CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW
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The present topic of the research is "Impact of Tea Plantation on the Socio-Economic life in Dooars Regions of West Bengal." Accordingly, the author is to assess the impact of Tea Plantation on the socio-economic development of the Dooars Region. At this stage, it seems necessary to establish certain definitions and related concepts which would be helpful to understand the present work.

Tea as it is one of the most popular beverages of the people throughout the world and numerous intellectual exercises are being done on its use, effect on health and world tea economy at large. It is really interesting to note the definition of the term ‘tea’ as defined under the Tea Act, 1953 (Govt. of India). According to this Act, 1953, tea means the plant *Camellia Sinensis* as well as all varieties of the product known commercially as tea made from leaves of the plant *Camellia Sinensis*. According to said Act, tea seeds, roots, stumps cuttings, buds and any living portion of the plant *Camellia Sinensis* which may be used to propagate that plant. There is no specified way of testing whether the products really conform to this definition. The term tea is sometimes very loosely used to include
even dried herbal preparations which bear no relation to the plant. Unfortunately many of the chemical components found in tea are also found in many other plants. The only compounds typical of tea are those formed during the processing of black tea and one of these compounds is a product of oxidation. Theaflavin, this compound has a specific chemical structure and there is a fairly accurate method that has been developed for its detection and measurement. It thus becomes possible to incorporate a test for Theaflavin in the definition of tea. Theaflavin has further been found to be one of the factors associated with the quality of tea but the quantity of Theaflavin formed depends on the method of processing adopted. The harsh maceration techniques like the LTP and CTC processes result in tea with high Theaflavin content while many orthodox teas (manufactured using the orthodox older type of rollers) priced highly for their special characteristics may have lower Theaflavin values. Thus, though it is not possible to fix a maximum value for Theaflavin it is certainly very desirable to use Theaflavin as a finger test for tea. This definition will into suffice because any tea will contain some Theaflavin and other chemical parameters must also be incorporated in a standard.
Tea Plantation

Plantations originally referred to a human settlement and not to the crops they raised. The term was commonly used to European settlements in America and later to the farms on which the colonist lived and raised various crops. However, the plantation industry as we know it today evolved from the experience of nearly three centuries, as the colonial influence settled over much of the tropical world. Plantation enterprise represented a shift from conquest, occupation, consolidation, establishment of trade and the gradual shift to the production of the commodities required in trade. Production was organized on large areas of land brought under specific crops like tea, coffee or rubber to produce in adequate volumes to secure the economies of scale and make overseas investments worthwhile.

It is necessary to have an understanding of the agrarian roots of the society in developing countries. Subsistence agriculture was more appropriate to tradition than plantations, established in their midst by alien interests, and exclusively managed by them to produce crops that were shipped to their metropolitan countries. This grafting of plantation system into an agrarian society was alien in character. It created an area of ignorance, indifference and tolerance but no
acceptance and adoption. This was to make the plantation system as outsider and its survival and growth subject to regulations and restrictions in the post colonial years.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) had adopted the most comprehensive Resolution on its 42nd Session in June, 1958 in the shape of Convention No. 110, defining thereupon the term 'Plantation' and laying down conditions of employment of plantation workers etc. It should be noted that for the purpose of ILO convention 'plantation' does not include family or small scale holdings which produce for local consumption and without regular employment of hired workers not regularly employing hired workers. Further more, the term 'plantation' shall ordinarily include services carrying out the primary processing of the products of the plantation.

**Difference between Plantation and Agriculture**

From the definitions as stated earlier it would be amply clear that though the plantation falls under the category of agriculture, yet it differs from agriculture mainly on the following grounds:

(i) The term 'plantation' refers to some specific industries such as, tea, coffee, rubber, cinchona etc. as defined under Convention
of ILO No. 110 and as also brought under the coverage of the 
Plantation Labour Act, 1951.

(ii) Plantation industry is essentially an agro-industry as 
manufacturing processes are also carried out simultaneously to 
prepare the finished products for commercial purposes and 
domestic consumption.

(iii) Plantation includes any agricultural undertakings running with 
a number of hired workers on regular basis and is situated in 
the tropical or sub-tropical regions only.

(iv) To be plantation or estate, certain criteria is, to be fulfilled i.e. 
specific area of cultivable land, employment of stipulated 
number of workers whose service and working conditions are 
guided by specific legislations e.g., Plantation Labour Act, 1951, 
Factory Act, 1948, Standing Orders Act, 1946, Employees 
Provident Fund Act, 1952, etc.

(v) Plantation is controlled or owned by large Private Limited 
companies, Govt. or Co-operative Society etc. which invest 
huge capital and employs large number of permanent and 
temporary workers, and license for starting the plantation and 
export of the products are also regulated by the Tea Act or 
relevant rules or Act of the Govt.
Distinction between Plantation and Agricultural Workers

According to the glossary of ILO, the plantation communities are composed of workers and their families from the surrounding rural areas and of individuals from other areas of the country or from neighboring countries. The insertion of the latter into the activities of the plantation gives them the status of plantation workers while agricultural workers, who continue to practice subsistence agriculture or cash-cropping on a small scale, constitute the peasantry. These two groups – plantation workers and peasants – are interring related as far as their social and biological lives are concerned. In some cases the persons concerned perform both types of activity at different periods in their life. So, the plantation workers constitute a distinct occupational group, and may sometimes experience as migrant workers.

According to the Convention No. 110 rural workers means any person engaged in agricultural, handicrafts or a related occupation in a rural area whether as a wage earner or as self employed person such as a tenant, share-cropper or small owner occupier. This convention applies only to those tenants, share-croppers or small-owner occupiers who derive their main income from agriculture, who work on the land themselves, with the help only of their family
members or with the help of occasional outside labour and who do not –

(a) permanently employ workers, or

(b) employ a substantial number of seasonal workers, or

(c) have any land cultivated by share-croppers or tenants

So, by rural workers we mean any person engaged in agriculture or a related occupation in rural areas, whether as a wage earner or as a self employed person and as per definition of ILO rural workers include agricultural workers, marginal farmers, share-croppers or tenants, landless workers, educated employed youth, craftsman of villages or self employed persons etc.

Concept of Development

Development is multidimensional phenomena. The term ‘development’ is used in many disciplines at present, and serves, in practice, to define a recognized field of research. It is a dynamic concept. It has different meaning for different people. In fact, there is no agreement on the meaning of ‘development’ among planners and thinkers either. Some people say it means increase in income other lay emphasis on employment, income, quality of life, happiness and so on. Still other gives stress on meeting the basic need of the life of people. It is indeed so many things to so many people. The only thing on which
every one agrees is that development is necessary and every one wants it, although in his own image and perhaps in his own way. Academician, politician and economist all give different interpretation but all of them agree that development improves the standard of living of people. It is different from economic growth because economic growth is the term that indicates the direction of development. The availability of facilities and social services to the people in a spatial framework reflects the quality of life lived here. Higher the accessibility to the services, the better would be the environment. The socio-economic infrastructural facilities play a catalytic role in the process of development of a region. Hence greater emphasis should be placed on the basic social services, facilities and amenities like education system, drinking water facilities and days of markets.

Generally development is identified with the level of per capita real income. The UN Experts identify development with the level of per capital income. Thus an under developed country is one in which the per capita real income is low when compared with the per capita real income of the USA, Canada, Australia, and Western Europe. Though, this definition focuses attention on a very important characteristic of underdevelopment viz., poverty, can by no means be considered wholly adequate. It may easily be open to a theoretical objection. A
country may be poor and yet not underdeveloped in relation to its resources if the resources themselves are scanty and inadequate.

In some of the studies development level is assessed on the basis of stages of economic growth. If one examines the characteristics outlined by Rostow, one can observe that countries with modern technology, high industrialization, modernization and new technology determine the level of development.

Economically the development is taken to mean the rise in per capita income or gross national products (GNP) or the general economic growth. In broader terms development is viewed as the evolution of the economy from a stagnant, pre-industrial state, characterized by low incomes with a predominance of the primary sector and the physical proximity of production and consumption to a dynamic diversified and integrated industrial economy. Development comprises a set of structural transformation which, once seriously begun, continuously transforms the economic life and much else over 100-200 years. Each of these structural transformations is at the same time economic and social changes not only production and income, but also the location of people, their groupings, relationships, health, habitat work discipline and work place. In short it helps to bring change in their life style.

Development can also be understood in the way it is conceived of
by UNESCO Conference 1976; it stands for the development of countries, the production of things, their distribution within the social systems or the transformation of social structure. These may be means towards the end but they should not be confused with the end, which is that of developing the entire human being.

Development is a multidimensional process. There are therefore, many interpretations of it. In geographical literature during the late 1970's and early 1980's there have come up certain works which attempt to define development. Notable examples include the works of Brook Field's, Robert Mabogunje, Chisholm Harris. Each peasant it own, very different view of development and each provides a particular prospective from which further research can take its course. Mabogunje (1980) has identified four main ways in which the term development has been used i.e., development as economic growth, as modernization, as distributional justice and socio-economic transformation. He argues for a long time following the second World War, development was seen simply as economic growth it implied a rapid rise in productivity per capita and a changed economic structure. Hodder (1968) thus concentrated on economic development in his book on the topics, and Chisholm (1982) has recently described development as a term used to signify an evolution of the economic structure accompanying expansion
in total output. He goes on to distinguish between development and modernization, the latter being seen as the social transformation of a nation. This is second way in which the word development has been used. It still in the sense of economic growth came to be seen as part of a much wider process of social change described as modernization. Lipton (1977) has thus, for example, seen development as modernizing structural change. However, Mabogunje also points out a crucial aspect of this view of development as modernization in that to be modern meant to endeavour to consume goods and services of the type usually manufactured in advanced industrial nations. He goes on to observe that more recently development has been identified with distributional justice; as a way of reducing the poverty level among the masses or as it was more succinctly put, satisfying their basic needs (Mabogunje 1980). For this to successful the concept of accessibility was crucial and much attention was therefore paid to an analysis of the access of the poorest of the poor to resources defined in the broadest terms. In his last a category of views of development Mabogunje suggest that scholars of a Marxist philosophical persuasion argue that the questions of distribution and social justice cannot be considered or resolved independently of the prevailing mechanisms governing production and distribution. This, as Mabogunje argues, give rise to dependency theory, in which development and underdevelopment are seen as being totally
interested and also to an emphasis on three broad issues. The fact that development is a human issue, its requirements of the full mobilization of society and the idea of development as a redefinition of a country's international relations. In this Vein Robert (1978) has advocated that development is an interdependent process in which some countries and regions acquire a predominant place within the division of labour, using coercion to organize production elsewhere, as in the case of colonialism or control of capital or advanced technology and markets. This situation is expressed in two related concepts that of dependency and that of the core-periphery relationship.

To these four basic concepts of development Mabogunje has added his own, a fifth, which sees development as essentially a socio-spatial process. He himself sees the development process as one of the spatial organizations. The reorganization arises as a result of the fact that development implies the articulation of a new set of social goals. While Mobagunje's classification provides a useful framework for viewing the nature of work done on development, it does not seriously question the use of the term development itself. For too long the concept of development inculcated a dangerous fias in the conceptual approach of the academics and politicians alike.
In all the definitions of development by Mobagunje there remains a thread of the old economic definition; that development, to a greater or lesser extent, implies increased productivity, higher level of consumption per capita and a shift from primary to secondary and tertiary economic activities. Development is normally equated simply with economic growth. Few studies attempt to grasp the more complex equation of social change. The concentration of attention on economic development is no doubt patently due to its easier measurement; how indeed is social development to be measured? In addition to the attention paid to economic issues, there lies the implicit assumption that, in general, development should take place along the lines of Western countries.

During the last two decades development studies have become a far more inter-disciplinary field of enquiry. Geographical approaches within this field have much to offer. Gould (1982) thus argues that in the area of rural urban interaction geographers have, in the theories and techniques at their disposal and in their appreciation of the needs for detailed data collection, a comparable advantage over other disciplines. Likewise Mabogunje, in conceptualizing development as spatial recognition, has continuously emphasized the importance of a geographical awareness in development.
According to Jan Drewnowski (1966) development is a process of qualitative change and quantitative growth of the social and economic reality which we can call either society or economy. Because of the close inter-relations of economic and social elements no purely social or purely economic development is possible. Consequently, it is better not to speak of social development separately. It is a single process which is best called simply development. In the above definition Drewnowski, identifies socio-economic development with change in the quality of life and quantitative growth of various values. Development has been defined as a process of growth, expansion or realization of potential, bringing regional resources, into full productive use. Development planning has also been defined as any action by the state whose purpose is to raise the rate of economic growth above that which would take place without any conscious effort. Development planning is being undertaken by the state, it has the dual purpose of economic growth and structural social change; it is comprehensive, covering every sector, region and aspect of life. The achievement of a state of development would enable individuals to make their own histories and geographies under conditions of their own choosing. In the series by studies by UNRISD, development is identified with the levels of living and levels of welfare. They are in turn, are identified with the presence of better conditions of nutrition’s, housing, health, education, transport
and so on. Thus, in the essence they also talk of the availability of goods and services.

Generally development is identified with the level of per capita real income. The objective of development is to raise the living of the masses of the people and to provide all human beings with the opportunity to develop their potential. Thus the definition clarifies that the development implies not only expansion in quantitative terms but also structural changes in the society and its economy as expansion proceeds. Structural change includes institutional, social and economic aspects. This implicit assumption behind the lumping together of all these aspects is that change in one element depend on and generates changes in all others. Secondly, development means changes in a desired direction and at a desired speed. The direction and rate of change depends on goals and objectives of development. Thirdly, development presupposes policy interventions direct or indirect in achieving the given goals and objectives.

Fourthly, development also involves socio-psychological transformation of human beings to prepare them for the eventual as well as current benefits occurring from the changing socio-economic structure of society, and finally, development involves, temporal, sectorial and spatial phasing and integration of planning.
Measures of Development

There are two important measures of development:

(a) Monetary and (b) Physical.

This can be presented like the following:

Monetary Measure

Per capita income is widely accepted as a general measure of development. It is customary to identify whether a region has been backward or advanced at the in levels of development by using the estimates of per capita income. According to this measure, regions which enjoy higher per capita income are deemed to be more developed than states or regions with low per capita income.

The income measure if one examines carefully is in fact heavily value loaded. Every type of product and service is assigned its own particular weight. This weight is mainly determined by market forces, which reflect the country's distribution. The per capita income as a measure of development is defended on a number of basis. One defence of income is that it is an objective, value free indicator. It has also been agreed on behalf of national income as a development indicator, that it could at least be quantified.
Physical Measure

(i) *Partial Indicators:* In some other investigations, differences in productivity, employment, industrialization, mortality rate and protein consumption and so on are taken as index of development. However, they are only clues, and may well be misleading if used to compare nations of very different structure, genetic stock, dietary habits etc. Unemployment is a very difficult concept to define in a non industrial society. Volume of unemployed, underemployed, disguised employed, etc. is hard to measure. Differences in productivity or unemployment etc. when taken independently are at best partial indicators of development and do not fare any better than the per capita income measures.

(ii) *Composite measure of Development:* A meaningful study of differences in interregional development levels should take into consideration various physical variables which have some bearing on the overall development. There are various other studies where a number of physical indicators are taken into consideration while measuring levels of development, e.g. the working group appointed by the planning commission under
the chairmanship of Mr. B.D. Pande selected six broad criteria for identifying industrially backward areas.

**An Overview of Literature**

In many developing countries like India plantation economy has no doubt accelerated the process of economic and social development. Tea is one of the important plantation crops for India as it plays an important role to earn hard currency. As India is one of the leading exporters of tea in the world market, tea plantation has marked-impact on the socio-economic life of the people of the plantation region as well as its surrounding region in general and plantation workers in particular.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to look at the works done earlier on the impact of tea plantation on socio-economic life of the people. Here, emphasis has been given to cover the literature on various aspects of tea plantation in Dooars and other regions.

The socio-economic conditions of the farmers, the living condition of the peoples and tea plantation workers, the impact on immigrant tea plantation workers, the health and sanitation of the labours, cultural dimensions of the people and tea plantation workers and inequalities among the communities, have all been encompassed.
Nair (1987) in his article ‘Darjeeling Tea Works’ stated that tea industry was considered as an engine of growth of Himalayan region. Many tea gardens have been already closed down in the region and a good number of others are on the verge of total collapse. This industry being the mainstay of hill folks and the backbone of the hill economy has direct and profound economic and socio-political implications in the hilly areas of Eastern Himalayas. The living conditions of workers and more particularly the womenfolk are appalling. Till recently, there was no organized labour movement and the workers were all unorganized and helpless.

Bhadra (1997) gives a comprehensive account on “Tea plantations in India provides employment of over 9,24,239 workers. Roughly about 7 lakhs of workers are found to be working in the tea plantations of north-eastern India. These workers belong to various tribal communities of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Madras. Due to scarcity of workers in the locality the employers had to recruit them from such a long distance.” In response to the manpower requirement during the 19t century planters recruited laborers from outside and thus created an immigrant enclave community having almost no interactions with the neighboring societies. The bulk of the labour force consists of Oraon, Munda, Santal, Baraik, Khera, Ghasi, Gond, Mahali, Sabar,
Khond, etc. except a few Nepali workers of tea plantations of Darjeeling hills. The wider social background of plantation workers of north-eastern India has a considerable sociological importance.

In Bengal 44,279 persons were employed in tea plantations in 1921 and 61,540 were employed in 1940. After 1950s tea plantations stopped immigration of workers due to whom it may concern availability of surplus laborers in the locality. In 1950 number of laborers was 323,034 which reduced 383,593 in 1954. Gradually, this number declined to 187,612 labourers in 1967 and increased to 228,705 in 1980 (Bhadra, 1997).

Prasanneswari (1984) asserts that the labour forces engaged in the tea plantations of Jalpaiguri and of the Terai region of Darjeeling district are predominantly Adivasis and Nepalis came as indentured labour during the pre-independence period. The ratio of Adivasis and Nepalis varies from one garden to another. As in most plantations in the tea gardens to the labourers live largely within the garden itself.

Sarkar and Bhowmik (1998) in their study “Trade Unions and Women Workers In Tea Plantations” revealed that in 1994 the tea plantations in India employed 10,28,694 permanent workers of whom 4,96,505 were women and 4,80,067 were men. Adolescents and children (workers below 18 and below 14 years respectively) totaled 52,122. The
figures for West Bengal for the same year were, 2,58,448 workers with 127097 women, 118482 men and 12,097 adolescents and children.

Bhowmik (1980) attempted to establish a sociological definition of the plantation system in the Dooars, North Bengal he revealed that “the uniqueness of a plantation system lies in its social and production relations. These no doubt have changed since the days of plantation economies of colonial times and are changing even now; but the change in these relations is determined by the context of isolation of the plantation from the wider social system, the influence of the working class organizations among the workers and the role of the State.”

Bhowmik (1980) further states that the production relations in the plantation system change when there is a change in the wider socio-economic formation. The socio-economic formation of the plantation industry, with its low level of technology and its heavy dependence on manual labour, is significantly different from that of other industries.

Mukherjee (1997) in his study “Dooars Plantation Economy Evolution and Pattern” describes that the “impact of the plantation economy on the society and economy of the Dooars is not an unmixed blessing. Here also the typical features of the colonial pattern of economic development were observed.”
"The impact of plantation investment on the local economy of the Dooars is apparently positive. A structural change took place in the Dooars economy. Dooars economy was a typical natural economy before the plantation era. This natural economy was converted into monetary economy through this structural change. One of the principal effects was the commercialization of local agriculture. Roads and communication system owed its development to plantation” (Mukherjee, 1997).

In the words of Mukherjee (1997) further reveals that “the most significant of all such changes is the demographic change. The entire labour population of the Dooars was immigrants From Chota Nagpur and Central Province of India. Ethnically and culturally they were quite distinct from the local population. This inflow of immigrant labour population had changed the demographic character of the Dooars.”

Mukherjee (1997) in his paper “Plantation Economy Evolution and Pattern” stated that ‘another important side effect of this change is the vertical transition in the occupational pattern of the Mechies. The Mechies who took shelter in the eastern part of the Bengal Dooars took up settled cultivation as occupation against shifting cultivation practiced by them hitherto. Many of them still practiced the life-style of
primitive form-fruit gatherer and hunter. They also become settled cultivators.’

Bhadra (1997) in his study “Impact of Tea Plantation on the Agrarian Structure in Assam” revealed that ‘the plantation economy has adversely affected the economic condition of the neighbouring agrarian communities by grabbing their lands. Particularly the worst impact is noticed among the local peasants who live on subsistence farming. Perhaps everywhere the three possible factors—expansions of plantations, labour migration and land reforms in relation to plantations are responsible for the decline of peasants’ economic condition.’

Sarkar and Bhowmik (1998) asserted that despite forming half the labour force in the plantations women workers have remained marginalized in the trade unions. There are a number of reasons for this situation. The social status of women and their low level of literacy keep them in their inferior status. The inferior status of women in society is further reinforced by their inferior status at work where they are rarely promoted to the sub-staff.

The plantation women workers do not have any role in the decision making process in the Adivasi Panchayat. Trade union leadership from among them has not yet emerged. Although women
workers are members of trade unions they hardly participate in the union activities. Educational attainment of women workers is very low. This has further helped to perpetuate the lower status of women workers. They are totally ignorant about the role of modern education in improving the status of women (Bhadra, M 1983).

Bhadra, M (1997) in his paper “Ethnicity and Inequality among the Workers of Tea Industry in West Bengal” stated that “If we study the North Bengal tea plantation society we find that the only things common to the plantation workers before and after immigration are dire poverty, illiteracy, ignorance, less organized and isolated families. Those ethnic communities are said to be still adhere to its distinctive culture, religion and language to some extent. The tribal possess their own sub-cultures with particular social and cultural attributes in their upbringing, socialization and aspirations. Although each ethnic group tends to become a separate social entity vis-à-vis other groups, internally some groups are highly differentiated.

Bhadhra, M (1997) concluded that “Ethnicity and Inequality among the Workers of Tea Industry in West Bengal” can be explained in combination of racial, ethnic, economic, cultural and organizational criteria. No one of these criterions by itself provides an adequate explanation; it is their total interaction which is significant. The
plantation workers however are not a homogenous workforce. But the whole of the tea estate, its social life, industrial organization and institutions, pattern of the communities may be seen as comprising a single universe. This paper examine the mutual appropriateness of the ethnicity of the plantation systems, the work and social life describe the ways and means by which each affects and affected by the other.

Kar (1981) in his study on ‘Health and Sanitation among the tea labour’ concluded that ‘in a large number of gardens the medical facilities are far from being satisfactory. In the hospitals and dispensaries, they do not have the stock of prescribed medicines nor do they have the prescribed instruments. Some of the inadequacies frequently met with are as follows:

There is no separate examination room; There is no full-fledged labour room worth the name; There is no table for minor operation worth the name; male and female patients are kept together; There are no separate pre-natal and post-natal wards and the mothers or the prospective mothers are kept together with other patients; Poor sanitary arrangements.

Kar (1981) further stated that ‘the tea labourers have been found to suffer from a large number of disease, Gastro-enteritis, respiratory trouble, rheumatism, skin disease, anaemia, diarrhoea, dysentery and
gastric ulcers etc. are common diseases among them. Tuberculosis and malaria are also found in the people. A number of diseases, e.g., diarrhoea, dysentery, gastro-enteritis and skin disease to various types are said to be caused due to their in sanitary condition and habits. Frequent use of cheaper varieties of synthetic garments is also thought to be one of the causes for higher incidence of skin disease among them.

Kar (1981) further argued that 'the problems of development and welfare of the tea labour need a two-way approach for finding a solution. Along side the provisions for proper health and sanitation facilities, the people need to be carefully motivated for availing these facilities in time.

Bhadra and Chararvorty (1997) in their paper "Cultural Dimension of Health of Tea Labourers" argued that 'Literacy level in a population has a positive relation with the level of rational health and hygienic behaviour of the population and also acceptance of modern medical behaviour. A Report on Status Survey of UNFPA/UNICEF Integrated parasite Control and Family Welfare Project Dooars Branch ITA (1994) showed a definite positive relationship with literacy and adoption of family welfare services. The level of literacy in the two types is 33%. much lower than the State’s average of 45%.
Health culture of a society comprises of concepts, ideas, customs, habits and practices related to countering diseases and maintenance of health. Thus, system of beliefs relating to disease causation, methods of treatments, sanitary habits, personal hygiene, food habits and child rearing practices all form an integral part of health culture of a community (Bhadra and Chakravorty, 1997).

They further asserted that ‘in these tea estates most of the houses are of kuchcha type. Pucca houses are few in number. The pucca houses are two roomed with one window in each room. The rooms are not spacious enough for a family of four. Slightly better of among the workers have been found to have constructed a kuchcha room for use as a kitchen. Others use a corner of living room as a kitchen (Bhadra and Chakravorty, 1997).

Banerjee (2001) deals with the marketing system of tea. He deals with the seven marketing modes viz., primary marketwise, development of auction centres, tea auction facilities, tea auction system, advantage of auction sale, mini auction and auction for blended and packet teas. Besides he also made efforts to devote a critical analysis on the new auction rules.

Hayami ‘et. al. (2004) presents a fascinating picture of the state of tea plantation in South India and points out that the plantation industry
is in deep economic crisis. There are secular and cyclical factors that account for the present state of the industry, although the former appears to be the more dominant. This is particularly true of the large plantation holdings of tea in South India, which unlike the small peasant tea holdings are unable to withstand the crisis. His study argues for a major restructuring of the plantation sector, with special reference to the tea plantations in Tamil Nadu, through a process of labour empowerment based on contract farming.
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