

**UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME AND
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT : A CASE STUDY OF INDIA**

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DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation entitled, “United Nations Development Programme and Human Development : A Case Study of India” submitted by me for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy of Jawaharlal Nehru University is my own work. The dissertation has not been submitted for any other degree of this university or any other university.

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Dedicated to
Maa and Babuji

Contents

<i>Acknowledgements</i>	<i>i</i>
Introductory Notes	1-4
I. UNDP and Its Development Activities	5-29
Initial UN Activities	
UNDP and Its Activities	
UNDP and Human Development	
Summary Observation	
II. Conceptualization of Human development	30-61
Concept of Human Development	
Distinction Between Human Development and Other Approaches	
Components of Human Development	
Human Development Report and Human Development Index	
Critical Analysis of Human Development	
III. India and Social Development	62-93
Indian Concept of Social Development	
Constitutional Provisions for Social Development	
Economic Development	
Social Development	
Similarities and Differences between Social Development and Human Development	
IV. UNDP's Activities in India (1990-2000)	94-122
Overview of UNDPs Activities till 1989	
UNDPs Activities 1990-2000	
Critical Analysis of UNDPs Programme	
V. Conclusion	123-132
General References	133-142

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

The United Nations' primary objective is to maintain international peace and security. However, lasting peace and security could be achieved by creating conditions of stability and well-being, which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations. With the intention to create those conditions, the UN Charter enjoins the world body to achieve international cooperation in solving international economic and social problem and to promote higher standard of living, full employment, conditions for economic and social progress and development. Since its inception, the United Nations emerged as the common platform between developed and developing countries to further the development activities. The United Nations started the development programme just after its establishment in the form of technical assistance which was later supported by the Special Fund to provide financial assistance in order to make the technical assistance more effective and conducive for the developing countries. Technical assistance was sought to educate the working masses in developing countries to make them capable in handling the machines. The effort was to make them competent enough with regard to self-sufficiency and self-development.

External assistance was expected to work as complementary to the national development. It was soon realized that massive capital transfer from developed countries to developing countries was not possible because of the negative attitude of developed countries, only marginal help was extended in infrastructure building for industrial development, agricultural development for increasing food crops production in order to solve the problem of hunger and starvation. The United Nations became the basic instrument and common platform between developed and developing countries to further the development activities based on modern scientific technology. The 'consensus', regarding the development approach, emerged after a study done by a group of five experts under the auspices of the United Nations in 1949 (published in

1950), suggested that the development is an endogenous process which has to be carried out by the country itself.

The 'consensus' among the member countries was highly influenced by the modernization theory or economic growth theory that advocated attitudinal change at domestic level and adaptation of policies related to rapid economic growth and development. The developing countries followed the consensus policy wholeheartedly, but soon realized that those policies did not deliver expected good in terms of reducing poverty and employment generation. The experience and the events forced developing countries put forth their demands as a three-pronged institutional arrangement- availability of capital formation, transfer of technology and equitable trade relations. By the early 1960s the influx of newly independent nations had encouraged them to adopt more assertive posture in the General Assembly. Because of the bipolarization of international politics and intense Cold War situation between Eastern and Western blocs, both the sides tried to woo the developing countries to their sides. To please the developing countries, they established new institutions for achieving development objectives. Thus the UN institutions got proliferated but amounting to no substantial change in the existing economic system. In the decade of mid 1960s United Nations clubbed two programmes together with a view to make the ongoing development activities more concerted in operational sense and better utilization of available resources in accordance with national programmes of development. This merger of UN programmes: the Expanded Programme for Technical Assistance, and the Special Fund, gave birth to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) which has been carrying development activities in developing countries, particularly the technical assistance continuously, even today.

This study attempts to examine the various theoretical approaches which influence development activities of the United Nations since its inception. How the earlier approaches differ from that the human development approach? What are its unique characteristics? How did the human development approach influence the UNDP to reorient its policies and programmes? What are the purposes of bringing out Human

Development Report annually? How is Human Development Index differ from that of GNP as yardstick for measurement of development? What motivated the Government of India to carry out social development in India? How is social development approach differ from that of human development approach? What are the different projects and programmes of the UNDP through which it tries to promote human development in India? What are impact of its efforts on the human development of India? These and related questions are the subject of this study.

This dissertation is an attempt to make a comprehensive study about the development activities of the United Nations in general and the United Nations Development Programmes in particular. The different theoretical approaches related to development and their impact over the programmes and performance of the UNDP has been systematically brought out in the course of discussion in the study.

The study starts with historical background of the United Nations development activities and various theoretical approaches underpinning those activities. It highlights the formation, structure and functions of the UNDP as nodal UN agent to implement UN policies and programmes regarding the development. It highlights under what circumstances the human development approach gained ground in influencing UNDP's development activities.

In the next chapter 'the Concept of Human Development' has been clarified and elaborated on. The distinction between human development and other approaches have been brought and highlighted the uniqueness of the human development approach. It discusses about the components of human development and also human development index and brought out the main highlights of Human Development Report from 1990 to 2000. It ends with critiques of various aspects of human development.

The third chapter deals with the concept of social development, especially in the context of India and then it deals with Indian Constitutional provisions of social

development and how social development has been included in government policies and programmes; highlights the success and failures of these policies and programmes in reality. It ends with drawing major similarities and differences between human development and India concept of social development.

The fourth chapter starts with brief overall view of UNDP activities up till 1989, its major achievements and challenges. Then it seeks to look at UNDPs activities throughout 1990s in India, the total budget for programmes taken out by it, location in different parts of India, the effectiveness of programmes and their implementation. The chapter concludes with evaluative general assessment of the programmes with special reference to their contribution to human development in India.

The last chapter concludes with summarization of the major findings of study.

This dissertation seeks to adopt both descriptive and analytical methods. It also seeks to do a case study within fixed time frame of 1990 to 2000. The sources of materials used are of primary sources of UN documents and reports and also Government of India documents. The secondary sources of both, articles in books and journals are used. Website articles are also used.

The new citation and reference style according to the new research manual of School of International Studies are used here in the dissertation.

Chapter - I

UNDP AND ITS DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

The full development of human being as the end of all our activities was a recurring theme in the writings of most philosophers and political economists as Karl Marx, Adam Smith, John Maynard Keynes and currently Amartya Sen and Mahbub ul Haq. Aristotle (384-322 B.C) argued that “wealth is evidently not the good we are seeking, for it is merely useful and for the sake of something else.” Aristotle established distinction between good and bad political arrangement, which finally ends in success or failure in achieving flourishing public lives. Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) continued the tradition of treating human beings as the real end of all activities when he observed: “So act as to treat humanity, whether in their own person or in that of any other, in every case as an end withal, never as means only.” Robert Malthus, Karl Marx, and John Stuart Mills who considered that economic development must be associated with the comfort of masses (Haq, 2000, p.13). The founders of the economic thought never forgot that the real objective of development was to benefit people and wealth creation was only a means. In classical economic literatures, society was given prominent place along with the economy. However, after the Second World War economic growth model and national income account became the vital component of development, thereby making *only* economy the prime area of concern. Development was being measured and priced without considering the actual benefit to the main agent, the people (Haq, 2000, pp.24-25).

Since the Second World War, independent Asian and African countries also perceived development in terms of economic development. Economic growth and economic development became synonymous to each other and most of the policy makers in Asia and Africa were under the impression that the increase in per capita domestic growth or per capita national growth would bring about economic development (Bhowmik, 2002, p.149). The kind of development most of the western countries, particularly United States of America and other West European Countries, had attained, not only

in the field of industries but also in their social set-up, with increased literacy, employment and economic betterment based on modern technology and thinking by the beginning of 20th century, emerged as a strong development paradigm for the rest of the countries (Riggs and Plano, 1988, p.303).

This chapter seeks to trace the various phases of issue of development handled by the United Nations and highlight the kind of theoretical approaches which influence these phases. It also deals with various events leading to the establishment of United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). It also deals with the major activities of the UNDP and how it has been carrying out the development projects and programmes as the main body in coordinating with other United Nations Specialized Agencies. The chapter takes into account the changing global economic and political situations and its possible impact on the functioning of UNDP and its feasible adaptation time to time, in accordance with changed situations in order to achieve its purposes and goals. It touches upon an alternative approach i.e., human development, which emerged as the dominating approach in the early 1990s. The chapter concludes with the analysis of whether various theoretical underpinnings indicate quantum jump or continuity.

Initial UN Activities

Article 55 of the United Nations charter says, “With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of people, the United Nations shall promote: higher standard of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development; solutions of international economic, social health, and related problems; and international cultural and educational cooperation; and universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms of all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.” (United Nations Charter Article 55). International cooperation was the prime requirement to achieve the purpose of the United Nations and its main responsibility lied with member states to take separate and joint action. The framers of the United Nations Charter perceived the role of member state in the Post-Second-World-War milieu in an interdependent international framework and

every (member) country had an obligation to strive for achieving well-being of its people, not only for its own development, but for the well-being of world community in broader term also. The United Nations had to promote international cooperation and harmonize the activities of member states in order to obtain world economic growth and development (Dadzie, 1993, p.297).

A comprehensive United Nations study in 1949, at the start of the modernization campaign, showed that about two-thirds of the world's population produced only one-sixth of the world's income. Great disparities also existed in per capita income. Massive chunks of population were living under absolute poverty condition. Absolute poverty is a term used to describe those who could not earn sufficient enough to spend on his food, clothing and shelter. Most of the states located to the south of most of the developed countries and having tropical climate, high population, poor economy particularly based on agriculture, had a colonial background, traditional society, mass illiteracy, and political instability (Riggs and Plano, 1988, pp.303-306). However, at the initial stage of UN existence, systematic thinking on economic development, especially from the perspective of underdeveloped countries, was still in its infancy. The intellectual landmark of this period was a report prepared under auspices of the United Nations by a group of five scholars (The United Nations, 1950). This report set the stage for United Nations development activity. The main message of the report was that underdeveloped countries should promote progressive attitude and organisation, receptiveness to progressive technology, increased domestic capital formation, and reduced growth of population. Thus, development was essentially a matter for "measures requiring domestic action". It also recognized the need to create necessary preconditions for economic development. It also stated requirement of expanded role for government in the promotion of economic development going beyond the simple provision of physical infrastructure, social services and administration. Thus, initial stage of UN development activities were influenced by the theory of Economic Growth. Professor Arthur Lewis, who was actually a member of the expert group, in his book *The Theory of Economic Growth* (1955), defines the purpose of development as widening the range of human choice and suggested to

promote this objective through economic growth. He gave three justifications in favour of his proposition. First justification assumed that through market force economic growth would spread its benefits widely and speedily as market forces create rising demand for labour, rising productivity, rising wages, lower prices of the goods bought by the people. Second justification assumed that the poor people will be taken care of by the government by levying progressive taxes, providing social services and intervening at other issues. This will ensure the benefit and spread it downwards. The third assumption was that the fate of poor people will be a concern for government at the earlier stage of development. There was an emphasis to build capital, infrastructure, productive capacity of economy at the primary level which will improve the poor later. The process might be quite longer, for the time being poor will have to tighten their belt and rich may thrive (Streeten, 2003, pp.68-69).

Consensus emerged among the official policy-making bodies in a large number of countries as well as in the academic circle on the issue of development of the developing countries. The consensus singled out certain elements of the policy to be pursued in order to obtain development. Those elements were a) The state in the developing countries should play an active role in promoting development, b) Developing countries with their limited savings, arising out of low incomes, must be able to get external capital to either remove or reduce the savings-investment gap, c) Private capital flows did not respond favourably to the needs of developing countries; hence international capital flows must be facilitated by an inter-governmental effort bilaterally as well as multilaterally and these flows must be, to a large extent, concessional, d) Technologically, the developing countries have been at low level and largely dependent on monopolistic and seller's market of technology controlled by multinational corporation. Therefore, it was thought that technology transfer to the developing countries should be provided at easier and cheaper terms. This task should be carried by inter-governmental cooperation at the bilateral and multilateral level and formulate rules and regulations to avoid unnecessary burden to developing countries (Chisti, 1996, pp. 93-94).

The initial stage of UN's involvement with economic development was characterized by the absence of both the developed and developing countries as they were only few in number-as most of the West European countries were under the reconstruction and rehabilitation programme carried out by the United States under Marshal Plan, which later became developed countries as well as majority of developing countries were under colonial yoke which started achieving independence only in the decade of 1960s in big way- and also by the assumption of an essentially foreign external policy environment. Removing poverty and hunger, achieving rapid economic growth and increasing per capita national income so that the standard of living could be raised, was the major challenge before the United Nations. Another challenge was to involve developed and developing countries together in a negotiation regarding seeking the way how to get the things done. The major issue was to bring the developed block in the fold of organisation which they were trying to escape because of some reasons. The developing countries right from the beginning tried hard to engage the United Nations in a meaningful regulative role. The way ahead for developing countries was to involve in a struggle with the developed countries in order to ensure the technology and capital for their economic development. The developing countries sought to institute a United Nations agency to provide inter alia technical and financial assistance to underdeveloped countries or helping to finance plans of economic development which could not be financed from countries' own resources (Saksena, 1996, p.78).

Technical assistance that involves the teaching of skills and new technologies, has been an eternal instrument of any development programme. It is considered to be the least controversial and the easiest and cheapest means among three essential elements of development vis-à-vis technical competence, infrastructure base and development capital. Technical assistance sought by developing countries was based on transfer of technologies, transfer of skills through teaching as well as managerial, educational, administrative and medical training to the underdeveloped regions and countries (Riggs and Plano, 1988, p.331).

Just one year before the establishment of United Nations two international institutions were created: the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), which is popularly known as the World Bank, to play an effective role in the management of world economy. These institutions were under the strong influence of cold war politics and were not universally representative organizations. Moreover, these institutions were lacking the concessional finance, which was the strongest demand of the developing countries. These institutions were also not supportive to the economic policies arrived at by the developing countries under the consensus approach, on the contrary they were propagating and promoting the marketization and roll-back of state. Therefore, United Nations became the center of the hopes and aspirations of a large number of developing countries (Chisti, 1996, p. 95).

On the other hand, the impact of cold war politics was so visible on the functioning of the United Nations that one of its founder and the largest financier, the United States, did not deem it fit to give it priority in international economic relations. The United States found it effective and smooth to put its efforts in the direction of reconstruction of its European allies during the Second World War outside the United Nations framework. Soon after the Second World War, in 1949 United States declared 'Marshal Plan' to reconstruct the war ravaged Western Europe and a network was set up in the form of Organisation of European Economic Cooperation (OEEC). The Soviet Union, the other big ally of U.S.A. of the Second World War, became a bitter opponent and came to represent a rival ideological camp. It emerged as another super power and challenged the very foundation of the United Nations and its organs, particularly the IMF and the World Bank. It did not subscribe to these organizations and founded its organization comprising East European countries (Saksena, 1996, p.77).

The Technical Assistance Programme

The growing influence of the Socialist camp in East Europe and Asia created critical problems for the United States. The reason detected for becoming communist was the

bedrock of poverty in most of the underdeveloped countries. Rapid increase in agricultural production with the help of modern technology was sought to be the most effective and quick result oriented interventions. The United States had already experimented the efficacies of technological intervention in the field of agricultural production, education and medicine in Latin American countries during the Second World War to replete the shortages. The programme was successful enough in which Latin Americans were trained in agriculture, mining, and education to make them doctors, technicians, engineers, agronomists, and public administrators. The programme was terminated after the War, but it became prelude to President Truman's Point Four agenda in 1949. President Harry S Truman in his Congressional speech in 1949 urged the Congressmen to provide technical know-how and financial assistance to underdeveloped countries in order to curb the influence of socialism and to expand its area of influence. In his speech, he referred to his Point Four agenda which consisted of programme, named as Expanded Programmes of Technical Assistance, which was carried out through the United Nations along with Bilateral Technical Cooperation Programme (Riggs and Plano, 1988, pp.331-332).

Though prior to the establishment of EPTA the United Nations, following the experience of the League of Nations (its predecessor), already had two separate Departments for Economic and Social Affairs and the increased pressure of developing countries for technical assistance led to the formation of separate Technical Assistance Administration to handle operations (Martin, 1978, p. 25). The United Nations Technical Assistance Programme to developing countries was initiated in 1948 by earmarking approximately one per cent of the regular United Nations budget, which amounted to roughly \$ 248,000. That was like a drop in ocean. One year later in August 1949 EPTA was introduced to supplement the earlier United Nations Technical Assistance Programme with a budget of \$ 2 million to provide expert advice, training programmes of personnel and technicians in the country concerned and in abroad (Saksena, 1996, p.91).

The EPTA came into being in 1949 based on voluntary contribution of all states - rich or poor, rather than regular budget. The United States shouldered two-third of responsibility in financing the technical assistance projects. The programme had a network of field offices, headed by UN representative in the recipient countries. It consist an overall policymaking body, known as Technical Development Committee (TAC), which was an inter-governmental body. To execute the policy decision taken by TAC was an inter-agency body, called Technical Assistance Board (TAB), which planned and implemented the programme with the help of a network of TAB resident representatives (Kamal, 2002, p.101).

The EPTA incorporated three main forms of assistance: a) providing experts, including some from the underdeveloped countries themselves, to train cadres of technicians, b) awarding fellowships for technical training in advanced countries, and c) supplying limited amount of equipment for training and demonstration purposes. Five specialized agencies apart from the United Nations Organizations constituted the initial participating organizations of the EPTA, which were the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), and the World Health Organization (WHO). Five additional organizations subsequently joined the EPTA programme: the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) in 1951, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) in 1959, the Universal Postal Union (UPU) in 1962, and the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization (now the International Maritime Organization - IMO) in 1964 (Riggs and Plano, 1988, p.332).

At the first conference on contribution, in 1950, \$20 million were pledged, but certain problems cropped up because of the nature of contributions. Since the contribution was voluntary, it was volatile. They were expressed in a number of currencies. Other problems arose in the field of coordination because some of the United Nations agencies which were the partners of Technical Assistance Board (TAB) of EPTA had

been created long before the formation of the EPTA. After five years of its inception it was realized that the manner in which fund allocations were granted, distributed and utilized was not truly relevant to recipient country's needs and priorities. It was merely the sharing of cake among six agencies, which were original members of TAB. Having realized the inconsistency and inadequacy, the idea of country programming appeared to the fore and it was introduced in 1955. The TAB, from the beginning of 1955, was required to formulate target figures in its annual meeting as a guide to its country and regional programmes. It was formulated that Governments themselves would draw plans in consultation with the Resident Representative with the advice of the participating organisation and submit it to TAB through Resident Representative indicating their priorities they attached to the project. The TAB would then submit it to the Technical Assistance Board (TAB) for discussion and approval. It was realized that EPTA was performing with reasonable success but it lacked the funds. This led to the demand for the creation of United Nations Capital Fund (Hamdy, 1987, pp.132-134).

The Special Fund

In the last year of 1940s many proposals were floated to secure capital transfer to developing countries to further the technical assistance programmes and building of infrastructure in social sector. In early 1950s the proposals got consolidated in the form of Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development (SUNFED) was the demand of the developing countries. The successive studies, debates, expert reports, interactions and negotiations that took place after the idea of SUNFED educated newly independent countries about United Nations policies and exposed before them the real nature of the United Nations institutions particularly the IMF, and the World Bank (Saksena, 1996, p. 79). Despite continuous efforts of developing countries for the establishment of SUNFED to achieve the objective of providing concessional finance to them, the United Nations could not emerge as an important international institution to lend finance to developing countries. The move of developing countries was resisted by the United States and other developed countries primarily because

they were unwilling to make the United Nations a funding agency. They had assigned the lending task to the IMF and the World Bank (Chisti, 1996, p.95).

Moreover, the developed countries led by the United States were interested in offering foreign aid, not through multilateral institutions like the United Nations, but to promote private capital infused with bilateral aids. They viewed foreign aid as a means for unlocking big opportunities for profitable investments which could give them immense returns. They conceived it worthless to lend for building infrastructure, improving health, expanding agriculture, removing illiteracy and teaching modern skills by providing loans at cheaper rate through the United Nations. It would be a kind of recognition of promoting socialism, not capitalism, with the capitalist money. To scuttle the whole idea of forming SUNFED a new lending agency of the World Bank was instituted in 1956 in the form of International Finance Corporation (IFC) to reduce the problem of capital availability. The establishment of IFC was not serving developing countries' demand of cheap lending. The developing countries remained steadfast at their search for capital through foreign aid (Riggs and Plano, 1988, pp.318-319). SUNFED remained the agenda of the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and other related United Nations bodies concerned with economic matters. In 1957, the ECOSOC voted overwhelmingly in favour of establishment of SUNFED which was to be accepted by the General Assembly in its 24th session. Grasping the gravity of the situation United States, along with United Kingdom and Canada, proposed the creation of a Special Fund in lieu of SUNFED. The name was not very different from SUNFED, but its premises, contents, and objectives were (Saksena, 1996, p.79).

The United States obtained priority consideration and got it adopted before few could grasp what it was all about. Indeed, the new Special Fund (SF) established in 1959, was merely an extension of the already existing UN Programmes of Technical Assistance (TA) and Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (EPTA). Thus, the basic objective sought in SUNFED was quietly scuttled. (Hamdy, 1987, p.134).

UNDP and its Activities

The struggle for the change did not end, rather it gained a new momentum. The 1960s was different for developing countries as their membership in the United Nations was swelling because of decolonisation process pursued by the United Nations since its inception. In fact, developing countries realized their political strength because of their increased voting strength in the United Nations General Assembly (in the General Assembly each member has one vote on the principle of one member one vote). Many of the newly independent countries showed their interest in socialist doctrine (Dadzie, 1993, p.300). In 1960 alone 16 African countries joined the United Nations. Encouraged by their increased number, developing countries sharpened their demand for economic development by properly using the United Nations General Assembly as a conducive and effective tool. Their demand was three-pronged institutional arrangements- availability of capital funds, transfer of technology and equitable trade relations. The Capitalist block seemed to have shown more conciliatory approach towards the demands of developing countries in order to woo them to their sides in the “number-game” at the United Nations. The developed countries supported the formation of new institutions in order to meet the demand of the majority, but on their own terms. In each case, these new institutions so established were deprived of their basic objectives and they existed either in name only or their operational capabilities were also camouflaged as to conceal their real nature. Sometimes, they provided insufficient funding to prevent functioning of new institutions they created. In the process, the UN institutions got proliferated, but amounting to no substantial or qualitative change in the existing economic system.

Thus, by the 1960s difference of approach between the developing countries and developed one on the question of the role of the United Nations became sharply divided (Saksena, 1996, p.80). By the mid 1960s, the United Nations had become mature enough to go through a major revision of its development approach. The developing countries were ready to provide intellectual inputs under the new theoretical guidance contributed by the Latin American economist Raul Prebisch. The new approach, known as the Doctrine of Raul Prebisch or the Theory of Dependency,

asserted the existence of a process of inequalising exchange between North and South, as the latter's term of trade of primary commodities export for manufactured imports presently deteriorated as economic surplus was transferred from South to North through transnational enterprises as mercantilist policies restricted access to technology, and as international capital limited structural change and the policies for growth. Persistent divergence between North and South was seen as the natural order. If their tendencies were to be corrected, deliberate policy action would have to be taken, and thus international policy regulations would become a special and continuing responsibility of the United Nations. Thus, the former virtually exclusive preoccupation of measures requiring domestic actor as the critical determinant of development was relegated to a less important place in the UN to economic development. During this period, therefore, the focus of attention in the United Nations turned to the regulating of international policies formulations (Dedzie, 1989, p.300).

At the same time, the IMF and the World Bank were pursuing a different path, where, increasingly access to their resources was being made conditional on the adoption of domestic measures and policies recommended by them. On the other hand, the developed countries intensified the effort to create development fund. Development funds on grant basis were created with an institutional structure, with the idea that they could ensure considerable influence of developing countries over agenda setting and policy formulation as well as to have concerted activities of technical assistance. In this regard, the United Nations General Assembly adopted a resolution to form the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) on 22nd November 1965. As provided in Para 8 of the Resolution, it came into force on 1 January 1966. The UNDP emerged as a United Nations body after the merger of two earlier programmes, basically the EPTA and the Special Fund. (Kamal, 2002, p.106).

The UNDP has three main functional bodies. At the top of the administrative hierarchy is the Governing Council. It is an inter-governmental body composed of both developing and developed countries. Initially, in 1966, it had thirty seven

members which was later increased to 48 in 1971. The membership of the Governing Council was represented on geographical distribution which gives majority to developing countries. The Governing Council holds the responsibility of providing general policy guidance and directive for the UNDP and is responsible for approval of projects and allocation of funds. Second is the Inter-Agency Consultative Board (IACB), consisting of the UN Secretary General, Executive Heads of Specialized Agencies, and chaired by the UNDPs Administrator. It is an advisory body. Specialized Agencies are the executor of Programmes of UNDP. Therefore, they are assumed the part of decision-making process. ICAB, in fact, provides intellectual inputs to the UNDP so that it is consulted every time before finalizing any programme. The UNDP is headed by an Administrator and assisted by Co-administrator and secretarial staff. The Administrator is responsible for the operations of the Programme under the general policy decision of the governing Council. He/she is the main link between the various field offices and the Governing Council. The last functional body is the field office which consists of experts, secretarial staffs and headed by Resident Representatives, responsible for implementing the decision taken at the Headquarters in New York (Kamal, 2002, p.110).

The UNDP, since its inception, continued to take forward the mandates of the EPTA and the Special Fund in order to increase the gross domestic product of recipient countries. It started working in uniform manner from 1966, but soon realized that there were certain anomaly, problem of coordination between both the programmes and working independently. There were problems of allocation of funds. A committee to study about these problems was set up under the chairpersonship of Sir Robert Jackson. The committee, after a detailed study submitted the report with several recommendations in the end of 1960. The study is known as Capacity Study, which suggested to introduce Indicating Planning Figure (IPF) for better distribution of resources. It emphasized the greater allocation for least developed countries, and recommended to stop sectarianism between specialized agencies. It advocated centralization of decision-making procedure and decentralization of programme formulation with enhanced share of recipient countries, the formulation of a country-

programme for five-year period based on the voluntary finance at the beginning of each year, containing a summary of each country's development objective and technical assistance and pre-investment needs and a preliminary list of projects. It further added that the government in each case will be primarily responsible for all measures which has to be taken to ensure effective follow up. The Recommendations were adopted in the United Nation General Assembly unanimously and became Consensus principle for UNDP (Kamal, 2002, pp.122-127). The Consensus called upon the UNDP administrator to draw estimates and projection of the volume of contribution firmly anticipated for a five-year cycle. The country-programme should coincide with development projects in better way of the recipient countries. The first five-year cycle of country-programme was incepted in 1972 (Hamdy, 1987, p.135).

The New International Economic Order (NIEO)

The lopsided economic development and continuing wide economic disparities between the developed and developing countries became glaring by the early 1970s. Developing countries urged for making the economic system more equitable gone unheeded. The action later by OPEC in 1973, the use of oil as weapon of war, naturally gave a strong new impetus to the 'policy negotiation', approach to international development cooperation. It lent credence to the possibility of fundamental change and to the expert that a world of economic equity and justice, as envisaged by the developing countries, might actually be created. In order to put the maximum pressure on the developed countries, the developing countries managed to call two Special Session of the General Assembly in 1974 and 1975. The 1974 Special Session resulted in declaration on the establishment of a New International Economic Order and its accompanying Programme of Action. The proposal included the demand of technology transfer along with removing the unequal term of trade against developing countries and provide market in developed countries for the manufactured products of developing countries. The pressure of NIEO yielded positive results in favour of developing countries at the UNDP which culminated in the form of a new dimension in the technical cooperation. In the 1975 Report of the UNDP Administrator, there was a mention regarding the shift from assistance

approach to cooperation approach with developing countries and focused on the technical cooperation between developing countries (TCDC). The Report advocated for increase in the role of national government in programme execution. But the technical assistance programme was marred by the increased price hike in the later half of 1970s (Kamal, 2002, pp.134-135).

In 1974, the Development Research Centre of World Bank and the Sussex Institute of Development Studies published a book entitled *Redistribution with Growth*, which tried to address many questions like: do conventional measures of growth involve a bias against the poor and how can this be changed? How can the strategies of redistribution be combined with strategies of growth? Is it possible to identify groups whose members have common characteristics and to direct strategies towards those groups? What are the principle instruments of policy? In brief, how can economic growth effect distributions?

It was seen clearly that in the low-income countries economic growth was the essential condition for eradication of poverty, but results of economic growth in those countries showed a contrary scenario. Instead of removing poverty, it increased unbridgeable inequality. Most of the redistribution with growth was concerned not with relative income shares, but with the level and growth of income of low-income groups. Most of the other development adopted to measure inequality by the Gini coefficient method which encompasses the whole range of incomes, from the richest to the poorest (Streeten, 2003, pp.71-72).

Basic Needs Approach

An empirical question arose that how economic growth affects the reduction of inequality and poverty, and how this reduction affects efficiency and economic growth. The answer to these questions are believed to be contingent upon the initial distribution of assets, the policies pursued by the government, the available technologies, the scope for labour-intensive exports which actually enlarges the application of labour-intensive technologies and the rate of population growth. Land reform and mass education are pre-conditions for equitable growth, but it requires

continued and strict vigilance over the policies by the government. Another important empirical question rose how policies reduce inequality and meet basic needs along with freedom and human rights (Streeten, 2003, p.72).

In late 1970s the International Labour Organisation pushed forward a new development approach, namely the 'Basic Needs'. Basic needs approach recognise that the increase in incomes are not sufficient to reduce poverty. Mass education, safe drinking water, family planning, health services and other priorities depend on public action. Some poor people are incapable of earning income. The basic need approach called for participatory community involvement and self-governing institutions in the design and implementation of projects and programmes. This approach had at least four advantages over the all earlier approaches and theories. First, it was a reminder that the objective of development is to provide all human beings with the opportunity for a full life. Full life may have many connotations but in brief, it means attending basic needs. Second, this approach moved from abstraction of money, income or employment to concrete form in providing people the commodities essential for their lives. Third, the basic needs approach appealed to national and international aid giving institutions and was, therefore, capable of mobilizing resources. Fourth, the basic needs approach had great organizing and integrating power, intellectually and politically (Streeten, 2003, pp.73-74).

The basic needs approach was discussed in the Governing Council of UNDP in 1979 itself and in his presentation, the administrator emphasized the need how UNDP technical cooperation could move forward to reach poor sections of the society which had not been benefited sufficiently, without intervening in the sovereign jurisdiction of national government in the mechanism of policy formulations. He indicated that the programme had a special role to help interpret certain broad principle in this regard. Some of the developing countries suggested that poverty in rural areas is inextricably connected to industrialization and hence it cannot be tackled in isolation. The developed countries favoured the administrator and added to the discussion that the UNDP should include human aspect in its development projects. The first half of

1980s was dominated by human aspect in developing process in the UNDP Governing Council. The administrator emphasized that the new measures should be taken to meet the technical cooperation requirement and highlighted on human resources and institutions building. It gave rise to alternative policy formulations in the UNDP in the realm of financial policy and other general policy orientation. The developing countries were suggested to come forward in cost-sharing for the ongoing projects and projects to be considered for future, particularly those capable to contribute to human development. Human Resources development emerged as the main concern for policy formulation in the UNDP in 1980s (Kamal, 2003, pp.179-180).

This basic needs approach provided a concrete intellectual capacity to formulate new policies and to implement it effectively to create job through community development. The results of some projects which were undertaken at global and inter-regional level shows that it could have done better had it received substantial contribution from major donor countries. Sector wise it gave importance and priority to agriculture as a global programme. With the help of 13 International Centres of the Consultative Group on Agricultural Research (CGIAR) UNDP carried out its research project in better crop production. It was noticed that the production of rice and wheat have achieved spectacular growth while new varieties of maize, beans, cassava, cowpea, potato, sorghum had been tested and found helpful for mostly African countries (UNDP Report 1986).

The UNDP, in joint sponsorship with World Health Organization, promoted research work to control tropical diseases involving 3,000 scientists, in 125 countries. They were working in multinational and multi-disciplinary team conducting research on six major diseases endemic in tropical countries. These diseases were malaria, schistosomiasis, filariasis, animal trypanosomiasis, chagas' disease, leishmaniasis, and leprosy. It also provided help for diarrhoeal diseases control. The UNDP introduced energy sector assessment programme in 1980 with World Bank. This programme assisted 70 developing countries, which were facing the compounded burden of higher fuel costs and heavier debt service requirements, to develop their energy options. The

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UNDP provide support to more than 300 projects in 105 countries at a total cost of \$ 205 million over 15 years of time span. During this period developing countries moved up their production to 47 per cent of total world production. In the field of water resource, in collaboration with World Bank and other donors it worked to help local people in searching drinking water facility. The UNDP with the help of United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) planned to bring women in mainstream development. Through the round table process of consultations with the object of assisting Governments to take account of women's needs (UNDP Report, 1986).

The Changes in Policy Formulation and Project Identification

In 1980s UNDP Met with several changes in the realm of policies as well as theoretical understanding. Though the number of projects increased and resources also increased in absolute terms, but the burden-sharing also increased which effected the low-income countries. Number of international experts continued to rise from developed countries that consumed substantial amount of developing fund. At policy, formulation, and project identification, developing countries were advised to allow UNDPs greater involvement that is clearly a major shift in the earlier UNDP mandate. As 1980s is known as lost decade for United Nations development cooperation because of two successive oil price hike in 1970s, global economic recession, and increased debt burden over developing countries gave rise a new economic policy of structural adjustment and financial stabilization propagated by the International Monetary Organisation. The structural adjustment policy echoed also in the annual report of administrator of the UNDP (Kamal, 2003, pp.188-194).

Developing countries were suggested to take responsibility of fund management for the follow-up programmes. New areas of development were suggested to be included in projects and programmes and human resources development attained priority in policy formulation. Environment and issues related to women and gender equality got the prominent place in many of the projects. Moreover there was a radical departure at policy level. Thematic approach was suggested to be adopted at the place of project

approach. The principle of consensus came under severe threat as Development Assistance Committee of Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, responsible for official development assistance, were given greater role in programme identification and formulation in the Governing Council. Debate and discussion on the pros and cons of any project were discouraged and principle of unanimity was encouraged. This approach reduced the voices of developing countries in the Governing Council. In implementing the structural adjustment role of private service providers even in the project implementation was emphasized and privatization of public services were strongly recommended. For least developed countries round table conference were promoted between international lending, the World Bank and recipient countries and World Bank was given greater say in programme execution (Kamal, 2003, pp.194-195).

An Alternative Approach: the Human Development

The 1980s were a period of crisis, of setbacks and retreats. The newly suggested policy of stabilization and adjustment became the main cause of concern. The stabilization was sought through deflationary policies that reduced output and employment. The poor were either forgotten and ways were sought to prevent an increase in their number. The structural adjustments were sought through fund cut in public and social sector expanses. All these happenings gave rise to new theoretical formulation which first rejected the earlier assumptions related to development. New theory falsifies the earlier proposition that growth is not explained by technological progress that comes from outside the economic system, but by the endogenous behaviour of people. Second, education and knowledge, particularly in the form of research and development, incorporated in human or physical capital play an important role in increasing total productivity (Streeten, 2003, pp.75-76).

In the 1980s, Amartya Sen came out with capability approach which gives greater importance to human being. It says people value commodities not in their own right but for their characteristics and for the needs they meet. It further added that the results of consuming commodities depend also on the characteristics of the consumers

(whether he or she is a able-bodied or disabled) and the society of which he or she is a member. The approach added importance to the choice of well-being. The well-being of fasting monk is different from a starving poor. The standard of living should be judged by a person's capability to lead the life that he or she values, from being well fed and healthy to achieving self-respect and participating in the life of the community (Streeten, 2003, p.76). The capability approach became the central theme of new approach called the human development, developed by Mahbub Ul Haq and introduced in practice by the UNDP in 1990. According to Mahbub Ul Haq "the basic purpose of development is to enlarge people's choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and can change over time. People often value achievements that do not show up at all, or not immediately, in income or growth figures: greater access to knowledge, better nutrition and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedoms and sense of participation in community activities. The objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives" (Haq, 2000, p.14).

Summary observation:

In the classical economic literatures, society was given prominent place along with the economy. In the mid 20th century, economic development was being measured and priced without considering the actual benefit to the people. The level of development attained by the western countries had emerged as a strong development paradigm for the rest of the countries. The initial stage of UN development activities were influenced by the theory of Economic Growth, which is also known as modernization theory. This theory assumed development as tantamount to economic development and this was necessarily an endogenous process. Under the influence of this theoretical approach, the United Nations assumed that development was essentially a matter for "measures requiring domestic action". On the demand of developing countries, the United Nations got involved in promoting technical and financial assistance, with increased numerical strength due to decolonization, the developing countries could pressurize the United Nations to set up various institutions for their

development but they did not result in qualitative change in the existing economic system.

By the mid 1960s, the United Nations was influenced by new theoretical approach, known as the theory of dependency. This theory asserted the existence of a process of inequalising exchange between North and South. By that time differences of approach between the developing countries and developed ones, on the question of the role of the United Nations, became sharply divided. By the mid 1960s the United Nations had become mature enough to go through a major revision of its development approach. The developing countries were ready to provide intellectual inputs under the new theoretical guidance contributed by the Latin American economist Raul Prebisch. The new approach known as the doctrine of Raul Prebisch or the theory of dependency asserted the existence of a process of inequalising exchange between North and South, as the latter's term of trade of primary commodities export for manufactured imports presently deteriorated as economic surplus was transferred from South to North through transnational enterprises as mercantilist policies restricted access to technology, and as international capital limited structural change and the policies for growth. Persistent divergence between North and South was seen as the natural order. If their tendencies were to be corrected deliberate policy action would have to be taken, and thus international policy regulations would become a special and continuing responsibility of the United Nations. Thus, the former virtually exclusive preoccupation of measures requiring domestic actor as the critical determinant of development was relegated to a less important place in the UN economic development.

Developing countries urged for making the economic system more equitable gone unheeded. The lopsided economic development and continuing wide economic disparities between the developed and developing countries became glaring by the early 1970s. It led to the calling of two special sessions of General Assembly and issue of Declaration of New International Economic Order (NIEO) and programme of Action. The NIEO demanded the transfer of technology along with removal of the

unequal term of trade against developing countries and provide market access in developed countries for the manufactured products of developing countries. It called for the rescheduling of whole economic system to make it more just and equitable. After the initial momentum, there was not much change in the international economic structure and relations. In late 1970s 'basic needs approach' became the prevailing theoretical influence in development strategies. Basic needs approach signified that the increase in income are not sufficient to reduce poverty. Mass education, safe drinking water, family planning, health services and other priorities depend on public activities. The basic needs approach called for participatory community involvement and self-governing institutions in the design and implementation of projects and programmes. However, the basic needs approach did not provide much respite. The 1980s were a period of crisis, setbacks, and retreats. The suggested policy of stabilization and adjustments of the IMF and the World Bank became the main cause of concern. The stabilization was sought through deflationary policies that reduced output and employment. The structural adjustment was sought through fund cut in public and social sector expenditures. These policies subjected poorer section of the population into more hardship and many times, they were forgotten. In this kind of human misery emerged a new conceptual approach known as capability approach which once again started giving importance to human beings. It says that people value a commodity not in their own right, but for their characteristics and for the needs they meet. This approach to development is further refined and became the central theme of the latest approach known as human development approach. According to Mahbub Ul Haq, who developed the latest approach said, "the basic purpose of development is to enlarge people's choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and can change over time. People often value achievements that do not show up at all, or not immediately, in income or growth figures: greater access to knowledge, better nutrition and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedoms and sense of participation in community activities. The objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives".

These various approaches to the development came into existence in various periods in progression. There are no drastic differences among these approaches and differences are of nuances and emphasis. Thus the difference among them are not of quantum jump but of continuity in varying emphasis which provides theoretical underpinnings to different phases of development undertaken by the UN system, especially under UNDP.

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Note- * indicates the Primary Sources.

Chapter - II

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

In the last chapter it was discussed how human development emerged as an alternative approach for development. This chapter seeks to discuss the concept of human development and its distinctions vis-à-vis other related theories and approaches. It discusses the basic components of human development and briefly focuses upon the main highlights of Human Development Reports from 1990 to 2000 and Human Development Index. The chapter ends with critical analysis of the issues related to human development.

The Concept of Human Development

The search for a theory related to development was consistent from the very outset of 20th century and it seems that in 1990s it has culminated into human development theory which exclusively focuses on human beings. Though the theory of human development has been evolved by a group of scholars, the UNDP has played significant role in encouraging and promoting the concept at organizational level in order to tackle better the problems associated with poverty and development. The concept of human development was originally introduced as an alternative to conception of development that focused on economic growth-with or without equity consideration. The concept of economic growth and economic development was limited to income measurement of the one kind or the other. This was disputed by eminent economists such as Amartya Sen, Mahbub Ul Haq, Paul Streeten and others who believed that increased income should be regarded as a means to improve human welfare, not an end in itself. To these economists, human-welfare was the overall objective, the essence of development. Increased income and national economic growth are crucial precondition for improvement in standard of living but not the only precondition. The basic concept of human development is to improve the human conditions and to cover all aspects of human development, for all people, in both high-

income and developing countries, both now and in the future. The concept of human development goes beyond the narrowly defined economic development and incorporated the full flourishing of human capabilities. It emphasized again the need to put people, their needs, their aspirations, and their choices at the center of the development effort. It also rejects the biases or discriminations prevalent in existing society on the basis of class, gender, race, nationality, religion, community and generation (Streeten, 2003, p.76).

Human development was defined as a process of enlarging people's choices, not just different detergents or television channels or car models, but jobs, education and leisure pursuits. These choices can change over time and can, in principle, be infinite. Though these infinite choices can become meaningless or pointless unless some limitations and constraints are attached with them. Choices have to be combined with allegiances, rights with duties, options with bonds, liberties with ligatures. Bonds without options are oppressive, but options without bonds may lead to anarchy. The human development approach perceives the most important choices of people to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge, and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living. If these choices, which are quintessential, are available then it may open other opportunities like participation in political, social, economic and cultural activities with dignity and respect. Human development has two sides: a) the formation of human capabilities, such as improved health, knowledge and skills, and b) the use people are willing, able and permitted to make of these capabilities: for leisure productive purposes, or participation in political, cultural and social activities (Streeten 2003, p.77).

Distinction between human development and other approaches

The concept and approach of human development can be further clarified by comparing it with other relevant approaches in the field.

Economic growth and Human development:

The striking difference between economic growth and human development is that former exclusively focuses on expansion of only one choice that is income while the latter encompasses of all human choices, whether economic, social, cultural or political. It could be argued that an increase in income could enlarge all other choices as well. But this is what Haq and others have questioned by asserting that extra causal link between extending means and expanding human choice depend on the quality and distribution of economic growth, not only on the quality of such growth. They have argued that a link between income growth and human welfare has to be created through public policies which aim at providing services and opportunities as equally as possible to all citizens. This cannot be left to the market mechanisms, because these are essentially very unfriendly to the poor, to the weak and to the vulnerable (Haq, 1995, ch.12).

The human development school at first drew attention primarily to the choice in three essential areas: the opportunity to lead a long and healthy life; the opportunity to have access to resources needed for decent standard of living. Later several other dimensions and aspects were added. So, to the original focus on the missing link between income and welfare has been added particular concern for the provisions of social infrastructure and services that are made available on an equal basis to all citizen; special emphasis on gender equality; and equal opportunities for participation in political and economic decision-making. The latter require both an enabling legal and institutional framework and empowerment of citizens and civil society organizations so that they become capable of reaching up to the authorities. Some of the adherents to the concept have furthermore put special emphasis on the environmental and natural resources aspects of sustainability. It is the bitter experience of past in many countries that economic growth does not trickle down. Other reason, which is quite valid also, that economic growth is always accounted at national level and there may be different national priorities chosen by the society or government of the day. Society or government may have priorities to guns over breads, elitist model of development over and egalitarian model of development,

political authoritarianism over political democracy, and command economy over participatory development. The accumulation of wealth does not always make necessary to the fulfillment of many types of human choices. Sometimes individual or society makes some choices which does not require money at all. A society does not need to be rich to have a participatory democracy. A family does not require a lot of wealth to acquire respect and regard for the right of each family members. A nation whether rich or poor can treat men and women equally. Some social and cultural values can be maintained at all levels of income (Haq 2003, pp.17-18).

Economic growth talks of enhancement of national income which is a quite inadequate measure of human development for several reasons. National income counts only goods and services that are exchanged for money, leaving out large amount of work done inside the family, mainly by women, and work done voluntarily for children or elder people, or in communities. National accounting does not distinguish between goods and regrettable necessities, like military or anti-crime expenditure. Addictive eating and drinking are counted twice: when the food and alcohol are consumed, and when large sums are spent on the diet industry and cures for alcoholism. National income dose not add to leisure gained by fewer working hours or earlier retirement age and does not deduce from the extra income generated by the women having lost their leisure hours and forced to take on jobs outside the family or men to take on second job. Environmental degradation, pollution, and resource depletion are not deduced. Further, national income cannot count the pleasure people enjoy from unspoiled wilderness, the satisfaction from work, political engagement, the sense of community, brotherhood and sisterhood that grows out of social activities, the freedom, peace and sense of security (Streeten 2003, p.79).

In other word, human development paradigm is different from economic growth in five regards: a) It moved people to the center stage of development. Development is analyzed and understood in terms of people. Each activity is analyzed to see how much people participate in it or benefit from it, b) Human development is assumed to have two sides. First side is the building of capabilities -such as improved health,

knowledge and skills. Second side is the use people make of their acquired capabilities –for employment, productive activities, political affairs or leisure, c) Human development approach regards human being as an end in itself. It does not also forget means. The expansion of gross national product expands options, but it is not always necessary. Moreover it depends upon the character and distribution of economic growth, d) Human development approach embraces society as a whole, not only the economy. The political, cultural, and social factors are given equal weight like economic factors, e) It is the human development approach only which recognizes human being the end of development (Haq 2003, pp.18-19)

Human capital and human development:

The basic premise of human development is ‘capability expansion’ developed by Amartya Sen, which was published in an article in the *Journal of Development Planning* in 1989. Capabilities approach says that the personal characteristic, social background, economic circumstances etc. of a person give him or her, the ability to do certain things for which he/she has reasons to value (Sen, 1989, pp. 41-58). In the process of economic and social development human capability formation and capital formation approach play different kinds of roles. The former process concentrates on the ability of human beings to lead lives they have reason to value and enhance the substantive choices they have. The latter concentrates on the agency of human being by augmenting skill, knowledge and productive process. The human capital perspective can, in principle, be defined broadly to cover both types of valuation, but it is typically defined primarily in terms of indirect value that human qualities that can be employed as “capital” in production in the way physical capital is used.

The capital approach does not tell why economic growth is sought in the first place. If, instead, the focus is, ultimately, on the expansion of human freedom to live the kind of lives that people have reason to value, then the role of economic growth in expanding these opportunities has to be integrated into that more foundational understanding of the process of development as the expansion of human capability to lead freer and more worthwhile lives. Capability approach play crucial part as an

instrument in bringing about social change. Capability serves as the means not only to economic production to which the perspective of human capital points out, but it brings about social change also. For example various studies have shown that female education may reduce gender inequality in intrafamily distribution and also help to cut down the fertility rates (Sen, 2003, pp.35-37).

Components of human development

Human development paradigm has four essential components that are represented in the Annual Human Development Report prepared by a group of independent economists and commissioned by the United Nations Development Programme. These components are: equity, sustainability, productivity, and empowerment. Each component has various dimensions that are in the evolutionary process and highly contested too.

Equity:

Equity is the first and foremost component of Human development paradigm that enhances people's choices by providing equitable access to opportunities based on individual's capabilities (Haq, 2000, pp.16-17). Capability formation is a necessary condition to achieve human development. How to build capability is a vital question and it is primarily contingent upon many requirements. Capability is not something that can be determined at the early age of any human being or by hereditary based rule. As Adam Smith puts it, "The difference of natural talents in different men is, in reality, much less than we are aware of; and the very different genius which appears to distinguish men of different professions, when grown up to maturity, is not upon many occasions so much the cause, as the effect of division of labor. The difference between a philosopher and a common street porter, for example seems to arise not so much from nature, as from habit, custom, and education. When they come into the world, and for the first six to eight years of their existence, they were, perhaps, very much alike, and neither their parents nor play-fellows could perceive any remarkable difference (Sen, 2000, pp.35-36).

Capability approach of development sees human life as a set of doings and beings that may be called functionings and it relates the evaluation of the quality of life to the assessment of the capability to function. The constituent elements of life are seen as a combination of various different functionings. This amounts to be escaping morbidity, and mortality, being adequately nourished, undertaking usual movements etc, to many complex functionings such as achieving self-respect, taking part in the life of the community and appearing in public without shame. Capability reflects a person's freedom to choose between different ways of living (Sen, 2003, pp.4-12).

Freedom covers basic freedoms such as being able to meet bodily requirements, such as the ability to avoid starvation and undernourishment or to escape preventable morbidity or premature mortality. It also includes the enabling opportunities given by schooling or by liberty and economic means to move freely and to choose one's habitat. There are also social freedoms such as the capability to participate in the life of the community, to join in public discussion, to participate in political decision-making and the elementary ability to appear in public without shame (Human Development Report, 2000).

According to one study by a group of social scientist, based on 122 countries data, shows that a minimum level of socio-economic development is necessary to promote civil liberties and political rights. The research revealed that the speed of a country's economic development was inversely related to its level of civil liberties and political rights. The social and political dislocations caused by rapid economic growth tended to reduce a government's observation of human rights as traditionally defined by the Western democracies. The crux of other similar studies indicates that the socio-economic development is only necessary, but not sufficient, condition for the existence of civil liberties and political rights. Without a minimal level of modernization (technological up gradation, education), it is impossible for these values to take hold in a society. However, modernization is in itself not enough to guarantee liberal democracies (Chan, 1984, pp.372-383).

The modernization of society has to be established on the principle of equity, which talks in terms of equity of opportunities, not necessarily in results. What people do with their opportunities is their own concern: equity in opportunities may not always lead to similar choices or to similar results. In fact, diversity of outcomes in life demonstrates that equal opportunities often lead to unequal result. Equal access to opportunities is based on the philosophical foundations of the universalism of life claims of everyone. Equity in access to opportunities demands a fundamental restructuring of power in many societies. The distribution of productive assets needs to be changed especially through land reform. The distribution of income requires a major restructuring through progressive fiscal policy, aimed at transferring income from the rich to poor. Social and legal barriers that limit the access of women or certain minorities or ethnic groups to some of the key economic and political opportunities may have to fall (Haq, 2000, p.17).

Sustainability:

Sustainability is the second essential component of development. The next generation deserves the opportunity to enjoy the same well-being that we now enjoy, a right that makes sustainability another essential component of the human development paradigm. Sustainability is sometimes confused with the renewal of natural resources, which is just one aspect of sustainable development. It is the sustainability of human opportunities that must lie at the centre of development concern (Haq, 2000, p.18).

Sustainable development means a process in which economic, fiscal, trade, energy, agriculture, industrial and all other policies are designed to bring about development that is economically, socially and ecologically sustainable. The demand of sustainability is, in fact, a particular reflection of universality of claims, applies to the future generations vis-à-vis present generation. The term “sustainable development” became popular after the Brundtland Commission Report in 1987 which defined it as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It contains two key concepts: the concept of needs, in particular the essential needs of the world’s poor, to which prevailing

priority should be given; and the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organization on the environment's ability to meet present and future needs". The Commission's definition reminds that sustainability is about an obligation to future generations and so it is necessary about intergenerational allocation (Anand and Sen, 2000, pp.30-34).

The obstacles in the way of sustainable development is said to be overpopulation of developing countries, which creates a demand for more food, more fuel, and more space. Forests and marginal lands have to be cleared to grow additional food, fuel production has to be expanded to supply more energy, and farmlands have to be converted to meet the increasing demand for urban dwellings and shopping centers. In addition to land, the water and fuel needed for growing crops have also become increasingly scarce and expensive. The use of technology can also be detrimental in the field of agriculture as it is assumed that careless use of insecticides has resulted in human health hazard. The increased consumption of energy has pushed people to search for cheap sources of energy. Power generated by atomic plants is one of the cheapest source of energy, but plutonium-239, which is used as fuel in atomic plant has a radioactive life of 24,000 years and is lethal for human health. The increasing nuclear industry, thus, poses a grave threat to human being (Chan, 1984, pp.198-200).

Over consumption of developed countries has been much more responsible than overpopulation of developing countries for the scarcity of world resources. According to one survey the people of developed world consume about 3,100 calories, 90 to 100 grams of total protein, and 30 to 70 grams of animal protein per person each day. While in the developing countries the consumption of calorie is abysmally low (though it is considered healthy consumption pattern in developing society) as 2,150 calories and 35 to 60 grams of protein and 5 to 10 grams of animal protein. In terms of grain consumption the average North American and West European consumption is one tone, while corresponding figure for the developing world is roughly 400 pounds. Most of the grain consumed by the Northerners is in the form of meat, eggs, and dairy products. The increase of carbon dioxide by excessive burning of fossil fuel in

industrial production has severe impact on earth's ecology and climate (Chan, 1984, pp.206-210).

Productivity:

Productivity is the third essential component of human development paradigm, which requires investment in people and an enabling macroeconomic environment for them to achieve maximum potential. Economic growth is therefore a subset of human development models -an essential part, not the entire structure (Haq, 2000, p.19). There exists a strong link between economic growth and human development. On the one hand, economic growth provides the resources to permit sustained improvements in human development, on the other, improvement in the quality of the labor force are an important contributor to the economic growth. Rannis and Stewart view human development as the central objective of human activity and economic growth as potential instrument for advancing it. Gross National Product (GNP) contributes to human development mainly through household and government activity and civil society. Households usually spend their after- tax income on human development items in poor countries such as food, potable water, education, and health, which varies, depending on such factors as the level and distribution of income across households as well as on who controls the allocation of expenditure on household. When poverty level in a country is high, either because of low per capita income or bad distribution of income, it leads to low expenditure on human development by maximum number of household. Evidences tell that poverty reduction largely depends on economic growth, but the extent of reduction varies on the distribution of income and its change over time. The nature of growth or poverty reduction also varies on the growth process like employment generation and increase in rural income. Income generation depends on the use of labor-intensive technology. If labor-intensive technology is used and increase in rural income takes place, they have combined effect on poverty reduction. The increase in family income serves as the promoter on children's schooling. If women control the cash of family income, the possibility on human development investment increases in the form of food and education. Though expenditure on human development inputs are not objectives

themselves, they rather constitute instruments for achieving progress in various dimensions of basic well-being (Ranis and Stewart, 2000, pp.197-201).

There is other way of flow from better human development to economic growth. A better-nourished, healthier and educated workforce directly contributes to economic growth. Higher levels of human development in addition to being an end in itself, effect economy by enhancing capabilities, creativity and productivity. Education plays significant role in increasing output -agricultural as well as industrial. An educated farmer is better equipped to use fertilizers, method of cultivation, and quality of seeds while educated industrial workforce skillfully handles new technology, communicate themselves in improved manner. In brief, health, primary and secondary education and nutrition raise the productivity of workers, rural or urban. Secondary education, including vocational training facilitates the acquisition of skills and managerial capacity. Tertiary education supports the development of basic science, the appropriate selection of technology imports and the domestic adaptation and development of technologies. Secondary and tertiary education also represent critical elements in the development of key institutions of government, the law, the financial system, among others, all essential for economic growth. Education imparts its important role, but quantity and quality of investment-domestic or foreign- overall policy-making is also vital for better economic growth (Ranis and Stewart, 2000, pp.200-203).

Empowerment:

The fourth essential component of development in human development paradigm is empowerment, which breaks off the boundary of paternalistic, or charity based or welfarist concept of development and focuses on people's participation in development activities, events and processes that shape their lives. In poor countries and for poor people in different counties, policies are adopted on the basis of permanent charity, which, in fact, make them more dependent on state. This kind of policy neither add any dignity nor sustainability to poor people per se. Empowerment is a comprehensive concept, which makes people able to exercise choices of their own

free will. It implies a political democracy which helps them to be a part of decision-making about their lives; economic liberalism so that people are free from excessive economic control and regulations; decentralization of power so that real governance is realised at the doorstep of every individual and non-governmental organizations including other members of civil society who participate fully in decision making and implementing. Empowerment of people is intimately connected to capabilities formation which requires investment in education and health for entire population irrespective of gender, caste, class, creed, ethnicity, and religion (Haq, 2000, pp.19-20).

Empowerment of women is one of the vital component of human development because it constitutes, more or less, 50 per cent of the whole population, but they have economically, socially and politically, been kept at backward point. Unequal social and political circumstances provide women unequal human capabilities. Women are not treated as ends in their own rights, persons with dignity that deserve respect from laws and institutions. Instead, they are treated as mere instruments of the ends of others-reproducers, caregivers, and sexual outlets, agents of a family's general prosperity. According to one survey, there is no country in the world that treats its women as well as its men equally, based on complex measure vis-à-vis life expectancy, wealth, and education. Gender inequality is strongly correlated with poverty. When poverty combines with gender inequality, the result is acute failure of central human capabilities. 60 per cent more women are illiterate than men in developing countries and primary school enrollment ratio of female is 13 per cent less than the male children. Even in basic areas of health and nutrition women are highly discriminated (Nussbaum, 2000, pp.1-3).

Human Development Report and Human Development Index

In late 1980s it was observed with serious concern that even in a robust economy the suffering and distress of common people accentuated in the form of rising crime rates, growing pollution, spreading HIV/AIDS, weakening social fabric etc. In developing countries structural adjustment programme, launched by the International Monetary

Fund and the World Bank, became extremely harsh which later appeared in somewhat different form as adjustment with human face. Adjustment with human face and a search for alternative policy options to address the problems of balancing the financial budgets with adequate protection of the weakest and most vulnerable sections of society, provided an appropriate time to start with new concept of development. Grabbing this moment a team of political economists and social scientist led by Mahtub ul Haq laid down the foundation stone of a report in the aegis of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), popularly known as Human Development Report that is published annually. The concept of human development was truly embodied in the Human Development Report. The main objective of Human Development Report is to monitor the progress of humanity-particularly through the country rankings in a new Human Development Index (Haq, 2000, p.24-25).

The UNDP reports, which have been published annually since 1990, present account of human development in both developing countries and industrialized countries. These accounts are based on an index with three components: (a) has average real income per capita, adjusted downward for the rich countries by using purchasing power of a country's currencies; (b) the average life expectancy; and (d) adult literacy combined with real access to education at various levels (UNDP, 1995, p.134 ff.).

Human Development Report gives formulae for assessing the relative focus of public expenditure on high priority areas for human development. The human expenditure ratio as the percent of national income allotted to the social priority areas is the critical measure which indicates the actual commitment of a government to improve human lives through direct budgetary action. (Das, 2002, p.323).

In the following paragraph major highlights and main thematic emphasis of Human Development Report (HDR) will be discussed from 1990 to 2000.

Human Development Report 1990:

The 'concept and measurement of human development' was the main theme of the HDR1990. HDR-1990 tried to establish that it is not only the income level of a society which matters, but how well that income has been translated into human lives (Das 2000, p.324). The Report challenged some of the conventional wisdom, exploded some of the old myths and reached some of the policy conclusions that have significant implications for development strategy for the next decade. It also accepted that the development policies have not miserably failed in developing countries which reflects in some of the positive gain in the field of education, health and poverty reduction. Life expectancy has increased at least two-fold in last three decades while literacy in developing countries is inching forward. It suggested that economic growth is essential, but government programming is much more imperative to increase human well-being and human development. (Haq, 2000, pp.25-27).

Human Development Report 1991:

The 'financing of human development' was the theme of HDR-1991. It suggested four measures to acquire more funds for human development and they are: halting capital flight; combating corruption; reforming public enterprises; and restructuring debt payments. The Report concluded with emphasis on certain policy guidelines that are: a) The human expenditure ratio may need to be at least 5 per cent gross national product if a country wishes to do well on human development; b) An efficient way to achieve this result is to keep the public expenditure ratio moderate (around 25 per cent), to allocate much of this expenditure to the social sectors (more than 40 per cent) and to focus on social priority areas (giving them more than 50 per cent); c) government spending need not be high if gross national product is high and rather equitable-or if private and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are extremely active in the social sector; d) High government spending with low social priorities is the worst case; e) Most countries could use existing resources more efficiently-by adopting more decentralized, participatory approaches to development, by making prudent economies and reducing unit costs, by encouraging private initiatives in the financing and delivery of social services (Haq, 2000, pp.29-30).

Human Development Report 1992:

The 'global dimension of human development' was the central theme of HDR-1992 that concluded that income disparity between the richest one billion and the poorest one billion people had doubled over the last three decades and had reached a dangerously high level of 150 times. The Report strongly stated that the global disparity is tolerated by developing countries calmly without raising voices. The trade and migration barriers imposed on developing countries have been denying opportunity of worth of \$ 500 billion at global level compared to annual aid of \$ 50 billion (Das, 2002, p.324).

Human Development Report 1993:

The 'people's participation' was the central theme of HDR-1993 which threw light over the dwindling participation of people in decision-making which finally shaped their lives. At global level only 10 per cent people participate in most of the decision-making, be it political or economic. With technological advancement the productivity has increased, but more people have become unemployed. Women and minorities are the worst sufferers of market oriented policies where there is not sufficient safety nets for them who are fallen pray of it. Women constitute half of the population, but earn only half what the males earn. It focused on the democratization of international financial institution and suggested a better role for the United Nations Organisation. The world is still a world of difference (Haq, 2000, pp.34-38).

Human Development Report 1994:

Human security under new dimension of human development was the crux of the HDR-1994. It focused on the human security in the changing world where more people die, not because of lack of weapons, but because of lack of jobs, food, and opportunities. Safety of National boundary are not the concern of the day but safety of people worldwide in the form of widespread aid freely moving from one continent to another continent, so is the pollution which require no visa to travel other nations. Terrorism is also becoming a major global threat for the safety and security of people.

In developing countries children are most vulnerable section who are dying not because of illness or from endemic diseases, but because of intra-factional rivalry between different ethnic groups (Haq, 2000, pp.39-43).

Human Development Report 1995:

Gender and human development was the basis of HDR-1995 which clarified what gender actually mean in general and specific case. Generally gender is used to differentiate people on the basis of their sexes, but social scientists observed that more than physical differences women are exposed to several prejudices and disability caused by social, political and economic barrier. Social scientists are using the term “gender” these days in broader sense - injustices and biases against women at social, political and economic level. How to eliminate the gender-based discrimination against women was focused in the Report (Das, 2002, p.325).

Human Development Report 1996:

The economic growth and human development was the central focus of HDR-1996. The report highlighted that high economic growth is not necessarily linked with job opportunities. The report appreciated the efforts taken by South-East Asian countries to increase jobs with the increase in economy. The Report suggested the developing countries to adopt labour-intensive technology in industrial promotion. It particularly emphasized for enhancement of small scale industries and informal sectors which provide maximum job opportunities. The Report called for a political commitment to employment by adopting it as a central policy objective. Defining employment as all ways of securing of livelihood, the Report pointed out that employment not only generate income, but empower people socially and politically also. Employment gives women a greater say in decision-making in family as well as in community affairs (Das, 2002, pp.325-326).

Human Development Report 1997:

‘Poverty alleviation and human development’ was the main theme of HDR-1997 which initially mentioned the achievements of developing countries during last three

decades- from 1960 onward- that was commendable. It mentioned that the developed countries had taken at least 100 years in achieving life expectancy and literacy, but still there are more than 1.3 billion people in the whole world, who are earning less than \$ 1 a day and living in absolute poverty. The Report suggested six point action plan to alleviate poverty. They are: (a) initiatives of people oriented policies; (b) gender equality; (c) focusing on the plight of the poor; (d) better management of globalization; (e) favourable political will; and (f) special action in special circumstances to avoid economic failures (Human Development Report, 1997).

Human Development Report 1998:

‘Changing today’s consumption pattern for tomorrow’s human development’ was the main focus of HDR-1998. It highlighted the increased consumption expenditure in 1990s vis-à-vis 1950 which increased to \$ 24 trillion at global level out of which 85 per cent was constituted in few developed countries. The Report linked consumption to human development in terms of capabilities enhancement. It noted with concern that while on the one hand expenditure on consumption has increased many-fold, on the other hand more than one billion people were deprived of basic consumption needs. The Report pointed out that ever-expanding consumption puts strain on the environment with the emissions and wastes that pollute the earth and destroy ecosystem, and depletion and degradation of renewable resources that undermines livelihoods. It suggested developing countries to adopt environment friendly technology for their development.

It suggested five-points agenda for action. They are: (a) Raise the consumption levels of more than a billion of poor people-more than a quarter of humanity-who have been left out of the global expansion of consumption and are unable to meet their basic needs; (b) Move to more sustainable consumption patterns that reduce environmental damage, improve efficiency in resource use and regenerate resources-such as water, wood, soil and fish; (c) Protect and promote the rights of consumers to information, product safety and access to product that they need; (d) Discourage the consumption pattern that have a negative impact on society and that reinforce inequalities and

poverty; and (e) Achieve more equitable international burden-sharing in reducing and preventing global environmental damage and in reducing global poverty (Human Development Report, 1998, pp.1-13).

Human Development Report 1999:

‘Globalization with a human face’ was the main theme of HDR-1999 that outlined the challenges of globalization in the new century and emphasized the need to not to stop the expansion of global markets, but to find the rules and institutions for stronger governance at local, national, regional and global level to preserve the advantage of global markets and competition. It pointed out the need to provide enough space for human, community and environmental resources to ensure that globalization works for people-not just for profit. It identified the threats of globalization of different types - insecurity such as financial volatility and economic insecurity that occurred in East Asian countries in 1997-99 and other parts of the world; job and income insecurity in both rich and poor countries in the form of dislocations from economic and corporate restructuring, and from dismantling the institutions of social protection; health insecurity in the form of growing HIV/AIDS; cultural insecurity; personal insecurity; environmental insecurity; and political and community insecurity.

It suggested seven point agenda for action which are: (a) strengthening policies and actions for human development, and adapt them to the new realities of the global economy; (b) Reduce the threats of financial volatility-of the boom and bust economy-and all their human costs; (c) Take stronger global action to tackle global threats to human security; (d) Enhance public action to, develop technologies for human development and the eradication of poverty; (e) Reverse the marginalization of poor, small countries; (f) remedy the imbalance in the structures of global governance with new efforts to create a more inclusive system; and (g) Build a more coherent and more democratic architecture for global governance in the 21st century (Human Development Report, 1999, pp.1-13).

Human Development Report 2000:

‘Human rights and Human development –for freedom and solidarity’ was the theme of the HDR-2000 which was the first Human Development Report of new the millennium that reviewed the overall situation of human rights all over the world and defined its inevitability and complementarities with human development. According to the Report to realize full human development human rights is an essential factor while human development provides necessary condition for the better implementation of human rights. Human right is a comprehensive terminology which embraces all types of rights, from political and civilian rights to economic, social and cultural rights. These rights strengthen the capability of people irrespective of cast, creed, gender, ethnicity, religion or region.

The Report highlights the significance of freedom which includes freedom from discrimination, freedom from want, freedom to develop and realize one’s development potential, freedom from fear, freedom from injustices, freedom of participation, speech, and association, and freedom for decent work. The Report identified seven key features for a broader approach to secure human rights and five priority areas of action. The five priority areas are: (a) Strengthening a rights-based approach in development cooperation, without conditionality; (b) Mobilizing the support for international cooperation for human rights; (c) Strengthening regional approaches; (d) Embarking on new efforts for peace-making, peace-building and peacekeeping; (e) Strengthening the international human rights machinery (Human Development Report, 2000, pp.1-13).

Human Development Index is the essential part of Human Development Report which was invented by a team of economists working in the UNDP under the leadership of Mahbub Ul Haq, to measure socio-economic progress as a better yardstick than GDP of earlier measurement of economic development. This indexation is known as Human Development Index (HDI) that has several indicators which reflect the progress of individual country in comparison with other set of countries and also emphasize the achievement at global level (Haq 2000. p.46).

The HDI is a composite of three basic components of human development: longevity, knowledge and standard of living. Longevity is measured by life expectancy; knowledge is measured by a combination of adult literacy and average year of schooling. Standard of living is measured by purchasing power, based on real GDP per capita adjusted for the local cost of living (purchasing power parity or PPP). The Human Development Index has been created, keeping in view that it should be simple, but powerful with more predictability, should have a universal appeal on basic capabilities covering developing as well as developed countries, should attract the attention of development actors like policy makers, academics and activists, and should have plurality. All the variables used in Human Development Index have been given equal weight based on philosophical reasoning that all dimensions are equally important and enviable for building human capabilities. The Human Development Index has been upgraded time to time by incorporating certain changes in variables and also in formula to acquire less controversial and more acceptable Reports (Jahan, 2003, pp.129-130).

The Human Development Index differentiates between means and ends of development, keeping human well-being in the center of all activities enhancing their achievements, freedom, and capabilities. There is income variable in the form of gross domestic product in the development index which serves as the means to attain education and health. (Sen, 2003, pp.114-115). Human Development Index also mixes economic and social choices together in order to strengthen it. It includes real income (power purchasing parity in dollars), which measures individual and national progress at both front- economic and social, in the form of enlarging choices of people. It is different from gross domestic product to scale economic progress and physical quality of life index (PQLI) to fathom social achievement and replaced both of them singularly and effectively. It is flexible enough to gradual refinements and accommodating timely criticisms in order to enlarge its audience base and efficacies. The index, though faced lot of data shortage at the initial moment because of lack of national data available, but with passing time it successfully exerted adequate pressure

over the governments of different countries to prepare comprehensive and reliable data, which at the end became advantageous for it (Haq, 2000, pp.46-48).

The Human Development Index (HDI) is used to capture the attention of policy makers, media and NGOs and to draw the attention away from the more usual economic statistics, to focus on human outcomes. The HDI was created to re-emphasize that people and their capabilities should be the ultimate criteria for assessing the development of a country, not the economic growth of the country. It was also created to question national policy choices- making how two countries with the same kind of income per person can end up with such different human development outcomes. For example Vietnam and Pakistan have similar level of income per person, but life expectancy and literacy differ greatly between the two countries, with Vietnam having much higher HDI value than Pakistan. This striking contrast immediately stimulates debate on government policies on health and education, asking why what is achieved in one country is far from the reach of another.

The concept of human development is much broader than what can be captured in the HDI. HDI and the other composite indices can only offer a broad proxy on the issue of human development, gender disparity and human poverty. A complete picture of a country's human development require analysis of other human development indicators and information. It is impossible to come up with a comprehensive measure- or even a comprehensive set of indicators – because many vital dimensions of human development are non-quantifiable. The main advantage the HDI has over GDP is that, as a more comprehensive social-economic measures, it says more about the average well-being of people than just aggregate economic growth.

Critical Analysis of Human Development

As per the definition of Human Development, it has similarity with the Dudley Seers' concept of development floated in late 1960's that stated that the development had been confused with economic development and economic development with

economic growth. There was a broadly held view in those days that development would include nutrition, health, shelter, employment, the physical environment, the sociocultural environment (quality of life), participation in decision making, human dignity, sense of belonging and so on. The enlargement of choices, mentioned in the definition of Human Development, has been clearly implied in Lewis' understanding of economic growth which talks of greater control over one's environment and in so doing increases one's freedom. The definitional part of Human Development Report does not have any nascent component on the one hand, while it does not mention evolution of human life on the other. Education, long life and purchasing power above poverty line cannot make people more "human". There is conceptual flaw in the definition of human development that it fails to ensure, even at a high level of human development, it will instill in majority of the people in a society to become more loving, caring, courteous, honest, truthful, crime-free, nonviolent, etc (Rao, 1990, pp.1353-54). The report, despite attempting to present as full a view of "human development" as possible, the analysis is not extended to normative recommendations or a discussion on moral issues. The Report has certain weaknesses in the form of limitations over typologies of country to make the base for analysis (Rao, 1990, pp.353-54).

Boer and Koekkoek challenged the credibility of a series of reports published till 1993. They discuss the treatment of the concept of human development. In general, they view, the focus is on the main policy messages, because policy-makers are clearly the primary audience of the series. These messages concern domestic socio-economic policies, government policies vis-à-vis the world market, and aspect of governance (participation, democratization) with a bearing on the role of the state in general. Their basis of criticism is the main message of HDR-1990 which emphasized that economic growth is not, in itself, the aim of development, but merely a means – albeit it a necessary means- which can be used to enhance people's well-being. On the basis of this principle, HDR-90 introduced the concept of human development, defined as a process of enlarging people's choices. In their opinion the term covers both the process and the level achieved, and is therefore also an aim. The

human development concept is strongly based on the notion of (lack of) capabilities. In general it lacks a firm conceptual discussion. For example, the chapter on economic growth and human development is mainly a description of countries' experiences. Theory remains almost limited to the definition of the concept: enlarging people's choices. Boer and Koekkoek come to the conclusion that though UNDP and the authors of the successive HDRs claimed that the reports were vessels of new insights and ideas, in practice such reports tend to be much less path-breaking. They rather serve as state-of-art reviews and as such communicate concepts and opinions to policy-makers, both in developed and developing countries. The HDRs often referred to in international policy meetings. From this point of view the HDR is a success, although there is, of course, no hard evidence of its impact. The same applies to other, comparable reports. On the other hand, the heated discussions regarding the freedom indexes indicate that countries do take the reports seriously. Their reservations to the report is that in the reports human development as a concept is insufficiently developed, with the risk that it will all too soon be dismissed as another fashionable but empty slogan. The credibility and reliability of the HDR have also been put at risk by the lack of solid evidence for certain assertions, such as the \$ 500 billion in the 1992 report (Boer and Koekkoek, 1993, pp.427-429).

The Human Development Report considers income of individual, not that much important; it only plays a subsidiary role to enhance capabilities of people. It also gives emphasis over public spending by the government, which ensures basic amenities in terms of providing drinking water, health centers, and food supply for targeted poor people. Though government spending is vital, but studies show that increased private income enhances purchasing power of people that is eventually spent over to increase calorie intake. It also has positive effect on education. Reducing income poverty should also be the target of the report that can be done through economic growth. The economic growth expands capabilities directly by raising average incomes of the population that give them greater command over relevant goods and services like food, health care, medical services, basic education. The

raising of average income has direct bearing on health and nutrition, lower mortality rate of children, and high life expectancy (Anand and Ravallion, 1993, pp.136-140).

The Human Development Report does not set priorities between growth-oriented policy reform and public spending on social services. The enlarged people's choices may serve the logic of promoting economic growth. The growth process may only enlarge the choices of rich people. Here the growth is attached with values and it depends upon the application of choices. The Human Development Report has defended the "choice" concept in a very vague term, though the choices have great intuitive appeal. The Reports have not been internally consistent in pursuing human development as ends and other things as means. Another view sees human development and economic growth as twin goals. The Report, though talks of distinction between ends and means, but keeps silence on lopsided growth-either good growth but little human development or good human development but little growth. This indicates that economic growth should be considered as separate end in itself, along with human development (Ravallion, 1997, pp.631-632).

The Human Development Index has attracted timely and positive criticisms which were later incorporated into Human Development Report. The criticisms, which were accommodated in Report, basically satisfied two basic conditions determined by the authors of Report: it must fit in with the concept and purpose of the Human Development Index and, if it suggests engaging introduction of a new indicator, it must subscribe sufficiency of available data and its feasibility (Raworth and Stewart, 2003, p.140).

With regard to measurement in the first Report of 1990, it was noted that the three deprivations: longevity, literacy, and adjusted purchasing power parity, received equal weight, was not mentioned in the report. The deprivation in purchasing power was calculated on the basis of average poverty line of nine industrial countries (Australia, Canada, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and the United States), instead of highest achieved

gross domestic product per capita. The indicator did not reflect the diminishing return to transforming income into human capabilities. This implies, in the other way, that people may achieve a decent life by not spending too much money. The index used in first Report to reflect the human dimensions of development lacked convenient communication link between the government and people. Rao finds similarity between the HDI and Physical Quality Life Index (PQLI) developed by Morris (1979) in terms of less usefulness for governments in communicating with their people and expresses apprehension regarding its wide use. He further suggests one possibility regarding its use in future editions of HDR: its use by UN agencies, bilateral donors and notably, the multilateral development bank (Rao, 1990, pp.353-54).

The indices, which are the backbone of the Report, are purely based on data, which themselves lack credibility and reliability. In developing countries, particularly, there has been a persistent problem of data collections and whatever data have been collected are methodologically incorrect and susceptible to drawing wrong conclusion (Moll, 1992, pp. 490-499). Though the Report gives equal weight to all the variables, but purchasing power per capita still plays significant role in fixing a countries' position. The composition of the index seems to be flawed and redundant as it is positively correlated with each of its component variables individually while single variable of gross domestic product yields the similar result to those of all three variables (.McGillivray, 1991, pp.1461-68).

The Human Development Index has been prepared on the basis of aggregation, which follows the equality principle, devoid of distributional aspect. Equality approach is concerned for dimensions, which have certain intrinsic values that contain human goods, which should be possessed by every human being at least in minimum amount. Inequality is based on efficiency, which suggests about goods, and income that is necessarily not valuable in themselves, but rather is means to intrinsic ends. Therefore reduced inequality of incomes follow efficiency approach which asserts

that lesser inequality of incomes leads to a more efficient societal use of income for obtaining other valuable social goods (Hicks, 1997, pp.1284-1287).

The educational variable has two components: adult literacy rate that is called “stock” concept in development terminology which indicates what percentage of adult population have acquired some minimal educational functioning, and gross enrolment ratio at primary, secondary and tertiary level that is called “flow” concept which reflects what percentage of population is currently in school. The educational variable gives only country’s overall adult literacy rate, which is very crude and does not give the breakup of knowledge distribution across the country. The existing indicators of longevity of life in Human Development Index do not disaggregate the age variation of particular person, ethnic/racial groups, rural or urban status, gender, or class /caste. It is argued that if inequality approach is included in Human Development Index, it may give clear picture of at least two variables: knowledge and longevity (Hicks 1997. pp.1284-1287).

The Human Development Index (HDI) is an example of a model which is impoverished relative to the theory which underlies it. The Human Development Reports draw upon the work of Amartya Sen--- in particular, his emphasis upon the development of human capabilities as the condition for people to function in many ways and to take advantage of opportunities for well-being (Sen,1992:40). The HDI, however, does not attempt to measure human capability as such but primarily tells us about the effect of government priorities for expenditures. Thus, while statistical measures of characteristics such as health, education, security and human rights may identify preconditions for the ability of people to develop, in themselves they serve only as proxies for the potential growth of capabilities and do not demonstrate the realization of that potential. Neither do these studies focus closely upon the precise process by which human capabilities develop (Labowitz, 2004, p.2).

The invention of Human Development Report is really a marvelous revelation in the direction of achieving a better society where one can expect a man/woman free of want. Human Development Report is the clear manifestation of Human Development approach which was carefully and courageously carved out in a liberal world led by capitalist mode of production. Human development approach conceives a material-abundant society essential for leading a comfortable life. Liberal economic system provides necessary condition for the human development, but it does not take care of distribution aspect. Human development emphatically talks of equitable distribution in a free market economy and reasserts the interventionist role of state in case of market failure. The report focuses on enlarging the people's choices not in strict economic sense, but opportunities for participating social and cultural activities. It goes beyond the need of present generation and takes care of future generation also. It includes ecological sustainability also. Now it has changed its nomenclature from simple human development to sustainable human development.

Though the indices which are being used in Human Development Report just represent three aspects of human life which are necessary for survival per se and to increase the efficiency of working, but its effect goes beyond that. There seem to be some conceptual inconsistency in the indices which was mentioned in the above paragraph, some of which give the indication of bias against human development approach. Given the situation the effort of its formulator seem to be swimming against the current of free market. The approach is not necessarily new but a cumulative one that starts from the days of Aristotle and seems to be highly influenced from Marx's thinking. The capability formation of human development approach can be said to be a partial image of totally developed man of Marx. It appears to be an effort to introduce Marxian value of human being in a liberal democratic society.

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Note-*indicates the Primary Sources.

Chapter - III

INDIA AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Though there is divergence of opinion on the concept of social development between developed and developing countries' scholars, but gradually there seems to be a point of convergence on the centrality of human being and their development not only in material terms which economic development is poised to take care of, but non material development in the forms of better and expanded opportunities for every section of society which might help them in attaining other requirements of life. Social development started appearing on discussion in development literature only at the beginning of 1970s when the prevailing model of economic development miserably failed to address the problems of poverty, hunger, illiteracy, and unemployment among larger masses of society in most of the developing and least developed countries (Prasad, 2003, p. 571).

This concept is based on the premise that all developments are in some sense social because all developments necessarily express social objectives, require social mechanisms in order to achieve those objectives, and has social consequences. This concept was further clarified in the sense that all development is social development which keeps people in its center, and skills and capacities of people are advanced that work as a critical resource. All ends are social and economic growth and development is only one of the means of achieving them (Prasad, 2003, p.572).

Social development in itself is not an alternative to economic development, according to some scholars, but an incorporation of a more people oriented focus. Social development is more comprehensive and subsumes economic development aiming at the attainment of certain wider social objectives and ideals. Economic growth alone is generally socially inadequate (Prasad, 2003, pp. 573-581).

This chapter seeks to discuss Indian concept of social development, constitutional provisions for social development, its inclusion in government's policies and programmes, its successes or failures, and new programmes in accordance with new situation from the purview of social development as a whole and its similarities or contrasts with new paradigm of human development as focused by the UNDP.

Indian Concept of Social Development

Indian concepts of social development in the post-independence era seem to be influenced by the thinking of Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister. In initial days there was a brief tussle between Gandhi and Nehru regarding the Indian society. Gandhi had an idea of simple village like Rousseau. He, therefore, felt that transforming India into an industrial society would be pointless, Nehru, on the other hand, was dreaming of building a modern industrialized society in India. Since Nehru was in position to experiment with his dream he went ahead and put his plan into action. In 1938, a national planning committee was formed with Jawaharlal Nehru as its chairperson. Nehru felt that it was difficult to plan anything as they had very few facts at their disposal and neither the central government nor the states took any interest in the matter. This reflects the problems in the early days when not much was known about development per se or how to go about it in practice. Nehru did not realize that it takes more than the passion of a few to change the mindset of millions of people and their material environment. As Nehru noted the original idea behind the formation of the committee was to further the process of industrialization as it was assumed to be central to all other problems. Though he referred to the difficulty of arriving at a consensus on matters of social organisation, he went ahead with what he believed in. The major differences on policy were the freedom of business houses, and urbanization versus development of villages and cottage industries (Siddiqui, 2004, p. 58).

Nehruvian model in India remained, for a considerable time, the core of economic planning with major emphasis on industrial development along self-sufficiency in food production. He was aware that the industrialization resulted in more

unemployment and while capital accumulated at one end, poverty and unemployment increased at the other. Nehru, however, believed that the state would be able to usher in a socialist era where everyone would be looked after irrespective of his/her caste, class or religious affiliation. He did not imagine that the economic growth would cut at the roots of his dream of socialism or a principled poverty free society. There were other sociologists, economists and intellectuals in general, who welcomed the economic approach of Nehru to development through industrialization and in particular the role of state and the planning. They also attracted Nehru's concern of the weaker section of the society and need of State intervention to bring about poverty free society. In the subsequent national economic planning, strong emphasis was given to bring about not just the economic development but also social development in India. Only some have expressed concern about the problem of "organisation of values in the process of their evolution". D. P. Mukerjee felt that enough attention has not been given by the planners to outlining clearly the nature of 'a new social order' and 'a new man', which in other words means that he believed in the possibility of reconstruction, though he recognized that there were other things which held more importance. The fact, however, remains that even the pre-colonial image of feudal agricultural society of India was not as romantic as it is made out to be. The oppressive feudal society was as coercive as the modern state in many ways and to find the kind of village virtues Gandhi had in mind one would have to go back to Rousseau's 'savage man'. This is in fact has been the central problem in viewing, the past, present and the future, the difficulty to separate the real from the ideal. There was a wide gulf between the grassroots' perception and the elites' perception of what constituted the good life and the means to construct it. In retrospect, the choice of the political structure determined to a great extent the nature and response of the elite to accommodate the 'other'. The political structure gave the state the monopoly to define development in purely economic terms, but the democratic compulsion lead to the inclusion of access to education and health for all in the agenda of development. Nehru had a vision of transforming the vast Indian society into a modern nation. Nehru and his team of planners were hopeful of extending the social services such as

education and health to the millions, who, in the mid fifties, had hardly any access to these (Siddiqui, 2004, pp. 60-61).

One may conceive the Indian concept of social development as to modernize the society based on the western values, transforming the rural society with the help of education, inculcating the modern values by making the society free from caste oppression, free from religious biases and providing employment opportunities to make it urbanized. Thus the Indian concept of social development means broadening education, health services, construction of infrastructure for public good such as roads, rails, schools, hospitals training institutions etc.(Siddique, 2004, p. 80).

Constitutional Provisions for Social Development in India

India adopted the constitutional democracy with universal suffrage, which precisely encouraged her to provide political freedom, equality before law and equal opportunity in the fields of education and employment. The Indian Constitution, which was adopted in 1952, clearly reflects the supremacy of Indian people and it draws its constituent parts and organs of Government from people. The Constitution guarantees and ensures security to all the people of India, social, economic and political justice; equality of status and opportunity before the law, freedom of thought and expression, belief, faith, worship, association and action, subject to law and public morality and adequate safeguards and provisions for minorities, backward and tribal areas, depressed and other backward classes(Saksena, 2003, pp. 14-15).

The constitution of India, in modern phraseology, encompasses all the provisions which are considered to be essential for social development that have been enshrined in Part III and Part IV. In part III of the Constitution there are provisions of fundamental rights which can not be taken away by the state. They have grouped under seven heads: right to equality, right to particular freedoms, right against exploitation, right to freedom of religion, cultural and educational rights, right to

property¹, and right to constitutional remedies. Fundamental Rights essentially guarantee life, liberty and property. It was realized by the framers of the Constitution that rights guaranteed under Fundamental Rights would have no meaning unless it creates socio-economic conditions for the upliftment of deprived and poor people of the country suffering from social evils in the form of caste oppression, and excluded from mainstream population because of certain geographical, material, and cultural conditions (Menon, 2003, pp.102-103).

Part IV of the Constitution (Article 36-51) provides the Directive Principles of State Policy which reflect the range of socio-economic rights or entitlement recognised by the Indian constitution. These Principles may be classified under several groups: (a) Certain ideals, particularly economic, which according to the framers of the Constitution, the State should strive for; (b) Certain directions to the legislature and the Executive intended to show in what manner the State should exercise their legislative and executive powers and (c) Certain rights of the citizens which shall not be enforceable by the court like the 'Fundamental Rights'; but which the State nevertheless aim at securing, by regulations of its legislative and administrative policy (Fadia, 1999, p. 126). Article 38 gives direction to state to secure a social order for the promotion of welfare of people, while Article 39 speaks for provision to secure equality in the matter of access to resources, Article 39A states about providing equal justice and free legal aid to the poor, Article 41 is to ensure Right to work, to education and public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness, disablement and of undeserved wants. Article 43 states to secure a living wage and decent standard of life as well as full enjoyment of leisure, Article 45 ensures to provide free and compulsory education for all children until the age of 14 years within

¹ The Right to property was abolished by the 44th Constitutional Amendment in 1978 by the Janta Party government giving the reason to implement the promise of economic justice and equality of opportunity assured by the Preamble by inserting Clause(2) in Article 38. The Amendment, in essence, says that State shall, in particular, strive to minimize the inequalities in income, and endeavourer to eliminate in inequalities in status, facilities and opportunities, not only among individuals but also groups of people residing different areas and different vocations. The elimination of Right to property paved the way for confiscatory taxation and for equalizing salaries, and wages for different vocations and categories of work, which would usher in a socialistic society, even without resorting to nationalization of the means of production (Basu 2004. p. 145).

a period of ten years of commencement of the constitution, Article 46 promotes the educational and economic interests of the Schedule Castes, Schedule Tribes and other weaker sections, Article 47 assigns duty to states to raise the nutrition level, standard of living and public health (Menon, 2003, pp. 102-103).

The difference between the Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles, from the individual standpoint, is that justiciable and non-justiciable rights classified by the framers of the Constitution borrowed from the Constitution of Ireland. Though the Directive Principles under the Article 43 enjoins the State to secure a living wage to all workers, no worker can secure a living wage by means of an action in a Court. In other words, the Courts are not competent to compel the Government to carry out any Directives, for example, to provide for free compulsory education within the time limited by Article 45 or to undertake legislation to implement any of the Directive Principles. Though the Directive Principles constitute the most important provisions in a country like India, but the Fundamental Rights have occupied prominent place in the Constitution. Fundamental Rights are enforceable in the Courts and the Courts are bound to declare null and void any law which is inconsistent with any of Fundamental Rights while the Directives are not enforceable in the Court of Law and the Court cannot declare any law as void which is otherwise valid, on the ground that it contravenes any of the Directives.(Basu, 2004. p. 146).

Some high standard social and economic ideals, proposed through Directive Principles in the Constitution of India, were those which could not be given practical shape immediately after the Constitution became operational. The main reason being that to meet the provisions enshrined in Part-IV of the Constitution under Directive Principles required a lot of resources and capability which the country was lacking at that time. Therefore, the responsibility to execute those provisions was left over to the future governments to make India an ideal state. Had the Directive Principles been made justiciable like Fundamental Rights, the people would have knocked the Court's door to compel the government to fulfill their demands by providing them all sorts of opportunities related to their self-development as well as community development, for

which government neither had money nor capability to do so. For example, providing free education, right to work, economic equality, decentralization and democratization of means of production etc were some ideals which could not be provided because it required sufficient means and time (Sayid, 2002, p. 56).

Dr. B. R. Ambedkar observed in the Constituent Assembly, “If any government ignores them (Directive Principles), they will certainly have to answer for them before the *electorate* at the election time”. It would also be a patent weapon at the hands of the Opposition to discredit the Government on the ground that any of its executive or legislative acts is opposed to the Directive Principles. So the reason seems to be purely political. Granville Austin considers these Directives to be “aimed at furthering the goals of the social revolution or to foster this revolution by establishing the conditions necessary for its achievements”. He explains that “these positive obligations of the State, the members of the Constituent Assembly made it the responsibility of future Indian government to find a middle way between individual liberty and public good, between preserving the property and the privilege of the few and bestowing benefits on the many in order to liberate the powers of all men equally for contributions to the common good.” (Basu, 2004. pp.147-149).

Economic Development in India

In India the development processes have passed through many changes and shifted the priorities in order to address the requirements of people at large. Surrounded with innumerable problems at the time of attaining independence, debate over the model of development was intense in the inner power circle of Indian ruling elites. The society was hugely fragmented on the lines of caste, religion, language, region and a vast chunk of population was under abject poverty. On the other hand a small section of society was as rich and prosperous as people in any developed country. The economy was dominantly agrarian absorbing 74 per cent of total work force of the country, around two per cent of work force was engaged in organized sector, less than two per cent in civil services and remaining were employed in small scale and cottage

industries or were small traders. At the time of independence only 12 per cent of the population could read and write (Saksena, 2003, pp. 12-13).

Given the intensity of situation, debate over development model concentrated between Gandhian notion of village development and no industrialization, and Nehruvian model of modernization influenced by the western approach. Ultimately Nehruvian model of development prevailed which is reflected in the first five-year plan which formally began in 1952 with emphasis on industrialization. It became territorially sovereign, politically independent with liberal democracy and socialist model of economic planning with mixed economy. Industrialization was assumed to change rural life into urban life. Urban life was envisaged as positive change and preferred over rural living standard of people crushed under perpetual hunger and poverty and moreover suppressed by feudal economic and political structure (Siddiqui, 2004, pp. 58-60).

India, primarily being the agrarian economy, opted for industrialization with the help modern scientific technologies for the better socio-economic development. In search of international help in the field of science and technology India joined the technical assistance programme run by the United Nations under the head of Expanded Programme for Technical Assistance in 1949 when it was created, and in 1951 it started acquiring technical assistance. Its association with the United Nations system became stronger and it vigorously participated in the formation of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1965. When UNDP became operational in 1966, India received substantial assistance in the realm of technology (Kamal, 2004, pp.118-119).

In the first 15 years of planned development India invested heavily in heavy industries and infrastructure sectors with the purpose of intermediary goods production to help domestic capital formation in private sector for production of consumer goods at low costs so that local needs to be taken care of without importing foreign goods for consumption. Economic nationalism was encouraged and heavy import duties were

levied to stop intervention of foreign exports in consumer durables objects (Nayyar, 1999, pp.369-373).

The first five-year plan started in 1951 along with large investment in industrial sector. Special emphasis was also given on agricultural development to attain the self-sufficiency in food grains as well as post-war reconstruction schemes as an objective to double the per capita income within 25 years. A massive community development scheme was launched in order to develop rural India by creating public utility assets. Panchayati Raj system was introduced to devolve the responsibility to grass root level. The Zamindari and Jagirdari systems were abolished and a land reforms were introduced. Land reform was proposed to be completed through two stages: first, abolition of intermediary landholdings that was prevailing from the British period, second implementing land ceiling act. First phase of land reform was implemented successfully while second phase could not be implemented because big landholders with the help of officials evaded by adopting benami transfer of land (Singh, 1999, pp. 142-143).

India is primarily a country of villages, where still 74 per cent of population inhabit and around 70 per cent of labour force work in agricultural sector. Majority of them were and are landless agricultural labourers, a sizable chunk is marginal and small landholders. The rural India was on backburner under the development priority and it could be possible because of rural notabilities, mostly large landowners who managed to survive intermediary abolition and further blocked the land ceilings legislation. Private sector industrialists were encouraged by adopting import substitutions in which state played the role of third actor in providing unrestricted and safe domestic market and all necessary infrastructure and intermediary goods production (Rudolph and Rudolph, 1987, pp.49-51).

The three successive five-year plans, from 1951 to 1964, agriculture hardly got any serious attention because heavy industries absorbed the lion's share of planned investment. The abolition of intermediary landholdings released 14 million acres of

land that was distributed and around 20 million cultivators became owners. The eradication of intermediary landholdings created a new power class of market oriented independent cultivators from feudal landlords, but the marginal tenants, dwarf holders, and landless agricultural laborers did not benefit from abolition of the intermediaries. On the contrary, the change occurred at top rung of the agrarian pyramid. An unaccounted number of tenants were expelled from the cultivating land on the name of self-cultivation by the landlords (Rudolph and Rudolph, 1987, pp. 312-315).

The first three five-year plans miserably failed to address the increasing poverty, though during this period robust industrial growth was recorded at the rate of 7.5 per annum. The food grain production was also growing at around 2.5 per cent per annum. But because of lack of any specific additional measures to contain poverty and hunger and distribution of national income poverty reduction was not registered (Patnaik and Patnaik, 2001, p.35).

India, with the help of foreign assistance, particularly in the field of modern technology in industry and agriculture, increased its production manifold at both the levels. In industrial sector it had got substantial achievement by mid 1960s, while the agriculture was lagging behind. But in late 1960s and early 1970s India went on massive technological drive and scientific way of using agricultural materials like high yielding seeds, fertilizers, irrigation and insecticides. This effort yielded expected result and by the end of 1970s India became one of the ten largest industrial nation in the world and also achieved food self-sufficiency. At the beginning of 1980s India could reduce its share of capital investment for the use of import of machinery and equipment from 37 per cent to 16 per cent and general purpose use of food grain from 8 per cent to 1.4 per cent. It also achieved milestones in nuclear research, rocket engineering and space technology (Kotovsky, 1984, pp.1131-34).

Despite many ups and downs the growth of Indian economy continued with usual pace barring few years of oil shocks in 1970s. It became world's fourth largest economy in cumulative term, but in per capita gross development product it is lagging behind many of the developing countries. As per the growth of economy by any account

India is among one the fastest growing economies in the world, but so far as economic development is concerned it is more backward than most of the developing countries. India has not been able to contain growth of population that has already crossed one billion mark, huge number of poor that is virtually stagnant since independence, increasing unemployment and moreover burgeoning social inequity (Siddiqui, 2004, p. 11).

Population growth has been one of the major problem on way to achieve economic development. The Indian planners took it into account by assessing its possible drawbacks and started population control measures in 1952 itself. India was the first country to adopt family planning system in formal way (it is now the world's second largest country containing 16 per cent of total world population), but the half-hearted attempt and unwise and inefficient implementation of programmes made it fail to stabilize its population at low level. It is struggling to achieve the fertility rate 25 per 1000 person which is currently around 40 per thousand (Ledbetter, 1984, pp. 736-758).

Employment is the most essential element of economic development which ensures transfer of national income and distribution of national wealth to the people who does not possess any private property. The economic development model, which India adopted since the independence was in the direction of forming state capitalism by nationalizing lands with the help of disbanding land holdings from the Jamindars and Jagirdars and subsequent redistribution among landless, and nationalizing big industries and services, but actually it worked in promoting national bourgeoisie and private capital owners. All sorts of privileges and preferences were given to that section of society which was already rich and prosperous. State provided it with subsidized agricultural facilities in terms of providing loans, cheap power supply, machines, tractors, and seeds to the big farmers. Private industries were provided with cheap intermediary goods for manufacturing finished products at favourable terms and conditions. The burden of employment remained over the agricultural sector which now hardly contributes around 27 per cent of GDP. Industries have their own

limitations which work on the motive of maximization of profits and employment generation becomes the secondary purpose. The other vistas of employment generation only started in late 1970s, particularly during the slack period because of drought (Nayyar, 1999, pp. 369-373).

In order to address the problem of poverty and hunger and rural unemployment the Government started Employment Guarantee Scheme and National Assurance Scheme. Employment Guarantee scheme was first started in Maharashtra which was designed to provide work within the radius of 8 km. from the house of participants and minimum wage. It encouraged the participation of women also. Initially the scheme was successful, but certain demerits cropped up. Official lethargy and unwise planning discouraged it (Gaiha, 1996, pp. 1202-04).

In 1989 Jawahar Rozgar Yozna was started with new vigor to generate employment in rural areas and local asset creation which may help in rural development. The Jawahar Rozgar Yojana, the largest such program, was launched in 1989 following the merger of the National Rural Employment Program (NREP) and Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Program (RLEGP). Between 1992-95, total allocation for the Jawahar Rozgar Yojna grew by 18%, from Rs.11.3 billion to Rs. 13.4 billion (at 1980-81 prices). Person-days of employment generated rose from 782 million to 895 million, implying a growth of more than 14%. The Jawahar Rozgar Yojna aims to alleviate poverty through creating supplementary employment opportunities for the rural poor during agricultural slack periods. Other objectives include creation of social assets, such as, roads, public forests, school buildings, and so forth, and increasing agricultural wage rates. The Jawahar Rozgar Yojna employment preference is given (though no specific targets are set) to members of Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) and 30% of the employment opportunities are reserved for women. Rural public works are a major component of India's poverty alleviation strategy (Gaiha, 1998, pp.928-29). The various types of employment generating schemes are not sufficient enough to provide employment to the increasing work force. Firstly, the number of work force is growing faster than the number of

work opportunities; secondly, it is just providing sustenance that does not give access to better education, health, or economic opportunities in future. The nature of work undergone marked changes which again require trained and skilled work force. In 1997 only 27.9 million people were employed in organized sector –public and private both, 7.5 million people were unemployed or underemployed and 389.7 million people were employed. The percentage of women work force was 15.8 in organized sector. In India, according to ninth plan official figure, over 40 million people are either unemployed or underemployed. Though female workforce is relatively small so far, but potential of their inclusion is very strong which will certainly add to the number of unemployed (Siddiqui, 2004, pp. 72-75).

Poverty is a permanent feature of social reality which is fluctuating since independence in India. The major problem lies in rural areas where the drop or rise in poverty depends upon the agricultural output. If the country receives good harvest and increase in crop production, the rate of poverty has been noticed as declining. If there is crop failure the rate of poverty grows upward. These show that rural poverty is viewed in terms of nutritional aspects which is either fulfilled through good crop production or in case of shortage of food grains people are bound to suffer from malnutrition, hunger, and starvation. It presents a character of perennial hunger which is known as 'abject poverty' in politico-economic term. As the data provided by National Sample Survey (NSS) of various rounds show the increase and decrease in poverty has been taking place, but it has so far not come down below the 26 per cent (government figure) of the total population. While the independent sources based on the rough figure given by NSS calculated it around 36 per cent of the total population is living under abject poverty condition which is quite higher than the total population of India at the time of independence in 1947. Many schemes were launched seriously since 1970s, but number of poor could not be brought down sufficiently. There are many processes of defining poor. International formula accepted by the United Nations and the World Bank subscribes that those who earn less than one dollar per day, applicable only to developing countries, would be considered poor. But India defines it according to the monthly per capita total expenditure of households which

was fixed at Rs. 49.90 for rural and Rs. 56.65 for urban households at the 1973-74 prices. By the end of 2000 around 33 per cent people were below the poverty line. Several measures were taken to reduce poverty, for example ensuring food security through public distribution system, Rural Work Programmes and so on (Dhanasekaran, 2002, pp. 126-130).

Social Development in India

In India social development is generally referred to as provision of social services to people in general to increase their participation in economic development, which constitutes basic education, basic health, nutrition, employment, women empowerment and so on. In India right from the beginning of independence period economic and political development got the front stage and social development took the back seat. India adopted a limited policy of social development in the form of human resources development which basically covers education, health and nutrition (Rudolph and Rudolph, 1987, pp.312-315). The capability and ability acquired by human beings through better education and health facilities are used as a means for the attainment of rapid economic growth which is the ultimate aim of the nation. Investment of human being is undertaken, not for the development of human being for his own welfare, but purely from the point of view of the economy. Human being here is treated at par with other inputs, like capital or machine and therefore all efforts are directed to improve his conditions not for his own welfare but for the economic betterment of nation (Sengupta, 2002, pp.171-172).

Social development goals are carried in India through five-year plans and try to improve the conditions of living of the masses, who fail to be the direct beneficiaries of economic development that the government of India has been undertaking (Sengupta, 2002, pp. 171-172).

Health

Health is the basic thing for every Indian, but the Constitution of India does not explicitly declare health or health care as a fundamental right. The Indian Constitution guarantees protection for a wide variety of human needs consisting social, economic and political rights, but health has got ensconced in some fundamental rights which in anyway hold relevance for the right to health. It is again the Directive Principle of State Policy, Article 39 which made it obligatory upon the State Governments to direct its policy towards ensuring that the health and strength of people are not abused. Similarly, Article 47 enjoins the State to raise the level of nutrition and standard of living of its people and improve public health. India's health status is characterized by shifting demographics, altered health behaviours and changes in disease pattern. On the one hand, a high proportion of the population continues to suffer and die from communicable diseases, preventable infections, pregnancy and childbirth-related complications and malnourishment. On the other, there is a rise in the incidence of non-communicable diseases such as diabetes, cancer and cardiovascular ailments.

The health sector in India is operated by both State funded and managed services and private services are providing preventive and curative care at all levels from primary, secondary and tertiary. The private sector plays a dominant role in this field, accounting 78 per cent of the overall health expenditure and 4.7 per cent of gross domestic product. As per the health policy of India, it is the Bhore Commission that enunciated the principle that primary health care is a basic right to which people should not be denied access because of their inability to pay or for other socio-economic reasons. Following this principle India became the strong supporter of Alma-Ata Declaration of 1978, where it committed itself to attaining the goal of 'Health for All' based on a primary healthcare approach (Marks, 2003, pp.208-219).

In the sixth five-year plan health was clearly demarcated as one of the priority area and National Health Policy was commissioned in 1983 with clear vision. 'Health for All by 2000 AD' was launched to cover entire population of the country within the

gamut of health services (Singh,1999, p.145). The National Health Policy of 1983 focused for the establishment of a nationwide network of epidemiological stations that would facilitate the integration of various health interventions; for achievement that were primarily demographic in nature; and an expansion of the private curative sector which would help reduce the government's burden. During the decade of 1980s rural health care attracted special attention and massive expansion of primary health care facilities was undertaken to achieve the target of one Primary Health Centres per 30,000 population and one sub-centre per 5000 population. The sixth and seventh five-year plan more or less achieved the infrastructure target but services were broadly underutilized because of poor facilities, inadequate supplies, insufficient effective person hours, poor managerial skills of doctors, faulty planning of the mix of health and lack of proper monitoring and evaluatory mechanism. Another observation revealed that the health system based on team work failed to work because of the mismatch of training and the work allocated to health workers, inadequate transport facilities, non availability of appropriate accommodation for the health team and an unbalanced distribution of work time for various activities (Duggal, 2002, pp.16-17).

Education

The first 20 years of post independence period highlighted the importance of higher and secondary education and only in 1964 a committee was constituted under the Chairmanship of D. S. Kothari to deal with primary education which formed the basis of the National Policy on Education that was formed in 1968 (Marks, 2003, pp. 195-196). Education is primarily a state subject, therefore state bear the lion's share of educational expenditure. The trend in education expanses reflects the non-serious attitude of the central government, given the Centre-State relations in terms of economic and financial matter. State governments share 89 per cent to 91 per cent of total expenditure. The share of central government in education expanses has been fluctuating, for example in 1986-87 it was 1.61 per cent of the GDP, in terms of percentage of aggregate expenditure it was 7.47 per cent and per capita expenditure on education was Rs. 143 which saw several downs in absolute and percentage term. According to available data in the year 2000-2001 the expense on education by central

government was 1.58 per cent of GDP, 10.24 as per cent of aggregate expenditure and Rs. 217 per capita expenditure, out of which around 50 per cent amount is spent over primary education and literacy programme. The state governments spend around 16-18 per cent of state budget on education, sports and arts. An effort in the direction of universalisation of education is being made and for that several schemes like Sarva Siksha Abhiyan, Operation Blackboard, Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternation and Innovation Education, Teacher Education, Lok Jumbish, Shiksha Karmi Project, Janshala, District Primary Education Programme(DPEP), Midday Meal, Mahila Samakhya, have been launched to reduce the illiteracy, to ensure increased participation of children from poor family, girl children and women, and adult (Shariff, Ghosh and Mondal, 2002, pp. 769-774).

For the weaker sections, particularly the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, apart from reserving seats in educational institutions 15 per cent and 7.5 per cent respectively, the Central and State Governments have initiated a number of measures like Girls' hostel for SC and ST, boys hostels for SC and ST, Ashram schools in Tribal Sub-Plan Areas, awarding of various types of scholarships to SC/ST students, coaching and allied schemes, book-bank for SC and ST children studying in Medical and Engineering Colleges, free supply of books, stationery, uniform, as well as reimbursement of tuition fees, introduction of modern trades and training Centres for self-employment and so on (Mohanty, 2000, pp. 554-56).

Women's Development

Women development is one of the most significant aspect of social development. The lives of women varies from place to place and within caste, class, religious and ethnic groups. Women have been suffering from many types of odds in society at global level as in India where they suffer from social evils like dowry. The lack of access to technology and its improper handling have adversely effected them and further pushed to destitution. Because of different types of social disadvantages women in general are economically dependent over their counterparts. The deteriorating ratio of women in India tells the pathetic story of their status in society. Women are the worst

sufferer before the birth and after the birth. India's sex ratio is either going down or stagnant which is, according to currently available census report, 933 per 1000 male. The sex ratio is more precarious in economically developed states like Punjab, Haryana, Delhi, and Chandigarh. The mortality rate of women has been higher to man in every age group (Siddiqui, 2004, pp. 89-91).

Women are discriminated at work place and because of unequal social and political circumstances women have unequal capabilities. All women are not treated as ends in their rights, but treated as mere instruments for the ends of others- reproducers, caregivers, sexual outlets, agents of a family general prosperity, though India's constitution is a very women-friendly document. The Fundamental Rights under Article 15 provides the provision of prohibition from discrimination which says that citizen shall not be discriminated in any matter at the disposal of the State on any of the specified ground, namely, religion, race, caste, place of birth or *sex*. Article 16 deals with the citizens issues restricted to one aspect of public discrimination, namely, employment under the State. In matters not coming under Articles 15 or 16, if there is any discrimination, the validity of that can be challenged under the general provision in Article 14 which enshrines the principle of equality and absence of discrimination. Article 21, states that no citizen shall be deprived of "life or liberty" without the due process of law. In a historic judgment, Supreme Court, in disposing off the case, *Vishakaha Vs State of Rajasthan*, in 1997, came out with guidelines for establishment of a statutory body to deal with the cases regarding women pertaining to any kind of discrimination by the male counterpart at public working places like government offices, educational institutions or even the private institutions (Nussbaum 2002, pp.1-24. Basu, 2004, pp. 91-93).

It is employment which can give them equal social status, because of earning. According to census data the participation of women in work is steadily increasing which rose from 14.22 per cent to 22.27 per cent in 1991. The participation of rural female is steeper than the urban female. In organized sector, in 1994, 27.17 million people were employed. The participation of female worker may have increase, but

because of lack of appropriate skills, with the introduction of new technology they are easily displaced. The unsafe working condition at work place, particularly teasing, molesting and sexual harassment discourages women to come forward to participate in jobs outside their home (Siddiqui, 2004, pp.93-95).

The state efforts regarding women issues are best reflected in the five-year plans. The approach to women's development in the first five-year plan was not clear. Women were seen as a part of general social reality which was being addressed, as poor, illiterate and generally in need of health services. Significantly issues identified by the sub-committee on women ('Women in planned economy' 1941) were not considered. In the Second Five-Year Plan (1956-61) efforts were geared to organize 'Mahila Mandal' at grassroots levels to ensure better implementation of welfare schemes, like education, health, especially maternal and child health etc. The subsequent plan (1961-1974) continued in the same direction. To address the major problem of poverty, illiteracy, non-enrollment, drop-out, etc., that affected the large majority of girls and women, the issue of population control acquired increasing priority. With all these efforts, the education, maternity services and child did not make any headway (Siddiqui, 2004, p. 96).

In the Fifth Plan (1974-78), it is argued that there was a shift in the approach from 'welfare' to 'development' as the scope of social welfare was enlarged. The women's developmental needs were seen as multi dimensional, cutting across economic, social and political sectors. In practice nothing significant happened.

The Sixth Plan admitted the failure in its efforts to remove the gender disparity and injustice in both social and economic life. Including women, within the chapter on employment and manpower and rural developments, this plan made a departure from earlier plans where women had been mentioned only in the chapter on social services. Strengthening of voluntary organisation of women at the grassroots, originally attempted during the Second Plan, was advocated for creating a proper climate for change. The quota for women in employment, education and decision-making bodies

is the latest effort in ensuring gender justice. Despite the Seventh Plan document's refusal to adopt the quota approach, a 30 per cent quota for women in all anti-poverty programme in the rural areas was provided. The implementation, however, commenced in the Eighth Five-Year Plan. The Government of India prepared a National Perspective Plan (NPP) for Women. The flow of the benefits to women in the three core sectors of education, health, and employment was to be monitored and the general belief was that the approach has now moved from development to empowerment (Siddiqui, 2004, pp. 96-97).

Success and Failures of Social Development in India

At this juncture it is important to assess the performance of social development programmes. Following few pages would analyze working of government policies in terms of achievements and failures keeping the paradigm of social development in mind.

Education

In the field of education if one analyses the success and failures one must view its effect on lower strata of society. In absolute terms the overall literacy rate has been appreciable as India's adult literacy rate reached up to 65 per cent according to 2001 census report, but its state-wise and gender-wise attainment has been very depressing. The female literacy rate is still much lower than the male literacy rate while literacy rate in the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is yet to take pace. It is now crystal clear that literacy rate varies with income earning as it is shown in the results of various surveys. Literacy rate is also comparatively low in rural areas where landless wage earners, Scheduled castes and the Scheduled Tribes (according to Human Development Report, 1999) form about 17 per cent of adult males and 9 per cent of adult female completed middle school (Siddiqui, 2004, p. 84).

The enrolment rate has increased many-fold in comparison with 1950, but the rate of retention is the main cause of concern. The main reason for the inability to achieve the goal of universal elementary education is the poor retention capacity of the

education system. Retention rates, however, continue to be very low. The female retention rates are very low compared to male retention rates. The first India Human Resources Development Report brought out in 1999 reported that the average discontinuation rate is about 6 per cent for rural India. Contrary to the general belief, drop-out are negligible (about 1 per cent) among children aged 6-9 years; they increase to 2.1 per cent among 6-11 year olds and 13 per cent among 12 year olds. About 68 per cent of all children go to government-aided schools while 11 per cent of boys go to private schools, only 8 per cent of girls do so (Siddiqui, 2004, pp. 85-87).

In the era of structural adjustment the allocations for education has gone through changes. The share of education expenditure from all departments declined from around 4.1 per cent in 1990-91 to 3.8 per cent in 1998-99. The picture in the share of education for the states is the same, but there has been an increase in central government expenditure after 1995-96. The education expenditure of the center increased from 0.25 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) in 1994-95 to 0.31 per cent in 1995-96 to 0.36 per cent in 1998-99. The increase is almost completely due to increase in spending on elementary education, and to a large extent related to the introduction and expansion of the mid-day meal programme (Dev and Moej, 2002, p. 859).

Health

Health is consistently on receding position in terms of budget allocations. Despite the Bhore Committee recommendation to spend at least 15 per cent of annual expenditure on health the Government of India never crossed 3.31 per cent of annual expenditure on Health and Family Welfare together. Gradually the budget expenditure for health decreased to 1.75 per cent in the Eighth Five-Year Plan and 1.1 per cent in Ninth five-Year Plan. There has been a negative impact of these cuts on the health of people. For diseases like malaria the number of plasmodium falciparum cases have become almost 50 per cent of all cases and as a result deaths have increased. At the same time the annual blood examination rate has decreased. The cases of Leprosy and Filaria have also increased in the decade of 1990s. According to Government data about 80

per cent of villages in India have access to safe drinking water, however the reality is different. The other data show that half of the villages do not have any sources of protected drinking water resulting in at least 60 per cent of children suffering from diarrhea. This increase in all communicable diseases is due to decreasing allocations in the programmes, their verticalisation, inadequate manpower, administrative problems, as well as due to inadequate attention to supportive services like water supply, sanitation, food supply, employment and education (Sagar and Quadeer, 2002, pp. 211-212).

Though in the area of life expectancy India has achieved good results. The average life expectancy from birth has reached to 62 years, infant death rate has come down to 72 per thousand live birth, but it is still lagging behind many of the developing countries. The result varies in different house holds like crude death rate is high among landless labourers. Unfortunately, birth rate has not expectedly come down due to inefficient and unwise implementation of family planning scheme (Saddiqui, 2004, p. 83).

Women Development

According to a survey carried out by the Indira Gandhi Institute in Mumbai, on the issues of how women are related to development planning, shows that women, barring few in the middle and upper strata of the society, remain deprived in work opportunities, in access to markets, in ownership of productive resources, in education, science and technology, in all those things that makes it possible for a human being to experience freedom and participate in and enjoy the fruits of economic development. The old policies, as it was, did not do any good for women, though it did have some achievements to its credit and made lot of noises of good intentions (Krishnraj, 1998, pp. 391-95).

The women are still looked at as a commodity to serve the needs of a male society. Domestic violence is normal feature of a women's existence. One of the studies of family health survey reported that 6 per cent women themselves justify beating of

women to control them. Another study reported that 75 per cent men of lower castes and 22 per cent of upper castes admitted beating their wives (Jejeebhoy, 1998, pp. 855-62).

The concept of integrating women's issues in public policies ignores existing class and gender inequalities. A mere compensatory approach does not empower women as there is no redistribution of economic resources and opportunities. There is little prospect of state supported or state-mediated redistribution of sources by gender. Women's rights to inherit, own and control property are determined primarily by the social values and norms and the mechanisms of intra-household decision-making and distribution (Mukund, 1999, pp. 1352-58).

Similarities and differences between Social Development and Human Development

Both Social Development and Human Development approaches accorded centrality of the human being and aimed for the development to help the people in attaining their requirements of life. Both believe that all developments have social or human and consequences.

When it was realized that economic development alone is socially inadequate, need for social development gained importance. Social development is more comprehensive and subsumes economic development, aiming at the attainment of certain ideal social objectives. In case of India wider social objective was to bring about poverty free society. From the initial period of its existence as independent sovereign nation, India aimed to bring about social development which means providing education, health services, construction of infrastructure for public good such as roads, rails, hospitals, training institutions. All these measures directed to bring about human resource development in the country which is expected to result in raising standard of living and to develop greater earning capacities. The human resource development considers

people as resource for the purpose of development of the economy. The capability and ability acquired by human being through better education and health facilities and women development are used as a means for attainment for rapid economic growth which is the ultimate aim of the nation and alone could bring about poverty free nation. Investment in human being is undertaken, not for the development of the human being of his own welfare, but from the point of view of developing human resource for development purpose.

Whereas for human development, human being are not a means to an end but an end in itself. For human development, the objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives. Human development approach encompasses empowerment, cooperation, equity in basic capabilities and opportunities, sustainability and security of the three basic indicators of Human Development, vis-à-vis per capita income, educational attainment and life expectancy. Inclusion of income is justified on the ground that it enables the exercise of choice with respect to other indicators, i.e., education and health which are common to the human resource development. Education may be stressed more for its instrumental role than merely as a means to raise productivity and incomes. Similarly, life expectancy may be stressed more for its basic health services rather than to curative care for the working population. There are several health problems in poverty ridden Indian economy due to poor living. A more holistic approach towards health care encompassing nutrition, water supply and sanitation and housing must be adopted in place of only medical care. For human development emphasis should be on promotion of education, health and nutrition even if the return on investment on them may be zero. Supply of social services plays greater role for human development (Mishra, 2002, p. 72).

Thus, although there are certain points of similarities between social development and human development approaches, the differences between them are quite striking. The human development approach is much broader and encompasses many aspects. It considers human being not as a means but as an end of all development process. It

encompasses the welfare of not only the present generation, but the future generation as well. In brief human development enlarges human choices whether participation in economic development processes or community development processes (Sengupta, 2002, pp. 171-172).

The basic objectives of development as enlarging the choices of people primarily by providing them with education, health and employment opportunities. The human development has three essential qualitative components: equality for opportunity for all people in society; sustainability of such opportunities from one generation to the next; and empowerment of people so that they participate in and benefit from development process.

Human resource development is the process of increasing the knowledge, skills and the capacities of all the people in a society. In economic terms, it could be described as the development of an economy. In political term, human resource development prepares people for adult participation in political process, particularly as citizens in a democracy. From social and cultural points of view, the development of human resources helps people to lead fuller and richer lives, less bound by tradition. In short, the processes of human resources development unlock the door to modernization (Mahore, 2002, p.29).

Human resources is developed in many ways. The most obvious is by formal education, beginning with primary or first level education, continuing with various forms of secondary education and then higher education including the colleges, universities and higher technical institutions. Second, human resources are also developed 'on-the-job' through systematic or informal training programmes in employing institutions of adult education programmes and through memberships in various political, social, religious and cultural groups. Third process is self-development by acquiring additional knowledge, skills or capacities through preparation on their own initiative by taking formal or correspondence courses by reading or by learning from others in informal contacts (Mahore, 2002, p.29). Two

other processes of human resource development are improvements in the health of the working population through better medical and public health programmes, and improvements in nutrition, which increases the working capacity of the people, on a man-hour basis as well as over his/her working life (Mahore, 2002, p.29).

The major problem in human capital formation in developing countries are: (a) rapidly growing population; (b) mounting unemployment in the modern sectors of the economy as well as traditional underemployment in traditional agriculture; (c) shortage of persons with the critical skills and knowledge required effective national development; (d) inadequate or underdeveloped organizations and institutions for mobilizing human effort; and (e) lack of incentives for persons to engage in particular activities which are vitally important for national development (Gandhi, 2002, p. 59).

The poverty eradication has been a challenge and today it is not just poverty of income but poverty from a human development perspective- poverty as a denial of choices and opportunities for living a tolerable life. Human poverty is more than income poverty- it is the denial of choices and opportunities for living a tolerable life (Mishra, 2002, p. 72).

Human resource development is more than just investment in human factor of production. It is developing individual human resourcefulness and constitutes policies and programmes which will sustain equitable opportunities for continuing acquisition and application of knowledge or skills which promote individual autonomy and socio-economic progress and are mutually beneficial to individuals, the community and the larger environment of which they are a part.

Human development, on the other hand, is defined as the process of increasing people's choices and opportunities, in particular, those leading to a long and healthy life, to be knowledgeable; to find access to assets, employment and income needed for a decent standard of living; to participate fully in community decision and to enjoy human, economic and political freedom. Thus human development is the

development by the people, of the people and for the people. People are not the inputs to some other ends, but are active partners in and the objectives and beneficiaries of the development process (Das, 2002, pp. 322-323).

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Chapter-IV

UNDP ACTIVITIES IN INDIA 1990-2000

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) attempts to realize its objective not only by providing aid to the developing and least developed countries, but also works as facilitator, collaborator, advisor, implementer, observer and evaluator of programmes (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 61).

The UNDP assisted projects are financed from UNDPs own resources, generally referred as core resources, cost sharing contributions and Government contributions. Core resources are voluntarily contributed by member states that represents total resources from the Indicative Planning Figures (IPF), Special Programme Resources (SPR), Special Measures Fund for Least Developed Countries (SMF), and Special Industrial Services (SIS). Cost sharing is an arrangement by which project costs and related agency support costs are covered in full or in part by a contribution from the recipient Government(s) and /or a third-party donor(s). Government contributions represent local inputs in cash or kind (such as buildings, equipment and personnel). The contribution is administered by UNDP in accordance with UNDP regulations, rules and directives (UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, 1994, p. ix).

The UNDP finalizes the budget of any particular country for five years that is known as Country Programme (CP) under Thematic Programme which carries several projects in different areas with the help of specialized agencies of the United Nations. Around 32 UN Agencies have been participating in project execution and implementation including the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. These Agencies are directly involved with the projects funded by UNDP because of diversity of expertise, experience and know-how and in fact this quality makes the organizations more capable of delivering technical assistance in any field for which UNDP is known. These agencies also contribute to the country programme either by cash or in kind as a third party under cost-sharing agreement. Though apart from certain traditional UN agencies like the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) or the United Nations Industrial

Development Organization (UNIDO), no other agencies have monopoly over any specific sectors (UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, 1991, p. xi). In 1990s one specific trend has emerged which is a good sign of change particularly in project implementation that the recipient countries are playing significant role and their participation in project implementation has increased manifold (UNDP, Compendium on Ongoing Project, 1995, p. xviii).

India has been one of the biggest beneficiaries of the UNDP Programme both in terms of contributor and recipient. This chapter starts with brief overall view of UNDPs activities up till 1989, its major achievements and challenges. Then it seeks to look at UNDPs activities throughout 1990s in India, the total budget for programmes taken out by it, location in different parts of India, the effectiveness of programmes, the role of Indian government in contributing to those programmes and their implementation. The chapter concludes with evaluative general assessment of the programmes with special reference to their contribution to human development in India.

Overview of UNDP's activities up till 1989 in India

India was the largest recipient of UN assistance for the period 1950-1985. During this period India received US \$ 311.615 million by way of assistance. An elaborate machinery was set in motion to select projects to avail of UNDP assistance. The concentration was on international technology transfer and pre-investment activities in all forms of agricultural, scientific and industrial research, development and training. Industries constituted the largest fund which was around US \$ 48 million, natural resources got US \$ 23.8 million, agricultural, forestry and fisheries received US \$ 16.65 million, science and technology-US \$ 14.5 million, education-US\$ 14.4 million, and transport and communication received US \$ 8.45 million (Dalal, 1987, pp. 140-141).

India has been enjoying a very special relationship with the UNDP not in terms of receiving funds and technical know-how, but mutual understanding in framing and implementing the projects. UNDPs programmes represented special character which have been unmatched with other international agencies' programmes. Some of the sophisticated projects may be cited here,

for example the establishment and development of micro precision engineering techniques, integrated electronics industrial development complexes. UNDP promoted indigenous technical capabilities in metal forming. In science and technology UNDP supported development of solar energy, provisions of modern technology for automated mapping, design development and processing of composite products and new fibers, establishment of facilities for controlling the environment. UNDP provided spectral radiation scanners, and sophisticated scientific research equipment in priority fields (Hamdy,1987. p.137).

In the Third Country Programme (CP-III) which was unanimously approved in June 1985 at the Governing Council involved the allocations of some of \$ 140 million. Programmes which were undertaken during this period were very sophisticated in nature. It had a high content of science and technology, and research and development support activities. It addressed high technology transfer in the industry and electronics sector where some \$ 58 million were supporting technical cooperation for development. It provided staunch support to research and education, to natural resources exploitation and development, to energy, to transport and communications, and so on. In industry, it served the sub-sector of steel, fertilizers, cement, plastics, engineering, etc. the programme supported water resources development also (Hamdy,1987, p.137).

India benefited more than any other countries from UNDP assistance due to its advance level of technical, managerial and scientific manpower which in fact brought about a change the way UNDP projects were managed. In India, instead of having international project managers and chief technical advisers, management of projects became increasingly the responsibility of national project directors, which unified the supervision and administration of both government and UNDP resources in the projects. This phenomena gave rise to the concept of national project managers which became popular among other developing countries. As the nature of UNDP activities in India have evolved, starting with the provision of international experts and training in basic sectors of the economy, the emphasis has slowly shifted more to bridging the technical gaps. In the 1980s India, as opposed to many other developing countries' demand of long term experts needed for carrying development work, called for short term high-level consultants and equipments to provide special knowledge to complement the facilities already available in the country (UN Agencies in India, 1983. 22). But changes that took place at the

international atmosphere in the decade of 1980s forced UNDP to take certain steps which were at variance with India's priorities. The changed stand of UNDP created problems for the formulation of India's country programme. Despite having considerable achievements India did not benefit from UNDP assistance in many areas such as poverty alleviation and rural development. This was because India unilaterally excluded it from the purview of UNDP with an understanding that it was capable enough to take care of poverty reduction programmes, particularly in rural areas which has been the major hub of poor people (Dalal,1987, pp.140-141).

UNDP's Activities (1990-2000)

The decade of 1990s seemed to be a decade of change particularly the fifth cycle which started in 1992 (fifth cycle period 1992-1996), that gave a clear indication of beginning of programme approach in its delivery of technical cooperation assistance in order to rectify the perpetual shortcomings of an earlier approach, the so called narrowly defined project approach, by channeling UNDP's support to an entire national or regional programme. Usually a programme comprises several projects, so it is by definition larger than a project, both in terms of resources requirements and scope. Though the programmatic approach was gradually overtaking the project approach, but in the earlier years of 1990s had no strong presence and most of the projects were decided on broadly defined sectors right from the beginning into 16 categories which in fact increased to 20. It was only the later half of 1990s when programme approach completely replaced the project approach that surfaced in India in 1997 in a different form known as Country Cooperation Framework-I (CCF-I) (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p.25).

Traditionally two sectors had been the dominant sectors – agriculture, forestry and fisheries; and general development, which accounted more than 40 per cent of gross resources (agriculture, forestry and fisheries-19 per cent, and general development-28 per cent) while industry stood at third position. In India the case had been quite different because industry always occupied first place in terms of gross resources consumption and agriculture, forestry and fisheries got

sometimes second or sometimes third place (UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, 1994, p.xviii).

Country Programme IV (CP IV) 1990-1997

It is essential to make it clear that India's fourth country programme (CP-IV) ran from April 1990 to March 1997 which was exceptionally longer than earlier country programme, though it was initially conceived for five year period to March 1995 which was later extended to March 1997 to enable Common Country Framework-I (CCF-I) to coincide with India's Ninth Five-year Plan beginning in 1997. The extended Country Programme IV was largely viewed as a "programme in transition", to facilitate a gradual shift in orientation, consistent with emerging national and UNDP priorities. A mid term review of Country Programme IV and the policy and programme review meeting was held during 1994-1996 between Ministry of Finance and the UNDP to make a greater alignment in national priorities having improved economic performance with UNDP mandated sustainable human development. UNDP assistance was focused on four areas during Country Programme IV which are following: a) enhancement of industrial and agricultural productivity and competitiveness for exports; b) promotion of energy efficiency, mining and environmental management; c) development of transport and telecommunications, and d) development of social infrastructure. Keeping in view UNDP's adoption of human centric approach to development since early 1990s significant new initiatives were included for the support of human development, social and economic reform, capacity development in environment sector through assistance for formulation of the Environment Action Plan and the National Forestry Action Plan. To encourage national capacity building and sustainability an important strategic shift was made and some changes were included in the form of enhancing programme approach, reduction in equipments and long-term international experts, increased resources to national execution and experts and greater involvement of non-government organizations (NGOs, India Country Review UNDP, 2002, pp.25-26).

India being the largest recipient of UNDP core resources whose programme increased during 1990-1997 with the progress of time and had from 11 to 16 sectors in which around more than 80 projects ran across the country. Table-1 given below is showing resources provided by the UNDP since its first Country Programme (CP) started in 1972.

Table-1

Country Programme (CP)	Total Funds in US \$ million
CP-I (1972-1979)	89.00
CP-II (1979-1985)	155.00
CP-III (1985-1990)	155.00
CP-IV (1990-1997)	152.00
CCF-I (1997-2002)	88.40

Sources: *Reproduced from India Country Review UNDP, 2002.*

But the actual Indicative Planning Figure (IPF) tells different story during 1990-1997 and the inclusion of cost sharing amount by different specialized agencies and contribution of Indian Government makes it a big amount. Table-2 given below is indicating the varying amount in different years during 1990-1997.

Table-2

Year	UNDP	Cost sharing (by third party)	Government Contribution	Total Amount
1991	185,579,834	640,000	155,534,431	341,754,265
1993	173,120,511	2,339,313	71,302,892	246,762,716
1994	158,711,286	2,282,047	58,572,158	219,565,491
1995	188,401,326	2,211,960	NA	190,613,286
1996	138,106,238	1,865,815	NA	140,972,053
1997	176,922,688	5,406,817	NA	182,329,505

Amount in US \$ million.

Sources:

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 21, 1991

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 24, 1993

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 25, 1994

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 26, 1995

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 27, 1996

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 28, 1997

The fluctuation in total amount as well as in contribution from UNDP or Government or third party in fact happened because of inclusion of new projects and completion of old projects. Projects have always been put under different sectors on the priority basis and also in accordance with the national development programmes. India, traditionally being agriculture based economy, has adequately addressed the problem of high productivity by getting sufficient allocations in this area, but industry consumed licor's share. In the beginning of 1990s India was getting fund for 11 sectors namely: Agriculture, forestry and fisheries; Culture; Education; Employment; General Development Issues, Policies and Planning; Health; Industry; International Trade and Development Finance; Natural Resources; Science and Technology; Transport and Communications, but by 1997 few new sectors were added like Communications and Information; Energy; Environment; Humanitarian Assistance and Disaster Management; Political Affairs etc. The projects under these sectors were conceptualized in order to address the issues of human development, poverty alleviation, women empowerment, and gender equality. The following table-3 shows the budget allocations for different sectors contributed by UNDP, third party and national government during 1990-1997.

Table-3

SECTORS	YEARS	UNDP	COST-SHARING	NATIONAL GOVERNMENT
Agriculture, Forestry and fisheries	1991	29,256,960	0	11,157,272
	1994	36,087,727	0	4,559,843
	1997	42,850,954	0	NA
Culture	1991	28,000	0	0
	1994	Nil	0	0
	1997	2,272,960	0	0
Communications and Information	1991	Nil	Nil	Nil
	1994	7,997,756	10,000	4,559,843
	1997	9,331,295	2,232,200	NA
Education	1991	10,624,273	10,000	1,080,387
	1994	615,000	0	0
	1997	615,000	0	0

Table contd...

Employment	1991	4,129,953	0	973,541
	1994	6,005,259	1,500,499	2,869,487
	1997	2,207,583	1,500,499	NA
Energy	1991	NA	NA	NA
	1994	6,934,736	325,000	2,869,487
	1997	243,000	0	NA
Environment	1991	NA	NA	NA
	1994	NA	NA	NA
	1997	16,337,375	0	NA
General Development Issues	1991	NA	NA	NA
	1994	5,367,981	116,548	1,633,013
	1997	12,474,834	363,843	NA
General Statistics	1991	NA	NA	NA
	1994	688,000	0	41,667
	1997	687,311	0	NA
Health	1991	1,672,665	0	2,476,190
	1994	2,030,300	0	1,232,372
	1997	1,783,448	0	NA
Humanitarian Assistance and Disaster Management	1991	NA	NA	NA
	1994	NA	NA	NA
	1997	1,100,000	268,000	NA
Industry	1991	60,391,499	0	45,542,152
	1994	59,226,683	0	29,135,906
	1997	62,489,291	0	NA
International Trade and Development	1991	762,236	0	198,987
	1994	NA	NA	NA
	1997	NA	NA	NA
Natural Resources	1991	39,715,729	0	23,393,823
	1994	14,767,958	0	6,314,921
	1997	14,161,252	0	NA

Table contd...

Political Affairs	1991	NA	NA	NA
	1994	703,424	0	547,436
	1997	93,264	0	NA
Science and Technology	1991	20,427,153	0	10,155,513
	1994	11,859,424	0	1,485,128
	1997	4,979,953	0	NA
Trade and Development	1991	NA	NA	NA
	1994	2,197,544	0	932,692
	1997	3,077,375	0	NA
Transport and Communications*	1991	14,679,866	630,000	56,636,328
	1994	4,229,494	330,000	3,703,949
	1997	2,217,793	0	NA

*Transport and Communications was one sector at the beginning in 1990 which was later separated under two different headings –a) Transport, and b) Communications.

Note-

NA- Not available

Nil-It represents no contribution

Amount expressed in the table-3 should be read in US \$ million. The budget of all the projects had been finalized at the beginning before the commencement of the projects and the differences in amount in different years are just describing about either the completion of projects or financially closed. Some projects have been extended in order to complete them.

Sources

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 21, 1991

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 25, 1994

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 28, 1997

The data provided in table-3 are clearly indicating that in some sectors UNDP shown enthusiasm in providing support by all means and in many projects UNDP itself had been the executing agency. In India the Government of India became one of the largest executing agency by 1994 which started executing almost 50 per cent of projects in all sectors and by 1997 it crossed even 50 per cent marks. Government of India at one point of time particularly till 1992 was executing just 20 out of 123 projects which comprised merely more than 3 per cent of total projects, but it improved fast and occupied around 31 out of 62 projects. The number rose further and reached

up to 90 out of 174 projects which in percentage figure was more than 51 per cent. This change in execution pattern shows India's improvement in managing skill and technology building in the operation of projects across the areas or sectors. Table-4 given below is showing projects running under different sectors and their executing agencies. Execution by National Government has invariably been used as National execution (NEX) or Government (GOV).

Table-4
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHERIES

S. No.	Project Title	Executing Agency
1	AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION AND RESEARCH FOR ACCELERATED AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT	FAO
2	MODERN FOREST FIRE CONTROL	FAO
3	ADVANCED CENTRES ON POSTGRADUATE AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION AND RESEARCH	FAO
4	DEVELOPMENT OF COASTAL AQUACULTURE	FAO
5	ESTABLISHMENT OF HIGH SECURITY ANIMAL	FAO
6	DEVELOPMENT AND DEMONSTRATION OF BIOFERTILISERS	FAO
7	STRENGTHENING POSTGRADUATE EDUCATION IN FOODS AND NUTRITION AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT AT AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITIES	FAO
8	INCREASED PROCUREMENT FROM DEVELOPING COUNTRIES	UNDP
9	PLANT IMPROVEMENT USING MODERN BIOTECHONOLOGY	FAO
10	ASSISTANCE TO WILDLIFE INSTITUTE OF INDIA PHASE-II	FAO
11	PHYTOTRON FACILITY AT INDIAN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE	FAO
12	DEVELOPMENT AND USE OF HYBRID RICE TECHNOLOGY	GVT
13	DEVELOPMENT AND STRENGTHENING OF PLANT QUARANTINE FACILITIES	GVT
14	STRENGTHENING AND DEVELOPING THE INDIAN COUNCIL OF FORESTRY RESEARCH AND EDUCATION	GVT

Table contd...

15	JUTE SECTOR PROGRAMME	GVT
16	FORMULATION OF NATIONAL FORESTRY ACTION PROGRAMME	GVT
17	BIO-VILLAGE DEMONSTRATION PROJECT IN PONDICHERRY	GVT
18	LEATHER SECTOR PROGRAMME	NEX
19	DEVELOPMENT AND STRENGTHENING OF INTEGRATED PEST DEVELOPMENT	FAO
20	MAIZE-BASED CROPPING SYSTEMS	FAO
21	PARTICIPATORY AGROFORESTRY FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL RESTORATION IN PERUR, COIMBATORE. TAMILNADU	FAO

Sources:

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 21, 1991

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 25, 1994

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 28, 1997

Table-5
ENERGY

S. No.	Project Title	Executing Agency
1	MODELLING AND CONTROL OF WATER SYSTEM IN COAL MINING ENVIRONMENT	UN
2	ADVANCED TECHNIQUE IN PETROLEUM ENGINEERING AND PRODUCTION PRACTICES	UN
3	ESTABLISHMENT OF TECHNOLOGY BASE IN POWERLINE AGGREGATES	GVT
4	INTEGRATED RURAL PLANNING	GVT
5	PHASE-OUT OF CFCs IN THE MANUFACTURING OF COLD CURED AND INTEGRAL SAMLE MOLDINGS AT AMIT POLYSEATS LTD	UNOPS

Sources:

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 25, 1994

UNDP Compendium on Ongoing Project, UNDP/Series A/No. 28, 1997

Energy, Environment and some other sectors were the new entrants in development programmes of Indian Government as well as UNDP. Environment was added under thematic programme in 1997 which addressed the issues of pollution control. Table-6, given below, is giving some idea about environmental projects

Table-6
ENVIRONMENT

S.No.	PROJECT TITLE	EXECUTING AGENCY
1	OPTIMIZING DEVELOPMENT OF SMALL HYDEL RESOURCES IN THE HILLY REGIONS OF INDIA	GVT
2	DEVELOPMENT OF HIGH RATE BIOMETHANATION PROCESS AS MEANS OF REDUCING GREEN HOUSE GASES EMISSION	NEX
3	ECODEVELOPMENT PROJECT	NEX
4	INSTITUTIONAL STRENGTHENING FOR THE PHASEOUT ODS THE MONTREAL PROTOCOL	NEX
5	BUILDING FOR INTRODUCTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL ECONOMICS INTO DECISION MAKING FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT	NEX

The Country Programme IV was a good experience for India and it also reflected the change in policy particularly in the field of economic reforms which started in substantial term in 1992 when the country was facing a balance of payment (BOP) crisis. The Country Programme IV covered entire India's Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-1997) which adopted new market friendly approach and also laid greater stress on human development. During these year economy is said to have responded to new measures and it grew in the financial year of 1994-95, 1995-96 and 1996-97 at the rate of 7.2 per cent, 7.5 per cent and 8.2 per cent respectively and emerged as one of the 10 fastest growing economy of the world despite odds like Gulf-crisis which led to abnormal increase of oil prices and South-East Asian economic crisis of 1997-98 (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, pp. 21-22).

Country Cooperation Framework-I (CCF-I) 1997-2002

Country Programme IV paved the way for the launch of CCF-I by providing changes in approach from project to programme with national priorities and programmes. It encouraged national ownerships and management, counterpart commitment through adequate staffing, resources, and institutional support, an in-depth assessment of sustainability issues at the project/programme designing stage, flexibility to suit local conditions, internalizing the gender dimensions, and involving stake-holders, end-users, beneficiaries and civil society for maximizing impact and ensuring sustainability. CCF-I was formulated after a collaborative exercise between Government of India and UNDP consistent with planning priorities of India and broadly focused on growth with equity, with poverty alleviation, and human development at its central concerns. As it has already been mentioned about the change of name from country programme to country cooperation framework largely because of shift in policy formulation and CCF-I was taking place at a time when Indian economy was robustly growing at the rate of around 7 per cent per annum and also hoping to maintain similar rate of growth in ninth plan period. The basic strategy was to adopt growth with equity emphasis on technology up-gradation, poverty eradication, rapid expansion of employment opportunities, provision of basic social services, consolidation of economic reforms and environmental preservation by harnessing UNDPs comparative advantages. The focus of CCF-I was to introduce few, holistic programmes in place of large number of small projects (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 26).

Ten programmes were developed under four thematic areas which are given below in table-7

Table-7

Thematic Areas	Programmes
I. Employment and Sustainable Livelihoods	i) Small Industry Development Programme; ii) Food Security Programmes
II. Access to Basic Services	iii) Primary Education Programme iv) Health Support Programme

Table contd...

III. Management of Development	v) Economic Reform Programme vi) Capacity Building Programme vii) Community based Pro-Poor Initiatives viii) Technology Programme
IV. Sustainable Development	ix) Capacity Building in Environmental Management x) Energy and Environment Programme

Source: *Reproduced from India Country Review, UNCTAD, 2002.*

India developed its Ninth Five-Year Plan in accordance with UNDP thematic programmes for CCF-I that have been summarized in table 8 given below.

Table-8

UNDPs Themes and Programmes	India's Ninth Five-Year Plan
1. Employment and Sustainable Livelihoods i) Small Industry Development and Employment ii) Food Security Programme	Full employment by 2007. This objective is accorded very high priority to village and small industry sector. 9 th Plan agricultural development strategy is essentially based on the policy of food security, making India hunger free by 2007
2. Excess to Basic Services iii) Primary Education Programme iv) Health Support Programme	9 th Plan treated education the most crucial investment in human development. It made the commitment to achieve full literacy by 2005. 9 th Plan Approach was based on 14 elements including improvement in access and quality of primary health care, improving efficiency of primary health care infrastructure, promoting human resources for health, remedial measures against nutritional deficiencies, preventing health care, safe work environment, increasing involvement of voluntary, private organizations and self-help groups in health care and involving the Panchayati Raj Institutions in planning and monitoring of health programmes at the local level.
3. Management of Development v) Economic Reform Programmes	The Plan defined a new role for states, stressing greater involvement in social development, especially in rural and in provision of economic infrastructure. It also emphasized a reduced role of state in industry and trade.

vi) Capacity Building Programme vii) Community based Pro-Poor Initiatives Programme viii) Technology Management Programme	The 9 th plan emphasized creation of an enabling environment for private-public sector partnership through capacity building in public administration and institutional reforms to bring in transparency and effectiveness in implementation. The Plan highlighted the need for people centred pro-poor policies and people's participation in planning and implementation of programmes. The Plan did not state clearly the general goals of science and technology, though promotion of eco friendly technological enhancement and pro-weaker section accessible technology was understood to be developed.
4. Sustainable Development ix) Rural Energy x) Environment	The Plan incorporated a broader energy programme that covered power generation, oil and natural gas and other energy resources. 9 th Plan included one of its objective to ensure sustainable environment for the development process through social mobilization and participation of people at all level.

Source: *Reproduced from India Country Review, UNDP, 2002.*

The CCF-I commenced in 1997 with the Ninth Five Year Plan of India consisting four principal thematic programmes, 10 programmes and 94 sub-programmes. It started one project for preparatory assistance also. These 94 sub-programmes stretched all across India from Himachal Pradesh in north to down south state of Kerala and from Assam in east to Rajasthan in west. The actual implementation of sub-programmes began late from their scheduled time because of delays in finalization of some of the sub-programme documents, issue of national executive guidelines which came into being in 1999, release of funds and many other reasons (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, pp.33-34).

The performance of some of the sub-programmes by the year 2000 is sought to analyze here in brief in accordance with different thematic heads.

1. Employment and Sustainable Livelihoods

Programmes undertaken in this theme was based on the objective to promote artisan or craft sector which have traditionally been backward on technological field. Another objective was to empower women as an agent of change in rural employment and poverty eradication in agricultural sector of India. This theme was sought to pursue through four distinct programmes.

1.1 Food Security Programme

With a total budget of US \$ 10.166 million, the programme was designed to adopt holistic strategies and participatory approaches for food security and poverty alleviation at the national, local and household level with a special focus on the role of women. This programme contained five major sub-programmes, three of them related to empowerment of women and were being implemented in the state of Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. The fourth sub-programme was related to hybrid rice production and fifth was to maize production. With the help of NGOs women in a part of Andhra Pradesh were encouraged to register for ownership of land jointly with men. In Orissa tribal women were taught to manage an alternative community distribution by purchasing and storing buffer stocks of food grains which actually helped them in breaking the sickle of indebtedness from local sahumars. Two remaining sub-programmes regarding hybrid rice production and maize production were started with the help of Ministry of Agriculture as a pilot project in Lalitpur district with the use of solar water pump sets and organic or bio fertilizers (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, pp. 34-35).

1.2 Leather Development Programme

The Programme was conceived to address the problems of leather workers in different field like footwear makers, skin tanner, finisher etc by establishing link between organized and unorganized leather sectors in order to reduce poverty, ensuring round the year employment with increased payment rate. The Programme began with UNDPs allocation of US \$ 7.15 million in the state of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Rajasthan, and Agra in Uttar Pradesh. This programme is said to have helped small artisan, women and people working in unorganized sector. NGOs were helping particularly in promoting the finished products in international fair by encouraging participation of women. The leather workers were trained in accordance with demands of foreign buyers and accessibility of technology in making standard quality of footwear (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, pp. 34-35).

1.3 Fibers and Handicrafts

The sub-programme was launched with a budget of US \$ 6.94 million to provide sustainable livelihood through integrated intervening approach in sectors such as Jute, Silk, Angora, Bamboo and Cane and Carpets. The target was set to reach in most disadvantaged zone with a motto to include largely women artisan who were traditionally exploited and ill equipped in using modern

technology. The sub-programme was undertaken to alleviate poverty by providing sustainable employment through technological and skill up-gradation and market support. The programme is learnt to have responded well to poverty alleviation, gender, decentralization, and environmental sustainability. Cane and Bamboo sub-programme was started in the North-East region of India to address poverty and regional, gender and environmental disparities with the help of Cane and Bamboo Technology Centre. Non-mulberry silk, Angora wool and Hand-knotted carpet sub-programme was initiated in the North-East and poor states of East to cover particularly tribal women. Angora wool programme took place in the Himalayan States and Hand-knotted carpet was started in Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Jammu and Kashmir. Jute programme which had been started during CP IV with a substantial budget of US \$ 20 million was extended to CCF-I and sub-programme was formulated to provide training to jute mill workers, up grade machinery and support to small NGO and entrepreneurs (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p.36).

1.4 Small Scale Industries

Khadi and Village Industries Commission had initiated sub-programme in rural non-farm sectors particularly to help vulnerable section of artisans and poor people by promoting bee-keeping, clay pottery and hand made papers. The khadi and village industries has been potential job providers to underprivileged and women in non-farming area. A sub-programme in Coir industries was started in all Southern states of Kerala, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh to help this sector traditionally dominated by women workers. New technology was introduced to make it more competitive and gainful employment and encouraged community mobilization (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 37).

2. Access to Basic Service

The basic objective of the thematic programme was to provide two basic social services: the primary education and health to those who do not have access so far through community management. The total budget was fixed at US \$ 13.2 million for two programmes under this theme.

2.1 Community Based Primary Education

This programme was started to further extend the district primary education programme started by the World Bank which is known as JANSHALA Programme in which UNDP intervened with other UN organizations like UNICEF, UNFPA, UNESCO and ILO to achieve universal education with the collaboration of nine states and the Government of India. This ambitious plan was started with a hefty budget of US \$ 20 million in which UNDP pledged to contribute US \$ 8.7 million, UNICEF contributed US \$ 9 million and UNFPA US \$ 2million (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 38).

2.2 Health Support Programme

The programme sought to encourage public-private community partnership for improved health facility for poor people. The other objective of this programme was to mainstream the HIV/AIDS concerns and prepare an enabling environment for marginal section of society by framing legislation, targeting policy and attitude. The outlay for this programme was around US \$ 4.5 million (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, 39).

3. Management of Development

The programme sought to focus on models of community participation in development and on broader issues of public institutional support for decentralized governance, particularly their capacity building needs. It dealt with two other related issues of reform measures in the areas of health, energy and urban infrastructure and new approaches to management of science and technology for rural transformation and employment generation. The total plan outlay for the programme was fixed at US \$ 31.422 million.

3.1 Economic Reform Programme

The programme was sought to bring about policy changes in terms of legal as well as institutional framework to create an environment to accommodate country's economy inclined to globalization and pro-poor. It was initiated to increase private investment in basic utility services such as health, water supply and other civic services provided by municipality (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 39).

3.2 Capacity Building Programme

Its main objective was to enhance capacity of institutions of decentralized governance and for planning and management of development activities, including provision of basic services. It aimed at capacity building of key grass root opinion makers that is the representative of Panchayati Raj Institutions. A training programme was set up for 3.4 million elected representatives of local institutions including 30 per cent women. They were provided training in the area of women empowerment and gender equality and gender sensitization (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 40).

3.3 Community Based Pro-Poor Initiatives

The programme was started with an outlay of US \$ 11.107 million to achieve the objective of seeking to support people oriented development planning, social mobilization and community participation, particularly among tribal and backward community. 17 sub-programmes were being implemented under this theme out of which 12 were undertaken by renowned NGOs with an annual disbursement of fund around US \$ 2million.

3.3.1 Social Mobilization and Community Empowerment for Poverty Alleviation

This sub-programme was being implemented by the Ministry of Rural Development in a collaboration with UNDP with a goal of comprehensive socio-economic transformation through a holistic and integrated set of activities and peoples' grass root institutions. The programme was launched in India as a part of broader poverty alleviation programme of South Asian countries and were being implemented in three districts of Andhra Pradesh: Anantpur, Karnool and Mahboobnagar (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 41).

3.3.2 Capacity Building of Women for Effective Governance

The sub-programme was being implemented by the Society for Promotion of Area Resources Centres – Swayam Shikshan Prayog (SPARC-SSP) in nine talukas of Latur and Osmanabad district of Maharashtra state which sought to build and strengthen the women led community institution to sustain the political, economic and social empowerment processes. It set up credit and savings groups which became a source of information, learning and linkages for poor women. The other NGOs called Lokdurushti working in Kalahandi district of Orissa working

under this sub-programme to empower women particularly tribes staying nearby forest in managing their community distribution and preserving different kinds of seeds for farming. It was helping tribal women in developing leadership quality to take care of community (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 41).

3.3.3 Traditional Knowledge System for Poverty Alleviation

This sub-programme was being implemented through the Academy of Development Science (ADS) which proposed to be strategically used to address the issues pertaining to hunger and health among the tribal community in the Raigad and Thane district of Maharashtra. Though ADS was working there before the sanction of UNDP project and later the sub-programme helped it in speeding up the promotion of grain banking, fruit orchards, crop improvement, small savings and credits, strengthening of the traditional health systems, watershed management and networking among NGOs in Maharashtra (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 42).

3.3.4 Women's Empowerment for Sustainable Natural Resource Management

The focus of this sub-programme was to develop the capacity of the economically and socially disadvantaged groups to build their capacities to identify and address issues of sustainable resource management, including water, forest, and land resources in one hundred villages of Alwar and Jaipur district of Rajasthan state. The strategy had a particular emphasis on building of water harvesting structures and conservation of biodiversity and rights of the community over these natural resources. Tarun Bharat Sangh was being implementing the sub-programme with Ministry of Rural Development as executing agency. The sub-programme was conceived to include education of children working in carpet and mining industries of that area (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 43).

3.3.4 Technology Management Programme

This Programme sought to support innovative mechanism for application of technology for development in rural areas and other backward areas. According to UNDP-India, two Technology Development and Application Centres with ten Rural Technology Resource Centres under them were established. In addition, four centers for providing vocational training in need based technical skills to rural and semi-urban youth have been set up. A sub-programme on I. T.

for sustainable agriculture in Punjab was also operational. Under the technology management programme UNDP disbursed around US \$ 1.55 million in 2000 (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 43).

4. Sustainable Development

The theme sought to support efforts a comprehensive approach to national planning, sectoral policies, and institutional mechanism for environmentally sustainable development incorporating livelihood concern.

4.1 Environment Programme

Its principal objective was to facilitate natural resource management, strengthening of the existing capacity for public policy, and for dissemination of information or knowledge on environmental management or conservation. The outlay for the programme was \$ 8.004 million. The programme did not address the issues of gender clearly and sub-programmes were scattered everywhere (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 43).

4.2 Rural Energy Programme

The Rural Energy Programme of UNDP comprised three major components and were being implemented in three parts of country by three separate implementing partners. In the state of Orissa, the Orissa Renewable Energy Development Agency was working with poor communities in the Komma Block of Naupada district. The major interventions included awareness building in communities through workshops, demonstration of community-level systems such as biomass gassifiers, solar PV power plants and community biogas plants on a pilot basis and institutionalizing Operation and Maintenance networks within communities. The Social Work and Research Center Tilonia was demonstrating a community based solar energy project for sustainable development in seven remote village clusters in six states. They indulged in creating capacity at the village level to install and maintain solar PV systems by training Barefoot Solar Engineers. The Society for Rural Industrial Area in Angora Block was working to provide energy services, irrigation, agro-processing facilities etc. for those villages (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 44).

Critical Analysis of UNDPs Programme

India was the largest recipient of UN assistance for the period 1950-1985. India has been enjoying special relationship with the UNDP not in terms of receiving funds and technical know-how, but natural understanding in framing and implementing the projects. The programmes which were undertaken during the Third Country Programme (CP-III) were very sophisticated in nature. It has a high content science and technology and research and development activities. India benefited more than any other countries from UNDP assistance due to its advance level of technical, managerial and scientific manpower. However CP-III which was made coincidental to Seventh Five-Year Plan(1985-1990) did not receive expected help from the UNDP and whatever the part of proposal, submitted by India, was accepted, got delayed in implementation. India's experience had not been, particularly in 1980s, much enthusiastic.

However in 1990s a number of outstanding achievement were made in terms of range of programmes concerned during the first country Cooperation Framework (CCF-I). Important strategy shifts were made during this time by change from a project approach to a programme approach, a focus on long-term capacity building and institution building as the community level rather than purely technical inputs, greater involvement of national expertise instead of reliance on international consultants, a shift to national execution and ownership by the government of India and stronger partnership with NGOs. In a relatively brief period, UNDP-India, along with its development partners within the government and the voluntary sector, has brought about a profound change in the character of its interventions, from building institutions to developing community-based, people-centred programmes. In the process, it has actively sought and achieved people's participation. It has succeeded in developing strong partnerships with the more relevant development actors and stakeholders, like a variety of civil society groups and women's groups. Given its resource constraints, it has successfully initiated some 'soft', low-cost interventions. The emphasis of Results Based Management during implementation of CCF-I has helped UNDP-India to focus on strategic goals and bring about a significant measure of qualitative improvement in managing and monitoring of programmes. Its partnerships and advocacy have provided important inputs in the policy discourse particularly in the area of rural development, gender, poverty alleviation, education and the community's role in the process of development (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 46). UNDPs partnership role is especially

important given the country's impressive progress in poverty reduction over the past or so. After the initial exclusion of the UN agencies in matter relating to poverty and rural sector, by 1980s, the UNDP greatly involved in these matters. Significant gains have also been recorded in the sphere of human development as in evident from the data related to life expectancy, infant mortality, literacy, higher education, availability of safe drinking water, agriculture productivity, food resources, total fertility rate and decentralization. Despite improvements in its human development with collaboration with UNDP. UNDPs Human Development Report ranked India 115th out of the 162 countries and places it in the group of countries with Medium Human Development, with an Human Development Index of 0.571 in 2001 moving up from 0.439 in 1992.

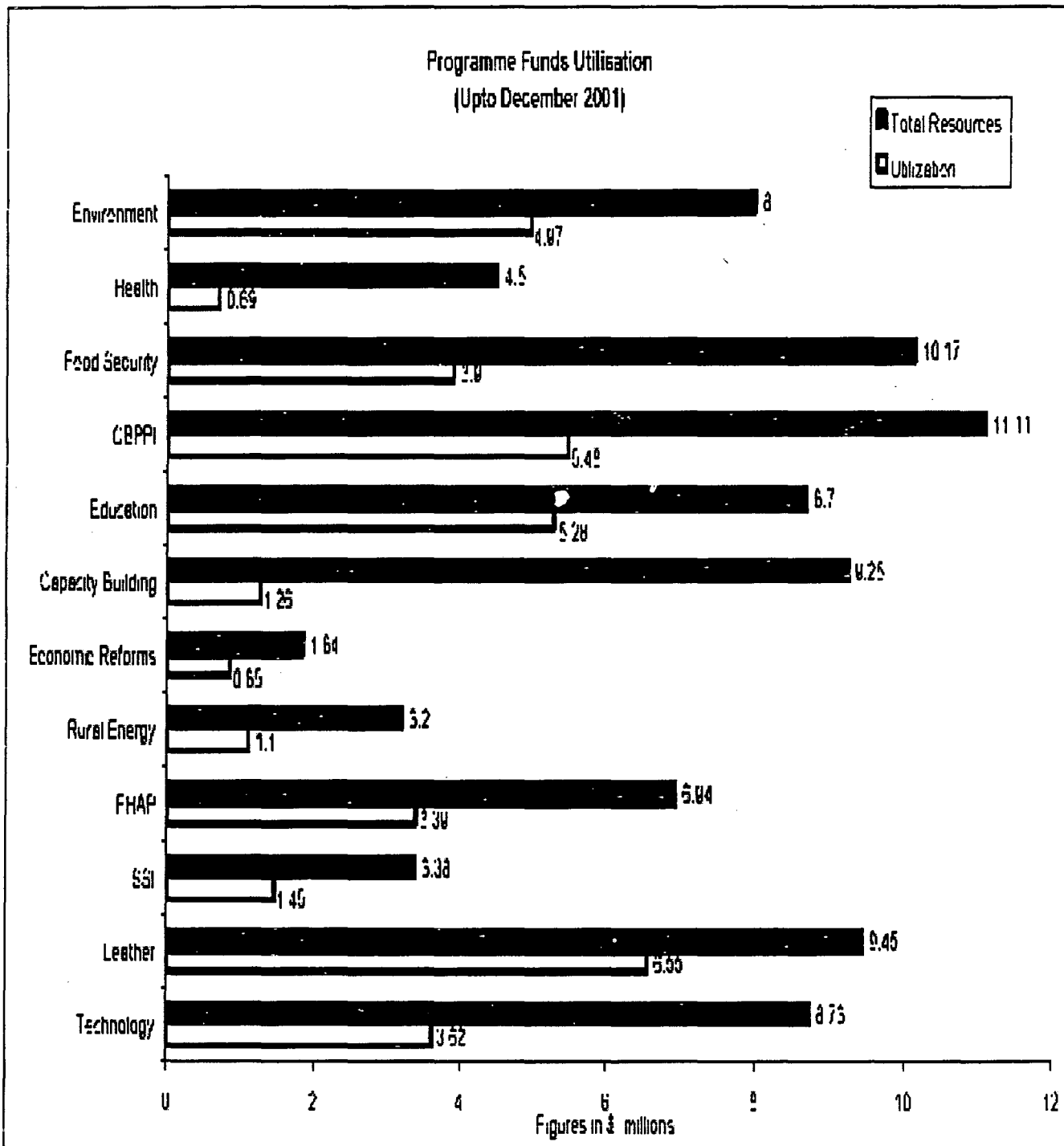
The UNDPs annual Human Development Report are its flagship product and over the years they have emerged as the principal advocating platform for sustainable human development. They have demonstrated that income alone does not capture all of dimensions of development and have made a significant contribution to promoting human development oriented policies world-wide. The Planning Commission of India started producing India Human Development Report and it also started allocating additional resource support for States of India to prepare State-level Human Development Report. These phenomena in India can be regarded as a significant achievement of UNDP advocacy. These phenomena can be expected to make a significant differences in ensuring in public policies, development plans, particularly in the States. Various State Human Development Reports point to the substantial disparities in human development attainments across regions and social groups even in States where the average levels of human development indicators are high. This is an area where both the government of India and UNDP as partner need to concentrate their efforts in the coming decades. In the future, more downstream work is needed by offering strong support to States to remove the disparities.

The CCF-1 comprises many initiatives, which in themselves are useful and worthwhile and many of its achievements have been noteworthy, but there are several factors that may impede many of these initiatives in having a significant effect beyond the scope of the sub-programmes or programmes concerned. The number of programmes, sub-programmes, and projects tends to be too numerous, and diffused. This seems to be due partly to an excessively ambitious initial

“positioning” of CCF- 1, with respect to the Ninth Five Year Plan, in terms of the resources and capacities which the UNDP Country Office has been able to draw upon or leverage. The several projects continued or adapted from CP-IV extended the portfolio still further. The relationship with some important partners could not be established, or not developed sufficiently with stakeholders other than the direct partners. Relationships between UNDP and its executing (mainly national Ministries/Departments) and implementing (mainly institutions or NGOs) partners seem to be supportive and productive(India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 46).

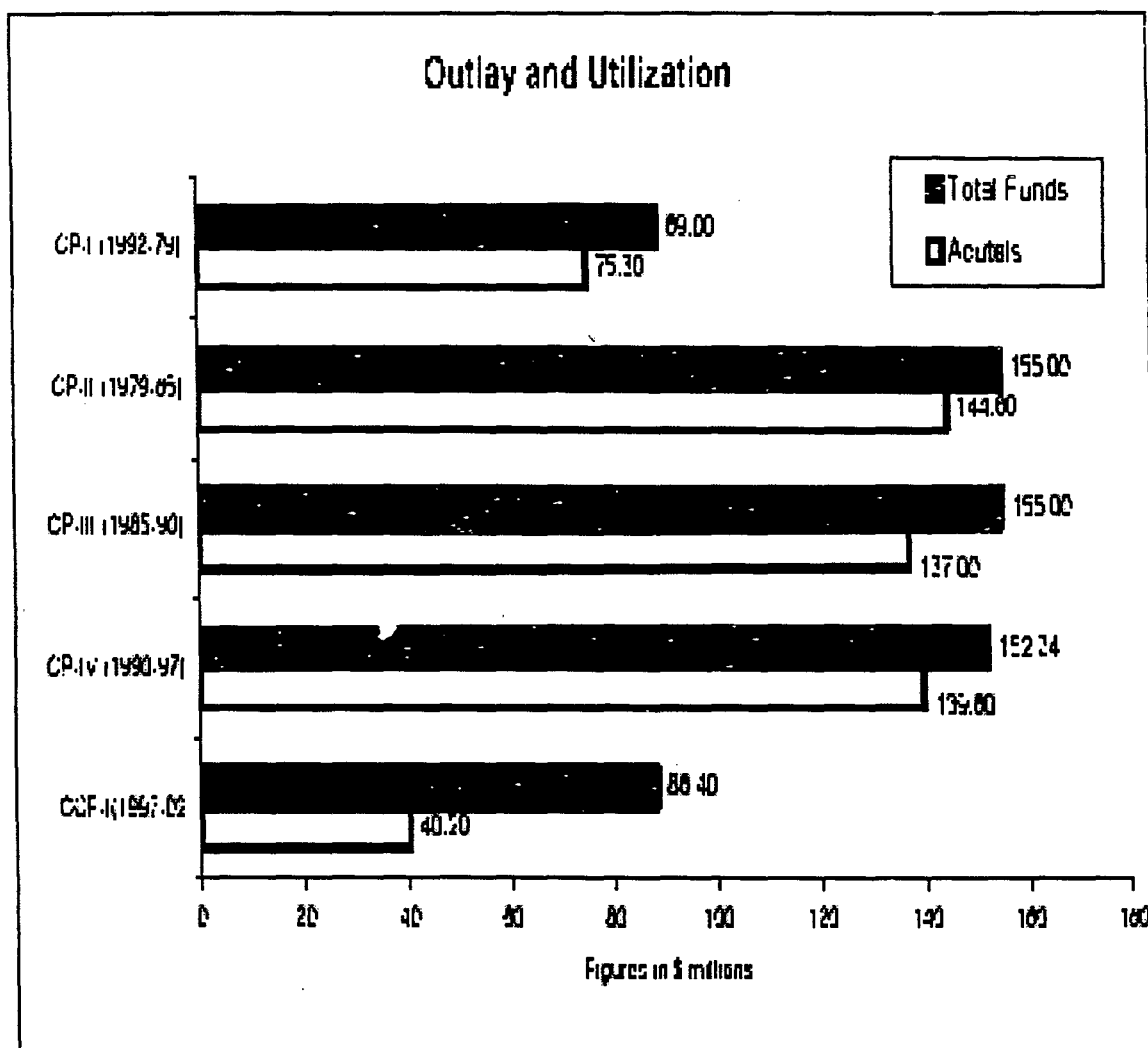
On the other hand the executing agencies have been indulged in inter-agency rivalries and competing for funds against each other. This rivalry increasingly became the main concern for recipient country which not only delayed the completion of project, but also made the recipient country subservient to donor countries, particularly in seeking the fund for ‘follow-up’ projects. The recipient countries were compel to seek bilateral aid which again attached with political as well as other conditions. This also forced the recipient country to increase its allocations as the part of burden sharing. In India the continuation of old projects are the reflection of inter-agency competition which in place of improving and speeding up the implementation of programmes and projects, making the projects longer and costly. The Specialized Agencies consumed 13 per cent of fund only in administrative expenses. Seeing the delay in completing the projects UNDP started executing the projects directly by itself with the establishment of Office for Project Execution (OPE). During the 1980s the OPE used 5-7 per cent of the UNDP funds in direct execution. The creation of Trust Fund encouraged the Specialized Agencies towards grabbing more fund which was nothing but a zero-sum game in the form of cutting UNDPs fund. The donor country prefers contributing to Trust Fund which is not regular like UNDP. The other problem occurred in the form of not utilizing the available fund and leaving the fund unutilized which have been shown below in table-9 and table-10 (William, 1987, pp.170-171).

Table-9



Sources: *Reproduced from UNDP*

Table-10



Source: *Reproduced from India Country Review UNDP 2002*

Even upto December 2001 (the original closing date of CCF I) utilization was 45.42 per cent Cumulative Resource delivery from 1.7.97 to 31.12.2001 was less than 20 per cent under Capacity Building and Health programmes and less than 50 per cent under Technology Management, Small Scale Industries, Rural Energy, Economic Reforms, Food security and Community Based Pro-Poor Initiatives programmes. Only under Leather, Community Based Primary Education and Environment Programmes resource utilization exceeded 60 per cent of the outlays by 31st December, 2001. Delays in release of funds suggest procedural complexities, inadequate appreciation of the prescribed procedures or simply processing delays (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 48). These challenges and drawbacks in UNDPs activities need to be

addressed to make its partnership and advocacy role more effective. UNDPs financial input in India is modest. The total external assistance, as a percentage of India's plan outlay is 8.4 per cent. Of this, the total disbursements of other International Institutions (which include UNDP) as a percentage of total external assistance was 0.21 per cent in 1998-99 and 0.23 per cent in 1999-2000. Thus, in purely financial terms, UNDPs contribution is modest. However, it is the issues raised and ideas brought by UNDP which made significant impact on Indian development endeavor. The basic strategy of UNDP, especially in a country of India's size, is to ensure that the impact of its intervention is maximized through replication and mainstreaming of its innovative approaches and that its micro projects influence macro policies. Although its resources are modest and interventions are limited, its UNDP programmes made a distinctive contribution to India. Both partners - UNDP and India, need to keep in view each other's strengths and constraints and attempt to build on mutual strengths to maximize the contribution of the collaborative partnership to India's developmental effort (India Country Review UNDP, 2002, p. 61).

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Note-* indicates the Primary Sources.

Chapter-V

CONCLUSION

At the initial stage, the United Nations has begun technical assistance programme at marginal level in order to assist its members who were hunger and poverty stricken. It was revealed by a study done by the UN in 1949 by a group of five economists that hunger and poverty was the common phenomena in a majority of the countries in the world and main causes of this problem were identified as backward society fraught with illiterate and ill-health population. These countries were completely unaware about the modern scientific technology and equipments which brought industrial revolution in West Europe and North America. While tracing the evolution of the UN development activities, the study has come across different theoretical approaches influences its activities at different period of time.

As chapter one suggested us that right from the beginning of the classical economic literatures, society was given prominent place along with the economy. But, in the mid 20th century economic development was designed to be measured and priced without considering the actual benefit to the people. The level of development attained by the western countries had emerged as a strong development paradigm for the rest of the countries. The initial stage of UN development activities were influenced by the theory of Economic Growth which is also known as modernization theory. This theory assumed development as tantamount to economic development and this was necessarily an endogenous process. Under the influence of this theoretical approach, the United Nations assumed that development, was essentially a matter for “measures requiring domestic action”. On the demand of developing countries, the United Nations got involved in promoting technical and financial assistance, with increased numerical strength due to decolonization, the developing countries could pressurize the United Nations to set up various institutions for their development but they did not result in qualitative change in the existing economic system.

By the 1960s developing countries got two types of advantages at the United Nations- their number swelled up to decisive point, and their intellectual capacity regarding the economic development came to the fore in the form of Dependency Theory to provide them theoretical guidelines and proper direction. Soon the United Nations got influenced by new approach which revealed the existent process as an inequalising terms of exchange between North and South. By that time differences of approach between the developing countries and developed ones, on the question of the role of the United Nations, became sharply divided. By the mid 1960s the United Nations had become mature enough to go through a major revision of its development approach. The new approach known as the doctrine of Raul Prebisch or the theory of dependency asserted the existence of a process of inequalising exchange between North and South, as the latter's term of trade of primary commodities export for manufactured imports deteriorated as economic surplus was transferred from South to North through transnational enterprises as mercantilist policies restricted access to technology, and as international capital limited structural change and the policies for growth. Persistent divergence between North and South was seen as the natural order.

This led to the demand for making the economic system more equitable, but it gone unheeded. The lopsided economic development and continuing wide economic disparities between the developed and developing countries became glaring by the early 1970s. It pressed the developing countries for the calling of two special sessions of General Assembly and issue of Declaration of New International Economic Order (NIEO) and programme of Action. The NIEO demanded the transfer of technology along with removal of the unequal term of trade against developing countries and provide market access in developed countries for the manufactured products of developing countries. It called for the rescheduling of whole economic system to make it more just and equitable. After some success in the initial moment, there was not much change in the international economic structure and relations. In late 1970s 'basic needs approach' strongly started penetrating in development strategies. Basic Needs approach identified that the increase in income are not sufficient to reduce poverty. Mass education, safe drinking water, family planning, health services and

other priorities depend on public activities. The basic needs approach called for participatory community involvement and self-governing institutions in the design and implementation of projects and programmes. However, the basic needs approach did not provide much respite. The 1980s were a period of crisis, setbacks, retreats. The suggested policy of stabilization and adjustments of the IMF and the World Bank became the main cause of concern. The stabilization was sought through deflationary policies that reduced output and employment. The structural adjustment was sought through fund cut in public and social sector expenditures. These policies subjugated poorer section of the population into more hardship and they were frequently forgotten. In this kind of situation when human sufferings became order of the day, emerged a new conceptual approach known as capability approach which once again started giving importance to human beings. It says that people value a commodity not in their own right, but for their characteristics and for the needs they meet. This approach to development is further refined and became the central theme of the latest approach known as human development approach. According to Mahbub Ul Haq, who developed the latest approach said, “the basic purpose of development is to enlarge people’s choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and can change over time. People often value achievements that do not show up at all, or not immediately, in income or growth figures: greater access to knowledge, better nutrition and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedoms and sense of participation in community activities. The objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives”.

These various approaches to the development came into existence in various periods in progression. There is no drastic differences among these approaches and differences are of nuances and emphasis. Thus the difference among them are not of quantum jump but of continuity in varying emphasis which provides theoretical underpinnings to different phases of development undertaken by the UN system, especially under UNDP.

Human development emerged as strong development approach in 1990s, which was whole heartedly adopted by the UNDP. The second chapter enquires into the distinction between human development approach and earlier approaches like economic growth, basic needs, and capital formations. The chapter discusses the components of human development which in fact gives it distinct character from other approaches. which are: equity, sustainability, productivity, and empowerment. Each component has various dimensions that are in the evolutionary process and highly contested too.

Equity is the first and foremost component of Human development paradigm that enhances people's choices by providing equitable access to opportunities based on individual's capabilities. Capability formation is a necessary condition to achieve human development. How to build capability is a vital question and it is primarily contingent upon many requirements. Capability approach of development sees human life as a set of doings and beings that may be called functionings and it relates the evaluation of the quality of life to the assessment of the capability to function. The constituent elements of life are seen as a combination of various different functionings. This amounts to be escaping morbidity, and mortality, being adequately nourished, undertaking usual movements etc, to many complex functionings such as achieving self-respect, taking part in the life of the community and appearing in public without shame. Capability reflects a person's freedom to choose between different ways of living.

Sustainability is the second essential component of development. The next generation deserves the opportunity to enjoy the same well-being that we now enjoy, a right that makes sustainability another essential component of the human development paradigm. The sustainability is sometimes confused with the renewal of natural resources, which is just one aspect of sustainable development. It is the sustainability of human opportunities that must lie at the center of development concern. Sustainable development means a process in which economic, fiscal, trade, energy, agriculture, industrial and all other policies are designed to bring about development

that is economically, socially and ecologically sustainable. The demand of sustainability is, in fact, a particular reflection of universality of claims, applies to the future generations vis-à-vis present generation.

Productivity is the third essential component of human development paradigm, which requires investment in people and an enabling macroeconomic environment for them to achieve maximum potential. Economic growth is therefore a subset of human development models -an essential part, not the entire structure. There exists a strong link between economic growth and human development. On the one hand, economic growth provides the resources to permit sustained improvements in human development, on the other, improvement in the quality of the labor force are an important contributor to the economic growth.

The fourth essential component of development in human development paradigm is empowerment, which breaks off the boundary of paternalistic or charity based or welfarist concept of development and it focuses on people's participation in development activities, events and process that shape their lives. In poor countries and for poor people in different counties, policies are adopted on the basis of permanent charity, which, in fact, make them more dependent on state. This kind of policy neither add any dignity nor sustainability to poor people per se. Empowerment is a comprehensive concept, which make people able to exercise choices of their own free will. It implies a political democracy which help to be part of decision-making about their lives, economic liberalism so that people is free from excessive economic control and regulations, decentralization of power so that real governance is realized at the doorstep of every individual and non-governmental organizations including other members of civil society participate fully in decision making and implementing. Empowerment of people is intimately connected to capabilities formation which requires investment in education and health for entire population irrespective of gender, caste, class, creed, ethnicity, and religion.

Human Development approach has been given a practical shape in the form of Human Development Report (HDR) and that distinct it from all other approaches in a big way. HDRs of different years, as the chapter included, emphasizes on different theme related to human development. HDRs highlighted the problem of human security, women empowerment and women development as the essential part of human development activities. The vital components of HDR are Human Development Indices which actually provides ranking to countries on the basis of average achievement of three areas: longevity in terms of average life expectancy from the birth, knowledge in terms adult literacy and gross enrolment ratio of primary, secondary and higher education, and power parity purchasing capacity in the form of adjusted per capita in local currency. The Human Development Index has tried to quantify the achievements of different countries, but so far fails to capture the qualitative aspects. Nevertheless, Human Development Reports seem to have considerably succeeded in influencing the governments' programmes. In order to improve their ranking on human development, governments are taking human development as an important task, which reflects moral obligations also, in collaboration with the UNDP.

The human development approach makes it imperative to look at the concept of development paradigm in India as a whole and concept of social development in particular. Chapter third has defined the Indian concept of social development in historical context which starts with the debate between Jawaharlal Nehru and Mahatma Gandhi regarding the future shape of Indian society. Nehru visualized Indian society on the mode of western world: educated, trained, skilled, healthy and efficient enough to carry forward the industrial development. His dream was to make Indian society modern in every walk of lives such as free from old practices based on caste, class, religion, region and sex. He was all committed to make Indian society a progressive society.

To realize Nehruvian goals certain Constitutional Provisions were made and also amended time to time. These provisions were enshrined in Part-III, the Fundamental

Rights and Part-IV, the Directive Principles of State Policy. The Directive Principles of State Policy contains range of socio-economic rights or entitlement but these are not enforceable by the Courts. The main reason is that to meet the provisions under Directive Principle, India required sufficient resources and capabilities, which are lacking. India adopted the policy of social development basically in three areas: education, health and employment. The economic development model was borrowed from the West but five-year-plan could be seen as the influence of socialist block led by the erstwhile USSR. As per the provisions of Constitution of India go, the social development comes under the responsibility of the State Government. But State governments are barely economically independent in terms of tax collections and expenditure over different social heads. Education and health are exclusively the state subject where State governments have not been successful enough to induce expected social change. The composition of Indian state, demographically, has been very diverse divided on caste, region, religion, ethnicity, and most dangerous between rich and poor, landlords and landless, educated and uneducated. Though time to time governments of different states took some affirmative actions in order to provide help and improve the lives of backward, downtrodden and deprived people of society. These efforts, though, taken in positive direction, may be called with good intentions also, have proved to be a cosmetic measure.

The Government of India has shown concern in 1990s regarding the increased disparity and inequality resulted as the wrong policy pursuance and realized that it should work in the direction of achieving human development goals within stipulated time-frame. The government of India with State governments have started some programmes which seem to provide direct benefit to the participants belonged to poor, deprived and unskilled masses of Indian population. The chapter reveals that the government of India did not pay required attention towards the attainment of social development goals partially because of lack of resources in initial period and partially because of lack of good intention and policies in the recent period. The nature of ruling elite and their understanding about poverty, hunger, unemployment is reflected in governments policies which does not seem to be appropriate and judicious

enough in the direction of problem solving. Though international pressures in the form of human development ranking have forced them to change certain policies in order to come closer to human development approach. Some affirmative actions have been taken at times to achieve social development by providing opportunities to downtrodden, deprived and socially disadvantaged people.

Right from the beginning of the UN assistance programmes India has been associated and deeply attached in terms of receiving financial assistance or technical assistance. Having workable educated and scientifically trained mass base India received most of the UNDP aids for industrial development in order to rapidly realize the benefit of modern technology to increase industrial production so that national income could be enhanced in quick succession. Chapter fourth gives details of the UNDPs assistance from 1960s to 2000. From the beginning of 1960s to late 1980s most of the UNDP assistance, India received, in the form of sophisticated science and technology. India excluded UNDPs poverty alleviation programme in order divert more resources towards industry and science and technology. Agricultural sector and rural development programme of the UNDP, were given secondary preference in India, despite knowing that agriculture is the only sector which provides subsistence to around 70 per cent population. In early 1990s Indian government with the help of UNDP programmes started paying attention towards the rural development. In collaboration with UNDP, it formulated certain programmes in the direction of poverty alleviation, employment generation, and promotion of non-agricultural small and marginal industrial development.

The chapter fourth observes that UNDP, particularly in India in mid 1990s, shifted its project oriented development goals to programmes oriented development goals. These programmes are formulated under different themes which include many small projects as well. In the Country Cooperation Framework-I (CCF-I), one can see the clear reflections of shift in approach of the UNDP. The current programmes of UNDP have considerable elements of poverty reduction. New vistas of development are being

incorporated in UNDP's activities such as environment, pollution, deforestation, and recently women's empowerment and development.

In brief, UNDP's role in the development of developing countries has been significant enough, though it has gone through many rough patches. Initially one notices it as one of the effective multilateral body where developing countries had lot of say in policy formulation and programme identification. Later, because of change in international environment and emergence of new theoretical approaches, it went through changes at policy level and implementation level. From mid 1960s to the end of 1980s, its programmes were mainly for technical assistance in small sizes, but larger in numbers. In 1990s it underwent a sea-change when it shifted its goals from project to programme approach under the new theoretical guidelines of human development. Most of the policies are now being conceived, keeping human at the center of its activities. It has adopted an holistic approach which seems to have taken care of present generation to future generation, environment, children and the largest, but most deprived section of society, the women. Women empowerment and development, human security, rural development are the significant programmes of today's UNDP. Despite all sorts of advantages, UNDP lacks the fund which is one of the vital component to carry forward such an ambitious target. If the goals of UNDP are realized in real terms, it would be a bloodless revolution in the history of human being which will make this world a far better place to live.

In the context of India, UNDP's contribution in terms of finance is modest. The total external assistance, as a percentage of India's plan outlay is 8.4 per cent. Of this, the total disbursements of other International Institutions (which include UNDP) as a percentage of total external assistance was 0.21 per cent in 1998-99 and 0.23 per cent in 1999-2000. Thus, in purely financial terms, UNDP's contribution is modest. However, it is the issues raised and ideas brought by UNDP which made significant impact on Indian development endeavor. The basic strategy of UNDP, especially in a country of India's size, is to ensure that the impact of its intervention is maximized through replication and mainstreaming of its innovative approaches and that is its

micro projects influence macro policies. Although its resources are modest and interventions are limited, it is UNDP programmes, which made a distinctive contribution to India. Both partners - UNDP and India, need to keep in view each other's strengths and constraints and should attempt to build on mutual strengths to maximize the contribution of the collaborative partnership to India's developmental effort.

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Note- * indicates the Primary Source

