CHAPTER - I
INTRODUCTION, RIGHT TO WORK AND POVERTY

1.1 Introduction:

“The ‘rights approach’ to development has received a good deal of attention in recent years. The notion is attractive, but its practical implications are often far from transparent. India, however, is one country where the rights approach to development seems to be taking shape within specific but non-negligible domains.”

V. S. Page presented his thoughts on ‘right to work’ in Magazine ‘Mauli’ in 1949. It is found there is reference of right to work in constitution of 1938 in Aundh. In constitution of India in article 39, 41, 43, right to work is clearly mentioned in its direct principles. Unemployment rate increased in agricultural field, in rural and urban areas women employment increased but men were decreased.

In Russian constitution in 1936 this right was clearly accepted this approval it was also mentioned in this constitutions that on which basis. This approval or agreement of right depends. It was mentioned in the 118th article of Russian constitution that every citizen will get work with quality and quantity in Soviet Russian constitution in 1977, in the article 40 there is reference of employment right.

Every unemployment right should be given employment without considering the government economical ability this was not meant by this right or approval ability this was not meant by this right or approval. According to Leonit Dannilor, Employments right should include in man fundamental needs. There was nobody without employment in Russia. They were getting immediate employment.

Revolutionary struggle for Human Democratic Rights started in 18th century in Europe, French Revolution aroused in 1789 for political rights and capitalists attained democratic rights but labors deprived in 1848 French labors made revolt for their ‘right to work’ from than this struggle is going on. Man’s fundamental need of his being a creative worker can’t be fulfilled by the burden of work in capitalism, so he lives the savage life to fulfill his physical needs changing the basic nature or structure of work in capitalism, and to erect new socialist social economy there is need of work as an objective centering the human soul.

In this society natural resources and all earning sources would be used with well plan to fulfill the all physical and cultural needs of all citizens. When the factor

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like employment increment and nature of work will become economically fulfilled the Karl Marx’s aim of social sovereignty, work liable for everyone and facilities for everyone will be able to provide he will work freely and it is the root symptom of man’s true work. Free work give on own identity to man and becomes prosperous or for life. This is the true meaning of humaneness/ humanity in human being. Establish such a society in 1848 by Marx and Angel presented a communist manifesto and made an appeal to unite all labours through out the world.

United Nations Organization (UNO) included employment rights in global human rights manifesto in 1948 by the article of 23(1) every citizen ought to have a right employment and right choice of employment; also they have the right to choose a proper and suitable condition for employment.

In this period of work and daily wages come in this focus. These things only can fulfill well prepared rights for employment. Indian government took part in preparing such as manifesto. This manifesto was granted UNOs assembly whose president was the Indian representatives. Today, many constitutions have inserted the employment rights. But none of constitution has offered it in true sense that means to provide everyone work on demand. Employment Guarantee Act (EGA) 1979 is main principle ‘Magel Tyala Kam’ has get right to work.

1.2 The Concept of Right to Work:

“The right to work is closely related to other basic rights such as the right to life, the right to food and the right to education. In a country where millions of people are deprived of any economic assets other than labour power, gainful employment is essential for these rights to be fulfilled. Indeed, unemployment is the main cause of widespread poverty and hunger in India. The right to work states that everyone should be given the opportunity to work for a basic living wage.”

“The nation of the right to work is not new in India, or indeed, in other parts of the world. However, the concept has assumed varying definitions in different countries. In the United States, for example, the Law on right to work explicitly gives everyone the opportunity to earn a living wage in a safe work environment, and also provides for the freedom to organize and bargain collectively. This law does not guarantee that every person will have a job; rather, it means that governments are required to take effective steps to realize the right over time. States are deemed to violate the right when they either fail to take

those steps or when they make the situation worse. This law also prohibits the use of compulsory or forced labour.

The UNO covenant on economic, social and cultural rights, which was ratified by the UNO General Assembly in 1966 and to which India was a signatory, makes similar declarations. The relevant provisions are as follows. According to Article 6:

i) The states parties to the present covenant recognize the right to work, which includes the right of everyone to the opportunity to gain his living by work which he freely chooses or accepts, and will take appropriate steps to safeguard this right.

ii) The steps to be taken by as state party to the present covenant to achieve the full realization of this right shall include technical and vocational guidance and training programmes, policies and techniques to achieve steady economic, social and cultural development full and productive employment under conditions safeguarding fundamental political and economic freedoms to the individual.

According to Article 7, the States Parties to the present covenant recognize the right of everyone to the enjoyment of just and favourable conditions of work which ensure, in particular:

a) remuneration which provides all workers, as a minimum, with fair wages and equal remuneration for work of equal value without distinction of any kind, in particular women being guaranteed conditions of work not inferior to those enjoyed by men, with equal pay for equal work.

b) A decent living for themselves and their families in accordance with the provisions of the present covenant,

c) safe and healthy working conditions;

d) equal opportunity for everyone to be promoted in his employment to an appropriate higher level, subject to no considerations other than those of seniority and competence; and

e) rest, leisure and reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay, as well as remuneration for public holidays.”

1.2.1 The Constitution about the Right to Work:

“The present discussion and debate on the right to work has its origin in the promises the National front made in its election manifesto released on the eve of the general election to the 9th Lok Sabha. The manifesto state, the national front believes that every citizen has the right to productive and gainful work in order to live meaningfully and with dignity. The social and economic policy of the ‘right to work’ as a fundamental right of the citizens of India. We have to find productive work for the people at wages that are commensurate with the human needs and dignity. It is

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well within our means to generate socially productive employment on a scale necessary to convert the right to work into a reality. As a first step, new Employment Guarantee Schemes (EGS) will be introduced all over the country. To realize conditions of full employment, an alternative strategy of social and economic development, will be followed which accords primacy to development of agriculture and allied occupations, with investment on building up infrastructure of essential physical and social services in villages and towns. Production of basic consumer goods will be reserved for cottage and small industries.

On December 3, 1989, Prime Minister V.P. Singh, in his first broadcast to the nation after assumption of office, said: Human resources are our country’s greatest asset. Unemployment stands in the way of proper utilization of this resource. We will make the right to work a part of the constitution. This does not mean that everyone will be given jobs in the government. However, it certainly does mean that people will have a political right which will bind the government to adopt such policies which can generate work for the unemployed. On January 1, 1990, the government announced its intention to introduce a bill in the budget session of parliament to include the right to work as one of the fundamental rights. The demand to make the right to work a fundamental right in the constitution is not new. Political parties, trade union leaders, and others have been demanding the right to work as a legal right. An official expression of this demand appears in the report of the Estimates committee (1978-79) of the 6th Lok Sabha. The time has how come when the citizen’s right to work should be recognized, and the state should accept responsibility to provide work to its citizens and in the event of its failure to provide work, give them employment assistance, and thus honour the long ignored directive principles enshrined in article 41 of the constitution. The important difference now is that the previous government was committed to this position. Naturally, there is now an active debate on the pros and cons of this commitment.

There are two parts to this question. One is the legal implications of making the right to work a fundamental right. The second is what the state can in fact do to fulfill the right to work. The two parts need to be considered, together so that making the right to work fundamental may not place a burden on the state beyond it means. Though reference is usually made to article 41 of the constitution, there are in fact three articles, namely 39, 41 and 43, which are relevant to right to work. Article 39 relates to right to an adequate means of livelihood; article 41 relates to right to work
and to public assistance in case of unemployment. Article 43 relates to right to work, and to a living wage. The three articles read as under:

Article 39: ‘The state shall, in particular, direct its policy towards securing that the citizens, men and women equally, have the right to an adequate means of livelihood.’

Article 41: ‘The state shall, within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing right to work, to education, and to public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness and disablement, and in other cases of undeserved want.’

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.’

These articles are all listed under the directive principles of state policy and not under fundamental rights and therefore they are not justiciable. The proposal now is to make the right to work fundamental and thus, justiciable. Hence, phrases such as ‘the right to an adequate means of livelihood’ in article 39 and ‘a living wage’ and conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of life and full enjoyment of leisure and social and cultural opportunities’ in article 43 will have to be more precisely defined in a manner that the right of citizens do not go beyond the economic capacity of the state as article 41 clearly requires. For instance, adequate means of livelihood’ cannot be more than what the average per capita national income can provide and ‘a fair wage’ cannot be more than the same national income per adult of working age. Even this will require an entirely equal distribution of national income; and if this is not considered politically feasible, economically advisable, or operationally practicable, what may be legally guaranteed will have to be much less than the average. National Front’s election manifesto uses similar imprecise and even loftier phrases such as ‘right to live meaningfully and with dignity’ and ‘wages those are commensurate with the human needs and dignity.’ The difference between an election manifesto and a legislative bill needs to be kept in mind.

Article 41, while directing the state to make provision for securing right to work and to public assistance in case of unemployment, explicitly recognizes that it may not all be within the limits of the state’s economic capacity. National Front’s
election manifesto shows no signs of such recognition of limits of state’s economic capacity. It confidently asserts: ‘It is well within our means to generate socially productive employment on a scale necessary to convert the right to work into a reality.’

The reference to cottage industries in article 43 suggests that the framers of the constitution thought that promotion of cottage industries was at least one means to secure, to all workers, work, a living wage, and conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of life and full enjoyment of leisure, etc. After 40 years, the drafters of National Front’s manifesto seem to hold the same position when they propose that ‘production of basic consumer goods will be reserved for cottage and small industries.’

New elements in National Front’s manifesto are the proposal to introduce all over the country ‘new EGS’ and ‘an alternative strategy of social and economic development which accords primacy to development of agriculture and allied occupation’s and to investment on building up infrastructure of essential physical and social services in villages and town. These are elaborated in the approach to the Eight Five Year plan (1990-95) which the planning commission released in May 1990. We shall turn to them in due course.’

1.3 The Guarantee of Work Important:

“In India, there is a long tradition of labour-intensive rural works programmes, especially in years of drought. These programmes, however, are not based on the right to work. They are just additional employment opportunities provided by the state, as and when resources and commitment are available. So far, the only serious attempt to make the right to work a reality is Maharashtra’s Employment Guarantee Scheme (MEGS). There is strong case for the introduction of nation-wide legally binding Employment Guarantee Programme (EGP) building on Maharashtra’s experience. A number of networks and organization have been demanding the recognition and implementation of the right to work, including an EGA in other states and at the national level. Not only would a national EGA provide much needed employment to the poor, it also has the potential to change the rural economy. It would mean a huge rise in the purchasing power of the rural poor, thus providing demand and markets for a wide range of essential goods. The large-scale creation of rural assets such as roods, tanks, canals, etc. (and also environmental protection works) would help to increase

the productivity in rural areas in the long run. Also, if the top-down approach followed under the MEGS is replaced by a system where the people decide on the works to be taken up, EGS could also provide a means for people to take part in the decision on the development in their areas.\footnote{MEGS was the outcome of a struggle for protection from poverty and unemployment, which began during the massive drought of 1970-72 Maharashtra’s. Employment Guarantee Act (MEGA) was passed unanimously by the state assembly, and came into force in January 1979. The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) Bill 2004 was presented in the parliament on 21 Dec. 2004. NREGA Act – 2005 was implemented on 5th September 2005.}

1.4 Poverty in India:

“Conceptually, the notion of poverty is a complex phenomenon in its content and scope. It is both widespread and intensive, and intrinsically related to socio-cultural, socio-political and socio-economic factors which indicate the contemporary ideologies and policies followed by society. As such, there is no absolute meaning attached to the word poverty: nor is there a generally satisfactory definition and concept of poverty for adoption by researchers and policy-makers. However, at a broad conceptual level, most people agree that poverty means an inadequate level of consumption of individuals and groups. In other words, poverty is basically a matter of having insufficient food, clothing and shelter. What is the sufficient level of needs satisfaction and how is that established is a baffling question. Answer to this question the concept of poverty line was introduced by Charles Booth, English sociologist. Booth divided the people of London into eight income groups, and described the bottom four groups as ‘living below the line of poverty’ Booth defined those who lived at or below the ‘poverty line’ as having an average income (at 1889 prices) of 21 to 22 shillings per week for a very small family or up to 25 to 26 shillings for one of larger family. After Booth, other scholars carried the ‘poverty line’ concept further and now it has become a practice to express level of poverty of people in people in terms of ‘poverty line’.

Poverty as a concept has been defined by several authors in different ways. Martin Rein observed that poverty may be regarded as subsistence, inequality or externality. Subsistence is concerned with the minimum provision needed to maintain health and working capacity. It terms of reference are the inequality is concerned with

\footnote{http://www.righttofoodindia.org/rtowork/rtw-briefing.pdf}
the relative position of income groups. Thus, study of the poor, depends on an understanding of the level of living of the rich. Direct relationship between the two is essential to the concept of inequality. Externality is concerned with the social consequences of poverty for the rest of the society rather than with the social consequences of poverty for the rest of the society rather than with the need of the poor. Therefore, the ‘poverty line’ has to serve ‘as an index of the disutility to the community of the persistence of poverty.”

“Rapid growth provides the basis for expanding incomes and employment as well as the resources to finance programmes for poverty alleviation. However, it does not automatically create ‘high-quality’ employment for those locked in low-quality, low-income occupations, nor does it necessarily translate into inclusive growth. While the percentage of those in poverty in India has declined during the past six decades of planning for development and growth, the number of those in poverty, even at the low levels of expenditure at which the poverty line is set, is unacceptably high. In addition, the large proportion of the population in poverty over long periods of time suggests that a significant number of people have continued to suffer extended-duration or chronic poverty. While some of the poor may be exiting poverty, many of the non-poor may be entering it. Chronic poverty and poverty dynamics are now generally recognized concepts. In his first address to the nation as Prime Minister, Dr. Manmohan Singh noted with concern that ‘chronic poverty afflicts millions who lack income and food security’ (Dr. Singh, 2004).”

Fundamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to; not having the land on which to grow one’s food or a job to earn one’s living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation.

- United Nations


Poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being, and comprises many dimensions. It includes low incomes and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival with dignity. Poverty also encompasses low levels of health and education, poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, lack of voice, and insufficient capacity and opportunity to better one’s life.

- World Bank

“Dandekar and Rath’s study of poverty in India – Dr. V. M. Dandekar and Mr. Nilkantha Rath estimated the value of the diet with 2,250 calories as the desired minimum level of nutrition. They suggested that whereas the planning commission accepts Rs. 20 per capita per month (or Rs. 240 per annum) as the minimum desirable standard, it would not be fair to use this figure for both the urban and rural areas. Dandekar and Rath, therefore, suggested somewhat lower minimum for rural population, Rs. 180 per capita per annum and somewhat higher minimum Rs. 270 per capita per annum for the urban population at 1960-61 prices. However, at 1968-69 prices, the corresponding figures for the rural and urban population work out to be Rs. 324 and Rs. 486 per capita per annum respectively. Interpolating at this basis Dandekar and Rath estimated that in 1968-69 about 40 percent of the rural population and a little more than 50 percent of the urban population lived below the poverty line. The total number of persons living below the poverty line showed an increase from 177 million in 1960-61 to 216 million in 1968-69, but there was no change in percentage of rural and urban poor to the population in the two years it stood at 41 percent.

Minhas study of Rural Poor – Another estimate made by B. S. Minhas on the basis of National Sample Survey (NSS) data revealed that if one regards the level of per capita annual consumption expenditure of Rs. 240 as the bare minimum, then 50.6 percent of the population lived below the poverty line in 1967-68. During the period 1956-57 and 1967-68, the proportion below the poverty line among the rural poor seems to have fallen in good harvest years but shot up again in bad harvest years. However, there has been a steady decline in the proportion of people below the poverty line, from 65 percent in 1956-57 to 50.6 percent in 1967-68. In other words, we had around 210 million poor people in rural areas in 1967-68, and the corresponding number in the earlier years varied between 206 and 221 million.”

Tendulkar Committee—“There has been much discussion in recent years as to whether the poverty lines underlying these official estimates needed to be redefined. The official poverty lines presently in use are based on the per capita consumption level, which in 1973-74, was associated with a commodity bundle that yielded a specified level of calories which was then thought to be appropriate for rural and urban areas respectively. However, the original link with calories was broken over time, mainly because consumption patterns have changed since 1973-74. Some have argued that the poverty lines should be redrawn to return to a calorie based estimate, but this is not compelling since, with rising living standards and accelerated growth, a purely calorie based norm is no longer regarded as appropriate. Others pointed out that the official poverty lines for rural areas of certain States were too low and should be raised. Yet others have argued that for the purpose of determining eligibility for certain benefits, we should move away from targeting the population below a fixed poverty line, and simply designate a certain percentage of the population as the target group that is eligible for these benefits.

The establishment of an exogenously specified fixed poverty line in terms of some level of real income or consumption has several advantages, even if it is not linked explicitly to calories. It enables us to measure the extent to which growth over time has benefited the poor, i.e. reduced the number or the percentage of the population Below Poverty Line (BPL). However, as in case of any price index, if consumption patterns are changing, the weighting diagrams used to update the poverty lines need to be revised periodically. There is also a case for periodically raising the poverty line even beyond pure inflation adjustment, in order to reflect growth of income in the economy. As an economy grows and per capita incomes rise, the poverty threshold, understood as the minimum acceptable level of living, should be raised to reflect the rising income and production levels of the society. It is well known that rich countries have much higher poverty lines than poor countries, and this also implies that as poor countries become richer, they should redraw their poverty lines. However, when such revisions are made, the percentage of population below the poverty line is no longer comparable with the earlier estimates.

Recognizing the need to address these issues, the Planning Commission had in December 2005 appointed a Committee to review alternate concepts of poverty and recommend changes in the existing procedures of official estimation of poverty. The Committee was chaired by Professor Suresh D. Tendulkar, then Member of the
The composition and terms of reference of the Committee is attached. The Tendulkar Committee submitted its report in November 2009. The Committee reviewed various arguments advanced in favour of redefining the poverty line and came to the conclusion that some changes are necessary. However, it has not recommended a new basis for defining poverty in terms of calories, or any other minimum basic needs norm. Instead, it has concluded that magnitude of the estimates of all India urban poverty that emerged from the traditional methodology was broadly acceptable. To be more specific: (a) it decided to locate the poverty line bundle of goods and services in the consumption pattern observed in the 2004-05 NSS survey based on the mixed reference period; (b) it recommended that the same bundle be made available to the rural population after correcting for the rural-urban price differential.

Two basic problems with the existing poverty line identified by the Expert Group were (a) out-dated consumption patterns of 1973-74, which have changed even among the poor during the accelerated growth process; and (b) out-dated weights, as well as price base of the segment-specific price indices used in updating the 1973-74 base poverty lines.

The original poverty lines for 1973-74 were based on consumption bundles, which in 1973-74 had corresponded to specified levels of calorie consumption per capita, that were regarded as the minimum required at that time for rural and urban areas respectively. However, as the 1973-74 poverty lines were adjusted over time to reflect inflation using different inflation indices, they moved in different ways because of different rates of measured inflation in urban and rural areas. The consequence of this procedure is that the rural poverty lines for 2004-05 appeared to be too low compared to the corresponding urban poverty lines for that year. While the all India rural poverty line was 87% of the all India urban poverty line in 1973-74, it had come to be only 66% in 2004-05 using the present (Lakdawala) methodology. The Committee’s detailed analysis shows that rural prices are typically lower than their urban counter-parts, and that the actual ratio in 2004-05 was around 76%. The Committee recommended that the rural poverty line should be recomputed to reflect money value in rural areas of the same basket of consumption that is associated with the existing urban poverty ratio. This realignment has been achieved by the following procedure: The committee started with the national level urban poverty ratio yielded
by the Lakdawala methodology. This poverty ratio is associated with a particular level of per capita household consumption expenditure. The consumption basket associated with this per capita household consumption expenditure is taken as a base for computing urban and rural poverty for all States. The urban poverty line in each State is computed by valuing the consumption basket corresponding to national urban poverty line at prices prevailing in each State, taking into account price differentials between the State and the National level by using Fisher’s ideal price indices based on unit prices implicit in the survey itself. The urban poverty line thus derived for each State yields a poverty ratio for urban areas in that State. The resulting state specific urban poverty line consumption baskets are then valued at the rural prices for each State, again based on Fisher’s indices of the differences between rural and urban prices in that State. This yielded a rural poverty line for each State. Applying this rural poverty line to the rural expenditure class-wise population distribution contained in the NSS data for the State yields the State’s rural poverty ratio.9

Table No 1.1

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<th>Headcount Ratio Below Poverty Line in India &amp; Maharashtra</th>
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Source: Planning Commission, Government of India

The poverty estimates provided by the planning commission reveal that the poverty ratio of all India 27.5 per cent and Maharashtra 30.7% in 2004-05. A persons were monthly per capita consumption expenditure under the Rs. 15 at 1960-61 prices for rural area and Rs. 22.5 for urban areas is called BPL in 1973-74 this criterion of poverty line made by Dandekar & Rath. V. M. Dandekar estimates that persons were living BPL the monthly per capita consumption expenditure Rs. 88.4 prices. Planning commission expert group (1993) estimated that poverty line the monthly per capita consumption expenditure Rs. 165.58 prices. In 2004-05 NSSO estimates the monthly per capita consumption Rs. 356 for rural areas and 538 for urban areas.

1.5 Poverty in Maharashtra:

“The Maharashtra drought is so much in the limelight not only because of its extreme severity but because it is the third in succession. The remarkable thing is, how relatively little and had been made of the first two, and not less significant is that

The lessons of the preceding years have not been taken to heart. This apart, historically the struggle of the Maharashtrian farmer has been one of quest for water, nature has been stingy in providing him with a sufficiency of rainfall; nor did it help him in many of the operations reaching out for this indispensable resource. For the greater part it has also put a layer of hard rock between him and an undependable subterranean flow. This helps to explain to a large degree why the rate of irrigation in Maharashtra is the second lowest in India, and partly why the irrigated area during the past decade has risen only marginally from 6.5 to 8.3 per cent. Regardless of the reasons, the fact is that rural Maharashtra depends very largely on the monsoon for irrigation and, as we shall see subsequently, for drinking water as well.

The year 1960-61 was the best recorded crop year, but between 1971-72 a number of major and minor droughts have reduced food production by a reported 14 per cent, despite a rise of cultivated area, improved varieties, and other supporting measures. The corresponding increase in the all India foodgrains production was 35 per cent. A similarly unhappy position prevails in respect of most commercial crops.

Few irrigation facilities and the monsoon playing truant so often, is reflected in the decline of farm income. The per capita income of the state at constant prices, in the past decade, increased by 3 per cent vis-à-vis an average per capita income increase of 13 per cent for all of India. In this growth, the primary sector (agriculture, animal husbandry, fisheries), employing 70 per cent of the population, showed a decline of 16 per cent. This is not because the Maharashtrian farmer is conservative and indolent, but because he is so largely dependent on the water gods who have been by passing him these years. In Maharashtra, the sub normality of the monsoon has become more a rule than an exception, and all measures to combat it have been either insufficient or non productive for a variety of reasons. The years 1970-71 to 1972-73 tell the story of the persistence of this subnormality and its consequences. According to official estimates, out of a total of about 35,000 villages, 23,000 villages in 21 districts (out of a total of 26 districts) in 1970-71 and 15,000 villages in 20 districts in 1971-72 were affected by scarcity. The current year is apparently the “banner” year; officially, 25 districts are facing, or are likely to face, crop failures of larger and smaller degree. The number of villages involved is not yet known, but it would exceed that of 1970-71. The number of people in Maharashtra subject to the drought in one way or another during the mentioned years are officially estimated at 19, 12, and 20 million, respectively, out of a total rural population of 35 million.
figures, as well as the number of affected districts, may well be on the high side but even smaller magnitudes would not change the picture to any significant extent.”

“Maharashtra is also regarded as a pioneering state for generating employment in public works on a large scale. The EGS of Maharashtra was conceived as a major poverty alleviation measure in 1972 to provide manual employment to all those who registered for it. This was later turned into a kind of statutory entitlement with the enactment of MEGA that came into force in 1979 and has been in force since then. An important feature observed in the MEGS is that the supply of employment seems to adjust to fluctuations in the demand over seasons and over years, especially drought years. Thus, one can conclude that EGS works more as a relief programme during years/seasons of crisis with benefits being limited to certain pockets rather than as a programme for poverty alleviation. The latter is also borne out by the fact that rural poverty in Maharashtra has not declined substantially, and is close to the national average.”

1.6 Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Maharashtra:

“Poverty alleviation through employment generation has been an important goal of development policy since the inception of planning in India. The various poverty alleviation programs being implemented in the state are.

1) Maharashtra Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MREGS) – NREGS was implemented in the state since 2nd Feb 2006. Initially it was implemented in few districts of state. Now this scheme is implemented in all district of the state excluding Mumbai city and Mumbai suburban District as MREGS which is the integrated rural employment program. MREGS is the combination of NREGS and old EGS which was exclusively implemented by Government of Maharashtra. In MREGS, guarantee of providing employment of 365 days in financial year per household is given, out of which up to 100 days employment is given under NREGS. The expenditure incurred for the employment generation exceeding 100 days is being made from old EGS.

2) Swarnajayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana - Swarnajayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SGSY) is a major self employment programme to assist BPL families (Swarojgaris) by organizing them into Self Help Groups (SHGs) through the

process of social mobilization, their training and capacity building. The main objective of the scheme is to bring the BPL: families above the poverty line by providing them income generating assets through both bank credit and Government subsidy on sustainable basis. The total number of SHGs formed in the state since inception of the scheme up to Dec. 2009 is 2,25,140 of which, number of SHGs activated is 61,325. In the year 2009-10 total loan of Rs. 24.84 lakhs (Subsidy of Rs. 10.35 lakhs) and Rs. 127.73 lakhs (Subsidy of Rs. 65.95 lakhs) is disbursed to total number of 8,777 individual swarojgar and 6,856 SHGs respectively up to Dec. 2009. Marketing of rural product is an important component of the programme. The rural artisans do not have wherewithal to connect themselves to the market as they lack adequate capacity, market intelligence and negotiation skills. To overcome this, a new policy of permanent marketing centers at village, district and state levels was launched by Government Of India (GOI) under SGSY from 2008-09. Under this total number of 99 villages haats in 33 districts was sanctioned with the fund of Rs. 556.88 lakhs during 2008-09.

3) Swarnajayanti Shahari Rojgar Yojana – Swarnajayanti Shahari Rojgar Yojana (SJSRY) is a unified Centrally Sponsored Scheme launched a fresh in lieu of the erstwhile Urban Poverty Alliviation Programme Viz. Nehru Rojgar Yojana (NRY), Prime Minister’s Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programe (PMIUPEP) and Urban Basic Services for the Poor (UBSP). The main objectives are-

- To address urban poverty alleviation through gainful employment to the urban unemployed and under employed poor.
- To support skill development and training to enable the urban poor have access to employment opportunities provided by the market or undertake self employment.
- To empower the community to tackle the issues of urban poverty through suitable self. Managed community structures and capacity building programmes.

4) Prime Minister’s Employment Generation Programme – The Prime Minister’s Employment Generation Programme (PMEGP) is a new credit linked subsidy programme introduced in 15th August 2008 by the Government of India by merging Prime Minister’s Rojgar Yojana (PMRY) and Rural Employment
Generation Programme (REGP) for generation of employment opportunities through establishment of micro enterprises in rural as well as urban areas. The main objectives of the scheme are –

- To generate employment opportunities in rural as well as urban areas through setting of new self-employment ventures bringing together widely dispersed traditional artisans/ unemployed youth at their place, so as to reduce migration of rural youth to urban areas.
- To increase the wage earning capacity of rural artisans and contribute to increase in the growth rate of rural and urban employment.

In 2008-09 total margin money of Rs. 11.56 crores were disbursed to 1,028 projects creating 5,934 employments, whereas in 2009-10 total margin money of Rs. 8.25 crores was disbursed to 700 projects creating 3,949 employments up to Dec. 2009.

5) Seed Money Scheme to Educated Unemployed - The objective of the scheme is to encourage unemployed person to take up self-employment ventures through industry, service and business, by providing soft loans to meet part of the margin money to avail institutional finance. Local unemployed person or group of persons of age between 18 to 50 years having qualification VII pass is/are eligible under the scheme. During 2008-09 Rs. 8.81 crores were disbursed to 1,641 projects. Whereas, during the year 2009-10 total of Rs. 5.05 crores is disbursed to 984 projects up to Dec. 2009.\(^{12}\)

1.7 Chapters in Brief:

In the first part of this chapter, we have focused on the introduction, to study concept of right to work, constitution about the right to work, to study guarantee of work important, to study poverty in India and Maharashtra, to study poverty alleviation programmes in Maharashtra.

In the counter part of this chapter, to study introduction and significance of the study, to study statement of the problem, to study objectives and sources of data collection, to study period of the study. We have presented the review of literature regarding EGS & NREGS different thoughts of different states of the country.

In this chapter we have focused on profile of the Maharashtra, profile of EGS, objectives of EGS, history of EGS, to study the EGS Act, NREGA and MREGS Act.

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In this chapter we have focused on planning of EGS, organization of EGS, nature of work, inspection and supervision, to study MREGS planning, organization, works, registration and verification and transparency and accountability.

In this chapter we have focused yearwise and monthwise average labour attendance, divisionwise labour attendance, all type of work completed, expenditure of EGS and MREGS.

This chapter is the last chapter of the present research work, the highlights of major finding, short-comings during the implementation of MREGS and suggestions of EGS section in Maharashtra.
References:
8. www.planningcommission.com