricultural extension. Necessary data are collected through field supervisors and field investigators employed for the purpose.

Special Studies

Cernea and Tepping³ have identified six areas for special studies for the M and E

Unit of the training and visit system. There are :—

- (i) the selection of contact farmers;
- (ii) sociological village case studies;
- (iii) studies focussing on village Agricultural workers and their supervisors;
- (iv) the quality of sessions;
- (v) detailed studies of the adoption (or lack of it) of specific farm practices;
- (vi) farm budget studies to establish incremental costs and benefits of various cultivation practices.

In addition to the above studies, M and E Unit can also take up projects relating to farming problems and constraints in agricultural production in the State. The following additional studies can be taken up by the M and E Unit in Orissa :

- (i) Studies on constraints in agricultural production.
- (ii) Credit availability and credit requirement of contact farmers.
- (iii) Availability of chemical fertilizers and cost-benefit analysis of fertilizer application in farmer's field.
- (iv) Commodity marketing and marketing problems.
- (v) Impact of tenancy legislation on agricultural productivity.
- (vi) Economic size of farm holdings.
- (vii) Cropping pattern and cropping schemes.
- (viii) Impact of T and V system on utilization of agricultural labour.
- (ix) Extent of technology transfer through T and V system.
- (x) Cost of cultivation of major crops and their farm prices.

In short, the monitoring and evaluation studies will reveal the real farm problems and constraints in agricultural production in the State. It will help in organizational safeguards and benefit the farmers, extension workers, researches and the State

Government in bringing out an around agricultural development in the State.

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OVER 3 LAKHS IRDP BENEFICIARIES IN ORISSA

Over 3 lakhs rural poors have been benefitted under the Integrated Rural Development Programme so far since 1980-81, as against the target of covering 9.42 lakhs during Sixth Plan period. Out of these beneficiaries, 1.64 lakhs belong to Scheduled Caste and 1.88 lakhs are Scheduled Tribes which together constitute 46 per cent of the total coverage.

The *per capita* investment including subsidy and credit has been steadily going up during the period. It rose from Rs. 2,141 in 1980-81 to Rs. 2,204 in 1982-83 and reached Rs. 2,563 in 1984-85. At the same time, constant efforts are being made not only to achieve the targets but also to improve the quality of implementation of the programme.

The IRDP of which is under operation in all the 314 blocks of the State from October 2, 1980 is a major poverty alleviation programme taken up in the Sixth Plan. The primary objective of the programme is to reach the poorest among the poor and provide them substantial assistance for raising them above poverty line.

During the current financial year up to the end of December, 1984 total expenditure over Rs. 13.30 crores has been incurred to benefit about one lakh rural poor. Besides, Co-operative Banks disbursed Rs. 3.36 crores and the Commercial banks Rs. 12.07 crores during the period.

The New Dimensions of Training of Civil Service Personnel

Dr. R. C. Roy

XX

The Prime Minister, Mr. Rajiv Gandhi while inaugurating a two-day conference of Chief Secretaries of State Governments, Union Territories and some Union Secretaries on 4th February, 1985 *inter-alia* made certain observations to the effect that there should be autonomy within the administration down to the hierarchy for more autonomy was needed for revamping the administration for faster work and for making it result-oriented. The administration as a whole, should be modified to meet the demands of the eighties, nineties and the coming century. It is for the administration and political system to meet the high expectation that has been aroused in our people. The administration what was inherited by the country was built up by the Britishers to control the country rather than to develop it. It is yet to be attuned to development. In effecting reforms in administration, however, the good points of the past should have to be retained. Faster development of the country being the need of the hour the law and order machinery should be strengthened to maintain peace for facilitating development and removal of economic disparities among the people. Therefore, the civil service personnel all over the country are called upon to face the new challenges, thence emerged the new dimensions of training the author proposes to dwell upon in this article.

and Central Legislature experts from various disciplines in order to enthuse new abilities and capacities for the administration to have a greater dynamism.

The Administrative Reforms Commission, in view of the increasing importance of training, made certain recommendation emphasizing the need of organising training function as a part of the system of Government administration and management. Several recommendations were made. (1) The Union Government with the assistance of experienced administrators and experts in training technique should formulate a well-defined and far-sighted national policy on civil service training, setting out, objectives, priority and guidelines for preparation of training plans. (2) The training Division of the Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms in the Ministry of Home Affairs should provide leadership in promoting, co-ordinating and facilitating training; to formulate policies, regulations and procedures on training and oversee their implementation; and to advise ministry and department on identification of training need, determination of institutional training technique and evaluation of training programmes; to arrange for course in subject such as management according to the need, training overseas, preparation of training materials and research on different training methods and training of co-ordinators. Each Department of Government should have a senior officer designated as a training co-ordinator who would be in

charge of a separate training cell of the department. (4) Facility should also be provided for formulating and implementing suitable programmes of training for Class IV and Class III personnel in government. (5) Senior management education and training programmes should better be implemented through the professional institutions.

The main theme of the 1984 conference of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Public Administration held in association with the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration at Indiana University, U. S. A. was on new directions in public management education. The working groups of the conference produced seven papers on (a) curriculum development for public administration/public management, (b) Public Enterprise Management Education and Training, (c) Strengthening Administrative Capabilities of Government: Planning and Implementing Development Programmes, (d) Administration of small and island States, (e) Education and Training of Local Government Managers, (f) Education and Training in Public Policy, and (g) New Technologies and Management. In addition, the conference held a special session on administrative accountability in public services.

State Training Institutes of Public Administration of all the States formed an Association of State Training Institutions in India (ASTI) in order to improve the quality of training of personnel in State Governments. The association held its first annual conference at the Harish Chandra Mathur State Institute of Public Administration, Jaipur in April, 1983.

Mr. T. N. Chaturvedi, the then Union Home Secretary, while inaugurating the conference, observed that India being a society with low economic growth and high expectation, the administration has to work with people for ameliorating the economic malady. In the years to come, the administration would require a high degree of professional competence when social, political and economic situations would undergo a rapid change. Therefore, the role of the training institution would assume importance in fully equipping the

public service. The State training institutions would serve as consultants to Government. Proper evaluation of training, development of indigenous teaching materials to satisfy local needs, training of trainers, etc., were considered to be of great importance. Identification of training needs, nomination of trainees and optimum use of existing training facility should be well taken care of. The formation of an Association of State Training Institution would facilitate improvement of the standard of training institution and generation of greater professionalism in the field of training.

Mr. M. M. K. Wali, the then Chief Secretary, Rajasthan, while presiding over the conference, suggested that efforts should be made to arouse interest in training of the officials in the higher level, course design should be tailor-made to satisfy specific requirement of participants, there should be proper evaluation of training to avoid wastage of training efforts.

The conference on the basis of its deliberations, made several important recommendations.

(1) *State Training Policy and Plans*—
(a) Every State should have a training policy and a suitable plan to implement it. Such a policy should *inter alia* provide for obligatory induction training for new entrants to all categories of services in the State. Refresher Training at periodic intervals, linkage of training with placement and career development, continuing up-dating of knowledge and skills of trainers, identification of training needs and co-ordination of training activities. There should be an annual training plan in respect of each Department. (b) In each Department of Government there should be one Senior Officer of sufficiently high enough level designated as Training Co-ordinator. He should be entrusted with matters related to training of personnel at all levels in the Department. The head of the State Institute of public Administration should be the co-ordinator for the whole State. He should be empowered to decide all matters relating to implementation of the training policy. This State Institute should have under its technical control all other departmental training institutions.

(2) *Assessment of Training needs*—training is for removal of deficiencies. The assessment of training needs should be done by the State Training Institute in consultation with the head of the department as also after ascertaining the views of the personnel to be trained. This can be done by the sampling method, administering questionnaire or through interview.

(3) *Co-ordination*—As has been done in the Rajasthan, the head of the State training institute should be responsible for co-ordination and direction of all training efforts of Government. Following the example of Himachal Pradesh, Gujarat and Rajasthan, the Director of State Training Institute should have an *ex officio* Secretariat Status. The departmental training co-ordinator should liaise with State Training institution in the matter of organising training programme, finalisation of syllabi, institution building, training need determination etc. The State training institute should provide technical support in the field of training to the other departmental training institutions.

(4) *Internal Organisation of the training Institute*—Unlike hierarchical system, the State Training Institute should have a flat structure. Faculty members drawn from department should have a minimum tenure of 3 years. The personnel having academic orientation, good reputation and sufficient field experience should be posted as Director of the State Training Institute. The Director should be consulted in posting of the faculty members. Suitable incentive should be provided for the faculty members.

(5) *Faculty Development*—Faculty members should be exposed to training in management of training, training methodology, organisation of training programme etc. They can undergo training in institutions at national level and abroad. Faculty members coming from academic field should have attachment with district administration for having first-hand knowledge of field organisation and their working. Based on identification of training need the supporting staff of the administrative office should be imparted training in the office management and behavioural aspect.

(6) *Financial support*—In addition to the budgetary allocation of funds, efforts should be made for raising contribution from public sector undertakings and local bodies for development of infrastructure. There should be a long term perspective development plan for the State Training Institute in implementing which the required funds may be mobilised while tapping various sources. The Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, should set up a committee to examine the requirements for modernisation of State administrative system. The Government of India should provide funds for purchase of micro processor to build a quick data retrieval system.

(7) *Research and consultation*—For undertaking applied research work and rendering consultancy service to various Government departments, the Faculty of State Training Institute should be broad-based to include members from academic streams and administrative departments.

(8) *Library*—The training institute library having facility for reference and documentation, manned by professional library staff with annual provision of at least Re. 1 lakh for purchase of books and research journals should remain opened beyond institute working hours.

(9) *Management of Training*—Training programme should be based on identification of training need and advance action. The head of the department should have the authority to decide on nomination of officers for training. The training institute should prepare its own training materials including case study. There should be mid-course and end-course evaluation of training. Attempts should also be made to evaluate training by obtaining responses from the trained officers six months after the programme. The head of the training institute should have the discretionary power to decide on the nature of training, the course design and the number of participants for the course. He should finalise the annual calendar.

(10) *Inter institutional collaboration*—There should take place exchange of course materials including case study, monogram,

news letters, annual training programmes, course design, journals, etc. Inter institutional co-operation should also be effected in holding joint seminar, workshop, training of trainers etc.

(11) *Induction level training*—It should be obligatory for the State Training Institute to provide induction training for all direct recruits of State cadres, technical and non-technical, having duration of at least six months, half of which may be in the institution and the remaining half in the field. For the promoted gazetted officers there should be condensed induction course training for a period of one month. As it is not practicable to provide induction training at the State Training Institute for lower level functionaries peripetetic training should be organised for them at the district level. Spare capacity of educational institutions and local bodies may be availed of for this purpose.

In the context of development administration involved in implementation of a variety of development programmes during the successive five-year plans, there has been continuing efforts for equipping the civil service personnel with enhanced knowledge, proper skill and right attitude.

The Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, in their role of a nodal organisation for the whole country issued one compendium of Training Programmes, listing over 1,800 selected programmes of 61 training institutes of the States. There exists nation-wide infrastructure of a diversified net work of Central and State level institutions. There are 102 national, central, State and autonomous institutions.

Thus, the organisational structure and network have been made broad-based, oriented to proliferate quantitatively and qualitatively to meet the increasing need of training of civil service personnel in government and also to support the commercial and industrial organisations in the public and private sector.

On the eve of the Seventh Five-Year Plan laying emphasis on improving productivity and poverty elimination programmes, when an appraisal of the existing training facilities is made, taking into consideration the need of restructuring the administrative

system, devolving powers to appropriate levels, giving emphasis on agricultural sector to remove poverty and reducing industrial and infrastructural costs and implementing rural development programmes, the inadequacy and deficiency of the existing training arrangements come to light.

In the rural sector a target-specific delivery system will have to be constructed. The monitoring system in vogue, on evaluation from time to time, will required to be restructured so that not only in respect to the organised sector but also unorganised sector, it becomes a self-correcting instrument. A larger number of personnel will now have to be acquainted with the new strategy and priority, implementation techniques of plan programmes, projects and schemes. Therefore, the training methods must be up-dated to impart new knowledge, skill, and attitude. The present administrative capacity of understanding certain techniques of planning and control systems without any appreciation of building an inter-dependent system has been found to be deficient. The training in government, in the context of rapid social change, will now have to sensitise public personnel of all levels to the expectations of beneficiaries of development programmes so that they do not remain content with mere application of implementation and control techniques, being indifferent to the requirement of the environment. Training should also help professionalise the services to the extent possible so that a significant number of highly trained personnel will be available in the priority development sector.

Generally, training in the Seventh Five-Year Plan will give emphasis on work and productivity. Work perception, work performance and work ethics must be improved through the process of training at individual and group levels. There must be attained increased productivity of capital, land and labour to accelerate the process of growth in all sectors.

In food sector, though there has taken place a marked increase of 90 millions of food grains during the period from 1950-51 to 1983-84, there would be required further

continuance of efforts to achieve an addition of 80 million by 2000 in view of the trend of growth of population. Administration will have to be geared on two fronts : (1) Food policy must provide for the (a) king of Government intervention in favour of extending fertiliser subsidy, land tenure reforms etc., and (b) restructuring of organisation of Government intervention for establishing the desired relationship with the target groups. (2) The structure and management of food delivery systems should be wide-ranging enough to be fully abreast of the nature and causes of food insecurity through underraking food consumption and production studies to provide appropriate incentive for both domestic consumption and production.

The type of training for Government personnel will have to be formulated in this background.

In the energy sector, Government operations are on the increase without prior knowledge, experience and understanding. The present emphasis is on the development of the renewable sources of energy in addition to continuing efforts in respect to petroleum and gas. Efforts must concentrate on the most efficient intensification, exploitation, assessment and utilisation of energy sources in renewable areas. The reforestation and afforestation programmes should now be given due importance and other renewable sources such as biogas, wind, solar, hydro and geothermal should be developed and utilised.

Therefore orientation training programmes will have to be organised for the middle level officers on the emergent Government functions and the need for co-ordination, a decision making in energy sector cuts across practically all development sectors. Specialised knowledge on preparation of energy programmes and projects from formulation stage onwards will have to be imparted. There should be policy level seminars on the preparation of policy alternatives, and development of energy plans on the basis of forecast, potentials and goals. Because of the vital linkage between the food sector and the energy sector appropriate training programmes must aim to effect integration of the two.

In the subject areas of training of Government personnel in development administration, the aim is to develop and strengthen the capabilities, upgrading knowledge and skill in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Emphasis should be laid on preparation of development plans at decentralised levels, integrating State Plan with district plan and block plan, designing and operating an effective delivery system for development programmes, especially beneficiary oriented and poverty elimination programmes,

To impart knowledge and skills of administration and management, and to provide an appreciation of the administration, constitutional, economic, legal, social and political, framework within which Government officials have to work, induction training is now conducted for a number of organised services. The scope, content and adequacy will now have to be broad-based to cover all the categories of personnel at the operative levels.

In order to overcome the difficulties arising out of non availability of adequate number of trainers to satisfy the future and increasing need of such personnel, not only that suitable placement policies will have to be implemented to avoid wastage but the network of the union and State Training institutions should have to a continuing and regular programme of training of trainers as an integral part of training in Government.

In consideration of the specific thrust of the Seventh Plan, a new strategy of training correlating the on-going programmes of training will have to be evolved for implementation during the plan period. Some core objectives to provide guidelines for operationalising the new direction and content of training must have to be announced. To remove the existing deficiency of inadequate number of trained personnel, target should cover larger number of personnel, especially those engaged in plan formulation and implementation in the middle and senior level. Training opportunities available must also increase, an official should be given more than one training opportunity during his career. Lower level functionaries at the cutting-edge level for whom regular training facilities

are not extended, should be imparted suitable training.

The existing network of training institutions will have to be enlarged and strengthened over and above the present capacity of the State Administrative Training Institutes. What is essential is that the course designs should be suitably framed to meet the real training need instead of emulating other institutes in India and abroad. There should be tenure bound trainers.

Since there is possibility of non-availability of funds for adequately enlarging the institutional network at the national and state level and sudden expansion is likely to cause dilution of quality, a renewed emphasis is laid on non-formal training to be imparted to specified target groups through the medium of correspondence on instruction. At the State level if the departments of Government issue detailed instruction in respect to various programmes, projects and schemes, this objective can be largely attained.

The training design for personnel engaged in the backward area development should be based on field studies in view of the special nature of programmes. That the socio-economic and socio-cultural conditions of the tribal population require a different development strategy, proper motivation and attitude on the part of the personnel engaged in tribal development administration should always be given due importance in formulation and implementation of suitable development programmes, projects and schemes; and therefore the concerned civil service personnel should be imparted the required training to build and improve their administrative capabilities.

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Impact of Regulated Markets in the Efficiency of Marketing in India

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XX

Markets and marketing of farm produce assume greater importance due to specialisation in production, industrialization, migration and concentration of population in certain areas. Farm prices, which perform the functions of resource allocation, inter-sectoral income distribution and capital formation, are generated within the framework of the marketing system. Unless a market structure is conducive to efficient pricing, the functions (Market Structure, conduct and performance) of pricing will be poorly performed. In India, there have been considerable changes in the extent of regulation and participation of public and co-operative agencies in the traditionally private agency dominated field of trade in agricultural commodities during the past three decades particularly. Such policies have substantial implications to the developmental process in agriculture as well as in other sectors as they influence price relationships and the efficiency of market processes.

The adoption of scientific technology for agricultural production by the farmers has created a great demand for better and improved inputs in greater quantity. The investment in new technology largely depends upon the gains of the farming community. It has, therefore, become imperative that arrangements should exist for efficient movement of the farmers

produce to the consumers and for adequate and timely supply of superior inputs to the farmers. In this transitional stage, the present marketing system is inadequate and devoid of infrastructural facilities has been serving as a serious constraint to the development of the agricultural sector and has resulted in unremunerative prices to the farmers and unreasonable prices to the consumers.

The primary and secondary markets where producers convert their produce into cash, the prevalence of various malpractices such as short weight, excessive market charges, unauthorised deduction and allowances made by commission agents, adulteration of produce and the absence of machinery to settle disputes between sellers and buyers, were recognised as the main hindrances in agricultural marketing as early as 1928 by the Royal Commission of Agriculture on a national scale, which observed that such hindrances in agricultural marketing can only be removed by the establishment of 'regulated markets'. The primary object of regulating the market was to safeguard the interest of the producers-sellers and raise the standard of the local markets where the first exchange of goods take place. With a view to achieve this object, in each of the regulated markets, market committee are established consisting of the representatives of the growers, traders, local

bodies, co-operative shops and the state Government nominee. To what extent these marketing changes due to regulated markets have been socially beneficial is a matter of great importance. Therefore it has been examined in depth in different regions in India.

As a result of the regulation of market charges alone, the producer-seller is benefited to the tune of 0.67 to 3.22 rupees for every hundred rupees worth of produce marketed by him in regulated markets. On an average the producer-sellers in India save by 1.62 rupees after marketing of 100 rupees worth of produce. It works out to 8 lakh rupees in respect of markets with an annual turnover of 5 crores of rupees. This is not a small benefits to the tiller of the soil. Besides, there has been a substantial reduction in the market charges which varies between 28 and 69 per cent in various markets.

A case study made by the Department of Agricultural Economics and Statistics, C.S., Azad University of Agriculture and Technology in Kanpur district (U. P.) in 1984-85 which indicates (Table-2) that the producer's share in the consumer's price in different crops in Regulated market, Kanpur varies between 71.29 to 84.54 per cent. In unregulated market the variation is noticed between 64.52 to 77.36 per cent. Thus, the study shows that the producer's share is higher in Regulated market as a result of regulatory measures introduced in the market and the improvement in marketing conditions.

The variations in wholesaler's margin are between 2.34 to 3.98 per cent and 6.02 to 7.65 per cent respectively in regulated and unregulated markets. In case of retailer's margin it varies between 5.99 to 10.45 per cent in regulated and between 10.20 to 12.13 per cent in unregulated markets. The difference in cost of marketing between both the markets is not significant. Wide variations in both whole saler's and raitailer's margin in unregulated markets are due to imperfections in the marketing conditions which needs necessary regulatory measures.

Table-3 indicates the distribution of marketing costs and margin (percentage to the total cost of marketing and margins). It shows that the margins received by the intermediaries are higher in the unregulated markets than in the regulated markets. It varies between 85.51 to 93.22 per cent in unregulated and 69.15 to 88.08 per cent in regulated markets. The indication of higher cost of marketing in the regulated markets as compared within unregulated markets is due to high transportation costs for transporting the commodities to the regulated markets. This can be reduced by expansion of regulated markets or enforcing market regulations in the existing unregulated markets.

In Maharastra a study¹ in the year 1983-84 reveals that after regulation of marketing of cotton the prices received by the farmers for cotton crop are higher than those that would have been in the absence of the scheme. Secondly, the index numbers of cotton prices in Maharashtra for the post-regulation period are higher than the index numbers of prices of cotton in the adjoining states (Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh) where open market system exists.

Nationalisation of trade has also significant impact in protecting the interest of the growers generating more additional income to the Government for the development of market structure. As for example, after nationalising the Bidi leaf trade in Bihar², the Forest Department is able to get a revenue of Rs. 213.00 per quintal from lease of forest which was only Rs. 49.00 per quintal during the pre-nationalisation period. About 89 per cent of total net surplus is generated in the Bidi leaf system. The prices of Bidi leaf is raised from Rs. 15.00 to Rs. 45.00 per quintal did not improve the grower's interest. It is mainly due to lack of machinery for Bidi leaf marketing. After nationalisation of trade, the grower's interest can be protected by the development of market structure.

1. B. D. Bhole, Y. P. Mahalle and N. A. Cedre, Impact of Regulation of marketing of cotton on prices in Maharashtra, Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics, July-September, 1984, P. 241.
2. Rajani Guleria, Economic Analysis of Bidi Leaf Trade in Bihar, Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics July-September 1984, P. 237.

Findings of the studies made in different parts of India reveal that the regulated markets have significant impact in protecting the interest of growers. Technically speaking, regulation of markets is an organizational change and can influence market structure. So the growth of regulated markets should be given utmost attention in the present context of commercialisation of agriculture. For the farmers, disposal of their produce have become as important as

the adoption of new farm practices for improving yields from agriculture. The movement of each product from the farm to the ultimate consumer plays a crucial role in determining the prices for the farmers. Unless markets and marketing improve no incentive to increase production will attract the cultivators, Hence, for the growth of agriculture, as a national interest, market regulations should be emphasised.

TABLE 1
Market charges per 100 rupees worth of produce (Before and after regulation of markets).*

State	Before Regulation	After Regulation	Saving
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Maharashtra ..	2.74	1.37	1.37
Andhra Pradesh ..	4.09	2.30	1.79
Tamil Nadu ..	4.65	1.43	3.22
Karnataka ..	4.14	2.20	1.94
Punjab and Haryana ..	2.43	1.76	0.67
All India average ..	3.41	1.79	1.62

*C. B. Mamoria and R. L. Joshi, Principles and Practice of Marketing in India, 1982, P. 851.

TABLE 2
*Producer's share and Marketing Margins in different crops under study in Kanpur district of Uttar Pradesh (Figures expressed in percentage of Consumer's price)**

Particulars	Wheat	Rice	Gram	Mustard
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
<i>Regulated Market</i>				
Producer's Share ..	84.54	72.47	83.91	71.29
Wholesaler's Margin ..	2.34	3.92	3.98	2.89
Miller's Margin	4.58	..	10.05
Retailer's Margin ..	5.99	8.59	8.19	10.45
Cost of Marketing ..	7.13	10.44	3.92	5.32
Consumer's price ..	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

* Study of Regulated Market in district Kanpur (U. P.) 1984-85 Department of Agricultural Economics and Statistics, C. S. Azad University of Agriculture and Technology, Kanpur P.-46.

Particulars (1)	Wheat (2)	Rice (3)	Gram (4)	Mustard (5)
<i>Unregulated Market</i>				
Producer's Share ..	76.23	64.52	77.36	66.66
Wholesaler's Margin ..	6.62	6.03	7.65	6.07
Miller's Margin	8.54	..	10.18
Retailer's Margin ..	10.48	10.20	10.99	12.13
Cost of Marketing ..	6.67	10.71	4.00	4.96
Consumer's Price ..	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

TABLE 3

*Percentage distribution of marketing costs and margins in different crops under study in Kanpur district of Uttar Pradesh**

Particulars (1)	Wheat (2)	Rice (3)	Gram (4)	Mustard (5)
Wholesaler's Margin ..	19.44	15.93	28.42	10.91
Miller's Margin	18.60	..	37.83
Retailer's Margin ..	49.71	34.85	58.53	39.34
Total ..	69.15	69.38	86.95	88.08
Marketing cost ..	30.85	30.62	13.05	11.92
Total marketing costs and margins.	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
<i>Unregulated Market</i>				
Wholesaler's Margin ..	33.09	18.97	38.26	19.74
Miller's Margin	26.84	..	33.09
Retailer's Margin ..	52.42	32.06	54.96	39.44
Total ..	85.51	77.87	93.22	92.27
Marketing cost ..	14.49	22.13	6.78	7.73
Total marketing costs and margins.	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

* Study of Regulated market in district Kanpur (U. P.) 1984-85, Department of Agricultural Economics and Statistics, C. S. Azad University of Agriculture and Technology, Kanpur, P.-48.

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These are :

1. The CBD possesses all kinds of central functions and the intensity of land use of different functions is highest here.
2. Here occurs the greatest concentration of offices, retail stores, heavy traffic, tallest buildings and the area is associated with highest land values.
3. The CBD represents the core of the city where the principal streets intersect and its structure is mobile and dynamic.
4. Conversion of residential land use to business and commercial uses in the buildings and a zone of blight surrounds the CBD, which lie in between the CBD and the surrounding residential.

These are various literatures dealing with the nature, definition, delimitation, functions and malfunctions of the growth of the CBD. But it is surprising to note that so far no uniform method of delimiting the district has been used and for each city the limits of the CBD have been a matter of local agreement. But it is only through the use of a standardized method of delimitation that significant comparisons that a real knowledge of the content and functioning of this critical area can be attained.

Different writers have advanced their definitions and method of delimiting the CBD. According to Murphy and Vance, who have done, perhaps, the most extensive work on this field, CBD is "an area where really essential functions appeared to be the retailing of goods and services for a profit and the performing of various functions."

The criteria such as land values, day-time, population, tenure status etc. are used for analysis and delimiting the central business district. According to Bartholomew, "... (the CBD) is a somewhat vague area with no definite boundaries." Dickinson says it "... the combination of high land values and obsolescent buildings, ripe for demolition, accounts for the dingy looking 'Zone of deterioration' that surrounds the business centre of almost every city.

All these important studies concerning the aspects of the CBD are restricted and more applied to the Western Cities, for the above definitions and observations lead to the conclusion that CBD is a region with the maximum qualities of a city and at its core the functions reach at their highest intensity. It is less applicable to the oriental cities because they lack absolute planning of the location or functions and the functions are generally, in most of the cities, "are concentrated in more than one locating within the city. In India, unfortunately, no much a study have been made in this direction and no suitable method has yet been advocated to be applicable to Indian towns and cities. Some of the common criteria used for the delimitation of C. B. D. in Indian towns are traffic flow, land value, urban profiles, shop-rent index, trade index, volume of sales, population distribution, patterns of employment and land uses etc. However most of the delimitation of the C. B. D. depend on local agreement and their adjustment.

It is observed that the concept of C. B. D. in case of Indian cities differs in many respects from that of the Western Countries. In Indian context, the C. B. D. is usually located at the oldest part of the city, though it is not centrally located in the present frame of the townscape. In most of the Indian cities the C. B. D. does not contain the administrative and municipal offices although it is a very common phenomena in American cities. In Indian context, however, the commercial core is the most densely populated part of the city where offices and administrative units are not accommodated because of the British Policy of social seclusion from the local people. Thus there is no definition worked out so far which can be precisely applicable to Indian cities. The intermixed flavour of the central business area in Indian cities certainly deserves an independent appraisal, unbiased by the definitions worked out for the Western cities.

The development of a practical technique for the delimitation of the C. B. D. of Cuttack City is essentially a geographic problem because more than one area resemble the C. B. D. with their multifarious and

concentrated functions. After investigating thoroughly the locations of C. B. D. in Cuttack city, it is observed that the term 'C. B. D.' used by Murphy and other analysts like Haig Rannels, Hoyt, Vance, Esplain, Horwood and Boyee is not completely suited to the case of Cuttack city because of its multifunctional structures, various confused and complex types of land use and the peculiar nature of the distribution of functions within the areas. In the municipality of Cuttack, more than one area the Badambari area, Chandinichowk, Choudhury Bazar and Buxi Bazar have resemblances of C. B. D. and to demarcate the true C. B. D. in the Cuttack City, the formula adopted by Murphy have been taken into consideration.

(i) Total Height Index (THI):

$$THI = \frac{\text{Total Floor Space}}{\text{Ground Floor Space}}$$

This is the height of each block area if all the space were to be spread evenly over the whole block irrespective of the use of the floor space. This is not the most valuable of measures for it merely generalizes a direct mapping of building heights. By reducing these heights to a line boundary.

(ii) Central Business Height Index (CBHI)

$$CBHI = \frac{\text{Central Business Space}}{\text{Total Ground Floor Space}}$$

This is the height of each block in floors if all the central business uses were evenly spread over the whole block. It is a more useful measure since a CBHI of 1 indicates a complete ground floor coverage by central business uses.

(iii) Central Business Intensity index (CBII)

$$CBII = \frac{\text{Central Business space}}{\text{Total Floor Space}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

This measures the proportion (Percentage) of all available floor space in central business uses and by far the most useful of the ration for it indicates the relative dominance of central business uses in any block and the choice of some limiting value (50 per cent) is used as a universal in delimitation.

(iv) Central Business Index (CBI)

$$CBI = CBHI \text{ of } 1 \text{ plus } CBII \text{ of } 50 \text{ per cent.}$$

To define the CBD Murphy and Vance took a composit measure as indicated above and called it the CBI. All blocks meeting the requirement were regarded as part of the CBD.

The study of Cuttack Municipality reveals that the CBHI and CBII values come to the level of CBD demarcation in Chandinichowk Bazar, Chowdhury Bazar, Buxi Bazar and Badambari area. In all these locations the CBHI value is 1 and the CBII value exceed 50 per cent. Considering the index values, it is established that the general CBD of the Cuttack is located in Ward Nos. 11, 12 and 13. In this area, the commercial activities are intensely concentrated. Besides the area possesses the High Court, Medicals, Banks, Schools, Parks, etc. and above all, each and every function of the city represented in this locality in miniature. But, at the same time, it is interesting to note that the Badambari area is showing the characteristics of CBD to a considerable extent. It is now growing to be the busiest spot in the city so far as commercial, social and other aspects are concerned. Here occurs the greatest concentration of traffic and it is the main traffic generating point in the city. With the gradual replacement of commercial activities to this place. it can be stated that this spot will act as the CBD for the city in the near future.

CBI AND CBII OF CUTTACK CITY

Ward No.	CBHI	CBII
(1)	(2)	(3)
1	0.1	7%
2	0.5	30%
3	0.5	30%
4	0.3	20%
5	0.2	15%
6	0.1	7%
7	0.3	20%

Ward No.	CBHI	CBII	Ward No.	CBHI	CBII
(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
8	0.2	15%	19	1.0	50%
9	0.7	50%	20	1.0	50%
10	0.5	30%	21	1.0	50%
11	1.0	50%	22	0.5	30%
12	1.0	50%	23	1.0	50%
13	1.0	50%	24	1.0	50%
14	1.0	50%	25	0.8	40%
15	0.7	45%	26	0.6	30%
16	0.6	40%	27	0.9	45%
17	0.8	45%	28	0.7	32%

Source—Data collected and computed by the Author

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BOOKS ASSISTANCE PROVIDED TO MORE RURAL LIBRARIES

The Culture Department of State Government have given book assistance to 300 rural libraries during 1983-84. The rural library assistance scheme is to provide reading facilities to school going children and to keep up the reading habits of the literate adult people in rural areas. Under the scheme, a total number of 900 rural libraries have been provided books assistance till date.

Culture Department has established a library at State Capital, Bhubaneswar with a collection of 30,000 books and periodicals for the benefit of the reading public. Besides, 19 libraries have started functioning at different district headquarters and other places. In Sub-divisional level four libraries located one at Baragarh, Nuapada, Rayagada and Rairangpur have also started functioning to cater to the need of the reading public.

Indian Education Today & Tomorrow

Smt. Smita Das
and
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XX

Education is the edifice of social life and aims at perfection of the human elements in an individual. It brings out the best in man. So it is imperative that education must assume a dynamic, organic and living image. In the International Education Commission Report : Education for To-day and Tomorrow, Faure writes 'The physical, intellectual, emotional and ethical integration of the individual into a complete man is a broad definition of the fundamental aim of education'. Kenneth Keniston states "the critical component of education attempts to expose students to multiple and conflicting perspective on them-selves and their society in order to test and challenge their previously unexamined assumptions. It strives to create conditions that stimulate students' intellectual, moral and emotional growth, so that they may ground their skills in a mature, human frame work of value".

II

Education is a key parameter in the growth strategy of any developing nation. It is no longer a luxury but has become a necessity in Modern India. It plays a crucial role in economic development and social progress. It largely determines the quality of man-power and healthy social climates of the community. As a key factor in production it supplies the requisite number and quality of persons required for various tasks of the society. Education, in fact; provides the individual with the major

means of personal enrichment as well as for social and economic advancement. In a democratic set up like India, the role of education is immense and extremely crucial. Democracy requires that majority of persons, if not all should be educated. The Government of India and the State Governments on their part are convinced that education is a key to national prosperity and welfare and that no investment is likely to yield greater returns than investment in human resources of which the most important component is education.

One of the major features of the post-independence in India is the relatively greater emphasis placed on the development of education. This has been almost in the nature of a phenomenal expansion. This expansion has played a dynamic part in the transformation of the Indian society, which is essentially unequal, where wealth and rank enjoy many privileges while the handicaps of the underprivileged are numerous, and where occupational mobility is small and employment opportunity neither ample nor diversified. In such a society, it is only educational opportunity that has to be relatively equalised by public policy.

III

The role and objective of education is multidimensional. Apart from having a modernising effect on society, it has social, economic and political objectives. In a

traditional and feudal society, education is a precondition for transforming such a society by modernising the institutions and social relations.

In the Indian context, the role and objectives of any educational policy should emphasize that there should be a quantitative spread of education. The expansion should take account of the disparity that exists as between the rural and the urban sectors, as between regions and also between different classes of people. The quantitative spread of education is necessary so as to make people aware of their political, social and economic rights and at the same time to play a meaningful role in a democratic set up.

Secondly, there should be improvement in the quality and context of educations and the educational system, so as to throw up people with requisite skill and talent for providing leadership in different spheres of activity such as politics, science, technology, industry, education, etc.

Thirdly, there should be equality of educational opportunities for all classes of people so that the social and economic distortions like illiteracy, poverty, unemployment can be removed.

Fourthly, education should have relevance to the social, political and economic milieu of the country and it should be productive.

Quantitative spread of education is necessary as education has always played an important part in preparing men for life in society and moulding them accordingly, whether directly or indirectly, overtly or covertly.² Schools exert a strong unifying action. Education moves children into a coherent, moral, intellectual and effective universe composed of sets of values, interpretations of the past and conceptions of the future. At the same time provides a fundamental store of ideas and information and a common inheritance. It contributes to awakening civic spirit and a sense of social commitment, to arousing interest in others and assisting people to escape isolation, whether chosen or imposed. The expansion of education has been rapid in recent years. But many primary, secondary and higher educational

institutions' have been established without the minimum infrastructure facilities. Most of them have been established on political and sectarian considerations. A review by the University Grants Commission viewed with concern the unplanned growth of Colleges and Universities. It highlighted that inspite of the restrictions, the number of 'non-viable' Colleges had gone up from 1,396 in 1973-74 to 1,433 in 1977-78. As per the UGC's study new Colleges were being set up at the rate of two a week. Among the States where there has been a 50 per cent increase in the number of non-viable Colleges was Orissa. Moreover, private Schools and Colleges demand for grants from the Government and are taken over by the Government after a short period. So opening of institutions, relationship of the Government with the private management, grant-in-aid rules, taking over the management of private institutions and terms and conditions of such taking over have been influenced by political considerations. For instance, the Government of Orissa appointed Prof. B. C. Das, Committee in 1978 to advise the Government on opening of new Colleges. But before the Committee submitted its report, the Government recognised some new Colleges without consulting the Committee. The rapid expansion facilities during the recent years has also strained the resources of existing institutions. This expansion has resulted in bringing in a mismatch between the need and supply. Moreover, poor implementation of some schemes of education has been responsible to a large extent for considerable waste of efforts and resources.

One specific aim of education is to develop effective qualities, especially in an individuals relationship with others. Systematic training helps the people to learn to communicate with each other, to co-operate in common tasks. Education, strengthened by discoveries in the human science, has the responsibility for eliminating mental blocks due to ignorance or traumatic experiences following an insufficient or poorly managed early training.³ So the quality and content of education and the educational pattern, popularly known as

10+2+3, is recognised as the national system of education by the Government of India and by almost all State Governments. It was recommended by the Kothari Commission in 1966. The Kothari Commission has accepted Mahatma Gandhi's concept of basic education as the essence of their proposals and recommended that "these essential principles of basic education should guide and shape the educational system of all levels."⁴ These essential principles underlying basic education were, (i) Productivity, (ii) Correlation of the curriculum with productive activity and the physical and social environment, (iii) intimate contact between the school and the local community. Though education is considered as an agency to promote economic growth, political development, social change and to approach the moving frontiers of modernity, there has not been any improvement in the quality and content of education. Nor there has been appreciable change or proportionate return. There is lack of diversification and lack of modernisation. The teachers are not properly trained and their training is not up-graded for the 10+2+3 pattern. Moreover, the Kothari Commission had recommended that selected institutions should be recognised as "autonomous College" for promoting innovation in curriculum, methods of teaching and evaluation of students. Although many Universities in India have already made provision for recognising such autonomous Colleges, hardly any concrete action has been taken so far in this direction. The inconsistencies in the policy objectives, non-implementation or partial implementation of the objectives due to financial constraints, adhocism in educational policy and planning, and total disregard to the norms for setting up educational institutions have resulted in serious deterioration in quality content.

In ancient times education was easily accessible to all. Both modern and traditional societies have created conditions to enable more people to attend School. The educational authorities usually declare that their ambition is for the School to help equalise opportunity. Equal access to education no doubt is a necessary condition for justice. In order to provide equality of educational opportunity, education is to be carried to the doors of the people. Despite

the rapid strides in the expansion at all levels, there are still wide disparities in the provision of schooling facilities between urban and rural areas and between States and the different parts of the same State in India. The percentage of children going to School in rural areas is still much below than that in the urban areas. In Orissa in spite of the rapid increase in the number of children from Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other backward classes, the percentage of their enrolment remains much below the national average. The problem of enrolling girls and children of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes assumes serious dimensions in most of the States of the country. Besides, much delay has also been made in complying with the constitutional directives which enjoin on the States to "endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of the constitution, free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years." It is often complained that although the country spends about Rs. 1,350 crores a year on education, yet the system benefits the classes and not the masses. About 64 per cent of the total population of the country is still illiterate, while about 25 per cent of the children in the age-group of 6—14 complete primary education and only 7 per cent of the youth in the age-group 15—25 are in Secondary Schools and Colleges⁵. Moreover, when facilities are being provided for adult education, there is no adequate facility of informal education that is necessary for the dropouts. "Equal opportunity for all does not mean nominal equality, the same treatment for everyone, as many still believe today, it means making certain that each individual receives suitable education at a pace and through methods adopted to his particular person".⁶

All education, beginning with family education, has the task of socialising children and adolescents. Man has to become aware of his place in society over and above his role as producer and consumer. He should be made to understand that he can and must play a democratic part in the life of society, that he is able as an individual or as a member of the group to make society better than it is. The child must be offered a vision of the world in

which he has to live so as to enable him to decide on his approach to the future. Educational action to prepare for work and active life should aim, less at training young people to practice a given trade or profession than at equipping them to adopt themselves to variety of jobs, at developing their capacities continuously, in order to keep pace with developing production methods and working conditions. It should help achieve optimum mobility in employment and facilitate conversion from one profession or branch of a profession to another.

A paradoxical situation exists in the educational system. Though statistics indicate that there has been an expansion in educational facilities in the shape of schools (both Primary and Secondary), Colleges and adult education programmes yet the illiteracy rate remains as high as 64 per cent of the total population (1982-83). Moreover, as has been discussed, the percentage of School going children in the age-group of 6—14 and 15—25 are very low and the average could not be more than 15 to 20 per cent. Thus the intended objective of rapid spread of education has not had the desired result. For economic development and rapid social progress, the "type and quality of education and training provided", is more important "than the number of persons educated". While the main aim of Secondary Education is to prepare students for the University, the Universities are absolutely dissatisfied with the secondary school students. They are ill-equipped to pursue a course of University Education. Moreover, the training that is received in the Secondary School, College and University does not qualify him for any employment. As a result the objective of social mobility has not been possible in the rural and backward areas, especially among the Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribes.

IV

Accelerated planned efforts need continue to be made for achieving the declared goals. The plan becomes a strong focus of intense activity in shaping the prosperity by all sections of the people through intelligent planning, careful formulation of goals

and policies, assignment of priorities in the execution of plans and programmes. But the goals and objectives have not yet been fulfilled because, firstly, the policies have not been properly implemented by the administration. There has not been any structural change in the administrative set up of education. The Kothari Commission (1964—66) aimed at an entire over-haul of the existing set up of education. But its recommendations could not be implemented. Education was a state subject and secondly, the required funds were not available. The Commission felt that the educational administration had not received the attention it deserved. There was need for introduction of a comprehensive and integrated system of educational planning at the district, State and national levels. Modern management techniques had to be introduced to make educational administration effective.⁷ To reach the goal of plans the task can be tackled not through a bunch of isolated schemes or half-hearted proposals, but through a series of interwoven, well thought out, well-co-ordinated programmes which are vigorously implemented at all the levels in the field.

Secondly, there is lack of orientation programmes and of incentives. The educational administrators as well as the teachers are not properly trained and do not have the drive and incentive for the implementation of progressive policies. Thirdly, the value system has not changed yet. Education as a massive input for social and economic development has not adequately been perceived. Fourthly, there is a divergent gap between educational planning and economic planning. Education should help the economic development by the modernisation of agriculture and rapid industrialisation. But we have failed to relate education to productivity by progress of science education, work experience and functionalisation of education. As a result there has been a rapid increase in the academic type of education leading to continuous increase in the educated unemployed persons which has contributed greatly to frustration and violence. While some sections have become affluent, the majority of the citizens in the urban and rural areas continue to be poor and lead a miserable existence without basic amenities of life.

Moreover, educational supervision is inadequate. In Orissa, only 15 Inspectors are responsible for supervision and administration of 2,167 High Schools, and for overall administration of 6,507 Middle Schools and 32,103 Primary Schools.⁸ Above all, sufficient fund is not available for the successful implementation of the plans and policies to reach the goal.

The educational process is designed on political considerations. Political parties differ widely in their approach to education and the social change that education should bring about. Every government creates a set of educational structures according to its requirements and policy in each state. Politics has constantly utilised education as a tool to achieve its purpose.

In this back drop it can be said that education in the process has become counterproductive.

The history of Indian education is picture of both light and shade, of some outstanding achievements along with many outstanding failures. But education reproduces and renews itself. It is normal for the educational system to be given a job of handling down traditional values. The system looks inward and backward. This view point helps to consolidate existing structures and to form living in society as it is. So education by nature is conservative. But the role which education is called to play depends on the kind of choice and consensus, which may turn it towards the past or the future, towards strophy or development, towards a search for false security by resisting change or towards the discovery of true society by taking part in progress.

V

In the educational process the store of knowledge and tradition are handed down from the teacher to the pupil. The teacher-pupil relationship is the cornerstone of the edifice of traditional education. But the authoritarian teacher-pupil relationship becomes a dominator and dominated relationship. The teacher is the senior Scholar and the student is the junior Scholar. The teacher's duty is to inculcate knowledge as well as to encourage. He has to ignite the fire that is burning within.

He has to inspire. He has to be and adviser, and a partner to talk to. He has to devote more time and energy to productive and creative activities: interaction, discussion, understanding and encouragement. "The student's minds have to be developed in such a manner as to help them integrate their beliefs, their citizenship concepts, their social responsibilities and their future avocation".⁹ But, in the present state of affairs lack of communication between the student community and teachers is one of the causes of students' unrest. Senior people in the teaching profession are worried about the way in which model teachers are fast disappearing. They feel that most students are looking for models but by the time they finish their undergraduate studies they are thoroughly disillusioned and came out of Colleges as hard-bitten cynical people. This group of teachers blames unionism among both teachers and students as one the main causes of malady now affecting education.¹⁰

VI

Therefore, the teachers and educational administrators, right from Primary to University level, must be conscious of the new challenges facing the society and look upon their work from a broader national outlook than what they actually have. There is need for a fresh look and a re-orientation of the traditional strategy, approaches and priorities in some key sectors of education so that the spread of education as well as improvement of quality and relevance can be progressively ensured.

What the system needs, therefore, is a drastic overhaul: a transformation of its character, through the introduction of a modern scientific outlook and other essential aspirations; a substantial improvement of standards; an extension of its coverages. So that the education of the people becomes, not a peripheral pursuit, but a central objective.

The most urgent and significant reform needed is to transform the value system, the basic structure and processes of educational system, to make it flexible and dynamic; and to move in the ultimate direction of providing opportunities for life long learning to every individual.

The standards of education need to be defined in the wider sense of the all-sided development of the personality of the individual and his commitment to social objectives; and these would have to be substantially improved and continually raised to suit the changing needs of the country. The maintenance and improvements of standards would need physical needs, such as good teachers, better learning tools and facilities. But they depend more basically on discovery and cultivation of talent and the creation of a climate of dedicated hard work on all educational institutions.

To improve the coverage of the educational system, the Adult Education programme should strive to make all adults (Particularly in the age-group 21—35) functionally literate and lay the greatest emphasis on the non-formal education of youth (age-group 15—21). A massive programme of motivating adults and enthusing and training voluntary workers and institutions will have to be developed for the purpose.¹¹ Moreover, high priority should be given to universal elementary education, special facilities for post-elementary education. As secondary education has remained as the weakest link, the situation calls for immediate and vigorous remedial action. There should also be proper development of higher education and research. A selective approach, proper planning and concentration of resources are essential to achieve good results.

To facilitate this transformation in a constructive and revolutionary manner, the International Commission on the Development of Education exhorts Governments to undertake three major tasks; (i) Government should initiate a fundamental reshaping of national educational systems and participate in a global diagnosis of the education and training systems, (ii) National authorities should undertake a deeper scrutiny and understanding of the educational life of their societies and probe for beyond the previous trends of being concerned with quantitative and qualitative aspects of education, (iii) National authorities should reshape their educational system on two parallel lines: (a) internal reforms and continued improve-

ment of existing educational systems, and (b) search for innovative forms, for alternatives and fresh resources.¹²

The task of educational reconstruction and planning in future is for more complex and difficult than what it was in the past. In the words of Dr. Kothari, "in the rapidly changing world of today, one thing is certain: yesterday's educational system will not meet today's, and even less so, the need of to-morrow". The task of educational reconstruction requires an intensive, Co-ordinated and collaborative effort on the part of all agencies involved, viz; the centre the state, public Press teachers, students, and administrators. If all these agencies work together for bringing about an educational and social transformation on a scale commensurate with the size and complexity of our problems, then we shall soon be able to create a new educational system and a new society.

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Poison in Human Food

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XX

Food is undoubtedly an inevitable ingredient for life. But "We eat to live or live to eat" is an enigma for all. Well, whatever we, the human beings do is being performed only for the sake of our stomach. It is well known from the past way of living of our ancestors that raw plant and animal materials were the sources of life. But now-a-days human beings used to take the food materials either proceeded or treated with some preservatives, dyes, flavours and additives of many a sort in this modern scientific age. It is, in fact, a matter of regret that in the name of civilization, culture and aristocracy we are going to bury ourselves by all these poison inducement. We are all on forward march ignoring and neglecting the inference of our experiment on varieties of innovation on food being complexed by treated chemicals. Let us visualize our progressive food steps in daily consumable food material.

Various types of sweets (Rasgolla, Sandesh, etc.) are added with rhodamine B, malachite green, copper sulphate, congo red, citrus red II dyes. Interestingly enough, these colours attract the human beings to take as food. But instead of any nutritive value, those are harmful for the body. Of course, these colouring agents mask the defects in food material causing an optical illusion not only in children but also highly educated people.

Besides all these, cold drinks that are used mostly in summer are also stained by different kinds of agents from bottle

green to chrome yellow, from brick red to orange. Alongwith that artificial flavours are another group of additive for a sweet fragrance. These agents are common in ice-creams, puddings, toffees and chocolates.

Apart from the prepared food materials, various vegetables are also dyed by colouring agents to display a fresh morphological look. Vegetables like brinjals, lady fingers, green peepers, etc. are included in this chemical treated groups. Even potatoes are usually subjected by ruddy brown colour.

The popular, common and cheapest colouring agent is the metanil yellow which is a coal-tar product. This dye is easily soluble in water and easily available in the market. Pulses (Varieties of yellow coloured dals) halwa, turmeric (powder or pieces), spice powders, besan (flour of dal) and food products like barfi, jalebi, cakes and sweets are usually added with this yellow colouring agents, although it has strictly been banned since 1968 after Food Adulteration Act. Sunset yellow is another azodye which is used in beverages, barfis, ice-creams, candies, confectionery and snacks. Other dyes like F. D. & C., Red 3 which are commonly called Exthrocin are used in above substances.

Now urban people are very much crazy for polished rice (rice free from the red coat). Taking this opportunte of the customers, business men add dusting powder or talc and asbestos powder. Talc is hydrated magnesium silicate by chemical

nature and some commercial powders are contaminated with asbestos which is also silicate. This is absolutely harmful for the body.

Let us see the fate of our delicate food like jelly jam, various types of canning foods, pickles, etc. All these food stuffs are treated by preservatives like vinegar to store the food material for a longer period. This addition in one hand saves from unnecessary spoilage or decomposition but on the other hand causes physical abnormality. So these food materials should be completely avoided.

Lastly comes our agricultural products. As crops are affected by various insects and other pests. Cultivators use pesticides, insecticide, rodenticides, herbicides fungicides (Chemicals to kill the pests) in the field. DDT (Dichlorodiphenyl trichloro ethane) BHC (Benzene hexachloride), Malathion, Fenitrothion, Eldrin, Dieldrin, Methacrifos and various other agents are commonly sprayed either in liquid form or in dust form. By some means or other these chemicals come to our digestive tract and damage our body parts. It can also be noted that it is impossible to remove these insecticides absolutely from the crops. Moreover DDT and Gamaxene are mixed in black grams (Biri), horse gram (Kolatha), dals and other pulses to preserve them from the insects. Rather this becomes harmful for human body, although a

blessing for a short period as preservation. DDT is such a potent chemical that has an interesting habit of accumulation in the body fat of people and it cannot at all be degraded. Therefore, it is a dreadful poison that is still used by human beings which should be banned completely.

The effect of these food additive is significantly speculative. The cumulative effects have been indigestion, anemia, pathological lesions in the vital organs of the body (kidney, liver and testes), brain cancer, paralysis, deformed body, stunted growth, abnormal development of the foetus and mentally retarded children. These chemicals destroy valuable vitamins, minerals, enzymes and mar the natural properties of the food.

According to the Food Adulteration Act 1954, although these additives are strictly prohibited in pen and paper but still then, business men are using in the hope of high profit. Statistics of Industrial Toxicology Research Centre (ITRC), Lucknow, the described food treating agents are highly toxic causing several types of Physical deformities. So the businessmen are not only cheating the consumers in person but the human society or generation as a whole. Since prevention is better than cure, we all should be cautious for all these consumable poisonous thing for our bright future, peaceful and smooth forthcoming generations.

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MINIMUM PRICES OF KENDU LEAVES DURING THE YEAR 1985

In pursuance of sub-section (1) of section 4 of the Orissa Kendu Leaves (Control of Trade) Act, 1961 (Orissa Act 28 of 1961) the State Government after consultation with the Advisory Committee do hereby fix the following minimum prices at which Kendu Leaves shall be purchased by them or by any of their authorised officers in all units of this State during the year 1985. 12 (twelve) green leaves in a kerry (including two cover leaves) fit for manufacture of Bidis per two paise from pluckers. A minimum of Rs. 150 (Rupees one hundred and fifty) only per quintal of processed dry leaves from growers subject to the condition that the growers supplying the dry leaves get the leaves processed at the places fixed by the Forest Department.

sistence level of economy. The present paper, because of limited space and scope, delineates anthropological approaches to the problem among a few major tribes like the Hill Kharia, the Bhuiyan, the Juang of North Orissa and the Koya, the Kondh, the Saora of South Orissa, in order to produce a general and comprehensive picture of tribal Orissa.

Food Fads and Cultural Taboos

The tribal societies have their respective indigenous types of preferences and prohibitions or taboos for a variety of food materials. According to environmental suitability or local availability, the culture sanctions the varieties of choices in the food system of a particular group.

The Hill Kharia food system is greatly determined by their gathering economy. Most of them live in the deep woods of Similipal Hills for better collection of forest products. Although a negligible part of their community have migrated to the plains, they still consider gathering as one of the important economic pursuits for which they still keep on visiting the foothill-forests. The main items in their collection include honey, arrow-root and sal-resin in large scale which they sell for cash. They also continue honey and arrow-root as food materials. Besides all these, they also collect a large variety of edible leaves, fruits, mush-rooms, tubers, nuts, berries, etc., for their daily diet. They collect and take 12 varieties of mush-rooms from the forest which are considered as non-food by the local caste people. They also collect 10 types of edible fruits and 9 varieties of berries throughout the year for utilizing them as food while moving in the forest. Apart from the above collections, the Hill Kharias depend upon 13 varieties of roots and tubers which form major items in their daily diet for most part of the year. They can subsist only on the roots and tubers for the whole year without even taking rice, while the neighbouring Santals and caste people consider these roots and tubers as non-food. The land-owning hill Kharias in the plains grow common vegetables, pulses like red-gram and millets like maize. For the daily requirement, the Hill Kharias collect 10 varieties of wild greens from the stream

sides. Hill Kharias do not like hunting but found engaged in catching fish from the forest lagoons and ditches. In addition to the honey, they are also very fond of taking larva of honey bees and other bees like the wasp, which they think very delicious. Like most other tribes of Orissa, Hill Kharias collect Mahua flower from the forest to prepare a kind of cake out of it. But surprisingly they do not prepare liquor out of it. Drinking is not customary among the Hill Kharia. It is socially prohibited showing a hinduised trait. The hill Kharias, being hinduised, never take beef or buffalo meat which are strictly considered as taboos in their society.

The Hill Bhuiyan and the Juang of Orissa resemble each other in respect of a large variety of edible forest collections. Unlike the Hill Kharias, they are shifting cultivators. They also do cultivation in the plains. The Bhuiyans collect about 11 varieties of wild fruits, 7 varieties of roots and tubers to supplement their staple food, i.e., rice. They also collect about 9 types of wild greens and a few varieties of nuts and berries. Both the tribes grow a number of crops like toxic 'dhunk', beans, castor, tubers, grams and millets from the swidden plots. As these people engage cows in the plains land cultivation, they do not milk them. Chicken and mutton are usually taken during festive occasions. Formerly, Juangs were taking beef occasionally, which has been declined at present. The Juangs and Bhuiyans often collect jungle fowls, pea fowls, bats and other birds as well as their eggs for consumption. The hill Bhuiyans often kill blue cows (Nilgai) and take their meat which is not taken as a demeaning practice equivalent to beef. The Juangs are also fond of hunting big games like Sambar, boar, deer etc. for their meat. But to catch or kill the pigeon is tabooed. Like the Hill Kharias, hill Bhuiyans also fish in the streams by using poisonous fruits in the water. But unlike hill Kharias, the Juangs and the Bhuiyans take rice as their staple food throughout the year and prepare 'handia' or country liquor out of it for festive occasions.

Kutia-Kondhs in North Orissa are also shifting cultivators. During rainy seasons, they mostly depend upon wild fruits, greens, roots and tubers. Like other tribes, Kutia-

Kondhs very often collect tender shoots of the bamboo, locally known as 'Karadi' from the forest and prepare a curry out of it. They also grow maize, country bean, and other common vegetables for daily consumption. They sometimes prepare mango juice ('saladka' in their term) and prepare a type of gruel from the kernel of the mango stone. Kutia-Kondhs are fond of hunting and like pork very much. As the meat of the monkeys and the intestine of the pig are taboo for them, they give them to local 'panas' in exchange of common salt. Regarding the drinks, Kutia-Kondhs prepare rice beer and collect 'salab' (a kind of palm juice) juice from the salap tree grown in their kitchen garden.

Being the shifting cultivators, most of the Saoras possess swidden plots and grow 8 varieties of cereals, 8 varieties of pulses, 17 varieties of rootcrops and common vegetables in the swidden. In some villages, Saoras also grow pine-apples, Oranges, lemons, mangoes, banana, guava, papeya etc. in the swidden plots. Thus, they have been able to convert their age-old swidden land into fruit-orchards. Their staple diet is rice. Although they grow a number of edible crops, and fruits, they also collect tubers, roots, greens etc, for consumption. They organise, during festive occasions, hunting expeditions for meat. Their food pattern is almost similar to that of other neighbouring tribes like the Kondh, the Paraja etc.

The intake of food in these under developed areas is mostly determined by the local availability of resources. Usually they neglect the proper consideration to food values in different edible items. We can say that due to ignorance and scarcity of food materials they fail to consider the nutritive value in food. In their indigenous conception, the tasty, delicious and flavoured food materials are considered as nutritious food. In Hill Kharia diet pattern, tubers form the major food materials during most part of the year. As they believe, tubers give them energy for physical labour. They also take honey in the forest for getting strength and for being relieved from the frequent attack of hunger and disease. Similarly for the neighbouring Santals, 'Snails' are most delicious, although it is a taboo for most others. Except these few exceptional cases,

in most of the common cases it is astonishingly found that tribals hold up their socio-cultural taboos in spite of their starvations. In case of the hill Kharia gatherers, they collect newly grown fruits tubers etc. only after the new-food-taking ceremony is observed in the month of January, even though they starve and suffer. The Saora, the Koya and the Juang also observe similar ceremonies for the newly harvested paddy and other crops in their land as well as fruits like mango in the forest. Among the hill Kharia the meat of the sacrificed animal in any ritual is forbidden for the pregnant women and her husband. During birth, menstruation and death pollutions also meat taking is prohibited. The Kutia-Kondhs have a different kind of taboo. After the communal hunting, the head, hind-legs and liver portions of the game which are offered to the forest deity, are strictly tabooed for the females. Pork, which is considered as delicious as well as nutritious for the Santals and some other tribals, is a taboo for all the Kutia females irrespective of age.

The egg, which is highly enriched with protein, to our utter surprise, is considered as taboo for all females in the tribal societies. Among the Koya, hen's egg is culturally prohibited both for males and females. More strikingly, it is found that milk, a highly nutritious food as well as drink, has no place and consideration in the tribal societies. Because of a strong superstition, the Santals do not milk the cows. They usually plough with the cows and believe that milking the cows may cause the death of both the cow and calf by the devil. Tribes like the Kutia-Kondh, the Koya and the Juang do not milk their cows only because of the reason that they used them in ploughing. Milking is not at all a taboo in these societies.

Privation and Plenty

Besides the primitive technology and inadequate amount of cultivable land as well as lack of knowledge about modern agriculture which have greatly affected the productivity, there are socio-cultural reasons responsible for causing food privation. During the harvesting period, when the tribals have plenty of food materials, they

observe a number of rituals and festivals like 'Makar Parab', 'Magh-Parab', 'Nuakhia', etc. from December to February. Moreover this is the most suitable period for the marriage ceremonies among the tribals of Orissa. Thus, they spend a lot of food-grains in various religious ceremonies, marriage feasts and the payment of bride-price, and ultimately face the hazards of scarcity for the rest part of the year. It is also astonishingly found that some tribals remain idle and feel reluctant to go for earning, if they have food for even one day in reserve.

Looking into the various tribal areas in Orissa, seasonal variation of locally available food materials in these areas is found to reveal more or less a common picture. During winter, because of agricultural harvest, people take sumptuously. But during Summer season there is steady decline in the quantity of the consumed food materials. Various cereals, millets are usually consumed from the reserve stock. As this season is not suitable for vegetable cultivation as well as for the availability of wild fruits, roots, and tuber, the poor tribal people usually suffer a lot. Again during the Rainy season, the quantity of consumption increase. Varieties of fruits, roots, tubers and greens are available in the forest and because of agricultural operations in progress, the tribals find proper engagements in order to earn cash.

Mal-Nutrition

Mal-nutrition has greatly affected the general physique of the tribals. With the below subsistence level of economy, some tribals under discussion have to subsist on wild roots and tubers for some part of the year which is one of the causes of acute infection of diseases resulted from malnutrition. Malnutrition seriously affects the health of the tribal children, which has increased the child mortality rate. Very often it reduces the working capacity of the adults and becomes responsible for the retarded physical growth as well as impoverished mental development.

Some times indigenous method of storage causes food grains to become more prone to harmful insects and rodents which shows a physical wastage unnecessarily. Under

cultural factors, belief system attached with the milk, egg and meat stands as one of the reasons for mal-nutrition for the children as well as pregnant females. On the other hand, the ignorance of the nutritional needs for the children as well as adults stands as the major cause behind the scene.

Alcoholism can also be taken as a common cause of malnutrition, because of the fact that money is usually spent on alcohol rather than proper nutritious food. Poverty stands as another cause for these tribals who cannot afford to buy or produce adequate food materials for themselves. The Hill kharias because of their gathering economy, usually subsist on roots and tubers for most part of the year and therefore, cannot purchase enough rice for the annual consumption. Other tribes those who grow cereals, pulses, fruits and vegetables, although supplement their daily diet comparatively better, their diet still remains below the normal caloric requirements necessary for a healthy human being.

Conclusion

Tribal people have their own way of perceiving the food productivity, privation and nutrition. Along with a simple technology, they conduct rituals, sacrifices and worship for ensuring better yield every year. There are also socio-cultural barriers opposing the implementation of modern agricultural operations in most of the tribal societies. Again ignorance has enhanced their negative attitude towards modern systems. Moreover, with scarce resources and least protective measures, they are seriously affected by the famine and drought. With primitive technology, whatever they grow in the land, very often those are destroyed by the wild animals. In addition to these socio-cultural and natural factors, some times they are also victim to the exploitation of the local dominant people and money-lenders, which makes the problem of food more acute. Being led by cultural beliefs, they neglect some of the nutritious food items like milk, meat of some wild as well as domestic animals and egg which are readily available in the locality and useful for the needy persons like the sick, pregnant women, infants and hard working men. Due to want of alternative

food items for the infants, they are bound to feed them mother's milk, which is definitely highly nutritious for the infants. Although this is quite praise-worthy in tribal societies, it is regretted that they are not consciously doing it, rather most of the time they are compelled to do so. Therefore,

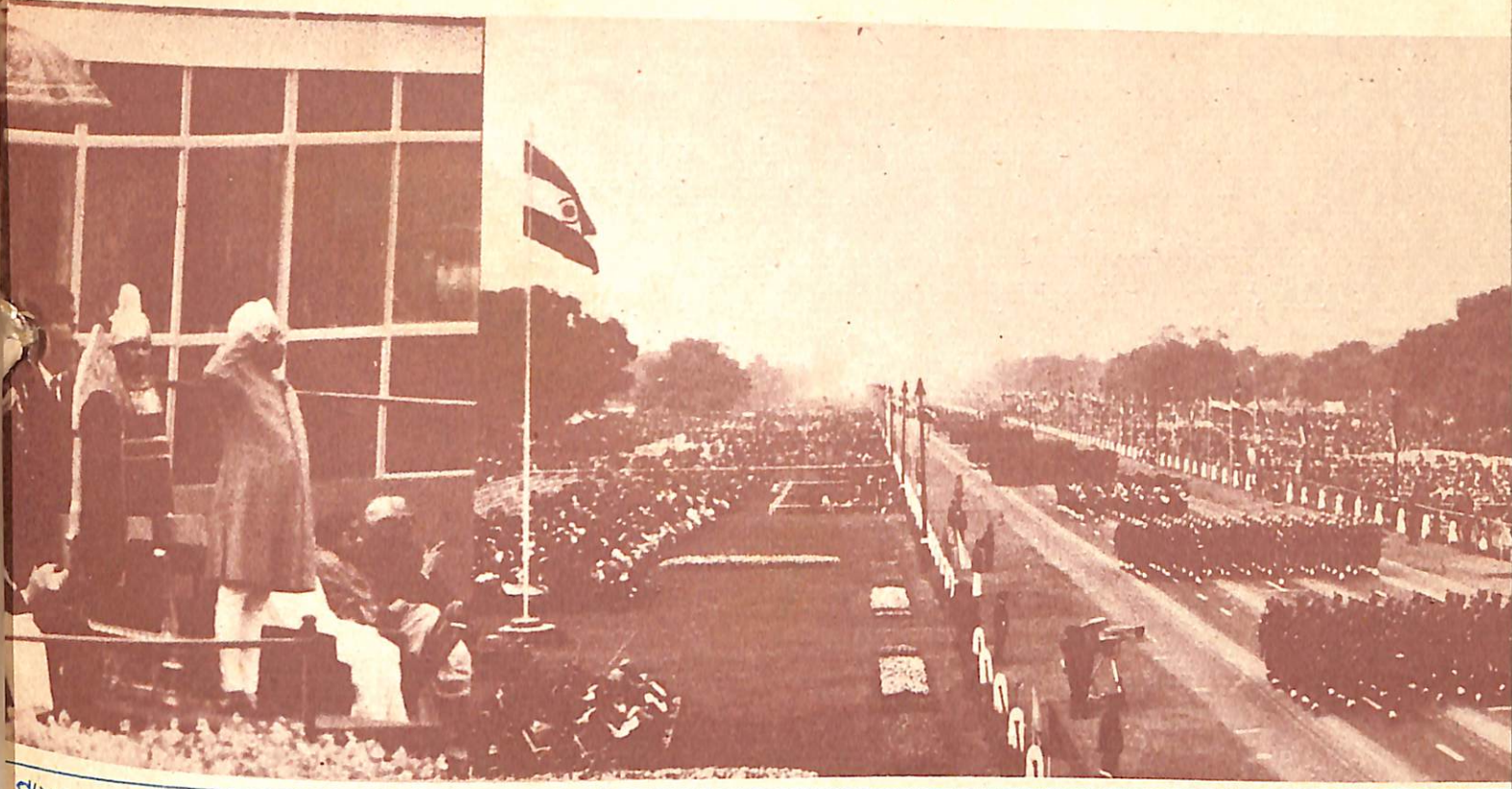
under such circumstances, the tribals instead of being directly supplied with the food-grains and powder milk, they must be properly educated regarding the food and nutrition, so that, they can readily accept the welfare programmes with full understanding and consciousness.

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PRESERVATION OF SHREE JAGANNATH TEMPLE

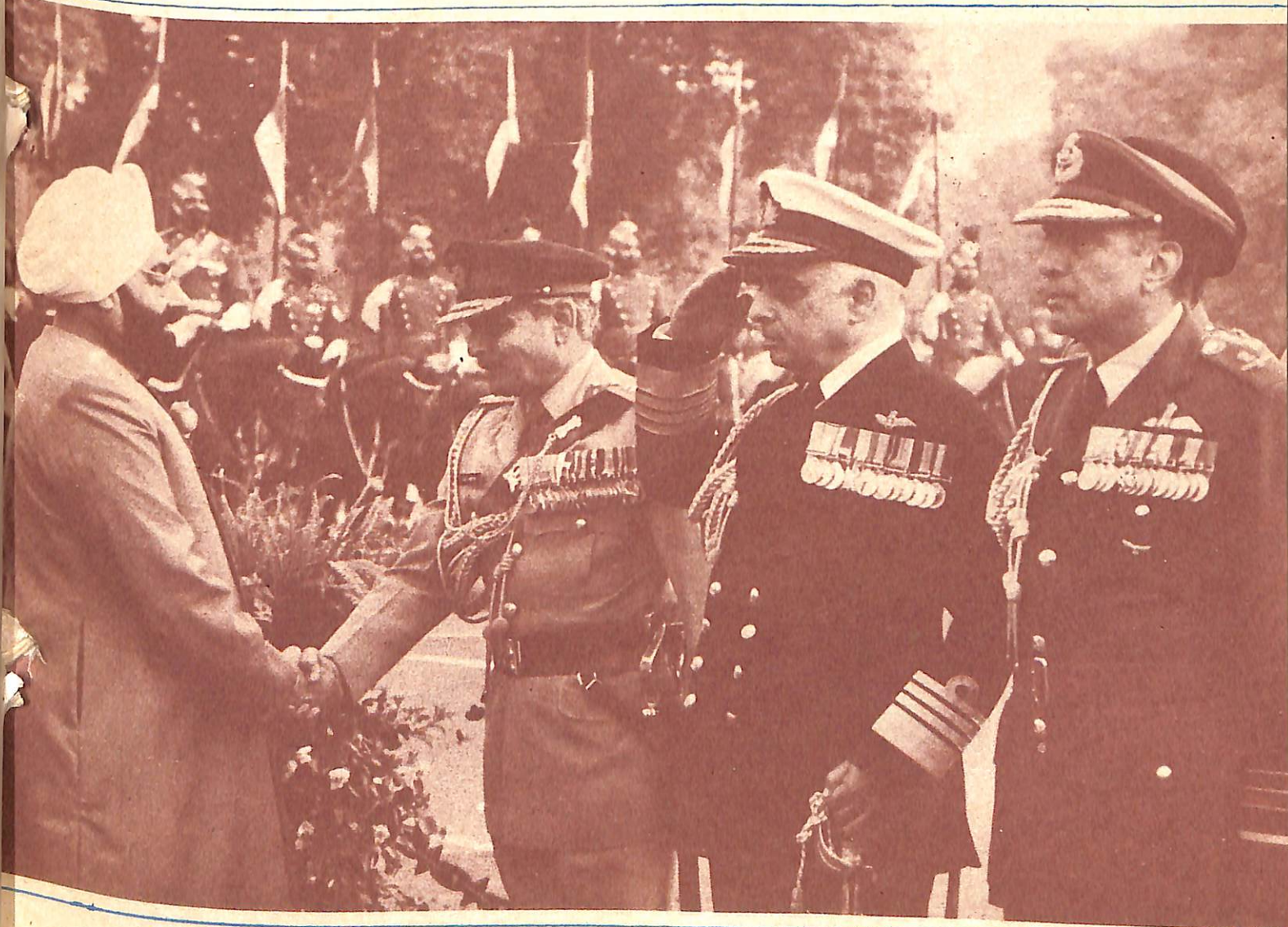
The Fifth meeting of the Expert Committee for the preservation of the Shree Jagannath Temple, Puri was held on February 4, 1985 at Puri under the Chairmanship of Dr. M. S. Nagaraja Rao, Director General, Archaeological Survey of India. The Expert Committee assessed the preservation work carried out by the Archaeological Survey of India and discussed in detail the measures required for further conservation. In view of the Orissa High Court's decision, the Expert Committee recommended for constitution of a Technical Expert Committee which will examine the question of deplastering of upper portion of the temple and make their recommendations for necessary action. Considering the religious as well as architectural importance of this temple, the Committee recommended holding of photographic exhibition on the works already executed by the Archaeological Survey of India in co-ordination with the State Archaeology. The Committee further desired that the already constituted Sub-Committee should meet every month for better co-ordination and communication between the Archaeological Survey of India and the temple administration.

For preservation of the architectural effect and embellishment on the exterior walls of the temple, the Expert Committee suggested in its earlier meeting for deplastering and strengthening of the structure. The Archaeological Survey of India undertook removal of limemortar plaster, filling up of the cracks and replacement of fragmented stones with new stone blocks.



ସାଧାରଣତନ୍ତ୍ର ଦିବସରେ ସମ୍ବୁଦ୍ଧଙ୍କ ଅଭିବାଦନ ପ୍ରଦାନ (ନୂଆଦିଲ୍ଲୀ)

REPUBLIC DAY PARADE IN NEW DELHI - 1985



ଡିମ୍ବ ସେନା ବାପୁଜୀ ସୂଚୀଙ୍କ ସହ ସମ୍ବୁଦ୍ଧ । PRESIDENT WITH CHIEF OF THE ARMY STAFF, NAVAL STAFF & AIR STAFF — REPUBLIC DAY - 1985



ରାଷ୍ଟ୍ରପତିଙ୍କ ସହ ଜାତୀୟ ସାହାସିକତା ପୁରସ୍କାର ବିଜେତା ବର୍ଗ - ୧୯୮୪.
PRESIDENT WITH THE RESIPIENTS OF. NATIONAL BRAVERY AWARDS - 1984.