

ISSN No:- 2321-1784

# **International Journal in Management and Social Science**

**Volume No. - 13**

**Issue No. - 2**

**May - August - 2025**



**ENRICHED PUBLICATIONS PVT. LTD**

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## **International Journal in Management and Social Science**

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International Journal in Management and Social Science is a double blind peer reviewed, refereed monthly international journal that provides rapid publication of articles in all areas of Management and Social Science through research and its relevant appropriation and inferential application. The journal hopes to accelerate development and governance in both developed and developing countries. The maximum length of intended articles for publication in the journal is 5000 words. A short abstract of 150-250 words with 4-5 key words should precede the introduction. We appreciate innovative and evolutionary contemplation over popular management ethics, differing from the humdrum bulk of monotonous content. The journal welcomes publications of high quality papers, book reviews and reports.

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# International Journal in Management and Social Science

(Volume No. - 13, Issue No. - 2, May - August 2025)

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# POLITICAL IMPACT OF MICROFINANCE IN KANCHIPURAM DISTRICT

\* M.S. Meiyappan  
\*\* Prof Dr. S Annamalai

## ABSTRACT

The author attempted to study the political impacts of NBFC MFI lending on their women borrowers in Kanchipuram district. Most of the earlier studies were based on SHG-Bank linkage model; hence, the present study would add value to literature for further study on the subject. The study covered all the 13 blocks of the district with a sample size of 569 to get the reliable results.

**Key word:** Political Empowerment, NBFC-MFIs, Microfinance and Kanchipuram district.

Indian subcontinent was the first place where modern microfinance, at the time called microcredit, really became a phenomenon. Whilst small scale lending has been going on for centuries, it was in the 1970s that Prof Md Yunus began to put together ideas which eventually led to the Grameen Bank being established in Bangladesh. In India, in order to facilitate the poor can access loan directly from the banks, NABARD, during 1992-93 promoted the concept of providing a linkage between rural poor and the banking system in a cost effective and sustainable manner through the SHG-Bank Linkage program. The poor today, have access to unique financial services such as microfinance and simultaneously supported with training to do in viable income generating activities. While many commercial banks failed to capitalize the business opportunities, Non Banking Finance Company (NBFC) Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) ventured to untapped rural micro-lending. Many studies elucidated that the microfinance has its many desired impacts on beneficiaries. It has been difficult to separate political empowerment from the other empowerments, particularly the level of the local political institutions. However, some forms of political empowerment can be more clearly delineated. Richard Kieser (1993), in his article defined political empowerment as “the process by which a minority group or representatives of the group gain greater ability to influence potential outcomes in favour of the minority group”. This can be measured in terms of capturing important offices, instituting policies important to the group, securing benefits that other groups aspire or promoting the election of candidates sympathetic to their aims.

**Statement of Problem:** Microfinance has made tremendous strides in India over the years. Women gain self-confidence to venture on enterprising activities leading to social, economic, financial, cultural and political empowerment. The present study was carried out to ascertain the perception of the MFI beneficiaries in Kanchipuram district on their political impact.

**Scope of the Study:** There are many researches highlighted on the positive impacts of microfinance to the women borrowers especially on their economical, financial, social, psychological, cultural, and political impacts. But, most of the studies were based on SHG Bank linkage lending as the population is well defined and ease of access to the respondents. There are very limited studies available focusing on the impact of MFI lending on its beneficiaries, in particular no documentary evidence are available covering the borrowers in Kanchipuram district. Hence, the present study has wider scope in the industry.

**Methodology:** The empirical study is based on the primary data collected through personal visit with a pretested questionnaire during January 2012 to June 2012 from 569 women respondents those who had availed microcredit from the NBFC-MFIs in Kanchipuram district. Purposive sampling method was adopted for data collection. Rural and urban pockets of all the 13 blocks in the district were chosen for study. The collected data were analyzed through simple percentage analysis, ANOVA test in the statistical package SPSS 16.

### **Findings:**

**1. Age:** There is significant variance between age of the respondents and their willingness to hold post in the group and experience of having contested in local body elections. The age group of above 50 years did not want to hold any post in the group and did not have experience of contested in local body elections. The means, the senior women did not want to take additional responsibility as they are already tied with family issues.

**2. Education:** We observed from the study that there is significant difference between education level of the respondents and their experience of having contested in local body election and their influencing power among their peers and relatives. Illiterate respondents did not have any experience of contested in local body election. The respondents who had school level education expressed that their influencing power is increased after joining the MFIs.

**3. Occupation:** The major proportion of respondents who were weaving wagers were found holding post in their group. Housewives are willing to hold post compare to other occupant respondents. Housewives did not have experience of having contested in local body election compare to other groups



and at the same time, most of the housewives respondents expressed as their influencing power among their peers & relatives is increased due to the association with MFIs. Statistical significant were noted on the parameters.

**4. Vintage:** The majority of the respondents who had 2-3 years of vintage with the MFIs had experiences of contested in local body election. The respondents, who had less than one year of vintage, expressed as their influencing power. Vintage of the respondents with MFIs found statistically significant on their political impact. Though there is no statistical relationship was found, being associated with MFIs for more period increase the familiarity of the members in the group as well as in the society.

5. There is a significant difference between total number of earning members in the family of respondents' and their incidences of holding post in the group, experience of having contested in local body election, and change in their familiarity among the peers and relatives. The majority of the respondents who had single earning member in their family were found holding post in the group. With more than 3 earning members in the family, the respondents had an experience of having contested in local body election. The respondents had three earning members in their family felt as their familiarity among the peers & relatives had increased.

## **Conclusion**

Empowerment by its very definition implies as increase in the ability to exercise power. According to the country report of Govt of India, "Empowerment means moving from a position of enforced powerlessness to one of power". Every citizen knows of the political system of his/her country and its working, election, role of political parties and the like. The membership in the microfinance group provides the opportunity to acquire knowledge of the political affair of the country. The present was attempted to study the perception of the borrowers of NBFC-MFIs in Kanchipuram district. The perception of the respondents on political impact was measured. Results from the study revealed that there is a significant impact on the women borrowers on their social empowerment.

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**Table 1. Age of the Respondents vs Political factors.**

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Willingness to hold Responsibility	Less than 20 years	2	1.00	.000	.000	3.953	<b>.004</b>
	20-30 yrs	66	1.30	.463	.057		
	31-40 yrs	86	1.15	.360	.039		
	41-50 yrs	51	1.18	.385	.054		
	Above 50 yrs	12	1.58	.515	.149		
	Total	217	1.23	.419	.028		

Contested in local body election	Less than 20 years	5	1.00	.000	.000	4.769	<b>.001</b>
	20-30 yrs	195	1.84	.852	.061		
	31-40 yrs	241	1.80	.899	.058		
	41-50 yrs	105	2.12	.917	.089		
	Above 50 yrs	23	2.26	1.096	.229		
	Total	569	1.89	.903	.038		

**Table 2. Educational level of the Respondents vs Political factors.**

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Contested in local body election	Illiterate	84	2.27	.923	.101	10.895	<b>.000</b>
	School	433	1.79	.870	.042		
	College	52	2.02	.980	.136		
	Total	569	1.89	.903	.038		
Change in Influencing Power	Illiterate	84	1.98	.711	.078	5.254	<b>.005</b>
	School	433	2.13	.570	.027		
	College	52	1.90	.603	.084		
	Total	569	2.09	.600	.025		

**Table 3. Occupation of the Respondents vs Political factors.**

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Holding any Post/Responsibility in group	Housewife	100	1.21	.409	.041	4.652	<b>.000</b>
	Own Agri	76	1.25	.436	.050		
	Agri Wage	26	1.54	.508	.100		
	Milch Animal	62	1.53	.503	.064		
	Salaried	28	1.36	.488	.092		
	Own weaving	39	1.33	.478	.076		
	Weaving wage	21	1.62	.498	.109		
	Microenterprise	216	1.44	.497	.034		
	Others	1	1.00	.	.		
	Total	569	1.38	.486	.020		
Willingness to hold Responsibility	Housewife	21	1.62	.498	.109	4.142	<b>.000</b>
	Own Agri	19	1.16	.375	.086		
	Agri Wage	14	1.07	.267	.071		
	Milch Animal	33	1.30	.467	.081		
	Salaried	10	1.30	.483	.153		
	Own weaving	13	1.08	.277	.077		
	Weaving wage	13	1.23	.439	.122		
	Microenterprise	94	1.16	.368	.038		
	Others	0	.	.	.		
Total	217	1.23	.419	.028			
Contested in local body	Housewife	100	1.54	.717	.072	3.819	<b>.000</b>
	Own Agri	76	2.13	.806	.092		

election	Agri Wage	26	2.08	.935	.183	3.501	<b>.001</b>	
	Milch Animal	62	1.95	1.015	.129			
	Salaried	28	1.82	1.020	.193			
	Own weaving	39	1.62	.815	.130			
	Weaving wage	21	2.24	1.044	.228			
	Microenterprise	216	1.94	.916	.062			
	Others	1	2.00	.	.			
	Total	569	1.89	.903	.038			
	Change in Familiarity	Housewife	100	2.80	.841			.084
		Own Agri	76	2.61	.801			.092
		Agri Wage	26	2.50	.949			.186
		Milch Animal	62	2.60	.914			.116
		Salaried	28	2.75	.701			.132
		Own weaving	39	2.36	1.038			.166
Weaving wage		21	2.33	1.111	.242			
Microenterprise		216	2.28	1.005	.068			
Others		1	3.00	.	.			
Total		569	2.49	.950	.040			
Contested in local body election	Less than a year	91	1.69	.891	.093	7.628	<b>.000</b>	
	1-2 yrs	364	1.84	.891	.047			
	2-3 yrs	111	2.23	.881	.084			
	More than 3 yrs	3	1.33	.577	.333			
	Total	569	1.89	.903	.038			
Change in Influencing Power	Less than a year	91	2.22	.593	.062	2.567	<b>.054</b>	
	1-2 yrs	364	2.04	.576	.030			
	2-3 yrs	111	2.14	.672	.064			
	More than 3 yrs	3	2.00	.000	.000			
	Total	569	2.09	.600	.025			

**Table 5. Total number of earning members in the family vs Political factors.**

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.
Holding any Post/Responsibility in group	One	10	1.90	.316	.100	7.140	<b>.000</b>
	Two	160	1.45	.499	.039		
	Three	364	1.33	.470	.025		
	More than 3	35	1.49	.507	.086		
	Total	569	1.38	.486	.020		
	Total	217	1.23	.419	.028		
Contested in local body election	One	10	1.70	.949	.300	3.970	<b>.008</b>
	Two	160	2.01	.918	.073		
	Three	364	1.80	.872	.046		
	More than 3	35	2.23	1.031	.174		
	Total	569	1.89	.903	.038		
Change in Familiarity	One	10	1.80	1.033	.327	3.230	<b>.022</b>
	Two	160	2.44	1.056	.084		
	Three	364	2.55	.869	.046		
	More than 3	35	2.26	1.120	.189		
	Total	569	2.49	.950	.040		

# TTD: A SOURCING POINT FOR INDIAN HUMAN HAIR

**\*Ms. P.Uma Maheswari**

## ABSTRACT

India is one of the major exporters of human hair. On one side, Hindus have a practice of offering their hair in temples to make their wish come true. On the other side, people go to salon to cut their hair for a stylish look. Tirumala Tirupati Devasthanams (TTD), an independent trust that manages the temple at Tirumala accounts one-tenth of its annual revenue from sale of hair offered by the devotees (rao, 2012). The reputed salons in Chennai get hundreds of customers every day for beautification including haircuts. The hair, as a raw material, is collected and exported for manufacturing hair extensions and other products. This business has taken an international face by attracting countries like Japan, Egypt and South Africa towards it. This study is an attempt to understand more about the nature of business happening in Tirupati and a beauty salon chain in Chennai, for which the researcher has followed a qualitative (Case study) approach. The study has attempted to find a solution for other small sources of human hair in India to dispose the human hair collected in their places.

**Key words:** E-Auctions, Hair export, Human hair, Remy Hair, Tirumala Tirupati Devasthanams (TTD), Green business and Waste management.

## INTRODUCTION:

In this competitive world, business opportunity may come from any corner. It is high time for us to visualize that the so called 'wastes' are becoming areas of serious concentration, as they are capable of bringing huge money. One such thing that has been a silent revenue generator is 'Human hair'. Apart from animal hair and their skin, human hair is also an exportable item in India (HS code: 05010010 – Human hair). As far as Indian hair is concerned, there is a belief that those are shiny, long with minimal exposure to chemical treatments and so perfect for manufacturing all types of wigs. The exported hairs from India are either raw or processed and are capable of generating 15% to 50% profit margins respectively. There is a huge demand for Indian hair in United States, Canada and other European countries. Exhibit 1.1 lists the top 5 countries and their export statistics in USD Million.

### Exhibit 1.1

S. No	Country	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11
1	China	80.37	86.26	97.88
2	Brazil	17.71	26.72	23.29
3	Hong Kong	15.32	14.69	16.76
4	Italy	17.66	17.63	11.33
5	USA	9.48	10.80	13.74

(Source: Press Information Bureau, Government of India, Ministry of commerce & Industry, 12-Dec-2011).

### ***Sources of Human hair:***

The major sources of Human hair in India are temples and salons. India is dominated by Hindus and they have a general practice of 'Tonsuring' (offering hair to God, as a token of gratitude). There are certain temples in India where they get be thousands of devotees tonsuring their hair every day. Previously these temples were disposing the waste hair. But now, they have started and many have even developed a process of making huge business out of that. In salons, there are thousands of men, women and children dropping in for hair cut. The hair collected from different sources will be of different sizes, different nature and different types.

### ***Uses***

- Human hair can be used for making fashion accessories like false hair attachments, wigs, artificial eyebrows and eyelashes, beard and moustaches for men.
- Apart from this, human hair is also used for manufacturing ropes by twisting hair fibers together, and in making artistic items for decorative purposes.
- They are used for manufacturing mats that are woven out of human hair for gardens to prevent the plant roots from adverse weather and infection.
- Human hair is also used for cleaning up oil spills. It is proved that human hair is a very good absorbent of oil at the laboratory stage and the absorbed oil can very well be reused (Jadhav, 2011). NASA took a study on this in 1990s and proved the efficiency of human hair in absorbing oil spills in industries as well.
- L- Cysteine is an amino acid that is connected with hair and nail growth. Human hair, when microbiologically treated becomes an excellent source of this L-cysteine which is generally used in the preparation of doughnuts, cookies and other bakery items.
- Human hair is also a part in the preparation of Soy sauce, major Chinese food ingredient. Till now, there are controversies running around the usage of human hair in food products. It is also strongly advised by cancer activists that consumers should stay away from such food items, as they can cause cancer (Winterman, 2010).

### **LITERATURE REVIEW:**

Indian hair is the most sought one in the global market, as they are considered to be the best quality for making wigs. Because of its shiny texture and look it has backed thousands of exporters. But, the sources of Indian human hair are less in number. (Nagpal, 2008). There are varieties of hair based on their nature and they are remy hair, non remy hair, single drawn and double drawn, wavy, weft and curly hair. The

single drawn is demanded more among these and is considered as the premium export quality. The major source of single drawn hair is Indian temples, where people come for tonsuring. (Jagannathan, 2011). Indian hair business is a multimillion dollar industry, with temple tonsured hair being best priced by the wig makers. Robert D Hisrich, Director of Thunderbird School, which is a center for Global Entrepreneurship says that with the opportunities found in this hair business, even small players can reach a position of large corporations. He also states that there is a flexibility observed in the nature of this business. (Angwin, 2003) The fashion world demands hair extensions and wigs to have a wavy look. Chinese hair, in spite of its huge availability is not preferred because of its rough nature and so could not serve the purpose. Domestic and International models demand Indian hair in their wigs, hair extensions and other fashion products. The market is very huge and seems to be expanding, as Indian hair looks just European. (Martins, 2011)

### **TIRUMALA TIRUPATI DEVASTHANAM (TTD):**

Tirumala Tirupati Devasthanams is an independent trust that manages all operations and accounts of the world's richest Tirupati Venkateshwara temple (in terms of offerings received from the devotees), Andhra Pradesh, India. TTD was established in 1932 as a result of which the temple administration is handed over to a committee of 7 members supervised by a commissioner appointed by the Madras Government. The act was not full-fledged as there was no specific qualification for the committee members and the commissioner. But, in 1969 the board of trustees was expanded from 5 to 11, with representation from certain communities made compulsory. The Andhra Pradesh Charitable and Hindu Religious Institution and Endowment Act prescribed that the board should have one person from the scheduled castes, three persons from state legislative assembly and one women member. The board's term was also fixed as three years. Now, TTD has 16,000 employees and it is managing 12 main temples and sub temples in and around India. Not restricting itself to the management of shrines, TTD also does various social, educational and literary services by establishing educational institutions, research centers, Libraries and religious services by maintaining temples even abroad. With more than 60,000 daily visitors and 1,90,00,000 annual visitors (2012) Tirupati is the most visited location in the world. To manage the huge crowd of devotees, TTD along with TCS (Tata Consulting Services) have come out with complex queuing algorithms and technical support for the same. TTD's major sources of income are through donations from the devotees in the form of money, gold and precious stones, its delicious laddu and hair offered by the devotees, also referred as 'Black Gold'.

### ***Tonsuring and collection process:***

Tonsuring is a general practice in India as it is dominated by Hindus. It is called as 'Chudakarana' in



Vedas and it is done either in the first or third year of a child. Apart from that in certain temples, even adults do tonsuring as a token of gratitude to God for having made their wish and prayers come true. Among every 100 devotees visiting Tirupati, 85 people comprising both men and women, does hair tonsuring. This is for what TTD has appointed a special group of barbers to do tonsuring in places specially meant for this purpose called 'Kalyanakatta'. TTD Kalyanakatta has 650 barbers, 65 women, working in six shifts per day. The Kalyanakatta building has two big tonsuring halls with seating arrangements for both pilgrims and the barbers. To handle the crowd during peak seasons, 100 additional barbers will be engaged who could shave off 60 heads in an average per hour and take out 800 kg of hair during week days. This will cross even 1000 kg in the weekends and peak seasons. In a year April, May and September months are considered to be the peak periods. To manage the crowd, there are four waiting halls and a well managed Queuing with computerized token systems in the kalyanakatta building. Bathrooms attached with geysers, application of antiseptics before and after shaving are some of the value added services in Kalyanakatta.

In general, tonsuring is done at free of cost. But, in certain mini kalyanakattas located near the travel guest houses and cottages, Rs.10 per head is collected after shaving. The main kalyanakattas work for 24 hours and there are even 16 mini kalyanakattas working from 6 AM to 6 PM every day. TTD's Kalyanakatta has marked its excellence as the largest hair distribution center in the world Guinness book of records. All barbers of TTD have to pass a test before their appointment. The earning of a barber per month runs around Rs.25, 000. "We earn more as tips everyday from the devotees and that too in the peak seasons we earn tips more than our salary. The tips amount may range from Rs. 20 to Rs. 1, 00,000 (Once Chiranjeevi paid a barber as tips, who shaved his head)", says Mr. Babu, a Kalyanakatta barber. The barbers say that the tonsured hair is collected once in every six hours and are stored in large sealed containers and are preserved till the date of auction. A team of 60 members are involved in the collection duty. The hair tresses are collected and segregated into 5 categories (exhibit 1.2) and are weighed in the presence of an auction officer. Since barbers wet the hair before they shave off, the hair strands are completely sundried under polycarbonate sheets as 1,200 kg at a time, which will increase in summer season. The braids are then stored in a container chambers in stacks up to 2.5 meters high and are kept ready for buyers to check before the auction.

### **Exhibit 1.2: Hair Varieties and their nature as classified internationally**


S.NO	CATEGORY	Nature (Color / Size in Inches)
1	First variety	Black / greater than 30 inches
2	Second variety	Black / 16 to 30 inches
3	Third Variety	Black / 10 to 15 inches
4	Forth Variety	Black / 5 to 9 inches
5	Fifth Variety	Black less than 5 inches
6	Sixth Variety	Grey hair / any size

***MSTC and E-Auction:***

The collected hair was auctioned by inviting buyers traditionally till 2006, after which TTD decided to move in for E-auction. “When it was done traditionally we could attract only local bidders and the revenue was also very low. But now, in this e-auction, we are able to attract bidders from China, UK, US, Europe and even from Iran, thereby fetching more revenue as the business has taken an international face” says Mr. Srinivasa Rao, who is an officer associated with TTD for more than 25 years and involved in collection, segregation and sale of human hair in Tirumala.

E-auctioning is being successfully carried out by TTD with the help of MSTC (Metal Scrap Trading Corporation Ltd., a category-I PSU under the administrative control of the Ministry of Steel, Government of India). The e-auction portal for TTD is designed and managed by MSTC. The notice for e-auction will be posted in the TTD website and biddings will be invited. Exhibit 1.3 is a sample auction notice posted for January 2013 auction. This easy way of auctioning has provided more flexibility and transparency in the process. On the other hand, it reduces the chances of fraudulent activities that occur often in the traditional bidding. In September 2011 auction, TTD have successfully disposed 466 tonnes of human hair for Rs.132.55 crores. The official sources say that 49 bidders across the world have participated in that auction. In the second phase of auction held in March 2012 over 96 tonnes of hair has been sold. The total revenue from the auctioning of hair in the year 2011-12 is Rs.197.9 crores, which accounts 1/10th of the total revenue of TTD. The cost per kilogram of first quality hair is Rs.20,180. In peak seasons Tirupati sees 45000- 50000 people tonsuring their hair per day and so India is able to export 2000 tonnes of human hair every year. To be on the safer side by preventing the bidders entering into illegal understandings, the highest price fixed during the last auction would be the upset price for the forthcoming auction. By this way, the interest of TTD is also safeguarded. E-Auctioning of human hair by TTD has started fetching more revenues year after year. In 2011 the total revenue out of this e-auction is being accounted as Rs. 133 crores, whereas in 2012 it is recorded as Rs. 198 crores. It is expected to increase even more in the coming years. This is because of the growing demand for the wigs in domestic and international market. An executive officer who manages the temple affairs in TTD says, “We get bidders who supply for Hollywood and Bollywood. Remy hair is the most sought type in European market as it is uniformly trimmed and woven to wigs. Non-remy hair is broken and short in nature for which there is high demand in China, Africa, US and especially Nigeria”. He also adds that some bidders have direct connection with Bollywood stars and they are still standing as the most dependent wig supplier for those stars. “Tirumala hair has a huge demand among the Mumbai models and Film stars”, he adds.

**Exhibit 1.3: TTD E-auction Notice**

<b>TIRUMALA TIRUPATI DEVASTHANAMS</b>	
"OM NAMO VENKATESAYA"	
From <b>P.Srinivasa Rao, M.E.,</b> <b>General Manager (Auctions)</b>	
	Office of the <b>General Manager (Auctions)</b> Marketing Dept., TTD, Tirupati.
Roc.No.A1/03/GM(Auctions)/MRKT/2013	Dated : 19 -01-2013
Sub:- TTD – Marketing Department – O/o General Manager (Auctions). Tirupati – Flashing the information about conducting the e-auction of human hair on 31-01-2013 on e-platform of MSTC Limited, Visakhapatnam in TTD website - Requested - Regarding	
Ref:- Note Orders of the Executive Officer, TTD, dated: 13-01-2013 ooOoo	
It is to inform that TTD is disposing the human hair through MSTC Limited (A Govt. of India Enterprise), Visakhapatnam through Global e-auction and the due date for e-auction is on 31-01-2012.	
Hence, as per orders of the Executive Officer, TTD vide note orders in the reference cited, I request you to flash the following information in TTD Website, up to 30-01-2013.	
<b>"TTD is disposing the Human Hair through Global e-auction on e-platform of MSTC Limited</b>	

Mr. Rahul, a Mumbai based wig manufacturer for Bollywood stars, says that he entered this business in 1990 as an apprentice. "In 1990s I've sold women's wigs for Rs.2000 – 3000. But now, I'm selling the same for Rs.20,000 – 30,000 and the male varieties for Rs.6000 – 10,000. The type of wig demanded by heroines has hair braids of 50 – 60 inches long and the tonsured hair is the first choice for wig making", he says. It is also being told that about 70% of the total export market is being dominated by non-remy hair as it costs just one third of the price of remy hair braids. This is due to the growing competition in the domestic market for remy hair and its increasing price. Exhibit 1.4 states the auction details of June 2012 and the upset price for September 2012 auction for all the varieties of hair.

**Exhibit 1.4**

JUNE 2012 AUCTION DETAILS					UPSET PRICE FOR SEPTEMBER AUCTION	
Variety	Available stock	Sold in Kg	Price / kg in	Total in Rupees	Variety	Upset price per Kg in Rupees.
	<b>Kg</b>		<b>Rupees.</b>			
I	Nil	Nil	-	-	I	20,180
II	39,688	28,700	18,700	53,54,00,000	II	18,650
III	19,591	8,300	7,446	6,18,00,000	III	7,450
IV	1,717	1,717	5,450	93,57,000	IV	5,450
V	50,000	50,000	80	40,00,000	V	80
VI	696	696	9,360	65,18,000	VI	9,360

This idea of hair business in TTD is a live example for other such temples in Palani and Samayapuram in Tamil nadu. In such case, quality of Indian hair exported can be improved even more and also can ensure more remy hair exports.

**NATURALS CHAIN OF BEAUTY CARE CENTERS:**

Naturals have become a familiar name in the market of beauty care and styling. It has 200 salons in the busiest towns and cities of South India and it is still expanding with at least 4 new salons every month. After 10 years of its existence, Naturals chain is recognized as the most sought beauty salons in India. Apart from this, Naturals stands as a leader and trend setter in this industry through its innovations, uniformity in service levels and service ranges. They have popularized the concept of Unisex salon and are also in the steps of covering more segments like middle age women and premium range people through other models like women- only salons and Lounges. All employees are professionally trained by the training institutes owned by them. They have established a good franchisee network through win-win market deals. All franchisees are assisted with interior decoration ideas to show uniformity in the ambience and employees (beauticians) from their own institute. Naturals offer lot many beautification services to men and women ranging from hair cuts to occasional grand make over.

***Hair recycling:***

As far as Naturals chain is concerned, they get minimum of 100 – 200 customers visiting their salon every week in metros and 50 - 100 customers in small towns. They come for different services but 80% of male customers and 30% female customers (in a day) seek hair cut. The size of the cut hair will be less than 5 inches (Fifth variety) and are best suited for artificial beards, moustaches, eye brows and eye lashes. But, the chain is unaware of the present opportunities. Sangeetha, a salon manager says, “Neither we are approached by any traders nor we are instructed to recycle the hair. Even if we are asked to do so, collecting, segregation and storing these will be a great problem for us”. “We sweep out all the bits and pieces of hair and dispose them into bins”, says Kiran, another stores manager. They are unaware of the recycling and even after introducing about the benefits associated with that they are not interested. This is mainly due to the fact of non-availability of any specific network to do so. Irrespective of the type of salon (Unisex / women only / lounge) they don’t have a practice of recycling any of the scraps. But, the profit margin that they are certain to get is not as worthy as TTD, because of the hair size. It is only the fourth or fifth variety hair that gets collected in salons and so there are minimal chances for profit making in salons.

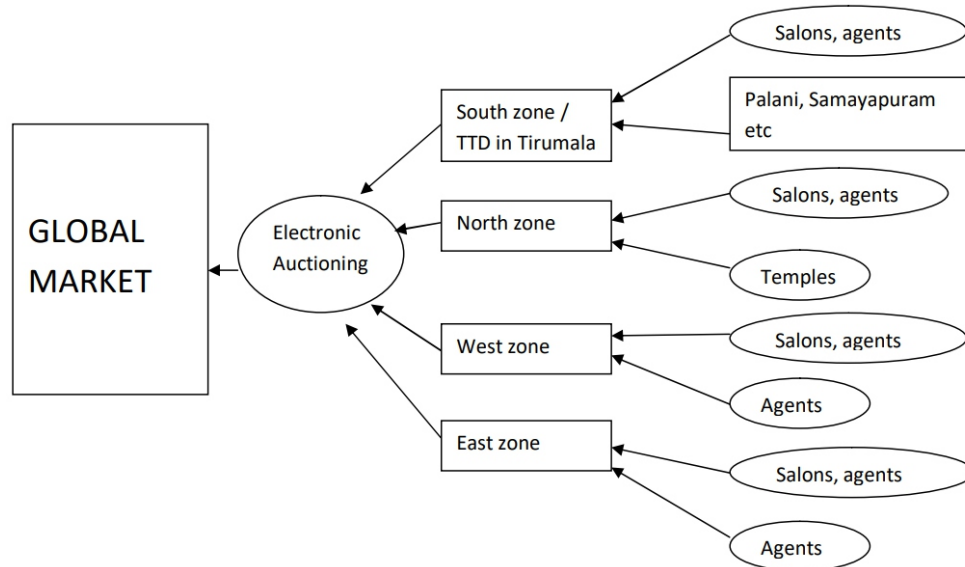
Raj hair International Pvt Ltd is the first ISO 9001:2008 certified company in the hair industry that does hair export for more than 30 years. They export human hair procured from Tirupati as well as salons. They have started exporting hair to Japan since 1980s when there were very limited sources for human hair. Mr. Pankaj (false name) says, “We started collecting the waste hair from barber shops around our office location. In earlier days, we encountered some problems due to non availability of lengthy hair (above 6 inches). But now, even that problem has got resolved by TTD e-auctioning. There is a huge

market in foreign countries even for 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> varieties of human hair”. He also says that the hair exported will be in bundles as per the requirement of the customers. “We tie them properly before sending and we export 600 tonnes of human hair every year, in which the southern states of India are well known for the first, second and third varieties of hair”, he adds.

### **TTD AS A HUB FOR INDIAN HUMAN HAIR:**

TTD has the most efficient process of recycling that helps them to increase their revenue as well as their image in the international scenario. They are very organized in cutting, collecting, categorizing, storing and even selling the hair. Apart from adding revenue, this process has crafted a ‘green’ image for Tirupati among the tourists especially foreigners. In spite of more opportunities for recycling, even a well organized beauty care salon doesn’t show interest for that. The reasons were found to be the aversion towards the process of collection, segregation, cleaning and storage of human hair before e-auction. This will take huge investment and employment of new centers and people, if they try to do it by themselves. To overcome this, they can even join hands with TTD and proceed e-auctioning and make huge business out of it. Not only the organized salons, but also unorganized salons, through their barber association can take steps to sell out their scrap hair via TTD. On establishing 3 more collection centers such as one per zone (having one already in the south zone), human hair can be collected from individuals and enterprises in the appropriate zones, sterilized, segregated, stored and can be sold through e-auction.

Apart from the above mentioned teams, one more team for quality checking can also be employed to ensure the quality of exported human hair. Since TTD has become a well known brand and reflects Indian face among the international bidders and to avoid any problems pertaining to quality, these teams are highly important. They can directly move the hair strands from their regional centers, which will even reduce the logistics cost. The major advantage in this method is that even small unorganized groups can enjoy the benefit of recycling in a bigger way, which when done individually will result in meager profit. With TTD, which already has become a brand in global market, these small groups can easily find a way for their hair disposal problem. Through this, TTD can increase its volume of business to few more tonnes. So, in International scenario, TTD can strongly prove itself as a predominant source of Indian human hair by ensuring quality in exports. But, the challenging factor in this model would be in matching up the size of the collected hair with the TTD varieties. There are chances for more accumulation of least priced varieties of hair, selling which would again be a difficult for TTD.



## CONCLUSION:

Human hair export business is not as simple as it sounds. The hair market is expanding due to the demands for hair and its related products among the customers. Tapping this, TTD has introduced technical innovation in its processes thereby reaching more B2B customers in the market. The e-auctioning process has given an international face to TTD. Being a supplier, TTD has taken so much of care in the quality of human hair it exports, which gets reflected in the quality of the products. Beauty salons are also good suppliers for human hair, but the problem is the indifference in their volumes. To overcome this, they can even join hands with TTD and proceed e-auctioning and make huge business out of it. TTD's process stands as a business model for all other minor suppliers in terms of innovation and technological intervention.

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# PROBLEMS OF ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION MECHANISMS AND PROPOSALS FOR IMPROVEMENT:

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## ABSTRACT

Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) is an alternative to a full-scale court proceeding and is applied in different situations in different ways, both formally and informally, mostly in civil cases in Bangladesh. Traditionally, people in rural areas have preferred to settle their disputes by the ADR process particularly, negotiation, mediation, conciliation and arbitration because this process is less time consuming and cheaper as well. An ADR process is very popular in Bangladesh as both the plaintiff and the defendant get their benefits from this process and as a matter of fact, the ADR reduces the work load of a formal judicial system in Bangladesh to a great extent. However, the laws relevant to the ADR processes are inadequate in various legal and litigative aspects and perspectives and there is no uniform law for the ADR in Bangladesh. Therefore, this research will critically analyze the existing laws relevant to the ADR and will suggest some guidelines to improve the existing process in Bangladesh by adopting qualitative research method.

**Keywords:** ADR, Alternative, Bangladesh Court, Dispute, Resolution.

## INTRODUCTION:

ADR is a term generally used to refer to informal dispute resolution processes in which the parties meet with a professional third party who helps them resolve their dispute in a way that is less formal and often more consensual than is done in the courts.<sup>1</sup> While the most common forms of ADR are mediation and arbitration, there are also many other forms, in particular, judicial settlement conferences, fact-finding, ombudsmen, special masters and others.<sup>2</sup> Albeit often voluntary, the ADR is sometimes mandated by the competent courts. An ADR can refer to everything from facilitated settlement negotiations in which disputants are encouraged to negotiate directly with each other prior to some other legal process, to arbitration systems or mini trials that look and feel very much like a courtroom process. Processes designed to manage a community tension or to facilitate community development issues can also be included within the rubric of the ADR, the systems of which may be generally categorized as negotiation, conciliation, mediation, or arbitration systems.<sup>3</sup> Negotiation systems create a structure to encourage and facilitate a direct negotiation between parties to a dispute, without the intervention of a third party. Mediation and conciliation systems are very similar in that they interject a third party



between the disputants, either to mediate a specific dispute or to reconcile their relationship.<sup>4</sup> Mediators and conciliators may simply facilitate communicative interchange, or may help direct a speedy structure settlement, but they do not have the authority to decide or rule on a settlement. Arbitration systems authorize a third party to decide on how a dispute should be amicably resolved without recourse to further litigation.<sup>5</sup> It is important to distinguish between the binding and the non-binding forms of the ADR. Negotiation, mediation, and conciliation programs are non-binding, and scrupulously depend on the willingness of the parties to reach a voluntary agreement. Arbitration programs may be either binding or non-binding.<sup>6</sup> A binding arbitration produces a third party decision that the disputants must follow even if they disagree with the result, similar to a judicial decision. A non-binding arbitration produces a third party decision that the parties may reject. It is also important to distinguish between the mandatory processes and the voluntary processes wherein some judicial systems require litigants to negotiate, conciliate, mediate, or arbitrate prior to a court action. ADR processes may also be required as part of a prior contractual agreement between the parties. In voluntary processes, submission of a dispute to an ADR process depends entirely on the will of the parties.<sup>7</sup>

## **EXISTING LAWS RELATED TO ADR IN BANGLADESH**

### **Amendments of Civil Procedure Code 1908**

Sections 89A and 89B of the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, deal with the provision for mediation. The application for a mediation may be submitted by both parties at any stage after filing the written statement that they will mediate the dispute after which the court would adjourn the proceeding for mediation. The Judge himself can mediate on the dispute under this section. The fee of the mediator shall be fixed by the parties and if the court mediates the dispute itself, the judge cannot claim any fee or charge for it. Within ten days after the order for mediation, both parties will serve notice in writing to the court on the progress of initiation for mediation and the mediation procedure will have to be completed within 60 days which can be extended to a further 30 days if necessary. If the mediation becomes successful, the mediator will draft an agreement on such terms and conditions as the parties have mutually agreed upon. The parties will sign on the established agreement after which the lawyers and representatives will then sign as witnesses. This agreement will be submitted to the court which will pass a decree. If the Judge mediates the dispute, he will also follow the same procedure as explained above. If the mediation procedure fails, the proceedings of the suit will start from the stage it has been stopped before mediation. If the mediation succeeds to adduce a statement, evidence or other statements made at the time of mediation, this can then be used at the time of trial of the suit.

**Family Courts Ordinance 1985**

When the written statement is filed by the defendant, the Family Court will fix a date normally not more than thirty days from the date of filing the written statement for a pre-trial hearing of the suit. On the date fixed for the pre-trial hearing, the Court shall examine the written statement and documents filed by the parties and shall ascertain the points in issue between the parties. If no compromise or reconciliation is possible, the Court will frame the issues in the suit and fix a date for recording evidence.<sup>8</sup>

**The Arbitration Act 2001**

An arbitration in Bangladesh is governed by the Arbitration Act 2001. This Act repealed both the Arbitration (Protocol and Convention) Act 1937 and the Arbitration Act of 1940 and consolidates the domestic and international arbitration regime in Bangladesh. The Act provides that an arbitral tribunal may rule on its own jurisdiction that an arbitral tribunal will not be bound by the Code of Civil Procedure and Evidence Act of Bangladesh and that the arbitral tribunal shall follow the procedure to be agreed on by the parties.<sup>9</sup> Disputes arising from contracts are usually settled through an arbitration in which these disputes are generally commercial in nature involving employment contracts, government contracts, contracts relating to business transactions, etc. The contracts must contain a clause, agreement or reference stating that the disputes will be resolved through an arbitration. As a result the arbitration must be conducted under the rules of the *Arbitration Act 2001* and the rules of the Bangladesh Council for Arbitration. The arbitrations can take place where the parties choose or at the Bangladesh Council for Arbitration.<sup>10</sup>

**The Village Courts Act 2006**

On application of any party to any dispute or conflict, the chairman of the Union Parishad concerned can form a village court<sup>11</sup> which is composed of the Chairman of the Union Parishad and four representatives – two from each party one of whom must be a member of the *Parishad*.<sup>12</sup> Normally, the Chairman of the Union *Parishad* acts as the Chairman of the court, but whenever he is, for any reason, unable to act or his impartiality is questioned by any party to the dispute, any member of the *Parishad* can act as the Chairman.<sup>13</sup> The Village Courts have an exclusive jurisdiction to try all disputes that are enumerated in a schedule to the Act.<sup>14</sup>

**The Conciliation of Disputes (Municipal Areas) Board Act, 2004**

In every *Paurashava*, there is a dispute conciliation board. The Disputes Conciliation (Municipal Areas) Board Act, 2004 regulates the formation, jurisdiction and function of this adjudication body. The boards are structured and operated in the same way as the village courts, and have an exclusive jurisdiction to try all disputes specified in the schedule to the Act.<sup>15</sup> The list of offences is the same as that are tried by the

village courts. However, commission of any of these offences by a person who had earlier been convicted for any cognizable offence falls outside the jurisdiction of the boards.<sup>16</sup> Besides, if an offence amenable to the jurisdiction of a board is committed along with another offence not amenable to its jurisdiction then a joint trial becomes necessary and the board shall not exercise its jurisdiction to try the offence.<sup>17</sup> As in the case of the village courts, the boards cannot pass any order of imprisonment or fine. The only adjudication option is the order of compensation.<sup>18</sup>

### **The Artha Rin Adalat Ain 2003/ the Money Loan Court Act 2003**

Sections 21 and 22 of the Artha Rin Adalat Ain, 2003 provide for the Settlement Conference after the filing of a written statement. The Judge may request the parties and their lawyers to remain present in Court to resolve the dispute. The Judge will convene the meeting and fix up the venue, procedure and function and the conference will be in camera in which the Judge will explain the matter in dispute before the parties or representatives, identifying their issues in dispute. If the parties or their representatives agree to resolve the dispute, they will sign the agreement and the lawyers and others will then sign as witnesses after which the Judge will pass a decree on the basis of the agreement and no appeal or revision can be filed from the decree passed on the settlement conference.<sup>19</sup>

### **Muslim Family Laws Ordinance, 1961**

In family disputes, an alternative to the arbitration is also possible. The *Muslim Family Laws Ordinance 1961* provides that the Arbitration Council can be set up by the Chairman of a local administrative Unit (otherwise known as Union Parishad) to resolve disputes relating to a divorce, for example. Polygamous marriages contracted without the permission of the relevant authorities are not rendered invalid, nor is there a penalty for failing to obtain the present wife's consent as long as the Council has permitted the polygamous marriage. In *Jesmin Sultana v. Mohammad Elias*<sup>20</sup> the Court ruled that section 6 of the Ordinance prohibiting the contracting of a polygamous marriage without the prior permission of the Arbitration Council is against the principles of the Islamic law.

### **The Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898**

Section 345 of the Code of Criminal Procedure provides for compounding of offences. Through Ordinance Nos. XLIX of 1978 and LX of 1982 some more offences of the Penal Code have been added in the list of compounding offences but the procedure provided therein being obsolete is required to be modified otherwise it will not give the parties a chance to avoid adversarial litigation altogether.<sup>21</sup>

### **The Bangladesh Labour Act 2006**

The conciliation machinery is undoubtedly an important element of our industrial relation system. A

conciliation in an industrial dispute becomes necessary mainly when the settlement of disputes fail at the bipartite negotiation level. In fact a conciliation can be taken as an extension of the function of a collective bargaining or simply as an “assisted collective bargaining” in which the conflicting parties can have a fair chance of settlement of industrial disputes through the services of expert negotiators. If a bipartite negotiation fails, any of the parties concerned may request the conciliator<sup>22</sup> in writing to conciliate the dispute within 15 days from the date of the failure of collective bargaining.<sup>23</sup> The practice of conciliation is compulsory in Bangladesh before resorting to any industrial action. The role of the conciliator is to suggest solutions that can help find a compromise between the workers and the management, but he cannot impose a solution. The success of a conciliation depends on the willingness of the two sides to resolve their differences. If a settlement of the dispute is arrived at in the course of a conciliation, the conciliator shall send a report thereof to the Government together with a memorandum of settlement signed by the parties to the dispute.<sup>24</sup> If the conciliation fails, the conciliator will try to persuade the parties to agree to refer the dispute to an Arbitrator for a settlement.<sup>25</sup> If the parties do not agree to refer the dispute to an Arbitrator for a settlement, the Conciliator shall, within three days of the failure of the conciliation proceedings, give a certificate thereof to the parties.<sup>26</sup> The conciliation proceedings may continue for more than thirty days if the parties agree.<sup>27</sup> The Director of Labour may, at any time, proceed with the conciliation proceedings, withdraw the same from a conciliator or transfer the same to any other conciliator, after which the other provisions of this section shall apply thereto.<sup>28</sup> An arbitration is a voluntary process for the settlement of an industrial dispute. When a conciliation fails, an arbitration may prove to be a satisfactory and most enlightened method of resolving an industrial dispute.<sup>29</sup> If the conciliation fails, the conciliator tries to persuade the parties to refer their dispute to an arbitrator.<sup>30</sup> If the parties agree to refer the dispute to an arbitrator for a settlement, they shall then make a joint request in writing to the arbitrator agreed upon by them. The arbitrator shall give his award within a period of thirty days from the date on which the dispute is referred to him or such further period as may be agreed upon by the parties to the dispute. After he has made an award, the arbitrator shall forward a copy thereof to the parties and to the Government. The award of the arbitrator is final and no appeal shall lie against it. An award shall be valid for a period of not exceeding two years, as may be fixed by the arbitrator. In practice, no dispute is referred to the Arbitrator due to the fact that either the dispute is settled at the time of conciliation or if it fails the parties shall have the choice to go to the Labour Court rather than going for an arbitration.<sup>31</sup>

## **EXISTING MECHANISMS OF ADR IN BANGLADESH**

### **Arbitration**

An arbitration is a private process where disputing parties agree that one or several individuals can make

a decision on the dispute after receiving evidences and hearing arguments. An arbitration is different from a mediation because the neutral arbitrator has the authority to make a decision on the dispute. The arbitration process is similar to a trial in that the parties make opening statements and present evidences to the arbitrator. Compared to the traditional trials, an arbitration can usually be completed more quickly and is less formal. For example, the parties often do not have to follow the state rules of evidence and, in some cases, the arbitrator is not required to apply the governing law. After a hearing, the arbitrator issues an award where some awards simply announce the decision (a “bare bones” award), and others give reasons (a “reasoned award”).<sup>32</sup>

### **Mediation**

A mediation is a private process where a neutral third person, called a mediator, helps the parties to discuss and try to resolve the dispute. The parties have the opportunity to describe the issues, discuss their interests, understandings, feelings, provide each other with information and explore ideas for the resolution of the dispute. While courts can mandate that certain cases go to a mediation, the process remains ‘voluntary’ in that parties are not required to come to any agreement. The mediator does not have the power to make a decision for the parties, but can help the parties to find a resolution that is mutually acceptable. It is indeed a litigative irony that the only people who can resolve the dispute in a mediation are the parties themselves. There are a number of different ways that a mediation can proceed. Most mediations start with the parties involving together in a joint session. The mediator will describe how the process works, will explain the mediator’s role and will help to establish the ground rules and an agenda for the session. Generally, the parties then make opening statements. Some mediators conduct the entire process in a joint session. However, other mediators will move to separate sessions, shuttling back and forth between the parties. If the parties reach an agreement, the mediator can help reduce the agreement to a written contract which may be enforceable in court.<sup>33</sup>

### **Conciliation**

A conciliation is a type of mediation whereby the parties to a dispute use a neutral third party, called conciliator, who meets with the parties separately in an attempt to resolve their differences. A conciliation differs from an arbitration in that the conciliation process, in and of itself, has no legal standing, and the conciliator usually has no authority to seek any evidence or call witnesses, usually writes no decision, and makes no award.<sup>34</sup> A conciliation differs from a mediation in that the main goal is to conciliate, most of the time by seeking concessions. In mediation, the mediator tries to guide the discussion in a way that optimizes the parties’ needs, takes feelings into account and frames representations. In conciliation, the parties seldom, if ever, actually face each other across the table in the

presence of the conciliator, instead a conciliator meets with the parties separately. Such form of conciliation (mediation) that relies exclusively on caucusing is called “shuttle diplomacy”.<sup>35</sup>

### **Negotiation**

A negotiation is a voluntary and usually informal process in which parties identify issues of concern, explore options for the resolution of the issues, and search for a mutually acceptable agreement to resolve the issues raised. The disputing parties may be represented by attorneys in the negotiation. A negotiation is different from a mediation in that there is no neutral individual to assist the parties to negotiate.<sup>36</sup>

### **Ombudsman**

An ombudsman is a third party selected by an institution in particular university, hospital or governmental agency that investigates complaints by the employees, clients or constituents. The ombudsman works within the institution to investigate the complaints independently and impartially. The process is voluntary, private and non-binding.<sup>37</sup>

### **Med-Arb.**

It is considered as the blending of mediation and arbitration. Sometimes the mediator shall facilitate and on some cases he may decide on the disputed issues which will be binding upon the parties to follow.<sup>38</sup>

### **Settlement Conferences**

A settlement conference is a meeting in which a judge or magistrate assigned to the case presides over the process. The purpose of the settlement conference is to try to settle a case before the hearing or trial. A settlement conferencing is similar to a mediation in that a neutral third party assists the parties in exploring the settlement options. Settlement conferences are different from a mediation in that settlement conferences are usually shorter and typically have fewer roles for participation of the parties or for consideration of non legal interests.<sup>39</sup>

## **PROBLEMS OF ADR IN BANGLADESH**

A dispute resolution outside of courts is not new in Bangladesh; non-judicial and indigenous methods have been used by the societies for a very long time. But the main problem is that there is no uniform ADR law in Bangladesh. There are a lot of legislations which contain provisions relevant to the ADR

process in Bangladesh and there are some well known ADR mechanisms in Bangladesh, such as, mediation, negotiation, conciliation, arbitration and so on.<sup>40</sup> Different legislation has prescribed different ADR mechanisms and different procedures to settle the dispute. This is a problem for the person who acts as a neutral mediator or conciliator because all procedures are different in different cases. Sometimes, the people who are involved in an ADR process are not properly trained and they do not have an adequate knowledge on how to manage and convince the disputants to settle the dispute. Sometimes, the decision of an ADR is biased and politically motivated. For this reason the vulnerable party is not getting a proper justice.

## **CONCLUSION & PROPOSALS FOR IMPROVEMENT**

Although ADR programs can accomplish a great deal, however, no single program can accomplish all these goals. They cannot replace formal judicial systems which are necessary to establish a legal code, redress fundamental social injustice, provide governmental sanction, or provide a court of last resort for disputes that cannot be resolved by voluntary, informal systems. Furthermore, even the best-designed ADR programs under ideal conditions are labour intensive and require extensive management. In the development context, particular issues arise in considering the potential impacts of the ADR. Firstly, some are concerned that ADR programs will divert citizens from the traditional, community-based dispute resolution systems. This study has found a number of instances in which the ADR programs have been effectively designed to build upon, and in some cases, improve the traditional informal systems. Secondly, while the ADR programs cannot efficiently handle disputes between parties with greatly differing levels of power, they can be designed to mitigate class differences; in particular and third parties may be chosen to balance out inequalities among the disputants. Thirdly, there is no clear correlation between the national income distribution and the ADR effectiveness. ADR programs are serving important social functions in economies as diverse as of the Bangladesh. Finally, it is not clear from the evidence to date whether the ADR programs are more suitable for civil or common law jurisdictions. However, the ADR programs are operating effectively within both, but not enough data exists to compare the success rates under the two types of legal systems.

This Study is a first step in understanding the strengths and limitations of introducing the ADR within the rule of law programs. While past and present ADR projects have provided some significant insights into the ADR entity, there is still much to be learnt. More pragmatic analyses are needed on the range of possible strategies in using the ADR to support judicial reform, reduce power imbalances, and overcome discriminatory norms among disputants. Another important issue for study is how ADR programs may be replicated and expanded to the national level while maintaining sufficient human and financial

resources. These and other questions on the ADR's effectiveness can only be well answered by analyzing the evidences gathered from the ADR projects. Effective monitoring and evaluation of ADR systems are hard to find in developing and developed countries alike. Present and future ADR projects should have systematic monitoring and valuation processes in place to ensure not only effective programs, but also continued learning.

This study mentions the ADR's ability to advance development objectives other than the rule of law, such as facilitating economic, social and political change, reducing tension in a community, and managing conflicts hindering development initiatives. Further exploration of non-rule of law uses of the ADR is critical to complete the picture of the range of the ADR's applications. Before extension of the frontiers of ADR in Bangladesh can be established, the article would propose the following:

- a) There should be a harmonized uniform ADR legislation in Bangladesh which will be applicable for all types of the relevant cases.
- b) An intensive training of concerned judges, lawyers and the court staff should be mandatory. The training will be on a continuous basis.
- c) The ADR will have a smooth transition if it is introduced on a pilot court basis. The performances, results, reactions among pilot court judges, practicing lawyers and the litigants should be carefully monitored and recorded and suitable adjustments in the ADR project should be made at each stage of extension after an exhaustive study of the experiences gained.
- d) The mediation or non-binding arbitration, in my opinion, may not be a suitable form of ADR in big commercial cases involving heavy amounts, such as, the Artha Rin Adalat cases, the applications before the District Judges in house building loan cases, the Bangladesh Shilpa Rin Shangstha and the Bangladesh Shilpa Rin cases as well as the insolvency cases under the Insolvency Act. I have suggested Early Neutral Evaluation or Settlement Conference as the proper result-yielding method of the ADR in such cases. I would advise an amendment to the special legislations covering these types of cases enabling trial judges to refer a case or part of a case at any stage of the suit for application of Settlement Conference, although the ideal time to start this process is after receiving the written statement.
- e) The Government is the major litigant in this country, either as a plaintiff or as a defendant. Under P.D. No. 142 of 1972, the Government is a necessary party in all title suits, suits for specific performance of contract and so on. To make the ADR successful, P.D. No. 142 of 1972 should be amended providing that the Government does not enter appearance or after entering appearance do not file any written statement, or after filing a written statement do not contest the case, as any resolution of the dispute through the ADR or otherwise by the other parties to the dispute would be binding on the Government.



- f) Labour Courts and Small Causes Court are the two areas where mediation should be introduced immediately on a priority basis, amending the two special legislations.
- g) The Government should provide an adequate and sustainable fund for recruitment of judges and staffs for technical training.
- h) It needs an adequate political support including mobilization and involvement of representatives/advocates for disadvantaged groups.

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## INDIAN WOMEN ( RURAL LIFE, EDUCATION, ECONOMICS AND ENTERPRENEURIAL WORLD )

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**\*Gopa Ghosh**

The Rural life of women in India is tough beyond any comparison. Women from the landless families work as agricultural labourers during all the seasons and in various agricultural operations. This way, they put in 10-11 hours of work per day in the agricultural fields. In cash crops like potato, rice and cotton, in particular, female labour force is found to be high. The payment in grains during harvest of wheat and rice and cash for other crops form the major part of the resources for the family's survival. They also look after the cattle which brings them an extra income from sale of milk besides improving the dietary standards of the family. Apart from shouldering the responsibility of looking after the cattle, cleaning of cattle sheds and milking of cattle, many women work with men in 'homebased' work and provide any help required by their brothers and husbands. These tasks are performed along with the usual 'women's work' such as cooking, washing utensils and clothes and upbringing of children. Their work outside the home does not permit any change in the role expectations of the family and the males. All these multiple roles of women are supposed to be a part of their role as 'ideal mothers', 'ideal wife' and this deprives her right to an independent economic status. Further the culturally and socially defined role of woman is in direct conflict with her role as bread-winner' and it is customary for the woman not to seek gainful employment.

Since social, cultural and familial constraints deprive women of their freedom and mobility in the outdoor activities, they are therefore only in small numbers in the organised sector. This forces them to accept whatever work is available within the village, denying them exposure to the outside world. This is due to the fact that women's roles and work as workers, are not considered to be primary. Also, they are pushed into the category of secondary workers like 'helpers' in spite of their hard labour and briskness (factors acknowledged even by the landowners) at work. The landowning class prefers to employ more women as agricultural workers as they can be easily paid much less when compared with their input in terms of work. The women are employed for all types of agricultural work such as sowing, transplanting, weeding, leveling, picking, harvesting etc. They brave all severe climatic conditions like men in preharvest and post-harvest operations of rice and wheat. During peak seasons, female labour is in maximum demand and when the demand for labour decreases, it is the woman who has to face unemployment crisis. They, therefore, form the majority of the reserve force of labour. This way, their lives are one of continuous insecurity of employment within the village in the primary sector i.e.

agriculture. The women have also to bear the brunt of discrimination in wages. The principle of equal pay for equal work is not strictly adhered to in the fixation of wage rates for male and female labour in agriculture. A tendency prevails to exploit female labour because of their poor bargaining power and this fact lowers their dignity as labour. In one of the villages, when the scheduled caste agricultural women workers demanded equal wages, they were pushed back to their homes. Unfortunately, these women did not have any other alternative except to get back to the work after a few months for their own and family's survival. According to a reliable source at the government sponsored Potato Research Institute in Punjab, women agricultural labourers are neither given permanent employment nor equal wages in the institute, whereas men are enrolled as permanent ones. Women are treated as casual labourers and are paid as much less as can be.

Since the strict socialization of a woman starts right from her early childhood to prepare and prove herself to be 'an ideal wife', 'an ideal woman' and 'an ideal homemaker', she is seldom encouraged for education and economic independence. These patriarchal attitudes and practices are reflected in the local folk songs and folk tales in the area. The woman is supposed to pass on her earnings to the male members in the family, who squander it either on gambling, and/or liquor thus leaving the 'wife or woman' totally powerless and helpless. This powerlessness and lack of control over her own earned income results in other evils like 'dowry', 'alcoholism', 'wifebeating', 'desertion' and they have to face limitless hardships. Very seldom, they can raise their voice against these evils.

Furthermore, the landowning women are hardworking but they generally work inside the home. Among the 'poor women' of upper castes like widows and those deserted, there is not tradition of working for wages in the agricultural fields and they have no alternative except to pursue upper caste occupations at home like weaving and spinning of cotton etc. They undergo lots of hardships in their lives to make both ends meet. All this happens due to lack of recognition and appreciation of women's work despite her long schedule from 4 a.m. in the morning till 11 p.m. at night. Since the cultural factors permit withdrawal of women from work, there is withdrawal from work outside the home as soon as the low caste family goes upon the class ladder and attains prosperity e.g. women whose husbands have gone to European countries or to the Middle East or have started working in the factories in the city or outside the state and earn a comparatively higher wage. In such cases, women are pressurised by their husbands and elder members of the family to confine themselves to their homes in order to emulate the ways of high caste women. Thus absence of economic independence combined with illiteracy of women not only maintains the status quo in the position of women but also results in the deterioration of their condition even though they contribute equally and even more to the family's income and survival.

The far more difficult and radical challenge that faces education systems all over the world today - is how to incorporate the women's dimension into the educational process? As an education planner I was unaware of women's issues. As a product of an urban middle class family and a hybrid education of institutions (all urban) in India, I was even less aware of rural women. As a first generation beneficiary of the equality clauses of the Indian Constitution, I accepted the facile theory that education and equal political rights would remove inequality for all women in time, not realising how the educational process itself was strengthening the hold of patriarchy and introducing new forces for inequality, subordination and marginalisation of women. For nearly a decade, when I was preoccupied with discovering rural women, to identify their problems and needs, my colleagues and I found ourselves increasingly lapsing back from our researcher and teacher status to that of students and learners. Our experience with the investigation of the Committee on the Status of Women in India had convinced us that we had a lot to unlearn, before we could contribute to new knowledge regarding women's situations and roles in our society. We began with the feeling that what we had learnt in our years of social science theories and research methodology in the academic profession, had, to a very great extent, been responsible for the invisibility of women's contribution, problems, and roles in earlier social science research in India. We attributed this failure to Eurocentric theories of social transformation, and tools and methods of research that we had borrowed from the West.

It was, therefore, a deliberate decision, to avoid starting with any assumptions or framework while beginning research on the situation of poor rural women in different parts of the country. We decided to expose ourselves as much as possible to the empirical reality rather than analytical approaches borrowed from any other part of world.

The Indian women's movement in its earlier phases had placed all its hopes on the issue of ensuring equal access for women to all types and levels of Education. However, the need to abolish sex-role stereotypes, by non-differentiation of curricula by gender was also addressed, and featured in Five Year Plan documents and the first National Policy Statement on Education adopted by Parliament in 1968. This stand rejected the practice of the Colonial Regime, and reflected the Constitutional guarantee that "the State shall not discriminate on grounds of sex".

But policy statements were not always implemented, especially in school education, where Home Science continued to be taught to girls only, and many girls' schools did not have arrangements for proper teaching of science and mathematics. In some states, boys were not permitted to take up fine arts. No one thought of introducing subjects like agriculture, animal husbandry or forestry in girls institutions. Even the Agricultural Universities, established on the model of Landgrant Colleges in the

United States, did not encourage girls to enter such courses, but established Home Science Colleges within their campuses to attract rural girls. In contrast to this, Indian Universities for general education threw open all their courses to women from the 19th century, using their autonomy to ignore the Raj's policy of discrimination. In the post-independence period, Indian Universities providing general education expanded enrollment of women in both arts and science courses, and the University Grants Commission followed a liberal policy in promoting science education in girls' colleges. This situation was, however, not reflected in the professional courses, except education and medicine. The CSWI observed that from early childhood boys and girls were indoctrinated to accept gender inequality through a powerful socialisation process and "The only institution which could counteract the effect of this process is the education system. If education is to promote equality for women, it must make a deliberate, planned and sustained effort so that the new values of equality of the sexes can replace the traditional value system of inequality. The educational system today has not even attempted to undertake this responsibility. In fact, the schools reflect and strengthen the traditional prejudices of inequality through curricula, the classification of subjects on the basis of sex and the unwritten code of conduct enforced on the public."

In the case of developing countries particularly, intervention for women's equality and development, whether prompted by government or other agencies, always has to contain a hard core of educational, information gathering, communicational and training activities. It is impracticable to expect bureaucracy to play this role. NGOs concerned with women's issues in these countries are mostly based in urban areas, and lack both human and financial resources to undertake all the tasks that are involved - research, communication, mobilisation, training, obtaining resource support, even legal and political support in some cases. Nor do many such organisations exist in all developing countries. But educational institutions, of varied quality, have come to exist in most parts of the developing world. They do possess some of the skills, the infrastructural support, and above all the human resources to play this role. In a country like India, another argument to introduce this concept into the Education Policy was the public accountability of most educational institutions. Not all the NGOs are committed to women's equality. Fundamentalist conservatism has also promoted NGOs, as they have promoted some educational institutions also. But the latter are more exposed to public scrutiny than the former.

If education is to become an active agent for ending gender inequality, it requires a new perspective, new methods and tools, and new knowledge - (a) about the centrality of women's role to correct the peasant iniquitous and destructive path of development; and (b) about the origin of women's subordination in society. It is the contention of this paper that the key to these two critical issues lie in the past and contemporary histories of rural women, to a far greater extent than in the experiences of their

counterparts in urban areas, because one finds far clearer gender differentials in the assessment of problems, priorities, values and demands in rural than in urban areas in developing countries. Fifty years after independence, only a little more than a third of women are literate, is indicative of the overall attitude towards women and their roles. In addition, in keeping with the world-wide trend on exposing such data, information on violence against Indian women and girl children has brought into focus their extremely fragile position, both within the family and in public spaces. Yet, there has been slow progress in certain vital areas: female life expectancy at birth has risen, the sex differential in infant Mortality Rates is almost bridged, and an increasing number of women are joining the work force. The chief achievements of the last decade - and certainly among the most important features of the postindependence period - have been the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments of 1993 which reserved 33 1/3 percent of seats for women in elections to local bodies in both the rural and urban areas. The outcome has been a virtual revolution in the political scenario of independent India: it is estimated that when elections are completed in the states of the Indian union where the Amendments are applicable, over 1 million women will have been elected to these local bodies. However, clearly traditional holders of power are unhappy with this shift in focus: a recent report from Rajasthan, a state notorious for negative female development indicators, quoted two women sarpanches or heads of Panchayats (village level elected bodies) as saying that they had been impeached by the male majority because of resentment against their development-oriented plans and drive against corruption. In other words, the patriarchal order will resist what it feels are invasions of its bastions of power and authority.

Against this backdrop, it becomes important to assess how drastic economic reforms will affect women's lives and well-being. In other words, the paper argues that State policies and programmes are for and about people: however, given the irrevocable mandate of globalisation on the one hand and internal economic decline on the other, it has at times been all too easy for the Indian State to concentrate mainly on overall strategies to face such challenges. In the process, blueprints for progress often overlook the claims of those negatively affected by such changes. It is then left to the voices of dissent to narrate a cautionary tale: the democratic polity represents an increasingly aware electorate, one which is not only concerned with individual rights but which also has certain expectations from a State poised to enter the global economy. For, if political structures are to endure they have to move beyond the narrow confines of contractual relationships. The following analysis of health care in India shows how the State has not taken into account the implications of its policies; in fact, by encouraging privatisation of health care - often as we shall see, by default - it is reneging on its contract with its citizens: far from an ethics of care, the Indian State is increasingly adopting a minimalist position as it labours to keep at bay divisive forces and growing discontent.



At the time of independence from the British in 1947, India was "a low productivity agrarian economy". The newly elected government adopted a mixed economy approach: while the public or government sector was to handle major responsibilities such as power, steel, mines and heavy industries, food grain production, the manufacture of consumer goods as well as some capital goods were controlled by private enterprise. The mixed economy philosophy and Five Year Plans defined priorities and allocations maintained through an elaborate system of licensing and quality control which regulated the latter. By the seventies it was clear that economic policies had not been able to contain inflation nor deliver social justice: if the low rate of growth, spiralling inflation and impending balance of payments crisis had to be tackled, a fresh look at existing strategies and programmes was necessary. In the years before the current phase of reform, there was enough evidence to suggest that poverty alleviation measures were not taken too seriously. Economist Pranab Bardhan has commented that while there was "some general progress over the years in the provision of public consumption and welfare measures for the poor", these remained woefully inadequate.

He identified low investments, the absence of an adequate administrative machinery as well as organisational and managerial bottlenecks as being responsible. Further, during a financial crisis, "the axe falls most heavily on the social welfare programmes for the poor". That, in the post-independence period, investment and planning for the social sector has not been given the attention necessary for a country of India's size and dynamics is evident by a quick look at some figures: half a century after independence 130 million people in India do not have access to any kind of health facilities, 185 million have no access to drinking water and while the government claims that 80 per cent of villages have safe drinking water, a million children die each year from diarrhoeal diseases .

While by the mid-eighties there was a re-thinking on economic policies, it was the crisis of 1990-91 which "shook the very foundations of Indian development strategy and planning". According to the authors, the crisis was triggered by the, Gulf War when, due to a number of factors, including a drying up of foreign remittances from the Middle East, the country's foreign exchange reserves shrank to "the value of a single month's import bill". However, others feel that the situation was in fact in the making due to a faulty import policy and other related factors brought about by political exigencies. With few other options, the country approached the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank for "extraordinary accommodation"; the funding institutions, in turn, made stabilisation and structural Adjustment conditional for the receipt of such assistance. Most official documents in the fifty years of India's independence have, with 'varying degrees of candour, admitted to limited success in bridging the gap in the population's access to basic rights such as education, health, nutrition, housing, sanitation and so on. Nor has civil society been silent on the declining role of the State: for instance, from 1975 onwards,

the women's movement has drawn attention to certain negative socio-economic trends and how these affect the status of women and children. The many voices from the women's movement as well as from other broad-based people's movements fractures the, discourse on liberalisation by providing counterpoints and critical appraisals of avowed promises and preferred solutions. Accordingly, we examine the health sector with a view to highlighting myopic policies and faulty implementation strategies. By doing so we hope to contribute to an alternative discourse, one which questions the votaries of liberalisation, their expectations of the market, trickle-down theories of development and naive belief that the social sector can take care of itself.

The educated women do not want to limit their lives in the four walls of the house. They demand equal respect from their partners. However, Indian women have to go a long way to achieve equal rights and position because traditions are deep rooted in Indian society where the sociological set up has been a male dominated one. Women are considered as weaker sex and always made to depend on men folk in their family and outside, throughout their life. The Indian culture made them only subordinates and executors of the decisions made by other male members, in the basic family structure. While at least half the brainpower on earth belongs to women, women remain perhaps the world's most underutilized resource. Despite all the social hurdles, India is brimming with the success stories of women. They stand tall from the rest of the crowd and are applauded for their achievements in their respective field. The transformation of social fabric of the Indian society, in terms of increased educational status of women and varied aspirations for better living, necessitated a change in the life style of Indian women. She has competed with man and successfully stood up with him in every walk of life and business is no exception for this. These women leaders are assertive, persuasive and willing to take risks. They managed to survive and succeed in this cut throat competition with their hard work, diligence and perseverance. Ability to learn quickly from her abilities, her persuasiveness, open style of problem solving, willingness to take risks and chances, ability to motivate people, knowing how to win and lose gracefully are the strengths of the Indian women entrepreneurs.

Women Entrepreneurs may be defined as the women or a group of women who initiate, organize and operate a business enterprise. The Government of India has defined women entrepreneurs as an enterprise owned and controlled by women having a minimum financial interest of 51 per cent of the capital and giving at least 51 per cent of the employment generated in the enterprise to women. Women entrepreneurs engaged in business due to push and pull factors which encourage women to have an independent occupation and stand on their own legs. A sense towards independent decision-making on their life and career is the motivational factor behind this urge. Saddled with household chores and domestic responsibilities women want to get independence. Under the influence of these factors the

women entrepreneurs choose a profession as a challenge and as an urge to do some thing new. Such a situation is described as pull factors. While in push factors women engaged in business activities due to family compulsion and the responsibility is thrust upon them. The glass ceilings are shattered and women are found indulged in every line of business. The entry of women into business in India is traced out as an extension of their kitchen activities, mainly 3P's, Pickle, Powder and Pappad. But with the spread of education and passage of time women started shifting from 3P's to modern 3E's i.e., Energy, Electronics and Engineering. Skill, knowledge and adaptability in business are the main reasons for women to emerge into business ventures. Women Entrepreneur' is a person who accepts challenging role to meet her personal needs and become economically independent. A strong desire to do something positive is an inbuilt quality of entrepreneurial women, who is capable of contributing values in both family and social life. With the advent of media, women are aware of their own traits, rights and also the work situations. The challenges and opportunities provided to the women of digital era are growing rapidly that the job seekers are turning into job creators. Many women start a business due to some traumatic event, such as divorce, discrimination due to pregnancy or the corporate glass ceiling, the health of a family member, or economic reasons such as a layoff. But a new talent pool of women entrepreneurs is forming today, as more women opt to leave corporate world to chart their own destinies. They are flourishing as designers, interior decorators, exporters, publishers, garment manufacturers and still exploring new avenues of economic participation.

To enable women to participate economically and socially in an effective manner requires certain pre-conditions. First, women need to articulate their own feelings, fears, needs, potential to the intervening group who must share their problems and inspire confidence in them to organise unitedly. Formation of grassroot organisations like Mahila Mandals, Cooperatives could initially provide an effective answer and solution. Through such organisations, it is possible to launch an organised activity. Grassroot organisations sponsored by the central and state developmental agencies have been in existence for quite a long time, yet these have yielded very limited results owing to the failure to recognise and measure adequately women worker's contribution in the society and national economy. Rather, women have been viewed in development in a very narrow perspective at national level and gradually it has percolated to the state and the district levels also.

In view of the above, all these developmental programmes of women require a change in the focus on women's problems, women's interests, approach to women's work and better livelihood of rural women workers and thereby strengthening women's organisations. Experience has shown that these organisations in order to be strengthened at various levels for sustained improvement need initiatives by intervening agencies which can serve as channels of communication and support between the

developmental machinery and the rural women. The intervening groups through their participatory approach can build an information base and provide the models of innovative initiatives. Their experiences can enable them to learn some lessons which can sharpen the understanding for the people working for planning strategies and policies.

## CRIME AGAINST URBAN WOMEN IN NCR (NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION, DELHI)

\*Dr Mary Tahir  
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### ABSTRACT

The concept of crime is a relative one and it varies in accordance with the socio-economic development of the society and is reflected in the moral and social values of a community. Crime against women is definitely on the rise in the India's national capital. It is very unfortunate that even in the urban areas as high as 18 per cent of crimes are committed against women who are basically related to dowry and harassment by husbands and in-laws. This also exhibits the poor status of Indian women even in the capital city. Among the 12 metropolitan cities, Delhi accounted for 30 per cent of rape cases and 46 per cent of kidnapping cases in 1990. On the whole crime against women has gone up by 75% in 15 years between 1998 and 2011. The majority of crimes against women are matrimonial crimes. The rate of increase in cases of domestic violence is highest at 140 %, followed by kidnapping at 117%, rape by 60 % and molestation at 40 % between 1998 and 2011. However, as an exception, there was a substantial increase in the number of rapes and acts of sexual violence reported after December 2012 till March 2013.

**Key Words**—Crime, Matrimonial Crimes, molestation, Rape

### INTRODUCTION:

Under the IPC (Indian Penal Code) crimes against women include rape, kidnapping and abduction, homicide for dowry, torture, molestation, sexual harassment, and the importation of girls. Violence against women has become now a common phenomenon. Crime, no doubt is a complex social problem but in the recent decades, it has achieved new dimensions and has brought within its teeth children, youth and women. With the advance of industrialization and urbanization criminality is gradually rearing its ugly head all over the world.<sup>1</sup> It has touched new heights and dimensions in the numbers and operational patterns. Use of violence, even fatal attacks has become more common than they were some time past. The modern scientific developments in technology have not been able to stem the tide of this social problem.<sup>2</sup> The most interesting aspect of crime is that in every age and almost in every society, it has been regarded as a problem peculiar to the contemporary society and has always existed in one form or the other.<sup>3</sup> Further, there is no apparent reason to expect that it will not remain so in the near future.<sup>4</sup>

Crime is as old as the mankind in itself, but in the recent years it has increased in its dimensions and has attained new heights. It is difficult to find a society without deviance. Almost the entire society is directly

or indirectly affected by such violence. Women as a separate class are subjected to a greater criminal victimization both inside and outside their homes. This victimization of women as pointed out by Aiyisha,<sup>5</sup> is due to a variety of factors such as historical, cultural and social, there is no society without its quota of crimes against women. No doubt, the problem of crime against women particularly against young married women is on increase. This type of violence usually consists in the form of harassment, torture, abuses, sexual assaults, beating, burning alive and sometimes even death. Now the victimization of women has taken new strides and has significantly increased in the number. The exploitation and victimization ranges from molestation, beating to murder and in some cases includes even burning alive. The indifferent attitude and discrimination against fair sex starts right from her birth but in many cases takes a serious turn immediately after marriage.

The issue of crime against women in urban areas has drawn significant attention among national governments across the world, irrespective of their development stage, as well as among international agencies, as a part of their concern for human security and, more importantly, in the context of the larger issue of human rights. As it is, urban safety and security, as evinced from the reports of member countries across the world in successive World Urban Forums, is becoming a major concern of urbanization and the focus of discussions is on violence abating measures and the role of the society in it. The vulnerability of women to urban life has assumed special significance in the context of reported unsafe situations that they are exposed to in every day urban life, having far reaching consequences on the growth and development of the city and the country. Safety is important for women to act as an equal partner in the society. Personal security is central to every woman's physical, intellectual, emotional, economic and spiritual sense of wellbeing. Crime and sense of crime are two critical factors that greatly undermine a women's sense of security and prevents them from becoming equal partners in society.

The global awareness about the unequal status of women in enjoying urban facilities is however, not new. The first public voice raised on women's safety in urban environment was three decades ago in North America. Since then many countries and international organizations, including the OECD and the UNCHS (now UN-HABITAT) have focused on this issue, especially in the 1980s and 1990s. After the Beijing Women Summit in 1994, several commitments were made in many countries for full participation of women in the decision making process and in sharing power and authority. The Huairou Commission was set up to monitor the progress in the full participation of women in development of cities and in implementation of gender-based approaches to planning, development and management of cities. It was expected that with the participation of women in the critical issues of city management, safety of women would be ensured.

In India, women have been victims of humiliation, torture and exploitation for as long as we have had written records of social organization and family life. “The custom of infanticide is similarly responsible even now for no small loss of human life. In India there has been since time immemorial a strong prejudice against the birth of girls. Sons are preferred to daughters. This prejudice has often resulted in the killing of girls. The Rajputs were the worst offenders in this respect; they never wanted to be the fathers-in-law (sasur) of anybody. Father-in-law or brother-in-law was a term of abuse to them. In 1856 special inquiries were instituted by the Government. The committee visited numerous Rajput villages and found in some not a single girl. Another committee was appointed in 1869 and submitted the following report about the villages they visited. In seven villages, 104 boys and 1 girl; and in twenty-three villages, 284 boys and 23 girls were found by them.....” Haikerwal (1934)<sup>6</sup>

Man and Woman are born equal and both play vital roles in the creation and development of their families in particular and the society in general. Woman is not only the bread distributor but she is also as bread winner. She is working shoulder to shoulder with men. The greatest contribution of the Indian women like her counterpart in other parts of the world is through home, husband and children.<sup>7</sup>The middle class wives in the four major cities Bombay, Calcutta, Chennai and Delhi constitute about 17 per cent of the total working class of urban population. The findings of a study conducted on 1,600 women, revealed that they formed 22 per cent of the working force in Bombay to a minimum of 9 per cent in Calcutta. They contributed about Rs. 1,500/- on an average to each family income in addition to their regular household chores and ended up working for almost 18 hours a day.<sup>8</sup>

The history of the mankind reveals that the woman is and has been the foundation stone of a family in particular and the society in general. She is spiritual and direct agent of life forces and if the foundation is not properly maintained, the whole building of the human life is bound to crack down and dismember.<sup>9</sup> Further, among the most wonderful mysteries of our nature is that of sex, therefore, the mother that bore us must have our reverence. The wife through whom we enter parentage must have our reverence. Sex which governs so much of our physical life and has so much influence on our emotional and higher nature, deserves not our fear or contempt or our amused indulgence, but our reverence in the highest sense of term.<sup>10</sup>

Woman has been given a position of pride in every religion. Under Christianity and Hinduism, they are respected and due importance is given to their rights and privileges. Woman enjoyed a position of high esteem in the Rig Vedic period. No function of significance could be completed without her participation.<sup>11</sup> In the Quran, a complete Sura has been devoted for the welfare, rights and duties of women.<sup>12</sup>

It has been rightly pointed out that women have been and will always be what men make them. However, no philosophical student of comparative religion can fail to observe that at the foundation of every spiritual faith stands a woman, whose sympathy blesses the work of infusing new life into humanity.<sup>13</sup> A number of laws have been enacted in almost all the civilized countries to restore, maintain and project the status and position of the women. Such laws have also received international recognition.

A total of 2,28,650 incidents of crimes against women were reported in the country during 2011. The north eastern city of Tripura recorded the highest rate of crimes against women at 37 percent, compared to the national crime rate of 18.9 percent. Kidnapping and abductions are up by 19 percent and trafficking rose by 122 percent in the same period. Crimes that include the Indian term "eve-teasing" or harassment and heckling and sexual innuendoes against women in public places including streets, public transport, cinema halls, along with the rape of minors and women in tribal and villages often go unreported and unrecorded. According to records, Madhya Pradesh, a state with a large population of tribes, has recorded 3406 rape cases, the highest number of incidents in the country in 2011. India's profile as an emerging modern nation has taken a beating by the recent rape case, as widespread gender-based violence has been exposed.

Crime against women is definitely on the rise in the national capital. It is very unfortunate that even in the urban areas as high as <sup>18</sup> per cent of crimes are committed against women who are basically related to dowry and harassment by husbands and in-laws. This also exhibits the poor status of Indian women even in the capital city<sup>14</sup>. Among the 12 metropolitan cities, Delhi accounted for 30 per cent of rape cases and 46 per cent of kidnapping cases in 1990. It is a paradox that in spite of these measures women are becoming an important partner in the city management, they still remain a major victim of the violence in urban areas<sup>15</sup>. The rate of increase in cases of domestic violence is highest at 140 %, followed by kidnapping at 117%, rape by 60 % and molestation at 40 % between 1998 and 2011. The nature of women-related crimes has too undergone change between this period with the share of rapes, sexual harassment and immoral trafficking gone down in comparison to increased cases of domestic violence reported from across the country, says the study. However, as an exception, there was an increase in the number of rapes and acts of sexual violence reported after December 2012 till March 2013. The number of cases being reported was seen rising after the brutal Delhi gang rape cum murder case of December 16.

### **Objectives**

In the present study crime against urban women in NCR has been analysed .The study attempts to examine the increasing rate of crime in NCR and the reasons for such increase. It also attempts to



understand the spatial variations.

### Study Area

The **National Capital Region** (NCR) in India is a name for the conurbation or metropolitan area which encompasses the entire Delhi as well as urban areas surrounding it in neighboring states of Punjab, Haryana, Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, and Rajasthan. With a total area of about 33,578 km<sup>2</sup> (12,965 sq. miles), it is the world's second largest urban agglomeration by population behind Tokyo and the largest by area.

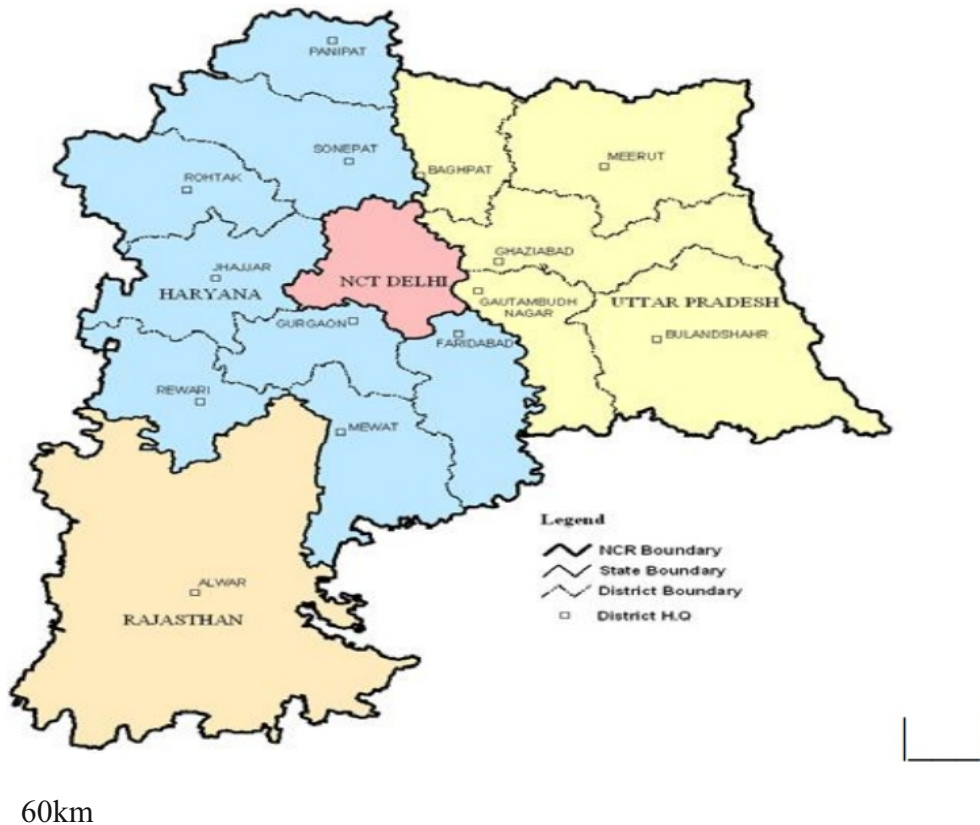
A total of 15 districts in three neighbouring states of Haryana, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan along with whole of the National Capital Territory of Delhi constitute the National Capital Region (NCR) of India as defined in National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) Act of 1985. These are: -

#### Area-wise contribution of participating states in the NCR.

State	Area (in km <sup>2</sup> )	Area (in miles <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2011 Census)
NCT of Delhi	1,483	573	16,753,265

#### Area-wise contribution of participating states in the NCR.

State	Area (in km <sup>2</sup> )	Area (in miles <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2011 Census)
Haryana	13,413	5,179	25,353,081
Uttar Pradesh	10,853	4,190	19,95,81,477
Rajasthan	7,829	3,023	68,621,012
TOTAL	33,578	12,965	310,308,835



**Figure 1: Map of NCR**

The origin of NCR is traced to the recommendation of first ever Master Plan of Delhi, way back in the year 1962. The prime aim was to reduce the burden of increasing population in Delhi and the growing demand for more space owing to large scale industrialization. Therefore the neighbouring states like Rajasthan, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh came into consideration for developing satellite cities of Delhi. Gurgaon, Noida, Ghaziabad and Faridabad were the names that came up for developing the whole NCR region. The study used purposive sampling method to collect information from respondents belonging to diverse occupational categories spread across public places such as bus stands and market places of five cities of NCR (Delhi, Gurgaon, Noida, Ghaziabad and Faridabad). Delhi comes under the governance of NCT, called the National Capital Territory. However, the Central Government does have some control over the administration and other departments. According to the census 2011, Delhi has a population of 11,007,835 persons, literacy rate of 87.60% and sex ratio of 875 females per 1000 males.

### **Methods and Material**

Data has been generated from primary survey conducted in various strategic places of Delhi, Gurgaon, Faridabad, Ghaziabad and Noida. The study relies to a large extent, on primary sources. Secondary data have been examined to assess the situation at the macro level.

The key factors considered in the selection of locations for sample survey were places where safety of women is likely to be endangered. These include public facilities, such as markets, parks, shopping malls, underground sub -ways and places below the fly-overs, educational institutions, cinema halls and restaurants, metro and bus terminus and railway stations, as well as work places like government and private office complexes.

The primary data were collected through canvassing of pre-tested questionnaires to 300 women. Secondary data were obtained from published and unpublished sources, data like violence and crime against women, nature of violence, predators characteristics etc provided by The National Crime Resource Bureau; National Commission for Women; Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India; Jagori, Delhi Commission for Women etc.

There were some critical constraints in obtaining genuine responses from select groups of women.

1 Many women were, in general, cautious in expressing their views and a sense of fear was visible on their face. Their response was guarded and they were careful in sharing their opinion and perspectives.

2. In case of government employees, the response was very slow.

The present study is based on primary as well as secondary sources. There are two types of data in secondary sources. One set gives detailed information regarding population and various socio-economic variables that have bearing upon crime pattern. Second set pertains to details regarding various aspects of crime. For the first set data was taken from census of India publication. For the second set data collected by NCRB (National Crime Record Bureau) was used. Secondary data was also collected from various literature available on crime against women. From all the available sources of information pertaining to crime against women it was very clear that such crimes are on the increase at national and international level. Thus a lot of hard work was put in for the collection and analysis of primary data. The main aim of the primary survey was to unearth the problem of crime against women on the basis of the following two observations; It is a well-known fact that the reporting of crime against women is very less. But eve teasing, molestation, domestic violence and harassment at place of work are very common crimes confronting women of all walks of life. With this assumption a number of women were interviewed in an informal manner at various strategic points. Besides general questions pertaining to their socio-demographic profile they were asked to report about the above mentioned crimes. Major crimes against women such as rape, murder and kidnapping and abduction was not included in the survey for it is difficult for women to talk of such crimes in the public, but given a push they still would share their experiences of minor crimes.

The study used purposive sampling method to collect information from respondents belonging to diverse occupational categories spread across public places such as bus stands and market places of five cities of NCR (Delhi, Gurgaon, Noida, Ghaziabad and Faridabad).

The survey gathered and analysed information about the nature and forms of harassment faced by women. A total of 1132 females were questioned and it was possible to get a sample of 300 females who had been victims of eve teasing, molestation, domestic violence or harassment at place of work. The remaining may or may not be victims of crime. Some were not ready to respond and some were too much in a hurry to even think about the problem

It had not at all been easy task in making the victims of crime admit the fact. Thus, although the questionnaire was small, but to get information from each victim was time consuming for only after gaining the trust and confidence could it be possible to make them divulge the information required.

Following is the list of places where the interviews were conducted.

- Delhi-Bus Stands-Sarai Kale Khan, Anand Vihar and Kashmere Gate
- Market Places-Jama Masjid, Rajiv Chowk, and Sarojini Nagar
- Gurgaon-Bus Stand
- Market Places-Sadar Bazar, Sector 14
- Faridabad-Main Bus Stand
- Market Places-Sector 15
- Noida-Bus Stand
- Market Place-Atta Market
- Ghaziabad-Old and New Bus Stand
- Market place-Navyug market

### **Results and Discussion**

The issue of crime against women in urban areas has drawn significant attention among national governments across the world, irrespective of their development stage, as well as among international agencies, as a part of their concern for human security and, more importantly, in the context of the larger issue of human rights. It is a paradox that in spite of these measures women still remains a major victim of the violence in urban areas. Law enforcing and other related agencies have no idea of the actual volume and magnitude of the problem.

It was in this context, that this study was undertaken to find out the scenario of crime committed against urban women in the national capital region of Delhi. The focus of this study is to find out the various types of crime committed and the legislations pertaining to such crimes. The study is a mix of literature search and a survey of women across age, economic and social groups in the city. The survey sample included 300 respondents.

**Table 1-Profile of Victims- By Crime 2012**

Cities	Delhi	Gurgaon	Noida	Ghaziabad	Faridabad	Total
<b>Base</b>	100	50	50	50	50	300
<b>Figures in %</b>						
<b>Eve teasing</b>	80	76	70	82	82	79
<b>Molestation</b>	9	12	-	6	10	8
<b>Harassment</b>	15	14	12	10	16	14
<b>Domestic Violence</b>	21	22	16	14	10	17

**Source:** - field survey by authors

On the whole it can be seen that out 300 victims surveyed 79 % have been victims of eve teasing at one time or the other in their life's , 8% were molested 14 % harassment at work and 17 % suffered domestic violence..

There is a considerable amount of legislative provisions at the national, state and city level. Crimes against women are broadly classified under two categories. The first category includes crimes identified under the Indian Penal Code (IPC), such as, rape, kidnapping and abduction, dowry homicides, torture-physical and mental, molestation, eve-teasing or sexual harassment, importation of girls, and murder (other than dowry homicides). The second category covers crimes identified under the special laws (SL), such as immoral trafficking, demanding dowry, and indecent representation of women. The environment of a city depends, to a considerable extent, on the socio-cultural and economic mix of the city population, its spatial distribution of income opportunities and living habitats, access to key urban services for movements within the city and undertaking all activities. The quality and strength of the protective services like the police and the laws to provide protection are other critical components that determine the safety dynamics of the city. As such, protection of women is a function of several interacting activities, which require being equally efficient in delivery of their services. All service providers have to interact positively among themselves to become an effective team that would ensure the safety of women.

The causative factors of a low level of safety environment in Delhi emerge from the city's population dynamics. Rapid urbanization and development become a magnetic pull factor for continuing migration, resulting in strong competitive environment for living and work space. This trend contributes to the expansion of the unsafe city environment, both for men and women, though the first target invariably becomes the women. A large migrant population is always considered to place an additional burden on the safety environment. Ignorance of laws and behavior practices in a fast moving urban situation, along with competition among the migrants to find a foothold in a new environment, both for habitat and income activities, invariably results in conflicts and brings to the fore the safety issue. Density of population is another component of the population dynamics that has to be addressed. Delhi has the highest density among all states/UTs in the country. Higher density results in congestion, which is an important contributing factor for facilitating the growth of crime against women.

Spatial dynamics adds to the problem of safety. Delhi is a classic example of integration of rural and urban lifestyles, upsetting expected urban behavior modes in modern cities. The city's area is also continually expanding, resulting in large spatial distribution of living and workplaces and substantial travel across the spatial spread. The comparatively inadequate public transport facilities, *a priori*, has an impact on the safety situation, due to congestion, overcrowding, and jostling to access to public services, among other factors. Women become a soft target in this process.

Economic dynamics further accentuates the situation. The economic growth has been considerably stimulated and sustained by the tertiary sector that contributes 71% to Delhi's GDP. This sector operates to a considerable extent through the informal economy, with levels of safety environment and practices which are lower than may be desirable in the context of safety of women. But the role of these economic activities cannot be overlooked in the context of Delhi's sustainability. The final component of the city safety dynamics is the social dynamics. Two critical social dynamic parameters are the literacy rate and the sex ratio. Women are at a clear disadvantage in Delhi in terms of these parameters. A low sex ratio, from the safety perspective, is a factor that enhances the level of insecurity for women. Delhi occupies the top place for reported crimes among 35 cities in India with million plus population, the share being 16.2%, as also in the rate of crime against women (27.6 per 100,000, compared to national average rate of 14.1). The crime mix includes rape, kidnapping, abduction, dowry deaths, cruelty, immoral traffic, molestation, sexual harassment, and eve-teasing. The following conclusions were drawn from the primary survey of victims in NCR in the year 2012. The highest percentage (31%) of victims was from the age-group 25-35.

**Table 2-Profile of Victims-Age wise**

Cities	Delhi	Gurgaon	Noida	Ghaziabad	Faridabad	Total
<b>Base</b>	100	50	50	50	50	300
<b>Figures in %</b>						
<b>15-25</b>	11	10	16	22	28	16
<b>25-35</b>	33	24	28	34	36	31
<b>35-45</b>	37	30	24	24	14	28
<b>45-55</b>	14	36	26	18	8	19
<b>55 and above</b>	5	0	6	2	14	6

**Source:** - field survey by authors

At an overall level, majority of the people were literate with the minimum level of education being, Primary education. The percentage of post graduate is maximum in Delhi and Noida. Around half of the victims (47%) have an annual income between one lakh and three lakhs.

About one third of the victims have annual income of less than one lakh. Across the cities it has been found that the birth place of victims was mainly rural. Across the cities, women have a nuclear family setup. In Gurgaon 34% of the victims have a joint family setup. On the whole it can be seen that out 300 victims surveyed 79 % have been victims of eve teasing at one time or the other in their life's , 8% were molested 14 % harassment at work and 17 % suffered domestic violence. Urban women of age group 25-35 more vulnerable to being victims of crime.

- Urban literate women are equally vulnerable to being victims of crime.
- Both rich and poor women are susceptible to being victims of crime.
- Eve teasing followed by domestic violence and harassment at workplace are very common crimes in the NCR region.

An important concern of women in Delhi is that the common factor in crimes against women is that these take place in public domain except for domestic violence, indicating absence of measures for safety of women in public places as well as lack of awareness or enlightenment among people to intervene when an incident takes place. Even from a cursory view of the study area it is very much evident that the cities of the Delhi, Gurgaon, Faridabad, Noida and Ghaziabad are all coming up with the best of amenities and infrastructure. And over the years literacy rates and sex ratio of these cities too have come up remarkably well. Now there are two facts related to crime. Firstly crime against women has risen over the years. Secondly such crimes are now affecting both rich and poor urban women. So now it is not possible to blame shabby environmental conditions are low literacy rate and low sex ratio for occurrence of such

crimes. Thus it is not just the living conditions that are responsible for the making of the criminals but mind set of the peoples that have created an environment that is unsafe for women. And this typical mindset is now permeating the whole environment of NCR. And thus crimes against women are on the rise with increasing population.

### **Recommendations**

Respect of women to be inculcated from childhood and schools and colleges need to include it in their syllabi of moral science or environmental science. Doing this would improve the status of women and create a friendlier environment for women to work and travel. Effective security has to be provided after 7 pm in the transport vehicles and work places and the journey terminals have to have a strong presence of security personnel, proper lighting, public amenities, and strict supervision of road vendors and service providers. It is vital to reduce density and congestion, in the work areas and informal economic activity zones. Ensure some minimal standards of security with respect to working women and amenities for them in their work place. Social awareness and sensitization should be a high priority program. It should cover the police personnel, citizens of Delhi, migrants to Delhi and the victims/prospective victims of crimes against women. Apart from providing knowledge and information, a component of training to face situations of crime has to be included. Training in self-defense techniques is another important requirement. Mere laws are not enough, but it is important to have proper and effective machinery for enforcement of such laws. Moreover, the co-operation of the people is also essential for the effective implementation of the social welfare legislations for which awareness about such laws should be created among the masses. Last, but not the least is to improve trust in the police so as the reporting of crime is not hampered.

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