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IMPLEMENTATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL COVENANT ON
ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS

Reports submitted in accordance with Council resolution 1988 (LX)
by States parties to the Covenant, concerning rights covered by
articles 10 to 12

INDIA

{30 May 1983}

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INTRODUCTION

1. Articles 10 to 12 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights deal with the protection of the family, mothers and children; the right to an adequate standard of living; and the right to physical and mental health. The Constitution of India contains Directive Principles of State Policy under Part IV and Fundamental Rights under Part III which bear on the pertinent subject matter of the Covenant. Since all laws formulated by the central and state Governments in India concerning the rights covered by articles 10 to 12 of the International Covenant flow from the Constitution, its relevant provisions are reproduced below:

Article 38 (1)

"The State shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may a social order in which justice, social, economic and political, shall inform all the institutions of the national life."

Article 38 (2)

"The State shall, in particular, strive to minimise the inequalities in income and endeavour to eliminate inequalities in status, facilities and opportunities, not only amongst individuals but also amongst groups of people residing in different areas or engaged in different vocations."

Article 39

"The State shall, in particular, direct its policy towards securing

"(a) that the citizens, men and women equally, have the right to an adequate means of livelihood;

"(b) that the ownership and control of the material resources of the community are so distributed as best to subserve the common good;

"(c) that the operation of the economic system does not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment;

"(d) that there is equal pay for equal work for both men and women;

"(e) that the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength;

"(f) that children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against material abandonment."

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Article 42

"The State shall make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work and for maternity relief."

Article 43

"The State shall endeavour to secure, by suitable legislation or economic organization or in any other way, to all workers, agricultural, industrial or otherwise, work, a living wage, conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of life and full enjoyment of leisure and social and cultural opportunities and, in particular, the State shall endeavour to promote cottage industries on an individual or co-operative basis in rural areas."

Article 47

"The State shall regard the raising of the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people and the improvement of public health as among its primary duties."

Articles 23 and 24 of the Constitution state:

Article 23 (1)

"Traffic in human beings and beggar and other similar forms of forced labour are prohibited and any contravention of this provision shall be an offence punishable in accordance with law."

Article 23 (2)

"Nothing in this article shall prevent the State from imposing compulsory service for public purposes, and in imposing such service the State shall not make any discrimination on grounds only of religion, race, caste or class or any of them."

Article 24

"No child below the age of fourteen years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment."

2. In addition to the Constitutional provisions, there are statutes which are relevant in the context of the realization of the rights as contained in articles 10 to 12 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. These are:

- (a) Employment of Children Act, 1938;
- (b) Minimum Wages Act, 1948;
- (c) Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923;

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- (d) Maternity Benefit Act, 1961;
- (e) Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954;
- (f) Vaccination Act, 1880;
- (g) Epidemic Diseases Act, 1897;
- (h) Lepers Act, 1898;
- (i) Hindu Marriage Act, 1955;
- (j) Special Marriage Act, 1954;
- (k) Indian Christian Marriage Act, 1872;
- (l) Indian Divorce Act, 1869;
- (m) Child Marriage (Restraint) Act, 1929;
- (n) Factories Act, 1948;
- (o) Mines Act, 1952;
- (p) Merchant Shipping Act, 1958;
- (q) Motor Transport Workers Act, 1951;
- (r) Plantation Labour Act, 1951;
- (s) Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966;
- (t) Children's (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933;
- (u) Apprentices Act, 1961;
- (v) Shops and Establishments Acts;
- (w) Children's Act, 1960;
- (x) Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956;
- (y) Reformatory Schools Act, 1897;
- (z) Rent Control Act;
- (aa) Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act, 1976.

3. There are a few other statutes which have come into existence and which are referred to under the relevant sections below dealing with the specific subjects of the individual articles of the Covenant.

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I. ARTICLE 10: PROTECTION OF THE FAMILY, MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

A. Protection of the family

4. The Constitution of India guarantees full sanctity to and protection of the family, since several communities with distinct religions, customs and cultures compose India, matters concerning marriage among the various communities are governed by their respective laws and by relevant legislation of the Indian Parliament. The relevant legislative measures taken by the Central Government which govern marriage in India include the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955 as amended by the Marriage Laws (Amendment) Act, 1976; the Special Marriage Act, 1954; the Indian Christian Marriage Act, 1872; the Indian Divorce Act, 1869; and the Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929.

5. Consent for marriage is regulated by the respective laws prevalent in the various communities. Consent for marriage among the Hindus is, inter alia, enshrined in the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955. Some of the important changes brought about by the 1976 amendment of Hindu Marriage Act, worth noting here, are as follows:

- (a) Liberalization of the grounds for divorce and judicial separation;
- (b) Giving discretion to the Court to grant judicial separation instead of divorce in appropriate cases;
- (c) Disposing of the waiting period of one year for remarriage after divorce;
- (d) Reducing the period to apply for divorce after judicial separation from two years to one year;
- (e) Procedural changes to smooth and expedite matrimonial cases.

6. The position is no different in the case of the Muslims who are governed by their respective laws. In Muslim Law, every Muhammadan of sound mind who has obtained puberty is competent to enter into a contract of marriage. Puberty is presumed, generally, on the completion of 15 years of age. Similarly, the Christian Marriage Act governs the marriage out of free consent among Christians in India.

7. The Special Marriage Act provides for civil marriage by registration out of free consent.

8. The Child Marriage (Restraint) Act, 1929 was amended in 1978 to raise the age of marriage for girls from 15 to 18 and for boys from 18 to 21. Offence under the Act has been made cognizable.

9. The Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 which was to cover different employment and industries in a phased manner has been extended to cover all employment. This Act also provides for (a) the setting up of advisory committees to advise the

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Government on ways and means to increase the employment of women; and (b) the setting up of authorities for hearing claims, complaints and appeals under the Act and its proper implementation.

B. Protection of mothers

10. The Maternity Benefit Act, 1961 was amended in 1976 to cover women who did not fall within the purview of the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948. Now, both these Acts provide for the granting of a maternity benefit at the rate of the average daily wage for a maximum period of 12 weeks in case of confinement, 6 weeks in case of a miscarriage and 1 month in case of sickness arising out of pregnancy etc. These Acts also provide that a woman employee shall not be dismissed or discharged during the period of maternity leave, including leave for sickness arising out of pregnancy.

11. The Maternity Benefit Act also provides that no pregnant woman shall, upon a request being made by her in this behalf, be required by her employer to do, during the period of 1 month immediately preceding the period of 6 weeks before the date of her expected delivery, any work which is of an arduous nature or which involves long hours of standing or which in any way is likely to interfere with her pregnancy or the normal development of the foetus or is likely to cause her to miscarry or otherwise adversely to affect her health.

12. The female employees of the central civil Government are also entitled to the grant of maternity leave for a period of 90 days under rule 43(i) of the Central Secretariat Service (Leave) Rules, 1972. This leave can be taken before or after childbirth, as may be required by the mother. With the maternity leave, leave of any other kind can be granted for 60 days without production of medical certificate. Leave can also be granted on production of a medical certificate for the illness of the female government servant. Such leave can also be granted in case of illness of a newly born baby.

13. The Factories Act, 1948 was amended in 1976 to provide for establishment of a crèche where 30 women are employed as against 50 hitherto. Provision for childcare facilities exist in various Acts. The Factories Act, 1948, the Plantation Labour Act, 1951, the Beedi and Cigar Workers Act, 1966 and the Contract Labour Central Rules, 1971 stipulate that crèches should be provided in factories, mines, plantations, industrial establishments and contract labour establishments under certain conditions. Under the Factories Act, a crèche has to be set up in every factory which employs 30 or more women. Under the Plantations Labour Act and the Beedi and Cigar Workers Act, in every plantation or industrial premises in which 50 or more women are employed, crèches have to be set up. Under the Mines Act, wherever women, without stipulating any minimum number, are employed, a crèche has to be set up. Under the Contract Labour Rules, one of the conditions in the licence granted to a contractor is that wherever 20 or more women are employed in an establishment, a crèche will have to be set up. The room for the crèche should provide adequate accommodation, be adequately lighted and ventilated and should be under the charge of a woman trained in the care of children and infants.

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14. The judiciary in India has contributed to the progressive improvement in the status of women by interpretation of relevant statutes and laws in keeping with the spirit of the Constitution and the social changes sought to be brought about in the country.

15. Further, it was also realized that the problem of illiteracy is, to a great extent, the problem of illiteracy of women and, therefore, the Working Group on Adult Education, set up by the Government of India as part of the preparation for the national adult education programme in the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-1985), constituted a special committee on an adult education programme for women to consider the problem, especially in relation to adult women, and to suggest administrative and other measures necessary for tackling the problem. The Committee recommended that the adult education programme for women should be aimed at: (a) making men and women more conscious of their rights and responsibilities, the implications of the laws governing women's status in the society, and developing and understanding the manifest and concealed ways that cause women's oppression; (b) assisting women to achieve economic viability through the acquisition of literacy and other necessary skills and resources; (c) providing women access to knowledge in their areas, particularly health, child care, nutrition family planning, etc.; and (d) assisting women to form their own groups for learning and productive activity and to strengthen their participation and voice in the developmental process. These recommendations have been the basis for developing the national adult education programme.

1. Antenatal health supervision

16. Routine antenatal health supervision is provided to pregnant mothers in rural areas through primary health centres and subcentres, and in urban towns through maternity hospitals, maternal and child health centres, maternity wings of general hospitals etc. Routine health supervision, specialized laboratory examinations as indicated, treatment and correction of deviations from normalcy, and health and nutrition education are given at the antenatal clinics. Maternal and child health workers like the lady health visitor and the auxiliary nurse visit mothers in their homes to attract those who do not attend the clinics, as well as to follow up the advice given at the clinics and to assess the family's circumstances. In the rural areas, the target is to give a minimum of four antenatal health examinations, one of them in the last month of pregnancy. In urban areas, a majority of mothers avail themselves of the services; in the rural areas, the proportion of mothers who receive antenatal supervision is low.

2. Natal services

17. Facilities for childbirth are provided in the maternity hospitals, the maternity homes and the maternity wings of general hospitals and in the primary health centres. A majority of the hospital beds for delivery services are located in urban towns. In the rural areas, the majority of childbirths take place in the home. The trained personnel, like the auxiliary nurse midwives, midwives and lady health visitors, assist at childbirth in the home. However, the number of trained personnel are again limited and not sufficient to attend all childbirths in rural

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India. Therefore, the policy of the Government is to train and involve the traditional birth attendants who are already providing the services to women in rural areas. Up to 30 April 1981, 304,561 traditional birth attendants have been given training to teach them the elementary principles of assisting at deliveries. The objective is to train at least one such traditional birth attendant for each one of the 585,000 villages in the country by the year 1982-1983.

3. Postnatal care

18. The mothers who deliver in the institutions receive post-delivery care for five to seven days before they are discharged. Postnatal care is also provided for mothers delivering in the home by the trained maternal and child health workers from the primary health centres and subcentres. They visit the home and try to provide care for the mother and the new-born infant. Attention is paid to ensure the proper involution of the uterus, the prevention of infection and the establishment of breast-feeding.

C. Protection of children and young persons

19. India is one of the few countries which has adopted a national policy for children. The National Policy for Children, adopted on 22 August 1974, envisages that adequate services be provided to children both before and after birth and through the period of growth to ensure full physical, mental and social development. This Policy also envisages the increase in the scope of such services, so that all children in the country will enjoy optimal conditions within a reasonable time.

20. Towards this end, the following measures, inter alia, have been adopted:

- " (i) All children shall be covered by a comprehensive health programme.
- " (ii) Programmes shall be implemented to provide nutrition services with the object of removing deficiencies in the diet of children.
- " (iii) Programmes will be undertaken for the general improvement of health and for the care, nutrition and nutritional education of expectant and nursing mothers.
- " (iv) The State shall take steps to provide free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14 years. Special efforts will be made to reduce the prevailing wastage and stagnation in schools, particularly in the case of girls and children of the weaker sections of society. The programme of informal education for pre-school children from such sections will be taken up.
- " (v) Children who are not able to take full advantage of formal school education shall be provided other forms of education suited to their requirements.

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- " (vi) Physical education, games, sports and other types of recreational, as well as cultural and scientific activities shall be promoted in schools, community centres and such other institutions.
- " (vii) To ensure equality of opportunity, special assistance shall be provided to all children belonging to the weaker sections of society, such as children belonging to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and those belonging to the economically weaker sections of society, both in urban and rural areas.
- " (viii) Children who are socially handicapped, who have become delinquent or have been forced to take to begging or are otherwise in distress shall be provided facilities for education, training and rehabilitation and will be helped to become useful citizens.
- " (ix) Children shall be protected against neglect, cruelty and exploitation.
- " (x) No child under 14 years shall be permitted to be engaged in any hazardous occupation or be made to undertake heavy work.
- " (xi) Facilities shall be provided for the special treatment, education, rehabilitation and care of children who are physically handicapped, emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded.
- " (xii) Children shall be given priority for protection and relief in times of distress or natural calamity.
- " (xiii) Special programmes shall be formulated to spot, encourage and assist gifted children, particularly those belonging to the weaker sections of society."

21. While the central and state Governments are obliged to implement the national policy measures for the welfare of children, the role of voluntary organizations, trusts, charities and religious and other endowments have been equally highlighted.

1. Integrated Child Development Service (ICDS)

22. Recognizing the importance of early childhood services as the initial stage in building up human resources so vital to the social and economic progress of the country, the Integrated Child Development Services have been started. The scheme is aimed at providing a package of services consisting of immunization, supplementary nutrition, health check-up, referral services, nutritional and health education and informal pre-school education to children in the 0- to 6-year-old age group and pregnant and nursing mothers in rural tribal and urban slum areas. Up to 31 March 1982, 300 ICDS projects had already been started. It has been decided to reach a target of 1,000 projects by the end of the Sixth Five-Year Plan period (1980-1985).

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2. Services for children in need of care and protection

23. Child welfare has been the concern of both the central and state Governments. Various States have passed their Children's Acts, while in 1960 the central Government passed the Children's Act. These legislations deal with the treatment and rehabilitation of the socially neglected children, such as the neglected, destitute, victimized, delinquent and exploited. The basic objective underlying the Children's Acts is the recognition by the State of its obligation to provide general protection for children. The preamble of the central Government's Children's Act of 1960, which is similar to the States' enactments, lays down that the purpose of the legislation, inter alia, is to provide for the care, protection, maintenance, welfare, training, education and rehabilitation of neglected or delinquent children.

24. The 1960 Children's Act provided for the establishment of child welfare boards to investigate the problems of neglected children and to formulate treatment plans. More importantly, the Act provided for the first time a separate machinery to deal with the neglected children, as distinguished from the machinery to deal with the delinquent children. Accordingly, the child welfare boards established under this Act would investigate the problems of neglected children while the children's courts and juvenile courts would continue to deal with the delinquent children. One of the members of the Child Welfare Board, as well as the Children's Court, should be a woman. The members are expected to possess "special knowledge of child psychology and child welfare".

25. The Children's Acts generally provide for the short-term and long-term institutional care, protection and rehabilitation of neglected and other children. The short-term institutions are known by different names, such as observation homes, remand homes, places of safety etc. These institutions could be established and maintained by the Government directly or the Government may recognize suitable institutions for this purpose. Such recognition may be withdrawn if the institution is not managed according to the rules. Besides, these institutions are supposed to provide the children with facilities for useful occupation, as well as physical care. Essentially, these institutions serve as venues of temporary care and custody for children, pending final disposition of their cases.

26. The children who are not released on the basis of inquiry before a board or juvenile court could be committed by such a board or court to long-term institutions. The central Children's Act provides for children's homes for receiving neglected children and special schools for delinquent children. These institutions, too, are known by names under various state enactments. The control and management of the long-term institutions are undertaken according to prescribed rules. There is also provision for inspection.

27. As an extension of the institutional services, after-care services are also offered. The objective is to provide the child with proper rehabilitation as an integral part of the correctional and welfare scheme. For instance, section 12 of the central Children's Act of 1960 provides:

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"The Administrator may, by rules made under this Act, provide for the establishment or recognition of after-care organisations and may vest them with such parts as may be necessary for effectively carrying out their functions under this Act.

"Every such organisation shall take care of the children when they leave children's homes or special schools and, for the purpose of enabling them to lead an honest and welfare life, take all such measures as may be prescribed."

28. However, the concerned authority issuing an order for sending a child to a children's home or placing the child under other suitable care may, after enquiring into the circumstances of the parent or other person liable to maintain the child, make an order requiring him to contribute towards the maintenance of the child. The authority can also direct a parent or such other person to send his physically or mentally retarded children to special schools.

29. On the specific question of young girls in danger of exploitation, the Children's Acts, as well as the Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956, are pertinent. The definition of "neglected children" under the Children's Acts, covers young girls. These Acts provide for punishment for those who induce the children to lead an immoral life or who behave immorally with girls. The Government is empowered to establish protective homes for the purpose of rehabilitating these girls. In addition, the central Children's Act and the state Acts also deal with the problem of children and beggary. They offer suitable remedial measures to tackle this question.

30. The central and state Children's Acts provide for the protection of victimized children. For instance, under the central Children's Act, 1960, whoever having the actual charge or control over a child assaults, abandons, exposes or wilfully neglects the child, or causes the child to be assaulted, abandoned, exposed or neglected in a manner likely to cause such child unnecessarily mental and physical suffering, shall be punishable with prescribed imprisonment. In addition, the Indian Penal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure (1868 and 1973) deal with the matters concerning crimes committed on children. At the same time, a reformatory approach is adopted in case of crimes committed by children. For instance, under section 83 of the Indian Penal Code:

"Nothing is an offence which is done by a child above 7 years of age and under 12, who is not in a sufficient maturity of understanding to judge the nature and consequences of his conduct on that action."

31. The Reformatory Schools Act, 1897 deals with the question of the reformation of juvenile delinquents. Under the 1973 Code of Criminal Procedure, the procedure concerning this matter has been streamlined as follows:

"Any offence not punishable with death or imprisonment for life committed by any person who, at the date when he appears or is brought before the Court, is under the age of 16 years may be tried by the Court of a Chief Judicial Magistrate, or by any Court specially empowered under the Children's Act, 1960 or any other law for the time being in force which provides for the treatment, training and rehabilitation of youthful offenders."

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32. The Criminal Law and Procedure extend lenient treatment to the young offenders as compared to others. The Probation of Offenders Act, 1958 also places restrictions on the imprisonment of these young offenders. Thus, the basic objective is to seek reformation of the offender and alternative approaches to punishment, such as sending the child offenders to a reformatory, borstal or approved school when available.

3. Special nutrition programme

33. Under this scheme, supplementary nutrition is provided to pre-school children, pregnant women and nursing mothers belonging to the weaker sections of society. By the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan, there were 3.7 million beneficiaries. About 8 million children, and pregnant and nursing mothers were covered by 1980-1981.

4. Child labour

34. The Indian Government and the legislatures have been seized of the question of child labour for a long time. The Constitution of India prohibited the employment of any child below the age of 14 years in any factory or mine or the child's engagement in any other hazardous employment. Besides, there is a series of specific enactments governing the question. They include the Factories Act, 1948; the Mines Act, 1952; the Employment of Children Act, 1938; the Merchant Shipping Act, 1958; the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1951; the Plantation Labour Act, 1951; the Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966; the Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933; the Apprentices Act, 1961; and the Shops and Establishments Acts.

35. The Factories Act prohibits the employment of a child below 14 years of age in any factory. Restrictions are also placed on the employment of young persons between 14 and 18 years of age. These young persons are required to obtain a certificate of fitness from a qualified surgeon and a periodical medical examination is also required. The restrictions also relate to the working hours, in that children between the ages of 14 and 15 years cannot be employed for more than 4 1/2 hours in a day. They cannot also be exposed to dangerous machines and put to hazardous work. A scheme is envisaged to enforce the various provisions of the Act.

36. The Mines Act also provides for similar restrictions on the employment of children in mines, but the restrictions here are more stringent. More importantly, children can be employed only in jobs above ground. An employer who contravenes these and other provisions concerning child labour is liable for prescribed punishments under the Act.

37. The Employment of Children Act, 1938 specifically prevents the employment of children in hazardous jobs and those injurious to their health. They relate to employment in the transport of passengers, goods or mails by railway etc. Under the Act, no child below 14 years of age can be employed in any workshop in which beedi making, carpet weaving, cement manufacture, cloth printing, dyeing, manufacture of machines and fireworks etc. are undertaken. Contravention of the Act by an employer would entail prescribed punishments.

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38. The Merchant Shipping Act provides for some restrictions in regard to the nature of the jobs for children on ships.

39. The employment of children below the age of 15 years in motor transport is prohibited by the Motor Transport Workers Act of 1951. An adolescent (between 15 and 18 years of age) can be employed under certain conditions, such as the provision of a medical fitness certificate and compliance with permissible hours of employment. The offences under this Act entail penalties along the lines of the Factories Act.

40. The Plantation Labour Act, 1951 prohibits the employment of children who have not completed 12 years of age in tea, coffee, rubber and cinchona plantations. However, adolescents with a proper certificate of medical fitness could be employed for a certain number of hours in a week.

41. The Beedi and Cigar Workers Act covers both factory-based employment, as well as employment in private dwelling houses. The prescribed minimum age limit here is 14 years, with the usual restriction that the adolescents cannot be made to work at night. Like the Plantation Labour Act, this Act also contains a provision for crèches in the place of employment. The Act also contains the usual provisions in regard to offences and penalties.

42. Not only is the employment of children thus legally governed and restricted under several enactments but any agreement to pledge the labour of children for employment has also been legally prohibited. The concerned legislation is the Children's (Pledging of Labour) Act 1933. While such an agreement is void under this Act, it could also be so under the Indian Contract Act since such a contract is in contravention of public policy. Moreover, any person making such a pledge is subject to penalty inasmuch as any employer knowing that such an agreement exists who still employs the child shall be equally punished.

43. In addition to the employment of children, their training as apprentices has been regulated by the Apprentice Act, 1961. Accordingly, no person below 14 years of age is qualified for apprenticeship. That is, the Act enables adolescents between 14 and 18 years of age and adults to be trained in certain factories and industries. The conditions of such apprenticeships are to be notified by the Central Government from time to time, after necessary consultations with the central Apprenticeship Council constituted under this Act. The Act also provides for different authorities to deal with matters arising out of and connected with the implementation of the provisions of the Act.

44. Finally, various States have enacted legislation governing the employment of children in shops. These shops and Establishments Acts apply to shops simpliciter, commercial establishments, restaurants and hotels, places of amusement etc., and generally prohibit the employment of a child.

45. In addition to the above legal controls, a National Committee on Child Labour has been set up to work out and suggest necessary steps in order further to improve the conditions of child labour.

5. Crèches for working and ailing women's children

46. This scheme is aimed at providing day-care services for the children in the 0-5 year age group of mainly casual, migrant, agricultural and construction labourers. The children of such women who are sick or incapacitated owing to sickness are also covered under the scheme. The scheme is framed to cater to the very low-income groups and, therefore, only those children whose parents' total monthly income does not exceed Rs 300 are covered under this scheme. The services available to the children include sleeping facilities, day-care facilities, supplementary nutrition, immunization, medicine, entertainment and weekly check-ups. The financial assistance for this scheme is provided by the central and state Governments. The scheme is being implemented through the central Social Welfare Board with the assistance of the social welfare voluntary organizations throughout the country. The implementing organizations receive 90 per cent of the total expenditure according to the schematic pattern and the remaining 10 per cent is met by the organizations from their own resources. The scheme was established in the year 1974-1975 and gained momentum in the following years. In 1974-1975 Rs 593,000 were sanctioned for 247 crèches for 6,175 children. In 1975-1976, a grant of Rs 2.836 million was sanctioned for 741 crèches for 18,525 children. In 1976-1977, Rs 2.5 million was sanctioned for 762 crèches for 19,050 children. In 1977-1978, Rs 4.5 million was sanctioned for 1,929 crèches covering 23,225 children. In 1978-1979, Rs 5 million was sanctioned for 1,384 crèches for 34,600 children and in the year 1979-1980 an amount of Rs 7.925 million was sanctioned for the establishment of 1,791 crèche units for 49,275 children. In 1980-1981 an amount of Rs 17.5 million was sanctioned for 4,398 crèches for 109,950 children. There was a provision of Rs 22 million during the year 1981-1982 for 5,000 crèches for 125,000 children.

II. ARTICLE 11: RIGHT TO AN ADEQUATE STANDARD OF LIVING

47. In accordance with the provisions of the Directive Principles of State Policy contained in the Constitution, the Government of India has been persevering to improve the standards of living of all people in the country through various measures, such as harnessing natural resources, increasing cultivable agricultural land, and enhancing food production and its distribution to all sections of the people. These efforts of the Government have to be viewed in the background of the enormity of the problems posed by a very large population and also the fact that more than 70 per cent of the population live in far-flung rural areas. Moreover, malnutrition, including under-nutrition, is undoubtedly one of the biggest problems affecting public life in the country. It has been estimated that nearly 48 per cent of the population live below the poverty level and are in no position to afford adequate quantities of food. The elimination of poverty, therefore, finds the highest priority in the Government's development plans. However, until such time as this objective is fully realized, the poorer sections of the population will have to be provided with items of social consumption and investment, such as education, health, nutrition, drinking water and housing.

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A. Right to adequate food

48. The concept of the basic need for adequate food has been enshrined, as stated earlier, in the Directive Principles of State Policy. Further, the various administrative measures taken by the Government in the matter of food production, agrarian reform, food distribution and the provision of social security for the unemployed, the sick, the aged and the children are all designed to ensure that every one in the country has the means of getting food.

1. Measures taken to develop or reform existing agrarian systems in order to achieve the most efficient development and utilization of natural resources

49. The Government of India's achievement in reforming and modernizing the agrarian structure it inherited at Independence has been remarkable. The structure that developed during colonial rule was characterized by pronounced inequalities in access to land, insecurity of tenure of cultivating tenants, rack-renting by a non-cultivating landlord class and stagnation in agricultural productivity. All intermediary tenures between the State and the landowners have been abolished. Extensive tenancy reforms (consisting of security of tenure, a ceiling on rent and heritability of tenancy) have been carried out. In some States, cultivating tenants have been conferred ownership rights. Even in States in which these rights have not been conferred, tenants enjoy the other protections.

50. There is a ceiling on agricultural holdings. Considerable land declared surplus to the ceiling has been vested in the State which has distributed it among landless agricultural labourers. The ceiling legislation was aimed at the elimination of the class of landowners who, by virtue of the size of their holdings, wielded enormous economic and social authority.

51. These reforms have brought about greater social and economic justice and have removed constraints on the production potential of Indian agriculture. There is a new climate of enterprise and investment, unimpeded by the risk of expropriation of the fruits of enterprise and investment by a rentier class.

52. The Integrated Rural Development Programme is a major instrument for the alleviation of poverty in India's Sixth Five-Year Plan and it is now a part of the 20-Point Programme. Aimed at the weakest elements in India's rural society consisting of agricultural labourers, rural artisans and craftsmen, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, marginal farmers and small farmers, this Programme is intended to provide a comprehensive package of input, technology and training for raising the income levels of the identified families. The families are identified on the basis of systematic household surveys. Local institutions like Gram Sabhas (village assemblies) are involved in this process. On an average, 600 families are assisted under this Programme in each of the 5,000 development blocks covering India's rural areas. Thus, 3 million families are assisted through this Programme alone in one year and an estimated 15 million families would rise above the poverty line through the assistance provided by this Programme during the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-1985). Considering the special needs of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, at least 30 per cent of the resources under this Programme are earmarked for them, and it is expected that at least 4.5 million families of this

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category would derive substantial benefits through this Programme during the Sixth Plan period. The Programme is funded through outright subsidies provided by the State and loans advanced by banking institutions, including co-operatives. A total investment of Rs 45 billion is likely to take place under this Programme during the Sixth Plan period.

53. The methodology adopted for the Integrated Rural Development Programme lays emphasis on micro-level planning for local resource development, employment and income generation for the weaker sections of society. An adequate organizational structure has been created for undertaking effectively such exercises. The co-ordinating agency at the district level is the District Rural Development Agency (DRDA), headed by the District Collector who is assisted by a full-time Project Officer and a multi-disciplinary team of assistant project officers with expertise in economic planning, statistics, credit planning, project formulation in agriculture, animal husbandry and related disciplines of local relevance. The team at the block level also consists of specialists in agriculture and other disciplines, and extension workers at the village level and local institutions, such as panchayats, are involved in the planning, implementation and monitoring of the Programme.

54. The implementation of this Programme, in conjunction with a massive minimum needs programme, is expected to bring about significant improvements in the production, employment and nutritional levels of the economically and socially under-privileged sections of India's rural society.

2. Measures taken to improve the methods of production and the quantity and quality of food produced, to increase the yield per unit of cultivated land and to improve methods of animal husbandry, including animal health, by making full use of technical and scientific knowledge, in particular by (a) the promotion of agricultural research, the introduction and use of appropriate material, equipment and techniques and (b) the adoption of measures to disseminate knowledge on the use of such material, equipment and techniques

55. In order to accelerate the pace of agricultural production in the country, a new strategy is being adopted to extend the use of modern production techniques in agriculture. It includes the cultivation of high-yielding varieties over large areas; the development of irrigation facilities, in particular the exploitation of ground-water resources; the adequate and balanced use of fertilizers; the adoption of need-based plant protection measures; and a well-organized and systematic supply of input, including credit through institutional and other financing agencies. In addition, efforts have been made to bring science and technology closer to the farmers through education and training and a strengthened extension set-up. Special emphasis is being laid on programmes for the uplift of the weaker sections of the rural population, particularly the small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, and farmers in drought-prone areas, tribal and hill areas etc.

56. The strategy and developmental schemes adopted by the Government of India for the increased production of food grains and pulses could be better appreciated on the basis of the available data (from 1950 to 1980) given below.

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Principal crops in India, 1950 to 1980

A. Area under principal crops

(thousands of hectares)

Crops	1950- 1951	1960- 1961	1970- 1971	1977- 1978	1978- 1979	1979- 1980	1980- 1981
Rice	30 810	34 128	37 592	40 282	40 482	39 414	39 773
Jowar	15 571	18 412	17 374	16 318	16 146	16 674	15 610
Bajra	9 023	11 469	12 913	11 104	11 393	10 579	11 630
Maize	3 159	4 407	5 852	5 683	5 760	5 720	5 983
Ragee	2 203	2 515	2 472	2 600	2 705	2 615	2 341
Small millets	4 605	4 955	4 783	4 574	4 397	4 002	3 895
Wheat	9 746	12 927	18 241	21 456	22 641	22 172	22 104
Barley	3 113	3 205	2 555	2 001	1 828	1 771	1 821
Total cereals	78 230	92 018	101 782	104 018	105 352	102 947	103 157
Gram	7 570	9 276	7 839	7 974	7 708	6 985	6 720
Tur	2 181	2 433	2 655	2 626	2 635	2 731	2 811
Other pulses	9 340	11 854	12 040	12 897	13 314	12 543	13 103
Total foodgrains	97 321	115 581	124 316	127 515	129 009	125 206	125 791
Sugar-cane	1 707	2 415	2 615	3 151	3 088	2 610	2 648
Black pepper	80	103	107	105	85	111	111
Chillies	592	667	783	791	826	854	825
Groundnuts	4 494	6 463	7 326	7 028	7 433	7 165	6 905
Castor seeds	555	466	439	380	447	440	501
Sesamum	2 204	2 169	2 433	2 384	2 389	2 377	2 443
Rapeseed and mustard	2 071	2 883	3 323	3 584	3 544	3 471	4 063
Linseed	1 403	1 789	1 897	2 010	2 991	1 614	1 711
Cotton	5 882	7 610	7 605	7 866	8 119	8 078	-
Jute	571	629	749	797	884	834	942
Mesta	n.a.	274	330	365	380	383	358

B. Production of principal crops

Crops	1950- 1951	1960- 1961	1970- 1971	1977- 1978	1978- 1979	1979- 1980	1980- 1981
Rice (cleaned)	22 058	34 600	42 225	52 671	53 774	42 330	53 231
Jowar	6 250	9 899	8 105	12 064	11 436	11 648	10 504
Bajra	2 680	3 286	8 029	4 730	5 566	3 948	5 418
Maize	2 357	4 115	7 486	5 973	6 199	5 603	6 804
Ragee	1 353	1 876	2 155	2 866	3 200	2 721	2 465
Small millets	1 776	2 010	1 988	2 070	1 894	1 425	1 578
Wheat	6 822	10 995	23 832	31 749	35 508	31 830	36 460
Barley	2 518	2 811	2 784	2 311	2 142	1 624	2 242
Total cereals	45 814	69 592	96 604	114 434	119 718	101 129	118 702
Gram	3 823	6 256	5 199	5 410	5 739	3 357	4 652
Tur	1 813	2 097	11 883	1 930	1 887	1 757	2 015
Other pulses	3 561	4 381	4 736	4 633	4 557	3 458	4 498
Total foodgrains	55 011	82 326	108 422	126 407	131 902	109 701	129 867
Sugar-cane (cane)	70 490	114 080	126 368	176 966	151 655	128 833	150 522
Black pepper	20	28	24	21	22	28	27
Chillies (dry)	358	426	520	445	566	508	485
Groundnuts (nuts in shell)	3 319	4 698	6 111	6 087	6 208	5 768	5 020
Castor seeds	107	109	136	217	230	227	210
Sesamum	422	320	562	520	514	348	437
Rapeseed and mustard	768	1 347	1 976	1 650	1 860	1 428	2 247
Linseed	364	395	474	527	535	269	428
Cotton (lint) (thousands of bales) <u>c/</u>	3 039	5 550	4 763	7 243	7 958	7 698	7 600
Jute (dry fibre) (thousands of bales) <u>d/</u>	3 497	4 136	4 938	5 361	6 470	6 072	6 515
Mesta (dry fibre) (thousands of bales) <u>e/</u>	659	1 113	1 255	1 793	1 863	1 890	1 680

- a/ Adjusted.
b/ Revised estimates.
c/ 170 kg each.
d/ Final estimates.
e/ 180 kg each.

C. Graph showing production of foodgrains (thousands of tonnes)

1950- <u>1951</u>	1960- <u>1961</u>	1970- <u>1971</u>	1977- <u>1978</u>	1978- <u>1979</u>	1979- <u>1980</u>	1980- <u>1981</u>
55 011	82 326	108 422	126 407	131 902	109 701	129 867

(a) Food grains and pulses

(i) Sixth Plan target and strategy

57. In the Sixth Five-Year Plan, it is proposed to increase the total production of foodgrains in the country from the base level assumed production of 127.9 million tonnes in 1979-1980 to 153.6 million tonnes in 1984-1985. The strategy to achieve this target includes (a) increase of the area under high-yielding varieties of rice, wheat, maize, jowar and bajra; (b) adequate and balanced use of fertilizers; (c) increase of the irrigated area; (d) adoption of need-based plant protection measures; (e) increased distribution of quality seeds; (f) training of extension workers and farmers in the new production technology of different crops; (g) greater emphasis on soil and water conservation measures and improved dry land farming practices; (h) transfer of technology through the newly reorganized extension system of training and visits; (i) regular monitoring of diesel and electric power supplies for irrigation purposes; and (j) intensification of research etc.

(ii) High-yielding varieties programmes

58. The high-yielding varieties programme is the main plank of the new agricultural strategy. A far-reaching event in the annals of Indian agriculture has been the introduction of high-yielding varieties of a number of field crops and hybrids of millets in particular. This programme covers major food crops, namely, wheat, rice, maize, jowar and bajra. The success of this programme has revolutionized agriculture and brought about a phenomenal and rapid increase in foodgrain production in the country. Since 1965-1966 (the base year of the new agricultural strategy), wheat production has increased more than three and a half times and rice production by more than 74 per cent. The progress in maize, jowar and bajra has, however, been rather slow, mainly owing to the lack of suitable hybrids and the incidence of pests and diseases on some of the hybrids.

59. The size of the area covered under this programme has sharply increased from 1.89 million hectares in 1966-1967 to 46.68 million hectares in 1981-1982. The target for 1982-1983 had been fixed at 51 million hectares.

(iii) Supporting programmes

60. The high-yielding varieties programme is supported by the implementation of central sector schemes of (a) a mini-kit demonstration programme of rice, wheat, maize, jowar, bajra and ragi for the selection of suitable varieties adopted to different situations; (b) a community nurseries programme of rice to bring about an

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advancement in sowing time, an increase in productivity and to vacate the fields early for the timely sowing of succeeding crops and to tide over crop losses due to natural calamities; (c) the replacement of rust-susceptible wheat varieties in hill areas with rust-resistant varieties to minimize the rust menace in the country; (d) a maize demonstration in tribal areas to bring home to the tribal farmers the efficiency of the new technology in the production of maize crops for enhancing the yield per unit of area; and (e) state level pre-session training of extension workers to disseminate the latest production of technology etc.

(iv) Pulses

61. Pulses denote a group of edible grain legumes which are consumed as dhal. Pulses in general are rich in protein in comparison to other foodgrains. Thus, a major portion of protein in India is supplied by these crops. These crops occupy a permanent place in the agricultural economy of India owing to their importance in the unirrigated farming system and to their capacity to survive under conditions of moisture stress and to fix nitrogen from the atmosphere.

62. With a total area of around 22 to 24 million hectares, India is one of the major pulse-growing countries in the world. The production of pulses is, however, relatively low, being around 11 million tonnes with a productivity level around 500 kg per hectare.

(v) Production targets

63. It is proposed to increase the production targets to 14.5 million tonnes of pulses during 1984-1985, that is, the terminal year of the Sixth Five-Year Plan, from a trend line estimate of the base level of 11.61 million tonnes.

(vi) Strategy for increasing pulse production

64. In view of the imperative need to augment the production of pulses in order to bridge the gap between demand and supply and to provide much-needed nutrition to the people, the Government has taken special measures to step up production. The strategy being adopted is:

(a) Mounting of a yield-maximization effort, utilizing the available technology, that is:

- (i) Multiplication and use of improved seeds of pulse crops;
- (ii) Adoption of plant protection measures;
- (iii) Use of phosphatic fertilizer and treatment of seed with rhizobium culture and other practices;

(b) Increase of the irrigated area under green gram, black green, Bengal gram and red gram cultivation. Increase of areas under short-duration varieties of black gram, green gram etc. in rice fallows by utilizing the residual moisture in the rabi season, and cultivation of short-duration varieties of green gram in

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summer after the irrigated cultivation of oil-seeds, sugar-cane, potato and wheat as catchcrops;

(c) Inter-cropping of red gram, green gram and black gram with soya beans, bajra, cotton and groundnuts, under both irrigated and unirrigated conditions.

(vii) Development programme

Centrally sponsored scheme on the development of pulses

65. The above-mentioned strategy has been built into an ongoing centrally sponsored scheme for the development of pulses which has been in operation in the country since 1972-1973. Locations and specific management practices have been identified for popularization under this programme. Under the scheme, assistance is being provided to the farmers by way of a subsidy on certified seed, plant protection chemicals, equipment and operational charges and equipping the micro-biological laboratories for the production of rhizobium culture and its distribution. In addition, assistance is also provided to the state governments for carrying out demonstrations on farmers' fields and for the production of breeder's seed so as to motivate the farmers to adopt the improved practices.

(viii) Central sector scheme

Mini-kit demonstration programme

66. This scheme has been in operation since 1981-1982 to provide seeds of short-duration varieties of pulses to the farmers free of cost for the quick spread of short-duration varieties of pulses and to act as a tool for increasing the area under cultivation and the production of pulses through the inter-cropping or double-cropping system etc.

Provision of breeder's seed of All-India importance and arrangement of a training programme

67. This scheme has been in operation since 1977. Under this scheme, funds have been provided for the production of breeder's seed of national importance. In-service training programmes are also arranged on improved technology for the production of pulses so as to propagate the improved technology on the farmers' fields.

(b) Animal husbandry

68. India possesses the largest cattle and buffalo population in the world. A majority of the breedable female bovines are, however, low producers. For the rapid enhancement of milk production, a gigantic programme for cattle development has been undertaken. An all-round effort to improve the cattle industry, as well as to increase milk production rapidly by providing better breeding facilities, improved feeding, judicious health coverage and management, has been adopted in the country. Milk production increased from 30 million tonnes in 1979-1980 (base-level) to 33 million tonnes by the end of 1981-1982. A target of 38 million tonnes has been kept for 1984-1985, the last year of the Sixth Five-Year Plan.

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69. Various cattle and buffalo development programmes, both ongoing and those proposed for implementation by the central and state governments, are aimed at increasing the availability of good milk animals in order to increase milk production. Some of the major programmes are:

- (a) Intensive cattle development projects and development of key village blocks;
- (b) Establishment of cattle and buffalo breeding farms;
- (c) Establishment of frozen semen bull stations and frozen semen banks and infrastructural facilities at field levels;
- (d) Progeny-testing scheme to produce high-quality breeding bulls;
- (e) Cross-breeding of cattle with exotic dairy breeds and selective breeding of nationally important breeds of cattle and buffaloes;
- (f) Operation Flood II, a large-scale cattle-cum-dairy development programme;
- (g) Steps to improve the qualitative and quantitative resourcefulness of feeds and fodder.

70. In view of the need and importance of providing adequate nutrition for increasing the production of various livestock products, the Government of India has taken a number of measures to increase the productivity of fodder and feed in the country. Seven regional stations for forage production and demonstration have been established in the various agro-climatic regions of the country. These are located at Hissar (Haryana), Kalyani (West Bengal), Suratgarh (Rajasthan), Hyderabad (Andhra Pradesh), Gandhinagar (Gujarat), Almadhi (Tamil Nadu), and Srinagar (Jammu and Kashmir). These stations are primarily engaged in the dissemination of the latest scientific findings regarding the productivity of forages. These stations also produce seeds of high-yielding varieties of forage crops for further multiplication and distribution by the state agencies. Location-specific technology is also being evolved for the increased production of forages, particularly by the use of fallow lands and the incorporation of forage crops in the existing crop rotations. Since the inadequate availability of high-yielding varieties of fodder seeds is a constraint in the development of fodder resources, separate farms have been established for the production of foundation seeds of different forage crops, including pasture legumes which were hitherto not produced in the country on a large scale. The state agencies are being provided with all the necessary technical know-how by the respective regional stations, as well as the central Government agencies, in undertaking large-scale extension activity and the dissemination of fodder production technology.

71. During the past decade, the poultry industry in India has made a major breakthrough in attaining self-sufficiency and self-reliance in respect of genetically superior chicks and poultry breeding has reached a high level of sophistication. The Government of India has established four central poultry breeding farms, located at Hessarghatta (Bangalore), Bombay (Maharashtra), Bhubaneswar and Chandigarh, to take up scientific poultry breeding programmes in

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the various agro-climatic regions of the country. These farms are engaged in disseminating the latest scientific findings regarding poultry production and also in producing high-quality chicks for further multiplication and distribution by various designated hatcheries in both the public and private sectors throughout the country. The Central Poultry Breeding Farm at Hessarghatta has since developed and released the parent stock of a commercial hybrid layer known as HH-260 which is capable of laying up to 260 eggs in 12 months of production. The Bombay farm has also developed a promising hybrid layer known as BH-78 and its parent stock is also being supplied to various public sector hatcheries. To meet the growing requirements of quality ducklings for duck development programmes in various States, a scientific duck-breeding programme has been taken up at the recently established Central Duck Breeding Farm at Hessarghatta. The Central Training Institute for Poultry Production and Management at Hessarghatta is imparting training in various specialized poultry fields, such as genetics and breeding, nutrition and feeding, management and farm economics, marketing and technology, feed analytical techniques and chick-sexing. In addition, the Institute's nutrition laboratory provides sophisticated feed analytical facilities to both the public and private sectors.

72. Provision of efficient health coverage is of paramount importance for obtaining optimal production from the livestock. With this objective in view, health coverage facilities have been built up in the country. Presently, about 13,500 veterinary hospitals and dispensaries and 15,500 stockmen centres and veterinary aid centres function in the country. The diagnostic facilities are arranged through the disease investigation laboratories which are set up in each State and Union Territory. About 360 billion doses of vaccine and diagnostic agents are produced and supplied by the 16 state Biological Production Centres in the country. The incidence of rinderpest disease has been brought down from 196 attacks per 100,000 bovine population in 1956-1957 to 1 to 2 per 100,000 at present. Under the foot and mouth disease control programme, about 31 million vaccinations are carried out annually to protect the valuable exotic and cross-bred female cattle. During the Sixth Five-Year Plan, a major programme is being introduced to give a final thrust to the control of the various livestock diseases in the country and also to set up a disease free zone. An Animal Disease Surveillance Cell is proposed to be set up at the Centre and epidemiological units shall be established in each State and Union Territory for monitoring disease surveillance.

(c) Livestock production

73. The productivity of different species of livestock in this country is very low owing to uncontrolled breeding over long periods of time, accompanied by an inadequacy of livestock feed and fodder and high incidence of diseases. With a view to augmenting milk production, the cross-breeding of indigenous cows with exotic dairy breeds has been undertaken. The results have indicated that half-breeds have a higher milk production, a better growth rate and an earlier maturity compared to the indigenous breeds. Three exotic breeds of cattle, that is, Holstein Friesian, Jersey and Brown Swiss are being used. The experiments conducted at the National Dairy Research Institute have indicated that exotic inheritance should be stabilized at the 50 per cent level.

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74. Buffaloes contribute significantly to the agricultural economy of the country. A multidisciplinary team of scientists is attempting to solve the problems of productivity in buffaloes. Emphasis is being laid on establishing field units so that elite sires in use at the research centres for breeding purposes could be simultaneously used to improve the buffaloes of the region. Techniques for freezing buffalo semen have been developed and the semen of proved bulls is being preserved for future use.

75. Studies have been made to evolve new strains of sheep by selection and by cross-breeding the local hardy sheep with rams of exotic breeds. Using Rambouillet with Malpura, Chokla and Jaisalmeri, new types named "Avikalin" (for superior carpet wool) and "Avivastra" (for apparel wool) have been evolved. Control of the canary colouration of wool through shearing management has been developed.

76. Research on quails has given promising results. A quail broiler line has been developed with an average weight of 110 g at four weeks of age and with feed efficiency of 2-8 kg for 1 kg of live weight gain.

77. Crosses of Indian goats with the exotic dairy goats (Seanen and Alpine) have shown marked improvement in milk production and reproductive efficiency as compared to the indigenous goats. The crossing of native goats with Angora for evolving a Mohair breed suitable for semi-arid areas indicates that 87.5 per cent Angora inheritance provided a suitable basis for evolving a Mohair breed for the semi-arid conditions of India.

78. In order to understand the basic nutritional requirements and to determine the chemical composition, the digestibility and the utilization of various feedstuffs, extensive research has been conducted on a number of agricultural by-products, such as straws, bagasse and sugar-cane trash and unconventional oil-seed meals have been determined. In view of the acute shortage of concentrates in India, the possibility of utilizing several non-conventional feeds is being explored.

79. Sustained and integrated research in the field of animal health has led to the development of several highly efficacious vaccines, antisera, diagnostic agents and antigens for controlling devastating diseases of livestock and poultry. The technology for vaccine production against theireriosis in cattle and an irradiated lingworm vaccine for sheep have been developed. Marek's disease vaccine is now being produced in the country.

80. With a view to improving the economy of slaughterhouses, certain techniques have been developed for the utilization of slaughterhouse by-products. Insulin and heparin have been extracted in their pure and biologically active forms from the buffalo pancreas and lungs, respectively.

81. Studies on the properties of milk constituents have revealed several notable features with particular reference to buffalo milk proteins. These studies have helped in the preparation of cheese, condensed milk and evaporated milk. Attempts have been made to utilize the whey by partial and selective fermentation procedures. A single, rapid and economic bacteriological method has been evolved to detect the residual amount of penicillin in milk after treatment of mastitis. Experiments on the use of hydrogen peroxide as a milk preservative have shown that its use impairs the protein quality.

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(d) Appropriate equipment and new techniques in agriculture

82. Agricultural equipment and machinery used in India varies accordingly to crops, soil conditions and the state of advancement of agriculture in the various regions. The number of tractors increased from 54,000 in 1966 to 400,000 in 1981, while that of power tillers has increased from about 17,000 in 1966 to about 30,000 in 1981.

83. In the early 1960s, five manufacturing units were set up for the production of tractors. Since then, the tractor industry has made considerable progress. At present, there are 14 units which have been licensed for the manufacture of tractors in the horsepower range of 14 to 75, with an annual licensed capacity of 163,750 and an installed capacity of 106,015 as of 17 March 1982. Besides the 14 licensed units in the organized sector, there are two units in the small-scale sector which are manufacturing indigenously developed tractors. The production of tractors in the organized sectors during the past six years has been as follows (the production of tractors in the small-scale sector is meagre at about 100 tractors per year):

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number</u>
1975-1976	33 252
1976-1977	33 146
1977-1978	40 946
1978-1979	54 728
1979-1980	62 696
1980-1981	69 500
1981-1982	81 000

84. The number of tractors produced during the period 1970-1971 to 1980-1981 and its value is as follows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Production</u>	<u>Value (10 millions of rupees)</u>
1970-1971	20 099	45.000
1971-1972	16 633	42.500
1972-1973	20 802	55.654
1973-1974	24 425	72.442
1974-1975	31 088	115.505
1975-1976	33 252	133.535
1976-1977	33 146	143.470
1977-1978	40 946	202.840
1978-1979	45 728	285.000
1979-1980	62 696	359.350
1980-1981	69 500	491.806
Total	398 315	1 947.102

85. The average annual rate of growth in production has been 17.5 per cent during the period 1969-1978 and around 12 per cent during the past five years.

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86. The power tiller is a good multipurpose machine suited for use on small holdings, especially in the paddy growing and hill areas, for such operations as ploughing, puddling, a mobile power unit for pumping, threshing, plant protection work, rural transport and other operations for which large tractors are difficult and uneconomical.

87. There are six licensed units in the country currently engaged in the production of power tillers, in the horsepower range of 6 to 12 having an annual licensed capacity of 31,000 and installed capacity of 16,000. The indigenous production of power tillers and its value is as follows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Production (number)</u>	<u>Value (10 millions of rupees)</u>
1970-1971	1 387	1.152
1971-1972	1 081	1.773
1972-1973	1 199	2.007
1973-1974	1 526	1.661
1974-1975	2 142	2.931
1975-1976	2 540	3.889
1976-1977	1 758	2.668
1977-1978	1 636	2.799
1978-1979	2 336	4.460
1979-1980	2 335	2.799
1980-1981	1 981	5.190
Total	19 921	31.329

It may be noted that there are variations in the horsepower of the tractors produced in each year.

88. An important reason for the very low production and sales is their very high price. When the power tillers were initially introduced, their ex-factory price was between Rs 5,000 and Rs 8,000, whereas their present ex-factory price ranges from Rs 18,000 to Rs 29,000 with 4 per cent central sales tax and 6-9 per cent sales tax.

(e) Promotion of agricultural research

89. India has an extensive infrastructure in the form of the crop research institutes, All-India co-ordinated crop improvement projects, agricultural universities and an ad hoc research scheme to develop suitable varieties and technology to raise the yields per hectare. An equally extensive network was built up to transfer the technology to farmers through various agencies. As a result of this work, the yields per hectare have gone up, as is shown in the table below.

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Yields per hectare of different crops in India, 1951-1952 to 1979-1980
(Kilograms per hectare)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Sorghum	Maize	Bajra	Pulses	Total foodgrains
1951-1952	714	653	381	627	246	448	638
1959-1960	937	772	484	938	327	475	662
1969-1970	1 073	1 209	522	968	426	531	531
1979-1980	1 082	1 437	688	970	381	385	878

90. While there has been considerable progress made in the production of major food cereals like rice and wheat, the advancement in crops raised predominantly under rainfed conditions, such as pulses and bajra (pearl millet), was limited. As the irrigation facilities increase, farmers are able to exploit the yield potential of the high-yielding varieties. Since the risk factor is high, the input application in rainfed farming is very low. The production of main food crops between 1951-1952 and 1978-1979 is given in the table below.

Production of different crops in India, 1951-1952 to 1978-1979
(Millions of tons)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Sorghum	Maize	Bajra	Pulses	Total foodgrains
1951-1952	21.3	6.8	6.0	2.0	2.3	3.4	51.9
1959-1960	31.6	10.3	8.5	4.0	3.4	11.8	76.7
1969-1970	40.3	20.1	9.7	5.6	5.3	11.6	99.5
1978-1979	53.7	35.5	11.4	6.2	5.5	12.2	131.9

91. During 1979-1980 there was an unprecedented drought which caused the total production of foodgrains to decrease to 108.8 million tons. In 1980-1981 and 1981-1982, the production increased to about 134 million tons.

92. Emphasis in research is given to multiple cropping, relay cropping, inter-cropping and the production of early maturing varieties to increase productivity per unit of area per unit of time. Where the package of practices is followed, yields of 7,000 to 8,000 kilograms per hectare of foodgrains are obtained in a year by means of the multiple-cropping system, involving such crops as rice, wheat, legumes, maize, sorghum etc. Even the single-crop yields have been raised substantially. India's efforts to raise the productivity per unit of area have been making progress.

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93. The agricultural research centres of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research produced a large number of varieties, hybrids, synthetics and composites of different crops suited to the various agro-climatic zones of the country. For some crops, nearly 70 per cent of the area is covered with high-yielding varieties. Efficient seed-multiplication organization and extension mechanisms like the Krishi Vigyan Kendras, lab-to-land programmes, trainers' training programmes, national demonstrations etc., operate in the country.

94. While producing new varieties and hybrids, the research workers are also paying attention to improving the quality of the produce. In projects like wheat, rice, sorghum, maize etc., there are quality laboratories established to screen the newly generated material for various quality characteristics.

Policy to improve post-harvest handling and storage

95. Considerable quantities of foodgrains are lost during post-harvest handling and storage in the country. A major portion of the foodgrains produced in the country is stored at the level of the farmers, the quantity being 65 to 70 per cent of the produce. The storage methods at this level are not satisfactory and losses take place in both quantity and quality. Insects, rodents, moisture, fungus, mice and birds are the main enemies of the stored grain. With a view to helping the farmers to minimize the losses, the Department of Food, Government of India, launched the "Save Grain Campaign", a country-wide programme, during 1965-1966 as a pilot project and from 1969-1970 as a regular planned scheme. Under the "Save Grain Campaign" research, developmental extension and training activities are being carried out.

96. The main objectives of the "Save Grain Campaign" are:

(a) To impart training to the farmers, traders and extension officials of the state and central Governments in the modern methods of storage and preservation of foodgrains;

(b) To extend scientific techniques of storage to farmers, traders etc. through demonstrations and publicity programmes;

(c) To supply improved storage bins to the farmers through the state governments;

(d) To arrange intensive implementation of the programmes and modernization of storage at the farm level through the creation of state government teams;

(e) To assist the farmer training centres in the propagation of scientific storage at the level of farm women;

(f) To undertake research and developmental work concerning storage and preservation of foodgrains in rural areas and screen the techniques recommended by universities and institutes within and outside the country;

(g) To make arrangements for the supply of input for this programme to the state governments etc., to enable the implementation of large-scale programmes in the country;

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(h) To involve voluntary organizations in spreading the message of "save the grain" from losses;

(i) To assist the state governments in enforcing the provisions made to ensure proper storage by millers and foodgrain dealers.

97. The various extension programmes of the "Save Grain Campaign" are being carried out with the help of 17 field units established in various parts of the country. The 17 field units of the "Save Grain Campaign" are situated at Poona, Madras, Bhopal, Chaziabad, Hyderabad, Patna, Udaipur, Bhubaneswar, Chandigarh, Calcutta, Lucknow, Gauhati, Bangalore, Ahmedabad, Trivandrum, Raipur and Varanasi. All of these offices work in close co-operation with the state government departments on plant protection, rural development etc., and also the farmer and village-level worker training centres. Demonstration training and publicity programmes are regularly arranged to motivate, persuade and educate the farmers to adopt scientific methods of grain storage.

98. Under the "Save Grain Campaign" scheme, the following programmes are carried out:

(a) A stipendary training course of three weeks' duration for the farmers and traders, wherein each participant is awarded a stipend of Rs 100 and a certificate after successful completion of the course;

(b) A non-stipendary training course for village-level workers and other government personnel which is of about one week's duration. Each successful trainee is given a testimonial at the end of the course;

(c) A non-stipendary training course for volunteers. In these courses of two to three days' duration, successful trainees are given a certificate for having undergone training on the techniques of scientific storage;

(d) Demonstration programmes, comprising demonstrations on prophylactic treatment, fumigation of foodgrains, rat control in houses, rat burrow fumigation in fields and improvement of existing storage structures;

(e) Under publicity programmes, various media, such as radio, television, exhibitions, film shows, slide shows and the distribution of literature are used for the dissemination of scientific techniques of storage;

(f) To popularize the use of the metallic bins designed at IGSI, which are moisture and rodent proof and fit for fumigation, loans of several hundreds of thousands of rupees are advanced to various state governments so as to facilitate the fumigation and sale of the same;

(g) One hundred farmer training centres are included in a programme for promoting scientific storage at the domestic level. The Department of Food is meeting the cost of appointing a lady demonstrator at each centre to work in nearby villages in order to educate the farm women, to train the instructional staff of the centres to enable the inclusion of storage in their syllabus, and to supply the necessary pesticides and publicity equipment;

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(h) Financial assistance on request has been given to some of the state governments to set up their own save grain campaign teams at district and block levels for the intensive popularization of scientific storage techniques;

(i) The programme of "Save Grain Campaign" has attracted international organizations to give assistance for strengthening this programme. The United Nations Children's Fund has given assistance for this programme in 10 selected blocks of the country. The European Economic Community has also provided grant-in-aid which is being passed on to various state governments for the purchase of storage structures, equipping the farmer training centres with more training and demonstration materials and also supplying metal storage bins to the farmers.

3. Measures taken to improve food distribution, such as the improvement of communications between areas of production and food marketing centres, facilitating access to markets, introducing price support and stabilization measures, controlling abusive practices and ensuring minimum supplies to needy groups

99. A well-developed public distribution system is being implemented in India as an integral part of the scheme on supply and management commodities which are deemed to be essential for human consumption. Under this system, about 0.30 million fair-price shops are being run in both urban and rural areas of the country. A quantity of about 13.10 million tonnes of foodgrains was distributed through these shops during 1981. These shops are licensed by the local government authorities to sell essential commodities. The main commodities being sold are foodgrains (including wheat and rice), sugar and vegetable oils. These commodities are procured and distributed through these shops at prices fixed from time to time which are much less than the prevailing market prices. The twin objectives of the programme are to ensure that consumer prices of foodgrains are stabilized in the country and that the interests of the low-income consumers are safeguarded.

Nutrition and food

100. The available food supply in the country is estimated to provide at the retail level about 2,200 calories and 52 g of protein per capita per day, as against the requirement of 2,150 calories and 45.2 g of protein. It may, however, be mentioned here that the per capita supply figures represent only the average supply available for the population as a whole and do not necessarily indicate what is actually consumed by the individuals. A considerable variation in availability and consumption is observed among different regions and even among different socio-economic groups within a region.

101. The biologically vulnerable population in India, calculated on the basis of the estimated population in 1979 of 637.03 million, is about 213 million, consisting of 101.5 million children in the age group of 0 to 6 years, 82.2 million children in the age group of 6 to 11 years, and 29.3 million pregnant women and lactating mothers. Nearly 76.3 per cent of the people live in the rural areas under the influence of tradition and custom and barely 36.2 per cent are literate.

102. The major dietary deficiencies contributing to malnutrition have been identified as:

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- (a) Protein calorie malnutrition;
- (b) Vitamin A deficiency;
- (c) Iron deficiency;
- (d) Vitamin B complex deficiency.

103. Other problems of malnutrition in specified areas and segments of the population are goitre, lathyrism, vitamin D deficiency, calorie deficiency, vitamin C deficiency and fluorosis. In order to combat the widespread undernutrition and malnutrition in the population, particularly among the vulnerable sections of the population, the Government of India initiated various steps. These included the visualization of stepping up agricultural production, along with animal husbandry and fisheries. Emphasis was placed on vulnerable groups, low-income groups and nutritional problem areas. Various programmes initiated by the Government and which are in operation under various departments at the central and state sector for improving the nutrition of people include:

- (a) Production of more foods, nutritional enrichment of available food through fortification programmes, such as sago fortification with protein concentrates, salt fortification with iron, milk fortification with vitamin A, the production of enriched foods and weaning foods, enriched bread etc.;
- (b) Scientific storage of food grains at the domestic level, in day kitchens etc.;
- (c) Applied nutritional programmes to motivate people to produce and consume productive foods;
- (d) Special nutritional programmes and Balvadi nutritional programmes for pre-school children, coupled with integrated child development services;
- (e) Nutrition-extension education, community canning and food preservation centres, institutes of catering technology and applied nutrition;
- (f) Development of an integrated food and nutrition system approach;
- (g) A midday meals programme for schoolchildren;
- (h) Vitamin A prophylaxis for pre-school children, prevention and control of anaemia among pregnant women and pre-school children, goitre control programme etc.

104. In addition, the States are carrying out applied nutritional activities and there are efforts to promote the consumption pattern of the people, particularly those of the vulnerable section of the community. Moreover, the Ministry of Rural Development has been giving considerable importance to the improvement of the income-earning status of the women in the poorer sections of the community, which is recognized as basic to the development of nutritional status of the children, mothers and members of the community.

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105. Applied nutritional activities as being carried out in the community development blocks also include nutritional education of the community, mothers, families and promotion of production and consumption of nutritious food by the members of the vulnerable groups.

106. Efforts are being made to promote awareness and understanding of the community and individual members regarding nutritional problems of the vulnerable groups and their involvement and participation in the nutritional intervention and educational programme. Recognizing the fact that the basic needs of nutrition in the rural community can be solved to a great extent through the promotion of understanding and involvement of the community, efforts are being made to organize the women under formal and non-formal women's organizations. Efforts are also being made to include women in increasing numbers under various schemes of the Indian Rural Development Programme, TRYSEM (Training of Rural Youth in Self Employment) to give them the opportunities to develop skills, as well as to participate in income-generating activities.

Food adulteration

107. In order to reduce food adulteration and contamination and to improve the quality and safety of the food at the market and storage levels, as well as food hygiene at all levels, the Government has promulgated a comprehensive food law under the Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954 to exercise food quality control on an All-India basis covering a wide range of foods and food products. Under this Act, a Central Committee for Food Standards has been constituted to advise the central and state Governments on matters arising out of the administration of this Act. The Prevention of Food Adulteration Act sets forth certain basic requirements, including freedom from filth or decomposition; preparation and handling of foodstuffs under sanitary conditions; packaging in sound, sanctioned containers; use only of permitted food additives and regulation of their maximum percentages in foodstuffs; accurate declaration of quantity, contents etc. The essential objective of the several clauses included in the Act is the establishment of minimum standards for the production of quality foods and foodstuffs, thereby protecting the health of the consumer. This Act and the rules promulgated thereunder cover every type of adulteration and misnomer.

108. The following are the important food laws that have been enforced in the country with a view to ensuring the prevention of food adulteration and contamination:

(a) The Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954;

(b) The Essential Commodities Act, 1955. It provides in the interests of the general public for the control of the production, supply and distribution of trade and commerce in certain commodities which include foodstuffs. Likewise, the Prevention of Blackmarketing and Maintenance of Supplies of Essential Commodities Act, 1980 is also enforced with a view to preventing a person from acting in any manner prejudicial to the maintenance of supplies of commodities essential to the community, which include foodstuffs;

(c) The Export (Quality Control and Inspection) Act, 1963;

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- (d) The Rice Milling Industry (Regulation) Act, 1958;
- (e) Agricultural Produce (Grading and Marketing) Act, 1958;
- (f) The Marine Products Export Development Authority, 1972;
- (g) Destructive Insects and Pests Act, 1974;
- (h) Insecticide Act and Rules, 1977;

(i) Indian Standards Institution (Certification Marks) Act, 1952 and the Rules and Regulations framed thereunder. The Act provides for the standardization and production of goods, in relation to any article or process. The term "article" means any substance, artificial or natural, partly artificial or partly natural, whether raw or partly or wholly processed or manufactured within the meaning of the Act. Indian standards laid down under the Act are, however, voluntary in nature, and necessary licences are granted to manufacturers etc., for the use of the Indian Standards Institution Mark in conformity with the relevant Indian standards, on submission of an application in the prescribed form. The use of Indian standards formulated under the said Act in relation to any article of goods can also be made obligatory under the provisions of other central Government Acts, for example, the Essential Commodities Act, 1955 etc.;

- (j) Live Stock Importation Act, 1898 and Rules, 1953.

109. The following departments at the central level are concerned with food control:

- (a) Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation:
 - (i) Department of Food;
 - (ii) Department of Rural Reconstruction;
 - (iii) Indian Standards Institution;
 - (iv) Department of Agriculture;
- (b) Ministry of Health and Family Welfare:
 - (i) Directorate General of Health Services, state governments and local bodies;
 - (ii) Central Committee for Food Standards;

(c) For checking the adulteration of import and export consignments, the following organizations are concerned:

- (i) The port health authorities, under the Preservation of Food Adulteration Act, check the import consignments;

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- (ii) The Export Inspection Council of India, Ministry of Commerce, under the Export Quality Control and Inspection Act, carries out pre-shipment inspection of food products meant for export.

110. As a measure of effectively pursuing the policy of setting up a national food security system in consonance with the objectives underlying the resolutions adopted in this regard at the World Food Conference, the Government of India has been making strenuous and systematic efforts to build up a buffer stock of reasonable size. These efforts have involved a massive outlay of financial resources in the procurement of foodgrains and the construction of storage facilities. The total physical stocks of foodgrains with the public agencies at the end of December 1981 were estimated at about 11.28 million tonnes.

111. To ensure that consumer prices of foodgrains are stabilized in the country and, in particular, that the interests of the low-income consumers are safeguarded, a well-knit public distribution system is functioning through a wide network of fair price shops. The total number of such shops functioning in the country is about 284,000. A quantity of about 13.10 million tonnes of foodgrains was distributed through these fair price shops during the year 1981.

112. India has also been playing an active role in the formulation of a new international grains arrangement to replace the International Wheat Agreement, 1971. The basic elements of the proposed new international grains arrangement were:

(a) Creation of an international grain reserve of adequate quantity in conformity with the minimum safe level to serve as insurance against recurring food crises;

(b) Stipulation of the price ranges at which additions will be made to the reserve (when prices fall below a stipulated figure); the releases of grain would be made to avert shortages (when prices rise beyond a stipulated figure);

(c) Special provisions to enable developing nations to create and operate national reserves in the form of (a) exemptions in certain contingencies from obligations under the arrangement and (b) a stock financing fund to create the infrastructural and other facilities necessary for acquiring, storing and distributing national reserve stocks and generally to discharge their obligations as full members of the grains arrangement.

113. The proposed new arrangement was also the subject matter of negotiations at United Nations negotiating conference held under the auspices of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development in 1978 and 1979 at Geneva. The same, however, could not be concluded because of differences in the approach of the developed and developing countries. Efforts are now being made by the International Wheat Council for an alternative approach.

114. The Government of India has also been participating actively and contributing to the discussions on food matters at various international meetings, such as the FAO Committee, the World Food Council, the non-aligned countries' meetings, the Commonwealth meetings etc. India has also assisted to the extent possible some

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neighbouring countries like Viet Nam, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Kampuchea etc., to tide over their difficult food situation by supplying wheat, wheat flour and rice on a relief assistance and commodity loan basis.

B. Right to adequate clothing

115. The textile industry is essentially regulated under the two laws, that is, the Industries (Development and Regulations) Act, 1951 and the Essential Commodities Act, 1955. The industry falls under item 23 of the first schedule of the former Act. The important Control Orders are as follows:

- (a) Cotton Textile Control Order, 1948;
- (b) Textile (Production by Powerloom) Control Order, 1956;
- (c) Art Silk Textiles (Production and Distribution) Control Order, 1962;
- (d) Woolen Textiles (Production and Distribution) Control Order, 1962;
- (e) Textiles Machinery (Production and Distribution) Control Order, 1962.

116. The textile industry is one of the oldest in the country, having a significant weightage in industrial production and exports. It comprises not only the organized mill sector but also the decentralized sector, including handlooms, powerlooms and khadi. The industry is further divided into segments, depending upon the fibre predominantly used, that is, cotton, art silk, wool or silk.

117. There are at present 693 cotton textile mills of which 278 are composite mills and 415 are spinning mills. In accordance with the textile policy, which accords primacy to the handloom sector, no expansion has been permitted in the weaving sector of the organized mill industry except for the specific purpose of exports. On the spinning side, the policy of delicensing the installation of spindleage up to 50,000 spindles continues to be in operation. Up to the end of September 1981, the total installed spindleage in the country was 21.4 million, whereas the loomage installed in the organized mill industry was 209,000.

118. The cotton textile industry is one of the biggest employers in the country. At the end of September 1981, the total labour strength on the rolls of the industry was 1.194 million.

119. For the modernization of the textile industry, a soft-loan scheme is administered, under which, up to November 1981, 298 loans amounting to Rs 3.9335 billion were sanctioned.

Controlled cloth and janata cloth scheme

120. The textile policy provides for the production of 650 million square metres of controlled cloth, with roughly half coming from the handloom sector. The controlled cloth scheme finalized in accordance with the policy provides for the

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production of 325 million square metres of controlled cloth in the mill sector by the National Textile Corporation (a central public sector undertaking) mills and 325 million square metres in the handloom sector. Production by the Corporation is in the form of sarees and dhoties and long cloth, whereas in the handloom sector sarees and dhoties alone are produced. The quantities of controlled cloth produced by the mill sector and handloom sector during the past five years are as follows (in millions of square metres):

<u>Year</u>	<u>Mill sector</u>	<u>Janata cloth by handloom</u>
1977-1978	347	72
1978-1979	367	126
1979-1980	345	204
1980-1981	491	297
1981-1982	223 (April- December 1981)	214 (April- November 1981)

The controlled cloth is sold at subsidized prices to the weaker sections of society.

Cheap cloth scheme

121. Under the cheap cloth scheme introduced in September 1979, the mill industry has voluntarily agreed to make available annually 1,000 million metres of low-priced cotton and viscose cloth, the maximum consumer price of which would not exceed Rs 6.36 per metre (including trade margin, excise, octroi etc.). On receipt of requests from the National Textile Corporation and other private mills to increase the ceiling price of cheap cloth in relation to the increase in the cost, the ceiling price has since been increased from Rs 6.36 to Rs 7.31 per metre with effect from 1 February 1982. The production of cheap cloth during the period 1 January 1981 to 1 December 1981 was 507 million metres.

Production of cloth and yarn

122. The total production of cloth and yarn both by the mill sector and the decentralized sector during the past five years is as follows (yarn in millions of kilograms, cloth in millions of metres):

<u>Year</u>	<u>Yarn</u>	<u>Mill-made cotton cloth</u>	<u>Mill-made blended/mixed and 100 per cent cotton cloth</u>	<u>Decentralized sector</u>	<u>Total</u>
1977-1978	1 149	3 144	992	4 354	8 490
1978-1979	1 272	3 317	1 211	6 180	10 708
1979-1980	1 217	3 231	1 054	6 097	10 382
1980-1981	1 298	3 434	934	6 620	10 988
1981-1982	1 260			7 160	11 302
		4 142			
		(total mill-made cloth)			

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Rationalization of import duties on man-made fibres and yarns

123. The textile policy of 9 March 1981 provides for the review of fiscal levies on man-made fibres and yarns. The levies on fibres and yarns were reviewed and the following important changes have been made:

(a) Fibre and filament yarn manufacturers will be eligible for an excise rebate of 10 per cent on excess production beyond 110 per cent of that achieved in 1982. This is an incentive for increased capacity utilization and productivity;

(b) Duty on cheaper and more suitable blends containing between 10 per cent and 50 per cent polyester has been reduced from Rs 22.50 per kilogram to Rs 11.25 per kilogram in order to make them more popular. Similarly, duty on blends containing between 50 and 70 per cent polyester has been reduced from Rs 30 to Rs 22 per kilogram. Duty on blends containing less than 16 per cent polyester has been increased from Rs 1.63 to Rs 7.50 per kilogram since such blends do not have desirable qualities. Handloomed fabrics have been exempted from processing duties. Processing duties for fabrics costing more than Rs 20 per square metre ex-factory, have been increased from 5.5 to 7.5 per cent;

(c) Acrylic fibre has become increasingly popular for hand-knitting purposes and a shortage was being experienced. Imports of acrylic fibre was only of the order of 225 tonnes because of a high differential between excise and countervailing duty. In order to enable more imports and also to maintain the balance between acrylic and other fibres like polyester, excise duty has been increased from Rs 12.50 to Rs 17.50 per kilogram, while the countervailing duty has been reduced from Rs 37.50 to Rs 30 per kilogram;

(d) To augment the supply of cellulosic filament yarn, import duty on acetate filament yarn has been reduced from 12.5 to 20 per cent;

(e) In order to encourage the use of the superior HWM/polynosic fibres, excise duty on them has been reduced from Rs 5 to Rs 4 per kilogram, whereas excise duty on viscose fibre has been increased from Rs 3.25 to Rs 4 per kilogram;

(f) Customs duty on filament yarns has been raised by 5 per cent. This will provide some advantage to indigenous manufacturers.

124. The major impact of these duty changes will be to encourage the use of polyester staple fibre for producing better quality fabrics which are becoming increasingly popular even among the less well-to-do classes.

C. Right to housing

125. Social justice has always been the basic objective of India's developmental plans. Successive national Five-Year Plans have attempted to realize the social objective of development in terms of providing a minimum level of social consumption for various areas and classes of people. Accordingly, the provision of social services, which includes the distribution of developed home sites for

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landless labour in rural areas, has been provided for under the National Programme of Minimum Needs taken up under the Five-Year Plan (1980-1985) and since continued in the national Five-Year Plan (1980-1985). The programme now includes assistance for the construction of a dwelling as well. The Minimum Needs Programme also provides, in the area of urban housing, for the carrying out of environmental improvement of slum areas. The right to housing, although not provided for as a constitutional or statutory right, is an accepted objective in terms of the national plans for social and economic development.

126. The following are the laws at present in operation in the area of housing:

- (a) Rent Control Act (exercised by the state governments);
- (b) Housing Board Act (exercised by the state governments);
- (c) Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act, 1976;
- (d) Municipal by-laws;
- (e) Homestead tenancy laws (exercised by the state governments).

127. Rent Control Act. In the housing sector, rent control is one of the important regulatory measures. The rent control legislation enacted by the various state governments contains provision in respect of the fixation of standard rent, protection of tenants against eviction, control of subletting, and obligations and duties of the landlords with regard to the provision of service facilities, repairs and maintenance.

128. Housing Board Act. Housing boards in the States are important instruments for providing houses at a reasonable cost to persons, particularly those of the low- and middle-income groups, who cannot afford to satisfy their housing needs by individual efforts. These boards are statutory bodies constituted under state enactments.

129. Urban Land (Ceiling and Regulation) Act, 1976. This was enacted on 17 February 1976. It is in force in 17 of the 22 States and in all of the 9 Union Territories and was enacted to achieve the following objectives:

- (a) To prevent the concentration of urban property in the hands of a few persons and speculation and profiteering thereby;
- (b) To bring about the socialization of urban land in urban agglomerations to subserve the common good by ensuring its equitable distribution;
- (c) To discourage the construction of luxury housing leading to conspicuous consumption of scarce building material and to ensure the equitable utilization of such material;
- (d) To secure orderly urbanization.

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130. The Act provides for exempting vacant land operations of ceiling limits if the holders of vacant land put up houses for the weaker sections of society. It also grants exemption in favour of public institutions and co-operative housing. It imposes a ceiling on the plinth area of the building units to be constructed in future. Rules prescribed under the Act provide, inter alia, that at least 50 per cent of the dwelling units to be constructed should have a plinth area not exceeding 40 square metres and the remainder not exceeding 80. The other conditions are that the dwelling units should be completed within five years from the date of permission by the competent authority, that the dwelling units may be sold outright or on hire purchase or rented. The Rules prescribe a formula for calculating the cost of the dwelling unit.

131. The most significant development in the field of mass housing was the setting up of an apex national techno-finance institution, the Hindustan Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO), in 1970, with, inter alia, the following objectives:

- (a) To finance or undertake housing and urban development schemes;
- (b) To finance or undertake wholly or partly the setting up of new or satellite towns;
- (c) To finance or undertake the setting up of the building material industries;
- (d) To promote, establish, assist, collaborate and provide consultancy services for the projects of designing and planning of works relating to housing and urban development programmes in India and abroad etc.

132. The Ministry of Works and Housing has introduced over the years the following social housing schemes to cater to the housing needs of the various sections of society:

- (a) Integrated Subsidized Housing Scheme for Industrial Workers and Economically Weaker Sections of the Community, 1952;
- (b) Low-Income Group Housing Scheme, 1954;
- (c) Slum Clearance and Improvement Scheme, 1956;
- (d) Village Housing Projects Scheme, 1957;
- (e) Middle-Income Group Housing Scheme, 1959;
- (f) Rental Housing Scheme for State Government Employees, 1959;
- (g) Land Acquisition and Development Scheme, 1959;
- (h) Scheme for the Provision of House Sites to Landless Workers in Rural Areas, 1971;

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- (i) Scheme for Environmental Improvement in Slum Areas, 1972;
- (j) Subsidized Housing Scheme for Plantation Workers, 1966.

133. These social housing schemes (other than the Subsidized Housing Scheme for Plantation Workers which is in the central sector) are now in the state sector and are being implemented by the state governments as part of their other programmes. All of the social housing schemes contain an element of subsidy. The Integrated Subsidized Housing Scheme for Industrial Workers and Economically Weaker Sections of the Community provides for both capital and rental subsidy. The Subsidized Housing Scheme for Plantation Workers involves both capital and interest subsidy. Similarly, the Low-Income and Middle-Income Group Housing Schemes provide for concessional rates of interest on loans with an implicit subsidy. Under the rural housing scheme, outright subsidies are provided. The subsidy implicit in the provision of a free house site may be of the order of Rs 500 to 750.

134. Direct public sector assistance is proposed for housing the economically weaker sections of the population. The strategy here is to provide sites and services with enough funds for a minimum structure, the beneficiary being given a loan not exceeding Rs 3,000, repayable over a period of 20 to 25 years at a concessional rate of interest. The scheme envisages that the beneficiaries will themselves gradually improve on the quality of the accommodation through their own efforts. A provision of about Rs 4.85 billion has been made in the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-1985) with a target of about 1.62 million units to be constructed.

135. The sites and services programme envisages the provision, especially to poorer families, of developed plots properly laid out and equipped with basic environmental services. The allottees will complete their houses with their own labour and to standards that provide security of tenure. These houses will incrementally improve into adequate shelters that could never have been afforded initially by such families.

136. Another significant feature of the housing programme in the National Plan 1980-1985 is the stepping up of the financial assistance admissible under the rural house sites scheme and provision for the first time of governmental assistance to the beneficiaries for house construction. A provision of Rs 3.54 billion has been made for the provision of financial assistance in the acquisition of plots and the construction of houses. The assistance will be provided at the rate of Rs 500 to 750 per family, which has been found to be adequate in certain States which have adopted low-cost construction techniques. The Sixth Five-Year Plan envisages the allotment of house sites to 6.8 million eligible families, thereby covering all eligible families, that is, 14.5 million, by 1985. Construction assistance will be provided to 3.6 million families. All labour input will be provided by the beneficiaries themselves. In some States, assistance is provided at a higher rate, comprising a subsidy and loan. The programme is included in the 20-Point Programme which pinpoints areas of specific thrust for immediate tangible results for various segments.

137. HUDCO, a governmental financial organization, is also actively engaged in increasing the pace of housing construction in the country. HUDCO has financed over 1.3 million houses in 10 years and will double its operations during the Sixth

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Five-Year Plan period (1980-1985). HUDCO-financed houses are spread over 391 towns and hundreds of villages in almost all of the States and Union Territories. HUDCO is required to earmark 55 per cent of its investments for the economically weaker sections of society and the low-income group and, as of 31 March 1982, it has sanctioned 809,701 dwellings for the economically weaker sections of society. In its lending operations, HUDCO operates a differential interest rate structure, where construction for a lower income group attracts a rate of interest lower than that for the higher income groups. To ensure that the low interest rates applied to the scheme for the economically weaker sections and low-income households generally benefit the poor and that houses so built do not easily pass into the occupation of people in the upper income classes, ceilings are imposed on the costs of houses built with HUDCO money in each category.

138. To ensure that the benefits of investment in housing go to persons belonging to the economically weaker sections who constitute more than 75 per cent of the households, the Government of India has directed the state governments:

(a) To adopt the HUDCO pattern of lending, irrespective of the source of funds;

(b) To ensure that the apex co-operative housing finance societies earmark specific percentages of funds for various income categories and that they also adopt a differential rate of interest in their lending operations;

(c) To ensure that public housing is build in the following proportions to reflect the income patterns:

- (i) Family income up to Rs 350 per mensem, 75 per cent of houses;
- (ii) Family income up to Rs 351 to 600 per mensem, 15 per cent of houses;
- (iii) Family income between Rs 601 and 1,500 per mensem, 10 per cent of houses.

Similar ceilings have also been placed on the utilization of the funds of the Life Insurance Corporation to benefit the economically weaker sections and the low-income group in different proportions.

Rural water supply

139. At the instance of the Government of India, a survey was undertaken as early as 1972 for identifying the villages in which the drinking water supply problem was the most acute, that is, villages not having a water supply source within 1.6 kilometres to a depth of 15 metres, or the available sources within that reach were not potable either because they were endemic to water-borne diseases or contained chemicals in quantities which were a health hazard. A large number of such villages have been identified.

140. Under the Indian Constitution, the drinking water supply, rural or urban, is a state concern and the state governments and Union Territory administrations are responsible for formulating and implementing schemes in this regard in accordance

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with their priorities. The total outlay for this sector in the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-1985) is Rs 39.2202 billion. The supply of drinking water to all the problem villages is a part of the new 20-Point Programme. The objective of this scheme is to ensure safe drinking water to villages suffering from a chronic scarcity or those with unsafe sources of water. The latest data received from the state governments indicate that, as of 1 April 1980, there were about 231,000 villages in the country which needed to be provided with water supply facilities on a priority basis. During the Sixth Plan, efforts will be made to provide all the identified problem villages with at least one source of safe potable water available throughout the year.

141. The outlay provided in the Sixth Plan for this purpose is Rs 20.0711 billion, of which Rs 14.0711 billion are in the state sector and Rs 6 billion under the centrally sponsored Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme. Drinking water supply facilities were provided to 25,978 villages during 1980-1981 and to 8,166 problem villages during 1981-1982 (up to September 1981).

142. Two conferences were held at New Delhi in February 1982 with the state government representatives, one at the official level and the other at the ministerial level. At the ministerial level conference, it was resolved that the problem of supplying drinking water to the problem villages be implemented earnestly and in a cost-effective and time-bound manner by all states and Union Territories. The figure of 231,000 problem villages was adopted as a physical target for coverage during the Sixth Plan period. As a member of the United Nations, the Government of India is also observing the decade 1980-1990 as the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade and, being a signatory to the United Nations resolution, it is hoped that all human inhabitants in India would be covered with at least minimum quantity of drinking water supply needed by 1990. Furthermore, at a conference held at New Delhi in February 1982, recommendations were adopted regarding the approach to the Decade Programme, the formation of state level apex committees, physical targets, priorities and norms, intersectoral co-ordination etc.

Rural sanitation

143. The provision of satisfactory latrines to the rural population in India is a problem of great complexity. This problem has to be studied from the social, economic, educational, health and engineering aspects. With the advent of the community development movement in the country in 1952, the need was felt for probing into this problem and for evolving techniques and teaching materials for rural inhabitants.

144. From the critical review, it was revealed that up to the present time no attempt had been made to take up the rural sanitation programme in a comprehensive way except for a few research projects on the subject. One of the major deficiencies of environmental sanitation in the rural areas in the country is that latrines are practically ignored in the villages. Because of this, people resort to defecation in open fields and sheltered places in the vicinity of water courses, which has led to soil and water pollution; the rural population has been exposed to the danger of infection and risk of life for generations.

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145. Based on the survey of the housing conditions conducted by the National Sample Survey Organization in 1973-1974, the percentage distribution of households by availability of latrine facilities in rural areas in the country was worked out and it was shown that 92.4 per cent of the rural households do not have latrines at all. Experience shows that the provision of latrines in rural areas is not merely a problem of lack of resources but also of other factors such as social, cultural, educational and so on.

146. At the Conference held in February 1982, it was resolved that a time-bound programme for the conversion of dry latrines in urban areas and the elimination of the degrading practice of manual handling of human waste be adopted by each state government. With the assistance of the United Nations Development Programme, feasibility reports have been prepared on the introduction of low-cost latrines in 110 towns of seven states. The state governments have been advised to formulate proposals for the implementation of the projects. It is proposed that similar feasibility studies for another 100 towns and covering most of the remaining states be carried out with the assistance of the United Nations Development Programme.

Research

147. The Central Building Research Institute (CBRI), under the aegis of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), undertakes research in the field of building science and technology to help professionals, manufacturers of building materials and builders to achieve a better understanding of the processes involved in construction and to develop new materials and techniques to achieve economy and efficiency. The National Building Organisation (NBO), an affiliate of the Ministry of Works and Housing, propagates the results of the research in institutes like CBRI and their application in the field. In doing so, NBO lays stress on the adoption of technologies appropriate to the housing situation which varies from region to region owing to climatic and cultural differences. A number of innovative design concepts, construction techniques and materials have been introduced. Experimental housing schemes have been undertaken in various parts of the country to propagate the improved use of local materials and new building techniques. As a result, a number of new construction techniques, materials and design concepts are being adopted on a wider scale by a number of construction organizations, thus achieving a substantial reduction in construction costs. Special steps have also been taken to evolve guidelines with regard to the parameters of low-cost housing and methods for achieving low-cost housing. The National Building Organisation has taken up the task of promoting the adoption of these guidelines. Similarly, the National Building Organisation has also been suggesting improvements in the production of traditional materials and is trying to introduce use of substitute materials with the two-fold purpose of reducing cost and meeting the shortage of traditional building materials.

148. The Hindustan Pre-fab Ltd., a Government of India Company, apart from manufacturing pre-fabricated houses, specializes in producing several other items, such as pre-stretched cement, concrete transmission poles, concrete panels and partitional insulation blocks. It undertakes wooden joinery work and has large seasoning kilns for timber in North India. It has standardized certain pre-cost building components for use by individual house builders and construction agencies.

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149. In the field of rural housing, efforts have been made to promote the development of low-cost techniques in housing construction and to encourage the use of improved techniques and the utilization of local building materials. The 12 regional rural housing wings of NBO are engaged in conducting research, training and extension work in rural housing and village planning. The rural housing wings have put up clusters of 10 to 20 low-cost rural houses along with environmental improvements in selected villages in various parts of the country, employing the improved use of local building materials.

150. Many parts of India are prone to natural calamities, such as earthquakes, cyclones and floods etc., adversely affecting human settlements, both rural and urban. Further, vast tracts of land are susceptible to desertification, exposing the land and people to the consequence of disturbances in the soil-plant-water balance in nature. The design and construction of buildings and houses to withstand the natural calamities has engaged the attention of NBO and other research institutes in the country.

151. Rent control being a state concern, most of the state governments have passed rent control acts providing protection to tenants against eviction and increase of the rents. Although such acts have been in operation for years, the rents of most of the buildings have continued to rise, largely because the tenants are unwilling to go to court for the fixation of standard rents. Wherever the tenants have gone to court, the rents have remained stationary which, in the case of old tenancies, has meant a substantial reduction in the real income of the landlords as a result of inflation. This has sometimes led to the poor maintenance of houses. An attempt is being made to strike a balance between the interests of the landlords and the tenants.

152. The progress made under various social housing schemes in operation in the country is shown in the table below.

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Statement showing the physical progress under various social housing schemes since their inception, as of 31 December 1981

Social number	Scheme	Number of houses		Amount sanctioned
		Sanctioned	Completed	
1.	Integrated Subsidized Housing Scheme for Industrial Workers and Economically Weaker Sections of the Community	252 694	188 871	126.57
2.	Low-Income Group Housing Scheme	433 425	342 639	239.41
3.	Subsidized Housing Scheme for Plantation Workers	39 625	23 336	-
4.	Middle-Income Group Housing Scheme	55 775	45 741	122.62
5.	Rental Housing Scheme for State Government Employees	39 411	35 023	62.21
6.	Slum Clearance and Improvement Scheme	169 475	124 694	-
7.	Village Housing Projects Scheme	104 257	70 395	26.37
	Total	1 094 662	830 699	

	Area of land		Amount sanctioned
	Acquired	Developed	
8.	Land Acquisition and Development Scheme	3 436 803 1 859 570	184.06

	Number of eligible families in States and Union Territories	Number of families allotted home sites, including undeveloped sites	Number of home sites developed	Total number of houses constructed on allotted home sites
9.	Provision of home sites-cum-hut construction to landless workers in rural areas	12 501 486	8 634 349 2 474 223	1 516 539

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III. ARTICLE 12: RIGHT TO PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH

153. The Constitution of India lays down that "the State shall regard the raising of the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people and the improvement of public life as among its primary duties". To give effect to this directive, health has been given due priority. Public health is primarily the responsibility of the state governments. The central Government, however, guides, sponsors and supports major schemes for improving the health of the people. The central Ministry of Health and Family Welfare issues guidelines and policy directives to the state governments whenever necessary. The central Councils of Health and Family Welfare, comprising all state health ministers, advise the central Ministry on various policy matters pertaining to health and family welfare programmes.

154. The primary objective in the health sector during the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-1985) is to provide better primary health care and medical care services to rural areas, tribal areas and poor people with the underlying philosophy that "the needs of many people should prevail over those of a few". The driving force behind such health planning is the commitment of the nation to achieve the goal of "Health for All by the Year 2000".

155. Among the various measures taken in the fields of material health care and the healthy development of children are those related to antenatal health supervision, natal services and postnatal care, information on which is given in section I above. In addition, the measures described below have been adopted.

1. Mothers

156. Immunization against tetanus. Pregnant mothers are immunized against tetanus. This is done with a view to protecting the mothers and the infants from the risk of tetanus infection at the time of childbirth.

157. Prophylaxis against nutritional anaemia. Anaemia of nutritional origin is prevalent among women and figures high as a cause of maternal deaths. Supplements of iron and folic acid are given to pregnant mothers to meet their daily requirements and to prevent the occurrence of anaemia.

158. Health and nutritional education. Pregnant mothers are given education about hygiene in pregnancy and the diet they should take to meet their requirements, as well as the requirements of the foetus.

159. Diet supplements. Besides educating them about dietary requirements during pregnancy, wherever possible direct diet supplements to provide extra calories and protein are also given to pregnant mothers, especially those from the lower socio-economic strata of society.

160. Child health care programmes. Special clinics are organized in the children's hospitals and the primary health centres and subcentres in the villages to guide and advise mothers on caring for small children. These clinics give periodic

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physical check-ups to children, undertake the treatment of diseases, provide immunizations and special diet supplements and undertake health and nutritional education.

161. Breast-feeding. Breast-feeding is the mainstay in infant nutrition in the country. Prolonged breast-feeding up to about two years is the practice among rural mothers. The period tends to be less among the urban elite and working mothers. The preparation for breast-feeding is started during the antenatal period by paying attention to the breast, the diet of the pregnant mothers, and by health and advice given during the post-partum period.

2. Children

162. Immunization of children. Children are immunized against BCG, smallpox, diptheria, whooping cough and tetanus . Oral polio vaccine is given to children in urban towns at present. Immunization against typhoid is given to children enrolled in the schools. The schedule of immunizations used in the country is given below.

Immunization schedule

163. From birth, children are exposed to various health hazards, including communicable diseases. The natural resistance of the body to fight disease is of a low order with the result that children fall an easy prey to disease.

164. Immunization builds up the resistance or defence mechanisms in the children and this enables the body to fight and overcome infection.

165. A child needs to be protected against infection through immunization. Immunization should be done early in life and repeated periodically.

Schedule of vaccinations

<u>Age</u>	<u>Vaccination</u>
Pre-natal	
16-20 weeks	Tetanus toxoid (first dose)
20-24 weeks	Tetanus toxoid (second dose)
36-38 weeks	Tetanus toxoid (third dose)
Children	
3-9 months	BCG vaccine Diphtheria-pertussis-tetanus, triple vaccine (3 doses at an interval of 1-2 months); polio, (trivalent oral vaccine) (3 doses at an interval of 1-2 months)
9-12 months	Measles vaccine (one dose)
18-24 months	Diphtheria-pertussis-tetanus, triple vaccine
5-6 years (school entry)	Diphtheria-tetanus, bivalent vaccine (booster dose) Typhoid, monovalent or bivalent vaccine (one dose) After an interval of 1-2 months the typhoid vaccine in one dose
10 years	Tetanus toxoid booster dose Typhoid, monovalent or bivalent vaccine (booster dose)
16 years	Tetanus toxoid booster dose Typhoid, monovalent or bivalent vaccine (booster dose)

166. Pre-natal. When mothers are registered late in pregnancy, at least two doses of tetanus toxoid should be given. For a mother who has been immunized, one booster dose of tetanus toxoid should be given in a subsequent pregnancy, preferably four weeks before the expected date of delivery.

167. Children. The ages indicated are considered to be the best times. However, if there is any delay in starting the first dose of triple vaccine the ages may be adjusted accordingly. It should be the aim to ensure that a child receives smallpox, BCG, diphtheria-pertussis-tetanus and polio vaccinations, where available, before reaching one year of age. The vaccines indicated against the various age groups above can be given simultaneously; for example, BCG triple vaccine and polio vaccine; smallpox triple vaccine and polio vaccine etc.

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168. When typhoid vaccine is being given for the first time, the doses need to be given at an interval of 1 to 2 months.

169. Prophylaxis against blindness caused by vitamin A deficiency. Nutritional services have shown prevalence of vitamin A deficiency among children of pre-school age. Vitamin A deficiency coupled with malnutrition is believed to be an important cause of blindness in children. A new methodology of preventing vitamin A deficiency has been evolved by nutritional workers in the country. Children in the age group of 1 to 5 years in selected areas are given 200,000 international units of vitamin A in oil by mouth every six months. This administration protects children from diseases caused by vitamin A deficiency. Twenty-five million children receive the benefit of the administration of vitamin A each year.

170. Prophylaxis against nutritional anaemia. Anaemia of nutritional origin is found to be prevalent among children because of the deficiency of iron and folic acid in their diets. Children are given one tablet daily containing the recommended dosage of iron and folic acid. Children who cannot swallow tablets are given the dosage in the form of liquid.

171. Family planning programme. The adoption of a small family norm is a sure means of improving maternal and child health, so education and services of family planning are built in the maternal and child health programmes. All maternity hospitals, children's hospitals, primary health centres, subcentres and all other types of institutions which provide health care for mothers and children also provide the family planning services as an integral part of that care.

Measures taken to protect and improve all aspects of environmental and industrial hygiene; to prevent air, land and water pollution; to overcome the adverse effects of urban development and industrialization etc.

172. The Indian Constitution provides for the distribution of powers between the central Government and the state governments. Article 42 A, under the Directive Principles of State Policy, casts specific responsibility on the state governments to endeavour to protect and improve the environment, and to safeguard the forests and wildlife of the country. The Seventh Schedule classifies the various legislation topics as responsibilities of the central Government, the state governments, or both.

173. There are provisions for close collaboration between the central and state Governments in environmental matters. With regard to water pollution for instance, the Water Act of 1974 provided for both the Central Board for Water Pollution Control and Prevention and the Boards for Water Pollution Control and Prevention in the States. The Central Board lays down general standards, in consultation with the Indian Standards Institution.

174. State projects initiated under the Five-Year Plan receive financial assistance from the central Government. In the case of wildlife protection, for example, the Union Government provides financial support for the establishment of certain new protected areas, for the better conservation of some existing ones, and for the captive breeding of some endangered species. The central Government also undertakes the recruitment and training of the personnel of the All-India services, who are then assigned to the various States.

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175. Apart from the Department of Environment, there are three important councils that sponsor, co-ordinate and direct research relevant to the environment. These are the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) and the Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR). The Union Government provides scientific information and support to development activities through the numerous institutions that fall under these councils.

3. Major acts of environmental legislation and their implementation

176. In India there exists a large body of relatively older legislation covering certain aspects of the environment and its protection. There may be cited, for example, the Bengal Smoke Nuisance Act of 1905, the Indian Ports Acts of 1908, and the Indian Forest Act of 1927. A more recent central law is the Atomic Energy Act of 1962. Most of this legislation, however, was not necessarily envisaged with the primary objective of environmental preservation.

177. In the field of water quality, the Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act has been in force since 1974. The Motor Vehicles Act of 1939 empowers the Government to make rules for controlling motor vehicle emissions of smoke, visible vapours and ashes and for the reduction of noise caused by traffic. In addition to this, some States have their own Smoke Nuisance Acts which, among other functions, may regulate the construction of new industrial units of specified categories. The central Government has enacted a comprehensive legislation to control air pollution. The Air (Prevention and Control Pollution) Act, 1981 is intended to improve the quality of air and to prevent, control and abate air pollution in the country. This Act encompasses most of the industries.

178. In addition to the Police Acts which contain provisions to ensure keeping nuisance due to noise under control, several States have enacted legislations placing restrictions on the use of loudspeakers etc., with a view to controlling noise pollution. The Motor Vehicles Act empowers the Government to take steps to reduce noise caused by vehicles.

179. The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958 as amended in 1974, prohibits the discharge of oil or oily mixture by any ship in the prohibited zone adjoining the territories of India. These provisions are in conformity with the Prevention of Pollution of the Sea by Oil Act, 1954 as amended in 1962 and 1969.

180. The Insecticides Act of 1968 regulates the import, manufacture, sale and use of pesticides. Adequate provision is made for analysis, inspection and the establishment of laboratories for that purpose.

181. The Atomic Energy Act of 1962 confers on the Union Government full control over radioactive substances with respect to their manufacture, possession, transfer, export, import and disposal. Other legislation, such as the Factories Act, 1946 and the Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954 provide for the control of toxic substances. Under the Factories Act, for instance, the Chief Inspector of Factories may impose restrictions on the manufacture of toxic substances, if found injurious to the health of the workers.

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Interrelationship between the Government, industry, non-governmental and other organizations

182. The Government is encouraging all industries to take up research and development activities for the treatment of their effluents. Any expenditure on such activities is exempted from certain taxes. The Government is also financing a good number of research projects, the results of which could be applied in the industries.

183. A large number of non-governmental organizations and institutions of professional specialization, for example, the Institute of Public Health Engineering, the Institute of Chemical Engineers, the National Environmental Engineering Research Institute, the Indian Institute of Technology etc., are fairly active and organize seminars, workshops and symposiums to discuss the problems being faced by industries on a regular basis. The Government supports these activities and co-operation from the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI) is also forthcoming in some cases. FICCI is also represented on the National Council for Environmental Protection and Control (NCEPC).

184. Some non-governmental organizations are bringing out periodical journals and other publicity material. The Delhi Bird Watching Society, the Society for a Clean Environment, the Bombay Natural History Society, the Gandhi Peace Foundation, the Wild Life Preservation Society of India and the Indian Environmental Society are some of the non-governmental organizations propagating environmental consciousness and awareness among the masses. Some regional problems are also discussed by these groups and the attention of the Government is drawn to the actions desired in such cases. The Government of India has established a National Museum of Natural History.

185. The control and eradication of communicable diseases is given highest priority.

186. Rural health services programme. A modified plan of operations was introduced for malaria control in 1977. As a result of the intensified control methods backed by spraying of all areas with AP12 etc., there has been a sharp fall in the number of cases, from about 4.7 million in 1977 to 2.3 million in 1981. Efforts are also being made to develop a suitable strategy to control rural filariasis through experimental projects and other filaria control measures already in operation are being integrated with spraying in the malaria control programme.

187. Under the leprosy control programme, about 2.9 million cases of an expected total 32 million were covered up to March 1982. The sophisticated and other essential equipment needed is provided in selected primary health centres, ophthalmic departments and ophthalmic wings of medical colleges etc., in order to expand the network of ophthalmic care facilities under the national programme of control of visual impairment and blindness.

188. The control and eradication of communicable diseases programme will be integrated with other health programmes and made available to the community only through a network of multipurpose volunteers trained in centrally aided multipurpose workers' training and employment programmes. Reorientation training

carried out on a phased basis in the unit level health and family welfare programme schemes has been planned under this scheme.

189. The approach to primary health care in India has, by and large, been guided by the directions provided by the Health Survey and Development Committee (Bhore Committee, 1946) and by the Health Survey and Development Committee (Mudaliar Committee, 1961). The approach to primary health care was adopted by the International Conference on Primary Health Care, jointly sponsored by the World Health Organization and the United Nations Children's Fund, held at Alma-Ata, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, in 1978.

190. The objective of this Conference was to focus the world's attention on the failure of the existing health services to serve the rural population and the urban poor and to seek a firm commitment by governments to remedy the prevailing situation.

191. Taking all factors into consideration, that is, the recommendations of the Alma-Ata Conference, the draft National Health Policy, the views of the Planning Commission and the financial implications, it is planned to implement the Minimum Programme of Rural Health Care during the Sixth Five-Year Plan. The schemes and programmes of main emphasis are described below.

4. Schemes and programmes

Multipurpose Workers Scheme

192. A historical result of various approaches tried out in the field of health with the aspiration of making primary health care available to the rural population of India is the evolution of the Multipurpose Workers Scheme. This scheme attempts to reduce the traditional stratification found at the administrative and operational levels of various health programmes. The important manipulative efforts undertaken to modify the policy and strategy of providing primary health care to the rural population involves a rational utilization and adjustment of available practical manpower in such a manner as to reduce the area of coverage of the peripheral workers and entrust each of them with the responsibility of rendering comprehensive primary health care to the rural community.

193. At present, the unipurpose workers are being trained and reoriented for the multipurpose approach. The male unipurpose health workers, like basic health workers, family welfare health assistants, vaccinators etc., are designated as health workers (male). The existing auxiliary nurses and midwives are designated as health workers (female). Each such worker will be responsible for a population of 5,000. Four such male workers will be supervised by a health assistant (male) who is either a sanitary inspector, health inspector, malaria inspector or a smallpox supervisor etc. Four health workers (female) will be supervised by a health assistant (female) who is either a health visitor or a public health nurse. The team of one male and one female health worker is expected to provide a package of primary health care, including the treatment of minor ailments, to the population of their respective areas and will refer the cases to Primary Health Centre doctors.

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194. So far, according to the latest available information (up to 1 April 1982) the training programme under this Scheme has been completed in 265 districts (of a total of 410) and in 3,673 primary health centres (of 5,568). This training programme will be completed in the entire country by the year 1982-1983. According to the available information, on 1 April 1982 10,204 medical officers for primary health centres, 4,493 block extension educators, 20,635 male health assistants, 9,244 female health assistants, 70,851 male multipurpose workers and 46,549 female multipurpose workers have been trained under the Multipurpose Workers Scheme.

Health Guides Scheme

195. In one of the recommendations of the Committee on Medical Education and Support manpower in 1973, it was envisaged that there should be speedy implementation of the above-mentioned Multipurpose Workers Scheme and introduction of the three-tier plan for health care of the villages, with health volunteers (subsequently known as health guides) providing the base. On 2 October 1977, the Scheme was launched. After implementation of the Scheme in three phases, the working of the Scheme was thoroughly reviewed, taking into account the experience gained, the difficulties faced during these phases and also the tasks ahead.

196. In order to ensure that the community and the volunteers adequately realized the basic objectives of the Scheme and its aim to procure community participation and a cadre of volunteers, selected by the community, who were especially inclined and could be trained to provide primary health care and health education to the community, the Scheme was to be henceforth known as the "Health Guides Scheme" and the volunteers known as "Swasthya Sahayika/Bahayak". The state governments may choose a suitable name for the Scheme and the health guides in the local or regional language to convey the basic nature of the Scheme and the role of the health guide.

197. After training, it is expected that there will be one health guide for every village with a population of 1,000. The guides are expected to provide in every village both preventive and promotive primary health care facilities, along with the treatment of minor ailments. The task of training the health guides is enormous. By 1983-1984, a trained health guide will have to be made available for every village in the country, that is, approximately 600,000.

198. In fact, the Rural Health Scheme starts with the health guide who is from the village selected by the community and is willing to serve them. This volunteer trainee during his three-month training period is taught the basic elements of health care and family welfare. The major emphasis, however, is on promotive and preventive health with simple curative and first-aid components added. He is also trained in simple referral capabilities and familiarity with traditional health practices prevalent in the locality. His functioning is supervised by the Village Health Committee.

199. The principal functions of the health guides are to assist in the eradication of malaria, to take blood slides from fever cases and to give preventive treatment, to assist in surveillance against communicable diseases and to assist the health workers in arranging immunization etc., environmental sanitation, maternal health

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care and family welfare services. Health guides are also required to identify cases of malnutrition. They are also expected to report births and deaths and provide treatment for minor ailments. Each trained guide is provided with a regular supply of medicines and a manual.

200. This Scheme is a first step towards the implementation of the Sixth Plan approach, that is, to encourage and motivate people to organize and administer their own health services with the active support of the Government. This approach envisages the ultimate answerability of the health functionaries to the community, represented by the health guide and the Village Health Committee. Provision has been made for the establishment of a Village Health Committee for each village, consisting of five members chosen by the Village Panchayat/Village Community/Gaon Sabha. It is envisaged that this Committee would take an active part in the implementation of the Health Guides Scheme.

201. Up to 1 April 1982, 191,441 health guides had been trained. It is pertinent to point out that the Multipurpose Workers Scheme is being improved to progress a little ahead of the Health Guides Scheme in order to provide an effective organizational and referral framework. The Health Guides Scheme has been made a centrally sponsored scheme, with 100 per cent assistance provided under the family welfare programme from 1 April 1982.

202. All efforts are being made to complete the Health Guides Scheme by 1983-1984. It is envisaged that by the end of 1983-1984 there will be one health guide for each village or for a population of 1,000. Provision has also been made to appoint one medical doctor at every primary health centre implementing the Health Guides Scheme. Thus, it is hoped that by 1983-1984 that there will be more than 5,000 additional doctors posted at the primary health centres.

Dais Training Programme

203. In order to ensure the safe delivery of infants, the Government of India is giving importance to training traditional birth attendants (dais). One of the factors responsible for the high rates of neonatal and maternal mortality is the unhygienic practices adopted by the untrained traditional birth attendants. In order to improve this, it has been decided to train one dai from every village so that better midwife services can be provided.

204. According to the information available as of 15 April 1982, 386,483 dais have been trained since the inception of the programme. During 1982-1983 the proposed target for the training of dais for States and Union Territories is 75,000. All efforts will be made to provide one trained dai in every village by 1982-1983.

Reorientation of the Medical Education Scheme

205. In order to reorient the medical education and also to improve the health services in the rural areas, it has been decided to make every medical college of modern medicine responsible for three primary health centres. At present, there are 106 medical colleges in India; thus 318 primary health centres will be covered under the Scheme. Each of these medical colleges has been provided with three

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mobile clinics fully equipped to render on-the-spot health services to the people in the rural areas. The faculty members, as well as the students of the medical college and the members of the staff of the primary health centres concerned, will be rendering services through these clinics in the remote villages. The three mobile clinics will be meant for each of the three primary health centres attached to the medical colleges.

206. Under this Scheme, the faculty members, as well as the medical students of the medical college, will not only have direct experience of community health problems but will also render expert medical and health services to those who are not normally in a position to avail themselves of these services.

Revised Minimum Needs Programme

207. One of the most important components of the Rural Health Programme is the Minimum Needs Programme, which includes the establishment of primary health centres and subcentres, upgrading of the primary health centres and construction of buildings for the centres and subcentres and staff quarters. This Programme has been included in the state sector.

208. As of 1 April 1981, there were 5,568 primary health centres and 51,192 subcentres established.

209. After the Annual Plan (1982-1983) discussions which were held in the Planning Commission with the representatives of the state and Union Territory governments, the revised position in respect of the establishment of primary health centres, subcentres, subsidiary health centres and upgraded primary health centres is as described in the statement below.

Statement indicating the progress made under the minimum needs programme

Progress made	Number of			
	subcentres	subsidiary health centres	primary health centres	upgraded health centres
In position as of 1 April 1980	49 049	2 112	5 484	218
Target for the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-1985)	37 940	2 270	756	315
Established during 1980-1981	2 143	231	84	81
Established during 1981-1982 (figures are provisional)	8 319	319	171	52
Target for 1982-1983	7 931	783	209	76