CHAPTER -VI
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

So far the varies dimension’s constituting the broad framework of office of the Prime Minister of India with special reference to Dr. Manmohan Singh have been dealt with in some what detailed way.

About the introduction chapter covered Introduction, Statement of the problem, Objectives of the study, Hypothesis of the study, Research Methodology and Research Design.

The Constitution of India recognizes the pre-eminence of the Prime Minister in the Council of Ministers. He heads the Council of Ministers and guides all the activities of the Council in all spheres. His leadership is an accepted fact, as on his advice the other Ministers are appointed by the President. This also gives the Prime Minister the right of selecting anybody as his Cabinet colleague or dropping any Minister from the Cabinet, if he so decides. Thus the position of the Indian Prime Minister is more or less similar to that of the British Prime Minister and he may also be called the "keystone of the Cabinet arch". He is the keyman of the cabinet because he is central to its life and central to its death. He can shuffle and re-shuffle his pack of cards as he likes. He can compel any Minister to resign and take a new Minister in his place. Even though every Minister is responsible for a particular department, the overall responsibility is that of the Prime Minister and the portfolio of a particular Minister can be changed and he may be allocated a different portfolio. However, in selecting his Cabinet colleagues or in allocating the portfolio, the Prime Minister is not absolutely free and several factors have to be taken into consideration by him. In India, due representation is to be given to the North and South in the Council of Ministers and Muslims, Sikhs and members of the Scheduled Castes and
Scheduled Tribes must also be represented. In spite of the Prime Minister's difference of opinion with some members, they have to be accommodated in the Council of Ministers for maintaining the solidarity of the party and for getting the support of the entire rank and file of the party organisation.

Individual members of the Cabinet may come and go, but the Cabinet is not affected by that. On the other hand, the resignation of the Prime Minister will be tantamount to the dissolution of the whole Cabinet. Therefore, the remark that the Prime Minister is central to the life and death of the Cabinet is justified.

The Prime Minister summons, prorogues and presides over the Cabinet meetings. He shapes the general policy of administration and it is carried out by his colleagues. His job is to lay down the broad outlines of policy, leaving the details to be worked by the other Ministers and field officers. He also exercises a general supervision over the work of his colleagues. He coordinates their work by evolving a common policy. It is noteworthy that the Prime Minister does not work only as a Chairman to cast his deciding vote in the case of a tie. He has a very important role to play in the Cabinet. He should bring about a compromise between the quarreling Ministers and work as an umpire. He should see that a concerted policy is followed by the Cabinet either by persuading his dissenting colleagues or by compelling them to resign. The supremacy of the Prime Minister is bound to be accepted under a system of joint responsibility. In the opinion of Dr. Ambedkar, the system of collective responsibility can work only when the Prime Minister is accepted as the head of the Council of Ministers. Therefore, "no person shall be nominated to the Cabinet except on the advice of the Prime Minister and further, "no person shall be retained as a member of the Cabinet if the Prime Minister says that he shall be dismissed"
With regard to the appointment of the Prime Minister by the President, the language of Art 75(I) is quite vague. It simply says that the Prime Minister shall be appointed by the president; it therefore says nothing about the discretionary authority of the head of the State in this regard, nor does it lay down anything about the Prime Minister’s being a member of the Parliament at the time of the appointment. Or two persons having their eyes colored with the English experiments, it seems aromatic to say that the President has very little, almost no chance of using his personal choice in this regard in view of the fact that, under normal conditions, his hands are tied by the convention of selecting none else than the leader of the party commanding absolute majority in the Lok Sabha. It is further inferable from this point that the President may, perhaps, be in a position to exercise his individual judgment under abnormal conditions, that is, in case no party secures absolute majority in the Lok Sabha. A prima facie examination of the whole arrangement leaves an compression that the president many appoint anyone as the prime Minister he is able to carry the majority of the members of the Lok Sabha him, and (ii) in the event of being a non-member of the he is able to get his seat preferable in the Lok Sabha within the six months.

Constitutionally the Prime Minister is the sole channel of Communication between the President and his Council of Ministers. The Constitution enjoins upon him to communicate to the President all decisions taken by his cabinet and to furnish him information relating to the administration of the country as well as the proposals for legislation as he (President) may call for. The ministers with the prior approval of the Prime Minister may see the President, but it is for the Prime Minister alone to report to the President in an official manner the substance of all decisions taken by his cabinet for the sake of latter’s formal sanction. It well indicates that, like the English monarch, our President has no official means of
knowing anything about cabinet’s decision except what the Prime Minister may choose to tell him. Such a conventional arrangement acts as the best safeguard against any possibility of mischief at the hands of the nominal executive to disrupt the unity in the team headed by the real working head of the state.

Constitutionally, our President has the right to be kept informed. Though the cabinet meeting is never presided over by the President, it is the duty of the Prime Minister to communicate to the President either personally or through his ministers all decisions of his Council of Ministers relating to the administration of affairs of the Union and proposals for legislation. It is, indeed, by meeting the ministers individually that the President knows about the decisions taken by them relating to the departments and, if he does not agree with anyone of them, he may ask the Prime Minister to submit a matter for the consideration of the Council of Ministers provided it has not already been considered by it. It may be taken that the practice of meeting the President individually may be inherent with certain dangers in as much as by such an arrangement he “may not only influence the policies of various departments, he may also undermine the solidarity of cabinet and the leadership of the Prime Minister”. Such a view, however, seems to be an over simplification of matters. Once again, the point of personal equation figures in to settle the controversy. Any fear to President’s making a dent into the solidarity of the cabinet or into the authority of the Prime Minister should be harboured or allayed in view of the political relationship between and personal equation of the President and the Prime Minister.

From the view of personal equation acts as the sole determinant, an enquiry should be made into the political relationship that has subsisted
between the two high incumbents in our country. As a powerful leader of
the people and, more particularly as a man of progressive views.

This chapter also covered comparison in working of different Prime
Minister’s of the world like UK, Bangladesh, Switzerland, Canada and
Australia as regards brief life sketch of Dr. Manmohan Singh.

About the brief life sketch of Dr. Manmohan:

He was born to Gurmukh Singh and Amrit Kaur on 26 September
1932, in Gah, Punjab, British India, into a Sikh family. He lost his mother
when he was very young and was raised by his paternal grandmother, to
whom he was very close.

After the Partition of India, his family migrated to Amritsar, India,
where he studied at Hindu College. He attended Punjab University,
Chandigarh, then in Hoshiarpur, Punjab, studying Economics and got his
bachelor's and master's degrees in 1952 and 1954, respectively, standing
first throughout his academic career. He went on to read Economics Tripos
at Cambridge as a member of St John's College. He won the Wright's Prize
for distinguished performance in 1955 and 1957. He was also one of the
few recipients of the Wrenbury scholarship. In 1962, Dr. Manmohan Singh
completed his studies from the University of Oxford where he was a
member of Nuffield College.³ His doctoral thesis "India’s Export
Performance, 1951–1960, Export Prospects and Policy Implications" was
later the base for his book "India’s Export Trends and Prospects for Self-
Sustained Growth".

After completing his Ph,D Dr. Manmohan Singh worked for
the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)
from 1966–1969. During the 1970s, he taught at the University of Delhi and
worked for the Ministry of Foreign Trade with the former Cabinet Minister
for Foreign Trade, Lalit Narayan Mishra. As the Minister of Foreign Trade, Lalit Narayan Mishra was one of the first to recognize Dr. Manmohan Singh's talent as an economist and appointed him his advisor at the Ministry of Foreign Trade. Dr. Manmohan Singh and Lalit Narayan Mishra first met, coincidentally, on a flight from India to Chile. Lalit Narayan Mishra was on his way to Santiago, Chile to attend an UNCTAD meeting.4

In 1982, he was appointed the Governor of the Reserve Bank of India and held the post until 1985. He went on to become the deputy chairman of the Planning Commission of India from 1985 to 1987. Following his tenure at the Planning Commission, he was Secretary General of the South Commission, an Independent Economic Policy Think Tank Headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland from 1987 to 1990.

In 1991, P. V. Narasimha Rao, the than the Prime Minister of India choses Dr. Manmohan Singh to be his Finance Minister. At that time, India's fiscal deficit was close to 8.5 per cent of the gross domestic product, the balance of payments deficit was huge and the current account deficit was close to 3.5 percent of India's GDP. India's foreign reserves barely amounted to US$1 billion, enough to pay for a few weeks of imports, in comparison to US$283 billion today.

Evidently, India was facing an economic crisis. At this point, the government of India sought relief from the supranational International Monetary Fund (IMF), which, while assisting India financially, imposed several conditions regarding India's economic policy. In effect, IMF-dictated policy meant that the ubiquitous Licence Raj had to be dismantled, and India's attempt at a state-controlled economy had to end. Accordingly, Dr. Manmohan Singh, who had thus far been one of the most influential
architects of India's socialist economy, slowly opened the Indian economy to foreign investment and business competition.

P. V. Narasimha Rao and Dr. Manmohan Singh thus implemented policies to open up the economy and change India's socialist economy to a more capitalistic one, in the process dismantling the License Raj, a system that inhibited the prosperity of private businesses. They removed many obstacles standing in the way of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), and initiated the process of the privatization of public sector companies. However, in spite of these reforms, P. V. Narasimrao Rao's government was voted out in 1996 due to non-performance of government in other areas. In praise of Dr. Manmohan Singh's work that pushed India towards a market economy, long-time Cabinet Minister P. Chidambaram had referred to Dr. Manmohan Singh as the Deng Xiaoping of India.\(^5\)

In 1993, Dr. Manmohan Singh offered his resignation from the post of Finance Minister after a parliamentary investigation report criticized his ministry for not being able to anticipate a US$1.8 billion securities scandal. Prime Minister P. V. Narasimha Rao refused Dr. Manmohan Singh's resignation, instead promising to punish the individuals directly accused in the report.

Dr. Manmohan Singh was first elected to the upper house of Parliament, the Rajya Sabha, in 1991 by the legislature of the state of Assam, and was re-elected in 1995, 2001 and 2007. From 1998 to 2004, while the Bharatiya Janata Party was in power, Dr. Manmohan Singh was the Leader of the Opposition in the Rajya Sabha. In 1999, he contested for the Lok Sabha from South Delhi but was unable to win the seat.

After the 2004 general elections, the Indian National Congress ended the incumbent National Democratic Alliance (NDA) tenure by becoming
the political party with the single largest number of seats in the Lok Sabha. It formed United Progressive Alliance (UPA) with allies and staked claim to form the government. In a surprise move, the Chairperson of Congress Mrs. Sonia Gandhi declared Dr. Manmohan Singh, a technocrat, as the UPA candidate for the Prime Ministership. Despite the fact that Dr. Manmohan Singh had never won a Lok Sabha seat, he "has enjoyed massive popular support, not least because he was seen by many as a clean politician untouched by the taint of corruption that has run through many Indian administrations." He took the oath as the Prime Minister of India on 22 May 2004.

As regards economic policy of Dr. Manmohan Singh, the Manmohan Singh Doctrine in India. Equally, the doctrine's appeal to the outside world is premised on India remaining a high growth, open economy and an open society, marked by popular commitment to the values of a liberal, plural and secular democracy. An inward-looking, internally divided, bigoted and illiberal India would have little external standing, and no external appeal.

In his very first budget speech in Parliament, in July 1991, Singh linked India's goal standing with its economic performance. After spelling out his strategy to deal with an immediate crisis - a balance of payments and fiscal crisis - Singh firmly anchored his economic initiatives in a wider strategic setting. He ended his historic speech with the now famous quote from Victor Hugo ("No power on earth can stop an idea whose time has come") and added, "I suggest to this August House that the emergence of India as a major economic power in the world happens to be one such idea. Let the whole world hear it loud and clear. India is now wide awake. We shall prevail. We shall overcome."
Six years later, recalling this speech in an interview published in the inaugural edition of a new international affairs journal, World Affairs, Singh underlined the foreign policy implications of the 'new economic policies' unveiled by the Narasimha Rao government. There was no doubt in Singh's mind that the liberalization of the Indian economy and the 'new turn' in its economic policies were part of a new strategic policy orientation taken in the context of the collapse of the Soviet Union, the rise of China and East Asian economies and India's own economic rise in the 1980s.

Indeed, Rao himself so explained his foreign policy initiatives. In one of his first media interviews, explaining his foreign and economic policies, Rao said, "now the Cold War is over. There is an element of cooperation instead of confrontation. It is a new situation. And we have to respond to that. So certain policy orientations will take place to ensure that our national interest does not suffer." In 1991 this 'national interest' was defined essentially in economic terms, given the crisis at hand and the need to pull India back from the brink of bankruptcy.

However, it was not merely the compulsions of crisis management that forced a rethink on foreign policy priorities. The crisis had been anticipated by many economists and there was a long period of rethinking on economic policy priorities preceding the 1990-91 crisis. This rethinking was triggered by the development experience of East and Southeast Asian economies and that of China, which had launched its own "Four Modernizations" policy a decade earlier, as part of a general re-orientation of its strategic policy and its relations with the outside world.

In an interview given to this writer in February 1991, three months before he assumed charge as India's finance minister, Singh told The Economic Times (Delhi) that India has to learn from the East Asian
experience and re-orient its economic policies. 'He reminded Indians that, in 1960, South Korea and India were on par in economic terms, including their level of industrial development but by the late 1980s, Korea had become a "newly industrializing economy", an "Asian Tiger", while India still lagged behind. He returned to this theme in his last Budget Speech in February 1995, "It is this vision, of a resurgent India taking her rightful place as an economic power house in Asia, which has inspired our economic policies."

In relating India's economic capabilities to its global profile and influence Singh was in fact drawing on early "Nehruvian realism" that had been forgotten during the intervening years when Indian foreign policy was shaped more by the "low politics" of the Cold War era and the "high politics" of post-colonialism. It was an interregnum in which "non-alignment" became an "ideology" rather than the "strategy" that it initially was.'

In his very first speech on foreign policy as Prime Minister of free India, Jawaharlal Nehru had observed, "talking about foreign policies, the House must remember that these are not just empty struggles on a chessboard. Behind them lie all manner of things. Ultimately, foreign policy is the outcome of economic policy, and until India has properly evolved her economic policy, her foreign policy will be rather vague, rather inchoate, and will be groping .... a vague statement that we stand for peace and freedom by itself has no particular meaning, because every country is prepared to say the same thing, whether it means it or not. What then do we stand for? Well, you have to develop this argument in the economic field. As it happens today, in spite of the fact that we have been for sometime in authority as a Government, I regret that we have not produced any constructive economic scheme or economic policy so far... When we do so, that will govern our foreign policy more than all the speeches in this House".
In a further elaboration of this "realist" and "instrumentalist" perspective on foreign policy, Nehru added. "Whatever policy we may lay down, the art of conducting the foreign affairs of a country lies in finding out what is most advantageous to the country." It is this original Nehruvian 'realist' perspective that Singh brought back to Indian thinking on foreign policy.

Several factors contributed to this shift in Indian thinking on relations with the world and the role of economics and business in international relations.

First, the collapse of the Soviet Union and the consequent disruption of an important external trade relationship. It was not just the economic and strategic fallout of this that was debilitating for India, but also the political and diplomatic fall-out. The Soviet Union was an importance "balancer" from India's point of view in its negotiations with Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, and with multilateral financial institutions. As recently as in 1980 Indira Gandhi used the "Soviet Card", as it were, in her negotiations with the International Monetary Fund (IMP) to secure improved terms for an extended financing facility loan.

Second, the balance of payments crisis of 1999-91 and the need to adopt a stabilization and adjustment programme to secure financial support from the IMF and the World Bank. India also reached out to Japan for bilateral assistance and found Japan unwilling to extend such support without India adopting a clear programme of reform and adjustment. Finance Minister Yashwant Sinha had to return from Tokyo empty-handed, after having been kept waiting for an appointment with his counterpart.
Third, as a consequence of the balance of payments crisis, as a result of new thinking within the policy making establishment, and thanks to new trends in remittance inflows and foreign trade, India chose to move away from external aid and debt as major sources of balance of payments support and opt for foreign trade, especially services trade, and investment, especially portfolio flows, as sources of foreign exchange.

Fourth, the 1990s saw a major change in India's approach to foreign trade in general and to a multilateral trade regime in particular. India became a founding member of the World Trade Organization (WTO) and committed itself to multilateral rules of engagement in trade. India also began to seek regional and bilateral trade agreements on a parallel track and supported the idea of a South Asian Free Trade Agreement, to begin with, and soon expressed interest in an India-ASEAN Free Trade Agreement (FTA). India's 'Look East' policy and its interest in increasing its economic interaction with the Indian Ocean Rim countries also shaped India's relations with its wider "Southern Asian" neighbourhood.

Fifth, China's rise as an open economy and a trading nation had a profound impact on political and academic thinking within India and shaped public policy both with respect to domestic and external economic policy and with respect to India's foreign and strategic policy.

Sixth, as the 1990s progressed, and more in the first few years of the new century, India discovered its global prowess in the field of information technology. The business generated by the so-called "Y2K" problem followed by the growth of Indian information technology (IT) and IT-enabled services business, the "software and outsourcing" boom, and the growth in trade in services greatly changed attitudes towards globalization and global integration.
Seventh, in more recent years the outward-orientation of Indian business has also increased. First inspired by the experience of IT firms such as Tata Consultancy Services, Infosys and WIPRO and, subsequently, by that of pharmaceutical majors like Ranbaxy and Dr. Reddy's, Indian business groups began to move away from their earlier inward-looking "Bombay Club" mentality to a more global orientation. The recent listing of Indians among "Forbes Billionaires" is only one visible symbol of Indian business making its mark outside. Such success, howsoever limited as yet, and new attitudes of a new generation of Indian enterprise, has encouraged Indian business to push for more aggressive globalization. This 'outward orientation' of Indian business has shaped India's relations with many OECD economies, including the United States. It has also made Indian business organizations such as the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI) and the Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) active players in Indian diplomacy. The 'business diplomacy' of FICCI and CII has shaped public and political opinion at home and won new friends for India outside.

The impact of the economic reform and liberalization programme launched in 1991 was felt soon enough on the performance of the economy. Compared to an average annual rate of growth of 3.5 percent in the period 1950-1980 and about 5.5 percent in 1980-1990, the Indian economy grew by close to 7.5 percent in 1992-97. There was a slowdown after that till the revival of seven percent plus growth after 2003. The net impact of this accelerated growth was to take India away from its historical comparison with South Asia and Pakistan into a new league where its performance was increasingly compared with that of China and ASEAN. This lead its own geo-political and strategic consequence.'
India's improved macro-economic performance in the decade 1991-2001 had more than a positive impact on its external economic and diplomatic profile. India's trade/gross domestic product (GDP) ratio went up, and so did her foreign exchange reserves. There was a sharp decline in external debt and debt service ratio. After 2000, services exports went up from around US$10 billion in 1999 to over US$60 billion by 2006. A third of this was accounted for by software services exports. India's share of world services exports rose to over 2.5 percent of world's services exports and its share of world merchandise exports doubled from 0.5 percent in 1990 to one percent by 2005 and to 1.5 percent by 2007-08.

India's external economic liberalization strategy can be described as a 'stable and successful' strategy. It was characterized by policy stability and a step-by-step approach that helped it escape the Asian financial crisis in 1997-98, weather trade sanctions after the nuclear tests in 1998, accumulate foreign exchange reserves, ensure exchange rate stability, reduce external debt burden and increase its share of global capital flows.

India went into the Doha Development Round of WTO negotiations with a forward-looking strategy focused on securing better market access to industrial products, agricultural goods and to skilled services. Singh took a pro-active stance on multilateral and regional trade negotiations. Early in his term as Prime Minister he created a new institutional mechanism for coordinated policy making on the external front in the form of the Trade and Economic Relations Committee (TERC). TERC was chaired by the Prime Minister and included the Ministers of External Affairs, Finance, Industry and Commerce, and Agriculture, and the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission and the National Security Advisor. TERC remained an active body in the period 2004-2008, pushing forward the India-ASEAN
FTA and defining India's stance on a range of other bilateral, regional and multilateral trade negotiations.

Singh was a strong proponent of the view that India had a "strategic stake" in the multilateral system managed by the WTO. "We have as a nation, a great stake in a rule based international system, a system that is rule based and not deal based," Singh would often say, and repeatedly reaffirm India's commitment to "the successful functioning of the multilateral trading system and to broadening the agenda of the WTO with an increasingly liberal flow of goods, services and labour." Contrary to western media perception, India is not responsible for the current impasse in the Doha Round negotiations, since India has a strategic stake in multilateralism. India would like the Doha Round to adhere to its original mandate of being a "development round".

Without diluting its commitment to multilateralism, India also pursued regional and bilateral FTAs. Successive Indian Finance Ministers, beginning with P. Chidambaram in 1997, set the policy objective of "lowering our tariffs at least to ASEAN levels." Singh would reiterate as Prime Minister that this was a "policy priority for us".

Making India a member of the East Asian Community became a policy imperative for Prime Minister Singh. "I have stated my commitment to the idea of creating an Asian Economic Community, an arc of prosperity across Asia, in which there are no barriers to trade and investment flows and to the movement of people" he told the CII Partnership Summit in Kolkata in January 2005.

While greater openness to external trade has increased the importance of external relations, the changing geographical pattern of that trade has quite understandably changed the relative importance of different
countries. During the Cold War period, the Soviet Union was an important economic partner for India. Apart from defence purchases, India depended on the Soviet market to sell a range of commodities through what came to be described as "rupee trade". With the collapse of the Soviet Union, the Soviet market disappeared. In its place, and apart from the United States and European Union, ASEAN and the East Asian markets emerged as an important destination for Indian exports.

India's integration into the world economy has more recently manifested itself in increased outward investment by Indian 'multinational' companies." Outward foreign direct investment by India shot up from less than US$2 billion in 2003-05 to US$14.4 billion in 2006-07, and continues to rise as large Indian companies takeover multinationals in a range of industries such as pharmaceuticals, steel, telecom and automobiles. Business leaders like Lakshmi Mittal, the Ambani Brothers and Ratan Tata have acquired a profile in India's relations with a wide range of countries. Their influence and that of business organizations such as CII and FICCI in foreign policy choices has grown over the years.

Apart from increased trade and capital flows, India has also benefited from out-migration of skilled labour and brain power. Inward remittances of migrant labour constitute an important source of foreign capital inflows. The presence of several million Indian workers in the Middle East and in ORCD economies has become a strategic asset for the Indian economy, creating a strategic stake for India in the smooth functioning of the global economy and in the stability of the regions where overseas Indians live and work.

This chapter discusses the economic basis of Singh's foreign policy initiatives, a focus on his ideas of 'inclusive globalization', 'asymmetric
liberalization' and the geo-political implications of India's integration into the global economy.

As regards Manmohan Singh Prime Minister office from 2004 to 2014. This chapter covered Prime Minister as political chief. His achievements from 2004 to 2014 is narrated in the following heads.

Prime Minister as Political Chief, Prime Minister and the President, Prime Minister and His Council of Ministers, Prime Minister and Parliament, Prime Minister and the Party, Prime Minister and the People, Prime Minister as the Real Executive, Institutional Support to the Prime Minister, Prime Minister's Secretariat/Office, Council of Ministers, Council of Ministers and the Cabinet, Historical Background of the Existing Classification, Council of Ministers, Formation of the Council of Ministers, Prime Minister, Ministers, Size of the Cabinet, Functions of the Cabinet, Supreme Executive Authority, Formulation of Policy, Legislative Functions, Financial Powers, Control over Appointments, As Coordinator, Extraordinary Functions, Special Role of the Prime Minister in the Cabinet,

**Dr. Manmohan Singh as a Prime Minister of India from 2004 to 2014:**

Dr. Manmohan singh is not a person he is an institution himself. Whatever the steps and contribution had been offered by him to strengthening economic, education, social security, transfront administration and law, women empowerment, science and technology child welfare, agriculture and industrial sector in remaining different capacities at government level as well as a renowned international economist considered as achievements of Dr. Manmohan Singh to his motherland. This chapter covered is contribution of Right to Education, Dr.Manmohan Singh
Achievement in the field of Secondary Education, Dr. Manmohan Singh and Higher Education, Dr. Manmohan Singh achievement in the field of Public Health, Dr. Manmohan Singh Government Steps for Adolescent Health Care, Ayurveda, Yoga, Unani, Siddha and Homoeopathy services and Dr. Manmohan Singh, National Tobacco Control Programme and Dr. Manmohan Singh, Dr. Manmohan Singh’s in Rural Development in India, Social Audit System, Aadhar and Dr. Manmohan Singh’s UPA Government, Introduction of New Fertilizer Investment Policy, National Horticulture Mission (NHM), Dr. Manmohan Singh and Child Development and Child Rights, Dr. Manmohan Singh and Adolescent Girl Empowerment, National Mission for Empowerment of Women (NMEW), The Criminal Law Amendment Act 2013, Dr. Manmohan Singh and Inclusive Agenda for Minorities, The Empowerment of Disables and Dr. Manmohan Singh, Shipping, Railways, National Action Plan on Climate Change (NAPCC), Introduction of Digital Address Addressable System (DAS), Expansion of Private Radio Station, Tourism Development, Dr. Manmohan Singh Government support to the Youths, India Post on The Move, Dr. Manmohan Singh and Corruption, Dr. Manmohan Singh Anna Hajare on Corruption and Lokpal Bill, Citizen-charter Act, Disaster Mnagement and Dr. Manmohan Singh, Relief for Major Calamities, Addressing social development Need, Efforts to Strengthen the Right to Information, Anti Corruption Measures, Judicial Reform, Dr. Manmohan Singh and India’s International Relations, Relation with Gulf And West Asia under Dr. Manmohan Singh prime ministership, India’s Relation with Africa Under UPA Government, India’s Relation with European Countries and Dr. Manmohan Singh, Dr. Manmohan Singh and Global Issues, Dr. Manmohan Singh and Public Diplomacy, Development partnership and Dr. Manmohan Singh.