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INDIA IN 1953

K. P. V. Nayar

1953 was, for India, a year of considerable internal progress towards the set goal of a welfare state and of increasing efforts to promote the cause of world peace.

A significant development has been the decision to increase the size of the Five-Year Plan of economic development, now in the third year of its operation, providing for the execution of more schemes to further step up public investment and thereby employment. According to the revised estimate, the expenditure on the Plan would be Rs. 22,440 million as against the original cost of Rs. 20,690 million. The new programme includes schemes for the promotion of cottage industries, educational expansion, the development of power and small industries, transport services, etc.

The shift in emphasis to increased investment has been made possible by the elimination of inflationary trends which were predominant when the Plan was first formulated. Prices now have shown a downward trend, thanks to the measures taken by the Government.

On the food front, India turned the corner during the year. The total food production increased by five million tons over the previous year's figure enabling the country to reduce her dependence on foreign nations. Imports on this account in 1953 were below 2.9 million tons as compared to 3.9 million tons in 1952.

Production of other crops has also gone up since 1951. Jute went up by 1.4 million bales, cotton by 390,000 bales and sugar-cane by 3 million tons.

The improvement in agricultural production resulted from better irrigation facilities made available by India's river-valley projects. These have brought under irrigation 1.42 million acres of new land. Additional power generated amounted to 315,000 kw.

One of the outstanding events, from a social point of view, has been the passing of the Estate Duty Bill by Parliament. The Act, which came into operation from October 15, provides for the imposition and collection of duty on the capital value of property changing hands on the death of a person subject to an exemption limit. Described as a milestone on the road to the social democracy that the people of India are trying to establish, the duty is at once a social leveller and a source of revenue.

Progress in land reforms was carried a stage further with more states enacting legislation for the abolition of zamindari (landlord system) and granting enhanced rights to tenants. A remarkable feature of the year was the commencement of the process of elimination of landlordism in the comparatively backward areas of Part 'C' States. Amongst these, mention may be made of Vindhya Pradesh, Bhopal, Himachal Pradesh and Delhi. A Special Division for Land Reforms Studies has been set up in the Planning Commission following the recommendations in the Five-Year Plan. The Bhoodan Yagna (Land-gift Movement) has quickened the pace of land redistribution. The movement has collected till now, over 2.3 million acres for assignment to the landless tillers of the soil. Legislation for the proper allotment and management of lands, given in gift, has been passed in Uttar Pradesh. Special bills for the purpose have been drawn up in many other states.

The Community Development Programme, launched in October 1952 with the object of developing the villages intensively and fostering self-help among the people, has helped in infusing a

new life in rural areas, while a more comprehensive programme, namely, the National Extension Service, was inaugurated in October this year. So far, nearly 30,000 villages have been covered by the Community Development Programme. During the remaining three years of the Plan, it is to be extended to another 90,000 villages, so that by the end of the five-year period, nearly a quarter of India's rural population will be covered by it.

A happy feature of the working of the Community Programme has been the tremendous enthusiasm that people have shown in it. The villagers have constituted themselves into Panchayats (Village Development Councils) for carrying out the scheme. They have worked voluntarily on constructing roads, digging tanks, building schools, hospitals, improving sanitation, opening out drains, reclaiming land and in multiples of other ways in order to make their own condition happy and prosperous.

Industrial production showed a marked increase during the year. The general index of output (base 1946 equal to 100) rose from 117.2 in 1951 to 128.9 in 1952. During the period January to August 1953, the average had been 133.6 as compared to 125.2 for the corresponding period in 1952. The production of cloth estimated at 4,700 million yards reached the target fixed for the fifth year of the Plan. The production of coal increased from 32 million tons in 1950 to 36.2 million tons, of cement from 2.6 million tons to 3.5 million tons and that of steel from 1,004,000 tons to 1,103,000 tons. Other industries which have made similar progress include heavy chemicals, pharmaceuticals, engineering industries, paper and paper boards, sewing machines, bicycles, rayon and jute goods and ball and roller bearings.

Capital-Labour relations improved considerably during the period. The Labour Advisory Committees in the States and the Tripartite bodies at the Centre were made use of for discussion and solution of various labour problems. The Employees' State Insurance Scheme, which was introduced in Delhi and Kanpur in February 1952, was extended to the Punjab in May 1953. Measures are under contemplation for accelerating the pace of implementation of

this scheme, which entitles an industrial worker to free medical attention and sickness, maternity, disablement and dependents' benefits. Towards the end of the year, Parliament passed the Industrial Disputes (Amendment) Bill providing for the payment of compensation to workers in the event of lay-off or retrenchment.

Many of the enterprises in the Public Sector have made remarkable headway. The production in the Sindri Fertiliser Factory, the largest of its kind in Asia, increased from 34,799 tons in 1951-52 to 230,000 tons in 1952-53. Efforts are now being made to step up its production so that the daily output would be 1,000 tons, the target fixed for it. A new coke oven is to be added to this factory at an estimated cost of Rs. 23.5 million. Chittaranjan Locomotive Works produced during the year 54 locomotives and a large number of coaches. In the case of wagons, the number manufactured between April 1951 and December 1952 was 8,000. The Hindustan Shipyard has, so far, built ten ships, while two more are on hand at present. The building of a third berth at the yard has also been completed, thus increasing its capacity. Among the projects that are nearing completion are the Penicillin and D. D. T. factories, the U.P. Government Cement Factory, the Machine Tool Factory, the Bihar Superphosphate Factory and the Nepa Newsprint Project. An agreement has been entered into with a German firm to set up a Rs. 712.5-million integrated steel plant which is expected to go into production in about 4 years.

Closely allied to the field of industrial production is the promotion of scientific research. Eleven national laboratories have already been set up and are now functioning in different parts of the country. The last two in this chain—the Central Electro Chemical Research Institute at Karaikudi and the Central Building Research Institute at Roorkee—were opened early this year, while the foundation of the Central Electronics Research Institute at Pilani, the first in a yet second chain proposed to be built by the Government, was laid in September. Plans are under way to start two more laboratories early 1954. These are the Central Salt Research Institute at Bhavnagar and the Silk and Art Silk Mills Research Institute at Bombay.

The year witnessed the completion of a 100 years of two of the major nationalised industries—the Railways and the Telegraphs. The first to celebrate the centenary was the former which covers a vast network of 34,123 route miles and operates as the single largest Government-owned undertaking in the country. The Indian Telegraph System, forming the second largest aggregate of public utilities, today boasts of 400,000 miles of telegraph, 26,000 miles of cable conductors and 245,000 miles of channel crossing.

The nationalisation of airways was another landmark in the history of the development of transport in India. Two corporations now run the services, internal and international.

A significant development in the sphere of education has been the launching of a Rs. 120-million scheme to spread literacy in the rural areas. The plan, which is also aimed at increasing employment, envisages the recruitment of 80,000 teachers and the establishment of 8,000 social education centres.

The introduction of free school and college education in Kashmir was an outstanding event. Compulsory primary education was enforced in more states this year. Reforms with a view to giving a vocational bias to secondary education have been suggested by the Commission set up by the Government to make recommendations for the reorientation of this stage of training. Schemes are now being drawn up to implement these. During the year, an Interim University Grants Commission started functioning to supervise and coordinate higher education in the country. The necessary bill for this is to be introduced in Parliament shortly.

Rehabilitation of displaced persons entered the final stage this year with the commencement of payment of compensation to persons from West Pakistan for the immovable properties left by them in that country at the time of partition. Even though the plan is known as "interim compensation", the major portion of the total compensation payable is being paid now and only a small percentage is being withheld for final payment. This last

instalment will be paid when the main compensation scheme is implemented as soon as negotiations with Pakistan are completed.

By the end of the year, almost the entire housing problem of evacuees from West Pakistan has been liquidated and attention is being shifted more and more to the Eastern region.

Politically the year was important for the inauguration of Andhra—India's tenth Part 'A' State and twentieth unit of the Union. It has been carved out from the predominantly Telugu-speaking districts of Madras State.

The coming into being of the new state has not as yet caused much pressing of other linguistic demands. Nevertheless, the Indian Government has set up a high-power commission to go into the whole question of reorganisation of states.

During the year, a commission was appointed to make recommendations with regard to modifications required in the present system of taxation and to suggest fresh sources of revenue. The last enquiry into taxation was conducted nearly 30 years ago, and since then far-reaching changes have taken place in the country's political and economic spheres. Two other commissions appointed earlier, *viz.* the Press Commission and the Backward Classes Commission have been making numerous enquiries and are expected to submit their reports early next year.

The year was remarkable for the increased attempts made by Indians in the climbing of the Himalayan peaks. An Indian Expedition conquered the hitherto unscaled 22,650-foot Panchchuli. Besides, the Indian mountaineers also took part in the successful Everest and Nun-Kun Expeditions organised by the British and the French respectively. The Nepalese-born Indian citizen Mr. Tensing Norkay was one of the two men to reach the summit of the world's highest peak, the other being Sir Edmund Hillary from Newzealand. To teach Indian youths the technique of climbing, the West Bengal Government has decided to establish an institute of mountaineering in Darjeeling district.

Korea bulked large in India's foreign affairs. One important development in the field was the acceptance by the belligerents of India's peace plan which had earlier been rejected.

India's efforts to find a bridge between the warring factions in Korea won recognition when both parties to the dispute agreed to invite her to be the Chairman of the Neutral Nations Repatriation Commission and provide the Custodian Force for guarding the prisoners-of-war refusing repatriation.

The election of Mrs. Pandit as the President of the U.N. General Assembly for its Eighth Session further emphasised the country's increasing role in world affairs.

Endeavours to promote the cause of freedom abroad were prominent among the Indian delegation's activities at the United Nations. Thanks to its intervention, the freedom of the Moroccans was entered for the first time as an objective in a resolution passed by the U. N. Political Committee. India also gave backing to an Arab-Asian resolution on Tunisia. Both these, however, were rejected by the General Assembly owing to the attitude of powers with colonial interests.

A resolution sponsored by India along with sixteen other countries on the treatment of people of Indian origin in South Africa was again adopted by the General Assembly by an overwhelming majority. It called upon South Africa, for the fourth consecutive time, to suspend her racial segregation laws and reappointed the Good Offices Commission which would again try to assist the Governments of South Africa, India and Pakistan to resume negotiations to settle the long-smouldering issue.

India's stand on this question has received yet another justification with the censure, by the U. N. Apartheid Commission, of the South African Government's racial policies. In the opinion of the Commission, the racial discrimination policy is opposed to the U.N. Charter, endangers internal social peace and may prejudice friendly relations among nations.

India's desire to maintain cordial relations with the countries of the Middle East was symbolised by the visit of the Indian Prime Minister to Egypt. On his way to and on his way back from Britain, Mr. Nehru had friendly talks with the Egyptian President. Besides, India signed during the year a trade and payments agreement with Egypt, and a trade and friendship treaty with Iraq and Muscat. The Indian Legation in Iraq was raised to the Embassy level. The goodwill tour of Indian ships to some of the ports of the Middle East countries and the participation of an Indian Services Swimming team in the International Championships in Swimming and Water-polo held in Egypt were memorable events. An air-service with Kabul *via* Lahore was inaugurated and a few Afghan air cadets received training in this country.

The ties of friendship with her neighbours in South-East Asia and the countries in Far East have been strengthened during the period. Mr. Nehru and the Burmese Premier together toured the North-East frontier area and a fresh trade agreement was reached with that country. Instruments of ratification of the treaty of friendship between India and Indonesia, which was signed in 1951, were exchanged this year. An Indian Art Exhibition was organised in Australia in January and a goodwill delegation consisting of three women members of Indian Parliament visited Japan. With the co-operation of the Indian Embassy, an Indian Cultural Exhibition was organised in Tokyo. An Indo-Japanese rifle meet was also held in New Delhi towards the end of the year.

Relations with the People's Republic of China, which have been friendly right from the day of the new government coming into existence, remained undisturbed. At India's suggestion, a Sino-Indian Conference is to be held shortly in Peking to discuss all outstanding issues between the two countries regarding Tibet. During the year, a non-official delegation of Indian artists and writers visited China.

With many of the nations on the European continent, India either concluded new trade agreements or renewed the

existing ones. The Indian Legation in Switzerland was raised to the status of an Embassy.

On the question of the French and Portuguese enclaves in India, there was, however, no settlement in sight. In protest against Portugal's refusal even to discuss their possessions, the Indian Minister was withdrawn from Lisbon. During the year, Prime Minister Nehru reiterated several times India's determination to liquidate these foreign footholds, but he at the same time affirmed the Government's intention to use only peaceful methods to secure this.

Indo-Soviet friendship was further cemented by the signing of a five-year trade agreement—the first of its kind—in December between the two countries. This was preceded by the successful tour of the Soviet Union by an Indian Art Exhibition sponsored by the Government of India. The series of exhibition matches played in that country by a Calcutta football club also contributed to the existing goodwill.

An important event in Indo-American relations was the visit to that country in June of the Indian Vice-President and the return visit paid at the end of the year by his American counterpart. Earlier, the U.S. Secretary of State also visited India. A series of agreements were signed during the first half of the year between the two countries under the Indo-American Technical Co-operation Programme for 1952-53 and under the supplementary Indo-U. S. Technical Co-operation Agreement of November, 1952. At the beginning of the year, an Indian Arts and Crafts Exhibition, sponsored by the Government of India, toured the prominent cities of the U.S.A.

An agreement relating to sterling balances was signed in July between the Indian and U. K. Governments. This would remain in force upto June 30, 1957. With the concurrence of the United Kingdom, India has appointed a Commissioner to the Gold Coast and Nigeria.

During his visit to London for the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference, Mr. Nehru had friendly discussions with the then Premier of Ceylon on the question of citizenship rights for people of Indian descent in that island. The problem is yet to be settled. Ceylon's new Premier has accepted India's invitation to visit New Delhi to have talks on the issue. An agreement regarding the import into India of Jaffna Tobacco was reached between the two countries in July.

India's endeavours to improve relations with her nearest neighbour, Pakistan, succeeded to a certain extent, and relations with that country had been, on the whole, friendlier than in any previous year. The two Governments agreed on a procedure for considering all outstanding issues and each Government appointed a Steering Committee to assist in the task. The operation of the passport and visa system was reviewed by the Indo-Pakistan Passport Conference held in New Delhi in January and the decisions of this Conference came into force from July 25.

Prime Minister Nehru had talks with the Pakistan Prime Minister in June while the two were in London. This was followed by subsequent meetings at Karachi and Delhi. During these talks, a variety of subjects were discussed in a frank and friendly manner. Decisions reached included one on Kashmir, providing for the appointment, formally by the Kashmir Government, of a Plebiscite Administrator by the end of April 1954. Another agreement arrived at related to exchange of enclaves between East and West Bengals.

During the year a number of conferences on movable evacuee properties, railway problems, etc., were held and agreement was reached on several important matters. India has now suggested the holding of another meeting to consider the question of immovable evacuee properties.

A five-man goodwill mission of the Federation of All-India Local Authorities also visited Pakistan in November.

As the year closed, India was the venue of an important international conference. The Colombo Plan Consultative Committee held its fifth meeting in New Delhi. India has been a member of the Colombo Plan ever since its inception. In addition to being a recipient of assistance, she has also been a donor country in the Plan.

PARLIAMENT IN 1953

Sadath Ali Khan, M.P.

IT was in December 1952, a few days before the new year started, that the Prime Minister of India, in a crowded House, rose to present the first Five-Year Plan to the representatives of the people. It was a historic occasion because, for the first time in the long and tumultuous history of this country the outmoded principle of *laissez faire* in economic affairs was discarded, and a new era of planned economy ushered in.

The Five-Year Plan is a vast document, compiled with great care and much assiduous labour, by the Planning Commission, under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister himself. The Plan has assessed the tapped and untapped resources of the country and has laid down the priorities for the development of these resources. It is estimated that India will be able to save, above consumption, to the extent of about 5 per cent of the total national income. Out of these savings a programme of development has been chalked out which is expected to cost about 80,000 million rupees consisting of both the private and public sectors. The public sector will spend about Rs. 20,690 million. The priorities in the public sector have been given to Agriculture, Irrigation, Power and other key industries. The Five-Year Plan has in fact laid the foundation for future socio-economic development of this country. It has deeply influenced the policy of Government in matters of administration and legislation. A casual glance at the proceedings of the Indian Parliament in 1953 will confirm this view.

During the year Parliament met twice. The Budget Session which began in the mild month of February ended in the middle of the dusty month of May. There were 72 sittings of the Budget Session and nearly 4000 questions were answered by the various ministers. In addition to the 22 Bills pending at the beginning of the session, 26 new Bills were introduced. But the passing of the General and Railway Budgets dominated the proceedings of the session.

The Railways in India are nationalised, and hence the income and expenditure is scrutinised by Parliament, before it is passed. A special feature of this budget is that a sum of Rs. 800 million are earmarked for the rehabilitation and development of the railways during the current year as provided in the Five-Year Plan.

The real finances of the Central Government, however, are shown in the General Budget, which is usually presented to Parliament on the last working day of February. The Budget gives a clear indication of the fiscal policy which the Government propose to adopt during the coming year. The discussions on the Budget are lively and usually highly critical of Government's actions and policies. In fact, this is the only chance which Members of Parliament get during the year of scrupulously examining each item of expenditure and making suggestions for improvements. It is worthy of note that the General Budget also reflects the policies laid down in the Five-Year Plan in that nearly the whole of the amount, this year, was allotted to development works.

Soon after the budget discussions were over the Air Corporation Bill was taken up. This Bill sought to nationalise the Air Lines and was ably piloted by the Communications Minister, who spoke in a quiet, convincing manner which put his critics at ease. On the whole the debate was lively, informative and interesting. It will not be out of place to mention here that the Air Lines in this country were running at a loss and Government had to subsidize them every now and again, to help

the companies. When these concerns again approached the Government for financial help, the Government thought it prudent to take over the Air Lines and pay reasonable compensation to the companies.

Another important piece of legislation passed by Parliament during this session was the Industries (Development and Regulation) Amendment Bill. This measure was introduced to make certain changes in the original Act in order to enable Government to direct the industrial development of the country. Mr. T. T. Krishnamachari, the Minister in-charge, assured the industrialists that he was not against private enterprises, and had no intention of interfering in their day to day affairs. Government, he added, however, was anxious to develop industries in the private sector according to the Five-Year Plan.

An interesting constitutional point was raised during discussions on the Indian Income-tax (Amendment) Bill in the Council of States. The Speaker of the House of the People had certified it as a Money Bill in which case the Council of States could only discuss the measure. It occurred to some prominent members of the Upper House that the Bill was in no sense a Money Bill and that their powers were being needlessly curtailed by the Speaker. In such circumstances, naturally, the legal pundits of both the Houses came to the forefront, and for days the lobbies of Parliament resounded with highly obtruse and recondite legal arguments. Finally, a purely legalistic matter became a highly controversial affair of privileges of the two Houses of Parliament. In the din and noise of the argument the main issue unfortunately was side tracked. The Prime Minister, ultimately, intervened and brought about some sort of a rapprochement between the contending parties. The legal points, however, still remain to be cleared. The notable feature of this dispute between the two Houses was that the Members on both sides, for once, discarded their party labels and united in two separate blocks representing both the Houses of Parliament.

The session ended with a statement by the Prime Minister on the international situation. He spoke in his usual calm and cool manner with the unfailing courtesy which has become the chief characteristic of his statements on international affairs. One could gauge the feeling of the House, and it will not be an exaggeration to say, that the entire House was one with him in his desire for world peace. As the Prime Minister developed his arguments in favour of peace and put forth the claims of the backward peoples of Asia and Africa, a House filled to capacity listened to him in rapt attention.

Parliament met again on August 3, 1953. It must be said in all fairness to our legislators that during this brief session of six weeks they passed two epoch-making legislative measures, the Andhra State Bill and the Estate Duty Bill.

The Andhra State Bill called into existence a new state on the basis of language and cultural affinities of the people living in that area. Formerly the new state formed a part of the Madras State. During the discussions, an occasional harsh word was spoken but on the whole the spirit of accommodation and good fellowship triumphed over the difficulties of the situation. The debate ended on a note of goodwill towards the new state and every one joined in paying tributes to Andhra leaders and wishing their new home all prosperity and success. The Home Minister, Dr. Kailash Nath Katju, piloted this Bill with great ability.

The levy of Estate Duty is something of a revolutionary measure in India. The Planning Commission had recommended that this duty be levied without much delay. The Bill had rough passage and as many as 52 amendments were accepted by the Government. There was much confusion during the debate and the legal brains were enjoying the game of picking out loopholes among the clauses like children catching butterflies in a holiday mood. The fact is that the original Bill which was brought before the House was amended to such an extent that it assumed almost a new shape. Perhaps those who drafted the

Bill did not take sufficient notice of the changed circumstances in the country.

When in 1948 this Bill was first brought before the House the country was governed by the outmoded Government of India Act of 1935. The Bill lapsed because it was not passed by the Constituent Assembly. Regardless of the fact that in 1950 the country was given a new constitution the same old Bill of 1948 was again brought before the present Parliament for enactment.

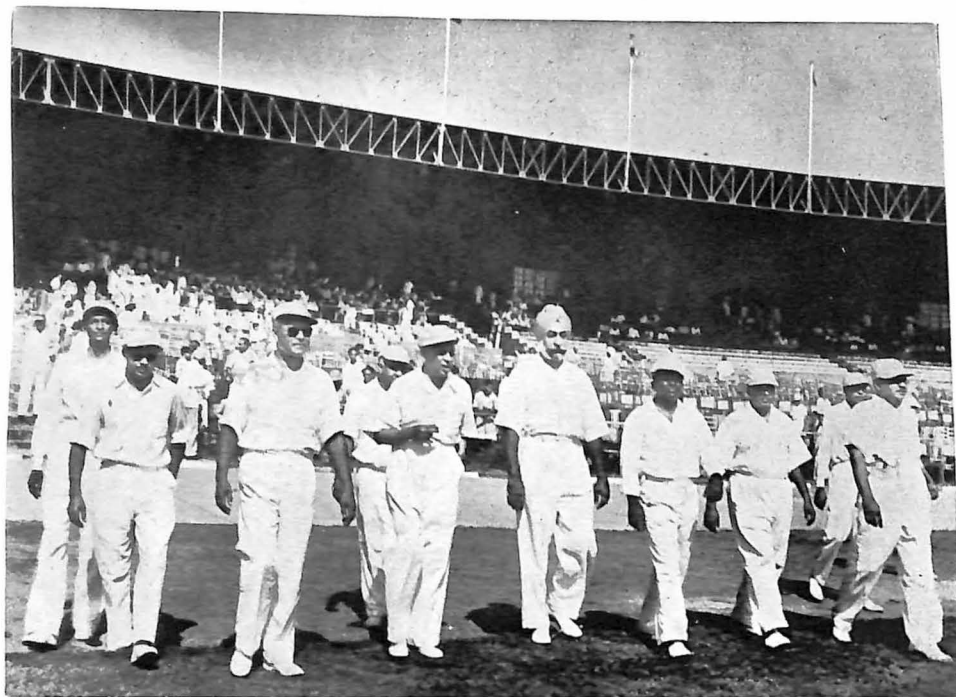
The Finance Minister Shri C. D. Deshmukh, who piloted the Bill, sat with his aides during long hours, patiently jotting down points, and answering critics good humouredly. His ability and acumen was appreciated by both sides of the House.

During this session the Members of Parliament showed considerable interest in the vast, menacing and deep-rooted problem of unemployment. The matter was raised in a resolution by the Communist members in both the Houses. The Government, on its part, was equally anxious to have the problem thoroughly investigated. In fact the Planning Commission is re-examining the Five Year-Plan to provide for greater employment in the agricultural and industrial sectors.

Speaking in the Council of States the Finance Minister admitted that it was difficult to properly assess the magnitude and character of unemployment because of lack of data. Even so a good deal of useful information emerged from the debates in the House of the People and the Council of States.

The M.Ps. have now departed to the four-corners of the country to enjoy a well-earned rest and visit their constituencies. So democracy functions and grows gaining experience and strength from day to day, not only in its triumphs but also in its mistakes.

This article will be incomplete without a reference to the lighter side of Parliamentary life in our country. During the



The Parliament Cricket Match in aid of the Flood Relief Fund was played at the National Stadium, New Delhi on September 12 and 13. The rival teams selected from amongst Members of Parliament were led by the Prime Minister, Shri Jawaharlal Nehru and the Vice-President, Dr. S. Radhakrishnan.

last Session, Indian Legislators made history by disporting themselves on the cricket field. The two-day match was played for charity and the gate-money went to the Prime Minister's Relief Fund. But it was an epoch-making event, chiefly because Mr. Jawaharlal Nehru captained one team and Dr. Radhakrishnan, Vice-President of India, the other. What is more, the Prime Minister appeared on the field and saved the honour of Harrow and Cambridge, by taking a very difficult catch on the second day of the match. He went in to bat also along with Comrade Gopalan, Leader of the Communist Party in the Parliament, but he was soon "morally out" to quote his own words.

The two teams represented all shades of opinion, and party affiliations for the time being were discarded in the larger interest of the game. This was indeed cricket. The crowd, full of jollity and fun, roared to see public men, great and small, running all over the place, a little out of breath. The Prime Minister wore a saffron-coloured county cap, the symbol of his team and Dr. Radhakrishnan a dark green one. It must be said that the game was taken quite seriously both by the distinguished players and those who came to watch it.

The Sunday Times of London felt that it could not let an event of such magnitude pass without an editorial comment. It said: "That Prime Minister Nehru, and the grave and revered philosopher Dr. Radhakrishnan should lead rival teams in a parliamentary cricket match, may baffle most of the rest of the world, but will seem perfectly comprehensible and admirable to Britons and Indians."

ECONOMY OF INDIA

D. H. Bhutani

DURING the last two years and a half—a period of slump and maladjustment in many countries—Indian economy has been in buoyant form. Record levels of output have been attained. Industrial production has risen by six to seven per cent over the levels of last year. Cereal output has increased by 5 million tons or $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent over 1951-52 ; and if the reports of bumper crops that are being harvested all over the country are correct, the country may well hope to attain the Planning Commission's target for 1955-56.

Two years ago the major objective of government was the containment of inflationary pressures and all that seemed possible was the restoration of the pre-war levels of consumption. Now, wider social objectives, such as full employment and community development, are being not only thought of but also actually striven for. Caution has given place to courage ; and the whole theory of governmental economics has undergone a change. "The test of any economic system now-a-days," the Prime Minister of India said in a recent speech before the National Development Council of the Planning Commission "is its ability to provide adequate employment.....We have to progressively aim at fuller employment." In a recent speech in Parliament, the Finance Minister of India said that the economic policy of the Government was "full steam ahead".

The Planning Commission has twice within the last two years raised the level of development expenditure. The Draft

Outline of the Five-Year Plan envisaged a development expenditure of about Rs. 15 thousand million with a provision for another Rs. 3 thousand million, if conditions were favourable. It was raised—first to nearly Rs. 21 thousand million and recently to over Rs. 22 thousand million. The revision of the Plan is due to a variety of factors. Food production has increased substantially. In cotton textiles and to some extent in sugar, the Planning Commission's targets have been attained. Raw material supplies for two of the major industries—jute and cotton—which were seriously affected by the Partition, have increased substantially : raw jute from less than 2 million bales (pre-Partition production for Indian Union territory) to nearly 5 million bales and raw cotton from two to three million bales. Industrial production—as compared to the pre-Partition level—has risen markedly by as much as 34 per cent. It is therefore difficult to resist the conclusion that the authorities, overburdened with the heritage of war and Partition, and harassed by persistent inflation, were somewhat over-cautious in their estimate of the inherent strength of the Indian economy. Indian Union territory is at present supporting a population at least 50 million larger than pre-war, with imports of foodgrains about the pre-war levels.

In this context, there is one significant change in the character of the Indian economy. The increase in industrial production is obviously due to deliberate decision and planning. But industry constitutes a comparatively small sector of the Indian economy. The large sector—that is, agriculture, which supports 70 to 80 per cent of the population—was for a long time a gamble in the monsoon. It is in this respect that the character of the Indian economy is changing, though slowly. The increase in foodgrain production which has brought the country nearer to its dream of self-sufficiency is due, partly, of course, to favourable monsoons. But not an inconsiderable part is due to the expansion of irrigation facilities, the reclamation of lands by the Central Tractor Organization, the large quantities of fertilisers being produced at the rate of one bag a minute at Sindri, and the introduction of improved agricultural practices (Japanese method of paddy cultivation). It can now be said, with a measure of confidence, unwarranted not

even three years ago, that with the river valleys getting developed, the rural masses of India are on the way to a fuller and richer life.

In industry also considerable development has taken place. To those of us brought up on "the values of '39" this country manufacturing—not on a small but fairly large-scale—whole locomotives, wagons, ocean-going liners, telephones, heavy chemicals fertilisers, power driven-pumps, diesel engines, electric motors and a wide variety of other industrial goods—is a dream come true. Details of industrial statistics show that there has been a general and substantial advance in practically all lines.

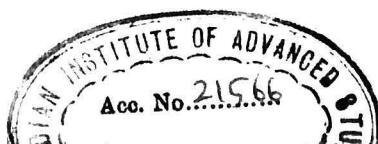
TABLE I

Industry	Unit of quantity	1947	1952	1953 (Annual rate)
Coal	Million tons	30.0 (100)	36.1 (121)	36.0 (120)
Finished Steel	'000 tons	893 (100)	1103 (123)	967 (108)
Cement	Million tons	1.4 (100)	3.5 (250)	3.7 (264)
Electricity	Billion Kwh	4.1 (100)	6.1 (109)	6.4 (150)
Power alcohol	Million gallons	2.7 (100)	7.7 (285)	8.6 (319)
Cloth	Million yards	3766 (100)	4598 (122)	4954 (132)
Paper	'000 tons	93 (100)	137 (147)	139 (150)
Matches	'000 cases	466 (100)	608 (130)	615 (132)

Industry	Unit of quantity	1947	1952	1953 (Annual rate)
Vanaspati	'000 tons	95 (100)	191 (201)	192 (202)
Sulphuric acid	'000 tons	60.0 (100)	96.0 (160)	95.6 (150)
Soda ash	'000 tons	12 (100)	44 (370)	56 (468)
Ammonium sulphate	'000 tons	21 (100)	220 (1097)	317 (1511)
Diesel engine	Number	684 (100)	4248 (621)	2388 (349)
Sewing machines	'000 nos.	5.9 (100)	50 (847)	58.5 (992)
Radio receivers	'000 nos.	3.0 (100)	71.5 (2383)	56.4 (1880)

Statistics of production, however, do not sufficiently indicate the potentialities of the economy, because substantial surplus capacities exist in many lines. Given sufficient raw material, the surplus capacity can be used to reach still higher targets of production or can be switched over to more essential lines in times of need.

With all this development over a period of about 5 years, it is not necessary to say that this country still seriously lags, in terms of productive power, behind the well-developed countries of the west, where national governments have had the opportunities for centuries to encourage investment in industrial development and agricultural techniques. A comparison, however, of the countries of South East Asia yields interesting results. During



three years ending April next, the countries covered by the Colombo Plan of Economic Development will have spent about £1,344 million of which India accounts for more than £800 million or nearly 60 per cent.

TABLE II
**Public authorities expenditure on development
1951-52 to 1953-54**

		In million £	Percentage to
Burma	...	57	4
Ceylon	...	70	5
India	...	805	60
Indonesia	...	143	11
Malaya & British Borneo	...	81	6
Pakistan	...	181	14
Total	...	<u>1337</u>	<u>100</u>

It is however not only in terms of material development that the country has made progress as indicated by its economic statistics. The policies of government have even in the eyes of its critics become progressive. The State Governments have during the last few years carried out land reforms, vesting rights in millions of hitherto dispossessed people. The Central Government has passed estate duty legislation and announced its first instalment of compensation to displaced persons from Pakistan.

It is but natural that we should take pride in the achievements of this country and the position it has attained in the political and economic life of Asia. But we should at the same time know how others judge us. Dean Appleby of the Ford Foundation carried out a survey of the policies and working of the Indian Government about a year ago. An extract from his general

appraisal of public administration in India reads as under : "Not Independence as popular self-government alone are the objectives, but such a government dedicated to achievement of mass welfare at a tempo never attained anywhere at the same stage of economic development. History provides no near precedent for what is being undertaken here..... One can approach and emerge from a study of the Indian Government therefore only with great admiration for what has been done and what is being attempted." Though this sounds somewhat too flattering, it is, to use Bradley's famous phrase, "the exaggeration of a vital truth".

INDIA FEEDS HER MILLIONS

A. R. Vyas

ALTHOUGH in terms of a balanced human diet, the bulk of the world's population can be said to be ill fed, the problem of food supply is essentially Asian. In India, the problem has been the same, *i.e.*, while the population has shown a rapid increase, food production till recently, had remained unchanged.

Normally, India has been deficient in her food supplies. Before World War II, she imported between a million and a half to two million tons of rice from Burma every year. Compared to the total foodgrain production in India, which averaged 42 million tons, the quantity of rice imports was small, but the incidence of these imported supplies fell on highly industrialised areas, or those which were heavily deficit in foodgrains. With the entry of Japan into the War, the stoppage of rice imports caused a gap in the overall supply and the pressure on transport, owing to the demands of the military, made the movement of food supplies difficult. The cumulative result of the war and the general monetary inflation, was a visible shortage of supplies in certain parts of the country and high prices. The Government met this situation by a comprehensive and rigid system of food control and rationing, described by an American Mission which visited India in 1946, as "the largest and most rigid system in the world". Its main features were control of foodgrain prices at the producer and consumer stage ; controlled distribution of supplies through rationing ; maximum imports of grain from abroad consistent with the requirements of the country and allocation of the total food

supplies, domestic and imported, under Central control. Till the end of the war, the system gave the consumer a minimum quantity of foodgrains at a reasonable price. It had serious drawbacks however. It met the requirements of about one-third of the population only ; the balance which consisted of the producers and other rural population had to fend for themselves. The price at which the Government could give supplies to the rationed population depended on the price at which the grain was collected from the producers, the price of imported grain and the extent to which Government could subsidise the sale of foodgrains to the consumer. It was becoming increasingly clear that whatever might have been the justification for such a policy during the war, it could not be maintained long under peace time conditions. The cost of imported grain and Government's subsidy constituted an oppressive burden on the country's financial resources. The cost of imported grain in 1946 was Rs. 761.1 millions ; in 1947 it had risen to Rs. 939.9 millions. Similarly the bill of subsidies had risen to Rs. 220 million a year !

The situation was bad enough, but it worsened with the partition of the country in 1947. The Indian Union received 82 per cent. of the total population of undivided India with a cereal production of only 75 per cent. This was the dismal position which faced the country when it attained independence in 1947. The increase of population was so frightening, the poverty of the people so endemic and the production trends so discouraging that even to preserve the *status quo* seemed a colossal problem. Undaunted, the new Government faced it. They saw that the solution lay in increased production.

A stop-gap plan for stimulating the production of foodgrains was immediately put into operation. It consisted of a series of short-term projects like reclamation of land, minor irrigation and supply schemes like the distribution of improved seeds, manures and fertilizers. It is estimated that the total production potential created by these various schemes between 1947-48 and 1950-51 would be about 3.4 million tons of foodgrains. The total expenditure incurred by the Union Government on this increased

foodgrains production drive, amounted to about Rs. 130 million per annum compared to Rs. 39 million a year spent by the government before independence.

In 1951 when the First Five-Year National Plan came into operation, India's cereal production was 41.78 million tons. The planners aim to increase this by 7.6 million tons by the end of 1955-56. Sustained efforts are being made to increase irrigation, to build up soil fertility and to improve the machinery through which the farmer is assisted and guided. The total amount proposed to be spent during the first five years is Rs. 5,614 millions for irrigation and power and Rs. 3,604 millions for agricultural and rural development, out of a total budget of Rs. 20,690 millions.* The break up of the additional 7.6 million tons is as follows :

Through major irrigation	...	2.0	million	tons
„ minor irrigation	...	2.38	„	„
„ land reclamation	...	1.51	„	„
„ fertilisers and manures	...	1.14	„	„
„ improved seeds55	„	„

From this must be deducted about half a million tons, being the reduction as a result of diversion of land to commercial crops.

What has the plan achieved in the sphere of agricultural production ? The following figures speak for themselves :

<i>Production in thousand tons.</i>		
1951-52	...	42,440
1952-53	...	47,584

The increased cereal production is reflected in an improvement in the food situation in the country. Against the total

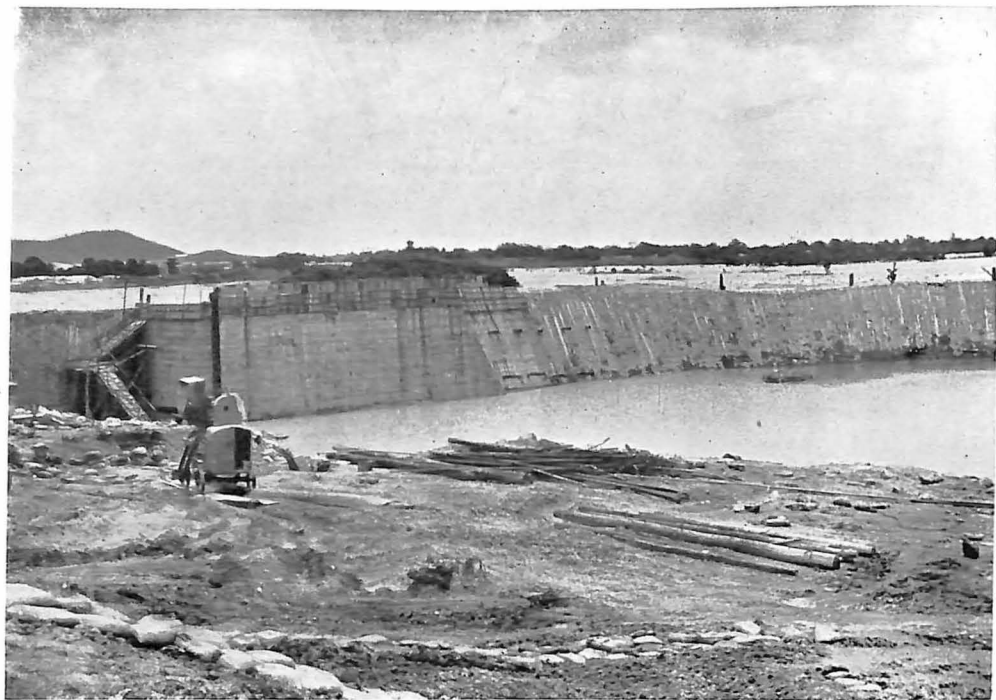
imports of 4.7 million tons of foodgrains in 1951 and 3.8 million tons in 1952, imports in 1953 have been only 2 million tons. During the current year (1954) if the weather behaves, the need for imports will be even less. The rigidity of controls has been greatly relaxed, and the number of people statutorily rationed which once stood at 46 million is now less than 20 million. The only cereal on the ration is rice, as against all foodgrains which were on the ration only two years ago. After 10 years of food scarcity and rationing, it has not been easy for the people to adjust themselves to the prospect of freedom. There have been complaints and criticism that with relaxation of controls, food prices have gone up. This criticism is based on an imperfect understanding of the position. There are seasonal variations of agricultural prices owing to difficulties of transport in the villages, and other reasons. When food controls were more extensive, the seasonal fluctuations of prices did not lead to complaints because of the food ration shops. The experience of the last few months however shows that by and large, consumers prefer freedom of choice in their food, even if it means a higher price. Rationing and subsidies have no place once the free demand can be met at prices close to the production costs. That point has been reached in all cereals except rice. By next winter, even rice supplies might be sufficient for the ration cards to be scrapped finally.

The optimism generated by the increased agricultural production during the last two years has to be tempered by a realisation of the fact that despite the enormous developments in irrigation, nearly 80 per cent. of the land is dependent for its production on timely and adequate rainfall. Although the monsoon never fails over the whole of India, it may fail over a wide area and condemn millions of people to hunger and starvation. This happened in Madras State for years in succession and in Bihar in 1951. And until man has acquired the knowledge and power necessary to move clouds and bring down rain, local monsoon failures will continue to threaten the Indian farmer. But there are good years as well as bad, and governmental efforts are directed to increase the effect of the first and reduce the incidence of the second.

It has also to be remembered that the additional cereal production to be achieved by the end of the Five-Year Plan, will just ensure to the increased population barely the same *per capita* availability from internal production alone, as was enjoyed by the population in 1950 from internal as well as imported supplies. The problem of feeding India's millions is therefore a continuous one. There is ample evidence to show government's determination to solve it, but that means years of effort to provide the technical and economic resources to raise the standard of living of the rural population. Till that is achieved, the problem of feeding India will continue to remain a "gamble in rains".

* Foot Note to Page 26.

The total cost of the plan has now been raised to Rs. 22,440 millions as against the original cost of Rs. 20,690 millions.



HIRAKUD PROJECT—A view of the right flank wall.

INDIAN RIVER VALLEY PROJECTS

G. P. Jain

DROUGHT and floods constitute India's main tragedy. Often there is drought in parts where the rains are greatly needed, where without water green fields turn into deserts, and, men, women and children die of hunger or have to leave their homes in search of work and food, and cattle are sold away or killed for want of fodder.

Last summer I saw in the Bikaner villages (in north-central India) rows of locked houses whose starving owners had fled with their families to the neighbouring towns or Government-started work projects to earn a subsistence wage. The rains had failed for three successive years; not a blade of grass grew on the parched, dust-swept soil.

But in Bihar (in eastern India) during the same months the mountain rivers spilled over their banks and inundated miles upon miles of crop area rendering thousands homeless and without means. Damage worth millions of rupees was done.

To meet this twin challenge of Nature, the Government of India after independence directed its main attention to irrigation and power projects to provide adequate and regular supply of water for increased food production and electricity for industrialization.

In 1947 only six per cent of the river waters was used and 94 per cent flowed into the sea. While vast quantities

of the life-giving water were available and not used, four-fifths of the country's area under cultivation remained unirrigated, fit only for catch crops !

Prime Minister Nehru, realizing the imbalance of the resources and the meagre use they were put to, said: "Let us think of the mighty resources of India, which if harnessed and utilized for common good, can change the face of India and make her great and prosperous."

A dozen multi-purpose and nearly 100 minor irrigation projects were started by the Government after 1947. A multi-purpose project has three major ends in view—to provide irrigation facilities, control floods and generate electricity.

At suitable points across a river dams are built and water is captured in vast reservoirs so that at flood time surplus water can be diverted into the reservoirs from where a regular supply of water into the fields is maintained through a network of waterways or canals.

At points where water falls from a precipice power plants are installed to produce electricity. The *per capita* production figure for India at present is very low—14 k.w. hours as against 376 for Japan, 1,100 for U.K., 2,029 for Sweden, 2,207 for U.S. and 3,905 for Canada.

To modern industry electricity is indispensable. On the farm it can be used in a number of ways—for grain grinding, cream separators, milk sterilizing equipment, rice hulling, flour milling, pressing oil, sugarcane crushing and cotton ginning. Electricity can provide cheap power for pumping water for irrigation and other agricultural operations.

The extensive use of electricity in rural communities together with power-operated cottage industries which may meet the competition of the mill-made goods will, it is hoped, revolutionize the rural life and stop the exodus of population to the cities.

The other benefits from the river projects are: development of internal navigation which would relieve pressure on the railways; facilities for soil conservation; afforestation; fish culture; provision of drinking water; and development of recreation resorts.

More than one-fourth of the total cost (Rs. 20,690 million) of India's Five-Year Development Plan is earmarked for irrigation and power projects. The area under irrigation is expected to increase from 50 million acres to 76 million acres at the end of the five-year period and total food production by 7.6 million tons.

Electric power is expected to rise from 1.4 million kilowatt hours in 1947 to 2.8 million k.w. hours at the end of the Plan period (1951-1956) and 3.2 million k.w. hours after the projects started during the five-year period are fully developed.

The results achieved in the first two years well justified the hopes of the planners. At the end of 1952-53, 1.42 million acres of new land was brought under irrigation and additional power generated amounted to 315,000 k.w. hours.

A brief description of the major river projects in hand is given below to give an idea of the ambitious undertaking of the Government.

(1) Bhakra Nangal Project : The biggest under the Plan it will consist of a 680-foot concrete gravity dam, the highest in the world, to store the flood waters of the Sutlej. The reservoirs will have a live capacity of 5.6 million acre feet (enough to cover 5.6 million acres by one foot of water) and will be linked with 580 miles of irrigation canals and 2,100 miles, of distributaries coursing through three states—Punjab, PEPSU and Rajasthan. Nearly 3.6 million acres will be irrigated.

The total installed power capacity of the project will be 1,200,000 k.w. The project is estimated to cost about

Rs. 1,560 million. During construction the waters of the Sutlej will be diverted through two 50-foot diameter gigantic tunnels (biggest in the world), one on each side of the river, which are nearing completion.

(2) Damodar River Valley Project: It consists of light storage works with hydro-electric installations, an additional thermal plant of 200,000 k.w., a power transmission grid and an irrigation barrage with canals and distributaries.

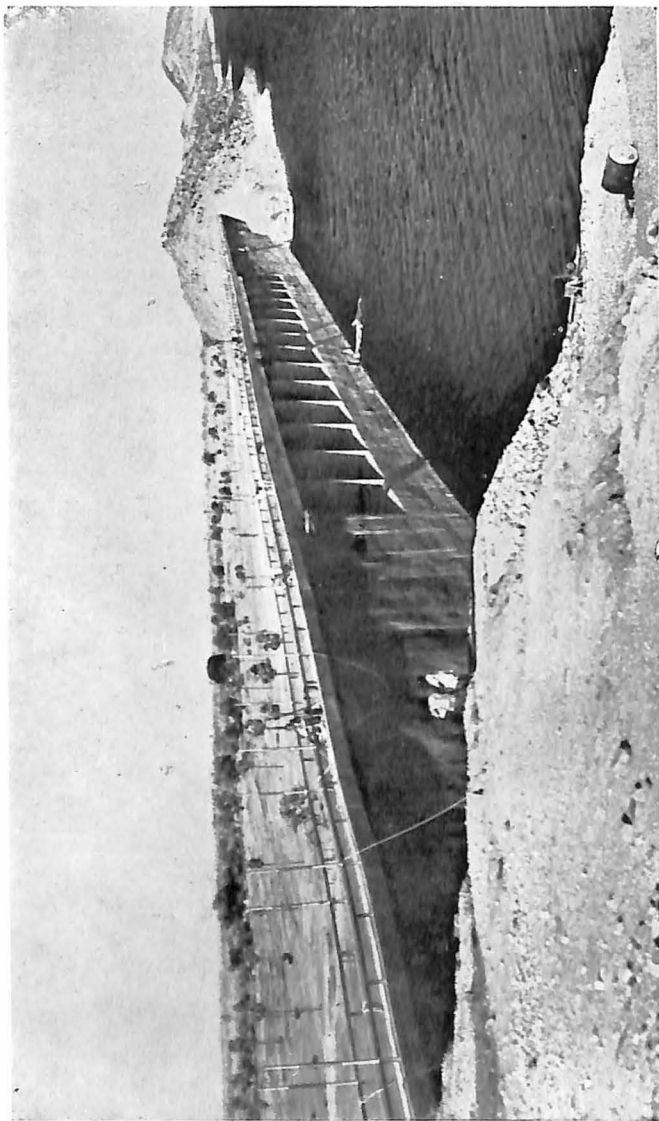
The first phase envisages the construction of four dams at Tiliya (completed and inaugurated by Prime Minister Nehru in February 1953), Konar, Maithon and Panchat Hill at a cost of about Rs. 800 million. Over one million acres of land will be irrigated. The scheme will benefit the states of Bihar and West Bengal.

(3) Hirakud Project: It consists of a three-mile long dam across the Mahanadi in Orissa with irrigational canals and two power plants. It will irrigate two million acres of land and produce 200,000 k.w. hours of electricity. The additional food production due to irrigation is estimated at 735,000 tons of foodgrains and 297,000 tons of sugarcane. The project will cost Rs. 920 million.

(4) Tungabhadra Project: It comprises a dam and two canals irrigating 700,000 acres in Andhra and Hyderabad. The installed power capacity will be 23,000 k.w. during the first five years, 30,000 k.w. in the succeeding five years and 45,000 k.w. thereafter.

(5) Lower Bhavani Project: A 122-mile long canal taking off from the reservoir will irrigate 207,000 acres annually in Coimbatore district in Madras State.

(6) Mayurakshi Project: It will irrigate 600,000 acres in West Bengal, resulting in increased yield of 300,000 tons of paddy and 50,000 tons of other crops.



A view of the Tilaiya Dam, (D.V.C.) which has been completed.

(7) **Karakpar Project:** It provides for the construction of a 2,170-foot long and 150-foot high weir on the river Tapti, 50 miles upstream of Surat in Bombay State. Nearly 850 miles of canals and distributaries will irrigate 650,000 acres annually. The yield is expected to rise by 160,000 tons of foodgrains and 15,000 tons of cotton.

After these and other projects are completed, it is hoped that not even the Bikaneri of sandy Rajasthan will be compelled to leave his home with his wife and children and live a nomad's life during the summer months. Food production will increase, drudgery of the village life will be eliminated and the country's industrial output will grow.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS IN INDIA

“INQILAB ZINDABAD” rent the air and reverberated in the sky as voices in millions rose to greet the mid-night bell that tolled the advent of freedom on the fateful night of August 15, 1947. Alien rulers gone, people had to take charge of the country, People’s servants who were recruited by a colonial administration had to be rechristened and baptised for the new motivation. People’s representatives who bled and sweated in the battle for freedom had to be reoriented to take reins afresh, this time, for a more exacting but a thrilling new task—the task of clearing the debris of past centuries, exorcising the ghosts that haunt the scarred field, and building afresh the foundation of a “New India” for which the waves of the ocean and the snows of the Himalayas girdling her frontiers, have been crying for a thousand years and more. The people of India, the teeming masses who have been the dumb victim of the cyclonic coming and fading of new empires had to be awakened to the new reality—the reality of the dispelling of a nightmare, of the rights and obligations in the new-found freedom. The next task was to bring the three together—the people, people’s representatives and the people’s servants in a tripartite movement each doing its individual assignment yet locked arm in arm to the final destiny—“New India”—“New World”—the “New Horizon”.

The Five-Year Plan was designed to be the first organised effort of the Indian Government to build the country

on the willing consent of her people. The plan proceeded : building dams across whimsical and mighty rivers, harnessing the water for irrigation, for light and power to the countryside rehabilitating railways which had gone into disrepair due to the wear and tear of World War II, building trunk roads for supporting communications, housing for industrial workers, providing minor irrigation and other allied facilities for speeding up the "Grow More Food" campaign and then providing for education and health facilities to the teeming millions. Giant earth moving machines went into action. Big factories and spacious research laboratories began to spring up like islands in a dream. But the people for whom the plan is meant were nowhere about. The mansion was in the making. But the foundation was still in the air, for a country stands not on the buildings, parks and boulevards but on the shoulders of the men, women and children who dwell therein. The realisation came. A new plan had to be drawn—The plan on the Missing Link—the People. The plan had to be such as would have a content, material, intellectual and spiritual all combined in one. It was to be of the people, by the people, for the people. The quest led to the Community Project—an addendum to India's Five-Year Plan yet really a foundation to it. It is the "dynamo providing the motive force behind the Five-Year Plan" was the message with which the Prime Minister of India christened the new scheme.

The Community Project scheme started simultaneously in all the States in 1952. The day of inauguration was October 2, the birthday of the "Soldier without the sword"—Mahatma Gandhi—Father of the Nation. 55 Projects were launched, each covering a population of about 200,000 spread over approximately 300 villages divided in three blocks together or spread out as conditions dictated. The cost of a project was estimated originally at 6.5 million rupees which was reduced to 4.5 million rupees based on experiences immediately following inauguration. About 8% of this expenditure was agreed to be met by the United

States Government under the Technical Co-operation Agreement. The U.S. aid is to pay for import of transport vehicles, earth moving, audio-visual, and allied equipment needed in the projects which are not available from indigenous sources. It also includes technical assistance as and when desired to supplement our limited technical resources for the implementation of the rapidly expanding programme.

On the material side the programme includes assistance in agriculture, such as provision of better seeds, compost manure, commercial fertilizers, improved implements and improved cultural practices, promotion of fruit and vegetable gardening, reclamation and terracing of land, consolidation of fragmented land holdings etc., in animal husbandry—the promotion of pedigree birds, cattle, sheep and fisheries, artificial insemination and qualified veterinary aid ; in irrigation the provision of wells, tanks, tube-wells, small dams, mechanical lift from rivers and streams ; in communications, the building of feeder and village roads, bridges, culverts and causeways, promotion of mechanical and animal transport ; in public health—the provision of drinking water, drainage, environmental sanitation and anti-epidemic measures, medical aid to the ailing, ante and prenatal aid to mothers and children ; in village industries—provision of improved skill, tools and implements to existing artisans, training of new artisans and promotion of food processing and other allied industries to cater for the optimum regional self-sufficiency in matters of day to day rural needs ; in housing—the promotion of better housing in villages, admitting more air and light, clearing of slums, promotion of parks and playgrounds for children and adults, community halls such as library and panchayat ghars, mandi centres which will provide marketing and storage facilities while housing medical, veterinary, educational and administrative services alongside ; in education—expansion of Primary and Secondary education, imparting of craft bias and manual skill as an integral part of the new curriculum ; promotion of social education which includes besides adult literacy, programme for indigenous sports and congregations round common

folk-lore viz. bhajans, kirtans, kavi darbars, mushairas, dance music and recitation and lastly, co-operation and panchayat movement to weave the community afresh both for civic and economic purposes around common activities provided for in the project.

The multi-purpose approach, as indicated above, has been designed to fill the void which has been yawning progressively wider in the life of rural India during recent decades because of the one-way traffic in mind and materials which had been proceeding without respite towards the commercial and law and order—maintaining towns and cities provided by the alien rulers unwittingly thrusting a mode of life foreign to the soil. The one-way traffic had to be reversed into one of reciprocity between the towns and villages. The immediate need is increased production especially in the primary food sector. Production needs healthy arms willing to exert for the effort. The material approach to the body of our life in the villages has perforce, therefore, to be of an indivisible multi-purpose character. The present gaps wide as they are needed quick hormone injection if they were to fill up from within rapidly enough to activate the movement for the great onward march.

On the mental side the programme has been equally comprehensive. As already indicated above, there is provision for an enormous expansion of education for children and adults alike. The field for mental gymnastics is also there open on all sides. The planning of the programme for each one according to needs and capacity, and yet all pulling on together is vested in the community. Be it in the cropping and irrigation pattern for individual fields or the siting of the village school, library of Panchayat Ghar, the building of roads, the siting or medical or veterinary facilities, the final decision rests on the individual as expressed conjointly through the Gram Bikash Mandal (village development body) and finally through the Project Advisory Committees which include besides the village representatives, the spokesmen of

the region in the district board, the State Legislature and the nation's Parliament. Government servants are also there, from the village-level worker up to the Administrator—the Collector of the District—who is the top representative of the Government at the District Level. The plans as emerge from these joint deliberations from the grass roots up to the District level are sent up to the Central Government through the State Governments at the State Headquarters, to receive further expert scrutiny and then eventual integration with the overall plan of the State and Central Governments.

On the spiritual side a unique challenge faces the tripartite movement. The programme for its implementation depends on the willing integration of the three agencies making up the whole. The people, the people's representatives, and the people's servants have to work together as a unit at every stage and every link of the programme. Government finances being limited, and it is perhaps a great blessing in disguise that it is so, people have to supplement the resources placed by Government with those of their own in cash, kind and labour all combined. People's representatives who have all too over-powering a natural gravitation towards individual survivals have to sink their personal feelings and ambitions, and join the chorus if the echo of the right amplitude is to be evoked from amongst the people whom they are supposed to represent and whose trust and faith alone they can stand upon, in the chequerboard of the ballot box hereafter. This means as a logical corollary that people's representatives in office or without, have at all levels to think together and act together and move as a single chain surrendering, at times to drastic limits, individual wills and wiles to the mass-will as represented by the single line movement.

On the side of the people's servants a similar phenomenon has to repeat with precision if the chorus is not to misfire into a chaos. Government servants who had hitherto functioned in their ivory towers in splendid isolation from the people that they governed, have to undergo a radical

orientation if they are to play the new role of serving the new Master—the People of “New India”. The individual approach to the villager who constitutes over eighty per cent of India’s 365 millions, by multiple functionaries of Government each presenting a separate front had to be replaced by a multipurpose approach through a single functionary strictly in line with the multi-purpose objective of the scheme.

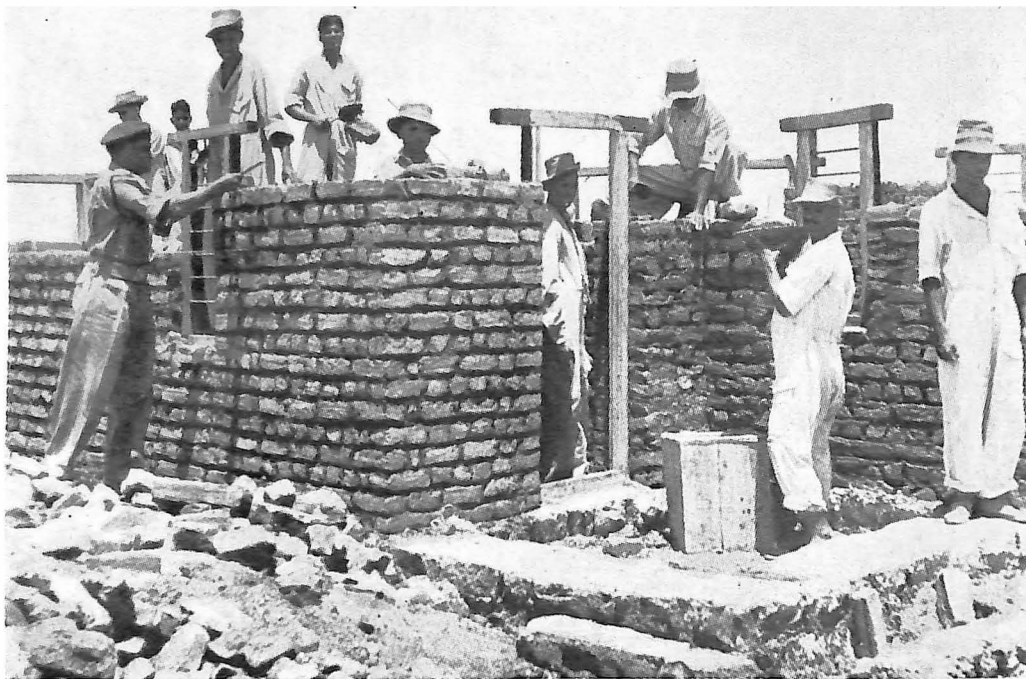
The functionary, known popularly as the Village-Level Worker or gram sevak, is normally a young person with basic training in agriculture, but specially oriented in methods of extension primarily in fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, public health, co-operation and social education. He also receives rudimentary training in cottage and village industries. The period of training because of the emergent need of the programme has been limited to six months. There are thirty-four training centres on extension already established in the country which are turning out about two thousand trainees at a time. More than two thousand trainees have already been trained. Apart from the extension centres, there are about one hundred basic agricultural training centres spread out in different States about half of which are already in operation, the rest in the process of being established. According to the present scheme there will be ten village workers in a block of 100 villages with a population of sixty to seventy thousand.

At the block level, there is a Block Development Officer who is in administrative charge of the individual programme. He is assisted by a team of individual specialists—specialised in agriculture, animal husbandry, co-operation and Panchayats, public health, rural engineering and social education. In the last field there is one man and one woman, the latter being responsible for cultural movement amongst women.

The Block Development Officer for the present is responsible to the Collector of the District, the specialists being connected with their counterpart at the District level. The Collector is

responsible for the programme to the Development Commissioner and the District specialists to their counterparts at the State level. The Development Commissioner is responsible for the programme to the State Development Committee headed by the State Chief Minister with Ministers of all Development departments as members of the Committee. At the Central level the functionary responsible for the programme is the Central Administrator. He in turn is responsible to a Central Committee headed by the Prime Minister.

Special training programme in extension and the multipurpose approach is also being conducted for functionaries other than the village-level workers. The Social Education Organizers are receiving a five-month special training. There are five centres already functioning on the subject with nearly two hundred trained workers already working in the field. Training facilities also exist for health specialists. These centres are in the process of being developed. These will start around the first week of December 1953. Apart from these, special 6—12 weeks orientation is provided in the extension centres to all other subject-matter specialists. A scheme for the training of Block Development Officers is already under way. Orientation and periodic seminars are a common feature for in-service supplementary orientation to all staff from the village level worker to the Development Commissioner and for the subject-matter specialists throughout the line. Coordination is thus achieved at all levels between all Development agencies—without coercion, and the single line command and the effort accompanying it reaches the individual villager on the primary decision originally emanating from him. It will be readily seen that the implementation of the programme and its progress from stage to stage and facet to facet has constituted for "New India" a yardstick for the measurement of administrative and technical efficiencies, of coordination and integration of the people's programme between the people, the people's representatives and the people's servants in the actual field of battle—the battle with sand, sweat and mortar—the mighty levellers of castes and classes—the arch enemies of India till today.



A HYDERABAD COMMUNITY PROJECT: Military personnel helping the Project Authorities in building houses in Bhagyanagar—a new village in the Munirabad Project Area to rehabilitate those families whose land and houses will be submerged by the Tungabhadra waterspread after its completion.

The first set of projects has already passed the first year mark. What does it show? 165 Blocks which were conceived during mid-1952, started on October 2, 1952 have already expanded by October 2, 1953 into nearly 500 Blocks of which the equivalent of nearly 275 Blocks are of the original pattern and about 225 are of a slightly less intensive type currently known as the National Extension Service—less intensive type because the people's demand for wider coverage exceeds the current resources of the State, financial and otherwise. The expectations are that the National Extension Service will cover the country as a whole in a maximum of eight years, and the more intensive type which includes mainly a heavier works programme, will be superimposed subject to the development of our resources and availability of foreign aid, to cover the country in twelve to fifteen years. During the current Five-Year Plan the programme is to have 1200 blocks of National Extension Service covering a fourth of the total rural population of which around 700 will be of the more intensive type. The concept of the community project which was started as an experiment a little over a year ago is already in the process of transformation into a new Development administration in the permanent organisation of the National Extension Service, which in turn is already being designed to be integrated with the existing administration in the law and order and revenue biased state. How did it become possible? The answer lies in the fact that the slumbering masses of India's villages rose en masse as if by a magic wand. They have already contributed in cash, kind and labour an amount which in substance exceeds the total expenditure incurred today by Government. As a single example, on the birthday of the Prime Minister, November 14, 1953, which was celebrated as the children's day in all project areas, the people made a presentation to the Prime Minister, in the form of schools, libraries, land for schools, equipment and accessories for games and sports which exceeded four million of rupees in value. They can do still more but the age-old Government machinery designed originally for a different purpose, clogged and rusted in the vital joints, is yet not fully ready to match and cope with the people's effort. The same applies to the people's representatives. Great as their effort was in fighting against the alien ruler, the new phase of constructive

activity which demands disciplined intelligence and concerted outlook on the national level is yet to grow. It has to be an organic development, for we have banned the use of force. The mind of man, therefore, has to find a new level on its own. Hormone treatment on this field has inherent risks. Therefore, the effort has to be hard but progress perforce slow and gradual.

The Welfare State conceived in the Constitution of "New India" is the objective of the new quest and effort. If it succeeds, and it must, it will be India's own contribution to the field of extension. She would then have enlarged the agency and concept of extension not merely to serve an economic or a political end but for harmonising the body, mind and spirit of the individual into a new blend. The blend will have to be based on the logic of the present age and the cultural moorings of India such as can spread out with open arms up to the distant horizon.

(By a farmer's son)

SOCIAL WELFARE IN INDIA

Mrs. Durgabai Deshmukh

INDIA'S declared objective is the attainment of a Welfare State. That means that we shall steadily strive to work for bringing about conditions of life that will assure every citizen freedom from want and a fair share in the necessities of life. In other words, a reasonable standard of life will be ensured to each as this will be the birth right of every individual to enable him or her to have full opportunities to lead a complete life.

This great sub-continent has awakened from its deep and long slumber of centuries and it is again regaining slowly but steadily something of its own initiative, strength, vitality and power. Let it not be forgotten, however, that new India has to be built out of the immediate past which has left its deep scars.

The social structure in India is a product of long historical evolution. Evolved over several thousand years it has the impact of other cultures and civilizations. For centuries social reformers have tried to deal with social evils, sometimes aided and accelerated by social legislation. But social reform and legislation by themselves are not adequate because of the organised resistance of vested interests and orthodoxy. What is now required is a dynamic approach, harnessing public consciousness in this effort and at the same time educating the public and creating in them an awareness to realise the need to tackle these problems of social evils relating to social

inequalities, social health, social defence, vulnerable groups etc. A dynamic approach is required to bring about a changed outlook and philosophy to deal with these social problems and to work for common welfare; an approach based on proper determination of objectives to be achieved speedily with a devotion to high purpose, discipline and efficiency and concerted action towards planned progress.

India's First Five Year Plan which is also the first attempt towards planned economy for the country, having recognised the importance of social services in general and social welfare in particular, has rightly given the lead to all agencies, at Central, State, Local and voluntary levels, in the vital spheres relating to the welfare of women and children, family welfare, community organisation and youth welfare as also in combating social vice, delinquency and crime with measures of social defence and correctional administration. In the past, welfare services have been the special field of private agencies and recent investigations have revealed the existence of more than 10,000 known institutions with different programmes of social welfare. With all the best talents, intentions, and efforts put in they did serve a very real need in the respective fields so far. But it must be admitted that most of the institutions are unorganised and are unable to carry on their activities faced as they are with the complexity of factors peculiar in modern society. The situation called for careful analysis and two important factors emerged :—

Firstly, the goal is the attainment of a Welfare State. The State, at the Central, regional and local levels, has to bear the burden of undertaking major tasks of social welfare either because they are of a specialised nature or because these services have to benefit a large section of the community. Barring such fields, however, social welfare services must be sponsored and actively worked by voluntary organisations. Private individuals must come forward with their cooperation. While this was one way of drawing in the voluntary worker and making him realise his responsibility to the community, it

was also the chief means of promoting private charity and philanthropy, and encouraging a spirit of service and sacrifice.

Secondly, while accepting the above, it was at the same time necessary to realise that these voluntary agencies must be given guidance and assistance. These are two-fold: one was to help them to better organise the programmes and activities in the light of the recommendations contained in the Five Year Plan, provide for supervision and training, and set up better standards and techniques. The second way in which assistance was to be given was to make available financial aids. This was necessary since the sources of large private incomes have virtually dried up with the social and economic changes that have, of late, taken place in the country and are still taking place.

Bearing in mind the above two factors, the Five Year Plan provides plenty of opportunities for public partnership. Indeed, the Prime Minister of India has repeatedly emphasized the need of an "imaginative and objective approach to the problems of the welfare of the people so as to make them realise that they are partners in a tremendous undertaking, in a great adventure." This is true particularly in the field of social welfare. Private sectors have been informed that social welfare services are their major responsibility; that deserving institutions will be given financial assistance for which a provision of Rs. 40 million has been made in the Plan; definite standards have been set up for these organisations to reorientate and improve their programmes and activities; the need for registration and licensing have been brought home to them; facilities are being made for research and investigation in the several fields of social welfare. Voluntary organisations could, in future, so plan their programmes and see that each institution meets a felt need of the area or the community, and that far from over-lapping, these agencies work in perfect harmony bringing about maximum integration and coordination.

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As an immediate step in the implementation of the recommendation of the Five Year Plan, the Union Government of India has set up a Central Social Welfare Board, "with a view to providing assistance, guidance and help to voluntary social welfare organisations in the country which stand in need of such assistance or help." This is an autonomous body with eminent social workers on its Board. The functions of the Central Social Welfare Board "include a survey and assessment of the needs and requirements of social welfare organisations in the country and evaluation of the programmes and coordination of assistance under the Ministries of the Central and State Governments." The Board will call for applications from the voluntary agencies in the country, and examine them in the light of the rules laid down for this purpose by the Board. The Board has also Advisory panels, which again consist of tried social workers in their respective fields. There are at present three panels and they have already started functioning :—

1. The Children-Panel.
2. Women-Panel.
3. Panel dealing with the physically handicapped,
Juvenile Delinquents and Correctional Administration.

It follows from what has been already stated that the role of voluntary agencies in implementing the welfare programmes so urgently needed in the country is of considerable significance and consequently several facilities are being provided to enable them to actively participate in this effort.

One novel way of bringing about this participation is to persuade the welfare agencies to take up authorised agency for the sale of the Small Savings Certificates. The organisation in its corporate capacity becomes the authorised agent, and while the voluntary workers will use their influence and tap the small income groups, the results of this scheme in its wider perspective are of considerable importance. In the

first place, voluntary welfare organisations help the country in implementing the Five Year Plan by obtaining finance through Small Savings. Secondly, by purchasing the Small Savings Certificates even the common person is made to understand what the Five Year Plan means for the country and for himself and how he can join in this grand national enterprise. By purchasing a Small Savings Certificate he or she gets the sensation of partnership with the rest in the building of India's future. Lastly, the welfare organisations earn their commission by these sales and this will go to finance their welfare programmes, enlarge their scope and explain the tempo of their activities.

Finally, there are special programmes for a definite section of population in the country, namely, the Backward Classes. They constitute nearly 70 millions and they have been neglected so far. The Constitution again provides these groups special guarantees and in conformity with these definite programmes for their cultural, economic and educational advancement have been formulated and put into execution in the several States. As much as Rs. 440 million have been provided for the welfare of Backward Classes for the plan period of 1951-56.

Naturally the Social Welfare Programmes will be influenced by the culture, tradition, financial and human resources in the country. Naturally too our patterns and methods of social work will grow and develop out of the social and psychological milieu of the country.

FAMILY PLANNING IN INDIA

M. Chandrasekhar

SINCE achieving Independence, the people of India have devoted considerable thought and energy into developing the First Five Year Plan, whose central objective "is to initiate a process of development which will raise living standards and open out to the people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life." Naturally such a plan puts great emphasis on health. The Planning Commission, in estimating the resources of economic development have admitted that "nothing can be considered of higher importance than the health of the people."

Very high priority is given in the Plan to the improvement of maternal and child health services, for, "the protection of the health of the expectant mother and her child is of the utmost importance for building a sound nation." Mortality rates of both mothers and infants are far too high yet and maternal morbidity is a severe drain on the well-being of our families. Hence maternity and child health centres are being increased as a means of reducing this threat to family welfare.

Too frequent pregnancies account for much of the ill health from which Indian mothers suffer. This ill health in turn affects unfavourably the development of the children and the entire fabric of family life. Since sound family life is the core and crown of India's ancient tradition and present purposes, these conditions which threaten family well-being are explicitly dealt with in the Five Year Plan.



A lady comes for guidance to a Family Planning Clinic in Delhi.

Besides the general services of maternity and child health centres, the Plan provides for a comprehensive programme of family planning, which was initiated in August, 1952, just at the time of the fifth anniversary of India's Independence. The Plan provides that Government hospitals and health centres shall give "advice on methods of family planning for persons who require such advice."

This is only the first step in the programme outlined. In addition, the Plan provides for field experiments with "different methods of family limitation for the purpose of determining their suitability, acceptability, and effectiveness in different sections of the population." This kind of experimentation is of particular importance for a country like India, where the fact of 12 major languages reflects the great diversity of cultural patterns among the people. These diversities must be understood, and methods adapted to them, if family planning is to become widely accepted practice within a generation.

Two of these experiments have been in operation for more than a year. One is in New Delhi, among lower middle class people, the other in South India among a village population. The family planning method being tested in both places is the rhythm method which depends upon periodic abstinence. This method was chosen for the first experiments not only for its obvious economic advantage—no expenditure for appliances is involved—but also for its consonance with India's long tradition of self-control set forth in the Vedic Scriptures. It is a matter of fact that Indian Shastras give counsel on practices designed to regulate fertility, although the knowledge of those practices has unfortunately been lost to many of India's people. In a sense it appears that the present programme is to a considerable degree a process of reintroducing that knowledge, with corrections made possible by modern science.

The response of the people in these experimental areas to systematic inquiries about their wish to have more children, and their readiness for family planning, is encouraging evidence

of a rational view of family size. Among more than 3,000 parents interviewed, fully three-fourths expressed their wish to learn a method of family planning, and most parents having three or more children said they did not want another child. Less than 5% of those interviewed expressed any traditional or ethical objection to family planning; most of those not wishing to learn a method were either young parents wanting to establish their families, or older women who felt themselves to have passed the likelihood of further pregnancy. It may be added, parenthetically, that a number of inquiries in this field reveal quite similar attitudes in other sections of the country.

Encouraging as these responses are, the progress of the experiments has indicated that there is considerable gap between the verbal expression of readiness to learn a method of family planning, and the actual practice of that sustained awareness and control which are required by any known method. This aspect of the experiments serves to confirm the wisdom of the provision in the Five-Year Plan for research into cultural patterns affecting fertility and sex behaviour. An important factor to be associated here is the facility of exchange of ideas between husband and wife and the similarity of their attitudes and motivations.

A beginning of this work has already been made as part of the United Nations—Government of India Joint Population Study in Mysore State, just now being completed. 1600 husbands and their wives have been interviewed to determine their ideas and motivations with respect to family size. This study, and other similar studies still to be made will provide information on which to base the work of developing "suitable procedures to educate the people on family planning methods," which also forms a part of the programme set forth by the Five-Year Plan. Some beginnings of the work in education have already been made in connection with the field experiments now in progress, but much more intensive work will be undertaken in the immediate future.

All the available information suggests that economic and social changes are making important changes in the patterns of family life, including the size of the family. Small studies of families who have lived long in cities as compared with newly urban, semi-urban and rural families, reveal significant variations in age of marriage, number of children and other family characteristics. These variations appear to be related not only to urbanisation but to many other economic and social factors. They suggest some of the lines to be followed in the inter-relationship studies which the Five-Year Plan prescribes as part of its family planning programme.

Along with these social factors the Plan provides for "research into the physiological and medical aspects of human fertility and its control." Here too the work of the pilot studies now in progress is contributing to the required knowledge, particularly in the collection of data on the menstrual periodicity of Indian women.

All this work is being undertaken in a way to ensure full utilization of the best scientific knowledge in the field. The United Nations and its agencies is assisting the programme through the loan of technical personnel, and some of the best scientific leadership of India is assisting. A Research and Programmes Committee has recently prepared detailed recommendations on the future development of the general programme set forth in the Five-Year Plan. In all these plans, the central focus for the work is to promote the growth of the family as a unit of society in a manner designed to facilitate the fulfilment of those conditions which are necessary for the welfare of this unit from the social, economic, and cultural points of views. As the programme develops from exploratory phase comprised in the First Five-Year Plan, it is expected to provide a planned and scientific approach towards the solution of the problems of family life.

This programme provides a happy illustration of the self-correcting processes of democracy, by which meeting the needs

of individuals and families provides at the same time, the solution for national problems. To give parents the means by which to keep family size within the control of their personal judgment will also help to solve the nation's problem of balancing population with resources. The Central emphasis of the Five-Year Plan is upon the initiation of "a process of development which will raise the living standards and open out to the people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life." Great efforts are being made, in irrigation, in industrial expansion, in the improvement of agricultural production, in social education, all for the purpose of raising the level of living standards. Yet the Plan has also to take into account the fact that "The recent increase in the population of India and the pressure exercised on the limited resources of the country have brought to the forefront the urgency of the problem of family planning. Unless measures are initiated at this stage to bring down the birth-rate and thereby decrease the rate of population growth, a continuously increasing amount of effort on the part of the community will be used up only in maintaining existing standards of consumption."

There is perhaps no greater challenge for mankind today than the problem of balancing resources and population. India's effort to deal with this problem will be a contribution to the world's expanding effort to enable people everywhere to assume conscious direction and control of the powerful forces of human fertility.

THE ESTATE DUTY ACT, 1953

N. V. Gadgil M. P.

THE Estate Duty Act No. 34 of 1953 received the assent of the President on the 6th of October, 1953, and it came into operation on the 15th of October, 1953. This Act is a great land-mark in the history of taxation in this Country. As early as 1925, The Taxation Committee included Death Duties as one of the recommendations in their report. As a matter of fact, some sort of taxation of this kind is not unknown in this country but the modern form of taxation in the nature of death duties is undoubtedly new. The Taxation Committee reviewed the whole field of Central Provincial and Local taxation in 1924 and made its recommendations.

Since 1925, taxation on the estate left by the deceased has been actively under consideration. As the British Rule in India was very cautious in the matter of taxation in ordinary times, it did not resort to this tax. Secondly the British Rule in India was more or less the rule of a State which may be considered a police State. The conception that the State has to interest itself not merely in the maintenance of law and order but has to include in its sphere of activities matter relating to social services became prominent in the course of the last 30 years in this country. Soon after the war the British Rule here was ready with a number of plans for the Post-War Development in India. Naturally finances were necessary for the same. It was in this context that a regular bill for the purpose of taxing

the estate of the deceased was first introduced in March, 1946. August 15th, 1947, marked the change over of the Government and India became independent and free. The Constituent Assembly was then sitting and in course of time framed the Indian Constitution. The preamble of the Constitution lays down certain principles including equality of opportunity and social justice for all. Further the Constitution lays down certain directive principles and one of them is that there should be no concentration of wealth in few hands. Evidently it had become clear now that in order to implement the objectives in the constitution, there ought to be a radical change in the system of taxation in this country. Taxation up till now was looked upon as an instrument of fiscal policy. The new Constitution demanded that it must be also an instrument of social policy expected to secure social justice and equality. The Government therefore introduced the Estate Duty Bill in the Provisional Parliament and the same was referred to a Select Committee. Just at the same time the Government was actively concerned with the passage of the Hindu Code Bill. Somehow or the other owing to unreasonable opposition both in the Parliament and outside, the Government dropped the Hindu Code Bill. The Estate Duty Bill which was to have come before the Parliament for enactment after the passage of the Hindu Code Bill, was also dropped.

After the general election the Government of India was bound to proceed with a Bill of this character. The Congress party definitely promised it in its election manifesto and the Report of the Planning Commission also contained appreciative references in this regard. The Bill was introduced in November, 1952, and among the objects it was clearly and definitely stated that this Bill, apart from the collection of revenue, was intended to prevent concentration of wealth and to remove inequalities. This was a great advance. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee and after prolonged sittings of the Select Committee the bill as reported came before the Parliament in April, 1953 and was ultimately passed in September, 1953.

The Bill is modelled on the provisions of the corresponding Act in United Kingdom with such modifications as were found necessary having regard to the social and economic circumstances existing in this country. The objection with regard to the capital formation, quick succession and such others have been fully taken into consideration. It is a cautious measure yet, at the same time it is a revolutionary measure in the sense, that for the first time a tax has been accepted on the principal value or corpus of the estate changing hands on death.

In the case of every person dying after the commencement of this Act there shall be levied and paid upon the principal value ascertained of all property, settled or not settled including agricultural lands situated in the State, which passed on the death of such person, duty called Estate Duty at the rate fixed under this Act. In other words property belonging to every deceased will be subject to Estate Duty with certain exceptions and exemptions. The Estate Duty is to be levied and collected according to the Constitution by the Central Government and the proceeds are to be distributed among the constituent states on certain principles such as accrual, location, population etc. Every property which the deceased was competent at the time of his death to dispose off shall be deemed to be the property to pass on his death. In other words, the property which the deceased possessed and owned at the time of his death is the property to be taxed. Gifts which are not made in contemplation of death two years before death are exempted. So also gifts within two years from death but made as part of the normal expenditure are exempted. Provisions have been made with respect to limited interest, settlement with reservation, joint investment, policies kept up for donees, annuities or other interests purchased or provided by the deceased, more or less on the lines of the corresponding provisions in the United Kingdom's Act. In the matter of property transferred to a controlled company it has been laid down that notwithstanding the value of the shares held by

the deceased, what will be considered as property would be the assets of the company in the proportion ascertained by comparing the aggregate amount of the benefits accruing to the deceased from the company in the last 3 accounting years with the aggregate amount of the net income of the company for the said years. This provision will prevent avoidance of Estate Duty by formation of controlled companies. It has been laid down that such a company is bound to give information and is accountable for the duty payable on the death of the deceased.

Certain exceptions have been provided for, immovable property outside the territories to which this Act extends and movable property situated outside the territories to which this Act extends at the time of the death under certain conditions are exempted. Property held by the deceased as trustee is also exempted. Similarly property reverting to disponent after the death of the deceased as also interest failing before becoming an interest in possession are exempted. Bona-fide purchases are also exempted. Where agreement exists between India and any other country with regard to relief of double taxation there also exemption will be available. As regards allowance for quick succession to property, this Act lays down that if the second death accrues within one year of the first death 50% allowance will be made in the amount of duty. This percentage goes on decreasing and where the second death occurs within five years of the first death the allowance is limited to ten per cent. Under the Hindu Law a Hindu widow succeeding to her husband's estate takes a limited interest or life interest. It has, therefore, been provided that if the widow dies within 7 years the reversioners will take the estate without further levy of Estate Duty.

Under Section 33 further exemptions have been provided for. A gift upto Rs. 2,500 for a Public Charitable purpose made within a period of six months before death is exempted. Similarly gift made by the deceased upto the extent of Rs. 1,500 made within a period of two years before

his death is exempted. Household goods, tools, agricultural implements, or any other tools or implements as were necessary to the deceased to enable him to earn his livelihood if below Rs. 2,500 in value are also exempted. Books not for sale, wearing apparel but not worked or sewn with jewels, monies payable under policies of Insurance effected by the deceased on his life for the purpose of paying Estate Duty and assigned to the Government for the said purpose to the extent of duty payable but not exceeding Rs. 50,000 are also exempted. An Insurance Policy upto to the extent of Rs. 5,000, drawings, paintings, manuscripts, heirlooms, etc. are also exempted. Similarly Rs. 5,000 in the case of each daughter or female relative dependent upon the deceased are also exempted. Over and above these provisions power is given to the Central Government to grant relief in respect of any class of property or persons in hard circumstances.

Although exemptions and exceptions are made as stated above, yet under Section 34 the value of all the exempted properties will be taken into consideration for the purpose of fixing the rate at which the duty is to be levied. In the matter of agricultural assets the rates of duty will be the same as in the case of non-agricultural properties except that for the property upto the value of two hundred thousand of rupees there will be a rebate of 20%. In India, the laws of inheritance differ from community to community and even among the Hindus there are two systems of laws: one is called the system of joint Hindu family and the other is *Dai-Vibhag*. In a Hindu family governed by the coparcenary or joint Hindu family law, every person takes interest in the ancestral property by the very fact of his birth. In other words, as soon as a son is born he gets a share although that share is never determined except at the time of partition. Under *Dai-Vibhag* school the sons have no right whatsoever while the father is alive. Thus when the Estate Duty is to be charged the entire estate of a *Dai-Vibhag* family becomes the subject matter of the tax; whereas if the deceased

belongs to a joint Hindu family it is only his share to be determined at the time of his death is charged. In order to give some relief to *Dai-Vibhag* people as also to Mohammedans, Christians, Parsees, the Act provides that the amount to be absolutely exempted from Estate Duty in the case of non-coparcenary property will be Rs. 100,000. Whereas in the case of a coparcenary property the exemption will be Rs. 50,000. Where a Hindu succeeds both to coparcenary property as well as separate property, provision has been made for exemption to be worked out in proportion to the quantum of property held in each category. The effect of the exceptions and exemptions is as follows :—That in the case of non-coparcenary property exemption limit works out to the extent of nearly Rs. 120,000. In other words if the deceased leaves property more than Rs. 120,000, then, whatever is above Rs. 120,000 will be subject matter of tax. This exemption is bound to give great relief to middle class people. In the case of coparcenary property the exemption limit will work upto Rs. 70,000 and that also means a great relief to middle class families.

The principal value of any property shall be estimated to be the price which in the opinion of the Controller it would fetch if sold in open market at the time of the death of the deceased. Provisions have been made for valuers and principles have been laid down as to valuation. If a person who is accountable for the payment of Estate Duty is not satisfied with the valuation which the Controller may put, he can move the Board, can have a valuer of his own; another valuer will be appointed by the Controller and the two together will appoint an umpire. Failing agreement the third one will be appointed by the Board. On questions relating to valuations, accountability, etc. appeals will be heard and decided by the Board of Control, that will be constituted under this Act. Further appeal is provided for but it lies to the High Court or the Supreme Court on questions of law only. Provision has also been made for deduction of funeral expenses, Shradha Ceremony, bona fide encumbrances

and debts. Procedure has also been laid down for the collection of duty and payment of the same. Rules have been made prescribing the duties and the forms and other matters relating to procedure. Provision has also been made for payment of duty by instalments.

In India, the exemption limit is undoubtedly high, *viz.*, Rs. 50,000 and Rs. 100,000 as stated above. The *per capita* income in this country is Rs. 250 per annum while in United Kingdom the *per capita* income is several times higher and yet the exemption limit is just £2,000 or Rs. 26,000. Further the individuals who pay income-tax in this country are just 700,000 people and the joint families that are subject to income-tax are 60,000 but only about 20,000 are expected to be subject to an Estate Duty. It is worked out that 87% of the land holdings are on an average less than 10 acres. Therefore, Estate Duty will not affect the middle class, particularly the lower middle class, much. It is calculated that one man in 600 will leave property big enough to come within the purview of this Act. The rates prescribed range from 5% for the first Rs. 5,000 after the exemption limit and then by slab system goes upto 40% or Rs. 4,000,000 and above. In the case of non-coparcenery property it starts from 7½% on the first Rs. 50,000 after the exemption limit and goes up slab by slab upto 40% of the principal value over Rs. 4,000,000 and above. Property worth two hundred thousand of rupees will be taxed at Rs. 7,250. This cannot be considered much. In other countries the actual percentage works much more than it does in India. A progressive step has been taken and it is expected that it will have the effects expected from the levy of a tax of this character. The income from this tax cannot be definitely estimated. However, some calculations have been made and roughly it is estimated that the yield may be round about 100 million of rupees a year. To a country which is eager to raise its standard of living and to proceed rapidly towards industrialisation, this sum may not represent a great amount but the potentialities are great and above all the psychology has already been created that the Indian State now stands for the common man and is trying to give something to him which he has not got so far, namely, social justice.

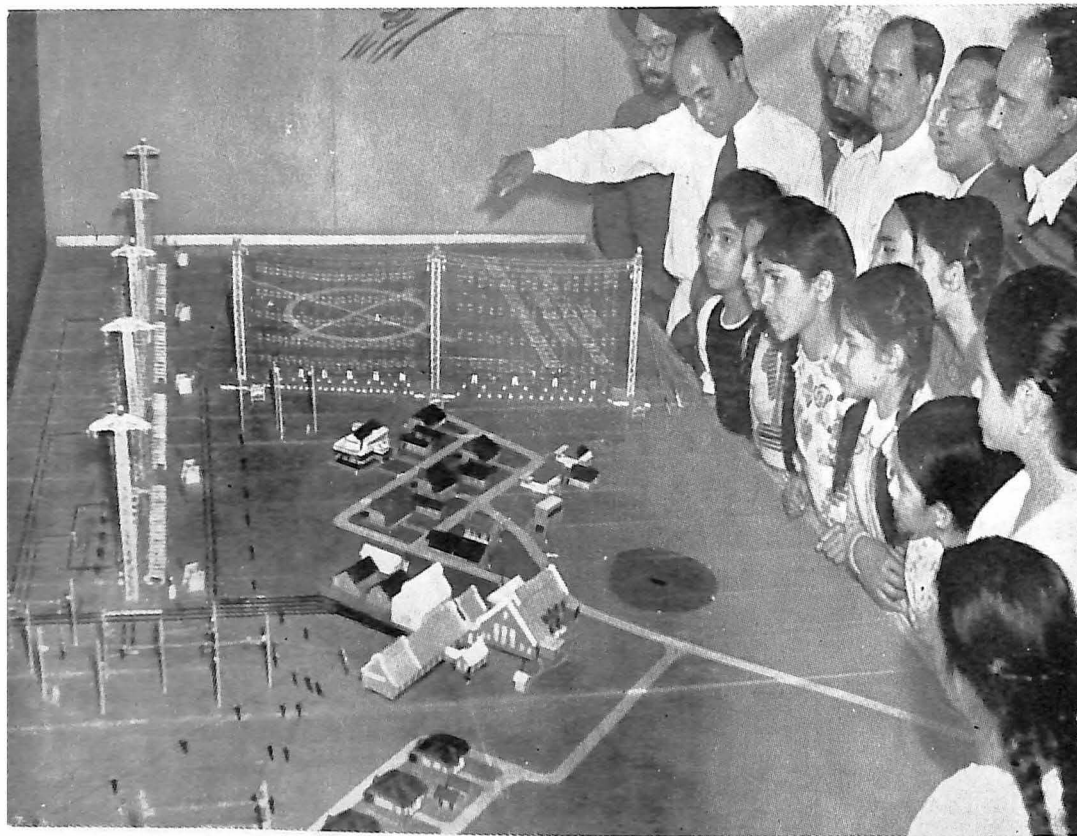
INDIAN TELEGRAPH CENTENARY

Krishnalal Shridharani

PROBABLY the most astonishing thing in the history of telecommunications is that India, a relatively "backward" country in technology and industrialization, started its first experimental telegraph line in the same year as the United States of America. Samuel F.B. Morse, "Father of Electric Telegraph", connected Washington, D. C., with Baltimore in 1839 over a stretch of some 40 miles. Sir William O'Shaughnessy Brooke completed some 21 miles of telegraph line in 1839, proceeding from Calcutta in the general direction of Diamond Harbour, and negotiating a river crossing of 7,000 yards. Thus started the story of an Indian adventure which has kept pace with technological developments in the most advanced countries in the world.

The foresight and daring of a private individual received official blessings after 11 years. The Board of Directors of the East India Company, sitting in distant London, sanctioned in 1850 the Construction of a line between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour, a distance previously traversed by Dr. O'Shaughnessy, although "incompletely and unofficially." The first telegraph line in India was opened for traffic in 1851, although primarily for official use. The Indian Telegraph has been from the very beginning owned by the Government for the community. It is the oldest Government-owned public utility in India.

However, it was in 1853 that the period of experiments ended and large-scale construction started. 1953 thus marked



THE TELEGRAPH CENTENARY EXHIBITION IN NEW DELHI. A Model of Beam Wireless Station of Kirkee, at O.C.S Stall. Invisible radio beams from this station keep India continually linked with the outside world through radio photos, spoken messages and millions of telegraph words transmitted a year.

the centenary of an auspicious beginning. What were a couple of lines across the map of India in 1853 have grown by 1953 into a veritable spider-web.

When the East India Company finally resolved to tie the continent of India with iron and copper wires at Government expense and under Government control, their eyes naturally fell on Dr. O'Shaughnessy, who entered the service of the East India Company and was posted to Calcutta around 1839. The Military Board had shrewdly been watching the "Chemical Engineer at the Mint" because of his telegraphic exploits; and thus gave an opportunity to the "Surgeon" and the "Mint-man" to become also a telegraph giant.

It was in the Company Bahadur's Calcutta Mint that an Indian caught Dr. O'Shaughnessy's eyes because of his bubbling technical aptitude and vast energy—Seebchunder Nandy. So when Lord Dalhousie commissioned Dr. O'Shaughnessy in 1851 to construct the first official telegraph line in India, the latter took Nandy along. It was Seebchunder Nandy who sent the first signal from Diamond Harbour end on the completion of the line under his guidance. It was also Nandy who laid the first under-water cable in India, utilizing only fishing boats in place of traditional steamers. It was Nandy who suggested the use of toddy palm trunks as telegraph poles in the absence of other materials.

Telegraph pioneers like O'Shaughnessy and Nandy had to encounter, like their counterparts in other lands, innumerable obstacles. But there were certain difficulties peculiarly Indian. Edwin Arnold has poetically described that posts had to "pass through jungles, where savages stole them for firewood and rafters for huts. Inquisitive monkeys spoiled the work by dragging the lines into festoons, or dangling an ill-conducting tail from wire to wire. The white ant nibbled galleries in the posts, and the porcupine and bandicoot burrowed under them." Later on, in Assam, the bright idea of encircling the poles with barbed wire to discourage elephants

from using them as scratching-stations boomeranged ; the elephants liked that all the more.

In 1857, India had 4,250 miles of Electric Telegraph. At present, in less than a hundred years India has more than 40,200 miles of iron, copper and bronze wire, 26,000 miles of cable conductor and 245,000 miles of channel crossing. There are more than 8,300 telegraph offices. In a year around 30,000,000 telegrams, inland and foreign, are transmitted. The total output of workshops comes to Rs. 21,200,000 a year. In fact, the Indian Telegraph Department built much more than what is shown by its latest network. The 1947 partition, resulting in the birth of Pakistan, was not the first depletion of the vast network and manpower. The lines in Ceylon, Aden and Burma were also financed and built by India, but when those areas separated long before the 1947 partition, that segment of India's achievement was rubbed out of India's ledger book.

Telegraph's sister service of Telephone has around 378,000 miles of iron, copper and bronze wires, 26,000 miles of cable conductor, and 165,000 miles of carrier channels. There are around 4,500 telephone exchanges, and about 185,000 telephones—a record not as spectacular as that of the Telegraph. The total number of trunk (long-distance) calls a year comes to about 11 millions. Add to this the contribution of the Wireless, with its 576,000 radio telegrams a year. The entire Posts and Telegraphs Department of the Government of India employs 220,000 persons and 1,000 gazetted officers. The 1953-54 total budget for the entire Department includes an estimated income of Rs. 450,000,000 and expenditure of Rs. 420,000,000 leaving a surplus. The estimated income of the Telegraph branch alone is placed at Rs. 62,600,000 and expenditure at Rs. 61,200,000, leaving a surplus of Rs. 1,400,000.

The record calls for some superlatives. The Indian Telegraph Department, for instance, is one of the largest in the world in open wire carrier equipments. It is the second

largest aggregate of public utilities in India, the first being the railways. It has the third largest telegraph channel mileage in the world. It has the sixth largest inland telegraph traffic in the world, next only to the United States, Japan, United Kingdom, Austria and Italy. But in the number of operations, it is second only to the United States. It maintains the highest line in the world, at Khambajong in Sikkim, 17,500 feet above sea level. It maintains the highest telegraph office in the world, at Bhutong, 13,500 feet above sea level built as early as 1887.

The new spirit of nation-building generated by independence manifests itself in the field of telecommunications as in other directions of Indian life. The slogans under the Five-Year Plan are "Expansion" and "Modernization", especially in the telephone branch. Until 1947, the foreign rulers' concentration was on the cities. But Mahatma Gandhi has taught that "India lives in the villages", and so the development programme has the little man in the village in mind. Rs. 480 million are earmarked for capital outlay. The targets include the opening of a telegraph office in every town of 5,000 or more. Every district headquarter and every town of 30,000 or more, will have a telephone exchange by 1956. The idea is that no village will be further than two miles from either a post office, or a telegraph office, or a telephone booth, and India has 558,089 villages.

An ancient, philosophic people are thus taking a new direction—the path of science and technology. That is what Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Prime Minister of India, emphasized in his foreword to the "Story of the Indian Telegraph, a volume published to commemorate the Indian Telegraph Centenary. Wrote he: "If we are to understand this new world, we have to worship at the shrine of Science, though that need not be our sole worship, for we require other things also to have a balanced and integrated view of life...Let us, therefore, honour the telegraph as the herald of the New Age."

INDIA'S LIFE LINES

COMMUNICATIONS & TRANSPORT

G. P. Jain

THERE may still be men in Indian villages who have not seen a railway train or received a postcard and many more who have not received a telegram ! The Government of India's efforts since independence to bring the communications and transport facilities within easy reach of the remotest village have achieved remarkable success, though much remains to be done.

Take the post offices. The official target of 'a post office for every village with 2,000 people' was achieved last year. On March 31, 1953 the post offices in the rural areas were almost twice the number in August 1947—36,741 as against 18,121. In the urban areas the figure increased from 3,995 to 5,686. According to an estimate, the number of new post offices opened in the last six years equalled that opened in previous 100 years.

Under a new scheme started April 1, 1953, post offices were opened in groups of villages with aggregate populations of 2,000 or more, so that no man might be at a more than reasonable distance from a post office. By March 1954, another 14,000 offices are due to be in operation in the rural areas.

A telegraph office for every town with a population of over 5,000 and in every subdivisional headquarters was the

target and much progress was made in that direction. In the past five years more than 1,000 new telegraph offices were opened, raising the number from 7,330 in March 1948 to 8,360 at the end of 1952. Today, India possesses the third largest telegraph channel mileage in the world and sixth largest in inland traffic with 400,000 miles of wire, 26,000 miles of cable conductors and 245,000 miles of channel crossing.

The number of telephone exchanges increased from 311 at the time of independence to 565 in March 1953 and during the same period, the number of telephones rose from about 114,922 to 200,813.

Unfortunately, statistics do not properly reveal the human efforts made to achieve the above results. India is a country of long distances and extreme climatic conditions. Communication lines run over high mountains, along the sea coast and through extremely dry as well as wet regions. Crows make nests between the wires causing interruptions. In some areas flying foxes are a problem. Dead snakes are dropped on the wires by big birds dislocating communication. Still the Indian utility services have kept advancing to serve larger numbers of people.

The number of telegraph circuits between important centres was increased last year by the installation of eight voice frequency telegraph system. Delays in transmission and delivery were cut down by the increased use of teleprinters.

Plans were laid to link important centres by underground trunk cables, in order to provide quicker and uninterrupted telephone service. Nearly 300 new public call offices were opened during the year, bringing the number to 1900. Seventeen additional trunk lines were installed. Eleven million trunk calls were handled. New exchanges carried the service to smaller towns, hitherto unserved by telephone. Automatic telephones were put in greater use in Delhi, Bombay and Madras.

India manufactures the telephone accessories herself. The output of the Indian telephone factory at Bangalore is 25,000 instruments, partly assembled and partly manufactured. Eventually the figure is expected to rise to 50,000.

The "All up" air mail scheme, begun in 1949, continued during the year. Under this scheme all inland letters, postcards, money orders and insured letters were carried by air, wherever air transmission was available, without extra cost. This considerably accelerated the mail service, especially over long distances.

Against the three cable and six radio services at the end of 1946, India today has three cable circuits and 19 radio services linking her directly with foreign countries. In the past six years India's Overseas Communications Service, a government body, handled 15 million telegrams, with an aggregate of about 424 million words, 40,000 radio telephone calls and over 3½ million words of press messages.

The following services are operated by the Overseas Communications Service. Since independence, the date on which each started is given against it :—

<i>Service</i>		<i>Date</i>
Bombay/London ...	Radio-photo ...	April 29, 1948
India/Afghanistan ...	Wireless telegraph ...	January 12, 1950
India/Japan ...	" " ...	August 17, 1950
India/Indonesia ...	Radio telephone ...	October 2, 1950
India/Indonesia ...	Wireless telegraph ...	February 1, 1951
India/Thailand ...	" " ...	March 15, 1951
India/U.S.S.R ...	" " ...	June 18, 1951
India/Egypt ...	Radio telephone ...	July 2, 1951
India/U.S.A. ...	Wireless telegraph ...	July 2, 1951
India/Iran ...	Radio telephone ...	March 1, 1952
Press newscast service from Bombay ...	Bombay ...	June 9, 1952
India/Japan ...	Radio telephone ...	August 14, 1952
Calcutta/London ...	Wireless telegraph ...	March 12, 1953
India/East Africa ...	Radio telephone ...	August 18, 1953

The growth of the Indian overseas communications service may be measured by the fact that whereas 12 million words were handled in 1927, the present figure is 70 million words.

From January 2, 1953 a direct air parcel service was introduced for the U. S. A., U. K., France, Egypt, Switzerland and Australia.

India's civil aviation industry was nationalized last year. Three new aerodromes and two communication stations were opened. Road and Railway transport was improved upon. Nearly 200 miles of new roads and 10 major bridges were completed, and 450 miles of roads and 20 major bridges were begun.

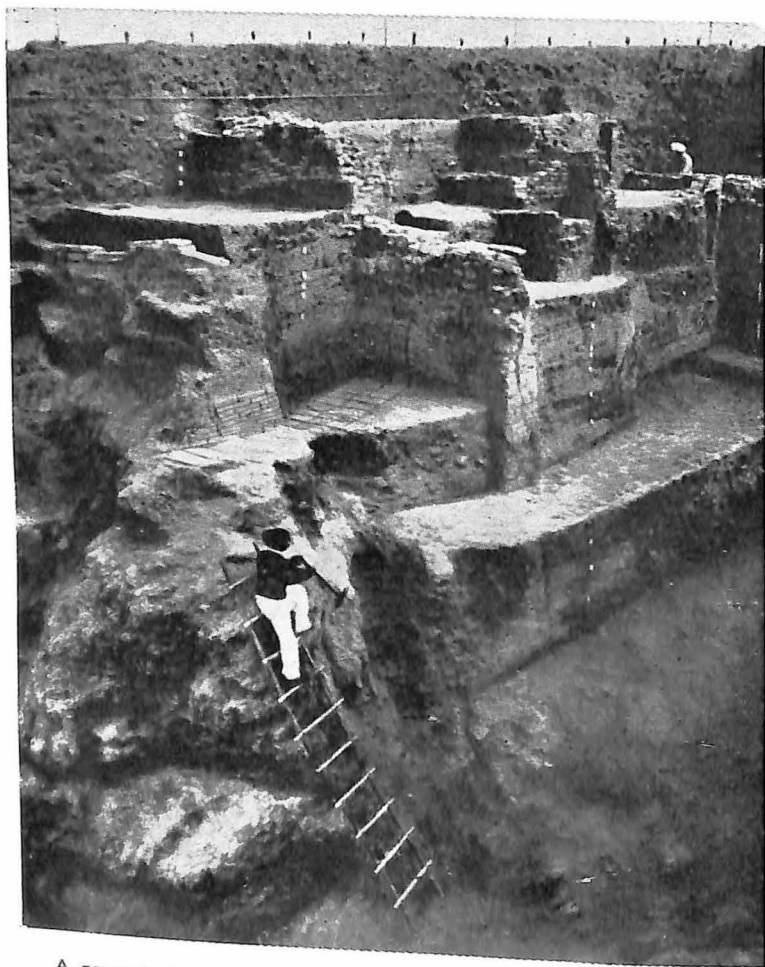
The Government of India last November entered into agreements with Germany, Austria and Japan for 400 locomotives for replacing the old ones and providing greater service. The passenger train miles increased from 93 million in 1948-49 to 105 million in 1951-52. Between April 1, 1952 to January 1, 1953, 109 new trains were introduced and the runs of 108 trains extended, involving a net increase in the daily passenger train miles of 9,850.

Before the war the total Indian-owned tonnage was 125,000 (gross registered) which in 1946 went down to 100,000 G.R.T., owing to war-time losses. But by the end of 1950, through encouragement given by the National Government to the Indian shipping interests, the figure rose to 362,150 G.R.T. Considering the need for more tonnage and at the same time the financial stringency, the Government has decided to boost the existing tonnage to 600,000 G. R. T. A total of 100,000 G. R. T. is expected to be built at the Visakhapatnam shipyard in South India.

After the loss of the western port of Karachi to Pakistan, the strain on the Bombay dock increased considerably. To relieve it, in 1949 a Rs. 120-million scheme to develop

the Kandla Port on the Gujerat coast was prepared. The proposed constructions comprise a main wharf, four berths, three transit sheds, four double-storeyed warehouses, a tidal basin for lighters and country-craft, a passenger jetty, an oil jetty, a floating dry dock berth and a heavy lift berth in the bundar.

Steps have also been taken to revive inland navigation. Most of the rivers of the Ganga region which were navigable for inland crafts a century ago are now little used, partly because they have many shallow stretches and partly because of the development of the railways. An attempt is being made to make the rivers navigable by using shallow draft tugs for towing barges on the shallow stretches. A pilot project is under contemplation.



A general view of an excavated site at Rupar (East Punjab) showing buildings of early centuries A.D.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN INDIAN ARCHAEOLOGY

A. Ghosh

THE partition of India in August 1947 brought about far reaching changes in the set-up of Indian archaeology. Such sites as Harappa and Mohenjodaro, of vital importance to the study of early Indian archaeology, and Taxila, the renowned ancient capital and centre of Buddhism, went to Pakistan.

The Constitution of India made the Union-Government responsible for all monuments and historical sites of national importance, leaving the monuments of local significance in the charge of the State Governments. In 1951, in implementation of this provision of the Constitution, Parliament passed 'The Ancient and Historical Monuments and Archaeological Sites and Remains (Declaration of National Importance) Act' by which a large number of monuments and sites in Part B States, in addition to those in Part A States which had previously been protected under the Ancient Monuments Preservation Act, of 1904, were declared to be of national importance. This resulted in the Union Government, through its Department of Archaeology, assuming direct charge of such important monuments as Ajanta and Ellora in Hyderabad; Sanchi in Bhopal; the temple-group at Khajuraho in Vindhya Pradesh; Bagh and Mandu in Madhya Bharat; the Belur-Halebid temples in Mysore—to name a few out of a vast list, over which the Central Government had little or no jurisdiction

before and which were being maintained by the respective State Governments in conditions ranging from fair efficiency to utter negligence.

With the enlargement of its scope, the Central Department of Archaeology had to re-organize itself to ensure a proper maintenance of the monuments comprised in the areas that have now come to its charge. The archaeological integration of India is now complete, and the Department has fully busied itself in discharging its new responsibilities.

In the direction of exploration and research Indian archaeology has made notable progress during the last few years. When the partition of India was effected in 1947, the Department of Archaeology had just finished its excavation at Brahmagiri, a representative megalithic site in Mysore State. This was the first systematic excavation of an Indian megalithic site and firmly dated at least one phase of culture of India, which had, through wild conjecture, been previously dated to anything between 5000 B.C. and the beginning of the Christian era. The excavation proved that the Brahmagiri megaliths dated from the two centuries before and after Christ and also showed that the megalithic people superseded in this part of the land a people with a crude Chalcolithic culture and brought with them a vigorous Iron Age. The knowledge obtained about the megalithic pottery-types as a result of the excavation has already proved to be of great value in dating other sites with similar pottery and will no doubt stand in good stead in setting the chronology of many a site in south India for a long time to come.

To turn to north India. -Here a problem of long standing has been the bridging of the gap intervening between the end of the great civilization represented at Harappa and Mohenjodaro and the beginning of the age of Asoka the Great in the third century B.C. Many had been the previous attempts to fill up the hiatus, but none could be said to have achieved any remarkable success. It was, therefore, decided to attack the

problem from a direct front by undertaking intensive explorations in north-west India: in the northern part of Rajasthan, in east Punjab and in west Uttar Pradesh. The aim of these explorations was to find out the eastern geographical distribution of the Harappa culture and to find out any evidence that might exist in these regions to link up that culture with the later known ones. These explorations identified a large number of sites, some of them mentioned in ancient literature, which were found to contain relics of a culture characterized, among other things, by the occurrence of a distinctive pottery grey in colour and painted with black designs. This painted grey-ware culture was easily found to belong to the pre-Asokan age and could even be dated confidently to at least the first half of the first millennium B.C.

This itself was a step forward in bridging the gulf. Further explorations in the dried-up valleys of the ancient rivers Sarasvati and Drishadvati in Bikaner Division of Rajasthan revealed a very large number of sites bearing remnants of the Harappa culture. Further north, exploration was conducted along the bed of the Sutlej in east Punjab, where also a fairly large number of sites containing relics of the Harappa and painted grey-ware cultures were located. A desideratum now was to find a site containing both these cultures so that a systematic excavation could show in what relationship they stood with each other and whether there was any overlap between them. Luckily, such a site was found at Rupar on the left bank of the Sutlej, about 60 miles north of Ambala, where the Department of Archaeology excavated early in 1953 and has again resumed work just now. The assemblage of the Harappa culture revealed by the first season's excavation was completely representative of that culture and even included one seal, the most typical product of that culture. This bespeaks an absolute homogeneity of the culture, unchanged in any way in spite of the long distance it had travelled from the parent-sites of Harappa and Mohenjodaro.

The Harappa deposit at Rupar was successively overlain by the remains of the painted grey-ware culture and of the Maurya, Sunga, Kushan and Gupta ages. Here, therefore, is

a site containing a complete unbroken history of north-west India from the third millennium B.C. to the first millennium A.D. Rupar has thus turned out to be a key-site in Indian archaeology.

The Department of Archaeology also conducted excavations at several other places during the last few years. Of them, the most important is that at Hastinapura, the legendary capital of the *Mahabharata* age, the remains of which are situated about 25 miles to the east of Meerut in Uttar Pradesh. It is here that the painted grey-ware culture, mentioned above, was placed in its proper stratigraphic position and was found to represent practically the earliest occupation in the site, though there were traces of a still earlier, though flimsy, occupation. Here, too, the sequence beginning with painted grey-ware culture was virtually the same as at Rupar, with the exception that after the Kushan age the site had been deserted till it was inhabited once more in early medieval days.

South India is receiving the simultaneous attention of the Department. Several megaliths in the great megalithic field at Madras State, were opened up in 1950-51, revealing, like Brahmagiri, a vigorous Iron Age culture that was responsible for the erection of megalithic burials. It remains to be seen whether the megalithic culture of the Deccan and south India took as many forms as the megalithic monuments themselves, and this can be ascertained only by a series of excavations at the habitation-sites of the megalithic folk. One such site, Sengamedu in District South Arcot, was excavated early in 1953. Black-and-red ware typical of the megalithic culture appeared here in the lowest strata and continued right through the occupation-deposit. Higher up appeared genuine sherds of the 'rouletted' ware regarded as of Roman import, which again persisted till the desertion of the site, though in crude forms.

Any survey of the archaeological activities in India would be incomplete without a mention of the valuable work



An excavated megalith at Sanur, Chingleput District.

being done by Indian universities and learned institutions. The excavation of the University of Allahabad at Kausambi, an ancient capital in the Gangetic Valley, has resulted in the discovery of the site of the monastery called Ghoshitarama, where Buddha himself is stated to have lived for many seasons. The ruins consisted of an anciently truncated stupa surrounded by ancillary shrines and other structures. The occupation on the site was found to have started about six century B.C. and continued right down to the Gupta times.

The University of Saugor has been excavating at Tripuri in District Jabalpur with notable results. Tripuri is well-known as the capital of the Kalachuri dynasty in early medieval times and the find pot of republican coins of pre-Christian date, but the excavation proved that its antiquity went back earlier still in that, the earlier strata were found to contain microliths associated with a typical painted red pottery.

The Deccan College and Post-Graduate Research Institute's excavation at Maheshwar in Madhya Bharat similarly revealed the existence of painted red and other pottery associated with microliths in the lower levels.

In the northern Deccan, the site of Nasik was excavated by the same Institute and, apart from a palaeolithic industry in the neighbourhood, revealed that the black cotton soil immediately overlying the natural soil contained a microlithic industry, again in association with painted red pottery.

It will be seen from the above brief survey that Indian archaeology, in spite of great limitations, has been making appreciable headway in exploring the dark corners of Indian history and has achieved substantial progress in dissolving the darkness.

“LAND GIFT” MOVEMENT IN INDIA

S. N. Agarwal

THE land-gift or “Bhoodan” movement of Acharya Vinoba Bhave is the most remarkable constructive work undertaken by an individual since independence. Vinoba was a close associate of Mahatma Gandhi since 1920 and was engaged mainly in constructive work relating to village industries and education. He was, however, selected by Gandhiji as the first Satyagrahi in the individual Civil Disobedience movement of 1940. Since Gandhiji’s death in 1948, Vinoba Bhave has been regarded as his greatest and noblest disciple. The “Bhoodan” movement sponsored by him has caught the imagination of the masses in India and almost all sections of society have lent their support to the cause. The land-gift campaign has attracted considerable attention outside India as well and queries about “Bhoodan-Yagna” continue to pour in almost daily from the United States, Europe and the Far East.

The origin of the “Bhoodan” movement is interesting and significant. About two and a half years ago, Vinobaji went to Hyderabad on foot to guide the deliberations of a Sarvodaya Samaj Conference (Welfare of all). The Samaj is a world-wide brotherhood of all those who believe in the fundamental principles of Gandhian philosophy. After the Conference, Vinobaji decided to return to Sevagram (Gandhiji’s Ashram in Madhya Pradesh) on foot through Telangana area which had been the scene of intensive Communist activity for some years. In Telangana, (consisting of a few Districts in Hyderabad State) the Communists had started the movement for the re-distribution of land

among the landless peasantry by expropriating the landlords through murder, loot and violence. When Vinoba announced his decision to walk through Telangana with a few co-workers, the State Government offered to give him police protection which he declined. Perhaps on the third day of his tour, Vinobaji reached a village called Pochampalli. As he entered the village, forty poor Harijan families surrounded him and begged of him for the grant of land. Vinobaji did not know what to do. He had no land in his possession. So he replied : "I will try to discuss the matter with the Government". But then, a sudden thought crossed his mind. Why not ask the audience whether anyone amongst them might like to donate land to the poor families? So he gently asked, though not with much hope ; "Is there anyone here who would like to give away a portion of his land to these poor people?" And strangely enough, a worker, sitting in front of Vinobaji, at once stood up with folded hands and said : "I have been looking for an opportunity to give away one-half of my 200 acres of land all these years : the auspicious moment has come now. I offer my 100 acres to you for re-distribution to these poor folk of my village. I beg of you not to refuse this humble gift." Vinobaji and the whole audience was touched. Tears of joy began to trickle down Vinoba's eyes. He said, "This is a Divine event ; God's Will be done." Then he asked the 40 Harijan families as to how many acres they would require. After a few minutes consultation amongst themselves, one of them stood up and replied with extreme humility, "Sir we will be satisfied with only 80 acres at the rate of two acres for each family." This reply was again a very pleasant surprise to Vinobaji and the crowd.

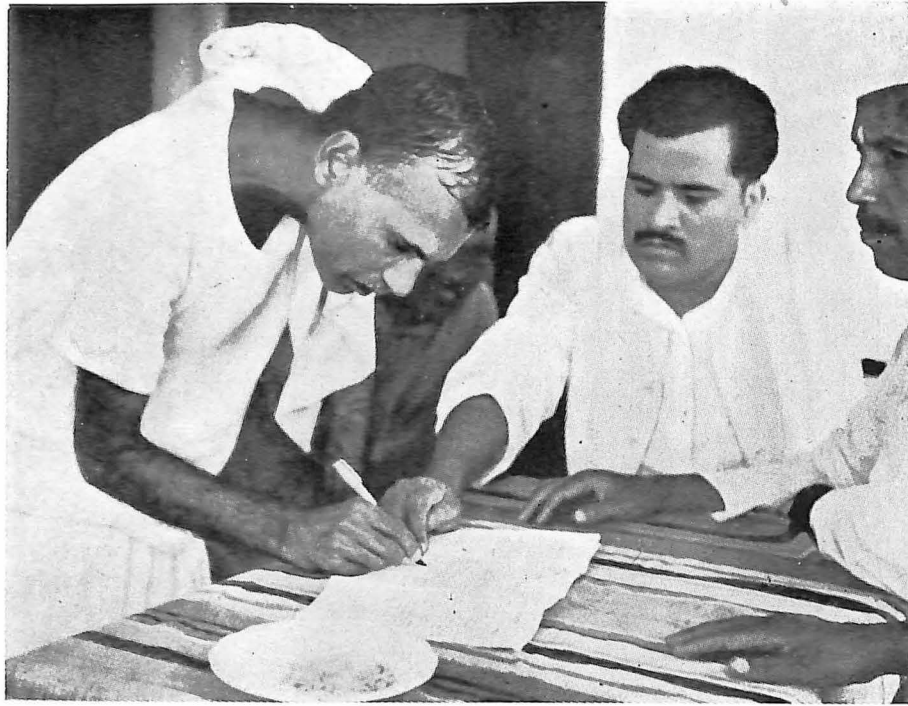
Since that day, Vinoba began asking for land-gifts for distribution among the landless agricultural labourers. He succeeded in collecting about 12,000 acres in Telangana. It was a remarkable achievement. The Communist strategy of violence was effectively checked by this new technique of non-violence, love and mutual good-will. But some people told Vinobaji, "You received land gifts in Telangana because the landlords

were afraid of the Communists. They know that they will not be able to retain their possession on land. So they preferred to give it away to a saint like you. This may not happen in other parts of the country." Vinoba took up the challenge in all humility.

In the mean time, he had received an invitation from Pandit Nehru to proceed to Delhi for consultations regarding the Planning Commission's Draft Outline of the First Five-Year Plan. So Vinoba decided to walk up to Delhi and also further his Bhoodan campaign on the way. The response to his call for land-gifts proved to be even better than in Telangana. In the States of Madhya Pradesh, Vindhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, the land-owners welcomed him with handsome donations. After his talks with members of the Planning Commission, Vinoba toured on foot almost all the districts of U.P. and collected about five hundred thousand acres. Then he moved on into Bihar and has been touring that State for over one year. He has been able to receive land donations to the order of about 12 lakh (1.2 million) acres in Bihar alone.

The total collections in India are approximately 22 lakhs (2.2 million) acres. The process of redistribution through Bhoodan Committees has already been started and about one lakh (one hundred thousand) acres of land have been given away to those who have no land and who are prepared to cultivate it themselves. According to rules framed by Acharya Vinoba, the land granted to people under the Bhoodan Yagna cannot be transferred or sold to others at least for ten years. State Governments are enacting the necessary legislation to facilitate such grants of land under Bhoodan by exempting them from the payment of stamp duties. .

In the beginning, land donations came mainly from the poor and middle-class agriculturists. But now the big landlords are also coming forth with liberal gifts. Regarding the quality of land donated by people, it is difficult to get exact figures. All types of land, good, bad and medium, are being



BHOODAN YAGNA a movement, sponsored by Acharya Vinoba Bhave, has succeeded in obtaining voluntary, free gifts of land from the big landholders for assignment to the landless tillers of the soil, and marks a new epoch in the social life of India. Photo shows a donor signing up the Register donating his portion for the movement.

received in the Bhoodan movement. Vinobaji's main emphasis at present is on the mere fact of getting rather than on the close scrutiny of the quality of land donated to him. He strongly feels that a revolution in society through peace and non-violence can take place only if everybody learns to give rather than to take. That is why he has been always emphasizing the fact that his Bhoodan movement is essentially a moral movement rather than merely an economic campaign. All the social and economic ills in the modern world are basically due to the tendencies of greed and selfishness ; they can be remedied not through violence and blood-shed but through good-will, mutual aid and cooperation.

Doubts are also expressed by some people that the Bhoodan movement would lead to fragmentation of land in India. But Vinobaji always tells his audiences that "there is more to fear from the fragmentation of human hearts' rather than mere fragmentation of land. The yawning gulf between the rich and the poor that exists in society leads to feelings of hatred, ill-will and violence. One way is to fan such feelings and create blood-shed ; the other and the better way is to counteract such feelings with positive actions of love, sacrifice and help. Moreover, Vinobaji is of the definite view that the pattern of agriculture in a thickly populated country like India must be small-scale and intensive farming and not large-scale and collective farms. In this country, the problem is equally to provide employment to the people as well as to increase the total production in agriculture. It is much better to have small, well-irrigated and well-managed plots of land rather than to create big, collective farms in India where the main question is that of absorbing surplus labour. Vinobaji is, however, not against cooperative endeavour in various processes of farming like sowing, weeding and harvesting. Co-operative societies may also be organised for the purchase of seeds, manure and irrigational machinery as also for the marketing of agricultural produce. In other words, there should be pooling of resources but not necessarily the pooling of land.

Vinoba's Bhoodan or land-gift movement is thus a novel way of solving the problem of land hunger through a peaceful

and non-violent revolution. His target is 50 million acres of land by the end of 1957. In India, the total cultivable land is approximately 300 million acres. Vinobaji wants every landholder to give away one-sixth of his land for his landless brethern. In India, the average size of a family is five. The sixth partner should be the poor and the needy in society. Those who do not possess land are being asked to donate one-sixth of their annual incomes for the less fortunate fellow citizens. Vinoba calls this "sampatti-dan" or property-gift. His main stress is on the voluntry abdication of wealth for bridging the existing gulf between the haves and the have-nots. The Bhoodan movement has been extremely helpful in creating a new and healthy atmosphere for a speedy, non-violent economic-revolution in Indian society.

INDIAN CHILDREN AT WORK AND PLAY

Najoo Bilimoria

THE conceptions of education and learning have undergone a great change in India in recent years. Not only have literacy and adult education programmes been made to reach larger numbers of people, but even schools—and this means mostly private schools independently run—have been modernised and education given a less bookish and more active, practical slant by being brought in conformity with conditions prevailing in the country. These new schools encourage the all-round development of the child both in and out of school-hours. Some of the extra-curricular activities of Indian school children from a very interesting and delightful study of child psychology in its attempts at character-building and at developing a sense of responsibility for future citizenship.

A very interesting institution in self-government is the Boys' Town, Nasik, (a residential school) where the Mayor, the Commissioner and their Deputies are elected annually from among the boys by the boys. The Mayor nominates his Cabinet of fifteen Ministers whose portfolios range from Education and Information to Decoration and Recreation. Each Minister has his own Council of four to eight members. There are separate courts for serious and petty offences, the Captains of the different Houses (residential hostels) forming the jury, and the Mayor, the Commissioner and a representative of the staff forming the panel of judges for serious offences. The boys also run their own bank, post-office, stores and canteen.

In this well-run and efficient community, there is hardly any difference between work and play between serious study and recreation. Every afternoon, after school-hours, the boys have their hobby classes which have the twofold aim of individual cultural development as well as the production of goods for community welfare. These classes cover a wide range of interests such as dancing, music, dramatics, drawing and painting, clay-modelling, construction of scientific models, chemical experiments such as producing hair pomade, boot polish, soap, book-binding, the cobbler's art etc. This institution has proved in theory and in practice the correctness of approach of modern educationists in regarding the child as a person.

The Balkanji Bari meaning 'Children's Garden' is a very popular all-India organization of children having more than a hundred branches in all the large towns and cities of India. It was founded in 1926 by a great lover of children who is 'Dada' or 'Elder Brother' to them. The Society organises group activities of children such as excursions to historical places, picnics, dramatic performances and even arranging all-India gatherings where all members of the Balkanji Bari meet.

The aim of the organisation is to make education, learning and all life a source of joy and happiness to children ; every activity of life is to be enjoyed. A children's brotherhood, without any consideration of rich or poor, colour or creed and transcending all national and international barriers is sought to be established. The Association has a Pen Friendship Section covering the whole world ; letters and gift parcels have already been exchanged between Indian and American children. The charter of the Indian Children's Rights as prepared by the Balkanji Bari has been taken up by the UNESCO for consideration as the International Children's Charter.

A pleasantly compact little structure in a children's garden in Bombay is the Bal Bhavan or 'Children's Library' established by the Government of Bombay. It is open to



CHILDREN AT WORK AND PLAY: Study becomes play for little infants in a Kindergarten Class in a modern Indian Nursery School.

children between the ages of four and fourteen who are members. It would be more correct to call it a Children's Cultural Centre for besides its Library which is its main feature, there is a theatre which can accommodate 250 children. The stage has removable platforms which can be shifted outside for open-air performances. The theatre is designed for cinema-shows which take place thrice a week, for dramatic performances by the children themselves, for indoor games and also for community story-telling.

The library room itself is gaily decorated with chairs and tables in light pink, blue and green and arrangements are made to seat about one hundred children at a time. There are books and magazines in Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati, Kannadi, Sindhi and English. The children have free access to them. At the entrance to the Centre, in the vestibule, one meets with a picture—delightfully human in its appeal—"Mahatma Gandhi among children" done by a local artist. The garden is well-provided with swings, chutes, seesaws and merry-go-rounds.

The Delhi Public Library, jointly set up by the Government of India and UNESCO in 1951, runs a colourfully furnished Children's Library in its own building. Children's literature in Hindi, Urdu and English is provided. English picture-books in large numbers are stocked and the text in Hindi is superscribed over the English, so that the non-English-knowing children may also understand them. Mounted pictures of topical interest are displayed and changed frequently. The lady Librarian-in-charge guides the children in the selection of books and in the correct use of the catalogue. She also organises other cultural activities like drama, music and literature studies. The children themselves arrange lectures, debates, story-telling, musical concerts, play-reading and dramas, in which they are the chief and only participants. The paintings and drawings done by the children are exhibited and the best ones are put on the Roll of Honour. Film shows are also organised. A Children's Activity Room with equipment for clay-modelling, paper doll-making, toys and meccanos, is being equipped.

The Cultural Film Society of India has, as an experiment, been running the first Children's Cinema in Delhi, exhibiting some foreign films especially produced for children, such as "Visit to Swans" and "Voyage of Peter Joe" produced by J. Arthur Rank (Children's Division) as well as Indian and other foreign films such as Charlie Chaplin comedies suitable for children. The enthusiasm of the children has so far been very great; a psychological survey is made of the reactions of children of different age-groups to the fare presented. The first Indian film for children—"Khelaghar" (The Toy Shop) has been presented in Bengali. It is the story of a poor street-waif who falls asleep outside a luxurious toy-shop and in his dream, sees the toys come to life and create an enchanting world for him to live in.

The Ajanta, a Delhi organization originally formed to render physical assistance to refugees from Pakistan, has now become an instrument for the cultural and social regeneration of the refugee children (age group 6-12). It organises these children for an intelligently planned and well-ordered scheme of extra-curricular group activities such as the holding of debates, mock parliaments, competitions, lectures, storytelling, dramas and entertainments.

There are ten centres of Children's Club formed by the Ajanta with a membership of nearly a thousand. The Club is run entirely by the children and the office-bearers such as the Ministers for Health, Hobbies, Sports, Wallpaper are all children. The children conduct their own meetings and are quite conversant with the procedure to be adopted at these. The first Sunday of every month, a Parliament is held where besides having lighter entertaining items such as songs and recitations, serious questions are discussed. The group of the different centres learn from one another how to cure unsocial behaviour, how to punish children with dirty nails and untidy hair or how to acquire more reading material for their reading rooms. Usually the children of each centre meet every afternoon after school. Twice a week

they have unorganized activities which give scope to the more original and inventive-minded among them to express their ingenuity.

In the short time that these clubs have come into existence, they have brought about a great change in the lives of refugee children ; those dirty, unsocial waifs who roamed the streets as potential delinquents are now converted to be responsible citizens with well-developed, healthy interest in life and a hope for the future.

The Indian Council for Child Welfare is a well-organised body with headquarters at Delhi, with fifteen state branches and with an extremely comprehensive programme of child welfare activities. Although its main work lies in the field of social service such as running family planning clinics and treating juvenile delinquency, it encourages artistic and literary talent among children. Recently it has organised the sale of Diwali cards made by Indian school-children, to be sent to Indian soldiers in Korea.

LIBRARY MOVEMENT IN INDIA

P. N. Kaula

INDIA is very much advanced in library science and her contribution to the library movement at all levels has been recognised by most of the countries of the world. Delhi University is probably the only university in the Commonwealth—and perhaps in the world excepting the United States and Russia—which has instituted a Master's Degree and a Doctorate Course in Library Science.

In co-operation with UNESCO India has established the Delhi Public Library which is a pilot project for starting similar libraries in Asia. An Indian National Scientific Documentation Centre (INSDOC) has been likewise established in India; this is the only centre of its kind in the East.

India sought the co-operation of other countries to promote a library movement in Asia. The Asian Federation Library Associations (AFLA) was brought into existence in 1951 when delegates from Asian countries attended the ninth All-India Library Conference held at Indore in Madhya Bharat.

India has produced appreciable literature on library science, most of it written by Dr. S. R. Ranganathan. His scheme of classification—Colon Classification—has influenced library thought throughout the world. Colon study groups have been formed in Great Britain, Australia and in other countries. Consequent to this outstanding contribution in library science, UNESCO has entrusted India with many International Projects such as



THE NATIONAL LIBRARY CALCUTTA. Photo shows the advantage of the rolling-stack system of filing books, where each stack can be pulled out to select a book.

General Theory of Classification, Union Catalogue of Periodicals in the Libraries of South Asia, rendering of Asian Names, and a Directory of Asian periodicals.

These are some of the salient features of the Indian library movement. With India's independence, the library movement attained maturity and was better planned.

The pioneer attempts at library movement in India go to the credit of Baroda whose late ruler, Sayaji Rao Gaekwar, established public libraries in 1910. A Central Library with a net-work of branch libraries, a Library Department, a Bureau of Publications, and training facilities were provided, and today over 80% of Baroda's population are served by libraries.

Stimulated by the movement in Baroda, the people of Andhra formed the Andhradesa Library Association as early as 1914, and established several libraries. A library service in boats was started in 1931 which is now serving about fifty villages. The Association has published about two dozen books and publishes a periodical *Andhragranthalayan*.

Calcutta is, perhaps, the only city in India which has a public library system serving most of its divisions. The Bengal Library Association has been rendering library service since 1920.

The first travelling library was established by the Madras Library Association at Mannargudi in 1931. A hospital library service was started in the same year. This association, with Dr. Ranganathan as its Secretary—helped to develop all facets of library movement which culminated in the passing of the first library act of India—Madras Public Library Act in 1949. The Association has also to its credit about two dozen standard publications, the chief work being the *Colon Classification*, which has placed India on the library-map of the world. Since the passing

of the Library Act, the State is developing an extensive library service. New libraries are springing up in various regions, the Connemera Public Library in Madras having become the State Central Library.

The Punjab Library Association was formed at Lahore in 1929 and started a periodical *Modern Librarian* to spread the movement in and outside the Punjab. After the partition, the Association has been revived in East Punjab in 1948. The State Government is starting new libraries at various places in the State. The *Indian Librarian*, a quarterly, was started in 1946 and is now published from Jullundur.

Bombay Library Association was formed in 1944, Poona Library Association in 1945 and Maharashtra Library Association in 1949. All these associations are serving the Bombay State. The Bombay Government is annually spending Rs. 350,000 on about 200 libraries and is giving a substantial grant to about 3,500 libraries under a Social Education Scheme. With the merger of the Baroda State, the Government is also giving a grant to 1600 libraries and a Curator has been appointed for the whole State. Recently, various rural libraries have been started besides establishing a State Central Library at Bombay city and three Regional Central Libraries at Dharwar, Poona and Ahmedabad.

Kerala Library Association came into existence in 1942. The Government of Travancore-Cochin is steadily establishing new libraries. There are 1481 libraries in the State. A library periodical *Granthalokam* is published monthly.

In Delhi, Government of India Libraries Association has been in existence for a number of years. At a convention in August 1953, Delhi Library Association was brought into existence, with plans for intensive work. It organised a Book Festival and is starting a periodical. The Government of India for the first time organised a Children's Book Exhibition in 1953.

Bihar Library Association (Bihar Rajaya Pustakalaya Sangh) was established in 1936. It publishes a periodical *Pustakalaya*. Library Associations have also been formed in Assam, Madhya Pradesh, Madhya Bharat, Orissa, and Hyderabad, and are promoting library movement in their respective States.

At the All-India level, the Indian Library Association was started in 1933 and has been popularising library movement by holding biennial conferences, organising symposia on library education, preparing plans for library development, advising institutions and government on library matters and pursuing intensive study in Library Science through its quarterly ABGILA.

With the growth of Library Movement and springing up of libraries, the status of librarians is also going up, and more facilities for training in Library Science are available in India. Certificate, Diploma, Master's Degree, and Doctorate courses are conducted by various universities. Master's Degree and Doctorate courses have been instituted by Delhi University, Diploma courses by Delhi, Banaras, Madras, and Bombay, and a Certificate course by Aligarh University. Various associations are also conducting Certificate courses to train library personnel.

The Planning Commission in its first Five-Year Plan has stressed the need of a National Central Library. (The Government of India had appointed a National Central Library Committee in 1949, soon after independence, and are now taking up this matter.) The Planning Commission is examining the means and methods of raising the 'library personality' of India. India will soon have a National Central Library as a central reservoir for library movement.

TRENDS IN INDIAN MUSIC

Amalendu Das Gupta

MUSIC is said to be the purest of all arts and yet no other art is circumscribed by such stubborn barriers of taste as are created by musical traditions. In no other art is the channel of communication so direct and yet in no other art does aesthetic enjoyment depend so largely on a conscious cultivation of taste. A Bach or a Mozart finds little sympathy in the sensibility of an average Indian, while Indian music appears baffling and often cacophonous to most foreigners.

It is to be regretted that this is so, for some of the most interesting artistic experiments in India in recent years have been made in the field of music. The basic problems can now be seen against the background of tradition and change.

Classical Indian music is based on an intricate system of *ragas* or modes. But the apparent rigidity of the model structure is not an indication, as the uninitiated may think it to be, of a lack of creative vitality. Perfection in art has the suggestion of a *cul-de-sac*, but the perfection of the classical structure of Indian music is not the perfection of a dead system. Infinite variety and improvisation are permitted within the basic framework. Even the basic forms can be changed by men of genius. The emphasis on conformity is meant to ensure complete mastery of the orthodox techniques before one launches on any radical innovation. And because such



Yehudi Menuhin and Ravi Shanker examine a Sitar.

mastery of the entire body of the science cannot be attained by many, basic changes in the modal structure have been few.

The old grammarians themselves have indicated the directions in which a competent artist can legitimately change the fundamental formulae. The use of a particular note may be forbidden in a *raga*, but a master of the art may use it in such a way as would not vitiate the essential character of the *raga*. In fact, the greatness of an artist is to be measured to a large extent by his balance between tradition and individual non-conformity.

Besides, the modal structure itself has undergone changes. In northern India, many new elements were introduced in the Mughal period; a number of new ragas were introduced by Tansen. The south Indian style, uninfluenced by the Persian tradition, has maintained a larger measure of purity.

Both in the North and in the South, some important changes have taken place by force of social needs. It is important to note that the origin of Indian classical music was not popular; it is traced to the chanting of hymns by a highly enlightened section of the community. In the course of its development, it has undoubtedly been influenced by folk forms, but the influence has never been considerable, the intermingling of the two streams never particularly intimate or wide. The classical tradition has always been an exclusive and sophisticated art, flourishing mostly under Court patronage.

The decay of the feudal order and the emergence of the new middle class called for a major change. The classical system cannot thrive in the absence of leisure. An Indian musician may require two or three hours fully to demonstrate a *raga*. The new class found the classical system too abstract and the popular tradition too naive. It had to create its own music.

The problem was difficult because of the magnitude of the hiatus between the classical and popular traditions. The best way of meeting the demand for a new kind of light music was to try to bridge this gulf. The most fruitful experiments in this field have been made by Rabindranath Tagore. He wrote the music for most of the two thousand and odd songs that he composed, and the delicately varied tunes show his fine understanding of both the classical and folk techniques as well as his certain grasp of the spirit of Indian music. He drew upon both the classical ragas and various folk forms of Bengal, such as, *Baul*, *Bhatiali* and *Kirtan*. And the way he blended the diverse strands reveals his keen awareness of the aesthetic needs of modern sensibility.

Tagore's influence, however, has been limited mostly to Bengal. In South India, the problem has been very difficult because of a comparatively strong hold of tradition and orthodoxy. But in the northern parts of the country, where Hindustani music had its most glorious flowering under Hindu and Muslim Kings, the decline of the classical tradition created a vacuum, which could not be quite filled by the existing light forms.

It is against these background that we must consider the nature, scope and significance of the impact of Western music. It is the cheapest forms of Western music that have had any wide influence in this country. These were introduced mainly through film songs. In the absence of any new and significant light music, people found in the obstreperous rag-time the most inviting source of easy entertainment. Banal lyrics set to base hybrid music threatened to sway the entire field of popular musical entertainment.

Many saw the danger, and even those who found it difficult to resist the lilting or staccato rag-time forms soon began to tire of vulgarity. It has now been widely recognised that any attempt to create a significant musical tradition with cheap Western pastiche is bound to fail.

This realization has focussed attention on the entire problem of Indian music in the context of present conditions. The problem is two-fold. In the first place, steps have to be taken to sustain and develop the classical tradition which, now largely deprived of feudal patronage, must find new means to support its continuity and growth. Once it was sustained by a few, now it has to be maintained by many or by bodies which represent these many. Since the burden of patronage will have to be jointly borne by the entire community, there must be a wider realization of its worth. In short, the taste for classical music will have to spread for reasons other than purely aesthetic.

It is a matter of some satisfaction that there has of late been considerable progress in this direction. The interest in classical music has been steadily widening.

A large contribution to this development has been made by All-India Radio. In the past few years, it has taken a number of steps to popularize classical music. It has been broadcasting a series of special programmes explaining the principles of the classical structure with suitable demonstrations. The introduction of the National Programme of Music more than a year ago has brought the richest variety of the existing heritage within the reach of the average listener. These measures have also given a fillip to further development of the art.

Credit must also be given to several institutes of classical music, such as the Marris College of Hindustani Music in Lucknow, as well as the music associations in the big cities which organise conferences where the best of the living artists assemble and perform. The growing popularity of these conferences is proof of the wider interest in classical music that has been created in the country.

These conferences and radio programmes ensure a certain amount of patronage. The institution of Presidential Awards

for "Musicians of the Year" has also ensured official encouragement, if not financial patronage. The extent of effective patronage has increased by the establishment of the Sangeet and Natak Akadami.

The Akadami was set up by the Government of India in January, 1952. It will organize music festivals on National Days, such as programmes for Republic and Independence Days, etc.

The Sanads or awards to musicians of the year will be administered by the Akadami from 1954 and not by the Central Education Ministry. The Akadami expects a grant from the Indian Government for a National Theatre.

The other aspect of the problem relates to popular entertainment. There must be a vital and significant tradition of light music, music which will be widely attractive without being crude or vulgar. There are two main sources on which one can draw in building this tradition : the classical ragas and the various folk forms. The existing light forms within the classical framework, such as *Thumri*, *Tappa* and *Dadra*, can also provide charming slants in the style of new music. An infinitely varied range of combinations can be tried in creating new tunes. In Bengal, besides Tagore, much good work has been done by composers like Atul Prasad and Nazrul Islam. Experiments are also being made in other parts of the country and some interesting results have already been achieved. Some film producers have tried the experiment of setting modern songs to classical *ragas* with a considerable measure of success. All-India Radio has set up expert units to evolve new forms of light music. These are important steps and reveal a sense of purpose and direction which gives one some optimism in viewing the future of light music.

The optimism can justifiably be felt in surveying the entire field of Indian music today. If giants like Nasiruddin, Abdul Karim, or Faiaz Khan are no more, some of the old

masters like Mushtaq Hussain and Dwaram Venkataswamy Naidu are still among us. In the field of teaching, the great work of Bhatkhande is being ably carried on by Srikrishna Ratanjankar. What is more important, there are now a band of young artists with great promise, some of whom are trying to explore new field in techniques. The most interesting experiment is the attempt to introduce orchestration in Indian music ; its final outcome will be of basic significance.

In music, the meeting of the East and the West, at least on present showing, has not been particularly fruitful. But that may not be due to any inherent irreconcilability. The harmonic structure of Western music and the melodic character of the Indian has perhaps been over-emphasised. In spite of the relative pre-dominance of harmony and melody, some ground for at least a partial meeting may yet be found. But listening habits stand as a formidable obstacle in the way of mutual appreciation and exchange. To overcome this obstacle one has to subordinate one's cultivated sense of values to a purer kind of aesthetic reaction. As Yehudi Menuhin recently said : "In abandoning the desire for the dramatic in our own music, from the vast range of sound from the softest to the most crashing fortissimo, from the smoothest, warmest harmony to the sharpest and most dissonant, in abandoning these conceptions of our own, and entering, if only for a short while, into the spirit of India, a new world opens to us, one which is not the less evolved or sophisticated for being the less exciting, but which has an incredible variety within a relatively narrow range."

