

PREFACE

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Where Can the Elderly Rest?

Abhishek Kumar

Neither the Constitution of India nor the traditional values treat the elderly, parents or grandparents, as a burden. Article 41 in the Constitution of India describes that the State shall, within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing the right to work, to education and to public assistance in case of undeserved want. In the same spirit, entry 24 in List III of Schedule VII deals with the welfare of labour that includes old-age pension also.

Observing more provisions, the right of parents without any means, to be supported by their children having sufficient means, has been recognised by Section 20 (1&3) of the Hindu Adoption and Maintenance Act, 1956. The latest Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizens Act, 2007, makes it a legal obligation for children and heirs to provide maintenance to senior citizens and parents.

Apart from these legislative provisions, every fifth or 10th year, some programmes or welfare plans are initiated. But the painful and gloomy condition of the elderly in India tells that the acts and welfare plans are all a farce.

India is a society of 11 crore elderly citizens at present and it will be a country of around 32 crore old people in 2050. While the overall population of India will grow by 40% between 2006 and 2050, the population of those aged 60 and above will increase by 270%.

A major demographic issue in the 21st century for India is population ageing, with wide implications on economy and society in general. With the rapid changes in demographic indicators over the last few decades, it is certain that India will move from being a young country to an old country over the next few decades.

Old age generally comes with various diseases. Diabetes, hypertension, insomnia, depression, Alzheimer's and other ailments make a heavy impact on an aged person on various levels, including physical, mental, financial and social. Everyday life becomes challenging. Various diseases make



the person medicine-dependent-and those too need to be administered by a caregiver from his or her family or an institution like old-age home.

The problem of the financial and health securities to the elderly looms large as the elderly population is exploited and abused on many fronts, including physical attack and financial cheating and duping. Different forms of abuse take place inside and outside of their homes. An old person, weak on health grounds, becomes weaker if proper financial back-up is not the case - a condition with most households.

Elderly women, especially widows, suffer the most. News reports on widows in Vrindavan and Varanasi reveal the pathetic conditions they are living in, away from their family members who shun them as if getting rid of a 'burden'.

Challenges

At present, more than 51 % elderly people have to provide for themselves and their family members living below the poverty-line. In such a demographic scenario, one genuine challenge comes to the family and the Government social care departments: whether they are ready to take or give care to the senior citizens, who are at present on the receiving end on many fronts including healthcare, financial security and a feeling of compassion and care?

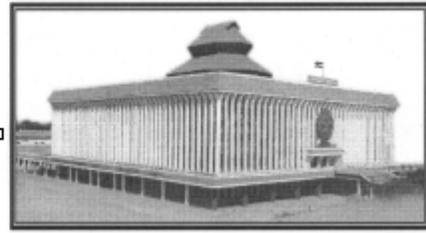
Older parents and grandparents, putting aside health problems and financial complexities, are peeved by the family members' changed attitude and the environment of apathy towards them. Living alone pushes them into depression and, gradually, more health problems, such as insomnia, dementia and other terminal illness grips them.

Most older people are retired from their workplace and, in a way, forced to live a life of reclusion. Both men and women, who are without proper savings (which is the common case among most citizens, who belong to the unorganised work class) find themselves on the receiving end on A-to-Z matters of necessity and possibility.

The Indian economy has not taken strong enough steps to support the daily needs of the gray-haired population. The Government is found lacking in providing basic support to its elderly citizens but spends billions of dollars on Defence purchase every financial year. In order to be labelled as a social welfare State, there are just some 'peanut-sized' pension programmes for its 60-plus citizens.

Unlike Europe and other economically-developed countries, the common man in India is still dependent on family support. The elderly also consider it the most secure and peaceful place for their final journey of life.

As the working set-ups are becoming more globalised and urbanised, the joint family system is fading in India, too. It is a global phenomenon as society is becoming more urbanised and



industrialised, leading to a competitive work-environment, that requires long hours for the profession. In this hectic lifestyle, the time spent daily with family and duty towards parents and grandparents are taking a back seat. The retired or nonworking people, who have no source of income, bear the brunt.

Changed family set-up

The housing data from Census 2011 points that the number of households has increased substantially in the last decade, but the number of persons per household has come down. Declining fertility, migration and growth of nuclear families are the three main reasons for the reduction in household size. Under such circumstances, we must face the inevitability of the nuclear family system gaining ground and the elderly moving into old-age homes.

Nuclear family is the reality at present but brought up with the older values, they wish and try to make family their last abode. In the present, fast lifestyle, the younger generations are too busy to give an ear to the seniors at home. This is now taking a form of an apathy towards the elderly in maximum middle-class families. Finally, the apathy pushes them into a corner of darkness where they, in a way, wait to die without giving a proper fight to the challenges.

According to the institution Help Age, 20% of the old persons live alone in India. This proportion has registered a sharp increase in the past two decades and is more evident in the case of elderly women. The large segment of the elderly - those living alone or with spouse only; the widowed, who are illiterate or poor; particularly those from the SC/ST families; low wealth quintiles - will definitely require various kinds of support: economic, social and psychological. At present, these are woefully lacking.

The number and level of crimes against the elderly show how ineffective the laws are, which were formed for the health, welfare and maintenance of the elderly citizens in India. They are too weak to resist crimes and atrocities. This is why they are abused by their own people, and looted and murdered by outsiders. The National Crime Record Bureau's data shows that crimes against old people have increased sharply in and outside their home in the last few decades.

Many cases are reported in newspapers, where aged mothers are dumped at railway stations or seated in a train to be sent far away - to die anonymously. On the other side, some fathers have to take a stern step to disown their sons or daughters from the property as they feel most insecure when living with them, facing abuse and lethal threats. Most elderly people are not capable of taking a strong decision as they do not have enough assets to back them or they simply do not want to hurt the children whom they raised till the age of 25 or 30. At this point, too, elderly women face maximum challenges as most of them do not have property rights and are too weak to fight for their rights.



Final destination

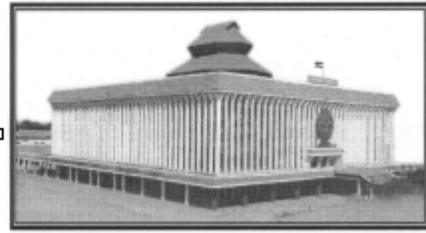
For the last 10 years, old-age homes are mushrooming in urban parts, all over India. They are being run and maintained for various purposes, some as noble as 24 X 7 care. Of course, somewhere profit is the leading attribute.

Actually, old-age homes too need to have a comfortable living ambience, with basic amenities, enough open spaces for senior citizens to meet; balanced diets for its inmates; community participation; prayer and social meetings; library and some intellectual activity; space to meet relatives, who visit and spend time with them; a medical dispensary with all-time doctors and nursing staff also. Do we have old-age homes, where these needful facilities are given with kindness?

In our country, the homes were not created just to have all the facilities for physical comfort only. Living and feeling together is one of the best examples of lifestyle that the human civilisation ever evolved. A good family setting, where life is relished and finally departs amidst loved ones, is unmatched by any social institution.

**ALIVE,
AUGUST 2015.**

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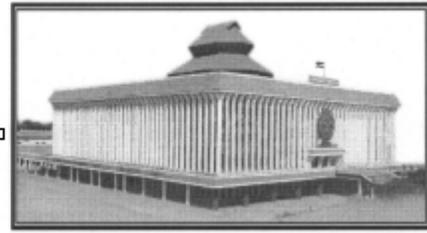


Inter Community Variation in Education and Health Scheduled Tribes in Wayanad, Kerala - A Study

Unnikrishnan Namboodiri K.

The term ‘outlier’ was introduced in the 1990’s in to the discussion of the “Kerala Model”. The ‘outliers’ to this central tendency are population groups who have been left out of the domain of public action and the ‘capability building’ process. Among the outliers, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Fisher folks are the historically marginalized communities (Oommen and Shyjan 2014). This article focus on the Scheduled Tribes in Kerala. They are considered as the most vulnerable community in the state(Economic Review 2008). The Tribal groups and the Dalit of Kerala, who have not shared the benefit of social development in Kerala and has not, received the benefit of this ‘Kerala model of development’, which makes them outliers in the Kerala Model of Development (Kurien, 1996). Scheduled Tribes in Kerala are one of the outliers of Kerala’s Development experience and are excluded groups both in the lopsided as well as in the virtuous phase of development (Shyjan and Sunitha, 2009) .In another context Oommen and Shyjan (2014), analyses the deprivation among three marginalized groups of population, which is SC, ST, and Fisher folks. Their analysis shows that ST was the most deprived among these three marginalized groups.

The Constitution has officially designated all the tribal societies as scheduled tribes, and it does not take in to account the fact that the tribal societies are distinct and different from each other in many aspect like customs, traditional practices, and way of life ... etc. But it has been pointed out that the STs “are varied in terms of socio-economic and political development” (Sharma 2007: 198). Ministry of Tribal Affairs (2007), for a community to be identified as scheduled tribe; it should fulfill the following criteria: primitive traits, distinctive culture, shyness of contact with the public at large, geographical isolation, and backwardness - social and economic. As the tribals are distinct and different from each other, there are different communities among them and each of them are different from one another. It has also been observed that there exists a marked difference in the level of development within the tribal community in Kerala, as some communities seem to be better off than others in all dimensions of human development, the merit of reservation



in Government jobs and the support and schemes offered by the Government to tribal communities are not distributed equally among tribal communities (HDR of Tribal Communities in Kerala, 2009). The inter communal and inter-regional variations causes differences in tribal transformation and development among the tribals of Kerala (Paul 1988). In this context this paper deeply analyses the various communities among the Scheduled Tribes and their achievement in the social indicators especially in health and education based on both the primary and secondary data sources, the study is primarily descriptive in nature.

Table - 1

Districtwise Distribution of ST Population in Kerala

Sl. No.	Districts	ST Population (%)	Percentage to Total population
1	Kasargod	10.8	3.74
2	Kannur	8.53	1.64
3	Wayanadu	31.24	18.53
4	Kozhikode	3.14	0.49
5	Malappuram	4.74	0.56
6	Palakkad	10.10	1.74
7	Thrissur	1.94	0.30
8	Ernakulam	3.42	0.50
9	Idukki	11.51	5.03
10	Kottayam	4.53	1.11
11	Alappuzha	1.36	0.31
12	Pathanamthitta	1.67	0.68
13	Kollam	2.22	0.41
14	Trivandrum	5.52	0.81

Source: Census 2011

Major Tribes in Kerala

Primitive Tribes: Tribal people groups who are food gatherers (without any habit of agriculture practices) with diminishing population and very low or little literacy rates can be called “primitive tribes”. Cholanaikan, Kurumbans, Kattunaickans, Kadar, Korgas with the five primitive tribal groups in Kerala. They constituted nearly 5% of the total tribal population in the state.



Cholanikans can be said as the most primitive of them and found only in the Malappuram district. Only a handful of families are living in the Mancheri hills of Nilambur forest division. Kattunaikans are another lower hill community related to Cholanaikans, mainly seen in the Wayanad district and some part of Malappuram and Kozhikode districts. Kadar population is found in Trichur and Palakkad districts. Kurumbans are living in the Attapady block of Palakkad district. The Korga habitat is in the plain areas of Kasargod district.

The tribal communities of Kerala not only differ from the non-tribals but also from one another. But they have some uniform characteristics. Some of the main characteristics common to all Scheduled Tribes in the State are: (a) Tribal origin (b) primitive way of life (c) general backwardness in all respects. Tribals in Kerala are living on the hill ranges, mainly on the Western Ghats, bordering Karnataka and Tamil Nadu. As a natural border, the mountain has branch in Kerala as well as in Tamil Nadu and Karnataka.

There are 36 Tribal communities across Kerala; the tribals in Kerala are as follows:

1. Adiyar
2. Aranda (Arandan)
3. Iravallan
4. Hill Pulaya (Mala Pulayan, Kurumba Pulayan, Karavazhi Pulayan, Pamba Pulayan)
5. Irular (Irulan)
6. Kadar (Wayanad Kadar)
7. Kammara (In the areas comprising the Malabar district as specified by sub section (2) of section 5 of State Reorganization Act 1956 (37 of 1956))
8. Kanikkaran, Kanikkar
9. Kattunayakan
10. Kochuvelan
11. Kondakapus
12. Kondareddi
13. Koranga
14. Koda



15. Kudiya, Melakkudi
16. Kurichiyan
17. Kurumans (Mullu Kuruman, Mulla Kuruman, Mala Kuruman)
18. Kurumbas (Kurumbar, Kurumban)
19. Mahabalasar
20. Malai Arayan (Mala Arayan)
21. Malai Pandaran
22. Malai Vedan (Mala Vedan)
23. Malakkuravan
24. Malasar
25. Malayan, Nattu Malayan, Konga Malayan (Excluding Malabar- the areas comprising Kasaragod, Kannur, Wayanad and Kozhikode Districts)
26. Marayarayan
27. Mannan
28. Maratti(In the Hosdurg and taluks in Kasargod District only)
29. Muthuvan, Mudugar, Muduvan
30. Palleyan (Palliyan, Paliyar, Palliya)
31. Palliyan
32. Palliyar
33. Paniyan
34. Ullatan
35. Uraly

But in 2003 by government orders No: 5389/G1/2003/SCSTDDI Dated 23-03-2003 the Maraties were deleted from this list and two other tribes Mavilan, Karimpalan included. Thus at



present there are 36 approved tribal communities in Kerala. (Human Development Report 2009 State Planning Board, Government of Kerala, and Ministry of Tribal Affairs, Annual Report 2011- 12, Government of India).

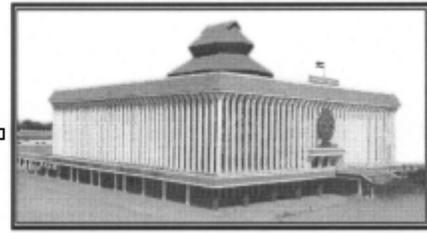
Tribal Population

The 2011 Census report records the overall tribal population in the state as 4,84,839, against 3,64,189 in 2001, constituting 1.45 percent of the state's total population putting the decadal growth rate at 33.1 per cent. Every district in Kerala has some tribal population. There has been an increase of 0.63 percent as compared to 2001 population census. Wayanadu has the highest number of tribes with (31.24 percent), followed by Idukki (11.51 percent), Palakkad (10.10 percent) and Kasargod (10.08 percent) respectively. These 4 districts together account for 62.93 percent of the Scheduled Tribes in Kerala. The coastal district of Alapuzha has the lowest percentage of ST population in Kerala (Table 1 & 2). Though the Kerala is passing through the advanced phase of demographic transition, that is low birth and death rate accompanied with slow growth rate of population, but the rate of growth of tribal population (33.1 %) is considerably higher than the States and National Decadal growth rate (23.7%).

Table - 2
District wise ST Population in Kerala

Sl. District	Total Population			ST Population		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1 Kasargod	628613	678762	1307375	23950	24907	48857
2 Kannur	1181446	1314557	2353003	201411	21230	41371
3 Wayanadu	401684	415736	817420	74476	76967	151443
4 Kozhikode	1470942	1615351	3086293	7429	7799	15228
5 Malappuram	1960328	2152592	4112920	11272	11718	22990
6 Palakkad	1359478	1450456	2809934	24314	24658	48972
7 Thrissur	1480763	1640437	3121200	4362	5068	9430
8 Ernakulam	1619557	1632831	3282388	8349	8210	16559
9 Idukki	552808	556166	1108974	27995	27820	55815
10 Kottayam	968289	1006262	1974551	10974	10998	21972
11 Alappuzha	1013142	1114647	2127789	3175	3399	6574
12 Pathanamthitta	561716	635696	1197412	3947	4161	8108
13 Kollam	1246968	1388407	2635375	5195	5566	10761
14 Trivandrum	1581678	1719749	3301427	12624	14135	26759
15 Kerala	16027412	17378649	33406061	238203	246636	484839

Source : Economic Review 2013



Tribal Communities in Wayanad

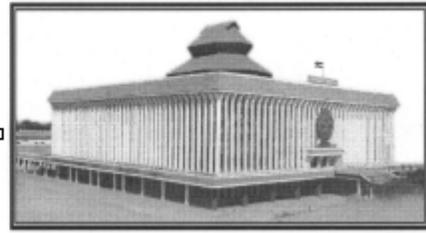
The native Adivasis in Wayanad, mainly consist of various sects of Paniyas, Kurumas, Adiyas, Kurichiyas, Ooralis, and Kattunaikkas etc. The Integrated Tribal Development Project (ITDP) survey conducted in Wayanad has identified five major tribes in Wayanad district, they are Paniyan, Adiyar, Kuruman, Kurichyan and Kattunaikkan, together they account for the 73% of the total tribal population of the districts.

Educational Status of ST

Kerala has a high literacy rate among Scheduled Tribe Population. The overall literacy rate of the scheduled tribes in Kerala has increased from 25.72 % in 1971, 31.79% in 1981, 57.2% in 1991 census to 64.4% in 2001 census and 75.8% in 2011. It is higher than the national average of 59.0% of all Scheduled Tribes. Male literacy has increased from 63.4% to 73.8%, female literacy from 51% to 58.1% during 1991-2001 and to 71.1 % in 2011. Among the numerically larger tribes, Malayarayan have the highest percentage of literates (94.5%), followed by Kanikaran, Kurichyan, Kuruman, Marati (71.4%). Paniyan community has 80% of the literates educated up to primary level whereas Kurichyan, the second largest tribe has 60% of literates.

Among the larger tribes, Malayarayan has the highest population of matriculates at 24.4%. Malayarayans are mainly concentrated in the Idukki district, largely benefited from the missionary activities and comparatively better from other tribal communities in education. A review of literacy rates among scheduled tribes population in comparison to that of the general population indicates a growing gap between literacy rates of these communities (Kerala development report 2008). These growing disparity in education and literacy rate between ST and general population is due to the low enrolment ratio and high dropout ratio among the ST children in schools as compared to the general students (Human Development Report 2009).

ST students constitute 1.98 percent of total enrolment in schools in the year 2013-14. The percentage of ST students in Government schools, Private aided and Private unaided schools are 3.71 %, 1.36%, and 0.32% respectively. But the percentage of drop out of ST students in Government school, Private aided school and Private unaided schools are 4.15%, 3.28%, and 0.95% respectively shows the high rate of drop out among them (Economic Review 2013). Poverty is a significant deterrent to tribal children as they often dropout of schools for helping their family in occupation and their families cannot afford the cost of education as they are deprived of economic resources (Human Development Report 2009). At the same time the number of ST students appeared and passed in higher secondary examinations for a period of 2011 to 2013 shows a relative improvement. The total students appeared in 2010-11, 2011-12, 2012-13 are 4438,4566 and 4715,and the number of students passed are 2053 (46.26%), 2855 (62.53%), and 2443 (51.81%) respectively. The enrolment of ST students in degree and post graduate courses in 2012-13 are 2867 and 561 respectively, that is 3428 ST



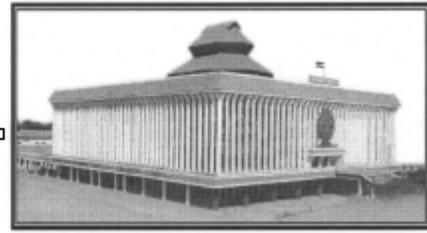
students were enrolled for courses in arts and science colleges, from these girls constitute 61.17%. (Economic Review 2013). But when compared with the rest of the Kerala society it is interesting that they left as the least developed within the state in attaining education.

Educational programmes have been given more thrust under the tribal development program. It is felt that educational backwardness must be removed for changing the existing socio-economic condition of scheduled tribes. It is noticed that 50 percentage of tribal budget provision (both plan and non plan) is set apart for the education sector. The development is distributing educational concessions scholarship and other kinds of assistance to the tribal from pre-primary to post graduate level. But their educational backwardness is still continuing. Lack of education among the parents of scheduled tribal students is the main reason for the educational backwardness of tribal students in Kerala.

Health and Nutrition among Tribes:

Kerala achieved a comparable health status in terms of mortality, fertility, life expectancy, comparable with many developed countries, but Kerala had the highest gap between the tribal and non-tribal population in health status (Human Development Report 2009). The present situation of the social indicators or health indices are very worse especially tribes in Kerala (Human Development Report 2009). These create a wide gap between tribal community and non-tribal community in the state. Various measures are taken by the Government in order to improve the health status of the Scheduled Tribes. Since the tribal settlements are situated far away from hospitals and health centers; the STs are not able to make use of available medical facilities and timely treatment for patients who need emergency treatment.

Many tribals die due to malnutrition, excessive consumption of alcohol, tobacco, ganja and superstitious beliefs. In Wayanad, there are many affected by cancer, TB, Leprosy, Scabies, Waterborne diseases etc. The Adiya and Paniya tribe in Wayanad are very poor and victims of these kinds of sicknesses. There is variation in morbidity rate, health deprivation, health seeking behavior, and the pattern of utilization of health care facilities among the different communities of ST, forward communities among them (Kuruma, Kurichya, and Malayaraya) are relatively less deprived (only 38%) against the back ward communities (Paniya, Adiya, Muthuvans, Uralies, Kattunaikkans and Irula) 53% (The Human Development Report of Tribal Communities in Kerala 2009). They also face health problems such as the prevalence of sickle cell anemia, premature birth (Low birth weight), and a lower life expectancy rate, i.e. 42 for male and 48 for female (HDR 2011). Recent study says Life style diseases such as hypertension, obesity, diabetics and stress generally considered as byproducts of rapid urbanization, are found among tribal people also. This was reflected in a population based study conducted by national rural health mission in Wayanad district. The inherent tendency of late reporting of morbidity episodes subsequently worsen the intensity of health disorder and increase the related morbidities among the ST (HDR Tribal communities in Kerala 2009).

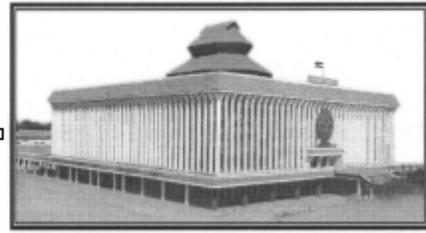


Major Findings from the Primary survey

The study is based on multi stage stratified random sampling technique, based on that, first selected the District having maximum percentage of tribal population as a percentage of total tribal population in the State. Hence, the study was confined to Wayanadu district of Kerala, because Wayanadu has the highest number of tribal population (31.24%). Out of the 6 major tribes (excluding Kadar) in Wayanadu, the study was conducted among 4 of these communities. The 4 communities selected are Kurichya, Kuruma, Adiya and Paniya (Urali is a minority community in Wayanadu and Kattunaikkans are primitive tribes, hence we select this 4 communities). As the study focuses on the inter community variation in health and education, hence the Panchayaths having these 4 communities has been identified i.e., Kottathara and Mananthavadi Panchayath of Wayanadu District have been selected. For a detailed study 80 sample tribal households have been selected from these panchayaths, 20 households were selected from each Tribals in the sample area on the basis of random sample method. Edakkunnath colony for Kurichiya , Mananthavadi panchayath and Pulppalli for Adiya, Mottankunnu colony for Paniyas and Ambalakkunnu colony for Kurumars.

Most of the primary findings strongly support the secondary evidences. In the case of general living standard of tribes that is the economic position of them, Kurichya and Kuruma are relatively better positions. The peculiar features of tribals are that, most of them are daily wage earners. They have no saving, especially Paniyas and Adiyans. But some Kurichiya and Kurumas are well developed; they are having bank account and saving (40% and 50% respectievly). Paniyas and Kurumas are mainly depending on daily wages for their livelihood. Most of them are casual labours (55%). It is noted that Kurichiya and Kuruma have bank loans for education and agricultural purpose. Kurichyas and Kurumans have their own land and agriculture is their main economic activity. A few of them (15%) have Government jobs. Majority of the communities including the four communities opined that MGNREGA is the main source of their income. A few percent of Kurichyas, Kurumas, and Paniyans have live stock with their family. Taking all the criteria that is housing, electricity, availability of water facility, sanitary latrine etc. Kurichyas and Kurumas enjoying relatively better position than Adiya and Paniya.

Today health is recognized as a fundamental right of every human being, to provide better health and hygienic care to the tribal communities; few numbers of both Governmental and non Governmental institutions and agencies are functioning in the Wayanadu district. Yet the tribals are striving for better health, there is a wide inter community variation in the health status among them. From the study it is understood that the health of tribal population is not robust as they are very much below the state averages in terms of most of the health indicators of morbidity, infant mortality and other demographic features. Infant mortality (number of infant death in a year per thousand live births during the year) and child mortality rate (number of deaths of children under five years of age but above one year of age in a given year per thousand childrens in this age group) still prevails very high, among them. From the investigation it is identified that among the



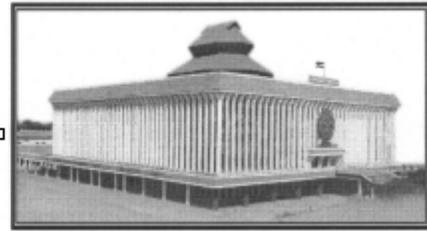
sample household areas; the abortions and infant mortality are recorded. Tribal childrens are born with weight below 2112, also faces malnutritions.

From the study it is clearly understood that spread of diseases is almost same in different tribal communities. But in the different treatment level the Paniyas and Adiyans spend income very low compared to Kurichiya and Kuruma's. Tribals mainly dependents on Government hospitals and Primary health centers for treatment. Morbidity prevalence rate is also very high among them, morbidity is high among Adiyans followed by Paniya, Kuruma and Kurichya, they suffers from many illness at a given time. It is significant to note that Kurichiya and Kurumans are mainly depending on modern medicine, but they do not ignore Ayurveda. It is also found that they could not seek health care, when they were sick, they try alternatives like traditional treatments, buy medicine from medical shops etc. If it is not cured, then only they go to hospitals, may be the reasons behind high morbidity among them. A majority of Adiyans and Paniyas (52%) goes to hospitals only when the illness gets worsened. It is also found that financial inability was the major reason for not seeking proper medical treatment even in the case of serious health problems. Most of the tribal households are suffering from fever, cough, diabetics and pressure Diabetic and pressure are found among even in the young peoples. From the study it is learnt that the diseases like anemia, cancer, jaundice to the process has been found in the areas of the sample households, it is noted that malaria is also prevails among the people of the paniya communities that is 73% of tribes are affected with many diseases. Also found that 3% of peoples died suffering from cancer.

Most of the people from the sample households (56%), prefer government hospitals for their medical treatment, next to government hospitals, 28 percent are depending on private hospitals. Child marriage is also prevalent in the sample areas, especially among the Paniyas tribe. While analyzing the health indicators, it is clear that their attitude towards health and medical treatments are improved. The health status of tribal communities is linked to a number of factors- household incomes, expenditure on health, health care delivery system, availability of private healthcare facilities and also environmental conditions. From the study we can understand Kurichyas and Kurumans are enjoying relatively better positions than Adiyans and Paniyas.

The educational attainment of tribal communities analyzed in the sample area also shows some variations in the attainment of education among different communities. From the four communities, majority of the household who have educational status of the higher secondary level are Kurichiya and Kurumas. More than 11 percent of the people from the entire sample household are illiterates, some Kurichiya and Kurumas have studied degree and post graduation. But Paniyas and Adiyans are not studying higher level educations, it is also noted that Kurichiya and Kururna spend large for their education, it is better to compare Paniyas and Adiyans.

There is not much difference among the communities in the case of enrolment in the schools, but the drop out at each successive stage is very high and the rate is different among different



communities educational dropout is least among the Kurichyas and Kurumans, on the contrary it is very high among the Adiyans and Paniyans. The Kurichyas and Kurumans are willing to send their children for higher education. The early marriage system prevails in them is one of the major reasons behind their drop out, illiteracy of the parents, economic problems, poverty etc is some of the reasons behind the high rate of drop out especially among Adiyans and Paniyans. Most of the families in the sample area depends on Government school for the education of their children; the preference of school is same in all the four communities.

In the case of attitude towards education, Kurichya and Kuruma expressed their interest for sending their children for higher education, at the same time Adiya and Paniya shows relatively less interest in this regard. This kind of attitude is very harmful and hinder their development. Education is a powerful tool for development and is essential for knowing the developmental programmes implemented by the central and State Government for their development. The tribal communities lag very much in this respect may be the cause of their least attainment in health and education, which may be the major reasons behind their backwardness. From the analysis it is clear that the Kurichya and Kurumans are highly improved in relation to health and education, economically, politically also much improved. Their living conditions are gradually getting improved.

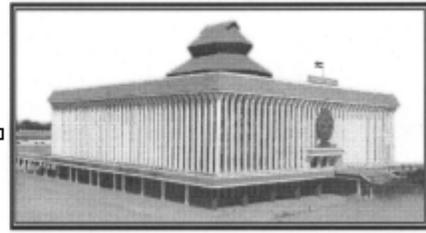
Conclusion

The development of Kerala starts from the early periods of the formation of the state; since then it was called as a model of development by academicians considering various factors. This model of high social development without economic development was criticized by many in the sense that, some sections of the population are not benefited from this so called 'Kerala model of Development' and STs of Kerala are one of the outlier to this model and they are recognized by the constitution as vulnerable group needs special attention. It has also been observed that there exist differences in the level of development within the tribal community in Kerala; some communities seem to be better off than the others in all dimensions of development.

In this context the study examines the different communities among the STs in Wayanad district and also examines whether there is any intercommunity variation exists in the development of health and education. The study found that there is inter community variation in health and education, among the different tribal communities in Wayandu district, Kurichyas and Kurumans are enjoying relatively better positions. It may conclude that, special treatment is necessary for obtaining the goals of various governmental policies for the welfare of the tribes, taking into account of their relative position and peculiarities in terms of language, belief, customs and also their economic background. Adiya and Paniya need special attention.

**SOUTHERN ECONOMIST,
AUGUST 1,2015.**





Bringing Back Social Forestry

Irshad .A. Khan

Social forestry (SF) started in the mid-1970s and grew as a movement and campaign in the early 1980s. The programme's main objective was to plant trees outside forests to produce fuel-wood, fodder, poles, small timber and other minor forest products with a view to reduce pressure on natural forests (Khan 1987). It aimed to create employment in rural areas and reforest degraded forests. Extension, training and research were also amongst the programme's objectives. SF's important activities included tree planting on village commons (woodlots), along roads, canals, railway lines (avenue/strip plantations), institutional lands, degraded forests, and farmland (agro forestry/farm forestry). It sought to involve local people and civil society, extended technical assistance to farmers and supplied them seedlings to undertake agro forestry and tree plantations.

Multilateral and bilateral aid agencies, including the World Bank and the European Union, extended financial support to implement SF in the mid-1980s. Between 1979 and 1985, the World Bank approved an SF project every year. Developing countries sought to learn from India about this programme.

The SF seems to have had greater acceptance among stakeholders than the subsequent Joint Forest Management (JFM) programme-which started in the early 1990s. The SF found a place in India's national forest policy of 1988 (MOEF 1988), which called for building a peoples' movement for conservation, afforestation and SF.

This forest policy discouraged industries from depending on public forests for their raw material needs and directed them to obtain raw material from agro forestry. So demand for softwood from agro forestry increased as did the demand for pulpwood and veneer quality wood from farm forestry plantations (MOEF 1988). The plantations were largely that of eucalyptus, poplars, casuarina and *Acacia auriculiformis*. The government's role remained that of extension and supplying seedlings; market forces took care of the rest, including fixing prices.



Strength and Weakness

The highest rate of afforestation, since independence, was achieved under the Seventh Five Year Plan period (1985-90) when 8.86 million hectares (ha) were planted under SF-an average rate of 1.772 million ha per year. Compare this to the 3.55 million ha planted between 1950 and 1979. In the 1980s, there was a boom in plantations with the launch of SF projects in many states as part of rural development schemes (MOEF 1999a). Research and evaluation by various organisations and individual researchers showed that SF had the following positive outcomes:

- Successful plantations in large area.
- Increased production of biomass, small timber, fuel wood and fodder.
- Increased production of industrial raw material (mainly pulpwood).
- Greening of barren lands and aesthetic plantations in strips (avenues) along roads, canals and railway lines.
- Restoration of degraded forests.
- Additional income for farmers.
- Employment generation in rural areas.
- Increased awareness about environmental issues.

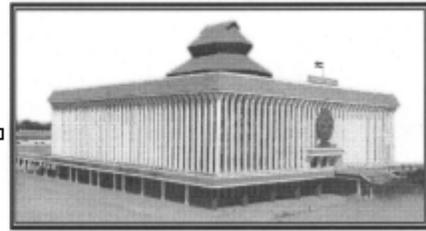
World Bank’s financial and economic analyses of various projects (World Bank 1994) revealed that agro forestry provided attractive returns-see Table 1 for the Bank’s analysis of projects in Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh.

Table 1: Outcomes of the Programme

State	Farm Forestry FRR (%)	Community Woodlots FRR (%)	RDF FRR (%)	Strip Plantations FRR (%)	Total Project ERR (%)
Gujarat	31.3	9.2	13.98	1.7	23
HP	25.7	20.8	14.9		13
Rajasthan	18.4	13.99	15.6	6.6	12.1
Uttar Pradesh	43.3	13.8	13.9	10.2	27.7
All states					22

After World Bank 1994.

Economic Rate of Return (ERR) on wastelands/degraded lands in rain-fed conditions was bound to have a lower rate of return. FRR-Financial Rate of Return.



Investment in social forestry proved to be economically advantageous for the country and transformed landscapes and wood balances (Kumar et al 2000). The programme's major achievements were:

- Increased awareness about the importance of tree plantations outside forests.
- Increased supply of wood products.
- Encouraged forest departments to accept that local people's cooperation could be sought in increasing tree cover.
- Demonstrated a direction by which the country could stabilise its tree cover despite extreme pressures from human and livestock population.
- Implementation of projects also brought to light many distortions in the wood market and revealed legal and procedural framework that bedeviled cutting trees on private lands and made the transport and sale of such wood difficult and cumbersome.
- The programme had positive impact on water conservation, improved microclimate and helped in improving soil fertility.
- Farm forestry improved farmers' incomes and also supplied raw material to wood-based industry.
- Plantation on farm bunds arrested soil erosion and gully formation.

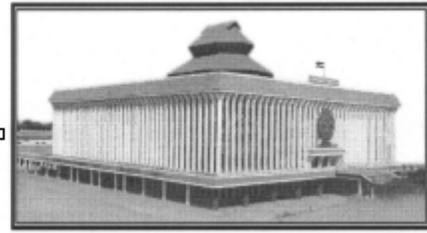
But in spite of these achievements, the programme was suddenly slowed down in the 1990s and its full potential for rural poverty reduction was never utilised.

In the early 1990s, external donor agencies phased out financial assistance to social forestry. Rural development sector excluded mandatory allocation under its central schemes and the states did not provide adequate budget to continue the programme. So, the SF programme collapsed. The newly-created social forestry wings in many states had to struggle to pay its staff salaries.

An important weakness of SF was that the programme was not adequately supported by research and did not pay much attention to improving silvicultural practices. Its main focus was on planting within deadline whatever stock was available. The quality of stock and productivity did not receive the required attention. The programme lacked appropriate models for regenerating degraded forests. It also did not have models for commercial and farm forestry production.

Planting Practices

Social and farm forestry require improved silvicultural techniques that ensure sustainability and improved productivity. Selection of site, site species matching, species mixture, inter-tree spacing, soil working, post planting maintenance operations, etc, will have to be given importance.



Physical aspects of seed quality, which influences the genetic quality of the planting stock to an extent, can be improved significantly over the short-run. Generally, tree seed collection and handling and nursery management have not received sufficient attention (World Bank 1993). At present, seed harvesting continues along traditional lines with field staff concentrating on collecting seeds. Plantation planning and stocking can be improved by conducting phenological studies to accurately predict the time of fruit ripening at individual harvesting locations. The studies should also estimate the anticipated quantity of seeds that will become available at harvest time. This approach has the added benefit of indicating any unusual pathogen activity and will also indicate the response of different trees to climate affecting seed set.

Planting stock improvement will be necessary to select and even identify varieties of species through seed selection from candidate plus trees, designated seed production areas and seed orchards; vegetative propagation and use of clonal plants; improved nursery practices focusing on better containers and potting mixture. The issue of seed and seedlings and clonal planting material; nursery containers, potting mixture; plantation models, site species matching, species mixture, spacing, aftercare and inputs like watering, weeding-cum-hoeing and thinning and more efficient plantation management will require renewed attention.

Species that sequesterate more carbon in short period and also provide multiple products can be easily identified and used. Applied research including provenance trials should be conducted to maximise productivity and rate of return.

Positives of the Programme

India's 1988 forest policy encourages the private sector to establish direct supply links with the farmers, but there are some legal obstacles in cutting trees and transit regulations. These are disincentives to the private landowner. Attempts need to be made to develop tree species that are suitable for planting in subsistence areas. In India, where land and water resources are scarce, agro forestry and tree plantations in watersheds in rain-fed and semi arid areas could be a part of farmers' subsistence strategies-it could complement their traditional farm produce. By correcting the major reasons that led to failure of the community forestry (village woodlots), tree plantations on common lands and wastelands can be an effective strategy for wasteland development.

According to the State of Forest Report, 2013 (FSI 2014) the tree cover outside forests is 9.13 million ha, while that in designated forests is 69.79 million ha, that is, 11.5% of total tree cover in India. But interestingly, 26% growing stock is in areas outside forests. This means 2.8% of land produces 26% of growing stock (Table 2). This is another indicator of wood productivity outside forests and indicated the viability of SF.

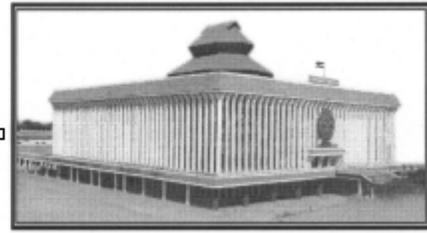


Table2: Increase in Tree Cover

	Million ha	% of Forest and Tree Cover	% of Geo- graphical Area	Growing Stock (million cum)	Percent Growing Stock
Forest cover	69.9	83.5	21.23	4,173.36	73.8
Trees Outside forests	9.13	11.5	2.78	1,484.68	26.2
Total	78.92	100		5,658	100

After FSI (2014)

According to National Forestry Action Plan (MOEF 1999b) and National Forestry Commission (GOI 2006) about 25 million ha of non-forest wasteland is available for tree planting, and 5% of total agricultural land (about 7 million ha) is available for tree planting under agro-forestry/farm forestry.

MOEF (1999b) recommended a two-pronged strategy to expand forest cover: improving forest cover density (31 million ha) and plantation on non-forest lands (29 million ha). In its 2006 report, the National Forestry Commission recommended (MOEF 2006) that forest departments must cooperate and support agro forestry by providing quality seedlings and technical assistance. The emphasis was on tissue culture/ biotechnology for producing and providing quality seeds and planting material and provision of extension services and technological support. The Green India Mission's targets also include planting 5 million ha outside designated forests (Table 3).

Dependence on imported wood is not sustainable in long run as the exporting countries may reduce logging to meet international climate change mitigation obligations by reducing deforestation. India, despite its large population, has 50 million of degraded forestland which can, with appropriate inputs, technology and management, produce four to five times of the net yield of wood today. Agro forestry has an even greater potential and with better quality of planting material can, in 10 years, increase productivity in five to seven times.

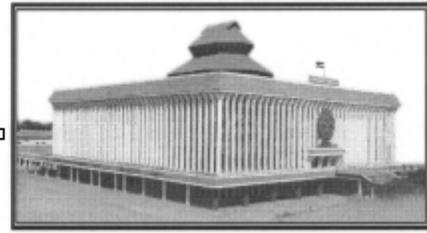


Table 3: Proposed New Forest Cover under Green India Mission

Land	Million	Approach
Scrub, mangroves, ravines, cold desert, shifting cultivation areas, abandoned mining area	1.8	Afforestation
Urban	0.2	Tree planting
Cultivable land	3.0	Agro/social forestry
Total	5.0	Outside forest

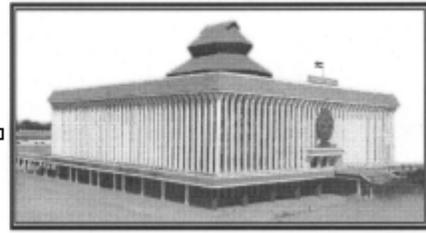
Climate Change Mitigation

In addition to economic benefits, social forestry can make significant contribution to global climate change mitigation efforts. It can help in reducing emissions from forest degradation directly by checking degradation and also by reforestation. It can also restore the productivity of these lands thereby enhancing sequestration and conserving forest carbon stocks. It will also contribute to sustainable management of forests.

India's forest cover including trees outside forests store 6,663 million tonnes of carbon (FSI 2013). Reforestation of degraded forests can sequester millions of tonnes of carbon from atmosphere and store it for decades. The global carbon stored in terrestrial ecosystems (mainly forests, covering 15 billion ha) is estimated as 2,477 giga-tonnes. IPCC (2000) estimated that land converted to agro forestry in tropical region could sequester 3.1 tonnes carbon/ha/year. Additional sequestration by degraded forest was about 0.3 tonnes carbon/ha/year

According to MOEF (2009) India's forests serve as a major sink of CO₂. The annual CO₂ removals by India's forest and tree cover are enough to neutralise 11.25% of India's total greenhouse gases (GHG) emissions (co, equivalent) at 1994 levels. This is equivalent to offsetting 100% emissions from all energy in residential and transport sectors; or 40% of total emissions from the agriculture sector. However, as emissions of GHGs are increasing in India progressively, efforts are needed to expand sequestration potential of India's forests to serve to offset these.

Afforestation of available common lands-community lands, roadside and canal side avenue plantations, tree planting on lands owned by institutions, defence forces and industries, rehabilitation of mined over lands and other barren areas-will increase tree cover which will then act as carbon sinks.



Afforestation also increases diversity of flora and fauna and has highly varied impacts on groundwater supplies, river flows and water quantity. Consideration should be given to synergies and tradeoffs (IPCC 2000) related to social forestry activities for REDD plus in the context of broad environmental, social and economic impacts such as (1) biodiversity; (2) quality and quantity of forest pastures, soils, and water and moisture conservation; (3) the ability to provide food, fibre, fuel and shelter; and employment human health, poverty and equity.

Incentives

The incentives for communities should be defined in national laws and policies; they should be greater than the transaction and management costs associated with community forestry; and equitably distributed between national and local level stakeholders, as well as within participating communities. Carbon incentives can help in encouraging long rotation tree species that can be on ground for 20-30 years.

Funds from SF programme have to come from a variety of sources, including government at the centre, states and local levels. The corporate sector-under CSR-multilateral and bilateral aid agencies and alternate sources like environmental cess or tax, green climate fund could be other sources of finance.

Way Forward

With economic liberalisation and reforms there has been impressive increase in country's gross domestic product (GDP) but forestry sector was not integrated in the new economic growth trajectory. Economic policy in the past two decades focuses more on industrial and financial institutions. This does not allow the country to exploit the forestry sector's potential. Environmental and conservation issues are seen as hurdles to economic growth. Judicial activism has sought to save forests from arbitrary management and exploitation. But the forestry sector agencies have not been able to create an institutional framework that can ensure sustainable management and use of forests.

This calls for a review and rethinking of the whole issue afresh. State forest departments are strong institutions; so are the forestry research establishments. These institutions can join hands and can develop or improve silvicultural technologies. New strategies and policies are required to develop and manage forests to meet the present and future needs of an ever-growing population and at the same time expand carbon sequestration and other environmental services from forests on a sustainable basis.

Conclusions

Social forestry as a comprehensive strategy for expanding forest cover in the country on all kind of lands had been successful but was relegated to a secondary position with the advent of JFM. JFM related to public forests only.



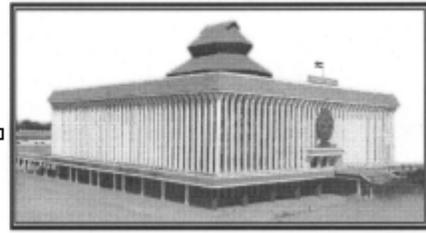
JFM was successful in many areas and local people reaped substantial benefits. But it did not become a mass movement. Social forestry on the other hand had elements of mass movement both in rural and urban areas and had significant impact all over the country. But with agro forestry's support dwindling and financial resources for this programme becoming scarce SF lost mass support.

Today climate change mitigation and adaptation are serious concerns on which hinge the survival of human species. Role of forest in climate change mitigation has been universally recognised as they remove CO₂ from atmosphere and store carbon in wood. Prevention of deforestation and checking forest degradation means reduction in carbon dioxide emission from forestlands. Afforestation and reforestation will play an important role in mitigating impacts of climate change and in stabilising GHG concentration in the atmosphere.

Reviving, popularising and scaling up SF could be a useful policy initiative. Focus has to be on productivity and not on compulsive target.

**ECONOMIC & POLITICAL WEEKLY,
AUGUST 8, 2015.**





Invisible Water, Visible Crisis

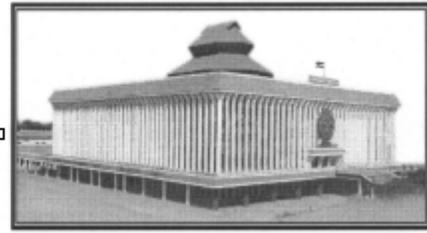
Rohini Nilekani

By now, everyone in India understands that we have a serious water crisis. Too many of our rivers are polluted, dammed, or dying. Rainfall is becoming increasingly erratic, and expected to become more so. Our groundwater is depleting fast. Our lakes are drying up or filling with sewage, especially in urban centres. Our water and sanitation infrastructure is old and creaking in many places and does not even exist in others. Agriculture, industry and urban settlements all compete for the same scarce resource. It is no longer a problem that can be discussed without remedy. Rich or poor, it affects us all, here and now.

But if we had to choose one area for immediate attention, it would have to be groundwater. Groundwater is fuelling much of India's growth in rural and urban areas. This has resulted in severe scarcity and quality issues, especially in these high growth areas.

India has always been a groundwater civilisation. For thousands of years, different regions had the most aesthetically designed, functional open wells that tapped into the shallow aquifers. People had thumb rules that allowed them to use the water sustainably across cycles of good monsoons and drought. The coming of the deep rigs and the bore wells in the 1970s completely changed the way India used its groundwater reserves. The most significant indicator is that the share of groundwater for irrigation went up from a mere 1 per cent during 1960-61 to 60 percent during 2006-07.

India is now the largest user of groundwater in the world. We draw more groundwater than two giant economies-USA and China. We have approximately 30 million wells, including the new borewells and the old open wells, drawing 250 cubic km of water. Groundwater now contributes to about 85 per cent of India's drinking water security, 60 per cent of its agricultural requirements and 50 per cent of urban water needs.



The big irony is that despite this reality, much of India's public investments have gone into surface water-dams and canals for irrigation, huge pipelines for drinking water, and increasingly for diversion to industry-especially to the energy sector. Essentially, groundwater extraction is a private enterprise in India. Most Indian wells and bore-wells are privately owned and operated. Overwhelmed by the arrival of a new technology that allowed rapid scale-up, the government's response has been slow. There is little and haphazard regulation of groundwater. This is a rare phenomenon in the world. Many countries have delinked land ownership from the ownership of the water beneath, and have complex systems of water rights, pricing and tight regulation.

Water is a state subject in India. Administration at the Centre as well as in the states has tried but failed to fully resolve the questions of who really owns the groundwater, how it should be mapped, extracted and replenished.

So, through ignorance and with impunity, farmers, governments, industry and ordinary citizens have drilled deeper, and just about anywhere with frightening results. Sixty per cent of India's districts have serious issues of either depletion or pollution, according to one study.

Excoriating-the earth has unleashed geogenic chemicals such as fluoride and arsenic into our drinking water. Since authentic quality testing is difficult in most places, we do not yet know what we are doing and what awaits us.

According to a study by Jadavpur University, Kolkata, 66 million people are at risk from fluorosis and as many as 500 million from arsenic-induced health issues in the Ganga-Meghna-Brahmaputra plain. At the same time poor sanitary practices have led to faecal contamination. Millions defecate in the open. and millions of others unknowingly contaminate groundwater through leaching from toilet pits.

A WaterAid report suggests this directly affects around 37 million Indians annually through water-borne diseases. If you like that sort of imagery. it evokes a man than gone horribly wrong. It is imperative to look at what must be done and done quickly. What are the top five things that the government civil society organisations and citizens can do to make our groundwater civilisation more sustainable?

MAKE THE GROUNDWATER MAPPING VISIBLE

Right now, there is an asymmetry of information. We need to change that by putting aquifer data in the public domain. Make invisible groundwater visible to all, so that people can prevent abuse. The government has an aquifer-mapping programme. But it needs strengthening and re-alignment. It is a top-down approach. It need not be. People need granular data to be water-wise. Aquifers can be mapped within five years with smart crowd sourced, ground-up information, in combination with technologies such as satellite data.



MANAGE THE DEMAND

It is linked to the first point, and reminds us that a supply-side approach will not work. We need to use water more efficiently, and need better market signals for that. Groundwater in India is a private and under-regulated market, and does not have the benefits that transparent embedded markets can bring.

There is also a deep nexus between groundwater and energy. If we will not price the water, we have to price the energy. Appropriate economic incentives must come sooner rather than later. There may be less resistance than the political class fears, and there are some good examples in the country already, such as the Jyotigram in Gujarat.

RATIONALISE GROUNDWATER USE

This is linked to the points above. It is not good economics or good environmental stewardship to drain the aquifers of Punjab to grow rice, nor those of arid Kutch to grow sugarcane. These are no longer questions that economists can leisurely mull over. We have to incentivise the shift in production from water-scarce to water-surplus aquifers but in a sustainable way. Let's shift public resources from surface water budgets if necessary to achieve a better water balance.

ENABLE CIVIL SOCIETY PARTICIPATION

It will be very difficult for the government to retrofit a sensible governance system on the current model of private, dispersed and democratised access to groundwater. NGOs do a better job of engaging people in a participatory approach by encouraging stewardship rather than exploitation. Good public policy and laws help, but we truly need new behavioral responses that allow us to respect water.

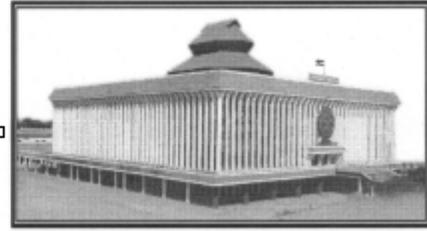
RECHARGE AND REUSE

We need a massive national effort to recharge our aquifers. This requires the creation of appropriate institutions that allow us, as a society to frame a new relationship with groundwater. Some institutional frameworks have been attempted such as the Central Ground Water Board, with its mirrors in the states. But we need to repair and innovate these institutions. It is critical to set up new entities that help understand and manage urban groundwater better.

As a society, we are now faced with tough choices. It is worth betting big on groundwater, which can actually lead us to water security. And we can become a mature ground-water civilisation. Again.

**INDIA TODAY,
AUGUST 24, 2015.**





The Economics of Indian Agriculture

I. Satya Sundaram

Indian agriculture is at a crossroads. Currently, it is facing many formidable problems. Problems like low yields, crop imbalances, regional disparities, low capital formation, declining public investment are really serious. Also, the number of small and marginal farmers is increasing. The minimum support price (MSP) is there. But, it is of no help to the small and marginal farmers as they do not have marketable surplus. The agricultural market is dominated by middlemen and traders. The farmers get a small percentage of the price paid by the consumers.

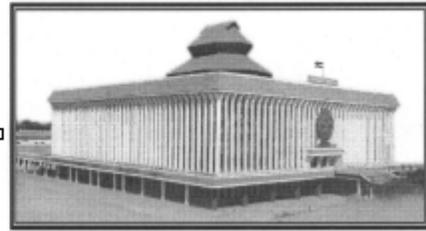
The volume under review is divided in to two parts: (i) Micro indicators and (ii) Planning. There are 18 Annexures.

A lot of data has been provided on Human Development Index (HDI) of India. Also, the issue of good governance has been discussed. According to the UNDP, good governance, among other things, should be participatory, transparent and accountable. It is also effective and equitable. And it promotes the rule of law(p.35).

The author has also discussed the concept of Gross National Happiness Index (GNHI). The four pillars of GNH are the promotion of sustainable development, preservation and promotion of cultural values, conservation of the natural environment, and establishment of good governance (p.43).

The author has presented data relating to Global Peace Index (GPI), Gender Related Development Index (GDI) and Geo-Political Power Index, 2011.

The author rightly argues that India is wasting its precious resources. The slogan 'wealth from wastes' has been ignored. There is wasteful government expenditure too.



The author strongly believes that populist schemes are not going to achieve inclusive growth. Direct welfare expenditures (subsidy expenditure for fuel, food, fertilizer etc) had relatively little impact on inclusion (p.94).

Section 2 of the volume is devoted to 'Planning'. Regarding the planning exercise in India, the author has observed, "Perhaps, a middle path which is neither the 'invisible hand' has to be charted in the interest of balanced and sustainable growth and greater inclusiveness." (p.255).

The author, Mr. P.C. Bansil, an authority on agriculture, was associated with FAD for fifteen years. He has successfully carried out a laborious exercise. This publication is a valuable asset for researchers, college and university libraries. The volume contains valuable, and update data on various facets of Indian economy.

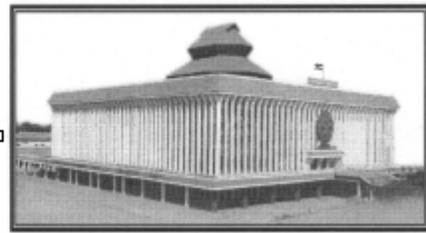
**SOUTHERN ECONOMIST,
AUGUST 15, 2015.**





THE LEGISLATIVE BODIES IN SESSION DURING THE MONTH OF AUGUST 2015

Sl. No.	Name of Assembly/Council	Duration
1.	Assam Legislative Assembly	10.08.2015 - 14.08.2015
2.	Bihar Legislative Assembly	03.08.2015 - 07.08.2015
3.	Bihar Legislative Council	03.08.2015 - 07.08.2015
4.	Delhi Legislative Assembly	28.07.2015 - 03.08.2015
5.	Gujarat Legislative Assembly	26.08.2015 - 28.08.2015
6.	Himachal Pradesh Legislative Assembly	21.08.2015 - 31.08.2015
7.	Jharkhand Legislative Assembly	21.08.2015 - 28.08.2015
8.	Odisha Legislative Assembly	18.08.2015 - 29.08.2015



Site Address of Legislative Bodies in India

Sl.No	Name of Assembly/Council	Site Address
1.	Loksabha	loksabha.nic.in
2.	Rajyasabha	rajyasabha.nic.in
3.	Andhra Pradesh Legislative Council	aplegislature.org
4.	Andhra Pradesh Legislative Assembly	aplegislature.org
5.	Arunachal Pradesh Legislative Assembly	arunachalassembly.gov.in
6.	Assam Legislative Assembly	assamassembly.nic.in
7.	Bihar Legislative Assembly	vidhansabha.bih.nic.in
8.	Bihar Legislative Council	biharvidhanparishad.gov.in
9.	Chhattisgarh Legislative Assembly	cgvidhansabha.gov.in
10.	Delhi Legislative Assembly	delhiassembly.nic.in
11.	Goa Legislative Assembly	goavidhansabha.gov.in
12.	Gujarat Legislative Assembly	gujaratassembly.gov.in
13.	Harayana Legislative Assembly	haryanaassembly.gov.in
14.	Himachal Pradesh Legislative Assembly	hpvidhansabha.nic.in
15.	Jammu and Kashmir Legislative Assembly	jklegislativeassembly.nic.in
16.	Jammu and Kashmir Legislative Council	jklegislativecouncil.nic.in
17.	Jharkhand Legislative Assembly	jharkhandvidhansabha.nic.in
18.	Karnataka Legislative Assembly	kar.nic.in/kla/assembly
19.	Karnataka Legislative Council	kar.nic.in/kla/council/council



20.	Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly	mpvidhansabha.nic.in
21.	Maharashtra Legislative Assembly	mls.org.in/Assembly
22.	Maharashtra Legislative Council	mls.org.in/Council
23.	Manipur Legislative Assembly	manipurassembly.nic.in/
24.	Meghalaya Legislative Assembly	megassembly.gov.in/
25.	Mizoram Legislative Assembly	mizoramassembly.in
26.	Nagaland Legislative Assembly	http://nagaland.nic.in
27.	Odisha Legislative Assembly	odishaassembly.nic.in
28.	Puducherry Legislative Assembly	www.py.gov.in
29.	Punjab Legislative Assembly	punjabassembly.nic.in
30.	Rajasthan Legislative Assembly	rajassembly.nic.in/
31.	Sikkim Legislative Assembly	sikkimasembly.org
32.	Tamil Nadu Legislative Assembly	assembly.in.gov.in
33.	Tripura Legislative Assembly	tripuraassembly.nic.in/
34.	Uttar Pradesh Legislative Assembly	uplegassembly.nic.in
35.	Uttar Pradesh Legislative Council	upvidhanparishad.nic.in
36.	Uttarakhand Legislative Assembly	ukvidhansabha.uk.gov.in
37.	West Bengal Legislative Assembly	wbassembly.gov.in/
38.	Telangana Legislative Assembly	telanganalegislature.org.in