

MBA Semester - I

COURSE : 104

# BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

Lessons 1-10

By : Prof. Kulwant Rana



INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION & OPEN LEARNING

HIMACHAL PRADESH UNIVERSITY, GYAN PATH,

SUMMER HILL, SHIMLA - 171 005

**SYLLABUS**  
**MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (M.B.A.)**  
**FIRST SEMESTER**  
**104, BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT**

**UNIT-I**

1. System Approach to Management, Open Systems Approach, Strategic Planning. Need for Environmental Scanning. Different Aspects of Business Environment;
2. History of Indian Business. Medieval and Modern Era, Contemporary Business Scene in India.

**UNIT-II**

3. State and Markets.' Changing Government - Business Relationship, Liberalization and Globalization.
4. Changes in Company, Anti-Trust Foreign Investment and Labour Laws.

**UNIT-III**

5. Economic Policy, Industrial, Fiscal and Monetary Policies. Business Support Systems and Financial Structure of Indian Economy.
6. Social Change in India, Urbanization, Middle Class Revolution, Cast and Class Tensions, Indian Psyche Gender and Social Inequalities, Indian Cultural Ethos and Global Culture, Westernization and Sanskritisation.

**Unit-IV**

7. Business and Politics in India, Centre-State Relationships and other Constitutional Problems related to Business, Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles.
8. Technological Environment Patenting Laws-National and International R & D. Scene, Technology Transfer from Lab. to Industry and Internationally. Information Technology Environment.

**Unit-V**

9. Multinational Corporations, Public Sector and Privatization, Attracting Foreign Investment. MNC's and Nation States. WTO.
10. Future outlook for society. Polity and Economy Business in 21<sup>st</sup> Century, ecology and Sustainable Development.

## LESSON 1

# BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT-THORETICAL FRAME WORK

### Structure

- 1.0 Learning Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Economic Environment of Business
- 1.3 Critical Elements of the Economic Environment of Business
- 1.4 Socio-Cultural Environment of Business
- 1.5 Critical Elements of the Socio-Cultural Environment of Business
- 1.6 Political-Legal Environment of Business
- 1.7 Critical Elementsofthe Political-Legal Environment of Business
- 1.8 Environmental Scanning for Strategy Formulation
- 1.9 Micro Environment of Business
- 1.10 Environmental Change
- 1.11 Strategic Management
- 1.12 Self-check Questions
- 1.13 Summary
- 1.14 Glossary
- 1.15 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 1.16 Terminal Questions
- 1.17 Suggested Readings

### 1.0 Learning Objectives

After going through this lesson the learners should be able to:

1. Assess the theoretical framework of business environment.
2. Discuss the recent developments in political, economic and financial environment.
3. Explain the techniques of scanning the environment.
4. Conduct a SWOT analysis of the Indian economy.

### 1.1 DEFINITION OF BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

The term 'Business Environment' refers to the totality of all the relevant forces external, to and beyond the control of, an individual business enterprise and its management. These forces, despite being externally located, continue to exercise a significant and meaningful influence on the life and growth patterns of individual enterprises. They may include diverse constituents such as :

- the ideological beliefs of the ruling class,
- value systems of the society,

rules, and 'regulations laid down by the government, and the monetary policies of the Reserve Bank of India, and many other.

Some of these constituents may be static, some only relatively so, while others may be changing every now and then. Similarly, while it may be possible to conceptualise and/or quantify some elements, others may be referred to only in a perceptual sense. In terms of time also, the environment may be conceived as having elements of the past, the present, and the projected future.

The environmental factors vary from country to country, even region to region. The environment of business, thus, is an extremely complex and dynamic phenomenon.

Business environment can be classified into two major categories : the economic environment and the non-economic environment. The economic environment consists of factors like the fiscal policy, the monetary policy, the industrial policy, the physical limits on output, the price and income equation, nature of the economic system, the pace of economic development etc.

The non-economic environment refers to social, cultural, political, legal, technological-factors etc. Despite this segregation, the economic environment has non-economic implications just as the non-economic environment has economic implications.

In today's business environment, considerable skill and dexterity is required in adjusting, coping with and managing the environment of business. This becomes more so due to the changing nature of today's, business context.

It is to facilitate development of these skills that study of the critical elements of business environment becomes vital. These critical elements facilitate as in understanding this turbulent and dynamic environment help us in decision-making.

## **1.2 THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS**

A business firm is an economic institution in a market system. Its market behaviour reflects the nature of the economic decisions taken by the manager of the firm. Micro-economic decision-making by the firm has, nevertheless, to be made within the broader macro-economic system in which a business firm operates.

The present-day economic environment of business is a complex, phenomenon. Business sector has economic relations, with the government, the capital markets, the household sector, and the foreign sector. These different sectors, together, influence the trends and structure of the economy. The form and functioning of the economy varies from country to country. The design and structure of an economic system is conditioned by socio-political arrangements. Such arrangements are relevant from the standpoint of macro-economic decision-making.

## **1.3 CRITICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS**

From the standpoint of both the corporate business management and national economic management in India, the following may be highlighted as the critical elements of the economic environment of business :

The institutional, framework of the environment : The philosophy and practice of a economic system will, to a large extent, determine the relative roles and responsibilities of the private sector, the public sector, the joint sector etc.

**The physical framework of the environment:** The level of the economic development and the structure of the economy define the physical framework of the environment. The level and composition

of per capita income indicate the level of growth and development. Available natural resources, human resources, and material resources, of a country set limit to its factor endowment which determines its production. The occupational distribution of the labour force, the structure of national output the composition and pattern of foreign trade, the structure of savings, investment and capital formation, the pattern of income distribution, the degree of urbanisation etc. bring out the significance of agriculture, industry, and the service sector in the national economy.

**Physical anatomy of national economy :** The national economy is a combination of [the household sector, the corporate business sector, the government administration, the capital markets and the foreign sector. The order and strength of each of these sectors throw light on our understanding of the economic environment.

**Functioning of the economy :** Money is the blood life of business activity and the economic system. The flows of consumption, investment, savings; income, employment, and output are all affected by it. The nature of monetary transactions affect the price level, thereby influencing the real value of all economic variables. It also provides further, insights into the role of centralized planning, administered price system as well as free market pricing, and central banking,

**Economic planning and programmes :** Economic planning gives a direction to the changes in the economic environment. Most economies today function through one kind of planning or the other to overcome their environmental constraints, and optimize their achievements over a period of time.

**Economic policy statements and legislations :** Planning is a programme for action, and an end in itself. It must, therefore, be followed by proper implementation. This calls for economic policy statements affecting both industry and agriculture. RBI works through the instrument of money and credit policies, while the government exercises its control through fiscal-cum-budgetary policies..

**Fluctuations and trends in macro-economic variables. :** The functioning, of an economy is reflected in short-term fluctuations, and long-term trends, in macro-economic variables like income, money supply, price, production, employment, the balance of trade and payment, foreign exchange earning etc. These trends decide the course of the prevailing economic activity.

**Economic problems and prospects:** Some of the economic trends as mentioned above may define the nature and dimensions of various macro-economic problems like inflation, unemployment, recession etc. Economic problems and prospects in the environment throw challenges to corporate as well as national economic management.

#### **1.4 THE SOCIAL CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS**

**Just as business is an economic activity, it also has social purpose.** Business must discharge **social responsibility, social obligations, and social commitment.** Else, it cannot enjoy social **saction.**

A host of factor, constitute such a socio-cultural environment. They include factors like social - values culture, beliefs, traditions and conventions, social attitudes, social institutions, class structure, social group pressure etc. the nature of social objectives and priorities along with the set of the social constraints, give form and content to several social movements. Successful business managers cannot afford to neglect these movements and their underlying ethos. Business ethics are very much influenced by the social movements, - social systems, and social preferences.

In a broad sense, thus, the socio-cultural environment happens to be a culmination of forces operating from different platforms such as history, culture, policy, ethics and morality, values

and institutions, geography and ecology etc. The social itself has to balance the achievements and aspirations of various individuals, groups and institutions.

No business can survive and grow without social harmony. Different countries may attain this social harmony and order through different forms, ways and means. The social-cultural environment will, thus, differ markedly over space, time, and method.

### 1.5 CRITICAL ELEMENTS IN THE SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS

**These different critical elements include :** Social institutions and systems; Examples include the caste system, the joint family system, child marriage, the patriarchal family and the like that have evolved over time through history, culture, and heritage.

The celebrated caste system in India, for example, till recently, ensured a simple clearly defined the place of individuals in the familial hierarchy. The position of women and children was similarly laid down.

**Social values and moves :** Changing social values and moves are beginning to question the basics of the age old social institutions and systems. Customs traditions and conventions are not rigid anymore. Views towards authority, responsibility, and delegation attitudes towards business as profession; views towards achievements and work; views towards ownership and management, are all undergoing rapid changes.

**Education and culture :** Attitudes towards education; need for business education; role of business schools; spread of business education, and their impact on business, ethics, business morality and organisational culture, are again major elements of socio-cultural environment of business.

**The social responsibility of the government :** Growing levels of achievement and aspiration have to be bridged through a continuous and relentless social effort, keeping in view the social welfare and social constraints. This is where the role of the government comes in. The government has to make sure that the social progress is not handicapped by the tyranny of the majority, otherwise, social tensions will mount affecting business unfavourably.

**Social groups and social movements:** In a society, individuals form groups on the basis of caste, creed, religion, language, trade and profession etc. Some of them, e.g. trade unionism and the cooperative movement have direct economic interests, and pose challenges for business operations.

**Socio-economic order :** In a pluralistic society like ours (with differences in food, dress, language, religion and sub-cultures); a dual economy (the traditional co-existing with the modern); technological dualism (bullock carts along with airbuses). These reflect a unique socio-economic order in India. From time to time, this socio-economic order gets disturbed, modified or changed, hopefully for the better, through social movements and social policy formulation on subjects like science and technology, ecology and forestry, family planning, animal husbandry etc.

**Social problems and prospects :** These are often offshoots of a changing socio-economic order. As society moves from "pre-industrial" to "post-industrial" stage of development, poor housing and sanitation, urban congestion, pollution and increasing incidence of anti-social activities. What is therefore, needed is a social cost-benefit analysis of industrial development.

### 1.6 THE POLITICO-LEGAL ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS

In this sub-unit, the politico-legal aspects of the business environment are discussed. The government is a political institution. As discussed earlier it also has a social purpose it enacts and executes social policies and exists with social concept, providing ways and means of maximising social

benefits and minimising social costs. In other words, the government and its structure and style have a definite impact on business, and is of immense social value.

More so in the modern world, where business of any type and size is affected by the government policies, programmes and legislations. We see that, very often, depending on the nature of the government at work, businessmen define and reorient their business strategy and tactics.

Quite a few of the government policies are executed through legislations. These legislations, enactments, rules and regulations, directives and guidelines, issued by the government, constitute the politico-legal environment of business. For a successful manager it becomes necessary to take stock of the relevant politico-legal environment of business and then capitalise on the opportunities offered by it.

### **1.7 CRITICAL ELEMENTS IN THE POLITICO-LEGAL ENVIRONMENT**

**The form and structure of the government :** The form of the government can be democratic, communist, capitalist or a mix ? Each of these choices will imply a corresponding relationship between business and the government.

The ideology of the ruling party may itself influence the ownership, management, structure and size of business. As a reaction to this ideology, business houses adopt pro-Government or anti-Government stance.

**The strength of the opposition in legislature :** A strong, fair, firm and consistent, opposition may ensure constructive criticism of the existing government policies affecting business. It will also prevent the government from acting irresponsibly with regard to business.

**The role and responsibility of the bureaucracy ;** Ministers may change from time to time but the government's administrative machinery must run without a break. Bureaucracy, thus, maintains continuity in the system; its role becomes especially powerful when the government controls and regulates business extensively.

**The direction and the speed of the government policies and programmes :** Policies may be formulated with tremendous "speed". They may come one after another though their "direction" may not be clear. Sometimes, policies may have a clear direction but may be evolved at a snail's pace. Either way it is unfavourable for business.

**Socio-economic legislations :** Business laws are numerous in number and diverse in form. They are enacted to protect the interests of various groups in society. Thus, there are laws to protect the consumers, workers, owners, shareholders, and the society at large. It is through these legislations that order is maintained in the industrial economy. Laws not only protect business they also create business.

**The politico-legal Institutions :** The functioning of the legislative, executive, and judicial organs of the government affect business environment directly and indirectly. All these organs function through organisations and institutions. For example, the judicial system functions through the Supreme Court, the High Courts and the lower courts. Unless these courts function efficiently, implementation of business law like other laws will be at stake.

**Macro-Environment of Business :** Business is an organisation which does not exist in a vacuum. It lives with its environment which provides resources and which lay down limits on its activities. An organisation can survive and grow only when it continuously adapts and responds to the changing environment. We are living in the dynamic world which is undergoing a rapid change with the coming up of new ideas, economic changes, political changes and new technology.

An organisation is an integral part of its environment and both are mutually interdependent interacting with one another continuously. The environment provides resources and opportunities to the organisation needed for its existence. In turn, the business is expected to offer goods and services to the people living in its environment so that the needs and desires of the people are duly satisfied and their life styles are maintained as per their expectations. When the organisation is conducting its producing and marketing activities, they should not create undesirable effects and affect the interest of the community adversely. For instance, monopolistic combinations, killing competition and exploiting consumers, cannot be accepted by the environment and public reactions may create a threat of nationalisation. Through feedback of information, the environment reacts to the goods and services produced by and the activities of business. The environment evaluates these and decides the future resources that it may contribute and restrictions that it will place on the affairs of the organisations.

Business is an open, adaptive system having its own environment consisting of uncontrollable economic, social, technology and political factors governing the success or failure of the business organisation.

**Defining the Environment :** The first problem facing the manager wishing to adopt an open system perspective is defining the environment. The world after all is large and it would be hopelessly confusing to attempt to consider every factor in it. Management clearly must limit its considerations of the environment to those aspects of the outside world of major importance to the success of an organisation. According to GERAID BELL:

"AN ORGANISATION'S EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT CONSISTS OF THOSE THINGS OUTSIDE AN ORGANISATION SUCH AS CUSTOMERS, COMPETITORS, GOVERNMENT UNITS SUPPLIERS, FINANCIAL FIRMS WHICH ARE RELEVANT TO AN ORGANISATION'S OPERATIONS." INCIDENTLY, HIS DEFINITION LIMITS ITSELF TO 'IMMEDIATELY MICRO-ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS'; IN THIS LESSON, WE LIMIT OUR DISCUSSION TO THE BROADER .MACRO ENVIRONMENT, AND THE WAY ORGANISATION RELATES TO IT.

**The Macro-Environment :** Traditionally, the constituents of the 'Macro-Environment' have been social, political, economic and technological. Over a period of time, authors have added areas like knowledge/information, regulations, and geographic considerations as constituents of the macro-environment.

**Technology :** From the viewpoint of corporate strategy, as stated by Andrews, technological developments not only unfold fastest but they are the most far-reaching in expanding or contracting opportunities for an organisation. There is no evidence of decline in the pace of technological advances which have ubiquitous impacts on all the constituents of the environment. An idea of this pervasiveness and rigidity of developments can be had from a few examples. **The** overwhelming majority of all materials consumed today in our daily lives had been developed within the present century. The proliferation and rapidity of product development is not limited to a industry like electronics or bio-technology but has extended even to stable industries like food and textiles. Moreover, electronics and bio-technology are enabling the production of substitutes or new aids to the traditional industries. It is being speculated that the future is likely to see more inventions and faster pace of technological developments. According to some authors this will occur due to the presence of a large number of scientists and engineers in the decades ahead. Thirty years back, seven major areas for technological advances had been identified. These are :



- Transport
- Energy,
- Communications,
- Materials,
- **Bio-Life,**
- Mechanisations of physical activities, and
- Mechanisation of intellectual processes.

Most of the above have become realities in the affluent and developed economies. In India, however, the pace and impact of technological developments which have so far been comparatively slow, are likely to pick up in the next few years. Increasing popularity of personal computers, industrial electronics, electronisation of telecommunication system are a few examples of the current phase of information technology revolution in India.

The Indian government's new "technology mission", is likely to heighten the impact of technology in India in recent years. These missions are oriented to solve the problems of teeming millions. The time bound missions are :

- (i) Providing drinking water,
- (ii) Promoting literacy,
- (iii) Child immunisation,
- (iv) Production of oil seeds, and
- (v) Expanding country's telecommunication network.

Considerable success has been reported in missions no. (ii) and (v).

An intelligent response to the ever increasing technological advances should be entrepreneurial rather than reactive. This would require a different outlook and risk-taking capabilities. Failure to do so may have serious implications on survival and growth of business. This, failure to modernise and include in its product mix the clothes made from man-made fibres have been identified as one of the reasons for the decline and sickness of the textile industry in India. An alternate source could be enriching natural polymers to create the qualities of synthetic polymers. It is, therefore, important that certain minimum technological considerations should always be incorporated in the environmental analysis for strategic decisions. The future product group; processing technology and raw materials have to be identified by the firms.

## **THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT**

Unlike technology, changes in social fabric occur gradually. Further, it is not easy to predict the timing as to when changes in the social environment would have substantial impact on the corporate strategy. Some areas where social changes may have strategic implications especially for business in the foreseeable future are ;

- (i) Demography,
- (ii) Urbanisation,
- (iii) Joint and Nuclear family systems,

- (iv) Skill upgradation and literacy,
- (v) Health and quality of life,
- (vi) Inequalities in income, and
- (vii) Social values and ethics.

Social values play a prominent role in strategy formulation of firm. Since organisations exist in society, they must modify or change their goals as society demands. Unfortunately, instead of conforming to the desired values of the society the general ethical standards in our country are falling rapidly.

Corrupt business practices lower ethical standards and generate severe stress and frustrations for the honest, law abiding, socially responsible businessmen. They challenge the basic tenets and long cherished, values of honesty. The dilemma is whether to use unethical means for business gains or to stand by the values and go out of business. As can be sensed, lower ethical standards can become a threat to a business organisation which wants to be honest.

Besides ethical standards, other factors like population characteristic, attitude of people, income distribution, spread of literacy also throw up new opportunities and threats. Thus, increased concern for health is opening up new opportunities for service organisations like allopathic and alternative medicine centres.

Similarly, the fact that half of our population is below twenty years of age provides tremendous opportunities for products and services of use to youth and children.

## **THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT**

Continuous monitoring of the economic environment is vital for strategic decision making. A close look on some commonly used economic indicators like G.N.P. and its growth rate, proposed governmental planned outlays, capital output ratios, money supply, balance of trade, movement of wholesale and retail prices, interest rates, per capita income and its growth can give a good idea about the investment-worthiness of the economy. Today, there are several organisations like CMIE are involved in analysing and publishing information relating to the Indian Economy. What is important from the viewpoint of an organization is to compile and process the relevant information which may aid in the identification of opportunities or threats, the environment of a development country like India is full of opportunities which to a large number of people might appear as bottlenecks. With entrepreneurial tact these problems can be converted into opportunities. The last decade has seen the emergence of new entrepreneurs who virtually had no business exposure. Recent articles in *The Economic Times* and other business periodicals of 1994 narrate tales of these new multimillionaires. In India, a critical aspect affecting business decision relates to the government's economic policies and regulatory mechanisms. The model of mixed economy and its root in the desire to create a welfare state. Certain areas were reserved for government organizations and also restricted entry of big and large business houses in certain areas. These restrictions and reservations constraint the flexibility and choice for strategic decisions, and may prevent business from becoming efficient and effective. Of late, however, the list of these reserved industries is getting shorter due to the twin phenomena of liberalisation and globalisation.

## **THE POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT**

Political environment, for a country like India starts with our constitution, the directive principles of State Policy, the fundamental principles and the democratic process to maintain a parliamentary form of government. But from the viewpoint of a business organisation the regulatory and legal provisions which

affect its day-to-day as well as long-term operations are perhaps more relevant than the provisions of laws of the land. For a corporate strategist what are most important are the actions of the functionaries of the political system rather than the provisions of the written laws and constitutional provisions. The nexus between business and political and general influence should also be studied closely.

### **AN INTEGRATED SYSTEMS VIEW**

Our discussion of the environment as a supersystem was fragmentary in the preceding text. The classification attempted in terms of technological, economic, political and social was to enumerate the components of the suprasystem of which the firm was a subsystem. Our concept of a firm also assumes the same multiple dimensions of its behaviour as an economic entity. Let us first state that as individuals constitute the society, they individualise within the network of social relations. Various institutions also influence the micro level units and taken together the institutional framework constitutes the environment.

Systems approach underlines the interaction of various subsystems/components. Different aspects of supersystem discussed here are interacting and interdependent as hinted in the section on social trends. The social or economic or political or legal or technological in the environmental analysis are interlocked. The acceptance of business as a healthy economic pursuit needs social sanction. The extent of politicalisation of trade union movement depends on the party system and the democratic nature of a polity. Vocationalisation of education is needed for supplying skilled personnel to industry. Political stability or instability may be due to evenness or imbalances in economic development. This will determine the climate for functioning of business.

We have only emphasised physical environment to the extent, the existing technical knowhow is able to appropriate the natural wealth. Geographical factors like water systems, forest and mineral available in a particular region may become the basis to their agricultural or industrial development. Thus environment includes nature and the human systems like economy, society, polity or technology. In fact, for accommodating the environmental influences, the system objectives of a firm have to be outlined. The boundaries of the firm as a system are extended to include the relevant trends in the different fields like social or technological. Once the problem of business under study is defined, firm's boundaries are demarcated and the conventional understanding of the system's boundaries has to be revised. For example, in case of a selling problem, the consumers who are situated in the economy/ society, otherwise construed as externalities of business become a part of the business system. Similarly, the government machinery regulating industrial relations becomes participant in the industrial relations scene.

The currents in business environments have to be singled out depending on the intensity or their pressure on the business situation. A product mix or type decision cannot be taken in situation from general state of technology and the social need for the product. After the sub-systems of super-system surrounding the business system are included in the systems analysis. The interaction of the business firm with recognised subsystems, has to undergo a detailed scrutiny. The operational analysis assumes different sets of values for the various variables under the control of management within the constraints of environmental uncontrollable variables. It studies their effect on the value of criterion function selected for evaluating the performance of system. The set of value of controllable variables which gives optimum value of the efficiency criteria is chosen and the solution is implemented.

### **1.8 ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING FOR STRATEGY FORMULATION**

The management science perspective relying on systems approach does view organisations as multidimensional and multi-functional entities. But the flaw with structural-functional analysis is that it is essentially an historical study overemphasizing the appearances at the cost of realities. The quantitative information collected about the internal functioning as well as environment indicates only symptoms or trends. In the name of scanning, managers, are apt to underplay the information which could yield deeper understanding of the causation of the present reality. The economics, politics and societies develop historically in zigzag patterns rather than following a linear or even a curvilinear path. There are discontinuities, abrupt changes or revolutions. These could be examined if a historical perspective aimed at outlining laws of societal evolutions was followed.

In social, norms have come to the present stage or state intervention has increased to the extent that is visible in various economies, it is not so sudden or unexpected a development. Futurology which should be treated as the mother science of environmental analysis for strategic management has a historical underpinning. But any exercise in plotting future only through Delphi exercises or time series analysis of quantitative data shall be inadequate. Any business in order to succeed has to anticipate future challenges, be these of competitive threats or demand constraints. Strategy formulation or the outlining of the pattern of major objectives purpose or goals and essential policies and plans for achieving those goals stated in such a way as to define what business the company is in or is to be in and the kind of economy it is or it is to be; is partly an exercise in visualising future. It requires a historical perspective not only on the internal developments, of the company but the environmental factors too. In fact, strategy aims at building a linkage with the external environment and the means of preserving it despite future developments which are outside the control of the management. The survival or growth of business depends upon a coherent, consistent and explicit understanding of its strategy.

In order to make a strategy work in a business, the environmental scanning activity has to be carried out on a going basis. The scanning activity has to be carried out on an ongoing basis. The scanning activity in order to be meaningful has to percolate the understanding of the environment to all levels of management. The information about the environment is by its very nature not amenable to quantification. It is overwhelmingly by unstructured or semi-structured but has to be future oriented in nature. The relevance of information has to be judged in consultation with outside professionals and the external information needs have to be worked. Since most of the business organisations in India are not able to maintain their own information systems, for environmental scanning, they have to rely on secondary sources of environment. That is why the present work on environmental analysis being taken up.

## **1.9 MICRO-ENVIRONMENT OF BUSINESS**

The Micro-Environment is made up of Stakeholders, individuals or groups who are directly or indirectly affected by an organisation's pursuit of its goals. Stakeholders fall into two categories. External stakeholders include such groups as unions, suppliers, competitors, customers, special-interest groups and government agencies. Internal Stakeholders include employees, shareholders and board of directors. In this Chapter, we focus our attention on the immediate environment drawing on international experience of business.

Before we discuss these two categories. We must stress one major point. The role these Stakeholders play, may change or organisational environments evolve and develop. Managers must be sensitive to this fact when they are tracing the various influences on an organisation's behavior and recommending responses to environmental changes.

Both the internal and external stakeholder group of most organisations have changed substantially over the past few years. In the rest of this chapter, we will outline the stake of each group and now it has shifted.

## **EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS**

External stakeholders, which affect an organisation's activities from outside the organisation, include customers, suppliers, governments, special-interest groups, the media, labour unions, financial institutions and competitors.

### **CUSTOMERS :**

Customers exchange resources, usually in the form of money, for an organisation's products and services. A customer may be an institution, such as a school, hospital, or government agency; or another firm, such as a contractor, distributor, or manufacturer; or an individual. Selling tactics vary according to customer and market situations. Usually, a marketing manager analyses the potential customers and market conditions and directs a marketing campaign based on that analysis.

Consumer is the king in a market economy like India.

The store market may be highly competitive, with large numbers of potential buyers and sellers seeking the most congenial arrangements. In such markets, managers must be especially concerned about price, quality, service and product availability if they want to keep old customers and attract new ones.

In recent years, as foreign firms have challenged the dominance of Indian business by offering customers more choices and setting new standards of quality, competition has begun to change customer relationships.

Thanks to improved communications and transportation, people around the globe are now exposed to the latest and best products. As a result, people in different countries have become potential customers for the same goods. Manufacturers can now think in terms of a world car, for example, or a worldwide computer networking system. The current wave of globalisation of business in India has brought Indian manufacturers of auto-parts into the global network.

### **SUPPLIERS**

Every organisation appropriates inputs—raw materials, services, energy, equipment, and labour—from the environment and uses them to produce its output. What the organisation brings in from the environment—and what it does with what it brings in—will determine both the quality and the price of its final product. Every organisation is therefore dependent upon suppliers of materials, and labour, and will try to take advantage or competition among suppliers to obtain lower prices, better quality work, and faster deliveries.

Today, as organisations look overseas for more and more of their raw materials, their relationships with suppliers have changed sometimes dramatically. For example, political considerations can be as important as those of price and quality. Witness the strategy used by the OPEC nations to quadruple the price of oil in 1973-74 and then double it in 1979-80. From a manager's standpoint, the power in the relationship has shifted irrevocably from the oil refiners to the petroleum exporting nations—that is to the suppliers. This is a good example of the environmental complexity facing today's manager. Managers not only have to know which organisations affect them directly, but which organisations affect organisations affecting them.

Advances in inventory control and information processing have also changed supplier relationships. Under the conventional system, the manufacturer was usually responsible for all the inventory necessary for production capability. Today, however, some companies keep zero inventory, necessary for production capability. Today, however, some companies keep zero inventory, relying on several "just in time" deliveries each day.

Finally, we should note the increasingly important role played by a particular group of suppliers called vendors. Vendors supply materials and services necessary to an organization specific production activities (for example, parts either finished or ready for assembly or general operations). A company that produces automobiles with contact with a vendor that specializes in the design and production of engines or other auto-part. Automobile manufacturers also rely on vendors for such items as windshields and tyres. Purchasing managers must develop firm relationships with vendors and maintain constant, careful control over those relationships. Shortages, untimely deliveries and fluctuating prices are only a few of the variables that can develop in an organisation relationship with its vendors.

## **GOVERNMENT**

The doctrine of laissez-faire, developed in the eighteenth century, holds that governments should exert no direct effects on business, but should limit itself, to preserving law and order, allowing the free market to shape the economy. By the beginning of the twentieth century, however, abuses of business power led the Indian Government to take on the role of "watchdog", regulating organisations to protect the public interest and ensure adherence to free-market principles. Indian Government has passed many laws creating regulatory agencies, which establish and enforce the ground rules within which business must operate. In addition, Court decisions have played a major role in shaping the strategies and policies of the modern business organisation. State and local governments, too, have assumed the role of watchdog and passed laws concerning the operation of business within their boundaries.

The scope of government intervention in the economy has expanded since Independence. As Government intervention has grown, it has become increasingly controversial. On the one hand, it promises genuine social benefits, such as cleaner air and water, safe automobiles, and a general increase in the standard of living. It can also be argued that regulation benefits and protects the regulated industries themselves. On the other hand, regulation is costly and may inhibit free enterprise. This was the logic of relaxing controls during the nineties.

Whatever the merits of regulation as a specific government policy, managers must deal with a complex web of local, state, federal, foreign and international governments, each with the potential to affect an organisation through legislative initiatives, judicial action, and executive regulation. For example, they must cope with contradictory regulations by different agencies. The upcoming Indian multinationals also have to understand by working of foreign governments, which may be deliberately placing obstacles in their path to protect domestic organisations. They must deal with conflicting state laws, such as tax and packaging, requirements. They have to fight product-liability, equal opportunity, and antitrust suits in court. They must weigh state incentive plans when deciding on plant locations and plant closing. They even have to cope with citizen initiatives such as bottle deposit laws. Obviously, the cumulative effect of all this governmental activity is enormous. The reservation policy adopted by Indian government, may be forced on India business in matters of employment.

Government also act to aid and protect industries. Large number of public financing institutions like IDBI, IFCI, UTI and LIC are case in support. Moreover, the state in India has a sizeable presence in India through PSUs. The public sector is a major buyer and supplier of private business.

### **SPECIAL INTEREST GROUPS :**

"Special-interest group" (SIGs) use the political process to further their position, on some particular issue such as ecology, religious practices and gender discrimination. Managers can never be sure that an ad hoc group with most form to oppose the company on some issue.

While special-interest politics is hardly a new phenomenon, modern communications technology and election financing have allowed SIGs to flourish in our time. The media can give such groups instant national attention, and [the political action committees (PACs) of the groups use campaign contributions and vote-banks to influence legislators. Managers must take both present and future special-interest' groups into account while deciding organisational strategy. Among the most important special-interest groups are consumer advocates and the environments.

Dissatisfied consumers can choose either to exist—that is, to take their business elsewhere—or to voice their complaints; the customer's loyalty to the organisation will determine which option is used. Exit, of course, can cripple an organization by removing its customer base without giving manager time to make changes. Voice, in contrast, is a political strategy designed to seek redress for grievance. Filing lawsuits requesting the intervention of a regulatory agency and lobbying a law-making body are examples of the exercise of voice.

In its use of voice, the consumer movement can be constructive: rather than adversarial. Recognizing the costs of government intervention, consumer leaders often prefer negotiation, while progressive managers welcome voice as an opportunity to understand customer's needs and to learn about changes in the market-place. In fact, many multinationals such as Procter & Gamble, make handling consumer complaints a high priority. AT & T has even formed consumer advisory panels (CAPs) to gain an understanding of consumer reactions to proposed changes in rates, products and services.

The environmentalist movement also from the 1960s, when the public became aware of the threats of new technologies posed to the environment. The Union Carbide case and Narmada Bachao Andolan are two outstanding examples of SIGs influencing business.

Not surprisingly, environmental regulations have imposed extra burdens on business. Emission standards, for example required the development of the catalytic converter as part of the automotive exhaust system, reduced engine performance by eliminating the use of leaded gasoline, and of course, added to the overall purchase price of a car. In the chemical industry, the cleanup costs for generations of neglect have become staggering. Still, managers have no choice but to take into account the current climate of broad and genuine concern for the environment. The pollution control measures are catching up in our country under global influence.

### **MEDIA;**

The economy and business activity have always been covered by the media, since these topics affect so many people. Today, though, mass-communications allow increasingly extensive and sophisticated coverage, ranging from general news reports to feature articles to in-depth investigative exposes. The coverage is also more immediate, due to the increasing use of communications satellites. Consider Bhopal in India, this was the site of a 1984 industrial accident at a

Union Carbide plant, which released clouds of poisonous gas over a poor neighbourhood. The nightly news carried some-day coverage of the accident and its victims, making it, much more than a mere news story about one company's safety policies in a remote part of the world.

Today, most large organisations realise they are in a fishbowl, where every action may be the subject of media scrutiny. To help them communicate with both internal and external audiences, they have developed sophisticated public relations and marketing departments. In addition, executives who regularly deal with the media often seek professional coaching, with the goal of presenting information and opinions clearly and effectively.

### **LABOUR UNIONS :**

Personnel specialists generally deal with an organisation's labour supply, sometimes supplemented by other managers with specific hiring and negotiating responsibilities. They use multiple channels to locate workers with the various skills and experience the organisation needs. When an organisation employs labour union members, union and management normally engage in some form of COLLECTIVE BARGAINING to negotiate wages, working conditions, hours, and so on.

There have been dramatic changes in labour relations in recent decades. Both personnel and union management have been professionalized. Also, employers generally accept the collective bargaining process and co-operate with the union to increase worker responsibility and participation.

The sit-down strike violence that so often characterized the union's early days for the most part over. Instead, unions urge stock-ownership, profit-sharing, and gain-sharing programmes that give the workers a stake in the organisation, and quality of work life programmes that give them more control over that do and how they do it. The problem of dealing with multiple unions is very peculiar to India.

### **FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS :**

Organisations depend on a variety of financial institutions, including commercial banks, investment banks and insurance companies, to supply funds for maintaining and expanding their activities. Both new and well-established organisations may rely on short-term loans to finance current operations and on long-term loans to build new facilities or acquire new equipment. Because, effective working relationships with financial institutions are normally the joint responsibility of the chief financial officer and the chief operating officer of the organisation. That responsibility has been made considerably harder by the enormous changes that have taken place in the financial industry. In India, most of the financial institutions are in public sector and thus the role of the government increases further in regulating business.

One change, is that large full-service investment houses are replacing older partnership arrangements. Recent insider-trading charges against investment bankers caused turmoil in the industry, as did the 1991 stock market crash—which was linked in part to fraudulent trading programmes. Moreover, deregulation of the banking industry is increasing competition at the same time that many banks have been weakened by loan failures here and abroad.

### **COMPETITORS :**

To increase its share of the market a firm must take advantage of one of two opportunities : (1) it must gain additional customers, either by garnering a greater market share or by finding ways to increase the size of the market itself; or (2) it must beat its competitors in entering and exploiting an



expanding market. In either case, the firm must analyse the competition and establish a clearly defined marketing strategy in order to provide superior customer 'satisfaction.

The world petroleum crisis that started in the 1970s drew attention to the competitive interrelationships in the energy industry. In the international oil market though Texco, Mobile, and Exxon compete against one another in the sale of petroleum, they share the common problem of competition from the coal, nuclear, solar and geothermal industries, all of which provide energy-producing substitutes.

In India, competition is limited. In an oligopolistic market, where relatively few sellers confront large numbers of buyers, the sellers may informally divide the market up among themselves and set prices. In a monopolistic market, every customer must buy from one available source, such as an electric utility. Sometimes a firm enjoys a temporary monopoly, as Xerox did when it introduced the electrostatic copier.

In recent years, the competition has been increasing in India market due to opening up of the economy. Foreign competition poses a special problem. As long as all significant competition is domestic, everyone must play by 'the same rules. Each competitor bears the burdens and shares the benefits of the same government, the same fickle consumer population, and same special-interest groups, firms within an industry can implicitly or explicitly co-ordinate their response to various issues, the theoretically no one is at a competitive disadvantage. Not only does foreign competition upset this balance, but it is much more difficult to analyze, because that entails learning about another culture.

### **OTHER STAKEHOLDER GROUPS ;**

Each individual organisation will have a host of different stakeholders. For instance, a hospital will have to consider the American Hospital Association, groups of doctors, nurses, and other caregivers, and of course, patients. Every organisation will have a particular stakeholder map that will in essence be a picture of the direct action component of its external environment.

### **INTERNAL STAKEHOLDER :**

Even though, strictly speaking, internal stakeholders are not part of the organisation's environment, they are a part of the environment for which an individual manager is responsible.

**Employees ;** The nature of the work force is changing in most organisations, partly, because of demographic factors. At the same time the skills needed by employees are changing. As companies find it necessary to experiment with quality programmes, team approaches, and self-managed work groups to face foreign competition they need employees who are better educated and more flexible. In a labour surplus market like India deciding on an EXIT POLICY is proving to be very difficult on account of the resistance from employees.

### **SHAREHOLDERS AND BOARDS OF DIRECTORS:**

The government, structure of large public corporations allows shareholders to influence a company by exercising their voting rights. Traditionally, however, shareholders have been interested primarily in the return on their investment and have left the actual operation of the organisation to its managers.

In recent years, however, certain groups of social activists have begun purchasing small quantities of stock for the purpose of forcing votes on controversial issues at annual corporate meetings. Although merges and hostile takeovers are often spurred by the legitimate need to reorganise Indian manufacturing, they involve large expenditures of capital that, are usually justified by cutting back

operations and liquidating assets. In the recent years, many managers were on the defensive; sometimes they harmed the longterm health of the organisations in their efforts to keep profits and stock prices up so as to discourage takeover attempts. Buying back their own company's stock is not a very healthy practice in the Corporate Sector.

A further impetus to societal marketing concept has been provided by increasing competition. When seller's market give way to buyer's markets, companies will be compelled to pay concerted attention to the consumer desires and attitudes.

Although the consumer and environmental movements are not powerful in India vis-a-vis the advanced countries, they are growing. So are the Government regulations. The competitive environment is also changing. Further, the foreign consumers also bother about the environment is also changing. Further, the foreign consumers also bother about the environmental effects of their imports in the producing countries. Governments are becoming increasingly concerned about the environmental impact of the production of their imports, for example, the U.S. law-P.L. 101-162 prohibits the import of shrimp harvested with commercial fishing technology which may adversely affect the endangered or threatened, sea turtles unless the President certifies the country has a turtle conservation programme comparable to that of the USA. The European Environmental Bureau has launched an appeal for a more serious consideration of environmental impacts when fisheries agreements are drawn up by the member states and other countries with third world countries.

In short, time has come in India too to take the societal marketing concept seriously. Prevention is better than cure and it will be in the interest of the business to accept this marketing philosophy voluntarily before it is thrust upon them by the external forces.

There is a growing demand for products which economise resource use, environmentally and physiologically safe detergents, lead-free petrol, ozone friendly aerosols, toxic-free food-items and so on. A socially responsible company will not wait for the government regulation to eliminate toxic elements from food preparations will not market automobiles or any other product which do not satisfy safety requirements. The limits to growth and cost of growth have taken the world to such a situation that acceptance of the societal marketing concept, inter alia is a must to maintain the ecological balance, for the welfare of humanity.

## **1.10 ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE**

Business environment is dynamic. Many elements in the environment undergo changes. Technological changes are frequent. Tastes and preferences, of the people change. The competitive situation changes. Demographic factors, including population size, change. Attitudes and value system undergo changes. Economic factors, like income, change continuously. Government policies and regulations also change to cope with the changing environment.

All these factors indicate that a business policy should be dynamic enough to be successfully adaptable to the changing environment. The success of a business depends on its ability to foresee the environment changes and to modify its business strategies appropriately.

An exact prediction of the future events is, of course, very difficult. However, reasonably reliable forecasts are possible in many areas. For example, if the relevant data are available, it is possible to forecast the demand for a product. There are a number of forecasting techniques. An appropriate technique, or techniques can be used, depending upon the characteristic features of the situation.

Similarly, forecasts can be made of such factors as demographic factors, income levels, technology, etc. Such environment Glueck mentions the following techniques, for environmental analysis.

- (i) Verbal and written information.
- (ii) Search and scanning.
- (iii) Spying;
- (iv) Forecasting and formal studies.

As these techniques are quite well known, we do not intend to explain them here.

### **1.11 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT**

An analysis of SWOT (i.e., strengths and weaknesses of the company and the opportunities and threats in the environment) plays a very important role in the strategic management process or the formulation of business policy. A look at the strategic management process would make the importance of the external-internal factors nexus more clear.

Glueck defines strategy as a "unified, comprehensive and integrated plan relating the strategic advantages of the firm to the challenges of the environment. It is designed to ensure that the basic objectives of the enterprise are achieved." Strategic management is defined as "that set of decisions and actions which leads to the development of an effective strategy or strategies to help achieve corporate objectives."

Chandler describes strategic management as the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and allocation of resources necessary to carry out these goals. According to Paise and Naumes, "Strategic management involves the decision-making and the activities in an organisation which (1) have wide ramifications, (2) have a long time perspective, and (3) use critical resources towards perceived opportunities or threats in a changing environment."

Strategic management or business policy is the means to achieve the objectives. Strategic management process involves ascertaining the objectives, analysis of the environmental opportunities and threats and appraising the strengths and weaknesses of the firm to tap the opportunities, or to combat the threats, formulating strategies to achieve the objectives on the basis of the SWOT analysis, choosing the most appropriate strategy, implementation of the strategy and reformulation of the objectives or strategy, if needed.

### **FORMULATION OF OBJECTIVES**

Ascertaining/formulating the company objectives is the first step in the strategic management process. A strategy is, in fact, a means to achieve the ends or objectives, it should, however, be noted that objectives should not be static, they should be dynamic. That is changes in the environment and/or changes in the organisational strengths and weaknesses may call for modifications to the objectives. As Kotler remarks, "objectives can grow obsolete because of the continuous changes occurring in the company's objectives are the most appropriate, given the environment and the company resources. It is such appraisal and the resultant reorientation of the business which have enabled many companies to achieve remarkable successes which, are often reflected in prudent diversification and fast growth of business."

To formulate clear objectives, it is essential to get definite answers to certain questions, viz. "what business the company is in ?" "What should the company's business be ?" "What will the company's business be ?"

As Gluek aptly remarks, "objectives help define the organisation in its environment" "Environmental" analysis will help find answer to the question what should the company's business be. If what should be the business, there is certainly a need for redefining the business/matching the company resources to the environment. The question what 'what will the company's business be ?' exposes another dimension of business objectives, namely 'the longer term perspective. As Drucker succinctly put it, 'what will the business be' is related to 'what changes in the environment are already discernible that are likely to have high impact on the characteristics, mission, and purpose of our business ? and how do we now build these anticipations into our theory of business, into its objectives, strategies and work assignments ?"

Most companies have multiple objectives. Multiplicity of objectives normally calls for assignment of relative priorities.

A company which has multiple objectives normally pursue some objectives in the short-run and others in the long-run. A short-run objective may be a means to achieve a long-run object. For example, the short-run objective of market penetration may be a strategy to help achieve the long-run objective of market dominance or profit. For instance, a key characteristic of the Japanese companies' strategy of entering the foreign.

### **1.11 Self-check Questions**

1. What is business environment?
2. Discuss critical elements of economic environment of business
3. Define the concept of strategic management

### **1.12 Summary**

Environment literally means the surroundings, external objects, influences or circumstances under which someone or something exists. The environment of any organization is the aggregate of all conditions, events and influences that surround and affect it. The framework of business environment can be divided into three broad dimensions: Internal Environment, Macro Environment and Micro Environment. Internal environment is internal to the organization and it is controllable. The important internal factors are as follows: culture and value system, Human resource, mission and objectives, and nature and structure of management. External or Macro or General Environment consists of factors external to the industry that may have significant impact on the firm's strategies. It consists of six broad dimensions: Demographic, Socio-cultural, political/legal, technological, economic and global.

Globalization has also enabled India to become the software superpower of the world. All global organizations now have a new and vast market, as well as cheap manufacturing hub, which have compelled them to change their global marketing and manufacturing strategies. The environment is constantly changing in nature. Due to many and varied influences operating there is dynamism in the environment causing it to change its shape and character continuously. The economic environment constitutes of economic conditions, economic policies, and the economic system. Which is important to the external factors of business

### **113 Glossary**

**Business Environment:** Aggregate of all conditions, events and influences that surround and affect a business

**Micro environment:** Micro environment of business enterprise refers to the study of a small area or an immediate periphery of the business organisation.

**Environment Scanning:** Process by which organization monitors their relevant environment to identify opportunities and threats.

**External Environment:** Factors external to the industry having significant impact on the firm's strategies

**Internal Environment:** Internal to the organisation and can be controlled

#### 1.14 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See section no. 1.1, lesson-1
2. See section no. 1.3, lesson-1
3. See section no. 1.11, lesson-1

#### 1.15 Terminal Questions

1. "The relation between a business and an environment is not a one way affair". Comment.
2. Discuss the major changes that have taken place in India's political scenario over the years. Has the situation improved or worsened? Give reasons.
3. How do the demographic variables decide the marketing mix of the organization? Explain with detailed example of any two companies from different industries.
4. "Environment is dynamic and multi-faceted". Discuss.
5. Do a SWOT analysis of the Indian Tourism industry?

#### 1.16 Suggested Readings

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.
3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media

\*\*\*\*\*

## LESSON-2

# HISTORY OF INDIAN BUSINESS

### Structure

- 2.0 Learning Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Origin of the Managing Agency System in India
- 2.3 Origin of the Parsi Enterprise
- 2.4 Growth of Marwari Firms
- 2.5 The Family Firm
- 2.6 Indian Business in Post-Independence Era
- 2.7 Indian Business in Post-Reforms Era
- 2.9 Self-check Questions
- 2.10 Summary
- 2.11 Glossary
- 2.12 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 2.13 Terminal Questions
- 2.14 Suggested Readings

### 2.0 Learning Objectives

After going through this lesson the learners should be able to :

1. Understand the origin of the management of agency system
2. Discuss the Indian business in post-independence era

### 2.1 Introduction

India remained a centre of attraction for the entire world right from the ancient period. Number of foreign invaders, travellers etc. used to come to India because to, its rich natural resource and high level of technology. In other words, history of India's entrepreneurship is many thousand years old. India was known for its handicrafts, Muslim of Dhalea etc. for many hundred years through out the world, Kautilya's **Arthashastra** provides very valuable informations for India foreign trade during ancient period.

Entrepreneurship continue to flourish even in the medieval period. The survey of works on the economic history of this period provides an almost comprehensive coverage in the published literature. The nature of knowledge available on agricultural production, village society evenue system, commerce, inland trade, foreign trade, handicrafts, technology, monetary system, prices, credit

etc. Scholars like Irfan Habib have made notable contribution, to the study of traditional technology, agrarian system etc. During this period India's level of economic development was almost equal to Europe.

During colonisation, Indian entrepreneurship has suffered a lot. Colonisation on the one hand helped Great Britain to get cheap raw materials from India and on the other hand a ready-made market for the manufactured goods of Great Britain which was the major reason for Industrial Revolution. Colonisation gave a major jolt to the Indian entrepreneurship however, with the setting up of a modern factory system in the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of 19<sup>th</sup> century, new class of entrepreneurship again started to emerge.

## 2.2 THE ORIGIN OF THE MANAGING AGENCY SYSTEM IN INDIA

The managing agency system has been the dominant form of business organization in India for over a century, yet no one has described the circumstances surrounding its first emergence. It is not difficult to understand why an aura of mystery shrouds the early years of the system. Students of managing agency have invariably been economists. Although they feel obliged to make some reference to its historical origins, they neglect the sources where the evidence abounds. A typical statement from a recent official Indian study of managing agency reads ; 'Little is known about the early twilight zone of the history of our industrial development in which the managing agency system and the joint stock companies played a great part. A British authority on the system writes : 'It is unfortunate that the source material on which the economic historian would normally rely for the study of the genesis of a great institution is, in the case of managing agency, scattered and fragmentary.

Other writers attribute its origins to the **mercantile agency houses** which flourished in Calcutta from 1793 until their failure in the 1830s or to their successors, the agency houses of 1834-47. Without citing specifics they skip to the period after 1860, by which time the system had fully **matured**.

It was, in fact, in the period from 1834-47 that a type of business organization recognizable as a managing agency took form. A mercantile agency house first assumed the duties of a managing agent in Calcutta in 1836. Other Calcutta agency houses followed their example and undertook the management of joint stock companies in the 1840s. Simultaneously, the system appeared in Madras, and by the 1850s. British houses in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay were employed increasingly as local agents of companies Organized in the British Isles. Thereafter, until they reached their apex of power immediately before World War I, British managing agents managed both the sterling and rupee companies that dominated the tea, jute and mining industries. In the meantime Indian firms, beginning in 1858; adopted the managing agency system when they established textile mills in Bombay and Ahmedabad. Although the system is now declining in importance, managing agency control still prevails among the larger industrial units and in the more technologically-advanced industries of the private sector. As late as 1955 managing agents controlled public companies whose paid-up capital accounted for over seventy per cent of the total for all India public companies.

The managing agency system came into existence when an agency house first promoted and then acquired the management of a Joint-stock company. This combination of events occurred initially in 1836 when Carr, Tagore and Company promoted and assumed the management of the Calcutta Steam Tug Association. In this arrangement Carr, Tagore and Company followed certain precedents - organizational forms developed by the defunct mercantile agency houses in the period before 1834. Originating in the late eighteenth century, the old agency houses were private partnerships capitalized by the savings of civil and military employees of the East-India Company. The houses advanced

money to indigo manufactures and then received the manufactured dye on complement for sale in Europe. They also invested in government securities, - shipping, docking and sugar production. The bulk of the country's trade, including the shipping of opium to China, and the private trade between Bengal and Europe was channelled through their hands. In their time the agency houses held unchallenged control of the commercial life of Calcutta.

The agency houses also conducted the handful of joint-stock associations founded before 1834. Though the joint-stock form was limited, to insurance and laudable societies, the employment of agency houses as managers provided the organisable model for the later managing agency system. In the financial crisis of 1829-33 all of the old agency houses failed, and their place was taken by a new set of agency houses. These performed many of the same functions especially, that of advancing money to indigo planter's - but relied on the hypothecation of goods imported from Britain for the greater part of their capital.

Carr, Tagore and Company, founded in October 1834, was the most energetic, though by no means the largest, of these new houses. Dwarkanath Tagore, one of the wealthiest merchants in Calcutta, joined in a partnership with William Carr, a respected indigo trader, in the first equal business partnership between an Indian and European. When Carr left, for England in 1836, Tagore brought into his firm an insolvent merchant, William Prinsep, member of a prominent British-Indian family. In time Tagore brought other, new, partners into his firm, among them Captain T.J. Taylor, reformer of the Indian postal system, and two young merchants who would succeed to the firm's enterprises - Donald McLeod Gordon and James Stuart. Tagore's fortune had been founded on landholding and moneylending, and among his business interests were the import and export trade, indigo and silk manufacture, sugar refining, ocean shipping, docking, newspapers, insurance, and the Union Bank. As the only continuing partner and as the provider of capital, he was, undoubtedly, the chief entrepreneurial spirit behind his firm's activities.

The managing agency system, as it emerged in the decade 1836-46, had yet to prove 'its superiority as a form of business organization.' Carr, Tagore and Company's management, though by no means entirely unsuccessful, exhibited many of the defects currently associated with the managing agency system. They frequently operated joint stock enterprises for their own advantage rather than for the benefit of the shareholders, in particular, by exploiting their control of purchasing for their own profit.

On the other hand, Carr, Tagore and Company exhibited most of the characteristics of the mature managing agent. They acted 'as entrepreneurs in promoting joint-stock companies, provided the initial capital, and in some cases supported an enterprise for a considerable time before opening its shares to the public. When they converted an enterprise into a public company, they retained control, by purchasing as many shares as necessary, placing their partners on the board of directors, and negotiating a long-term management contract with the company. They integrated their industries vertically and horizontally, in this way developing their own sources of raw materials and their own markets, and permitting more efficient utilization of overhead facilities, they pioneered in steam tugs and river steamboats, tea, bridging 'the Hughli, coal mining, and, later it should be mentioned, railway promotion. Three of the Companies originally promoted by Carr, Tagore — coal, tea and the steamboat—are still in operation.

Carr. Tagore performed another important managing agency function - that of encouraging investment and channeling capital into industry. Just as later managing agents attracted capital by their own reputations for business success, so did Dwarkanath Tagore. This was especially



true in the case of Indian investors who provided a substantial amount of the capital for Tagore's enterprises. Carr, Tagore's chief innovation was to harness the commercial experience of the agency house to the greater financial resources of the joint-stock company. Thus they led in the transition from international trade to the development of domestic industry in India.

## 2.3 THE ORIGINS OF PARSI ENTERPRISE

The Parsis played an outstanding role in the growth of - Indian industry in the nineteenth century. They pioneered the cotton textile industry in western India; and in all types of industrial and trading activity in the Bombay Presidency their participation was quite out of proportion to their numbers.

The Parsis' success has invited a number of explanations. It has been attributed to their spirit of enterprise, their lack of caste, their foreign origin, etc. Some evidence can be found for these explanations but their significance cannot be assessed unless various contributory factors are considered together. Further, such explanations do not take into account the historical character of the Parsi achievement. The Parsis played a smaller and diminishing role in the industrial development in this century, but that cannot be attributed to their becoming less enterprising, or their developing a caste - system. Many of the old Parsi concerns, founded in the nineteenth century, continue to exist, but their growth in recent decades has been less rapid than the overall growth of industry in the country.

Thus, it is necessary to put Parsi enterprise in its historical context. Fortunately the documentary basis for doing so is fairly firm. With their strong sense of community, the Parsis have written a great deal about themselves. Community news was reported extensively in their newspapers. Hence the record is quite complete for most of the nineteenth century; fragmentary information, is also available for the two previous centuries. The object of this paper is to review the evidence and explore the origin of the entrepreneurial activities of the Parsis.

The Parsis came to Gujarat in the year 697 A.D. to escape persecution by Mohammedans in Persia. Nineteen years later, they moved to Sanjan, which was then a port in the Gulf of Cambay. Nothing is heard of them in the following 700 years, and it is likely that they were substantially assimilated in the indigenous population and took up the native occupation of farming. Right up to the nineteenth century the Parsis showed the great influence of India ways and manners. Some of them had Hindu names, and their rituals at birth, marriage, etc. also incorporated Hindu customs.

Sanjan was overrun by the Muslims in 1315, and apparently the Parsis were uprooted. They are next found settled in the Surat-Navsari area in the fifteenth century; by then they were no longer confined to agriculture, but had extended their activities to tax farming, shipbuilding, shipping and trading. The growth of occupational and economic differentiation was probably behind the theological controversies that began to arise in the fifteenth century. We hear of leading Parsis getting worried about the adulteration of their religion and exchanging notes with the Parsis in Persia regarding correct procedures.

In the Seventeenth, and eighteenth, centuries there were some famous shipbuilders among the Parsis of Surat. There is a reference in East India Company records to a Parsi; 'shipbuilder in Surat, Cursetti, who built warships around 1672. When the East India Company wanted a ship in 1735, its agent was sent to Surat, and he placed an order with one Dhunjibhoy, who was engaged by the Company to set up a shipyard in Bombay. He set up the Mazagaon Dock which built over 350 ships in the next century and a half.

Besides building ships, the Parsis were also engaged, in foreign trade and in textile manufacture. They were particularly active in the trade with the Persian and Arabian Gulfs, they also exported opium to China.

The major export of Surat was cotton and silk textiles and the Parsis were actively engaged in their manufacture. Some Parsi families were famous for their skills and at least one of them the Chhois continued to manufacture into the twentieth century." By the eighteenth century, the Parsis were almost entirely urban residents only a few of them were engaged in farming, But some of them were rewarded with Jagirs (estates) by Mogul Kings. Thus, Meherji Rana, a priest who educated Akbar in Zoroastrianism, was given a heritable estate of eighty acres by him; his son was given a further forty, acres. The Dordi family also received a Jagir from Jehangir, the son of Akbar. A Parsi named Sorabji Kavasji (1697-1760) repaired a clock belonging to the Mogul Emperor in 1744; in return he was given the title of Nek Sant Khan as well as a number of Jagirs in Surat District and the right to farm the customs of Surat. His sons, who were awarded titles of Beheremahd Khan and Paiyarkhan, took up trade in cotton piece-goods and silk, besides their inherited activities. Beginning with Changa Asa in 1419, many Parsis became tax farmers.

Thus, the Parsis in the eighteenth century engaged in manufacture, shipbuilding, exports, imports and revenue collection. They were therefore in a very favourable position for capital accumulation.

Yet the Parsis were not the only people who had opportunities for capital accumulation. The Moguls systematically farmed out taxes in their entire empire, and created hundreds of Jagirdars. The same practice was followed by other kings also. And trade and handicrafts were not the monopoly of Parsis, In the Surat region itself we know of some extremely rich Hindu and Muslim merchants.

The reason for the later success of the Parsis and the failure of other rich people must be looked for in the Parsis' close contacts with the British East India Company. The East India Companies from the sixteenth to the early eighteenth century were not traders in the same sense as the 'country' traders of Surat. The traders of that time were a combination of merchants and tramp shippers: the ships which they owned travelled between numbers of ports, picked up the specialities of the ports and unloaded them where they were valued most. The English, French and Dutch East India Companies that traded in India at that time did a very different kind of business: they were interested primarily in taking a small range of commodities, especially textiles, to Europe, where they fetched very high prices. The range of European goods they could sell at a profit in India was limited, and they paid for the ward in bullion mainly. Thus, they were interested only to a limited extent in building up a marketing organization in India; and since they earned a handsome profit just by transporting goods from India to Europe, they were interested only to a limited extent in manufacturing and buying goods cheaply in India. The lack of interest, as well as, perhaps, unfamiliarity with languages and customs, led the Companies to rely on locally-based brokers, agents, and shippers, both Indian and European, in each post. On the other hand, local traders came to rely on the Companies for protection on the sea. By 1750 Parsi traders were entirely dependent on the British and the Dutch for protection on the seas.

The Parsis in Surat also acted as agents for the Companies. The ancestors of the Frenchman family acted as agents for French and Dutch traders. The Modis (literally, grocers) were originally priests, and got their new surname when one of them became the house steward and general agent of the East India Factory at Surat. Another Parsi, Rustam Manak Selh (1635-

1721), was broker; banker and money-changer to the East India Company, and travelled to Delhi in 1660 to make representations for the Company against the Nawab of Surat.

Hence when the East India Company got political power, the Parsis came to share in it. Before Bombay was ceded to the British in 1668, it was ruled by the Portuguese. They employed Dorabji Nanabhai as their broker. The British, on coming into possession of the island, continued to use his services. They imposed a poll tax on the population, and entrusted Dorabji with its collection. Thus he became the first Patel (taxfarmer) of Bombay; His son Rustamji (1667-1763) raised a force to defend Bombay against the Sidis of Janjira in 1692. Rustamji's son Kavasji became Patel of Thana and Bassein, Portuguese outposts near Bombay, when the British took them, in 1774. He was also a shipper; and his son Hirji had an extensive China trade. His brother Dorabji supplied cotton, timber, saltpetre, etc., to the Company government. In Surat, in the early nineteenth century, two brothers who are descendants of Beharmandkhan 'entered the service of the Company, and one of them, Ardeshir Dhanjishaw Kotwal Bahadur, was made the warden (*Sadar Amin*) of Surat castle and town while the other, Pheroza, became a political agent of the East India Government in various districts of Gujarat.

When the Maratha empire succumbed to the Company, in 1802, the latter was as unprepared to administer the new territory as in Bengal and the North-west provinces earlier; as in those areas therefore the Company farmed out the tax revenues of the empire. Two Parsi trader brothers, Pestohji and Vikaji Merji, were made farmers of the land and sea customs of Konkan and the land customs of Poona, Ahmednagar and Pan of Khandesh. They doubled the revenues in seven years. They also engaged in the collection of cotton for export, and later extended their cotton trading to the state of Hyderabad. They made advances to the Nizam in return for privilege of tax farming and currency issue. Ultimately their firm failed in 1851 owing to the refusal of the Nizam to repay certain loans.

Traders, brokers, shippers, shipbuilders, financiers, industrialists, tax farmers which of these people went into industry? Curiously, the pioneers in the Bombay textile industry came almost entirely from among the Parsi traders, shippers and financiers of Bombay, Cowasji Nanabhoy Daver, the founder of the Bombay Spinning and Weaving Company, the first cotton textile mill in India, was the son of a rich merchant who had agencies of a number of English firms.

## **2.4 GROWTH OF MARWARI FIRMS**

No institution has been as important in traditional Indian commerce, or in traditional commerce in general as the family firm. The varying contours of that firm in the pre-modern period determine to a considerable extent the development of the firms that emerge to take part in modern economic activities, especially industry. The varying types of the traditional firm are in themselves crucial institutions in the traditional economy. Because of the persistence of features of that economy into the present, they even help in understanding aspects of the present-day Indian economy.

Material for this particular study are primarily the individual Marwari family firm histories, more than 1000 in number, which I gathered for use in my doctoral dissertation. The Marwaris whom these histories represent, were an migrant group, numbering perhaps 300,000 by 1921, composed of the members of several commercial castes originally domiciled in Northwestern Rajasthan and its environs. They spread throughout India at an accelerated pace in the eighteenth and nineteenth century, and constituted one of the major elements in the trading class in that period and today. It can further be argued that, the organized details of all the major North Indian commercial communities, and their historical experience are sufficiently similar, that the Marwaris may illustrate many characteristics of other segments of the Indian trading class as a whole.

Some parts of this consideration appeared in more extended form in an earlier issue of this journal and the section on 'Speculators and Industrialists' was presented in somewhat different form at the March 1971 session of the Association of Asian Studies in New York City.

## 2.5 THE FAMILY FIRM

The traditional family firm takes deposits and makes loans, collects and transfers government funds, engages in retail and whole sale trade as the opportunity offers itself, opens first processing (ginning, milling), then manufacturing factories, transfers funds for its clients to distant cities, and opens branches as the number of sons, nephews and trustworthy clerks permits. A single day's transactions may include futures, large-scale encashment or bills of trade, insurance, commission purchases for export, and household expenses. Gadgil quotes from Morland, a historian of the Mughal era (1525-1775).

Virji Vora was eminently a merchant, that is to say a buyer and seller of commodities, and his business extended to any class of goods in which there might be hopes of profit; and at the same time he freighted ships, he acted as a banker, he received deposits and he arranged remittances by means of bills or letters of credit to his branch houses. The activities of the firm of Malaya were equally multifarious, and I have not noticed any record of a banker as distinct from a merchant, or of a prominent merchant confining his transactions to a particular line of goods.

Those whose primary business was 'shroffing' narrowly defined, i.e. banker on the indigenous model, also served, as intermediaries for the joint-stock banks, taking their money, as they did that of the general public, as demand deposits. All enterprises, however, involved elements of money lending. The family firm readily took on the function of 'peak' firm in an industrial combine, of the managing agency for newly founded industries. The 'peak' firm services a central function analogous to that of the managing agent for a wide variety of subordinate enterprises. Its legal relationship to them may be that of a banker or consultant, managing agent, selling or purchasing agent, large stockholder, or simply protective agent.

Though the family firm appears at first undifferentiated. I will suggest three types of Marwari firms—the 'great' multi-branch trading firms, the banians and brokers in the major-export and import markets, and the speculators in futures.

The following sections show that the activity of each of these types of firms, though multifaceted, usually had one or another central thrust or function, which played a different part in accelerating the progress of the Marwari emigrant community as a whole and in determining the future evolution of the firms themselves.

### A. GREAT FIRMS

Of the three 'ideal types' of firms we will consider, the 'great firms' are the first in point of time. I dealt at length with these great firms in a previous article in this journal and need now only summarize their functions.

'The Great Firms', were possessed of large resources disposed of through a large number of branches scattered through India, and occasionally abroad, and involved simultaneously in a large number of lines of trade and economic endeavour. They were important to the other Marwaris as customers, commission agents, bankers, employers, and principals as well as providing much of the commercial infrastructure on which migrant Marwaris relied.

It is perhaps best not to think of them as single firms, since typically they were a conglomerate of interacting firms belonging to closely-related members of one family. Just as Bhagoti Ram Poddar, the founder of Tarachand Ghanshyamdas (the main 'great firm' dealt with in my previous article) had many descendants, and his descendants spawned many large related firms, so also was the case with many other large firms. The descendants of Sargandhas Dadda of Phalodi (who lived in the mid seventeenth century) in Jodhpur, also founded numerous firms. Like the Poddars in Ramgarh, the Daddas created a merchant's city state in Phalodi. The senior branch was connected with the Bikaner court from 1767 onward. Another branch, had, a firm, Udaymal Chandmal, with branches in Hyderabad, Deccan and Calcutta and yet another was a leading banker in Indore.

Many of the largest firms were primarily bankers, With headquarters at Ajmer or in Bikaner they were initially moneylenders to the Rajputan rulers. The Daddas were especially prominent in Jodhpur, Bikaner, Indore, Hyderabad and Jaisalmer, the Bapnas of Pundua in Indore, Kotah and Jaisalmer; that Lodhas in Jaipur, Jodhpur, Kisanganhar and Shahpura; and the Pittys and Gaperiwalas in Hyderabad. Bhagoti Ram, too, was supposed to have been treasurer to a Nawab, and his descendants, (Mirzamat's) business included money lending to the rulers of Bikaner and the Punjab. Like Tarachand Ghanshyamdas, too, the owners of the large firms often remained at their headquarters in Rajasthan long after the bulk of their business was conducted through their chain of branches outside, and the leading branches were often operated through clerks. However, the proprietors of most of these firms 'were more' actively involved in their management than those of Tarachand Ghanshyamdas and more likely to send their sons put to actively run their branches.

Bankers with headquarters in Rajasthan like the Poddars and Daddas bargained for and received from the princely state rulers, criminal and civil jurisdiction over their own employees both to protect the employees from harassment and to strengthen their own control over their firms. Returning clerks might be closely questioned or even imprisoned in the proprietor's dungeons for suspected embezzlement. These two concerns - for control over the firm's personnel and autonomy from vexatious harassment - seem to have been keynotes of great firm organization.

Some of the great firms, like Bansilal Abirchand of Nagpur and Tarachand Ghanshyamdas tried to have each branch operate independently, and balance its books on its own. These naturally had more rudimentary central books. The branches of Bansilal Abirchand by the 1880s sent only semi-annual statements to the proprietors. This lack of centralized control is somewhat unusual in Marwari firms and especially contrasts with the practice of Seth Goculdas Malpani of Sevaram 'Khushanchi' of Jabalpur. Goculdas would spend nine months of the year on the road meticulously, checking, the books of his clerks. He transferred the clerks frequently and without warning, so that they would not have time to 'cook' the books before they left. He made a policy of never putting relatives together in the same branch firm.

To secure their headquarters from vexations many of the larger banking firms decided to shift them to safer ground. For the Poddars and Daddas with their protected merchants' city states—there was no need to move. But other firms found Ajmer, an enclave of British territory, provided a physical security still lacking in the princely states. The Muhnots of Riyan (the famed Riyanwala Seths—who were reputed by folk-saying to own 'The Maharaja and half of Marwar'), and a branch of the Daddas moved to Ajmer. Two other prominent firms of bankers - the Lodhas and the Sonis - made their fortune in Ajmer as it became a national centre for state banking and an entrepot for trade.

The early gazetteers indicate that because of the Maharajas' protection equal important banking centres had emerged in Bikaner and Jaipur. Jaipur's leading bankers were reported to have

a capital of seven million pounds sterling in 1879. Bikaner's bankers were supposed to have 55 million rupees in capital in 1930.

As Marwari businessmen moved out of Rajasthan, the great banking firms extended their branches to serve them. The Jorawarimal Gambhirchand Soni firm of Ajmer was founded by Jorawarimal (died 1858) on the proceeds of some successful opium speculations in the late 1820s. By 1850 it opened an office in the banking centre of Jaipur. In 1855, another branch followed in the opium mart of Mandasour in Malwa, followed by another, in 1862 in nearby Kolah and finally by a branch in 1866 in Calcutta.

The marauding armies of the late eighteenth century, too, often, funds moved from one activity to another, and the manner in which cash flows were controlled. It will certainly take a while before one can produce a Chandierian piece on business practices in eastern India, let alone India as a whole.

Nevertheless, it is clear that entrepreneurial activity was far more complex than has been recorded in the past. These were often different in strategy, in design, in the instruments used, and in implementation. The Marwaris integrated transactions from a massive, geographically wide network of trade, commerce, money lending, speculation, underwriting, and other 'constituents' of a 'bazaar' economy with the modern factory sector - first jute mills and collieries and then activities that were far removed from the bazaar. Non-Indian managing agencies, so successful until the end of World War I, failed to come to grips with the complex postwar era. Bengalis attempted to start out as technocrats and succeeded briefly before being outcompeted by better professionals. And the MNCs continued their expansion in India, as elsewhere, by introducing novel marketing methods and standardized products; they soon overcame their unfamiliarity with the terrain and became major players in India.

Given such a rich diversity of facts, the time has come for economic historians to eschew discourse that speaks only of colonial firms to the exclusion of all else. This article is a modest attempt at such a revision. Such revisionism does not imply that the colonial epoch should be explained without reference to colonialism. Ideally, it should do just the opposite: -enrich our understanding of the dynamics of capitalist development in the imperial era.

### **CONCLUDING REMARKS'**

There is an important unanswered question. Tea plantations were dominated by European companies up to the 1960s. Since the Marwaris were so adept at buying the stock of jute and coal companies, why did they ignore tea plantations? Unlike jute and coal, all major tea plantations were sterling companies registered in the London Stock Exchange. By the 1920s the Marwaris were very important players in the Calcutta Stock Exchange and accounted for the majority in every successive managing committee. But whatever their endowments, they were still non-entities in London. In the late-colonial era Marwaris were able to take over European-controlled rupee companies in Calcutta, but it would have been impossible for them to carry out similar takeover bids in London.

Our knowledge about different kinds of entrepreneurial activity in eastern India still has major gaps. We need to know quite a bit more about Bengali entrepreneurs and the managerial hierarchies that operated among MNCs. We also need to know more about the financial transactions of Marwari Firms, how

## **2.6 INDIAN BUSINESS IN POST-INDEPENDENCE ERA**

Indian business noted both quantitative and qualitative changes in post independence era. In the mid 1940's it was almost certain that India is going to be an independent country shortly, the blue

print of its future development was designed even before independence by the captains of the Indian industry in the Bombay Plan in 1944. In Bombay Plan it was decided that Indian industry is not in a position to make huge long-term investment in infrastructure projects like power, steel railway, sea ports, airports etc. Therefore, public sector should make investment in such infrastructure projects and other sectors should be kept open for private sector. In post independence era, India followed, a path of mixed economy where public and private sectors operated jointly, on the pattern of Bombay Plan. Huge public sector was created which helped Indian private entrepreneurs in a big way. Number of areas which were dominated by British capitalists like tea plantation etc. were snatched by Indian capitalists in the post independence era. Similarly, Indian entrepreneurs are further consolidated themselves not only in the Indian market but also started to link itself with global capital through joint ventures, turn key projects, etc. The people migrated from Pakistan also emerged as entrepreneurs in number of newly emerged business centres apart from traditional communities like Parsis, Marwaris, Punjabi etc. Although, at the time of independence, India was controlling 2 percent of world trade which declined to 6.4 percent in the 1970s. This is mainly because number of third-world countries expanded at a very fast pace and from primary goods exports. India emerged as a semi-manufactured exporting country.

Till 70's, public sector consolidated its position over India's economy to a reasonable extent. This is mainly because large number of sectors kept reserve exclusively for public sector and number of industries were nationalised and brought under state's control like banking, insurance, oil etc.

During 1981, India went for ever biggest loan from IMF amounting to \$ 5,68 billion which was highly conditional and India forced to open its economy. A large number of auto multinationals started to invest in India like Suzuki, Honda, Mazda, Mitsubishi etc. This can be considered as a turning point in the history of India's business, where it started to collaborate with global business. This laid the basis for full-pledged opening of India's economy during 1990's.

## **2.7 INDIAN BUSINESS IN POST-REFORMS ERA**

India made drastic reforms in its economy during early 1990's. This was mainly because India was facing an acute shortage of foreign exchange and balance of payment crisis reached at new heights. The Licence Raj came to an end and number of areas which were kept reserve for public sector, were opened to private and foreign capital. Indian rupee was made fully convertible on current account. Number of areas were opened to foreign investment through automatic route. India signed free trade agreements with numbers of countries and custom duties were reduced drastically. At one time peak custom duty in India was 300 percent which reduced to around 35 percent by 2005-06. It is expected that within 5 years, duty structure in India will be around 10 to 15 percent which is equal to global standards.

During this period, there has been tremendous expansion in India's stock market. It has emerged as 10th largest stock market of world. FII have been allowed to invest in India's stock market and number of Indian companies have been listed in global stock exchanges.

During this period size of the Indian market expanded at a very fast pace. India has emerged as the biggest market of the world in gold and jewellery. India has emerged as the 3rd largest market

formobile phones only after China and USA. In TV sets, Washing machines and other consumer goods it is amongst the 5 largesnumbers of the world.

### **FASTEST GROWING BUSINESS**

According to World Bank, India's economyin the 4th largest in the world only after USA, Chinaand Japan if its GDP iscalculated on PPP basis.B, 2030, it is likely to Surpass Japan and it willbecome a third largest economy. Presently it is the fastest, growing economy of the world only after China. In the era of reforms, in number of sectorsIndia has made a remarkable progress.

### **SOFTWARE INDUSTRY - INDIA'S BRAND AMBASSADOR**

The fastest growing industry in India has been a software industry where more thanpercent rate of growth has been noticed which unprecenaential inthe history of any countryInfosys, Wipro, TCS, Patni Computers etc. have become global, brand names. At onetime AzinPremji became world's richest person outside America who is the owner of Wipro. Similarlyowner of Infosys Mr. Narayana Murlhy has been an ideal of new generation of enterpreneii India.

Apart from software, pharmaceutical Textile automobile, and petro-chemicals - are other industries which have shown their presence in the global market, Ranbaxy, Cipla Or.. Ready's Lab.Maruti, Tata's Reliance etc. are the; leading hours inthese industries.

Major Problems :— India is far behind than china in number of areas. Poor infra structure interms of roads, railway, seaports; airports, poweretc. has creatinga major hurdles. Apart from Indra-structure,influency, terrorism, corruptiontapism of Indian bureaucracy, environmental and ecological crisis also creating major hurdles inpromoting genuine class of entrepreneurs. Last putnot least, the hostile political relations with theneighbouring countries, has also become a majorjurdeto making India a strong player in the globalmarket.

## **ANNEXURE I**

### **A PROFILE OF THE INDIAN ECONMY SINCE INDEPENENCE**

	Unit	2004-05	1996-97	1950-51	GARG(%)
<b>Demography #</b>					
Population.....	(Mn.)	1,091	946	359	2.1
Females per 1.000					
males.....	(No.)	934	927	946	--
Urban Population....	(Mn.)	303	250	62	3.0



Birth rate .....,.	(Per, 1000)	25.0	27.4	39.9	-0.9
Death rate'..;....	(Per-1,000)	8.1 .	8.9	27.4	-2.2
Expectancy of life					
at birth					
Total.....	Years	65.4	61.0	32.1	1.3
Male..;.....	Years	63.9	60.2	32.4	1.3
Female...;.....	Years	66.9	61.4	31.2	1.4
National Income					
GDP (At factor cost)					
At current prices....	(Rs. crs)	2,830,465	1,243,546	9,547	11.1
At 1993-94 prices..	(Rs. crs)	1,529,408	970,083	140.466	4.5
Share in RealGDP					
Agriculture,.....	(%)	22.8	31.5	55.4	-1.6
Industry.....	(%)	24.8	24.9	16.1	0.8
Services.....;.	(%)	52.4	43.6	28.5	1.1
Net NationalProduct					
(At factor cost)					
At current prices ,.....	(Rs. crs)	2,535,627	1,230,464	9,142	11.0
At 1993-94 prices.....	(Rs. crs)	1.354,599	959,360	132,367	4.4
Per Capita Income					
At current prices.....	(Rs.)	23,241	11.564	255	8.7
At 1993-94 prices....	(Rs.)	12,416	9.007	3,687	2.3

# 1. A PROFILE OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY SINCE INDEPENDENCE (CONIC.)

Unit		2004-05	1996-97	1950-51	CARG (%)
Agriculture					
<b>Index of agricultural</b>					
production.....	(1981-82=100)	168.6	175.7	46.2	2.4
<b>Foodgrains</b>					
Production....	(Mn. tonnes)	204.6	199.4	50.8	2.6
Rice.....	(Mn. tonnes)	85.3	81.3	20.6	2.7
Wheat.....	(Mn. tonnes)	72.0	69.3	6.5	4-6
Per capita net availability per day					
Cereals & pulses.....	(Grams)	436.3	475.2	394.9	<b>0.2</b>
Sugar .....	(Grams)	44.7	40.0	14.0	2.2
Edible Oil#.....	(Grams))	20.0	22.0	7.0	2.0
Tea# .....	(Grams)	1.6	1.9	1.0	0.9
Industry					
Index of Industrial					
Production.....	(1993-94=100)	204.8	130.8	18.3	4.6
Production of					
Finished steel....	(Mn. tonnes)	38.3	23.0	1.0	7.0.
Cloth,.....	(Bn. sq. meters)	44.3	34.3	4.5	4.3
Commercial vehicles...	('000s)	350.0	327.3	8.6	7.1
Passenger cars .....	('000s)	1209.7	483.0	7.9	9.8
Cement,.....	(Mn. tonnes)	125.3	76.2	2.7	7.4]
Fertilizers (N+P),..	('000 tonnes)	25,957	11,567	18.0	14.4
Electricity generated..	(Bn. kwh)	666.0	436.7	5.1	8.6
Crude oil.....	(Mn. Tonnes)	34.0	32.9	0.3	9.2
Refinery throughput'	(Mn, tonnes).	73.2	62.9	0.3	10.7.
Small Scale Units#					
No. of units.....	(000s)	11,395	2,803	140	<b>8.5</b>
Output .....	(Rs. crs)	357.733	411,85.8	<b>2,603</b>	9.5
Employment .....	(Mn.)	27.1	20.6	1.7	5.3

# 1. A PROFILE OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY SINCE INDEPENDENCE (CONTD.)

Unit	2004-05	1996-97	1950-51	CARG (%)		
Railways						
Route kms".....	('000 kms)	63.1"	82.8	53.6	0.3	
Electrified .....	("000.kms)	16.3*	12.7	0.4	7.1	
Revenue earning						
freight...;..	(Mn.tonnes)	561	409	73	4.0	
Passenger traffic .....	(Mn.)	5,500	4,153	1.284	2.5	
Passenger fare						
per km .....,..	(Paise)	24.3#	18.5	1.5	5.3	
Shipping						
Tonnage capacity ,...('000 ORT)		7.701@	6,915	391.0	5.7	
Cargo handled#	(Mn. tonnes)	297.8	227.1	19.2	5.2	
Telecommunications						
Telephone connections(Mn. iines)		92.9®	15.4	0.1	12.8	
External Sector						
Exports ..,....	(\$ Bn.)	79.2	33.5	1.3	7.9	
As % of World						
exports .....	(%)	0.9	0.6	1.9	1.4	
Imports ..,;.....	(\$Bn.)	107.1	39.1	1.3	8.5	
Current Account Deficit						
As % of GDP....	(%).	-0.9	-1.2	-0.4	1.5	
Forexreserves.....(\$Bn.)		142.0	26.0	1.9	8.3	
Prices & Exchange Rate						
WPI .....,.....	(1993-94=100)	187.3""	127.2	7/3	6.2	
CPI (Indl. workers) (1982=100)		520*	342	7.0	8.3	
Price of gold						
(Mumbai).....(Rs. per 10 grams)		6.170	4.695	113	7.7	
Exchange rate of the rupee						
(Annual average) ... (Rs. per US \$)		44.93	35.5	4.8	4.2	

# 1. A PROFILE OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY SINCE INDEPENDENCE (Contd.)

Unit	2004.05	1996-97	1950-51	CARG%
Banking& Capital market				
Aggregate deposits	(Rs.crs)1,700.198 505,59,9		881	15.3
Aggregate credit	(Rs.cra)1,100,428	278,401	547	15.4
Scheduled				
Commercial banks	(No.) 285	295	93	2.1
Branches	(No.)68.251	65,485	2.335	6.6
Stock Markets	(No.) 23	22	?	2.3.
BSE Market				
capitalisation	(Rs. crs)1,386,740	485,785	635	15.6
Public Debt				
Govt. of India	(Rs. crs) 1,324,632	675,676	2.865	12.3
Labour#				
Total workers	(Mn.) 402** ,	.387	142	
Organised, sector				
employment	(Mn.) , 27.0	28.3	12.1	1.5
Regd. Job-seekers	(Mn.) 40.9	39.1	0.3	9.7
Social sector#				
Primary& middle				
schools	('000s) 896.7	775.2	223.3'	2.7
Enrolments	(Mn.) 169.2	157.2	22.3	3.9
Secondary& high				
schools	('000s) 137.2	102.2	7.4	5.7
Enrolments	(Mn.) 33.2	24.9	1.5	6.0
Colleges	(No.)13.758	8,529	578	' 6:2"
Universities	(No.) 304®	228	27	4.7
Literacy rate	(%) 64.8	52.2*.	18.3	2.4
Male	(%) 75.3	64.1	27.2	1.9
Female	(%) 53.7	39.3	8.9	3.4

## 2. KEY STATISTICS OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY

N.B. Figures for 2003-04 and 2004-05 are not final in all cases.

National income and population	National income*	Per Capital income*	Population
	Rs. crores	'Rs./-	Mn.
1950-51	9,142	255	359
1960-61	15,204	350.	434
1970-71	38.968	'746	541
1980-81	118.233	1,741	679
1990-91	450.145	5,365	839
1995-96	941.861	10.149	928
1996-97	1.093,962	11,564	946
1997-98	1,224.946	12.707	964
1998-99	1,415,093	14,396	983
1999-00	1,564,048	15.625	1.001
2000-01	1,686,995	17.823	1,037
2002-03	2,008.770	19.040	1.055
2003-04	2,252,070	20,989	1,073
2004-05	2,535,627	23,241	1.091
Agriculture	Agricultural production index	Agricultural productivity index	Foodgrains production
	1981-82 = 100	Mn. tonnes	• '
1950-51	46.2	62.4	50.8
1960-61	68.8	77.1	82.0
1970-71	85.9	92.6	108.4
1980-81	102.1	102.9	129.6
1990-91	148.4	133.8	176.4
1995-96	160.7	139.9	180.4
1996-97	175.7	149.8	199.4
1997-98	165.3	141.4	192.3

1998-99	177.9	148.4	203.6
1999-00	176.9	149.6.	209.8
2000-01	165.7	144.4	196.8
2001-02	178.2	153.1	211.9
2002-03	150.7	137.6.	174.2
2003-04	179.5	156.4	^12.0
2004-05	168.6	n.a.	204.6

Source Tat's Statistical Outline of India 2005-06

## 2.9 Self-check Questions

1. Discuss the origin of management of agency system in India.
2. Write short note on family firm

## 2.10 Summary

A Business is nothing more than a person or group of persons properly organized to produce or distribute goods or services. Business principally comprises of all profitseeking activities of the organisation which provide goods and services that are necessary to economic system. Business may be defined as "the organised effort by individuals to produce goods and services, to sell these • goods and services in a market place and to reap some reward for this effort." Business is to provide goods and services to the people. It provides the public with the things it needs and wants • in order to survive, enjoy life and improve in a material sense. Commerce has been defined as "the sum total of those processes which are engaged in the removal of the hindrance of persons (trade), place (transport and insurance), and time (warehousing) in the exchange (banking) of commodities." India remained a centre of attraction for the entire world right from the ancient period number of foreign travellers used to come to India because for its rich natural resources and high level of technology.

## 2.11 Glossary

### Commerce

Commerce has been defined as "the sum total of those processes which are engaged in the removal of the hindrance of persons (trade), place (transport and insurance), and time (warehousing) in the exchange (banking) of commodities".

### Extractive industries

Extractive industries are those industries which are concerned with the extraction of wealth from the surface of the earth, soil, forest, and water; for instance agriculture, mining, etc.

### Genetic industries

Genetic industries are those industries which are concerned with reproduction and multiplication of plants and animals for the purpose of making profit by their sale. For example, Nurseries, cattle building and poultry farming.

### **Manufacturing industries**

Manufacturing industries are engaged in the conversion and processing of **raw**materials through separation, combination and transformation into finished goods. Examples such as machinery and plants of all types- iron and steel, sugar, paper, cotton cloth, electrical appliances, zinc ore, paper pulp, water power, etc.

### **Construction industries**

Construction industries are concerned with the construction of roads, railways, dams, canals, buildings, bridges. There are mainly concerned with the manufacture of non-moveable items.

#### **2.12 Answers: Self-check Questions**

1. See the section no. 2.2, lesson 2
2. See the section no. 2.5. Lesson 2

#### **2.13 Terminal Questions**

1. Discuss Indian business in post-independence era.
4. Explain Indian business in post reform era.
5. Write short note on Marwari firms and Great firms.

#### **2.14 Suggested Readings**

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.
3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media
4. Jain, T. R., Trehan, B. & Trehan, R., (2010). *Business Environment*. FK Publications.
5. Goyal, A. & Goyal, M., (2010). *Business Environment*. FK Publications.

\*\*\*\*

## LESSON-3

**REGULATORY ROLE OF THE STATE****Structure**

- 3.0 Learning Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Forms of the Government Regulation
- 3.3 Control and Regulation of Prices
- 3.4 Economic System
- 3.5 Current State of Indian Economy
- 3.6 Sectoral Analysis
- 3.7 Consequences of Economic Reforms
- 3.8 India- A Dualistic Economy
- 3.9 India- A Mixed Economy
- 3.10 Self-check Questions
- 3.11 Summary
- 3.12 Glossary
- 3.13 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 3.14 Terminal Questions
- 3.15 Suggested Readings

**3.0 Learning Objectives**

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to:

1. Understand the different forms of the government regulation
2. Discuss the economic system
3. Understand the current state of Indian economy
3. Describe the consequences of economic reforms

**3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The relationship between the state and the economy has undergone almost a revolution since the days of the planner economist, Adam Smith were the days when the doctrine of *laissez faire* was widely accepted as a guiding principle of the economic activity. The **State** was expected to concern itself only with, problems relating to the maintenance of law and order. It scrupulously avoided interference in the working of the private business enterprises. Rightly, then, 'the age of *laissez faire* was the era "free enterprises." The doctrine of *laissez faire* was based on the assumption "that every individual, acting as a rational being tries to get the greatest satisfaction from life for himself and, in this process contributes towards the greatest possible satisfaction to the society. Thus, the classical economists believed that the



principle of non-interference with unoriganity led "to what Bentham called the,greatest good of the greates number." The later,developments, particularly those which followedin the wake of industrial Revolution, shook thepublic faith in the rather idealistic doctrine rudely.*Laissez faire* theretened to push society on a roadthat led to the greatest good of a small number ofthe people in whose hands got concentrated tocontrol and ownership of industrial empires. Thedevelopment of monopolies, the exploitation ofthe consumer andworking classes by industriallords, sacrifice of the general good for private,gain, all these developments led the economists,and the Stateto revise theirideas about the role ofthe State in relation, to the economic activity. It began to be realised that the State could not longerallow itself the luxury uncontrolled andunregulated business enterprises., It could notlonger be a passive spectator to the unjustdomination of the economy by a few **who** virtuallyheld society to rank.

After the outbreak of the Past World Ware,political scientist like Laski, economists likeKeynes declared the end of of *lafssez faire* as asystematic principle." The State has since beenassigned a more attractive role in the economicaffairs of the country. It has not merely to act asthe guardian of peace and order in country butalso has to serve as a regulator of the economicactivity in the broader interests of the communityat large. The desirability of the State interference ineconomic affairs is virtually unchanneled thoughthere are certain, difference of Opinionabout itsextent. Inmost of the capitalist countries (says theU.S.), the industries, though the ownership andcontrol vest mostly in private entrepreneurs. Incertain othercountries which have chose thedemocratic way of life but we not capitalisticwhich have ideology the stale take over thecontrol, and ownership of certain segments in theeconomy and leaves the rest to private enterpriseswhich works, under proper regulation by the Statein public interest. The pattern of economy hascome to be known as "mixed economy and has been adopted by most of the democratic countries ofthe world, including India. In fact, it is generallyargued that even in USA(which is avowedly acapitalist country) a similar system of mixedeconomics prevails." Huge public corporations have been set up there too, to socialise control andownership or certain, vital sectors of the economy.

In totalitarian countries, however, the State hasgone to the extreme extend of taking overcomplete control of economic activity. The communist nations of the world, led by SovietRussia, have adopted the communist pattern of theeconomy under which the ownership and control of productive resources 'has been socialised andplaced in the hands of the State. Economic activityhas been completely regimeted there in the sensethat neither production nor consumption goesaccording to individual decisions by producersand consumers, but is determined by the State.Private enterprise has been totally, abolished andthe whole economy constitutes the public sector.

In a mixed economy, where 'privateenterprises co-exists with State enterprise, the statelays a dual role in relation to private business. Onthe one had it acts as an instrument to aid andbenefit industry with the object of inducing *and*Accelerating, the growth of the economy. In thisrole, the state 'provides finance and facilities toindustrial entrepreneurs, and tries to look after the further their interest through policies likeprotection and export promotion. Some aspect ofthis have already been examined in the sectionon Company Finance. In the second role, the Stateacts as a restraining force business, curbing theantisocial aspects of business, laying down the side - raise within which private business mustfunction, and pulling up private enterprise (in fact,'sometimes, even superseding and taking overcontrol of an individual enterprise or a wholeindustry), .This way well be described as theregulatory role of the government. It is primarilywith this role of the government that we areconcerned here in this block. The question ofnationalism involving the conduct of business a particular line by the government

and the problems of nationalised enterprises as well as enterprises initially started in the public sector are important issues today.

### **3.2 FORMS OF THE GOVERNMENT REGULATION**

As has been pointed out above, the object of the government regulation of private enterprises is to steer the wheel of the economy in the direction of maximum social good without replacing it. This can be achieved through "regularly action all important points; to the economic system. The more important forms of regulation of private enterprise by the government are as follows :

General direction and regulation of investment activity in private enterprise. This is achieved through economic planning at the national level and industrial policy.

Regulation of investment, location, size and expansion of individual enterprises, and specific industries through industrial licensing.

Regulation of price of commodities and industrial products through legislative authority and systematic investigations into cost structures, and mark - ups.

Regulation of monopolies and unfair or restrictive trade practices through legislation.

Regulation of wages and bonus for employees. in private sector to minimize exploitation, ensure reasonable standards of living and maintain peace and harmony in industry.

Regulation of corporate management.

Regulation of specific forms of business activity like speculation in shares and commodities or imports / exports etc.

### **3.3 CONTROL AND REGULATION OF PRICES**

An important part of the regulatory power of the government iminging on the free of private business enterprise is the power of the government to fix, control and regulate prices of material semi-finished and finished products. The general authority in this regard is given by the industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1991. The Act empowers the government to order investigation if there has been or is likely to be an unjustifiable fall in the volume of production in the industry or the undertaking, or when there is a marked deterioration in quality or an increase in prices not justified by proper reasons. In exercising or an increase in price not justified by proper reasons. In exercising this power, the government may advise the industry concerned to fix the prices reasonable keeping the interests of the consumers in view. Failing this, the government may exercise indirect pressure on the firms concerned but cannot statutory enforce its advice. Sometime back, when the manufacturers of the Standard Herald, Fiat and Ambassador models of cars wanted to raise the prices of their respective models, the government advised them not to go ahead with the price increase. It has felt that the government must have statutory powers of price controls in such situations. The government does enjoy the power of fixing and regulating prices of essential commodities and drugs. Price control's in case of sugar, wheat and similar commodities, and basic drugs is in exercise of this authority.

### **TARIFE COMMISSION**

Perhaps the most important components of the price fixing machine of the government is the Tariff Commission. It was on January 21, 1992 that the Government of India, acting on the recommendation of the Fiscal Commission, appointed a Statutory Tariff Commission under the Commission Act 1991, consisting of three members with one of them as Chairman. Essentially the

Commission is concerned with the question of granting, protection to certain home industries against competition from foreign manufacturers. It is empowered to enquire into claims business Legislation is being used increasingly for this, purpose as other measures prove too soft for the problem. It was used wayback in 1892 by the Government of the USA when the Sherman Anti - Trust Act was placed on the Statute Book and since then it has been tried in many other countries.

It may be pointed out that though governments in the USA and the Continent, have been attempting to curb monopoly, they have also grown conscious of some of the advantages of such organisation. In the UK, the Commission on Monopolies has been concerned mainly with restrictive practices in particular trades. In this process of investigation into various trades, the Commission came out with a proposal to abolish the policy of re-sale price maintenance i.e., the fixation of the final price by the producer or supplier. The Commission did not contemplate any break up of monopolistic combines of producers. Use attempts in this matter as directed towards the imposition of penalties on nearly all combines and practices in restraint of markets. In the underdeveloped countries, too, monopolies, are causing some serious thinking among the administrators and the economists. Although the economists assign monopolies a special role in these countries vis-a-vis foreign competition yet the government are anxious to remove some of the gross abuses connected with the undue concentration of wealth, and economic power.

### **3.4 ECONOMIC SYSTEM**

The scope of private business and the extent of government, regulation of economic activities depend to a very large extent on the nature of the economic system, which is an important part of the business environment. This chapter is intended to provide an outline of the general features of the broadly distinctive economic systems.

#### **1. CAPITALISM**

"The capitalist system is one characterised by the private ownership of the means of production individual decision making, and the use of the market mechanism to carry out the decision of individual participants and facilitate the flow of goods and services in markets".

"In a capitalist economy, households and firms are the basic production units. Each individual household is the owner of productive factor. These factors include the household's own labour and may also include land, capital and raw materials. Each household sells the services of its factors to the basic production unit, the firm. Private firms, organised by individuals, combine these production factors to produce goods. The difference between revenues and cost constitutes profits, which then form the income of the firm's organizers. The income is used to purchase the finished products of the firms".

The capitalist system is also known as free enterprise economy and market economy.

Two types of capitalism may be distinguished, viz.

- (i) The old, laissez-fair capitalism, where government intervention in the economy is absent or negligible, and
- (ii) The modern, regulated or mixed capitalism, where there is a substantial amount of government intervention.

#### **FEATURES**

The principal characteristics of a "Pure" capitalist system are :

- (i) **Private Ownership** : In a capitalist economy, the factors of production land, labour and capital are privately owned, and production occurs at private initiative. Individuals have their property rights protected and are usually free to use their property as they like as long as they do not infringe on the legal property rights of others. Private property, however, is protected, controlled and enforced by law.
- (ii) **Free Enterprise** : Free enterprise, an essential feature of the capitalist system, is merely an extension of the concept of property rights. The term free enterprise implies that private firms are allowed to obtain resources, to organise production and to sell the resultant product in any way they choose. In other words, there will not be any government or other artificial restrictions on the freedom and ability of the private individuals to carry out any business.
- (iii) **Customer's Sovereignty** : Consumer's sovereignty is at its best in the capitalist system where consumers have complete freedom of choice of consumption. The production decisions in the free market economy are based on the consumer desires which are reflected in the demand pattern. Frederic Benham remarks : "Under capitalism/the consumer is the king".
- (iv) **Freedom of Choice of Occupation** : In a capitalist economy, the individual is free to choose any occupation he is qualified for. This freedom of choice enables the worker to make the best possible begin for his labour. This implies that the employers have to competitively bid for labour. Freedom of occupational choice, however, does not mean guarantee of the job a worker opts for ; the choice is practically limited by the extent of availability of the jobs.
- (v) **Freedom of Save and Invest** : The freedom to save is implied in the freedom of consumption, for saving depends on the income and consumption. The term saving implies the sacrifice of consumption. As George Halm observe ; "The right to save is supported by the right to transmit wealth, so that the choice between present and future consumption is not limited to the adult life of one person. The freedom to save, inherit and accumulate wealth is, therefore, a right which is perhaps more typical for the private enterprise system than is free choice of consumption and occupation."
- (vi) **The Market System** : The market mechanism is the key factor that regulates the capitalist economy. A market economy is one in which buyers and sellers express their opinions about how much they are willing to pay for or how much they demand of goods and services. Prices guide the purchase decisions of the consumers. At the same time; while they decide to buy or not to buy a product, consumers vote for or against the product by using their money. Thus, market prices, which reflect the desire of millions of consumers, provide guidance to investors and other, business persons. The market system, also called the *price system*, may, therefore, be regarded as the organising force in a capitalist economy.

**Competition** : Competition among sellers and buyers is an essential feature of an ideal capitalist system. Competition reduces market imperfections and associated problems. Therefore, in a free market economy, a sufficient amount of competition is considered necessary if the whole production and distribution process is to be regulated by market forces. Competition on alert, to protect the consumer, and to maintain, a sufficiently flexible price system".

**Absence of a Central Plan :** As is clear from the feature mentioned above, the capitalist system is/essentially characterised by the absence of 'central'-plan. That is the activities of the numerous economic units in a capitalist system are not guided, co-ordinated or controlled by a central plan. Freedom of enterprise, occupation and property rights rule out the possibility of a central plan. Resource allocation and investment decisions in a free market economy are influenced by *market forces* rather than by the State;

**Limited Role of Government:** The absence of a central plan does not mean that the Government does not play any role in a private enterprise economy. Indeed, Government interference is necessary to define and protect property rights, ensure freedom of entry and exist, enforce contractual agreements among private entrepreneurs, ensure the satisfaction of certain community wants, etc.. However, Government interference in the system is comparatively very **limited**.

The *Pure* capitalist system which has been described above is a highly idealised system. There is hardly any pure capitalist or free enterprise system in the real world today. The capitalist economies of today are characterised by State regulation in varying degrees.

## 2. MODERN CAPITALISM

Modern capitalist economies are *mixed or regulated* system. Such, regulated capitalist or market economies include the United States, Canada, Australia, the United Kingdom, France, Italy, the Federal Republic of Germany (West- Germany), Japan, Spain, New Zealand, the Netherlands; Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Norway etc. The principal reasons for Government intervention in the modern capitalist economies have been mentioned in the chapter 6, *Economic Roles of Government*.

## 3. SOCIALISM

Within the wide spectrum of socialism there is indeed, a variety of systems. At one end there are the communist countries characterised by State capitalism, and at the other, there are democratic, socialist nations with a dominant private sector. It is, therefore, very difficult to clearly define the socialist system. Socialism, however, is, generally understood as an economic system where the means of production are either owned or controlled by the state, and where the resource allocation, investment pattern consumption income distribution etc. are directed and regularized by.

### FEATURES

The salient features of a socialist system are :

(i) **Government Ownership Control :** In socialist countries, the major means of production are either owned by the Government or their use is controlled by the Government. In communist countries like the USSR and China, the means of production are mostly owned by the State. In some socialist economies, the private sector also plays a very important role. In such case, the Government directs and regulates investment allocation.

## 3.5 CURRENT STATE OF INDIAN ECONOMY

India is a country with a population of 1000 millions, Gross Domestic Product. (a) current prices) in the vicinity of Rs. 7.000 billions. The average per capita income at current prices works out to around Rs. 5500, according to the latest available statistics. After independence, India has increased in population terms by a coefficient of around 2.7 whereas, real per capita income has almost around 0.7 whereas, real per capita availability of food has not changed significantly and has gone up by only from 400 gms. per day to 500 gms. per day. In terms of absolute numbers, the number of illiterates, the total number of infant deaths and the total number of malnourished or partially hungry have all risen in 1992-

92 as compared with the eve of our Independence. The Indian population shall cross the 1 billion mark by the turn of the century. The average inflation in the last five years has been running in double digits. The economic growth rate during the same period has not been more than 3.5 percent per annum. We have arrived at Rajkrishna's average annual "Hindu" growth rate after a period of relatively higher growth, rate in the mid eighties, the import intensity of growth rate has been very high during that period and as such problem of unemployment persists.

Globalisation is in the process of firmly integrating Indian Economy to the global economy. So it is essential to understand the world economic scene. As you know, the world is divided into rich North American, European and newly emerging Asian tigers on one side and the poor Asia, African and Latin American countries on the other. The rich nations have their own economic groupings thus Organisation of Economic Co-operation for Developed' O.E.C.D. the so called third world is not so well organized economically.

Regional, Economic Groupings and trading zones are a new configuration in the world economy. NAFTA is the free trade zone of America, Mexico and Canada, European Union or European Economic community (EEC) was basically an organisation of **12 rich** European countries which was **joined** by many smaller European neighbours after the Maastricht treaty. These nations are planning to **have** a common currency and cross-border business, alliance besides tariff-free trade.

E.U. and NAFTA jointly command 50% of the world economy and normally co-operate with each other. ASEAN countries Singapore, Indonesia, Malaysia, Taiwan, Thailand and Brunei allow more active trade within this region and help each other in upgrading technologies. Japan and China are the two mighty economic power of Asia who are not strictly a part of regional alliances. The newly APEC of Asia Pacific region is the newly emerging regional alliance of twelve countries which includes pastoral economies of Australia, New Zealand, and U.S.A., besides newly industrialised economies of Asia.

The regionalisation of economies is accompanied with the emergence of global world market. The UN System had a number of agencies for ensuring global co-operation on an economic front. UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), UNDO (United Nations Development Organisation) and UNCTAD (looking after trade and development) were a few of them. ILO (International Labour Organisation) tried to sort out economic problems of toiling masses. But of late, we are watching the eclipse of these organisations by the Trettenwood Twins of World Bank and International Monetary Funds. These two prominent multilateral financing institutions and regulators of the World Financial System are admitting W.T.O. (the newly established World Trade Organisation) which has become functional from January... 1, 1995.

There are number of development assistance programmes being run by World Bank and its associates like IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) World Bank finances development projects in all the three sectors or development economies in the spirit of North-South Co-operation.

I.M.F. is primarily an institution facilitating global financial exchanges. It regulates financial markets, offers stabilisation loans for overcoming balance of payment difficulties and also allows soft loans as extended facility to overcome the problems associated with the Adjustment Programmes proposed by it; India has also availed IMF loans and facilities with their purchase of structural reforms. The current liberalisation and opening up of Indian Economy has been a result of such conditional assistance 'extended by IMF. World Bank and IMF function together to promote marketisation of the World Markets.

General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs in its eighth round has promoted W.T.O. (World Trade Organisation), an agency overseeing the cross-border trade world over. After the Marrakesh Agreement, this body has a major say in tariff matters and non-tariff barriers to trade in agriculture, services as well as manufactured goods. WTO is alleged to have transgressed the domain of national sovereignty in proposing Patent Laws, regime of reduced subsidies and does not for national governments in governing their domestic economies.

WIPO, World Intellectual Property Organisation is the International Patenting Agency for new innovations; It proposes the rules of the game for technology transfers and foreign direct investments. Taken together the multilateral agencies W.T.O., World Bank, I.M.F. and WIPO are emerging as the regulators of the national economies and are laying down the controls within which macro-economic policy, formulation, is to be taken up. Right now the industrial, agricultural, telecom, civil aviation policies as well as monetary and fiscal regime of India is functioning as per the ground rules laid by these international agencies.

Delicensing, red-carpet welcome to foreign capital, reduction in export, agricultural and public distribution, system/subsidies, nearly full convertibility of rupees, across the board reduction in import tariffs, bids to scrap monopoly laws, PERA, 1973 and Indian Patents Act are a few measures under the influence of multilateral agencies enumerated in the earlier paragraph.

### **3.6 SECTORAL ANALYSIS**

According to live register of employment exchanges, there are around 40 million unemployed of whom 60% are educated. In sectoral terms Agricultural sector accounts for 2/3rd of our employment whereas G.D.P. emanating from this is approximately one-third. The secondary or the manufacturing sector is not employing more than 5% of our population after 45 years of economic development. The contribution of the second sector to G.D.P. is slightly more than 28%. The fastest growing sector of our economy is 'services' sector or the tertiary sector which accounts for about 40% of our national income and its contributions to the employment is around 20% of the total employment in the country. The health of the main employment oriented sector i.e. Agriculture is soil dependent on Rain Gods. Our entire focus in the 90s is directed towards the sagging industrial sector and overblown services sector. The primary sector has recorded a growth of only around 2% *per annum* during the eighties, whereas the secondary and tertiary sectors have grown, the average rate of 4% and 6%. In the Indian model of mixed economy the state (or government sector) accounts for one-fifth of the total G.D.P. whereas the private sector accounts for the rest.

However, serious doubts have been expressed about the National Accounts: Statistics in India and it is felt that there is a black economy as big as the one reflected in the official statistics. The existence of this unaccounted sector of National Income is also the breeding ground for the social ills of the society.

The transition of Indian economy in sectoral terms, thus depicts a very sad spectacle. The tertiary and unaccounted urban informal sector has eclipsed the growth of the productive and employment-providing sectors of agriculture and industry. This has continued despite the claims of "highly regulated" economy made by the international experts. The inter-regional, inter-personal and social inequity, has grown the lot of an average Indian is hardly better despite the claims about planning for economic development. The state of India has been too big and too ineffective to meet the serious socio-economic problems. Like all other economies of the world, Indian economy too is a mixed one;

We shall turn our attention on the recent institutional reform being attempted to usher in an era of liberation and global integration.

The process of global integration set in motion recently has its own implications for all social processes. The emergence of market economic all over the world (with a few exceptions) shall give credence to universality of management. Management is a social engineering technique may be standardised. There is every possibility however of oversimplification. As has been the experience social sciences, an urge to portray social reality in terms of models has resulted in limiting the applications of social analysis. The behavioral scientists inclination to develop a ideological and a historical modes of thinking, to address concrete problems of production and productivity, is not always the most satisfactory method of management.

The emergence of monetarist and market oriented approaches as the keys to economic problems is undisputed. But one has to temper the managerial analysis, by accommodating varied social contexts over various sectors and geographical territories. In India, we have the copycat syndrome afflicting all developmental exercises. In Japan or that matter China were able to fare better than India in many ways, the essential difference lies in the two-Asian giants developing their own models of social engineering. The Japanese capitalism cannot be termed as a result of American sermons on management. Similarly Chinese socialism can also not be termed as a copy of the blueprint proposed by the erstwhile socialist block. U.S.S.R is no more as an administrative unit or a political entity. Despite all talk of Pan-American the U.S. economy is passing through a phase of recession which has challenged the position of that country as the undisputed economic leader. The undertakable lesson for the underdeveloped world from these two examples is that you have to be more inward looking when it comes to solving the economic problems of the people in various parts of the world.

Our history and our tradition is a predominant variable in determining our national psyche. Despite all talk of information and electronic revolutions, it has to be conceded that human beings are at the centre stage of all economic and social endeavours. Their mental outlook and attitudes are conditioned not only by their immediate - context, but by their social customs, development experiences and political processes over a long period of time. It is people as social, political and economic events who transform realities, produce wealth and consume it. Despite the way of possessive individualism as "the ideology", no one can deny the fact that man is a social animal. The driving force for human behaviour is not the organic composition of different persons but their behavior is not the organic composition of different persons but their behavioural disposition and mind processes. The latter, of course are conditional by the social context.

The plea for not treating individuals immune to external environmental influences applies to institutions also. In fact, the micro-macro dichotomy has to be resolved at the level of individuals, organisations and countries. Opening up of Indian economy means free entry of multinationals and influences of world economy. All the companies in manufacturing, trading and service sectors shall be influenced by this intensified international interaction. The structural adjustment programmes proposed by World Bank, IMF, GATT shall not only affect the industrial sector but even the agricultural and service sector. The national government has also agreed to the plan for lesser state intervention. For this liberalisation drive to 'succeed,' the domestic market, human psyche should be attuned to this shock treatment. The reduction of welfare activities, temporary displacement of labour due to exit mechanism for public sector and reduction in the regulatory powers of the traditional elite are the internal features of Indian Society which will hinder the progress of the recent economic reform. If the people in India are



not prepared to receive this profit maximisation capitalist orientation, therefore is bound to fail in the long run. But in the short and medium run the inflationary pressures and growing unemployment shall also affect the daily life of all the Indians. All the levels of individuals, institutions and the national economy shall come into relationship with his new process of internationalisations.

The New Industrial Policy resolution virtually discarding 1956 resolution, regime of free trade with promises of rupee convertibility, virtual abolition of controls on monopoly houses, and MMCs accompanied with sweeping "monetary and fiscal policy changes may appear to create a market of laissez faire era in India. This has to be supplemented with privatisation of public sector, setting up of National Renewal Fund, promises of lower tariffs and plans to seal the controversial Dunkel draft of GATT giving, a burial to Indian Patent's act. It seems that old policy of import substitution is being substituted by export-led growth. However, the changed economic policy package, is already meeting assistance. Doubledigit inflationary pressures, stagnation in industrial economy and the trade union protest against impending threats of unemployment are already there with a fear of prolonged recession.

Major economic policy reforms taken up in the latter half of the year 1991 include devaluation of rupees accompanied with trade, reforms monetary, interest rate and credit policy reforms, new industrial policies for large, export-oriented units, foreign companies and small scale industries abolition of various subsidies on exports, fertilizers and food item. The disinvestment in public enterprises was initiated with divesting 20% of equity of 31 PSUs to mutual funds and setting up of a National Renewal Fund for retrenched workers. The full convertibility of Rupees on trade account, broad range relaxation in import, duties and import barriers boost to form exports are measures which are supposed to facilitate integration of the national economy with the international economy. These measures have been proposed in the budget of 1993-94.

In two doses rupee was devalued by 17 to 19 percent against international currencies. This followed the depreciation of rupee by about 55% during the eighties. Devaluation was ostensibly taken up to push up exports of manufactured goods and for making exports less attractive. Besides, the stated aim was also to check the flight of NRI funds from India. But since the devaluation was taken up in two doses, the apprehensions about flight of NRI deposits, continued. All these measures were also taken up to satisfy IMF and World Bank conditionalities because IMF make available extend facility loans to make up for the falling reserves of foreign exchange. The short term foreign exchange problem based on account of IMF loan. The IMF prescription, has guided most of the economic policy measures of devaluation of rupee, deflation of domestic economy deregulation and denationalisation in the industrial sector. It is feared that the process of devaluation of our currency will further aggravate with full float of Rupee.

The general subsistence-level economy of India which has so far been rather isolated and in away, even insulated, started undergoing significant structural changes. Recent government pronouncements and actions have not only accelerated the processes of liberalisation but also emphasised the paramount need to be competitive at the global level — a scenario which is not undergoing dramatic change, India, in fact, will now be entering, after almost a decade of false alarms, into the real take-off stage, provide the politician bureaucrat- Industrialist stronghold of the economy cases. This is now simple. These developments would result in chain reactions, with business and industrial management complexities, similar to those experienced earlier by western societies.

The emerging economic and business environments are thus posing serious challenges to the business and industrial managers. They would need help both in order to understand the full implications

of these changes and to reprepare themselves for meeting the threats and taking advantage of the opportunities arising from these changes. Therefore, new knowledge and skills would be needed.

Five areas of environmental changes are particularly striking. It is proposed to deal with them here as there may offer opportunities to, managers and academics, in Management for their reorientation. These **five** areas are : Emergence of competitive business and industrial environment. This change has a wide impact and touches every managerial functional area. Of particular importance in this context are areas like industrial marketing, marketing strategies and launching of new products.

- Emergence of significant Changed financial environment. **This** has shearing; not only on the financing method used by business and industrial enterprise but also on the management of financial institutions.
- Shift in import substitution and export promotion strategies, On account of the growing realization that import substitution strategy does not lead to efficient development emphasis had been rightly laid on export promotion.
- Technology information revolution — India has been a latent trait, but will have to catch up fast if it is not to remain behind other nations in the economic race.

Rising importance of managing people—While the problem of managing people is nothing new, the complexities of the problem are distinctly changing, because the composition of employees in many large organisations has significantly changed.

Women employees are also, becoming more numerous and women's share of employment will grow further.

To sum up, there is every need for giving a new look to a variety of old problems — namely motivating people, leadership, communication, counselling, selection and performance appraisal, emerging trends in industrial relations; conflict resolution, managing organisation, cultural succession, planning productivity linked remuneration systems and creativity management.

These are really challenging and will need all possible human intuition and imagination, if the economy is to grow and the measures to strengthen the market forces have to succeed. IMF Loan and its Implications :

India has both short-term stand by loans as well as medium term extended finance facility (EFF) from IMF. India has already received US \$2 billion under state by arrangement. The short term foreign exchange crises has eased considerably. To satisfy the conditions of EFF, the Bank's Country. Economic Memorandum lists five areas : Expenditure reduction aimed at reducing the fiscal deficit to less than 4% of ODP; Tax reform aimed at reducing incidence of custom duties and excise duties; Trade reform implying import liberalisation; Industrial policy reform, the main issue being exit and labour policy and freedom for private sector both national and international; mended by Narashiman. Committee; and lastly Public Enterprise reform including closure of sick enterprises, privatisation, elimination of budgetary support and similar other, reforms' guided by the ethos of market economy.

A part from these changes, we also witness a drive to woo Foreign Direct Investment as an alternative to debts from multilateral, financing institutions. The government has already suspended operation of the provisions 26, 28, 29 and 31. In the guidelines issued by RBI, the foreign companies have been allowed, to accept deposits from public." Even one priority area a part from 38 areas identified for automatic licences and 51% foreign equity. Use of foreign trade market has been allowed and foreign companies have also been permitted to acquire real estate in India.

### 3.7 CONSEQUENCES OF ECONOMIC REFORMS

The most vocal supporters of Structural Adjustment Programme of the nineties have some worries. It is agreed that too many bureaucratic controls on industry were unhealthy, yet this cannot be construed to be main constraint on new entries. Technological dependence reflected in the import-intensity of our industrial growth may become a constant feature of our industry. Pioneers of rural industrialisation are apprehensive that successful co-operative initiatives in the primary sector may suffer from unequal competition of MNC's. This will not only result in rising prices of goods of common consumption but also destroy the economic viability of farm enterprise in the long run. Industrial licensing had ensured check on polluting industries, helped promotion of small industries and ensured regional dispersal of the industry. The exclusive reliance on market, forces and profit maximisation motive as the driving forces can negate all these benefits. In fact, it is suggested that what Indian industry needs is not deregulation but new type of regulations to cope up with the new problems which have arisen at this stage. No regulations can be valid for all times. The regulatory mechanism has to be dynamic. We may need a SEB to substitute the clearance for from Controller of Capital Issues. More reliance on financial controls rather than physical controls, has been suggested by many pro-liberalisation analyses.

Concern for quality and consumer satisfaction which is the determinant of success of our exports in international markets cannot be inculcated by dismantling controls. Consumer Protection (COPRA) may be the way to do it. Consumer movement may make Indian entrepreneurs more quality conscious and customer oriented. This will help in export markets, especially services where humanized interaction for better consumer satisfaction is the hallmark of success.

An effort on to **build an** environment conducive to entry of MNCs by relaxing MRTP, FERA and plans for privatising large public undertakings. It is feared that this will undermine domestic research and development based initiative like C-DOT, CMC. It is feared that even, otherwise, economically viable BHEL, HMT and L&T may go out of business in face of MNCs. The fears of small sector are sought to be allayed by maintaining that competitive strength is not dependent on size and sophistication of technology. The competition from MNCs may force Indian entrepreneurs to attempt managerial and technological innovations.

Competition and consequent exit of some new entries may be useful in conditions of "over-supply" in the West, in India it can mean loss of resources and employment. Sometimes, in name of increasing competition, we may create more capacities in industries like automobiles which may not be very desirable given the current balance of payment situation and roadways in India. Sudden-emphasis on more imports, in place of earlier import substitution strategies may result in dislocation of already intensive industrial growth but shall certainly lead to deindustrialisation in some sectors.

In order to make private sector the driving force, we have prepared plans to do away with public ownership. Public enterprises have little to hope from all talk of MOUs and autonomy. The demoralisation induced by a public sector campaign may further demoralise these units and lakhs of crores of investment may record further tower returns leading to deindustrialisation.

The fears of deindustrialisation are not misplaced. Ramaswamy R. Iyer, a leading supporter of reform has voiced his apprehensions in the following words.

"In conclusion, let us try to visualise what will happen in a decade or two if some of the tendencies implicit in new policies are allowed to proceed to their logical conclusion. The industrial base

in the country may thus deteriorate. If this happens, this can be described as a process of deindustrialisation, this could be one consequence of globalisation' ...There may be a prosperity of a short; we may happily settle down to the role of a prosperous economic colony of the west."

### 3.8 INDIA - A DUALISTIC ECONOMY

The Indian economy presently is characterised by dualistic economic structure — a modern economy existing side by side with a traditional primitive economy. A Dutch economist, J.H. Boeke has propounded a theory of social dualism which asserts that dualism implies the presence and conflict of does not reveal such clash; However, there is a clear evidence of technological dualism in Indian society. Technological dualism implies the use of different production functions in the advanced sector and the traditional sector. In this form, dualism is a situation in which productive employment opportunities are limited, not because of lack of effective demand, but because of resource and technological restraints in the two Sectors."

Like in other less developed countries, the traditional rural sector in the possesses of following characteristics : It is engaged in peasant agriculture and handicraft or very small industries : **it has variable technical co-efficients of production so that the commodities can be produced with a wide range of techniques and alternative of labour and capital (which is so defined as to include improved land; and factor endowment is such that labour is the relatively abundant factor of production so that techniques of production are labour intensive. In contrast, the modern sector is composed of large scale industries, mine, coal fields and plantations, In this Sector, there is very limited degree of substitutability of factors, so that production is characterised by fixed technical co-efficients and the production processes are relatively capital intensive.**

In India, since Independence there, has been insignificant decline in the mortality rates while birth rate has failed to decline correspondingly. As a result there is population explosion in the country. However, due to fixed technical co-efficients in the industrial sector, employment opportunities have failed to grow rapidly: This explains why the absorption of increased labour force in industries has been rather small. The increased population is forced, to seek a livelihood in the agriculture sector, which because of variable technical co-efficients is able to absorb them. Until the mid 1960s this absorption could be facilitated by bringing additional land under cultivation and prevented ratio of labour, and becoming farm more adverse. In course, of time and became scarce and much scope, was not left for bringing additional land under cultivation. In this situation the rate of labour to both, land and capital in agriculture showed tendency to rise. This; obviously did not allow introduction of capital technology on a big scale. Mechanisation thus could be possible, only on a limited scale. In this country, it seems that we have now reached a stage that all available cultivable land is already: cultivated by highly labour intensive techniques and the marginal productivity of labour had declined to zero. Under these circumstances and increase in population and its absorption in agriculture for farmers or small scale enterprises to make employment of capital in the labour intensive sector even if they have capital to invest. Nor will they be interested in introducing labour saving techniques even if they know about them and could finance them. However, the fact stands that there is "no technology designed as yet to raise output per man is also not interested in increasing its efforts. Thus while methods of production remain labour intensive, levels of technology, man hour productivity and economic, and social welfare remain low.

it seems that the problem of disguised unemployment in the rural sector has tended to become more and more serious in recent years because technological progress took a form favouring the capital intensive, sector.

While technological progress was, slow in peasant agriculture and handicrafts, the industrial sector including mining and petroleum aspected technological development. Further, since Independence trade union activity, and, direct government intervention in the labour market have increased and this has led to artificially high wage rates in the organised industrial sector. However, these policies had no effect on real wages in the sector and contributed a great deal to the emergence of technological dualism.

The Indian economy presently faces the factor proportions problem, as discussed by Richard Eekhaus. Eekhaus begins with a simple and abstract case where only one good is produced in the economy, national product, with the help of two factors, labour and capital. Assuming that the factors must be used in fixed proportions, Eekhaus finds that the relatively abundant factor labour, is bound to face structural unemployment. Even on introducing a relatively more labour – intensive process of production, he observes that structural unemployment of labour still exists. Eekhaus, however does not consider this assumption as necessary for his conclusion.

In the next step, he divides national product into two goods — output of Western enterprises which are relatively capital - intensive and output of local enterprises which are relatively labour. intensive. Once again he argues that in spite of a very high labour-capital ratio, structural unemployment of labour will persist and this cannot be eliminated by price adjustments or by creation by increased effective demand. This general conclusion is unchanged even if variable coefficients replace the fixed coefficients in the more labour intensive, field of employment. Eekhaus demonstrates that structural unemployment is, aggravated under any of the following conditions.

1. If trade union activity, or the government policy successfully pushes up the wages.
2. If technological **lakes** a form that favours the capital - intensive sector.
3. If the rate of population, growth is higher than the rate of capital accumulation to the labour intensive Sector.

### 3.9 INDIA - A MIXED ECONOMY

The Indian economy is a mixed economy. It has acquired this form with the growth of a large public sector since Independence. Bhabatosh Datta asserts, in examining the Mixed Economy thus introduced, one has to remember that no economy has ever been completely unmixed. Even before Independence, India had a, fairly important public sector, the most important component of which was the railway system. There, may be various grades of mixture between the impracticable extremes of one hundred per cent- laissez – faire and one hundred per cent socialist production." In India, the Second Five Year Plan summed up to objectives of the planned development in the phrase 'socialist pattern of society', implying that "the basic criterion for determining lines of advance must not be private profit, but social gain..... "and yet the character of the economy that has emerged as a result of planned development does not resemble and such other measures may create an illusion that the economy has advanced towards socialism but in fact socio-economic relations have not undergone any such change as to warrant the conclusion that the Indian economy has drifted away from its capitalist form. According to Sukhainoy Chakravarty, "..... as of now, there is no evidence that despite the growth of a large public sector India has moved to any significant extent closer to a 'socialist society', in any meaningful sense of

the term. If the present trends are not going to be reversed, it is possible that India will witness in the closing decade of this century a considerably enlarged private sector with further erosion of the role of planning in the traditional sense of

### 1. A PROFILE OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY SINCE INDEPENDENCE

Unit	1999.00	1950-97	1950-51	CARG	(%)
Demography					
Population"	(Mn.)	1.027	936	59	2.2
Males"	(No.)	933	927	945	-0.03
Urban	(Mn.)	285	250	62	3.2
Birth rate	(Per 1..000)'	27.2	27.4	39.9	-0.8
Death rate	(Per 1.000)	8.9	8.9	27.4	-2.3
Expectancy of life at birth					
Total	(Years)	63.0	61.0	32.1	1.4
Male	(Years)	n.a.	60.2	32.4	1.4
Female	(Years)	n.a.	61.4	31.7	1.4
National Income					
GDP (A factor cost)					
At current prices	(Rs. crores)	1,786,459	1,243,546	8,979	11.4
At 1993-94 Prices	(Rs. crores)	1,151,981	970,083	140,466	4.4
Share in GDP					
Agriculture	(%)	29.2	31.4	35.8	.....
Industry	(%)	23.9	25.2	15.2	.....
Services	(%)	46.8	43.4	29.0	----
GND (At factor cost)					
At current prices	(Rs. Crores)	771,0281, 230,464	9,506	11.3	
At 1993-94 prices	(Rs. Crores)	140,38995 9,360	139,912	4.4	
For Capital Income					
At current prices	(Rs.)	16.047	11,601	255	8.8
At 1993 – 94 Prices (Rs.)	10,264	9,036	5,687	3,687	2.2

**Note.** : Since India's Independence on August 15, 1947 coincided with the partition of the country; data remained unadjusted for several years. Comparable data are available from 1950-51 onwards.

Compound annual growth rate (CARG) has been calculated between the two terminal points.

As per 2001 Census

**Source** : Tata's Statistical Online of India.

### 1. A PROFILE OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY SINCE INDEPENDENCE

	Unit	1999-00	1996.97	1950-51	CARG (%)
<b>Road Transport</b>					
'Total road length'	(000 kms.)	n.a.	2,466 400	4.0.	
Surfaced	(000 kms.)	n.a.	1,394 157	4.9.	
Regd. Vehicles	('000)	48,001	37,231	306	10.9
<b>Railways</b>					
Route kms	('000 kms.)	62.8	62.8	53.6	0.3
Electrified	('000 kms.)	15.0	12.7	0.4	7.7
Revenue earning					
freight	(Mn. Tonnes)	456	409	72	3.8
Passenger traffic	(mn.)	4,585	4,153	1,284	2.6
Passenger fare per km		(paise)	18.3	1.5	5.7
<b>Shipping</b>					
Tonage Capacity	('000 CRT)	7,641	6,915	391.0	6.3
Cargo handled	(Mn. Tonnes)	224.6	227.1	19.2	5.1
Telecommunication					
Telephone connection	(Mn. Lines)	27.4	15.4	0.14	11.4
<b>External sector</b>					
Exports	(SBn.)	36.8	33.5	1.3	7.1
As % of world exports		(%)	0.7	0.6	1.9
Imports	(SBn.)	49.6	39.1	1.3	7.7
Current account deficit as % of GDP	(SBn.)	35.1	22.4	1.9	6.1
<b>Price &amp; Exchange Rate</b>					
WPI... (1993-94-100)		145.3	127.2	17	6.8
CPI (Indl. Workers)	(1982-100)	428	342	17	6.8
Price of gold					
(Mumbai).....	(Rs. Per 10 gms)	4,040	4,695	113	7.6

	(grams)				
Exchange rate of Rupee (Annual average).....	(Rs. Per US \$)	44,96"	35.5	4.8	4.71
<hr/>					
Annual average for 2000					
Rate of depreciation :- 87.1					
Source : Field					

### 3.7 Self-check Questions

1. What is modern capitalist?
2. Define the term tariff commission
3. What is economic system?
4. Discuss the features of socialism.

### 3.8 Summary

The impact of business is so pervasive that besides judicial and administrative the third important work any government has to perform is to regulate business in the national interest. From the late 1940s, many countries started a new beginning towards growth and development, but almost all of them followed different paths to achieve the goal of welfare of their people. We see that different countries began their journey towards welfare, growth and development in late 1940s by adopting different routes. The Indian economy is mixed economy. It has acquired this form with growth of a large public sector since independence. The countries that adopted mixed capitalist structure had a remarkable rise. India has slowly developed a multiple mechanism of dual prices, ceiling prices, floor prices, subsidized prices, statutory prices, retention prices, procurement prices, levy prices, and free market prices. After liberalisation in 1991, the very face of Indian economy has changed. There is growth in national and per capita income, new opportunities in employment have been generated in telecom, software, call centers, biotechnology, pharmacy, tourism, education, etc.

### 3.9 Glossary

**Economic System** : An economic system is a means by which societies or governments organize and distribute available resources, services, and goods across a geographic region or country.

**Mixed Economic System**: A mixed economic system is a system that combines aspects of both capitalism and socialism.

**Sectoral analysis**: sectorial analysis, is a statistical analysis of the size, demographic, pricing, competitive, and other economic dimensions of a sector of the economy.

**Dualistic Economy**: A Dualistic economy is the existence of two separate economic sectors within one country, divided by different levels of development, technology, and different patterns of demand.

### 3.10 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See the section no. 3.4, lesson 3



2. See the section no. 3.3, Lesson 3
3. See the section no. 3.4, Lesson 3
4. See the section no. 3.4, Lesson 3

### **3.11 Terminal Questions**

1. What is capitalism? Explain its features.
3. Discuss the role of government in regulation of prices.
4. What are the consequences of economic reforms?

### **3.12 Suggested Readings**

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.
3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media
4. Jain, T. R., Trehan, B. & Trehan, R., (2010). *Business Environment*. FK Publications.
5. Goyal, A. & Goyal, M., (2010). *Business Environment*. FK Publications.

\*\*\*\*\*

**LESSON-4****FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS AND VARIOUS POLICIES****Structure**

- 4.0 Learning Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Industrial Development Bank of India
- 4.3 Industrial Finance Corporation
- 4.4 Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India
- 4.5 Industrial Reconstruction Bank of India
- 4.6 Stock Holding Corporation of India
- 4.7 Discount and Finance House of India
- 4.8 State Finance Corporation
- 4.9 State Industrial Development Corporation
- 4.10 Foreign Capital
- 4.11 FII's Investment
- 4.12 Euro Issues
- 4.13 Fiscal Policy and Growth Performance of the Economy
- 4.14 Monetary Policy of the Reserve Bank of India
- 4.15 New Industrial Policy, 1991
- 4.16 Self Check Questions
- 4.17 Summary
- 4.18 Glossary
- 4.19 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 4.20 Terminal Questions
- 4.21 Suggested Readings
- 4.0 Learning Objectives

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to:

1. Understand the role and function of development financial institutions.
2. Discuss foreign capital and its regulation.
3. Discuss Reserve Bank of India its Functions and credit control measures.
4. Explain monetary policy, fiscal policy and industrial policy.

#### 4.1 Introduction

Finance is a pre-requisite to mobilise real resources for organising production. In a developing economy, lack of finance is not the only deferent to economic development. Even when finance is available, other important factors like imperfections in the information flow and death of entrepreneurship may come in the way of industrial and economic development. Hence, it is necessary to make finance and other development assistances in a package to take off stage. The present trend; therefore, is to set up 'Development Banks' rather than institutions which merely provide finance.

"A Development Bank is a multipurpose institution which shares entrepreneurial risk, changes its approach in tune with the industrial climate and encourages new industrial projects, to bring about speedier economic growth. The concept of development banking is based on the assumption that mere provision of finance will not help to bring about entrepreneurial development. Successful entrepreneurial banking should include the discovery of investment projects; undertaking preparation of project reports, provision of technical advice and management services and finally assisting the management of industrial units"

After Independence, starting with the establishment of the Industrial Finance Corporation of India in 1949; a number of development banks have been set up at all India and State levels for assisting the development of large, medium and small industries by providing financial and various other promotional assistances.

There are three all - Indian Development Financial Institutions' (DFIs). viz.; Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI). Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI) and Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (ICICI). The Industrial Reconstruction Corporation of India (IRCI) established in 1971 with the main objective of revival and rehabilitation of viable sick units was converted into the Industrial Reconstruction Bank of India (IRBI) in 1985 with more powers.

Besides the four institutions referred to above, the all - India financial institutions (AIFIs) providing industrial finance are some investment institutions, namely the Unit Trust of India (UTI), Life Insurance Corporation of India (LIC), and the General Insurance Corporation of India (GIC) and its subsidiaries.

Development banks have been established at the State level too. In 1987 there were 18 State Financial Corporations (SFCs) and 26 State Industrial Investment / Development Corporations (SIDCs).

Financial assistance is provided, directly or indirectly, also by National Small Industries Corporation, (NSIC), State Small Industries Development Corporation. (SSIDCs) and Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC), although financing is only an ancillary function of these organisations.

The IDBI is the apex institution which co-ordinates the activities of various institutions.

A very important source of industrial finance is commercial banks.

Provision of rupee and foreign currency loans, subscription to shares and debentures, underwriting of shares and debentures, guaranteeing of deferred payments and loans are the important types of financial assistance provided by these institutions, (some of the institutions do not provide some of these assistances).

Development activities, of **the** OFTs include identifying industrial potentials of different areas development of entrepreneurship through training and motivation ; assistance in project identification, feasibility studies and preparation of project reports ; technical and managerial consultancy; seed / risk capital assistance, etc.

Direct assistance from the all – India development banks is normally confined to projects costing over Rs. 3 crores; various state level institutions and certain special institutions like the National Small Industries Corporation (NSIC), State Small Industries Development Corporations (SSIDGs), Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC) and banks assist small-scale (including Khadi and village) units and medium-scale units involving - investment of less than Rs. 3 crores. However, these institutions particularly the IDBI, assist the small-scale sector indirectly, through schemes of refinancing, rediscounting of bills, resource support of institutions assisting small-scale sector, etc.

The limit of direct subscription by the all India DP's equity of companies has recently been raised from Rs. 50 lakhs to Rs. 1 crores.

Projects involving very large investment are assisted by all India financial institutions through consortium financing (i.e., the project is jointly financed by a group of financial institutions). In consortium financing, one of the institutions plays the lead role. The AIFIs have been trying to make the single window concept more effective and to expedite the process of sanction and disbursement of assistance.

The DPs have sponsored a number of technical consultancy organisations (TCOs) and some institutes for entrepreneurial/management development.

The assistance sanctioned by all financial institutions (ARs)\* increased very substantially from Rs. 118.1 crores in 1964-65 to Rs. 70,594. Crores in 1995-96.

The share of the AIFIs in the total sanctions is more than 90 per cent and of the state level development banks is one tenth, IDBI, the premier institution, alone accounts for, more than 27 per cent about of **the** total assistance by the **APIs**.

About three - fourths of the cumulative assistance sanctioned by the APIs have gone to the private sector about 14 per cent has gone to the public sector, 77 per cent to the joint sector and the co-operative sector received 33 per cent.

## 4.2 INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT BANK OF INDIA

The IDBI was established on July 1, 1964 under the Industrial Development Bank of India Act, 1964, as a wholly owned subsidiary of the Reserve Bank of India. In terms of the Public Financial Institutions Laws (Amendment) Act, 1975, the ownership of IDBI has been transferred to the Central Government with effect from February 16, 1976.

The most distinguishing feature of the IDBI\*\* statute is that has been assigned the role of the principal financial institutions for co-ordinating in conformity with the national priorities, the activities of the institutions engaged in financing, promoting or developing industry. IDBI has been assigned **a special role to play in the matter of :**

- (i) planning, promoting and developing industries to fill vital gaps in industrial structure;
- (ii) providing technical and administrative assistance for promotion, management or expansion of industry; and

- (iii) undertaking market and investment research and surveys as also techno-economic studies in connection with development of industry.

IDBI is also expected to co-ordinate, guide and monitor the entire range of credit facilities offered by the other institutions for the small and cottage sector.

IDBI is empowered to finance all types of industrial concerns engaged or to be engaged in the manufacture, processing or preservation of goods, or in mining, shipping, transport, hotel industry, generation or distribution of power, fishing or providing shore facilities for fishing or in the maintenance, repairs, fishing or servicing of machinery or vehicles, vessels etc., or for the setting up of industrial estates. The Bank can also assist industrial concerns engaged in the research and development of any process or product or in providing special or technical knowledge or other services for the promotion or industrial growth.

The IDBI Amendment Act, 1986 has enlarged the definition of industrial concerns eligible for assistance from IDBI to cover a diverse range of industrial activities including the activities of services sector of industries like informatics, healthcare, storage and distributing of energy and other services contributing to value addition. The Act has also widened the scope of business of the Bank so as to cover consultancy, merchant banking and trusteeship activities. The range of financing instruments has been further enlarged to include lines of credit and letters and IDBI has been permitted to grant loan and advances to individuals for investment in industrial concerns.

Further, the authorised capital of IDBI was raised to Rs. 1,000 crores and it can be raised further up to **Rs. 2,000 crores** by the Central Government by a notification in the 'official gazette'.

As an apex development bank, the IDBI has been playing a leading role in the field of industrial finance and promotion. Over the last two and a half decades, the bank has evolved new areas of promotional activities to meet the merging needs for development of industry. It has also strengthened the institutional structure of industrial finance in the country with effective and appropriate linkages among the development financing institutions based on co-ordinated policies and practices. It provides resource support to state level institutions by way of refinance facilities and certain special schemes.

Although the direct financing by the IDBI is confined, by and large, to the medium and large-scale units, it has been assisting the small scale sector through its contribution to, several special schemes and resource support to the State level institutions.

The IDBI provides the following types of financial and promotional assistance :

- (i) Term loans (both rupee and foreign currency).
- (ii) Underwriting of and subscription to shares and debentures.
- (iii) Financial guarantees for deferred credits and loans raised from other sources.
- (iv) Soft loan assistance for modernization.
- (v) Under the Technical Development Fund Schemes, matching rupee resources, by way of direct loans to industrial units which are recipients of import licences under T.D.F. Scheme of Government of India.
- (vi) Under the Equipment Finance Scheme, loan assistance for import of capital goods or equipment by existing industries against IDBI credit or for imports covered by T.D.F. licences.
- (vii) Under the Technical Assistance Fund Scheme.

- (a) Assistance of Entrepreneurship Development Programmers.
- (b) Assistance for self - employment of blind and handicapped.
- (c) Subsidy for turnkey arrangements entrusted to approved technical consultancy organisation (TCOs);
- (viii) Seed capital assistance through SFCs and SIDCs to new entrepreneurs who do not have adequate source of their own for setting up industrial projects.
- (ix) Refinance facilities to State level financial institutions and banks for providing assistance to small and medium industrial projects.
- (x) 100 per cent refinance in respect of composite term loan upto Rs. 25,000 sanctioned to artisans, village and cottage industries and SSI units in tiny sector and projects promoted by SC/ST and physically handicapped.
- (xi) Special scheme of concessional refinance assistance to small scale units covered under the credit guarantee scheme.
- (xii) Refinance against loans upto **Rs. 2 lakhs** granted to technician entrepreneurs by SFCs without insisting on promoter's contribution and at concessional rate of interest.
- (xiii) Concessional finance for industries in notified backward areas.
- (xiv) Under the Textile Modernisation Fund Scheme, assistance for modernisation on concessional terms to spinning and composite textile and woolen mills.
- (xv) Under the Venture Capital Fund Scheme financial assistance for projects involving development and use of indigenous technology, as well as for adoption and use of imported technology.
- (xvi) Under the Technology Upgradation Scheme, assistance for selected capital goods industrial.
- (xvii) Scheme for providing Automatic Stand by Credit for payment of enhanced customs duty on project imports.

IDBI provides financial assistance to cottage, tiny, small and medium enterprises through :

- (i) refinance of industrial loans granted by SFCs, **SIDCs** commercial/-co-operative and regional rural banks;
- (ii) rediscounting of bills arising out of scale of indigenous machinery ;
- (iii) seed capital assistance to new entrepreneur;
- (iv) resource support to SFCs, SSIDCs and NSIC by way of subscription to shares and bonds.

In order to step up to the flow of assistance to the small sector and to provide a focal point to co-ordinate at the apex level the availability of both financial and non-financial inputs required for the orderly and healthy growth of this sector, the IDBI established in May 1985 Small Industries Development Fund (SIDF). In fulfillment of these objectives, the Bank took a variety of measures to increase the flow of assistance to this sector. Besides liberalising the terms of existing schemes new schemes were introduced in favour of such special target groups as women entrepreneurs and ex-servicemen. Assistance is also made available for such purposes as financing in house quality testing facilities, common quality testing centres, setting up of Training - cum Development Centres in north - eastern states of the country, etc.

### 4.3 INDUSTRIAL FINANCE CORPORATION

The Industrial Finance Corporation of India was established in 1948 under the IFCI Act, with the object of making medium and long – term credit more readily available to industrial concerns in India. Today, IFCI's role extends to the entire industrial spectrum of the country. While it continues to be one of the important purveyors of direct financial assistance to eligible industrial concerns, no less important is its promotional role whereby it has been helping and developing the small and medium - scale industrial entrepreneurs ;by providing them much needed guidance-through its specialised agencies in project identification, formulation and implementation, development of ancillary and small scale industries, encouraging the adoption of indigenous technology, etc;

As in the case of the recent amendments of the IDBI Act, the amendment to the IFCI Act has broadened the scope of business of the Corporation and enlarged the, list of industrial activities eligible for assistance by inclusion of informatics, health care etc.

Direct, financing is the Corporation's main business, the assistance under which can take anyone or more of the following forms :

- (i) Rupee loans,
- (ii) Sub - loans in foreign currencies out of the foreign exchange lines of credit made available to it;
- (iii) Underwriting of and / or direct subscription to the shares and debentures of public limited companies ; and
- (iv) **Guranteeing of -**
  - (a) Deferred payments of machinery imported from abroad or purchased within the country ;
  - (b) Foreign currency -loans raised by industrial concerns from –foreign institutions; and
  - (c) Rupee loans raised by industrial concerns from scheduled banks or State Government-operative Banks or the market.

Like the other all India development bank's, IDBI, also provides concessional finance to industrial units in notified backward areas.

IFCI has been designated as the modal point to administer the Jute Modernisation Fund set up by the Government of India and which became operative from November, 1986, with a view to revitalising the jute industry and giving thrust to its modernisation programme.

Further IFCI has been appointed as agent of the Government of India for making disbursement of loans from the Sugar Development Fund for rehabilitation and modernisation of sugar units and monitoring the end use of loans and affecting recoveries.

Being a development bank the IFCI has been undertaking a number of development activities. These include the following.

- (i) Guidance to new tiny, small - scale and medium-scale entrepreneurs in project identification formulation, implementation, operation etc.
- (ii) Help to new and small entrepreneurs by subsidising the, cost of Feasibility/Project Reports, market studies, diagnostic studies, revival of sick units, development of technology and in house R & D efforts.

- (iii) The Risk Capital Foundation (RCP) sponsored by the IFCI (established in 1976) provides risk capital assistance on soft terms to the first generation entrepreneurs to make good the shortfall in the requirement of promoters' contribution to the equity capital of the medium and medium - large industrial projects promoted by them in the cost – range of Rs. 2 crore to Rs. 15 crores. No interest is charged on the loans given by RCF, except, a nominal service charge. The assistance is normally limited to 50 per cent of the promoter's contribution excluding the contribution from SIDC and / or other similar public sector financial institutions to the equity of a project.

During 1986 - 87, the Corporation introduced the Scheme of Interest Subsidy for Encouraging Quality Control Measures in Small Scale Sector.

Recently, IFCI has set up a Merchant Banking Division (MBD) with its head office at Delhi and bureau in Bombay, the MBD undertakes assignments for capital, restructuring, merger and amalgamation, loans syndication with other financial institutions, and trusteeship assignments. It guides entrepreneurs in project formulation and raising resources for meeting project costs.

#### **4.4 INDUSTRIAL CREDIT AND INVESTMENT CORPORATION OF INDIA**

The Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India Limited (ICICI) was set up in 1955 to encourage and assist industrial development in India.

Its objectives/aims include:

- (i) providing assistance in the creation, expansion and modernisation of industrial enterprises;
- (ii) encouraging and promoting the participation of private capital, both internal and external in such enterprises; and
- (iii) encouraging and promoting industrial investment and, the expansion of investment markets.

In pursuit of its objective of promoting industrial development, ICICI provides financial assistance in various forms such as—

- (a) Underwriting of public and private issues and offers to sale of industrial securities —ordinary shares, preference shares, bonds and debenture stock;
- (b) Direct subscription to such securities;
- (c) Securing loans in rupees, repayable over periods up to 15 years,
- (d) Providing smaller loans in foreign currencies for payment for imported capital equipment and technical services;
- (e) Guaranteeing payments for credits made by others;
- (f) Providing credit facilities to manufacturer for promoting sale of industrial equipment, on deferred payment terms.

ICICI sells securities from its own portfolio to investors whenever it can get a reasonable price for them. It does so for the dual purpose of revolving its resources for new investment and for encouraging the investment habit in others, thereby promoting widespread distribution of private securities. Thus, unlike the normal investor, ICICI does not retain successful investments merely because they are profitable. On the contrary, dissemination of profitable investments is in accord. With its broad objectives and the form of ICICI's own investment in a particular enterprise is often influenced by the prospect of selling it eventually.



The primary purpose for which assistance is extended is purchase of capital assets in the form of land building **and** machinery. **Of** the alternative types of assistance provided by ICICI, the one best calculated to assure the success of enterprises is chosen in each case.

A significant feature of ICICI's operations is the relatively high share of foreign currency loans in its assistance portfolio compared to other all-India development banks.

Towards the national objective of development of backward regions. ICICI has been extending financial assistance on concessional **terms** to new projects located in backward areas.

ICICI played an active role in the techno-economic surveys of various States under the initiative of the all-India financial institutions. The surveys were carried out to determine the industrial potential of the selected States and to suggest measures for realising such potential. The effort was to identify specific projects based on local resources, which would be of maximum benefit to the economy.

ICICI, in consortium with IDBI and IFCI, operates. Soft loan Scheme for modernisation of industrial concerns in cement, sugar, cotton textiles, jute and certain industries.

Consistent with its corporate philosophy and its role as an experienced development bank, ICICI provides promotional assistance to worthwhile projects. The Corporation has provided, on a formal basis since 1973, promotional assistance like identification of new projects on the one hand and location, of suitable entrepreneurs on the other. In selecting projects for this purpose, preference is given to those with a potential to cover immediate and emergent gaps in the economy. Special consideration is also given to new products and processes. It provides comprehensive guidance to entrepreneurs on selected projects for their formulation on sound lines and expeditious maturing to a bankable stage. In suitable cases a small fee is charged for these services. The regional officers of the Corporation also contribute to these activities and serve as convenient contact points for entrepreneurs.

ICICI started a Merchant Banking Division in 1973 for advising clients, on a selective basis, on raising finances in suitable forms and on restructuring of finances in existing companies. It also advises clients on amalgamation proposals. Assistance is provided in preparing proposals for submission to financial institutions and banks for negotiations with them for loans and underwriting. The Division acts as Managers, to the Issue of Capital, Assistance is provided for completion of formalities for raising loans. ICICI charges a suitable fee for these services.

The Corporation has taken some initiatives in the field of rural developments since 1976. It has assisted, on an experimental basis, projects of landscaping, agricultural research and fish irrigation.

The Corporation's interest and initiative in rural development activity was enlarged during 1977 and Rs. 25 lakhs were earmarked for projects of rural development to be taken up in association with industrial units and voluntary social service organisations.

ICICI considers financial assistance on liberal terms to suitable rural development schemes initiated, either by voluntary organisations or corporate bodies. The scheme should have a demonstration value and be replicable in other rural areas. They should aim at improving living conditions of the rural population and their impact should be measurable. For bankable rural development schemes, ICICI extends financial assistance in the form of seed money / margin money or suitable interest rate subsidy. For other deserving but non-bankable schemes, ICICI extends financial support depending on their merit and requirements.

ICICI has been instrumental in setting up the Institute for Financial Management and Research at Madras. The Institute has been conducting specialised courses and carrying on research in the field of financial management.

An important development initiative taken by ICICI resulted in the formation of Housing Development Finance Corporation Limited (HDFC) in 1987. HDFC provides long-term loans on reasonable terms, primarily for lower and middle income group housing.

The ICICI with commenced leasing operating in 1983, provides leasing assistance for computerisation, modernisation/replacement schemes, equipment for energy conservation, export orientation, pollution control, balancing and expansion. The industries assisted under leasing include textiles, engineering, chemicals fertilizers, cement sugar etc. ICICI has made significant efforts in promoting investments in information technology, service industry like hotels and agro-sectors like hatchery and poultry.

In 1987, ICICI launched its Venture Capital Scheme under which long term financial assistance is extended to projects involving development, and/or commercialisation of new technologies, for which entrepreneurs, due to inherent high risks, may not be able to raise funds through conventional lending mechanisms. The assistance is provided in the form of participation in share capital, conditional loans and normal loans.

The Corporation is administering and managing the Programme for the Advancement of Commercial Technology (PACT) which commenced with a grant of US \$ 10 million from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The primary emphasis of PACT is on market oriented R & D activity from which India and USA would derive economic benefit.

ICICI provides special assistance to technology development projects based on indigenous R. & D efforts.

In order to broad - base technology development oriented activities, the Corporation has promoted a new company called Technology Development and Information Company of India Ltd. (TDICI) the major functions of TDICI would be technology financing and technology information. Technology financing will include financing of commercial R & D schemes through grants and conditional loans, venture capital financing and technology upgradation financing.

The Credit Rating Services of India Limited (CRISIL) promoted by ICICI became, operational in 1987, CRISIL, in whose equity banks and financial institutions have participated, is an independent organisation managed professionally.

#### **4.5 INDUSTRIAL RECONSTRUCTION BANK OF INDIA**

In 1971, the Government of India established an institution, namely. Industrial Reconstruction Corporation of India (IRCI) with the main objective of reconstruction and rehabilitation of industrial units which were closed down or were facing the risk of closure but which could be made viable with suitable assistance.

The need for a more powerful institution to deal with the problem of industrial sickness was felt on March 20, 1985, the Industrial Reconstruction Bank of India (IRBI) was established as per the provisions of the Industrial Reconstruction Bank of India Act, 1984, and the erstwhile Industrial Reconstruction Corporation of India was vested and transferred to the IRBI on that date.

In 1997, IRBI was converted into a company and transformed it into a full pledged financial institution. The Bank was moved into business or activities from simple revival of sick units.

The IRBI gives loans for, modernisation, diversification, expansion and renovation as also for meeting supplementary needs, such as bridging liquidity gap and for working capital requirements. The other forms of assistance include lines of credit, equipment leasing, hire purchase, etc. The Bank extends assistance to small - scale units under its line of credit scheme which is operated through various State level agencies.

To arrest sickness at its incipient stage or to prevent any unit from falling to sickness, the IRBI has been emphasizing the need to obtain economic size of operation, modernisation, diversification, technological upgradation etc. of its assisted units, either singly or jointly in consortium with other all India financial institutions. The IRBI also provides 'consultancy services to banks' and financial institutions on selective basis and 'merchant banking services for amalgamation/merger and reconstruction.

#### **4.6 STOCK HOLDING • CORPORATION OF INDIA**

A new company, namely, the Stock Holding Corporation of India Ltd, (SHCI), was recently established with its registered office in Bombay, in order to secure efficient post - trade processing services for transactions in securities carried out by the all - India financial and investment institutions (IDBI, IFCI, ICICI, IRBI, LIC, VTI and GIC), SHCI is owned at the outset by the seven sponsoring institutions. It would hold custody of securities of the sponsoring institutions and handle transfer of securities as also collection of dividend/interest in respect of such securities; on their behalf. After setting up the infrastructural facilities and gaining experience in the field, SHCI would extend its services to other such as stock-brokers and individual investors when it would make a public issue of share capital.

#### **4.7 DISCOUNT AND FINANCE HOUSE OF INDIA**

The Reserve Bank of India, together with public sector banks and financial institutions, has recently set up a company called the Discount and Finance House of India Limited (DEFI), to deal in short - term assets in order to provide liquidity in the money market.

#### **4.8 STATE FINANCIAL CORPORATION**

The State Financial Corporations Act, 1951, has enabled the State Government to Set up State Financial Corporations (SFCs) to function as regional development banks, making a significant contribution to the industrial advancement of their respective States.

The SFCs are meant to finance small and medium-scale industries.

A part from their share capital, the SFCs depend for financial resources on repayment on loans and, income from investments, issue of bonds, refinancing of loans from the IDBI and to a limited extent on - borrowings from the RBI, deposits from the public and occasionally loans from the State Government.

The SFCs do not normally lead more than Rs.60 lakhs to a single concern. The prohibition is intended to ensure that the SFCs do not deviate from the main objective of their creation, namely, catering, to the requirements of the small and medium - scale sectors. The large concerns can approach the all India financial institutions - IFC, IDBI and ICICI.

Loans or advances are granted primarily for the establishment of new industries or, for expansion and development of existing industrial concerns. Loans to the new industrial concerns will be considered where a feasible scheme has been prepared, and the initial capital has been collected by the

prospective-industrial unit. In case of existing industrial concerns loans are granted for the purpose of expansion or renovation of units. In both the cases, loans are granted for the purpose of acquiring tangible assets in the form of loans are granted for importing plant and machinery, other accessories and machine tools and technical knowhow, in special cases. With the exception of shipping; SFCs are now empowered to assist all industrial activities, including mining, transport by rope ways and development of industrial areas.

## TYPES OF ASSISTANCE

Financial assistance from State Financial Corporations takes the following forms :-

- (i) Granting of loans or advances and subscribing to the debentures of industrial concerns, repayable within a period of not exceeding twenty years,
- (ii) Guaranteeing, loans raised by industrial concerns in the capital market or from scheduled banks or state co-operative banks.
- (iii) Guaranteeing deferred payments due, from any industrial concern in connection with its purchase of capital goods within India.
- (iv) Underwriting issues of stocks, shares, bonds or debentures by industrial concerns.
- (v) Subscribing to the stocks, bonds or debentures of an industrial concern out of the funds representing the special class of share capitals subscribed by the State Government and IDBI in accordance with the provisions of Section 4A of the SFCs Act, 1951.

The main activity of the SFCs is providing loans and some of them also underwrite shares of industrial concerns. The **SFCs** grant loans mainly for the acquisition of fixed assets like land, buildings and plant and machinery. Sometimes they also provide loans for working capital margin in combination with loans for acquisition of fixed assets.

SFCs are also providing foreign currency loans small and medium - scale industrial units for import of plant and/or technical know-how under the IDA - World Bank Credits to IDBI.

## 4.9 STATE INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT CORPORATIONS

Since 1960, many States and Union Territories have set up State Industrial Development Corporations (SIDCs) / State Industrial Investment Corporations (SIICs), with the main object of accelerating the industrial development of the respective States, and Union-territories.

The SIDCs/SIICs have been promoted by the State and Union Territories as promotional bodies entrusted with the major task of promoting industries and ensuring balanced regional growth within each state.

For efficiently carrying out the functions of promotion, improvement and development of industries, these Corporations are empowered to plan, formulate and execute industrial undertakings, project or enterprise which is likely to accelerate industrial development. Further, they promote medium/large industrial ventures as joint sector units in collaboration with private entrepreneurs, or as wholly owned subsidiaries and provide risk capital to new generation entrepreneurs. Various incentive schemes of Central / State Government are also administered through them.

These Corporations undertake a wide range of functions. The important functions are :

- (1) Grant of financial assistance, to industrial concerns in the form of :

- (a) direct investment
  - (b) loans
  - (c) extension of guarantee for loans and deferred payments, and -
  - (d) underwriting and subscription, to the issue of shares, bonds and debentures;
- (2) Promotion and management of industrial concerns:
  - (3) Provision of industrial sheds/plots; and
  - (4) Promotional activities such as identification of project ideas, selection and training of entrepreneurs, provision of technical assistance during project implementation etc.

The Corporation in State in like Karnataka and Bihar, are empowered to undertake special activities like establishing and managing industrial estates, development of industrial areas, generation transmission and sale of electricity etc.

Out of the 26 Corporation in operation in the century in 1986-87 nine were also functioning as SFCs.

#### **4.10 FOREIGN CAPITAL**

The government has decided to consider applications, for direct foreign investment by NRIs upto 100% in areas other than the 34 items mentioned in *Annexure III* of the industrial policy.

However, there will be no automatic clearance for such proposals.

Even in areas still reserved for the Public Sector (telecommunication, hydrocarbons, coal, railways and postal services) the Government now has a more liberal approach towards private investment, including: foreign, investment.

In 1994-95, foreign investment was opened for NRI and persons of Indian origin in a wider range of construction and real estate, related activities. Foreign investment was also allowed in constructing and operating highways, expressways and bridges on a toll tax system, generating electricity on build-operate own (BOO) basis, telephone services and certain operations in railways on build-operate - ease-transfer BOLT basis. Without prior approvals, foreign investors can now own upto 24 per cent equity in any Indian, firm and upto 20 per cent in new private bank.

The government will also consider applications for direct foreign investment by NRIs upto 100 per cent in areas other than the industries mentioned *Annexure III* of the industrial Policy. However, there will be no automatic clearance for such proposals.

In 1996-97, the following changes have been effected in respect of foreign, investment.

1. The list of industries eligible for automatic approval upto 51 per cent foreign equity has been expanded from 35 to 48,
2. Three industries relating to mining activity have been made eligible for automatic approval upto 50 per cent foreign equity.
3. Automatic approval for foreign equity participation upto 74 per cent has been allowed in 9 categories of industries including key infrastructure sectors (such as electricity; generation and transmission, non-conventional energy generation and distribution ; construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, waterways, tunnels, pipelines, industrial power plants ports,

runways, and harbours ; exploration, production of POL. And gas ; manufacture of iron ore pellets, pig iron and steel; etc.).

4. Foreign Investment Promotion Council (FIPC) has been set-up to prepare project reports in selected thrust areas and thereby to facilitate the flow of foreign investment to the country.
5. Foreign Investment Promotion Board (FIPB) has been exemplified for making rules and regulations pertaining to forcing investment more transparent.
6. The first **ever** guidelines have been announced by the Government for consideration of foreign investment/proposals by the FIPB which are not covered under the automatic route and priority areas for following 100 per cent foreign equity has been spelt out.
7. Foreign Institutional Investors (FIIs) have been allowed to make equity, investments in unlisted companies and the limit of investment of 5 percent of total equalities in a single company by an individual FII has been raised; to 10 per cent. The guidelines for Euro issues **and ECB** have **been liberalised to** ease the **access of Indian companies, to international capital markets.**

### **GUIDELINES, FOR FOREIGN INVESTMENT**

In January, 1997, Government of India announced the first ever guidelines for foreign investment, with a view to *inter alia*, facilitating expeditious approach of FDI in areas not cared under automatic approval. The salient features of the Guidelines are the following.

- (i) Priority areas for FDI include infrastructures export potential large scale employment potential, particularly for rural areas; items with linkages with the farm sector, social sector projects like hospitals, health care and medicines; and proposals that - lead to induction, of technology and infusion of capital.
- (2) FDI approvals will be subject to sectoral caps [20 per cent (40 per cent for NRIs) in the banking sector **51**, per cent in non – banking financial companies without any special conditions, (100 percent with specified minimum levels of foreign investment); 100 per cent in power, roads, ports, tourism, and venture capital funds ; 49 per cent in the telecommunications; 40 per cent (100 percent of (NRIs) in domestic air-taxi operation/airlines; 24 per cent in small – scale industries; 51 per cent in drugs / pharma industry for bulk drugs; 100 percent in petroleum; and 50 per cent in mining except for gold, silver, diamonds, and precious stones.
- (3) Hundred per cent equity may be allowed in those cases where the foreign company has expressed inability to find a suitable Indian Joint venture partner, subject to the condition that the foreign investor will divest at least 26 per cent of its equity in favour of Indian parties within 3 to 5 years;
- (4) Foreign companies may be allowed to set-up 100 per cent companies on the basis of the following criteria,
  - (a) Where only holding operation is involved and all development investments to be earned out need prior approval.
  - (b) Where proprietary technology to be protected or sophisticated technology is proposed to be brought in.
  - (c) Where at least 50 percent of production is exported.

- (d) Consultancy proposals.
- (e) Projects in power, roads, ports and industrial towns and estates.
- (5) Permission may also be given to proposals for 100 per cent trading firm for exports bulk imports, cash-and-carry wholesale trading and other import of goods and services, provided at least 75 per cent is for procurement and sale of goods and services among group firms.

#### **4.11 FII INVESTMENT**

The Indian stock market was opened up to FII Investment in 1992-93 and since then there has been a significant increase in the portfolio investment by FIIs.

The Regulation of Foreign Institutional Investors which were notified on November 14, 1995, contains various provisions relating to definition of general obligations and responsibilities of FIIs.

- (a) Securities in the primary and Secondary markets including shares, debentures and warrants of companies listed on a recognized stock exchange in India and;
- (b) Units of scheme floated by domestic mutual funds including Unit Trust of India. Whether listed on a recognised stock exchange or not.

Joint ventures between a variety of domestic and foreign securities firms have been approved in the stock - broking, merchant, banking, asset management, and other non-bank financial services sectors. The overall effect to FII investment and financial joint - ventures has been the introduction of international practices and systems to the Indian Securities industry.

FIIs are permitted to invest in a company up to an aggregate of 24 per cent of equity shares. According to the modification announced in the Union Budget 2000 -21, it can go up to 40 percent subject to the approval of the Board of Directors of the company, and a special Resolution of the General Body.

#### **EURO ISSUES**

As mentioned earlier, since 1992-93. Indian companies satisfying certain Conditions, are allowed to access foreign capital markets by Euro-issues of Global 'Depository Receipts (GDRs) and Foreign Currency Convertible Bonds (FCCBs).

"A Depository Receipt is basically a negotiable certificate, denominated in US dollars, that represents a non-US company's publicly traded local currency (Indian Rupee) equity shares. DRs are treated when the local currency shares of an Indian company (for example) are delivered to the depository's local custodian bank, against which the Depository Bank (such as the Bank of New York) issues DRs in US dollars. The Depository Receipts may trade freely in the overseas markets like any other dollar-denominated security, either on a foreign stock exchange, or in the over-the-counter market, or among a restricted group such as qualified institutional buyers.

The prefix global implies that the DRs are marketed globally rather than in a specific, country or market.

Companies with good track record of three years may avail of Euro issues for approved purposes. According to the raised guidelines issued in November, 1995 companies investing in infrastructure projects, including power, petroleum exploration and refining, telecommunications, ports, roads and airports are exempted from the condition of three-year track record. It is expected to help companies in the infrastructure sectors to access cheap overseas funds.

According to the changes in the ECB guidelines announced in June, 1996, all infrastructure and greenfield project have been permitted to avail of ECB to the extent of 35 per cent of total project cost. However, greater flexibility is allowed on merit to power projects. In January, 1997, the ECB limit for telecommunication sector was raised to 50 per cent of the total project cost.

In 1999, Government announced a policy to allow Indian companies to raise funds through issue of ADRs/GDRs without prior government approval 50 per cent to these proceeds can be used for acquisitions abroad. Software companies may be acquired abroad through stock step option upto \$100 million on an automatic basis.

In 2000, this ceiling was increased to \$ 50 million from \$ 15 million for Indian Corporates in other sectors.

### **FISCAL POLICY AND GROWTH PERFORMANCE OF THE ECONOMY**

Fiscal policy influences growth performance of an economy mainly in two ways. In the first place, it affects growth by influencing the mobilisation of resources for development. Secondary, it exercises its influence by improving the efficiency of resource allocation.

### **FISCAL POLICY AND RESOURCE MOBILISATION**

India has done extremely well in terms of the effort in 1950-51 when the planning process was initiated the tax/GDP ratio was as low as 6.0 percent. Since then it rose steadily for four decades and stood at 16.6 per cent in 1991-92. During the 1990s the tax - GDP ratio registered a decline and was 14.2 per cent in 1999-2000. For a poor country like India which started its development effort with a very low per capita income and has recorded an extremely modest rate, of growth (that is around 2.06 per cent per annum increase; in NNP" per capita). This record in mobilising tax revenue is good by any standard. In India, all the major 'axes, except personal income tax and land revenue, have recorded buoyancy greater than unity. In recent years buoyancy of Union excise duty and sales tax has been as high as 1.51, and 1.41 respectively. Obviously this has enabled far greater mobilisation of resources through taxation than what one would normally expect in the conditions prevailing in India. However, it has not been admitted that there still remains some scope for raising additional tax revenue in the country. In India, revenue collection from direct, taxes to internal debt. The resources for this purpose can be raised by disinvesting in public enterprises and selling a part of vast real estate that the government owns in the country.

Non-interest expenditure, In India, there is not much scope for raising tax revenue. According to Chelliah neither, it is feasible nor desirable to plan for a buoyancy in tax-revenues of more than 1.1 or so. Therefore, if fiscal deficit is to be brought down the growth of all the major categories of non-interest expenditure has to be slowed down considerably. In some cases it is both desirable and feasible to effect reduction in the expenditure. From its point of view experts now particularly mention subsidies, capital assistance to non-viable and inefficient enterprises, government's consumption: expenditure related to staff and defence expenditure.

In 1990-91 major subsidies added upto Rs. 9,581 crore. In principle though the government decided to cut down subsidies, "in practice it failed to do that, as they rose from Rs. 9,581 crore in 1990-91 to Rs. 23, 160 crore (R.E.) in 1999-2000. The government has reduced the export subsidy but is finding it difficult to cut down the fertilizer and food subsidies due to "resistance from the big farmers' lobby. In future the government will have to muster the political will to eliminate fertilizer subsidy.



As far as the food subsidy is concerned. It should be drastically pruned and in any case should be provided to the weaker, sections of the society only. The government has reduced budgetary support to the plan investment by public enterprises. In future non-viable public enterprises should be closed down and other loss making enterprises should be advised to revise their pricing policies to wipe out their process. Regarding the government's consumption expenditure related to staff, there seems to be no choice except to reduce it. **Over** the years the government will have to **find** ways and means to shed the surplus staff. Meanwhile, austerity measures must be imposed on all government personnel. Containment of the growth considerably scope to enhance the cost effectiveness of the defence expenditure. In case his task is undertaken earnestly, then there is no reason, why at least in the short run defence expenditure on revenue account cannot be kept constant in real terms.

### **THEMES OF THE 'NEW FISCAL POLICY'**

In the broad framework of the economic liberalisation approach of the recent years, the major themes of the fiscal policy have been concentrated in this country. There is broad agreement on these themes, and they can be summarised as follows.

1. A systematic effort to *simplify* both the tax structure and the tax laws ;
2. a deliberate, shift to a regime of *reasonable direct tax rates, combined with better administration and enforcement*, to improve compliance, and raise revenues;
3. The fostering of a *stable and predictable* tax policy environment;
4. Greater recognition and weight given to *resource allocation and equity consequences of taxation*.
5. More reliance on *non-discretionary fiscal and financial instruments* in managing the economy, as compared to ad hoc discretionary physical controls;
6. Concerted efforts to *improve tax administration* and reduce the scope for arbitrary harassment;
7. Growing appreciations, of the *links between fiscal and monetary policy*;
8. Fresh initiative to *strengthen methods of expenditure control*."

### **FISCAL REFORMS PROGRAMME FOR STATES**

The main, objective of Fiscal Reforms Programme for States was to improve that Balance on Current Revenues and reduce revenue deficit in the medium term. Thirteen States—Andhra Pradesh, Assam; Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim and Uttar Pradesh evolved and undertook their own Fiscal Reform Programme and also entered into an agreement with the Central government in 1999-2000:

The Fiscal Reforms Programme and Fiscal Reforms Facility, was one-time programme which was implemented in 1999-2000, Under the Fiscal Reform Facility extended, ways and means advance of **Rs. 2,570 crore** was provided to these States. In addition, seven states were also allowed additional market borrowing of Rs. 1,920 crore. The Eleventh Commission has suggested a minorable fiscal, reforms programme for the States in its supplementary Report.

### **FISCAL RESPONSIBILITY AND BUDGET MANAGEMENT BILL**

The committee of Fiscal Responsibility Legislation was constituted on January 17, 2000 to look into various aspects of fiscal system and recommend a draft legislation on fiscal responsibility, of

government. It was also announced in the Budget 2000-2001 that the government intended to create a strong institutional mechanism embodied in Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management Bill 2000 was introduced in Lok Sabha in December, 2000.

The proposed law attempts to fix up responsibility, on the government to strengthen the institutional framework for adopting a prudent fiscal policy and pave the way for adopting a prudent fiscal policy and pave the way for accomplishing macro-economic stability. The proposed legislation in operational terms aims at eliminating revenue deficit and progressive reduction of the fiscal deficit to not more than 2 per cent of GDP within five years of the promulgation of the law. However, the proposed legislation ...will ensure flexibility in fiscal management under - extraordinary circumstances such as war and natural calamities. Regarding public debt it is proposed that total liabilities, including external debt, are to be brought down to less than 50 per cent of GDP in a period of ten years. Moreover, the proposed legislation provides for prohibiting certain types of borrowing from the RBI. Thus the proposed Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management legislation in essence an attempt to deny freedom to future governments in respect of fiscal management. The proposed legislation binds future governments to a pre-specified fiscal policy framework which is an entirely anti-democratic measure undertaken by ARDC. Though development, of institutional industrial finance is not a statutory obligation of the RBI, yet in the context of planned economic development it has assumed great importance. In a backward economic system importance of industrial development can be recognised from the fact that often the level of its 'economic development, capital is of crucial importance. Normally commercial banks avoid giving long-term credit. For, meeting this financial requirement of the industry a country must have specialised institutions of industrial finance. In India got Independence, there was no such institution of the country. Thus at the initiative of the Central government the RBI actively participated in the establishment of various specialised institutions of industrial finance. Including the Industrial Finance Corporation of India and State Financial Corporations. The Industrial Development Bank of India was set up as subsidiary of the RBI. However, later on it was made an autonomous institution.

We have earlier pointed out that the RBI, besides being a controller of credit, is also an adviser to the government. The significance of the RBI's advisory function has considerably increased in the context of government's attempts to accelerate, the development process in the country. Now the Central bank, it now plays useful role in the planning process of country.

#### **4.14 MONETARY POLICY OF THE RESERVE BANK OF INDIA**

The monetary policy : often refers to a regulatory policy whereby the central bank maintains its control over the supply for money for the realisation of general economic goals. The concept of monetary policy, may be right in the context—of developed economies, but in less developed countries like India, monetary policy cannot remain confined only to controlling the supply for money. In other words, monetary policy, if it does not play any positive role will serve only a limited purpose. 'Viewing the Reserve Bank's monetary policy in this framework we find it serves only a limited purpose. Viewing the particular requirements of India's developing economy. Aptly summarising the RBI's monetary policy a growing economy there has to be a continuous expansion, of money supply and bank credit find the in the circumstances in mainly to moderate the expansion of credit and money supply, in such a way as to avoid speculative purposes. That is why the Bank has rightly called its credit policy in recent years as one of controlled expansion.

The Chakravarty Committee has emphasized that price stability, growth equity and social justice, promoting and nurturing new monetary and financial institutions have been important objectives of monetary policy in India. The difficulty in formulating and implementing on a continuous **basis**. This cannot be done independently by the **RBI's** monetary policy has to subserve the national economic, and on the monetary policy options of the RBI. The inflationary pressures in India have often warranted a check on a growth of money supply, but the need to prevent the adverse effects of restricting the flow of bank desired stability in prices. Thus in a country like India the **thrust** of monetary policy cannot be restricted to regulation of money supply alone. Nonetheless, it has to be admitted that the price stability and money supply is necessary to achieve these objectives.

Y. Venugopal Reddy has however remarked, In India monetary policy has always emphasized the objectives of price stability and growth. What this, in effect has meant in practical policy setting is formulating a balance between the two objectives depending on the situation but in the broad context as such cannot, to be objective of monetary policy. He in fact, emphasises the point that the RBI at best should attempt to maintain the rate of inflation within a reasonable limit which according to C. Rangarajan is 5 to 6 per cent per annum.

In order to ensure RBI's complete control over the supply of money and credit, it has been given exclusive power to issue currency notes. For judging how far the RBI has succeeded in achieving this objective, one has to know the relative importance of various types of money in circulation in the country. In certain countries, the legal tender money (coins, and paper money) is the predominant medium of exchange. In other countries the place of legal tender money is relatively secondary and most payments are made through cheques. Whereas the former type of monetary system is to be found in France the latter is to be found in England and United States. The nature of the monetary system in India due to predominance of legal tender money thus resembles the French monetary system rather than the British or the American.

In India, presently both currency notes and cheques are used for payment purpose—coins constitute a very small part of money supply in the country and they are now used, for making small payments. On December 29, 2000 the total money supply ( $M_1$ ) in the country was Rs. 3,64,781 crore.  $M_1$  is money supply in the narrow sense. It includes (i) currency with the public, (ii) demand deposits with banks, and (iii) other deposits with the Reserve Bank of India. The last one is a very small component of  $M_1$  and is thus not considered in any monetary analysis. On December 29, 2000 the amount of currency with the public was Rs. 2,04,492 crore and demand deposit and amounted to Rs. 1,57,727 crore. The currency with the public and the demand deposits with the banks thus accounted for 56.1 per cent and 43.2. Nowadays a broader concept of money supply, that is  $M_1$  is used  $M_2$  includes  $M_3$  and time deposits with banks. On December 29, 2000 the amount of  $M_3$  was **Rs. 12,61,770 crore** of which time deposits with the banks were Rs. 8,96,989 crore.

In monetary economics, control of money supply usually refers to the supply of currency and deposit money.

#### **4.15 NEW INDUSTRIAL POLICY, 1991 :**

In line with the liberalisation measures announced during the eighties the government announced New Industrial Policy on July, 24, 1991. The new policy de-regulates the industrial economy in substantial manner. The major objectives of the new policy are to build on the gains already made, correct the distortions or weakness that might have crept, in maintain a sustained growth in productivity the gainful employment, and attain international competitiveness. In pursuit of these objectives,

the government announced a series of initiatives a series of initiatives in the new industrial policy as outlined below:

Abolition of industrial licensing. In a major move to liberalise the economy, the new industrial policy abolished all industrial licensing irrespective of the level of investment, except for 18 industries related to security and strategic concerns, social reasons, concerns related to safety and over riding environment issues manufacture of products hazardous nature and articles of elitist consumption; However, of these 18 industries, three industries (motor cars, white goods and raw hides and skins and leather) were delicensed in April 1993 entertainment electronics industry and asbestos - based products, plywood and other wood and paper and newsprint) in July 1997; and three industries (coal and lignite, petroleum -products and sugar), in 1998-99. Thus, at present only 6 items of health strategic and security considerations, remain under the preview of industrial licensing, (listed in Annexure II of the policy). These are alcohol, cigarettes, hazardous chemicals, electronics aerospace and defence equipment, industrial explosives, and drugs and pharmaceuticals (excepting bulk drugs, which have been delicensed).

In respect of delicensed industry, no approval is required from the government. However, entrepreneurs are required to submit an industrial Entrepreneur Memorandum (IEM) to the Secretariat for industrial Approvals (SIA) which acknowledges receipt. Since the announcement of new industrial policy till November 2000, 40,890 IEMs involving an estimated investment of Rs. 8,52,190 crore and employment of more than 69 lakh persons were filed. During the same period 3,556 -LOIs (letters of intent) involving a proposed investment of Rs. 1,05,534 crore and proposed employment of 8.02 lakh were filed.

Public sector's role diluted. The 1956 Resolution had reserved 17 industries for the public sector. The 1991 industrial policy reduced this number to 8 : (1) arms and ammunition, (2) atomic energy, (3) coal and lignite, (4) mineral oils, (5) mining of iron ore and manganese, (6) chorm ore, gypsum, sulphur, gold and diamond (7) mining of copper, lead zinc, tin, molybdenum and use order), 1953, and (8) rail transport. In 1993, item 5 and 6 were deleted from the reserved list. In 1998-99 items, 3 and 4 were also taken out from the reserve. On May 9, 2001, the government opened up arms and ammunition sector also to the private sector. This now leaves only 3 industries reserved exclusively for the public sector.

**The new industrial policy also** states that the government will undertake review of the existing public-enterprises in low technology, small scale and non-strategic areas so as also when there is low or nil social consideration or public purpose. Sick units will be referred - to the Board for industrial, and financial Reconstitution (or a similar body) for advice about rehabilitation and reconstruction. For enterprises remaining in the public sector, it is stated that they be provided it much greater degree of management autonomy through the system of, MOU (memorandum of understanding).

The government has also announced its intention to offer a part of government shareholding in the public sector enterprises to mutual funds, financial institutions, the general public and the workers. A beginning in this direction was made in **1991-92** itself, by divesting part or equities of selected public sector enterprises. Over the period **1991-92** to **1999-2000**, the government has raised **Rs. 18,638 crore** through this means. The new industrial policy indicates the government's intention to invite a greater degree, of participation by the private sector in important areas of economy.

MBTP limit goes. Under the MKTP Act, all firms with assets a certain size (Rs. 100 crore since 1985) were classified as MRTP firms. Such firms were permitted to enter selected industries

only and this also on a case by case approval basis. In addition to control through industrial licensing, separate approvals were required by such large firms in their plans for growth and diversification. The new industrial policy therefore scrapped the threshold limit of assets in respect of MRTP and dominant undertakings. These firms will now be at par with others, and required prior approval from the government undertakings. These firms will now be at par with others, and not require prior approval from the government for investment in the declining industries. The MRTP Act has accordingly been amended. The now amended Act gives more emphasis to the prevention and control of monopolistic, restrictive and unfair trade practices so that consumers are adequately protected from such practices.

Free entry to foreign investment, and technology. As in the case of domestic industrial investment, foreign investment has also been traditionally regulated in India. In the case of both foreign technology agreements sought by Indian firms as well as foreign investment, it was necessary to obtain government interference and also government business decision-making. Therefore, the new industrial policy prepared a specified list of high technology and high-investment priority industries (listed in Annexure III) where automatic permission was to be made available for direct foreign investment up to 51 percent, foreign equity. The industries in which automatic approval was granted included a wide range of industrial activities in the capital goods and metallurgical industries, entertainment electronics, food processing and the services sectors having significant export potential. Besides, these included a number of other industries which are important for the rapid growth of the country.

In January, 1997, the government also announced the first ever guidelines for foreign direct investment for expeditious approval of foreign investment in areas covered under automatic approval. Priority areas for foreign-direct investment proposals as mentioned in the guidelines included infrastructure, export potential, large-scale employment potential particularly in rural areas, items with linkages with the firm sector, social sector projects like hospitals, healthcare and medicines, and proposals that lead to induction of technology and infusion of capital. Foreign direct investment approvals will, however, be subject to sectoral caps: 20 per cent (40 per cent for NRIs) in the banking sector; 51 per cent in non-banking financial companies; 100 per cent in power, roads, ports, tourism and venture capital funds; 49 per cent in telecommunications; 40 per cent (100 per cent for NRIs) in domestic air taxi operations; airlines; 24 per cent in small – scale industries; 51 per cent in drugs and pharmaceuticals for bulk drugs; 100 per cent in petroleum; and 50 per cent in mining except for gold, silver, diamonds and precious stones.

The list of industries eligible for foreign direct equity investment under the automatic approval route by Reserve Bank was further expanded in 1997 and 1998-99. In 1997-98, equity investment up to 100 per cent by NRIs/OCBs (Overseas Corporate Bodies) was permitted in high priority industries. These included 9 high priority industries in metallurgical and infrastructure sectors and 13 other priority industries, hitherto eligible for 74 per cent and 51 per cent equity investment respectively. Foreign equity investment in mining (3 categories of industries) was also allowed up to 100 per cent for NRIs/OCBs. During 1998-99, the scope of foreign direct equity investment under the automatic approval route of Reserve Bank was enhanced. In a major drive to simplify foreign direct investment procedures, Indian companies were permitted to accept investment under automatic approval route without obtaining prior permission from Reserve Bank of India. Foreign equity up to 100 per cent has been permitted in electricity generation, transmission and distribution (excluding atomic reactor power plants) and in construction and maintenance of roads, highways, vehicular bridges, toll

roads, vehicular tunnels, ports and harbours. However, foreign equity in projects or these industries under the automatic approval route was not to exceed Rs. 1,500 crore,

During 1999-2000, the government decided to put all times under the automatic route of foreign direct investment (FDI) and OCB investment except for a small negative list. The negative list includes all proposals requiring industrial licence under the Industries, (Development and Regulation) Act, 1952 cases having foreign investment more than 24 per cent in the equity capital; of units manufacturing items requiring industrial licence in terms of the locational policy notified under the New Industrial Policy, 1991. Many decisions were taken in 2000-01 also to further liberalise foreign direct investment Policy. Some of the important decisions include : (i) 100 per cent foreign direct investment permitted for Business to e-commerce (ii) removal of cap on investment in the power sector, (iii) 100 per cent foreign direct investment permitted in oil refining ; (iv) 100 per cent foreign direct investment allowed in Special Economic Zones (SEZs) for all manufacturing activity ; (v) 100 per cent foreign direct investment allowed in telecom sector for certain activities with some conditions ; (vi) offshore Venture Capital Funds/ Companies allowed, route subject only to SEBI (Securities and Exchange Board of India); regulations and sector specific caps on foreign direct investment ; (vii) Existing companies with foreign direct investment are eligible for automatic route to undertake additional under automatic route in the Insurance Sector, as prescribed in the Insurance Act, 1999, subject to obtaining a licence from the Insurance Regulatory and Development Authority (IRDA), (ix) automatic route is available to proposals in the Information Technology sector, even when the applicant company has a previous joint venture or technology transfer agreement, in the same field, etc.

On May 9, 2001, the government announced a number of concessions and incentives to foreign direct investment (FDI). The main incentives are as follows : (i) in the pharmaceuticals sector, 100 per cent FDI has been allowed through the automatic route (earlier the limit was 74 per cent); (ii) 100 per cent FDI has been allowed in airports against the prevailing 74 per cent ; (iii) For the hotel and tourism industry the FDI limit has been raised, to 100 per cent through the automatic route from the prevailing 51 per cent; (iv) 100 per cent FDI has been allowed in two fresh areas:— courier services and Mass Rapid Transport System (MRTS) ; (v) 100 per cent FDI has been allowed in township development; (vi) In the telecom sector, FDI limit has been raised to 74 per cent from the existing 49 per cent for Internal Service Providers (ISPs); (vii) Subject to Reserve Bank guidelines, the foreign investment limit in the banking sector has been hiked from 20 per cent to 49 per cent; and (viii) FDI up to 26 per cent has been allowed in defence production.

Industrial location policy liberalised. In departure from the locational policy for industries the new industrial policy provided that in locations other than cities of more than 1 million population, there will be no requirement of obtaining industrial approvals from the centre, except for industries subject to compulsory licensing. In cities with a population of more than 1 million, industries other than those of a non-polluting nature, were required to be located outside 25 kms. of the periphery.

Major amendment in the industrial location policy was effected during 1997-98. The requirement of obtaining industrial approvals, from the Central government (except for the industries under compulsory licensing) for establishing units at locations not falling within 25 kms of the periphery of cities having a population of more than 1 million was dispensed with. However, notified industries of a non-polluting nature such as electronics, computer software and printing, may be located within 25 kms of the periphery of cities with more than 1 million population. Other industries are permitted only if they are

located in designated industrial areas setup prior to July, 25, 1991. **Zoning** and Land Use Regulations as well as Environment Legislation continue to regulate industrial locations.

**Abolition of Phased Manufacturing Programmes** for new projects. To force the pace of industrialisation in manufacturing. Phased Manufacturing Programmes have been in force in a number of engineering and electronics industries. The new industrial policy has abolished such programmes in future as the government feels that due to substantial reforms made in the trade policy and the devaluation of the rupee, there is no longer any need for enforcing the local content requirement on a case-by-case, administrative basis. Various incentives that are currently available to manufacturing units with existing phased Manufacturing Programmes will continue.

**Removal of mandatory convertibility clause.** A large part of industrial investment in India is financed by loans from banks and financial institutions. These institutions have followed a mandatory practice of including a convertibility clause in their lending operations for new projects. This has provided them an option of converting part of their loans into equity if felt necessary by their management; Although this option has not generally been exercised, it has been interpreted as an unwarranted threat to private firms of takeover by financial institutions. The new industrial policy has provided that henceforth financial institutions will not impose this mandatory convertibility clause.

## **APPRAISAL OF NEW INDUSTRIAL POLICY**

We have mentioned in the chapter on 'Industrial Development During Planning Period' that the period of eighties was marked by industrial recovery after a phase of industrial stagnation spanning over almost a decade and half. Some economists have argued that a major factor accounting for this industrial recovery was the series of liberalisation measures announced by the government in the eighties. If one accepts this position then the logical conclusion is that more liberalisation will result, in still faster industrial growth. If one sees the new industrial policy in this context, one can argue that it will pave the way for higher rates of industrial growth in a sustained way in future.

According to J.C. Sandesara, the new industrial policy seeks to raise efficiency and accelerate industrial production in five different ways.

### **4.8 Self Check Questions**

1. Define development financial institution.
2. What is foreign capital?
3. Discuss the functions of IDBI.
4. What is Monetary Policy?

### **4.9 Summary**

Finance is a prerequisite to mobilise real resources for organizing production in a developing economy, lack of finance is not the only deterrent to economic development. A development bank is a multipurpose institution which shares entrepreneurial risk, changes its approach in tune with the industrial climate and encourages new industrial projects to bring about speedier economic growth. Monetary policy is about supply of the currency in the country, regulated by the RBI. Though the RBI does it in the light of the fiscal policy and macro objectives of the government, it is in this sense that fiscal policy and monetary policy are complementary. There are various factors affecting money supply in India. Some of them are as follows: net bank credit to the bank, bank credit to the commercial sector, net foreign exchange assets of the banking sector, government currency liabilities to the public, non-

monetary liabilities of the banking sector. There is a direct relationship between supply of money and inflation. As the supply of money increases, its value goes down and inflation increases. Supply of money has also an impact on the interest rate and level of investment.

#### 4.10 Glossary

**Bank Rate:** The bank rate, which is also known as discount rate, is the rate at which the central bank discounts advances to the commercial banks.

**Cash Reserve Ratio:** The CRR refers to the cash that banks have to maintain with the RBI as a certain percentage of their demand and time liabilities.

**Liquidity Adjustment Facility (LAF):** In LAF the amount of REPO and reverse REPO are changed on a daily basis to manage liquidity.

**Monetary Aggregates:** These are two basic measures of money globally.

**Open Market Operations:** The open market operation involves the sale and purchase of government securities by the RBI.

**REPOs:** A REPO is purchase of one loan against the sale of another.

**Selective Credit Control:** Selective and qualitative credit control refers to regulations of credit for specific purposes or branches of economic activity.

**Foreign institutional investors:** Foreign institutional investors (FIIs) are those institutional investors which invest in the assets belonging to a different country other than that where these organizations are based.

**Foreign Direct Investment:** A foreign direct investment (FDI) is an investment in the form of a controlling ownership in a business in one country by an entity based in another country. It is thus distinguished from a foreign portfolio investment by a notion of direct control.

#### 4.11 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See the section no. 4.1, lesson 4
2. See the section no. 4.10, Lesson 4
3. See the section no. 4.2, Lesson 4
4. See the section no. 4.14, Lesson 4

#### 4.13 Terminal Questions

1. Discuss the factors which influence the supply of money in the country.
2. Discuss how Monetary Policy influences inflation.
3. Discuss the relation between inflation and interest rates.
4. "Monetary Policy and Fiscal Policy are complementary." Discuss the statement.
5. Describe, in brief, the function of IDBI.
6. Discuss how the RBI regulates the supply of money in the country.

#### 4.12 Suggested Readings

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.



3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media
4. Bedi Suresh (2006). *Business Environment*, Excel Books,
5. Mishra, Puri (2006). *Economic Environment of Business*, Himalaya Publications House.

\*\*\*\*\*

**LESSON-5****SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT****Structure**

- 5.0 Learning Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Social Interdependence
- 5.3 Difference between the Modern Society and Traditional Society
- 5.4 The Industrial Revolution
- 5.5 Social Responsibility of Business
- 5.6 Social Environment in India
- 5.7 Consumerism
- 5.8 Consumer Protection in India
- 5.9 Self-check Questions
- 5.10 Summary
- 5.11 Glossary
- 5.12 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 5.13 Terminal Questions
- 5.14 Suggested Readings

**5.0 Learning Objectives**

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to :

1. Understand the traditional and modern society.
2. Describe corporate social responsibility of business.
3. Discuss consumerism and consumer protection act.

**5.1 Introduction**

Society means all the people who influence us whether they are living in our country, or in the outside world. Society is very important to human beings for the following reasons.

It fulfils all our needs whether of food, clothing, housing, education etc.

It enables us to exchange our ideas and knowledge with others and thus to further develop culture and civilization.

- ♦ It provides us an opportunity to develop various virtues through personal experience. Without these virtues a man cannot be called a man.
- ♦ From times immemorial society has provided protection and shelter to man.

## 5.2 SOCIAL INTERDEPENDENCE

Social interdependence, means that every person has to depend on society for the fulfillment of his needs. This will be clear from the following examples.

- ♦ We need clothes to protect our bodies. To get these, one has to depend on the cooperation of many other people. A person grows cotton, a merchant buys it and sends it to the factory, where many workers weave it into cloth. From the factory it goes to the hands of some merchants and then finally comes to the customers. So to fulfil the need of clothes a person has to depend on so many other members of society.
- ♦ A man needs a house to live in. For this he needs bricks, cement, iron, wood etc. He has to take the help of carpenters, masons and workmen. So to fulfil the need of a house, one has to depend on so many other people.

## 5.3 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE MODERN SOCIETY AND THE TRADITIONAL PRE-INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

Following are the two main differences between the modern society and the traditional society:

- ♦ In the modern society, industries have developed rapidly along with the progress of science. So, the modern society has many facilities (e.g. modern means of communications, entertainment, etc.) which were not available in the traditional society.
- ♦ The structure of the modern society is different from that of the traditional society. There used to be small states in the traditional society but in the modern society states are quite big, they are now nation states.

## 5.4 THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The revolution which changed the whole system of production and laid the foundation of factories is often known as the Industrial Revolution, it has greatly affected urban life, especially in the following spheres :

- ♦ As a result of the Industrial Revolution many new industrial towns came into being.
- ♦ A large number of people started migrating to big cities after leaving old villages.
- ♦ The Industrial Revolution gave rise to new problems, it created many slums where people began to live like cattle. With the rise of unplanned cities there arose the problems of health, housing and sanitation.

## MAIN POSITIVE EFFECTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution had many good points:

- ♦ As a result of the Industrial Revolution many new inventions were made which resulted in the setting up of huge factories where hundreds of men and women began to work together.
- ♦ The use of machines enabled man to produce a great variety of things in large numbers and at a faster pace.
- ♦ As a result of the Industrial Revolution a large number of people began to work in factories, as an alternative to agriculture thus reducing pressure on land cultivation.

- ♦ Many new cities came into existence and their population demographic, shifts happened which helped in developing various parts of the concerned country.

### **MAIN EVILS OF INDUSTRIALISM**

Following are the three main evils of industrialism:

- ♦ The condition of workers in early days of industrialisation became deteriorate due to exploitation.
- ♦ The population of cities increase at such a rapid speed that they soon become overpopulated and overcrowded.
- ♦ Along with overcrowding of cities come the problems of health, housing and sanitation come along,

### **5.5 SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF BUSINESS**

One of the most revolutionary changes in capitalism over the last 50 years has been the development of 'conscience'. Private business which is the hard core of this economic system, has realised and has been made to realise by several social economic and political forces that it has social obligation to fulfil besides ensuring its own existence through profitable activity. There is no denying the fact that part of this realisation is not genuine and takes the form of mere lip service which is thought necessary to ensure the survival of private enterprises. But it cannot be denied also that private business does partly realise and recognise the hard reality that a privately owned firm cannot meet the challenge of socialism and allied doctrines unless it sets its house in order changes its outlook and is prepared to play its legitimate role as an organ of society. It will be useful here to go to some of the forces and factors which have persuaded businessmen to consider their responsibilities and the conditions which were favourable to the development of businessmen's concern with social responsibilities. Some of the more important among them are :

The threat of public regulation of private ownership.

The pressure of the labour movement.

The development of moral values and social standards applicable to businessmen.

The development of business, education and contacts with the government and its problems.

Recognition of human factors contributing to the long-term interests of business.

The development of a professional managerial class with a different motivation and point of view due to the separation of ownership from management, in the corporate enterprise.

The increased complexity of the decision-making processes in which many persons participate and in which various points of view and diverse interests are expressed.

The change in public opinion about the role of business in modern society.

These and a number of other social, ethical and economic forces have combined together to make business a socio-economic activity, 'Business is no longer a mere occupation, it is an economic institution, operating, in social environment, an institution that has to reconcile its short-term and long range economic interests with the demands of the society in which it functions; Essentially, it is this which gives rise to the general and specific social responsibilities of business.

While there is no denying the fact that business is an economic performance (as judged against the objectives listed in the foregoing sections), it is also true that business is an organ of society and as

such it must justify its continuance by fulfilling its role and responsibilities to society. One may even go to the extent of asserting that a business enterprise is a trust of the community which must discharge its obligations: towards the various sections of the community. Some of the specific responsibilities of business may be outlined as under :

The enterprise and the shareholders ; In the first place, corporate, business must provide a fair return on capital to shareholders and must provide them with regular, accurate and full information about the working of the enterprise. The shareholders should also meet their obligations by evincing keen interest in company affairs.

**The enterprise and the workers.** It is the responsibility of the management to provide opportunities to the workers for meaningful work. Also, the management of a business should try to win the cooperation of the workers by creating the right conditions in the enterprise. The business enterprise owes it to the workers to provide recognition to the workers unions, accept the workers right to associate, and to help them to develop their own leadership in the union through education. Social security, profit sharing, fair promotions, proper grievance settlement; and employee welfare are some of the other well recognised 'responsibilities of business firms to their employees.

**The enterprise and the consumers :** A business enterprise has the responsibility of providing the goods and other services needed by the community at the most reasonable possible prices. It must guard against adulteration, poor quality, lack of service and courtesy of customers, misleading and dishonest advertising, etc. The consumers also need protection against monopoly and restrictive trade practices. Such protection can be provided best if business learns to play its part with fairness and liberalism.

**The enterprises and the community:** An enterprise must respect the law and pay taxes regularly and honestly. It must behave as a good citizen and take care to avoid bad effluents, smoky chimneys, ugly buildings, and devote attention to housing and workers living conditions. It has the responsibility of maintaining proper relations with the community through the press and its meetings.

It is not enough for a business firm to be conscious, of the need for the discharging of its responsibilities towards different segments of the community. Management of a business, firm has to make conscious efforts towards the establishment of proper relations' with each of these segments. This function of establishing proper relation with all those agencies and person with whom the business firm has to deal goes by the name of public relations, basically, the public relations functions of management is concerned with the establishment of sound and mutually, fruitful relations with the different publics which contribute towards the growth and prosperity of the business firm. These publics include the owners of proprietary concerns the shareholders of a company or the members of cooperative society the employees, consumers the government banking and other financial institutions the other firms in the business and the community at large. In performing the public relations function management of a firm has to develop and maintain a proper liaison with each of these so as to earn their good will and parting and secure their help and cooperation in making the firm more effective in realising its objectives.

## **5.6 SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT IN INDIA**

### **Demographic Characteristics:**

India supports her 1000 millions on a total land area of 2-4 percent of this world 3,000 Indians are born every hour despite family planning measures and add to the one-sixth of the world population. Population in India is growing at the rate 2.13 percent year adding 16 millions people every year and by the end of millennium population may cross one billion mark. Thus, India is richer in man power rather than other natural resources. Birth rate per thousand is about 27 at present. The death rate is about one-third of the birth-rate at present and is planned to slide down at 6.88 by the end of the century. Density of population was 267 in 1991, Kerala having density and Sikkim the lowest.

The size of labour force can be gauged from the age distribution. About 54 percent were in the age group of 15-60 in 1991 census. Female population constitute about 93 percent of the male population. Thus, in a labour force of around 45.5 crores, 23 crore are females. The overall illiteracy rate was 6.5%, On an average, only one out of three people in working population may be literate. Life expectancy of a child born in India is 61 yearly by the turn of nineties and shall go up to 67 by 1994. About 6 crore adults enter our labour market every year. Factory sector in India absorb only 3 lakhs of these entrants annually. Rest have to seek jobs in services sector of agriculture. One third of our existing labour - force in agriculture is already underemployed. The number of unemployed registered in employment exchanges is around 45 millions but the actual unemployed may be thrice the number. As such the level of consumption of daily calories is around 2,000 as compared to biological minimum of around 3,000. Government claims that the people below poverty line who were half the population in mid-seventies have gone to 37 percent in mid-eighties and shall be reduced to one-fourth by 1990.

All India Debt and Investment Survey of 1971-72 concluded that 76 percent of rural household owned assets which were 1 percent of the total rural household owned assets, 4 percent of rich household in rural India own 30 percent of the total assets. The income statistics also reveal a similar picture, 90 percent of the population in rural India has shared only one-third total incremental income in the forty-five years since independence.

There are around 4,000 towns and around 6 lakhs villages in India the urban population is about one-fourth of the total population. The rate of urbanisation may appear to be satisfactory because the urban population has increased from 15 percent during the last forty years. But the phenomenon of urbanisation is not directly related with development in India due to its characteristics as a ver urbanisation under industrialisation. There is shortage of housing in urban areas and about one-fifth of the population lives in urban slums and is closely related with rural nexus they have; Thus there have been pauperisation rather than proletarianisation, of potential industrial labour force after release from bondage of landlordism in rural India and the shortage in urban areas is touching 0.6 crore mark. There are about 12 cities having a population above one million but most of these are having large slums.

### **Caste and Kinship in India :**

The sociologists have widely discussed the ethnic, communal and caste divide in Indian Society. There are dominant castes and communities on the other, there is also a divide on religious regional and language lines, Hinduism is the dominant religion of India's accounting for more than 80 percent of the population. The next important religion is Islam with 'around 7.5 crores of adherents of this faith in the country. Besides, there are Christians, Sikhs, based on the ancient social division of labour. Brahmins were teacher religious guides and preachers. Kshatriyas were the rulers and warriors. Vaishyas were traders businessmen and moneylenders and Sudras were assigned the menial jobs of producing

material wealth as manual labour. The *adivasis* or *vanbhis* **were** outside the caste system and formed the reserved labour force. To perpetuate caste divisions an arrangement had been worked out in village community to reward the artisan/service rendering segments of the community. This system was known as *Jajmani* in Northern India and *Baluta* system in Maharashtra the system even extends to cultivation and there used to be *jajmani* cultivators, who sometimes by tilling large areas emerged to be very powerful. Due to protection of hereditary occupations, this system resulted in confining certain skills only to artisan, priestly or service rendering castes. Though monetisation of economy has wrecked this social division of labour rural industrialisation programmes have to reckon with *Jajmani* based distributions of skills among rural folks. Commodity production has brought into being a contractual relationship which makes service rendering castes free to move to urban areas. However, remnants of *Jajmani* still keep certain artisans tied to village despite the fact remuneration for their services is poor and the technology employed by them remains primitive.

The priestly class, has been able to transfer the *Jajmani* system to traditional unfamiliar domains which have resulted in an unequal relationship between the donor and acceptor families in matrimonial alliances. In traditional business communities, the parent/family of daughter has gifted away even industrial into business which was not their hereditary occupation. *Shau jains* matrimonial alliances with *Dalits* who became *Jajmanis* are the new manifestation of this system.

*Dalits* of schedule tribes were normally outside the caste system and were maintained as a reserve army of labour to discipline *Sudras*. According to 1981 census, there are 10.48 crores *Schedule caste* and 5.16 crores *schedule tribes*. With the passage of time the caste system has grown more complex. There are so called 'backward classes' who are above *sudras* in caste hierarchy but do not fall exactly in the first three hierarchical orders of caste. In fact, taken together constitute the bulk of Indian population.

It is argued that caste and class overlap and at least two-thirds of manual labour comes from 'the under-privileged classes' enumerated above. This is also the official rationalisation for reservations in education state patronage for 'reservations in education state, patronage and jobs on caste basis' rather than following an economic basis. There is a statutory reservation of around one-third seats in academic by bank/financial institutions. *Mandal Commission* has recommended to these backward castes, of late the policy of reservation has become a main bone of contention among the socially mobile has resulted in states competing with increasing the quota which is around 80 percent in some states.

The social fabric of India is sought to be characterised as two Indians the global and peripheral, the classification cuts across the traditional formulations of class analysis, or caste analysis. Articulate social observers like *Rajni Kothari* are taking in terms of two Indian's created due to the particular model of social change adoption in India. The divide is among those who have access to power and those who are marginalised due to a model of nation building which tries to dissolve all diversities social, political regional and cultural, to create one great monolith. Among the marginalised section *Kothari* includes the poor, the untouchable the poor, the untouchables, the tribals the backward classes, the lower castes, religious or linguistic minorities and women. Another variant of model owes its origin to the rise of *Kisan* power which talks of rural and urban divide. Of course, there are other studies which point that cultural tradition of India may blend with the demands of industrialization and may not prove a stumbling block. In fact it is suggested that the rise of an entrepreneurial class in India is closely connected with caste divisions. It has to be noted here that with the onset of globalisation

of culture divide have also gained momentum setting in motion a number of divisions and movements. On weighing the merits and demerits of caste system, it appears that caste has been an inhibiting factor in industrialisation and modernisation of Indian society. It obstructs the mobility and utility of labour creates bottlenecks in creating a free labour market. Caste inhibitions deter the higher castes from taking to manual jobs. Due to the caste inhibitions optimum productivity of human resources become, impossible supported system provided by the kinship and caste network gets limited to trading caste and the Brahmins and Kshatriyas to material prosperity. Thus the entrepreneurial state narrows down. The theory of karma dictated, by birth, kills the initiative and enterprise.

The influence of cultural values based on caste system could have a salutary on the social division of labour resulting in - specialisation in handicrafts and cottage industry but it is certainly detrimental to the development of modern business organisation based on detailed division of labour. The human resources drawn from - caste based societies to their traditional identities and they do not internalise the organisational, secular or democratic culture. Universal outlook needed by the business system operating in such a diverse society as India is also hindered because tradition outweighs the needs for modernisation of outlooks, attitudes and aspirations. Hierarchical structure based on caste in the society interferes with the organisation structures of modern business and makes the latter dysfunctional.

Caste and community division endanger the society stability of India. Communal and caste riots couple with the ethnic and linguistic crises disturb the normal economic and business activities. Moreover, caste may impose restrictions on consumption habits of the adherents of the system and may restrict the industrial market. The participation of women folk in industrial labour force or professions is also adversely affected by the caste and community based value systems. Happily, however, industrialisation and the growth of the tertiary sector in Indian economy has made some dent on traditional social fabric of the society and it is hoped, that by the turn of century when education and industry spread the caste and community based value system. Happily, however, industrialisation and the growth of the tertiary sector in Indian economy has made some dent on traditional social fabric of the society and it is hoped that by the turn of century when education and industry spread the caste barriers will start crumbling.

### **The Structure of Work Forces :**

The labour supply in an economy depends to the labour force participation rate and number of people who are willing to work and the skill levels of the workers. In India there is around 24.46 crores working population available. Of these about 73.456 lakhs are working in factories, 77 lakhs are working in household industries. Manworkers who are engaged for at least 183 days of productive activity are 22.25 crores, Of these more than 68 percent are engaged in agriculture as peasants, of cultivators, If we also include marginal workers, 70.6 per cent of working population is engaged in the 'primary sector, 12.9 per cent are employed in the secondary sector and 16.5 per cent in the tertiary sector. The percentage breakup of population's employment has undergone a negligible change since 1901. In other words, the structure of the society seems to be undergone only a marginal change over last eighty years.

Organised sector accounts for about 2.5 crore workers forming about 10 per cent of the total working population. Of this 70 per cent of organised sector employment is on account of the public sector. In large establishment private sector, employments is in fact going down. In the governmental



sector also disproportionate growth of the services sector is the major source of employment. Thus, productive secondary sector has ceased to be a source of creating employment.

Unemployment statistics talks of the occupational preferences of the labour force. The educational and skill levels of working population are increasing but the employment available is not commensurate with their qualifications. About 10 crore pupils are receiving primary education; 2.5 **crores** stay till the middle-age, 50 lakhs **receive** secondary education and about 30 lakhs get higher education/technical/professional training. As per the registration on employment exchanges around 4.5 percent of job seekers are either professionally or technically trained. Clerical or related services are preferred by around 5 per cent. Production workers are around 8 per **cent**. About 37 percent **of job seekers** are either illiterate **or have** studied below **matric** and about 43 per cent have general education **of** graduation or above.

According to the Economic Census carried out in 1979-80, there were 183.6 lakh enterprises in India (except Assam). These employed 536.7 lakh persons. Among these enterprises 92 per cent were non-agricultural. Rural areas accounted for 61 per cent of the total enterprises. Hired workers in these enterprises were numbering around 290 lakhs which constituted 54 per cent of total employment. Thus wage labour is spreading even in the unorganised sectors.

From the discussion reported above, it is obvious that there is an ample supply of skilled as well as unskilled manpower in India. The productive sector are not expanding fast enough to absorb the job seekers. The pressure for employment seems to be low on account of every low participation rate of women workers in wage labour. Only 16 percent of rural women workers and 7.3 per cent of their urban counterparts participate in organised production or work in the service sector. The dimension of underemployment can be estimated from this fact, if all the women in age group 15-60 opt for work, there will be at least 15 crores more job seekers. Right now, these women are engaged in household jobs. The irony of situation however, is that whereas such a large number of adults are unable to participate in work, child labour is not uncommon in India.

Per capita income in our country is increasing at a slow pace because only a few adults in the household are able to gainfully employ themselves. A per capita income of Rs. 711, as reported in 1985 is not sufficient for subsistence. So on the consumption front, the market which could be 80 crore million units shrinks due to non-availability of purchasing power. Capital intensive production is not a solution to the Indian employment problem, production has to be relatively labour intensive. But the latter calls for less sophisticated technologies and protection of traditional modes of production which, may keep the occupational Structure intact.

While managing business in India, we should be aware that though a single national market, India is a multinational country. Religion has a strong grip on the minds of people and our secularism is skin deep. Even in conducting business affairs, caste, communal or regional prejudices come to the fore. Scientific temper is not prevalent even among our educated elite. They eat, drink, and dress as per the religious taboos on supernatural beliefs as the origins prevent some people from undertaking non-traditional professions. Business is still treated to be a preserve of Vaishyas or Varnias despite entries into various business lines by people from non-traditional castes. Material prosperity is not considered all that important and the philosophy of contentment blunts the achievement notion of an average India.

Women are treated badly by their male counterparts and heavy dowries in matrimonial alliances are not uncommon. Though women are not treated to be equal partners in their parent's income.

Sometimes, factories are handed over as dowries, Quarries in joint families can put the functioning of wellrun business establishments in jeopardy. Caste or kinship network invade work or places. Informal groups come into being on the regional or caste basis. Indian worker is the first generation factor worker and is not able to develop work commitment expected out of him. It is contended by a few sociologists, (Hill Indians are more loyal to their primary groups like caste and family, than to their organisation. Along with modernising influences of industrialisation process of Sanskritisation is going on in the Indian society. Secularism, democratic living have become, a part of our society at a very superficial level only. Paternalistic or authoritarian social structures are more prevalent and our sectarian prejudices refuse to die even in factory for urban sort of setting. In fact irrational rituals which were till early of this century confined to only high castes are taking roots among Shudras. The religious fundamentalism among these productive but ill-educated castes assumes dangerous proportions as was witnessed in November riots of 1984 in Delhi, Even the tribes and dalits regard the religious orthodoxies, limited to high castes till recent times as a sign of civilization.

A number of religion based organisations have come up in the country, which are creating social strife and even the political stability of Indian union is threatened, All these seemingly remotely connected 'phenomena' have a direct bearing on management of business, as any businessmen in Punjab can vouch for Migration of labour- from rural areas to urban areas and inter-state migrations, is another social phenomenon which we are witnessing in India. Though, normally studies on migrants after partition of India have shown that they have flourished in business and brought material prosperity for their new habits yet the social tension which this phenomenon creates is detrimental to smooth functioning of the regional economics. The interference of churches, of various religions in social life of India also undermines the authority of the state and rule of law. Such chaotic conditions may not be conducive to the smooth functioning of any economic entity. Industrial relations are also governed by wider socio-cultural currents.

It is very difficult to encapsulate all the social problems of India except observe that India is a country of social contrasts and every 'articulate manager has to be very receptive to social trends in such a volatile society where people are starving to death. The so called welfare state keeps on talking of a number of social welfare programmes; but the advantages of these programmes is not reach the poorest. The rates of crime starvation death, epidemics and natural disasters are alarming and Indian society is sometimes, characterised as a functional anarchy.

Business in India till date is not very responsive to social obligations. The Union Carbide tragedy, however, stirred the masses in India and a strong environmental movement is emerging. The population pressure, has forced the government to enact anti-pollution laws. The non-governmental organisations are resisting commercial feelings of trees or reckless mining of minerals for providing raw materials to industry. Similarly, supply of substandard quality of consumer items which was the normal practice in the Indian market is no longer; all that easy. Though, there are no Ralph Naders in India, yet consumer movement has made a beginning. Restrictive trade practices 2nd adulteration of edible production are being resisted by many voluntary consumer organisations.

## 5.7 CONSUMERISM

Consumerism is a term which is often misused and misunderstood. Several times it is wrongly used to refer to consumer affluence, conspicuous consumption etc. The true meaning of consumerism is quite different from these.

*Consumerism is a collective endeavour of the consumers and social institutions to protect the rights of the consumers.*

It is a social force :

- (i) to educate the consumers,
- (ii) to pressurise the government to adopt necessary measures to protect the consumer interests by guaranteeing their legitimate rights, and
- (iii) to make the business more honest, efficient, responsive and responsible.

Philip Kotler, the world renowned professor of marketing, defines consumerism as a social movement seeking to augment the rights and powers of the buyers in relation to sellers.

### **Utility of Consumerism:**

Well organised and dynamic consumerism may be expected to produce the following results :

- (i) Producers and sellers will not take the consumer for granted. When consumers are strong enough to protect their rights, the business will be compelled to shun unfair trade practices.
- (ii) Consumerism will provide feedback for the business. It will enable the producers to understand consumer needs and wants. This will assist in the more effective implementation of the marketing Concept or the societal marketing concept, depending upon the nature of consumerism.
- (iii) Producers will be able to enlist the support of consumers to minimise the imperfections on the distribution front. Several times the supply position is made worse by hoarding and back marketing by traders. Further, many sellers have a tendency to charge a price which is higher than the actual by giving one or other reason. There is no reason why the consumer and producer should not co-operate to get rid of the unscrupulous traders.

(The above points indicate that consumerism is an opportunity for honest and dynamic business firms. In fact quite a few leading businessmen, view it so).

- (iv) Consumerism will make the government more 'responsive to consumer interests, prompt it to take necessary statutory measures, and make the required institutional arrangements to safeguard consumer rights.
- (v) Philip Kotler, "What Consumerism Means for Marketers ?" *Harvard Business Review*, May-June, 1972, p. 49.

## **5.8 CONSUMER PROTECTION IN INDIA**

Government have taken a number of measures for consumer protection. These include development of public distribution system and government involvement in several industries and public utilities. However, the performance of the public sector in several sectors is far from satisfactory.

There are a number of laws with provisions for consumer protection.

Government of India has armed itself with a number of statutory weapons - to control the production, supply distribution, price and quality of a large number of goods and services. It is empowered to regulate the terms, and conditions of sale, the nature of trade and commerce etc.

Important legislations in the respect include the MRTP Act, Industries Development and Regulation Act, Essential Commodities Act, Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, Prevention of Black-

marketing and Maintenance of Supplies of Essential Commodities Act, Trade Marks and Merchandise Marks Act, Indian Sale of Goods Act, Indian Patents and Designs Act, Agricultural- Products Grading and Marketing Act, Drugs Act and Drugs Control Act, Indian Standard Institute's Certification. Act, Standard Weights and Measures Act, Imports and Exports Control Act, Packaged Commodities Order, Price and Stock Display Order,, etc.

There are thus, a good number of laws to protect, consumer interests. But a common complaint is that these laws are not effectively implemented.

The Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Act; 1969, contains provisions to deal with monopolistic, restrictive trade practices that are prejudicial to public interest.

### 5.8 Self-check Questions

1. What is social interdependence?
2. What is difference between modern and traditional society?
3. Discuss the corporate social responsibility of business.
4. Explain the term consumerism.

### 5.9 Summary

Society means all the people who influence us whether they are living in our country or in the outside world. Society is very important to human beings. The socio-economic obligation of business refers to its responsibility in preventing to prevent economic consequences of business from adversely affecting public welfare. The primary responsibility of business is to increase shareholders' wealth, to give good returns on investment, to give dividends at the proper time, to protect the interests of even small shareholders, to listen to and respect shareholders, to regularly invite shareholders to participate in decision-making. Industrialisation is doing much irreparable harm to the environment. It is therefore an obligation on them to not only morally, but also legally undo the damage by taking serious and responsible steps to protect the environment and to keep it in a healthy condition.

### 5.10 Glossary

**The social environment, social :** The social environment, social refers to the immediate physical and social setting in which people live or in which something happens or develops. It includes the culture that the individual was educated or lives in, and the people and institutions with whom they interact.

**Cultural environment:** A cultural environment is a set of beliefs, practices, customs and behaviors that are found to be common to everyone that is living within a certain population

**Corporate Social Responsibility :** Corporate Social Responsibility is a management concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and interactions with their stakeholders.

**Consumerism:** Consumerism is the protection of the rights and interests of the general pool of buyers, or an obsession with buying material goods or items.

### 5.11 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See the section no. 5.2, lesson 5
2. See the section no. 5.3, Lesson 5
3. See the section no. 5.5, Lesson 5

4. See the section no. 5.7, Lesson 5

### **5.12 Terminal Questions**

1. What is social interdependence. Differentiate between modern and traditional society.
2. Discuss industrial revolution in detail.
3. Describe consumer protection act 1986 briefly.
4. "Society and culture primarily govern the lifestyle of an individual". Comment.

### **5.13 Suggested Readings**

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.
3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media
4. Bedi Suresh (2006). *Business Environment*, Excel Books.
5. Mishra, Puri (2006). *Economic Environment of Business*, Himalaya PublicationsHouse,

\*\*\*\*\*

## LESSON 6

# POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

### Structure

- 6.0 Learning Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Basic Principles of Constitution
- 6.3 Federal System of the Government
- 6.4 Directive Principles of State Policy
- 6.5 The Fundamental Rights and Duties
- 6.6 Self-check Questions
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 Glossary
- 6.9 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 6.10 Terminal Questions
- 6.11 Suggested Readings

### 6.0 Learning Objectives

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to :

1. Discuss the basic principles of Indian constitution.
2. Understand the federal system of the Government.
3. Describe the fundamental rights and duties.

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Before knowing the features of the Indian Constitution, it is essential to know about its Preamble. The constitution of every country in the world has its own preamble. The preamble reflects the views and the objectives of the constitution-makers and also the basic values of the country and the constitution: We waged a long battle for freedom. The makers of the constitution had a dream of an ideal society which was stated in the following words.

We, the people of India, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a Sovereign, Socialist, secular Democratic Republic and to secure for all its citizens, Justice, social, economic and political.

Liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship; :

Equality of status and opportunity, and to promote among them all Fraternity, assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the Nation.

In our Constituent Assembly this, 26th day of November, 1949 do hereby adopt, enact, and give to ourselves this constitution.

The Preamble as given above clearly states that our country is now sovereign in all matters. The ultimate source of all power is the people.

## 6.2 BASIC PRINCIPLES OF CONSTITUTION

Democracy, secularism, and socialism are the basic principles of our constitution. There are also some other features of our constitution.

**Sovereignty** : This is the main feature of the Indian Constitution. India is completely an independent state now. We are not subordinate to any country in external or internal matters. We the Indians run our own government. Our government is now capable of making its own decision in internal and foreign affairs.

**Democracy** : Democracy means a government which is run by representatives who are elected on the basis of adult franchise. This means that each adult man and woman elects a representative of his or her own choice. These representatives are elected after every five years. These representatives, together, form the government.

**Secularism** ; The State gives equal treatment to all religions. It does not favour any particular religion. The constitution gives complete freedom to its citizens to practice and preach their own religion.

**Socialism** : The achievement of socialism, based on economic and social equality, is the chief goal of our constitution. It provides equal opportunities in education, employment, justice etc. to all. Special facilities have been given to the backward and the down-trodden people. The directive principles have been incorporated for the establishment of a Welfare State. Economic disparities, establishment of a Welfare State. Economic disparities, especially create unrest in the country : under such condition the country cannot make any progress. Therefore efforts have been made to create a society based on social and economic equality; Socialism is one of our national goals.

## 6.3 FEDERAL SYSTEM OF THE GOVERNMENT

The federal system of the government is that system where the powers of the Central Government and the State Governments are well defined in the constitution. Our constitution sets up a federal system of the government. In our country, there are 25 states and 8 union territories. These are separate governments at the Centre and in the states. The division of power between the Central and the State Government has been made according to the three lists in the constitution.

**The union list** : Railways, posts and Telegraph, armed Forces, External Affairs etc. are some of the subjects included in this list.

**The state list** ; The Subjects of local importance like the Police, Jails, Education, Agriculture, Health etc. are enumerated in this list.

**The concurrent List** : Both the Parliament and the State Legislatures can make law on the subjects given in this list.

**Single citizenship** : Our constitution provides for a single citizenship of this country. The citizen of each state is a citizen of India. We do not have the system of double citizenship in India. A person may be living in Madhya Pradesh or Maharashtra but he is called only a citizen of India.

The **parliamentary system** : Like Britain, there is also parliamentary system of Government in India. Real power is vested in the Parliament. The Ministers in the Central Cabinet are members of the Parliament. The Prime Minister and other Ministers are answerable to the Parliament for their actions.

#### 6.4 THE DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLES OF THE STATE POLICY

To bring about economic and social welfare in the country, the directive principles of the State policy have been stated in our constitution. The principles purpose is to bring social equality in the country, special directions have been given for the uplift of the backward communities and weaker sections of our society. There is a provision to make special laws for women. The directive principles direct the government to work for the social well-being, security, economic and social prosperity of the nation. There is a Directive Principle which aims at, achieving free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14 years. The directive principles, also provide equal pay for equal work for both men and women.

#### 6.5 THE FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS AND DUTIES

The fundamental rights are the necessary condition of the development of the personality of an individual. These help in promoting democratic values. There are **six** fundamental rights, guaranteed in the constitution, so necessary for the development of the personality of the citizens.

Rights and duties are interrelated. One man's duty is another man's right. Neglect of duties is a curse for humanity and it hampers the growth of the society. When citizens forget their duties there is lawlessness in society. Therefore, a proper balance should be maintained between the rights and the duties.

The Indian Constitution has guaranteed some important rights. Even the Parliament or the legislative Assemblies cannot make any law which encroaches upon these rights. Any law which interferes with fundamental rights can be set aside, by the Supreme Court. It is only during an emergency, that the fundamental rights can be suspended.

Our constitution has guaranteed six types of rights to the citizens as described below :

#### OUR FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS

**Right to equality:** Our constitution gives equal treatment to the citizens. The State cannot discriminate on the basis of religion, caste, creed, sex, language, place of birth etc. The state gives equal opportunities to every individual, on the basis of abilities, in the fields of education, employment, profession; and earning & livelihood. Untouchability has been abolished. Scheduled castes, Scheduled tribes and other backward classes have been given special facilities. Due to their backwardness, some seats have been reserved for them in schools, colleges and government services, so that they may come to part, with other sections of society. All the titles awarded before Independence have been abolished. In free India such distinctions as 'Bharat Ratna' and 'Padma Shri' are conferred for outstanding service to the country.

**Right to freedom :** Every citizen has the right to read and write, speak, hold public meetings peacefully and form any association or union. A citizen **is free** to go to any part of the country and settle there. He can take up any job or trade anywhere in India, he **is** also, free to acquire any property anywhere in the country.



**Right against exploitation :** The purpose of this right is to prevent any exploitation in the society. It is an offence to buy or sell men, women, and children. The constitution prohibits forced labour or 'beggar. Nobody can be asked, to work against his wishes. No child under the age of 14 years can be employed to work in any factory or mine.

### 6.10 Self-check Questions

1. What is a federal system?
2. Discuss the basic principles of Indian constitution.
3. Briefly explain the directive principles of state policy.

### 6.11 Summary

The constitution of every country in the world has its own preamble. This preamble reflects the view and objectives of the constitution makers and also the basic values of the country and constitution. We the people of India having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a Sovereign, Socialist, secular democratic republic and to secure for all its citizens, justice, social economic and political; liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship; equality of status and opportunity and to promote among them all fraternity assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the nation.

### 6.12 Glossary

**Constitution:** A constitution is a set of rules that guides how a country, state, or other political organization works.

**Fundamental Rights:** The Fundamental Rights are the basic human rights of all citizens. These rights, defined in Part III of the Constitution, applied irrespective of race, place of birth, religion, caste, creed, or gender.

**Democracy:** Democracy is a system of government that bases its legitimacy on the participation of the people.

**Secularism :** Secularism is a belief system that rejects religion, or the belief that religion should not be part of the affairs of the state or part of public education.

### 6.13 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See the section no. 6.3, Lesson 6
2. See the section no. 6.2, Lesson 6
3. See the section no. 6.4, Lesson 6

### 6.14 Terminal Questions

1. Discuss the basic principles of Indian constitutions.
2. Discuss in detail federal system of the government.
3. Write a short note on directive principles of state policy.

### 6.15 Suggested Readings

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.
3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media

4. Bedi Suresh (2006). *Business Environment*, Excel Books,

\*\*\*\*\*

## LESSON-7

# TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT

### Structure

- 7.0 Learning Objectives
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Fundamental Effects of Technology
- 7.3 Status of Technology in India
- 7.4 Technological Policy
- 7.5 Self-check Questions
- 7.6 Summary
- 7.7 Glossary
- 7.8 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 7.9 Terminal Questions
- 7.10 Suggested Readings

### 7.0 Learning Objectives

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to :

1. Understand the fundamental effects of technology.
2. Discuss the technological status and policy of India.

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

Business is an institution through which man expects new discoveries to be converted into goods and services. Managers of business organisation pool the necessary resources and work on the new discoveries to convert them into useful products. New discoveries would remain mere ideas in mind, sketches on paper or mock models but for business institution.

Printing, housing, education, and television are all dependent on business activities to make them work productively. Society depends on business to keep the stream of discovery flowing into useful goods and services for all mankind. Developing countries have learnt that scientific discoveries mean very little to them unless they have competent business units to produce for people what science has discovered. Developed countries have learnt that their progress stops unless they operate a business system which contributes to discovery and uses discovery to produce for their people.

## 7.2 FUNDAMENTAL EFFECT OF TECHNOLOGY

The most fundamental effect of technology is, greater productivity in terms of both quality and quantity. This is the main reason that most technology is adopted. In a hospital the objective may be qualitative, such as maintains life with electronic monitoring equipment regardless of costs. In a factory, the objective may be quantitative in terms of more production at less cost.

As a result of productivity improvements, real wages of employees tend to rise and prices of some products decline, which spreads the beneficial economic effects of technology throughout the whole social system. The result is that employees and citizens are motivated to want more technological advancement, thereby placing on business major business responsibilities to introduce it with due concern for its social and environmental effects.

Though business organisations are the means through which new innovations are given practical shape, it is the business which has to spend lots of money on discovering new technology. Business should not sit pretty and wait for someone else to discover new ideas. It is heartening to learn that companies in industrialised nations are spending staggering sums on Research and Development.

Phillips, for example, spent 6.9 per cent of its total turnover of Rs. 1,300 crores on R & D in 1981. Similarly, Siemens spent nine per cent of its world sales, Bayer AG spent six per cent of its domestic sales of Rs. 280 crores, and Bosch group spent 6.7 per cent of its sales.

Governments everywhere spend vast sums on R & D: The Government of India, for example, accounts for 90 per cent of the total expenditure on R & D, the rest being constituted by the private sector. Similarly, the U.K. spends two per cent of its GNP (Gross National Product) on R & D, Japan allocates 1.96 per cent of its GNP to R & D and the U.S.A. spends more than 2.3 per cent of its GNP on R & D. In addition to the amounts spent to private industries and governments on developing indigenous technology, it often becomes necessary to import technology from outside. Where it is imported, the foreign technology must be ably absorbed by the user industries in the buying countries.

### FAST CHANGING TECHNOLOGY

Enormous spending on R & D by governments, and private industries all over the world has resulted in the fast development and change in technology. Many of today's Abraham Lincoln did not know of automobiles, airplanes; phonographs, radio, the electric light. Woodrow Wilson did not know of television, aerosol cans, home freezers, automatic dishwashers, room air conditioners, antibiotics, or electric computers. Franklin Delano Roosevelt did not know xerography, a synthetic detergent, tape recorders, birth control pills, or earth satellites. And John Kennedy did not know of personal computers, digital wristwatches, video recorders, or word processors. Nor Mahatma Gandhi did know of personal computers, word processors or synthetic fibers.

More ideas are being worked on the time gap between idea and implementation is falling rapidly, and the time between introduction and peak production is shortening considerably. Experts have estimated that 80 to 90 per cent of all the scientists who ever lived are still alive today. Business units and their managers must always watch out for changes and developments taking place around. Now developments must be adopted and new ideas explored lest the business units would expire early.

Managers must also realize that apart from industry there are other users of technology also they are agriculture, infrastructure, and services. All these sectors compete with industry for absorbing new technologies. Agriculture, supposed to be still under the yokes of illiteracy, ignorance, and conventional tools, has been absorbing high doses of technology, including bio-genetics. This competition for

technology absorption from, 'other sectors of economy is a phenomenon of far reaching import to the managers.

### **RISE AND DECLINE OF PRODUCTS AND ORGANISATIONS**

Change of technology, therefore, is a norm and not an exception. This poses another problem to business. A new technology may spawn a major industry but it may also destroy an existing one. Transistors, for example, hurt the vacuum-tube industry and xerography hurt the carbon-paper business. Television hurt radios and movies and synthetic fibers reduced demand for cotton fabrics. It is for this reason that Schumpeter saw technology as a force for 'creative destruction'. And it is precisely for the same reason that he is saying. 'Today's growth product is tomorrow's search for, becomes relevant. Products, like mortals, have life cycles. A typical product, today, is subject to the following cycle; introduction, growth, maturity, decline and abandonment.

An organisation that is associated with a particular technology is influenced by it and will have the same life pattern of that technology. Such an organisation will go in sequence through the introductory, growth, maturity and decline phases. The life of such an organisation may be composed of the following stages : (i) birth, (ii) growth, (iii) policy, (iv) procedure, (v) theory, (vi) religion, (vii) ritual, and (viii) last rites. In this eight-step sequence, an organisation is born and these are carried out through procedures. These procedures are refined and made more efficient with the theories of a religion, it may worship the way it does things. Performance is by ritual; things are done by habit without questioning. The death and become bi-modal, as shown by the second top on last rites of the organisation will ordinarily follow.

### **HIGH EXPECTATIONS OF CONSUMERS**

That the business should keep changing is reinforced by yet another fact, a fact which is the cause and consequence of technology. Technology has contributed to the emergence of affluent societies. Affluent citizens want more of many things than more of some things. New varieties of products, superior in quality, free from pollution, more safe and more comfortable, are to be produced and supplied to the affluent sections. This calls for a massive investment in R. & D. One important compulsion for investing in technological advances in Japan is its customer's high expectations, regarding design sophistication, quality, delivery schedules and prices. Industry-owners in Japan swear by the dictum - the customer is a God who is always right. High expectations of consumers, pose a challenge, and an opportunity to the owners of business institutions.

### **JOBS TEND TO BECOME MORE INTELLECTUAL.**

With the advent of technology, jobs tend to become more intellectual or upgraded. A job hitherto handled by an illiterate and unskilled worker now requires the services of an educated and competent worker. A clerical post in an office now demands the services of an expert in computers. Fig. 31.2 demonstrates the change in the type of labour now required to work on machines.

Decades ago, the typical factory had a range of skills resembling curve A. This curve was shaped like the normal curve of intelligence among people. Being matched to people, it suggested that an adequate supply of labour would be available at all levels of business in the long-run. In modern business, stress Davis and Blomstrom, the curve has moved towards the right, higher is skill as shown in curve B. And in many organisations the skill distribution has the curve. Many scientific and professional people are required in research, development, planning and other specialised work, creating the secondary bulge towards the skills end of the scale.

Curve C represents the skill distribution which is developing to firms oriented towards research and development. Though these firms manufacture products for sale, much of their effort is devoted to development and building prototypes. In some of these, the number of engineers, scientists, college graduates, and specialists exceeds the total number of other employees.

Introduction of new technology dislocates some workers unless they are well equipped to work on new machines. This makes it obligatory on the part of business to retrain its employees and to rehabilitate those displaced and untrainable. Equal is the responsibility of the government to provide training and educational facilities to its citizen. Government and businessmen should boldly demonstrate and convince the people that economic growth is more an insurance against unemployment than opposition to technological advancement.

But for those who pick up and acquaint themselves with new technology, the job will be rewarding. The new job will be more, challenging and rewarding. Working class, in general stand to gain through, increased productivity, reduced prices and increased real wages—all byproducts of technological advancement.

- (i) Along with upgrading jobs, technology has its impact on human relations. Technology lays down the requirements for much of the human interaction in organisations. The arrangement of a production set-up be to the liking of the organisational men. The resistance to change is purely psychological.
- (ii) A typical businessman is opposed to new technology. He does not encourage new technology. Reasons are not purely psychological. Adopting new technology is expensive and risky. When he is making enough money with obsolete technology, why should he worry about new technology? Take the case of Telco for example. Telco's trucks are still antiquated models only found in developing countries. But the turnover of Telco was **Rs. 1,969 crores** during 1989-90. Another example is Bajaj Auto Ltd., The company claims to be number two in the world in the manufacture of two-wheelers. But during the last two decades the company could not develop a self-starting scooter. Or take the case of Indian Telephone Industries (ITI) which still manufactures slow speed crossbar switching equipment that became outdated 10 years ago with the development of electronic switching system.
- (iii) Assuming the management of an organization wants to import and absorb new technology. It is not a smooth affair, basic infrastructural facilities like training of technicians and supervisors, testing facilities for raw materials, replacement parts, and the like are not easily available.
- (iv) There are also problems relating to choosing a right collaborator and obtaining clearance from government. Despite the existence of several research establishments in our country interaction between them and industry is not encouraging. The management is forced to look for a collaborator for new technology. Getting a right collaborator is **not** an easy task. Similarly, talk about streamlining and simplifying licensing procedure notwithstanding, it takes minimum one year for an entrepreneur to obtain final clearance from government.

## PROSPECTS

While problems connected with new technology are only a few, the opportunities available are almost countless. The technologies are developing and making inroads at breakneck speed. What was

not achieved in 100 years prior to 1950's is being accomplished in a decade. According to prophets of technology, there will be 10 times this progress in the next decade. Particular mention must be made of computers, biotechnology, nuclear energy, composite electronics, information communication technology and fibre optics. These are only big names in the field of technology. Technology has made its presence felt in every activity from a simple function like washing of clothes to the manufacture of robotics.

Opportunities available for today's manager are therefore, innumerable. Problems notwithstanding the manager must adopt new technology, otherwise he will simply be pushed behind by his competitors. This requires that today's manager must be a technocrat. Commercially oriented manager will find himself a 'stranger in the fairyland of technology.'

### 7.3 STATUS OF TECHNOLOGY IN INDIA

India, like any other, third world country, attained political independence after prolonged colonial rule and exploitation. The country entered the modern world in a state of economic backwardness and poverty of a large section of people. It is obvious that technology must attend to the basic problems food, clothing, health and housing of people. At the same time rapid industrial development through latest technology is necessary to catch up with the advanced countries.

With these objectives in mind Government of India set-up 'series of R & D establishment, space research centres, medical research centres, agricultural research establishments, oil exploration centres, power development projects, and the council of Scientific and Industrial Research. Beside, several universities and institutes have been set-up to provide higher education in science, technology and management. Then there is the Department of Science and Technology, an administrative wing of the government to co-ordinate the activities in the country.

The government also came out with a policy on technology spelling out its aims and the thrust areas. The salient features of technological policy are the following.

### 7.4 TECHNOLOGICAL POLICY

**Preamble :** Frontiers of knowledge are being extended at an incredible speed, opening up wholly new areas and introducing new concepts. Technological advances are influencing life-styles as well as social expectations.

India, is known for its diversity. Technology must suit local needs and to make an impact on the lives of ordinary citizens, must give constant thought to even small improvements which could make better and more cost effective use of existing materials and methods of work.

**Aims :** The basic objectives of the Technology Policy will be the development of indigenous technology, and efficient absorption and adaptation of important technology appropriate to national priorities and resources. Its aims are to :

- (a) attain technological competence and self-reliance to reduce vulnerability, particularly in Strategic and critical areas, making the maximum use of indigenous resources
- (b) provide the maximum gainful and satisfying employment to all strata of society
- (c) use traditional skills and capabilities making use commercially competitive;

- (d) ensure the correct mix between mass production technologies and production by the masses.
- (e) ensure maximum development with minimum capital outlay.
- (f) identify obsolescence of technology in use and arrange for modernization of the equipment and technology;
- (g) develop technologies which are internationally competitive particularly those with export potential;
- (h) improve product speedily through greater efficiency and fuller utilization of existing capabilities, and enhance the quality and reliability of performance and output
- (i) reduce demands on energy, particularly energy from non-renewable sources;
- (j) ensure harmony with environment, preserve the ecological balance and improve the quality of the habitat; and
- (k) recycle waste material and make full utilisation of by products.

**Strengthening the Technology Base** : Research and Development together with science and technology education and training of a high order, will be accorded pride of place. Special attention will be given to the promotion and strengthening of the technology base in newly emerging and frontier areas such as information and material science, electronics and bio-technology. Education and training to upgrade skills are also of utmost importance. Basic research and the building of centers of excellence will be encouraged.

Skills and skilled workers will be accorded recognition. The quality and efficiency of the technology generation and delivery system will be continuously monitored and upgraded. Technologies relevant to the collage, village and small industries sector will be upgraded. In all sectors, the potential impact on employment will be an important criterion in the choice of technology.

Energy constitutes an expensive and sometimes scarce input. Therefore, the requirements both of a nature for each product and each production activity and the associated technology employed will be analysed. Measures will be devised to avoid wastage to non-employed will be energy. Necessary fiscal measures will be introduced to ensure these. Research and Development in the energy sector will aim at improving the efficiency of its production, distribution and utilization, as well as improvement of efficiency in process and equipment.

Technology already employed will be evaluated on a continuing basis to realize maximum benefits in terms of increased production and lower costs, especially in the public enterprises.

**Some Specific Areas** : In technology development special emphasis will be focused on food, health housing, energy and industry. In particular, stress will be laid on

- agriculture including dry-land farming;
- optimum use of water resources, increased production of;

- provision of drinking water in rural areas, improvement in nutrition, rapid reduction in the incidence of blindness, eradication of major communicable diseases (such as leprosy and tuberculosis);
- low cost housing;
- development and use of renewable non-conventional sources of energy; and
- industrial development

**Technology Development** : Full support will be given to the development of indigenous technology to achieve technological self-reliance and reduce the dependence on foreign inputs, particularly in critical and vulnerable areas and high value-added items in which the domestic base is strong. Strengthening and diversifying the domestic technology base are necessary to reduce imports and to expand export for which international competitiveness must be ensured.

In view of the cost of technology development and the time necessary for successful marketing, of new or improved product, indigenously developed items are invariably at a disadvantage compared with imported products of those based on imported technologies and brand names. Suitable fiscal mechanism will be established to facilitate investment on pilot plants, process demonstration units and prototype – development in order to enable rapid commercial exploitation of technological developed in laboratories. Linkages between scientific and technological institutions and development banks will be strengthened. Gaps in technology, will be identified and suitable corrective measures taken with adequate allocation of resource. Fiscal incentives will be provided in particular to promote inventions; increase the use of indigenously developed technology; enhance in-house Research and development in industry, and efforts directed to absorb and adopt imported technology.

Capabilities in design engineering are essential for the translation of know-how to commercial production. Existing design engineering capabilities will be strengthened and upgraded, and interaction encouraged between design engineering organizations, academic and research institutions and industry.

Wherever capability exists, utilisation of Indian consultancy engineering organisation will be promoted. Even where foreign technical collaboration or consultancy is considered unavoidable, association of designated Indian consultancy engineering organisations would be preferred. Indigenous engineering consultancy. In both private and public sectors, will be promoted on a sound professional basis in the context of the overall national perspective of technological self-reliance.

**Mix of Indigenous and Imported Technology:** A policy, directed towards technological self-reliance does not imply technological self-sufficiency. The criterion must be national interest. Government policy will be directed.

## 7.5 Self-check Questions

1. What is the technological environment of business.
2. Discuss the status of technology in India
3. Describe the technological policy of India

## 7.6 Summary



Business is an institution through which man expects new discoveries to be converted into goods and services. Managers of business organizations pool the necessary resources and work on the new discoveries to convert them into useful products. Developing countries have learnt that scientific discoveries mean very little to them unless they give competent business units to produce for people what science has discovered. Developing countries have learnt that their progress stops unless they operate a business system which contributes to discovery and use discovery to produce for their people.

### 7.7 Glossary

**Technology** : Technology refers to methods, systems, and devices which are the result of scientific knowledge being used for practical purposes.

**Productivity** : measure of the efficiency of a person, machine, factory, system, etc., in converting inputs into useful outputs

**Prospects** : A prospect is a potential customer that has been qualified as fitting certain criteria. In most cases, a prospect: Fits your target market.

### 7.8 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See the section no. 7.1, Lesson 7
2. See the section no. 7.3, Lesson 7
3. See the section no. 7.4, Lesson 7

### 7.9 Terminal Questions

1. Discuss the fundamental effects of technology
2. Explain the technological policy of India
3. Describe the technological environment of business.

### 7.10 Suggested Readings

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.

\*\*\*\*\*

**LESSON-8****INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY****Structure**

- 8.0 Learning Objectives
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Emergence of Knowledge Economy
- 8.3 IT in India viewed in World Context
- 8.4 Major Issues in Information Technology
- 8.5 Outsourcing, Nationalism and Globalization
- 8.6 Self Check Questions
- 8.7 Summary
- 8.8 Glossary
- 8.9 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 8.10 Terminal Questions
- 8.11 Suggested Readings

**8.0 Learning Objectives**

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to:

1. Understand the concept of Knowledge Economy
2. Discuss the major issues of Information Technology
3. Outsourcing, Nationalism and Globalization

**8.1 Introduction**

Information Technology (IT) is the industry, which through the use of computers and other supporting equipment helps in the spread of knowledge. The term information technology includes computers and communication technology along with associated software. Hanna and Dugonjic (1993), therefore, are of the view in IT Industry, "on the supply side the computer hardware and software, telecommunications equipment, and micro-electronics-based industries. On the demand side are applications of IT and all economic sectors.

Information technology for some time was used as synonymous to computers. But with the rapid advancement in various information delivery system such as Radio, TV, Telephone, Newspapers, Fax and of course Computers and Computer Networks, information technology refers to the entire gamut of media and devices used to transmit and process information for use by various target groups in the society. It has, therefore, been rightly termed as Information and Communication Revolution.

**8.2 Emergence of Knowledge Economy**

With advancement in information technology information is being regarded as the fourth factor of production, along with the land, labour and capital. Information has therefore, become an important and distinct input in production. Thus along with three sector model of primary, secondary and tertiary industries, a fourth sector information-related industries has emerged. Information is therefore used as a raw material of knowledge just as iron is a raw material for machinery. Thus, according to Low (2000). 'The activities of generating, processing, transmitting, disseminating. Storing, archiving and retrieving information constitute information industry.' The information industry has thus pervaded a wide range of industries; viz; manufacturing, education, entertainment, defence, trade communication etc.

In the knowledge economy, the raw material that matters is intellectual rather than physical. Low, therefore, states : "The knowledge economy implies shift in the geographical, centre from raw material and capital equipment to information and knowledge, especially in education and research centres and man-made; brain industries. The knowledge economy depicts the automation of labour intensive manufacturing and service activities, as well as growth in new service industries such as health care, distance education software production and multimedia entertainment." The pervasive influence of information technology, is so strong that there is no sphere of human life in which it is not able to make a niche for itself.

Information technology has integrated the world by the use of internet. It is now possible to download information from any part of the world after the introduction of World Wide Web (www). Internet economy has become very powerful. In USA, Internet economy accounts for, US \$ 270 billion in 1998 as against energy (US \$ 223 billion) and automobiles (US \$ 350 billion). The new knowledge economy is thus creating high quality employment. It is reshaping the job market. Many of these jobs did not exist prior to 1994-95.

### **8.3 IT IN INDIA VIEWED IN WORLD CONTEXT**

Information technology is of recent origin, but it is spreading fast in India. However, India has a long way to go before it can catch up with the developed countries. Table 1 provides some information regarding the use of various instruments of information technology. Take, for instance, radios and TV sets. In 2000, radios accounted for 121 per 1,000 persons, in India, as against 2,118 in USA, 1,432 in UK and 339 in China. The position regarding TV sets was 78 per 1,000 persons in India as against 854 in USA and 293 in China. Telephones accounted for 29 per 1,000 persons in India as against 1,118 in USA, 1,358 in UK, 1,174 in Japan and 248 in China. In mobile telephones India was far behind and accounted for 4 per 1,000 population as against 398 in USA, 526 in Japan and 66 in China.

Personal computers per 1,000 persons accounted for 4 in India in 2001 as against 625 in USA, 366 in UK; 358 in Japan, 66 in China; India is even having a small number of personal computer users. Regarding Internet, principle agency for acquiring and disseminating information, India had in 2000, only 3 Internet users per 1,000 persons, while USA had 501, Canada 467. UK 330 and Japan 384. In other words, although information technology is penetrating in India, it has not accessed the masses and is thus the preserve of only the rich and elite in India society.

### **8.4 MAJOR ISSUES IN INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY**

It is now being increasingly felt that information technology is a major facilitator and catalyst for accelerating growth of the economy. It is therefore, necessary to remove impediments on the path of growth of IT industry, businesses and services. The Working Group set by the Ministry of Information Technology has identified four categories of issues.

(i) Infrastructure and Services; (ii) Electronic Governance; (iii) Education; and (iv) Mass Campaign for IT Awareness.

**(i) Infrastructure and Services**

With the development of various forms of information delivery systems, such as TV, Radio, Newspapers, Telephones, Personal Computers and Internet into one unified system, it is very desirable to improve the reach of the IT services to the common man. In India, nearly 26 per cent of the population lives below the poverty line. 20 per cent belong to the higher and richer classes and 40 per cent form the middle class. The government should, in the first instance, aim at 400 million strong middle class on the one hand who provide a very large potential market for IT products and services, who can in the near future be enabled to make use of the benefits of IT in their day-to-day lives. On the other hand for 40 per cent of the people living below the poverty line government should initiate steps so that IT could provide new opportunities to enable them to move above the poverty line. Presently, the country is highly deficient in enabling access of IT services to the masses. The present situation in 2002 is as under :

**TABLE I: COMMUNICATION AND INFORMATION STATUS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES**

Per 1,000 persons					
Radios (2000).	Television Sets. (2000)	Telephones Mainlines (2001)	Mobile Telephones (2000)	Personal Computers (2001)	Internet users (2001)
USA 2,118	854	1,118	398	625	501
UK, 1,432	652	1,358	727	306	330
France 950	628	1,179	493	329	264
Japan 956	725	1,174	526	318	384
Canada 1,047	715	1,038	285	413	467
Russian Federation 418	421	296	22	50	29
China 339	283	248	66	19	26
India 121	78	44	4	6	7
Pakistan 105	131	29	2	4	3

**Source :** Compiled from 'World Bank, *World Development Indicators (2002)* and UNDP, *Human Development Report (2003)*.

For providing IT infrastructure and services to the common man the working group set up by the Ministry of Information Technology in May, 2000 was of the view that three conditions are necessary.

- (i) Availability and affordability of access devices.
- (ii) Establishment of communications and networking infrastructure – including telecommunication network. Internet enabled cable TV network; and
- (iii) Development of IT services.

The major issues to be dealt with are the following:

1. The cost of sophisticated access devices to Internet, such as PCs, Set-top boxes for connecting TV with Internet, cable modem, etc. is very high and unaffordable for the common man.
2. The cost level of telephone is not affordable to more than 2 to 3 per cent of the users in the country. In the rural areas, the cost of installation continues to be very high.
3. The cost of installation of Internet facilities at the district level in the country is presently of the order of Rs: 85 lakhs for a private service provider. This makes the provision of service in large parts of the country completely unviable.

The market share of non-branded (assembled PCs) has become fairly large in recent years. This segment of the market should be recognised and made quality conscious with adequate incentives.

The present time-frame taken by the Department of Telecommunications (DoT) to make data circuits available to Internet service provider (ISPs) is too long and has a lot of uncertainties in delivery and quality of services.

The establishment and operationalisation of international gateways continues to take too long due to involvement of a number of agencies in the present process of clearance of such gateways.

There is an urgent need to evolve a national policy on Right of Way so that the establishment of 'Cable TV/Telecom network infrastructure' can be achieved in minimum possible time frame.

Some of the newer and low cost technologies for establishing telecommunications/networking infrastructure in remote parts, such as Wireless in Local Loop (WILL), require to be proactively encouraged instead of getting them entangled into procedural issues.

The availability of international bandwidth continues to be a major problem in the country. Also the domestic cost of bandwidth is much higher than the international cost.

VSAT network continues to be treated as CUG (Closed User Group) in the country. There is a need to allow such networks to be integrated with Internet services.

Most of IT/Internet services in the country use English as the medium of information delivery. For mass spread/use of IT services, it is necessary to develop the use of various regional languages.

## **(II) ELECTRONIC GOVERNANCE**

Government and its numerous agencies are the major service providers in the country. The use of information technology especially computers is being encouraged in various ministries, departments of the Central Government, State Governments, District Administration, Municipal Services and at Block/Panchayat level. This is a welcome development. But the working group has drawn attention to a major setback in effort. Most of the applications of IT in government services have been confined to back office computerisation. Consequently, the improvement in the quality of service has not taken place in a sufficient measure. This approach should be replaced by front-office applications as against back-office use. This will develop enough pressure on government agencies to improve and sustain its service so as to raise the level of public satisfaction. This aspect of e-governance needs to be altered and strengthened.

At present, the Government sector is the largest consumer of IT services in India. State governments and the Central Government, have initiated the process of computerization

Particular mention should be made of the State governments of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu making vigorous efforts to computerize government departments with a view to offer better services to the people. Income Tax and other departments of the Central Government have also initiated steps to computerize their operations.

### (III) EDUCATION

IT education issues may be divided into two categories :

- (i) IT Education and training; and
- (ii) Use of IT for education and literacy.

IT education requires the training of human beings in various skills associated with the widerange of products and processes. Since quite a good number of high quality jobs exist in the IT sector, it is very necessary to train the required number of personnel to take advantage of these job opportunities. Two kinds of trained personnel are needed.: (i) for hardware and (ii) for software.

For hardware training, the country needs that development of polytechnics and engineering colleges to impart instruction, and training and for software, the country needs educational institutions which can impart training in the operation of computers to suit the needs of different vocations like publishing of books, journals and newspapers, accounting packages for preparing accounts books, for banks for conducting, banking operations, for railways in reservations, and other associated jobs. etc.

The major problem with the training in IT education is the high costs, whether in polytechnics or in engineering colleges or in institutions such as NIIT or APTECH or even in Universities. Good quality institutions for IT training charge fees which the poor and the lower middle class cannot afford. In India, these institutes charge fees ranging from Rs. 20,000 to Rs. 1 lakh for a one-year-course and thus, they price out the poor and the middle classes. Even meritorious students belonging to certain groups, which do not have an economic standing, cannot have access to these courses. At the individual level, the access to Internet, the chief instrument of acquiring information and thus, converting it into knowledge is also beyond the reach of the lower classes in the society. There is, therefore, the painful existence of skill and 'access' divide in IT education. This has led to the division of the society in the knowledge economy on the basis of socio-economic classes and regions - rural and urban. Consequently, the inequality in access to IT education have led to widening inequalities in the earnings of those who are trained in IT education and skills and those who remain excluded.

The Working Group of the Ministry of Information Technology has pointed out the following deficiencies in the area of IT education :

- (i) There is a major imbalance in the facilities for IT education, particularly engineering education, in different regions of the country. While Southern and Western regions provide large number of engineering graduates in IT, the States in other regions are highly deficient in the field.
- (ii) The quality of education provided by large number of institutions is not of adequate standard. As IT industry is highly quality conscious, this may become a major-bottleneck in the growth of the industry in the long run.

- (iii) The facilities for IT education at the level of schools and polytechnics are confined to a small part of the country. There is an urgent need to spread IT education facilities in all parts of the country.
- (iv) The institutions that offer IT education, particularly at higher level are not able to attract good faculty due to vast gap between salaries in academic institutions and IT industry.
- (v) IT infrastructure is highly capital intensive more so due to rapid changes in hardware and software technologies. There is a need to regularly upgrade infrastructure in academic institutions so that students coming out of the education system are provided access to latest technologies and tools.
- (vi) For a large country like India, technologies, such as Distance Learning, need to be used in a major way to deal with the problem of limited resources and higher demand for IT education.
- (vii) If institutions, by and large, use English language as the medium. This research shows the spread of education among the English-knowing population in the country. There is a need to develop software in regional languages so as to increase the spread of IT education to the masses.

IT professionals are described : as skilled knowledge workers. From a low base of 6,800 knowledge professionals in 1985-86, their number has shot up to 6.5 lakh by March 2003. Out of them about 2.05 lakhs (about 32%) work in software and services export industry, nearly 1.6 lakhs (24.6%) are working in IT enabled services, Only 25,000 (4%) are in the domestic software market and over 2.6 lakhs (40%) are in user organizations.

These professionals get their training in engineering colleges and polytechnics and prestigious ITTs (Indian Institute of Technology). A large number of universities have also started computer courses. This has resulted in a sharp increase in the output of trained manpower in IT at the degree and diploma level. Their annual output was of the order of 1.2 lakhs in 2002. A very large number of private training institutes who charge exorbitant fees are also providing computer education.

### 315. INDICATORS OF MEDIA

	Per 1,600 persons			
	T.V sets Daily newspapers		Radios	Telephone lines
	2003	2000	2003	2003
India	83	60	120	46
U.S.A.	938	196	2,109	621
Japan	785	566	956	472
Canada	691	168	1,047	629
Australia	722	161	1,966	542

U.K.	'950	326	1,445	591
France	632	143	950	566
Germany	675	291	570	657
Sweden	965	410	2,811	736
Italy	—	109	878	484
Russia	—	105	418	242
Korea, Rep	458	393	1,034	538
Brazil	369	46	433	223
Israel	330	290	526	458
Singapore	303	273	672	450
China	350	59	339	208
Mexico	282	94	330	158
Egypt	229	31	339	127
South Africa	177	26	336	107
Pakistan	150	39	105	27
Philippines	182	67	161	41
Sri Lanka	117	29	215	49
Kenya	26	81	221	10
Bangladesh	59	9	19	5

### INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

	Outgoing traffic ; minutes per subscriber	Per 1,000 persons		Internet (per 1000 (persons))
		Mobile phones computers	Personal users	
		2003		
India	16	25	7.2	17
U.S.A	217	543	656.9	551
Japan	37	679	382.2	483
Canada	—	417	467.0	513
Australia	215	719	565.1	567



U.K.	258	841	405.7	423
France	139	696	347.1	366
Germany	167	785,	484.7	473
Sweden	—	980	621,3	573
Italy	169	1,018	230.7	337
Russia	34	249	88.7	—
Korea, Rep.	45	701	558,0	610
Brazil	21	264	74.8	82
Israel	335	961	242.6	301
Singapore	1,020	852	622.0	509
China	4	215	27.6	63
Mexico	134	291	82.0	118
Egypt	35	84	21.9	39
South Africa	117	364	72.6	68
Pakistan	35	18	4.2	10
Philippines	52	270	27.7	44
Sri Lanka	58	73	13.2	12
Kenya	75	50	6.4	13
Bangladesh	77	10	7.8	2

**Source :** Total's Statistical Outline of India

## 8.5 OUTSOURCING, NATIONALISM AND GLOBALIZATION

Outsourcing implies obtaining goods or services by contract from an outside source. Firms resort to outsourcing within the country as well. Producers of cars do not produce all the parts within the firm, but may outsource some parts from the producers who have specialized in them. This helps firms to cut costs.

In the information technology (IT) sector, outsourcing has acquired an international dimension. US firms find it more profitable to contract IT software and services in developing countries like India and China. The costs for these services in developing countries are much less than in the developed world. A recent study by McKinsey has estimated that every dollar spent on offshoring (outsourcing) implies a cost reduction of 58 cents to US business. Thus, US firms and those in the European Union regularly carry out contracts with IT firms in India. As per information compiled in the *Reserve Bank of India Bulletin* (January 2004), during 2002-03, earnings from software services for India were of the order of US\$ 9.6 billion. Since merchandise exports accounted for \$ 52.51 billion, software services

represented 18.3 per cent of total exports. This was a big achievement by the Indian IT industry as it proved its competitive strength in the world.

There was an outcry raised in USA that outsourcing resulted in export of US jobs to other countries. One US agency predicted that at least one out of ten technology jobs in the US will move out by the year 2004. Another agency estimated that at least 3.3 million white collar jobs accounting for \$513.6 billion in the form of wages will move out of USA to low cost developing countries by 2015. Obviously, the debate over outsourcing got directly linked with loss of jobs in USA in favour of developing countries.

During 2003, several states such as, Maryland, Florida, Indian, Michigan, New Jersey, New York and New Carolina introduced anti-outsourcing bills, but none of bills could be passed. It was, therefore, felt in the developing world that outsourcing would continue since business firms were opposed to passing any anti-outsourcing bill, because it impinged on their freedom to reduce costs.

But on January 23, 2004 the US Senate approved a legislation that prevents private companies doing subcontracting work for the government departments of treasury and transportation from outsourcing to companies outside America. The law was signed by the US President.

Responding to the impact of the law on Indian software exports, NASSCOM observed that since the law covered only two departments; and the share of the Federal Government contracts in IT software and services is less than 2 per cent, its impact on the IT business would be negligible. But the point of worry is whether the law is of a general nature covering all departments or is restricted to only two departments. Ambiguity surrounds the fact that the law covers all departments and thus, its potential to adversely affect IT software and services export is quite significant.

Another point of worry is that the law passed by the Federal Government can act as a pace-setter and thus, prompt various state governments also to pass similar anti-outsourcing legislation. This may set a chain reaction and state after state may be prompted to do so. Since this happens to be an election year in USA, when all the 435 members of the House of Representatives and 11 State-Governors have to face election, the probability of adopting anti-outsourcing law to woo the votes by avoiding the export of jobs appears to be very high. Around 15 states have voted on laws to ban government work being contracted out to non-Americans.

Although John Kerry, who is the current front-runner among Democrats said that while he would not ban outsourcing, he will provide tax incentives, to companies to keep their jobs in the US, and close "every single loophole" that facilitates companies moving jobs overseas. The net impact of Kerry's proposal is to subsidise companies so that in practice, they do not feel the need for outsourcing and the State compensates them in one way or the other, for the loss from not engaging themselves in outsourcing.

The basic question which has been raised in India and in several other developing countries is whereas the advocates of globalization emphasize removal of the barriers to trade in goods and services, but wherever their interests appear to be affected by global competition they protect their interests either through, heavy subsidies (as in being done by USA for its farmers) or they create other kinds of barriers such as labour standards, patent rights, etc. In other words, nationalism takes over from globalism. Such being the case, the anti-outsourcing law goes against the spirit of WTO and goals of globalization. Mr. Arun Shrivastava former IT Minister therefore, said Anti-outsourcing law was a move against the spirit of global trade. This was not the way for Washington to advance the cause of multi-lateral trade negotiations.

Mr. Kiran Kamik, President, National Association of Software and Service Companies (NASSCOM) said ; "The passage of such. Bills would shut-off a huge opportunity for Indian companies to get projects from the US Government, which spends billions of dollars on technology every year."

Electronics and Computer Software Export Promotion Council begin more forthright in its comment stated : **The** new legislation, would send **wrong** signals to the " globalization efforts particularly of countries like India, which have undertaken a number of liberalization measures in a short span of time garnering political will to push ahead the reform process."

Thus, it is obvious that Republican Senator, Mr. George Voinovich, the major advocate of anti-outsourcing law has very smartly introduced a clause to ban contracts on the basis of Federal Government spending. National interests and democratic pressures of an impending election forced the US government to accord its approval. This move has dangerous consequences for India because as the movement of anti-outsourcing snowballs in USA, it is likely to produce a substantial impact in India. Saving of jobs for US professionals will mean loss of jobs in the IT software and service sector in India. These are gloomy forebodings, but they signal towards the future scenario.

The saving feature at the present movement is that the contagion against outsourcing has hot spread to the European Union, the second biggest customer of IT services. Mr. Tony Blair, British Prime Minister has indicated that there is no proposal to ban outsourcing. But one cannot predict what is likely to happen in the future. Maybe at some stage, democracy may compel the Governments in European Union to follow the path shown by USA. National interests may dictate popular governments **to take** shelter – behind democratic pressure and act in a manner which sacrifices the WTO rules regarding globalization. History provides us ample examples when nations abandoned free trade and embraced protectionist policies to further national interests, and stay in power. But as indicated by Indian **IT** Minister, these policies are bound to hurt the movement for liberalization and globalization. Instead of integrating the world, such blunt anti-outsourcing measures are likely to generate pressures in India and other developing countries **to** create roadblocks at WTO negotiations and demand the application of a uniform policy for all members—whether from the developed or underdeveloped-world. **It** may lead to prolonging the deadlock in trade negotiations at Cancun still further.

Commerce Minister Arun Jaitley in response to Mr. Roben Zoellick, United States Trade Representative picks to reduce Indian tariffs further brought out in a very forthright manner the contradiction in US stand, when, he said on February 16, 2004 : "It is strange that on the one hand people are talking about opening of markets, and on the other "hand, banning Business Process Outsourcing (BPO). Our agriculture is fragile as it is not subsidized like in the US". Mr. Zoellick, however, tried to explain that anti-outsourcing law had its quota of "sensitive" issue for India, since 60 per cent of its population is dependent on agriculture. Indian economists strongly believe that opening up of Indian economy for farm exports may, be beneficial to the US interests, but it is bound, to have deep adverse structural impact on the farm sector in India. Such a course would be suicidal for India.

## 8.6 Self Check Questions

1. What is knowledge Economy?
2. Define information technology.

3. Discuss electronic governance.

## 8.7 Summary

Informational technology is the industry with through the use of computers and others supporting equipment helps in the spread of knowledge. With advancement in the technology information is being rewarded as the fourth factor of the production along with the land, labour and capital. Information has therefore become an important and distinct input in production. Thus along with primary, secondary and tertiary industries, fourth sector information related industries has emerged. With emergence of the various forms of information delivery system, such as TV, Radio, Newspapers, Telephones, Personal computers and internet into one unified system it is very desirable to improve the IT services to common man.

## 8.8 Glossary

**Information Technology :** the technology involving the development, maintenance, and use of computer systems, software, and networks for the processing and distribution of data

**Knowledge Economy:** A knowledge economy is an economy in which the production of goods and services is based primarily upon knowledge-intensive activities

**Outsourcing:** Outsourcing is the business practice of hiring a party outside a company to perform services and create goods that traditionally were performed

**Nationalism:** Nationalism refers to loyalty and devotion to a nation, especially a sense of national consciousness, and exalting one nation above all others and placing primary emphasis on promotion of its culture and interests as opposed to those of other nations.

**Globalisation:** Globalisation is the process of interaction and integration among people, companies, and governments worldwide.

## 8.9 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See the section no. 8.2, Lesson 8
2. See the section no. 8.1, Lesson 8
3. See the section no. 8.4, Lesson 8

## 8.10 Terminal Questions

1. Discuss the emergence of knowledge economy.
2. Describe the major issues of information technology in India.
3. Write short note on nationalism, globalization and outsourcing.

## 8.11 Suggested Readings

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.
3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media

\*\*\*\*\*

## LESSON 9

## **MNCs, WTO AND PUBLIC SECTOR**

### **Structure**

- 9.0 Learning Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Organization of Multinational Corporations
- 9.3 Reasons for the Growth of MNCs
- 9.4 Advantages of Private Foreign Investment
- 9.5 World Trade Organisation (WTO)
- 9.6 Functions and Organisation of WTO
- 9.7 GATT and WTO
- 9.8 India and WTO
- 9.9 Public Sector in the Indian Economy and the Issue of Privatisation
- 9.10 Public Sector and Economic Development
- 9.11 Performance of the Public Sector
- 9.12 Self Check Questions
- 9.13 Summary
- 9.14 Glossary
- 9.15 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 9.16 Terminal Questions
- 9.17 Suggested Readings

### **9.0 Learning Objectives**

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to :

1. Understand the MNCs and foreign capital
2. Discuss the functions and organisations of the WTO
3. Discuss the public and private sector in Indian economy

### **9.1 Introduction**

For a long period of time, private foreign investment was used, by the colonial powers to exploit the colonies. The sectors that received such investment were mostly export sectors and this led to an 'enclave type' of development — a few developed sectors co-existing with a large number of backward and stagnant domestic sectors. Circumstances have changed rapidly in recent decades as more and more countries have won independence; A Phenomenon of particular importance in the developing countries of today is the rapid expansion of the activities of multinational corporations (MNCs). MNCs are huge industrial organisations which extend, their industrial and marketing operations through a network of their branches or their Majority Owned Foreign Affiliates (MOFAs). MNCs are also known as

Transnational Corporations (TNCs). Instead of aiming for maximization of their profits from one or two products, the MNCs operate in a number of fields and from this point of view, 'their business strategy extends over a number of products and over a number of countries. There are now some 40,000 TNCs whose tentacles straddle the international economy through 2,50,000 overseas affiliates. They possess staggering resources as would be clear from the fact that the sales of 200 top corporations in 1982 were equivalent of 24.2 per cent of the world's GDP and have risen to 28.3 per cent of world GDP in 1998. This shows that 200 colossal corporations of the world now control over a quarter of the world's economic activity. In fact, the combined sales of these corporations estimated at \$ 7.1 trillion in 1998 surpass the combined economies of 182 countries. At the latest count, the world has 191 countries; If we subtract the GDP of the big nine **economies** — the United States of America, Japan, Germany, France, Italy, the United Kingdom, Brazil, Canada and China — the combined GDPs of the other 182 countries is \$ 6.9 trillion which is less than the sales of the 200 top corporations. Of the world's 5.6 billion people, the poorest 4.5 billion people account for only \$3.9 trillion economic activity which is only a little over half the combined revenue of \$ 7.1 trillion of the 200 top corporations of the world. This shows that the top 200 MNCs have almost twice the economic clout of the poorest four-fifths of the humanity. An idea of the giant size of these MNCs can also be had from the revelations made in a study conducted by the Washington based Institute for Policy Studies (IPS) that of the 100 largest economies in the world, 51 are corporations; only 49 are countries. Wal-Mart, the number one corporation is bigger than 163 countries, including Israel. Poland and Greece, Mitsubishi is larger than the fourth most populous nation, on earth: Indonesia, General Motors is bigger than Denmark, Ford is bigger than South Africa and Toyota is bigger than Norway.

The IPS report also points out the tendency towards concentration in sectors. For instance, over half of the sales of the top 200 MNCs are in just five economic sectors; and corporate concentration in these sectors is high. Half of the total sales are in trading, automobiles, banking, retailing and electronics. There is also a growing concentration of a few firms in each of these sectors. In automobiles, the top five firms account for almost 60 per cent of global sales. They also have over 30 per cent of global sales in airlines, aerospace, steel, oil, personal computers, chemicals, and the media.

A disturbing finding of the IPS report is that the top 200 MNCs have been 'net job destroyers' in recent years. Their combined global employment is less than three-fourths of one percent of the world's workers. Not only are these corporations cutting jobs but their CEOs have benefited immensely from these job cuts. The nine MNCs — A & T, Boeing, Lockheed-Martin, Bell-South, Kmart, Hase Manhattan, GTE, Mobil and Texaco not only resorted to massive lay offs; their CEOs made millions of dollars in the increased value of their stock options after announcing the lay-offs.<sup>3</sup>

The above data reveal the massive control exercised by the MNCs on the world economy. In fact, because of their huge capital resources, latest technology and worldwide goodwill, MNCs are in a position to sell whatever product they choose to manufacture in different countries. The above data also show that there is extreme 'concentration' at the top and the MNCs are creating a 'global apartheid' instead of an 'integrated global village' by resorting to massive lay-offs of workers. (See Box 40.1 for a graphic account of operations of MNCs).

## 9.2 ORGANISATION OF MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS

Subject to legal requirements, international agreements and commercial treaties, a multinational company can organise its operations in different countries through either of the following five alternatives

: (1) Branches, (2) Subsidiary companies, (3) Joint venture companies, (4) Franchise holders, and (4) Turnkey projects.

**Branches.** The simplest form of extending business operations is to set up several branches. Legally, the branch is not an independent entity and is linked up to the parent company existing in some other country. The Companies Act, 1956 regards all those companies which are incorporated outside India and have set up their business in India as foreign companies. **Subsidiaries.** A multinational firm may also operate by setting up national affiliates as subsidiary companies. A subsidiary in a particular country is established under the laws of that country. Such subsidiary companies take advantage of the financial and managerial skill of the holding company and also benefit by the international reputation that the latter enjoys. At the same time, they maintain their separate entity.

**Joint Venture-Companies.** At times, MNCs enter into a joint venture with an indigenous firm or agency. Under this arrangement the MNC makes available machinery, capital goods and technological expertise to the indigenous firm. This form of organisation is adopted in those countries where the law requires control by local nationals. For instance, the law in a particular country may require that the local national must own a specified percentage of the affiliate's equity.

**Franchise Holders.** This is a special kind of arrangement by which an affiliate firm produces or markets the produce of a multinational firm after obtaining a licence from that firm. A formal contract is entered into between the affiliate firm and the multinational firm which specifically mentions the rights that are transferred to the affiliate firm and lays down the Compensation (usually in the form of royalties) that it has to pay to the parent firm.

**Turn-Key Projects.** Under this organizational form, the multinational undertakes to complete the project from scratch to the operational stage. When the project is ready it is handed over to the host country. Frequently underdeveloped countries invite tenders for construction of certain projects requiring high technical skill. With their huge resources and managerial and technical expertise the MNCs are most suited to carry out this job.

Through these various methods of operations, MNCs carry their technology to the developing countries. If MNCs set up a branch or a subsidiary company, it is claimed that there is a direct injection of foreign experience and expertise in the developing country. The branch or the subsidiary company can provide a channel for the transmission of the latest improvements from the developed to the underdeveloped countries. According to A.K. Cairncross, "There is no question that the branch factory, is a highly effective way of importing technology. It usually provides along with the technical expertise, the capital that is not easily mobilised in underdeveloped countries, for new industrial ventures and the managerial experience that can so rarely be supplied by them."<sup>1</sup> However, success on this front depends crucially on how far the recipient countries are able to regulate the activities of MNCs keeping the local interests in view.

### 9.3 REASONS FOR THE GROWTH OF MNCs

Reasons for the growth of multinational corporations are manifold, the important ones being as follows :

1. **Expansion of market territory.** As the operations of a large-sized firm expand and as its international image builds up, it seeks more and more extension of its activities beyond the physical boundaries of the country in which it is incorporated.

2. **Marketing superiorities.** A multinational firm enjoys a number of marketing superiorities over the national firms : (a) It possesses a more reliable and up to date market information system; (b) It enjoys market reputation and faces less difficulty in selling its products; (c) It adopts more effective advertising and sales promotion techniques and (d) It has efficient warehousing facilities due to lower inventory requirements.
3. **Financial superiorities,** A multinational firm enjoys the following financial superiorities over the national firm ; (a) It has huge financial resources with which it can easily turn all circumstances in its favour; (b) It maintains a high level of funds utilization by generating funds in one country and using them in another; (c) It has easier access to external capital markets; and (d) because of its international reputation it is able to raise more international resources, even investors and banks of the host country are eager to invest in it."
4. **Technological superiorities.** The main reason why MNCs have been encouraged by the under-developed countries to participate in their industrial development is on account of the technological superiorities which these firms possess as compared to national companies. The underdeveloped countries' regard transfer of technology from MNCs useful on account of the following reasons of these countries are insufficient to sustain the industrial progress on their own; (b) Local manpower, materials, local capital equipment etc. have to be optimally exploited and these countries are unable to accomplish this; (c) depending totally on local companies would require heavy imports of raw materials, capital equipment, machinery and technical knowledge whereas MNCs bring these on their own; and (d) The underdeveloped countries have to face stiff competition for selling their products in international markets. Unless their goods meet international standards, and quality specifications, they cannot sell. MNCs help them in producing such goods.
5. **Product innovations.** MNCs have huge Research and Development departments engaged in the task of developing new products and superior designs of existing products. While developing new products and superior designs of existing products, the MNCs have an eye on a number of countries. Therefore their production opportunities are far greater as compared to national companies.

#### 9.4 ADVANTAGES OF PRIVATE FOREIGN INVESTMENT

The section on the 'Need for Foreign Capital' and the 'Reasons for the Growth of MNCs' mention some advantages of private foreign investment as well. In this section we propose to highlight some specific advantages of private foreign investment. These are as under :



1. Private foreign investment goes directly into capital formation and thus it constitutes a net addition to investible resources in the recipient country. This it helps in pushing up the rate of growth of the economy.
2. Being subject of business calculation of private profit it is likely to be employed more productively as compared to public financial aid.
3. When made available in the form of direct business investment' (as in the case of investment by MNCs) foreign 'private investment promotes the spread of modern technology and efficient management methods.
4. Foreign investment may also induce more domestic investment. For instance, ancillary domestic units can be set up to 'feed' the main industrial unit set up by the foreign investor.
5. By setting an example, and through the training that they sponsor, foreign direct investments as by MNCs) contribute to the transfer of technology to the underdeveloped countries and in encouraging the growth of skills.
6. Since returns on foreign investment are linked to the profits earned by the firm, it is more 'flexible' as compared to foreign loans which are guided by rigid interest and amortization requirements.
7. Foreign investment results in a pattern of growth which is desirable from the point of view of underdeveloped countries since new products are introduced and marketed, new tastes are created, and specific needs of the recipient country are met.
8. Free flow of capital is conducive both to total world welfare and to the welfare of each individual country. The operations of foreign firms, especially of modern multinational firms, knit countries together and closer into the web of international commerce, both by (internal and horizontal) economic integration and by the transmission of tastes, designs, ideas and technology.

The real case for encouraging private foreign investment rests on whether it helps in raising productivity or not. If it does, and if the resulting increase is not wholly appropriated by the investor, the greater product must be shared with others. This would mean some direct benefits to other income groups. These benefits can accrue to (a) domestic labour in the form of higher real wages (b) consumers by way of lower prices, and (c) the government through higher tax revenue. Beyond this, and most importantly in many cases, there are likely to be (d) indirect gains through the realisation of external economies.

The pro-foreign investment arguments are **not** entirely correct and **have been** contested by various economists. It has been noted in a large number of countries that although foreign

companies provide capital and thereby, raise the level of capital formation in the short run, they have a tendency **to lower** domestic savings and investment rates by stifling competition, failing to invest most of the profit earned and inhibiting the expansion of indigenous firms. The management and technology provided by the MNCs rarely meet the local requirements.

**TABLE 1.1**  
**THE WORLD'S LARGEST CORPORATIONS**

Rank 2000	Rank 1999	Company Name	Home Country	Revenues \$ billion	Assets \$ billion
<b>Developed Countries</b>					
1	3	Exxon Mobil	US	210.4	149.0
2	2	Wal-Mart Stores	US	193.3	77.9
3	1	General Motors	US	184.6	303.1
4	4	Ford Motor	US	180.6	284.4
5	5	Daimlerchrysler	Germany	150.1	187.1
6	11	Royal Dutch/Shell Group	UK/Netherlands	149.1	122.5
7	17	BP	UK	148.1	143.9
8	9	General Electric	US	129.8	437.0
9	7	Mitsubishi	Japan	126.5	64.4
10	8	Toyota Motor	Japan	121.4	139.8
11	6	Mitsui	Japan	11.8	53.5
12	18	City group	US	111.8	902.2
13	10	Itochu	Japan	109.8	41.2
14	50	Total Fina Elf	France	105.9	82.4
15	13	Nippon Telegraph & Telephone	Japan	103.2	169.3
16	62	Enron	US	100.8	65.5
17	15	Axa	France	92.7	445.6 <i>i</i>
18	12	Sumitomo	Japan	91.2	39.5
19	16	Intl. Business Machines	US	88.4	88.4
20	14	Marubeni	Japan	85.4	42.5
<b>Developing Countries</b>					
45	102	Povsa	Venezuela	53.7	57.1

68	58	Sinopec	China	45.3	64.7
77	83	State Power	China	42.5	149.9
81	144	<b>Pemex</b>	Mexico	42.2	59.6
83	—	China National Petroleum	China	41.7	79.3
92	131	Samsung Electronics	South Korea	38.5	36.7
103	107	Hyundai .	South Korea	36.0	0.8
105	115	Samsung	South Korea	35.9	5.8
123	105	SK	South Korea	35.9	5.8
149	202	Hyundai Motor	South Korea	28.8	25.3
160	280	Petrobras	Brazil	27.0	39.2
193	301	LG International .	SouthKorea	23.5	0.4
209	232	Indian Oil .	India	22.3	10.3
213	208	Industrial & Commercial Bank of China .	China	22.1	483.0
222	257	SamsungLife Insurance	South Korea	21.2	40.3
228	236	China Telecommunications	China	20.8	63.7
244	308	L.G. Electronix	South Korea	20.1	16.8
251	255	Bank of China.	China	19.5	382.7
254	.311	Petronas	Malaysia	19.3	36.6
276	307	Sinochem	China	18.0	4.7

**Source Fortune., no.16 July 23, 2001**

## 9.5 WORLD TRADE ORGANISATION

The signing of the Final Act of the Uruguay Round by member nations of GATT in April 1994 paved the way for the setting up of the World Trade Organisation (WTO). An agreement to this effect was signed by 104 members. The WTO agreement came into force from January 1, 1995 and India has become a founder member of the World Trade Organisation, by ratifying the WTO Agreement on December 30, 1994.

The former GATT was not really an organisation : it was merely a legal arrangement. On the other hand, the WTO is a new international organisation set up as a permanent body and is designed to play the role of a watchdog in the spheres of trade in goods, trade in services, foreign investment, intellectual property rights etc.

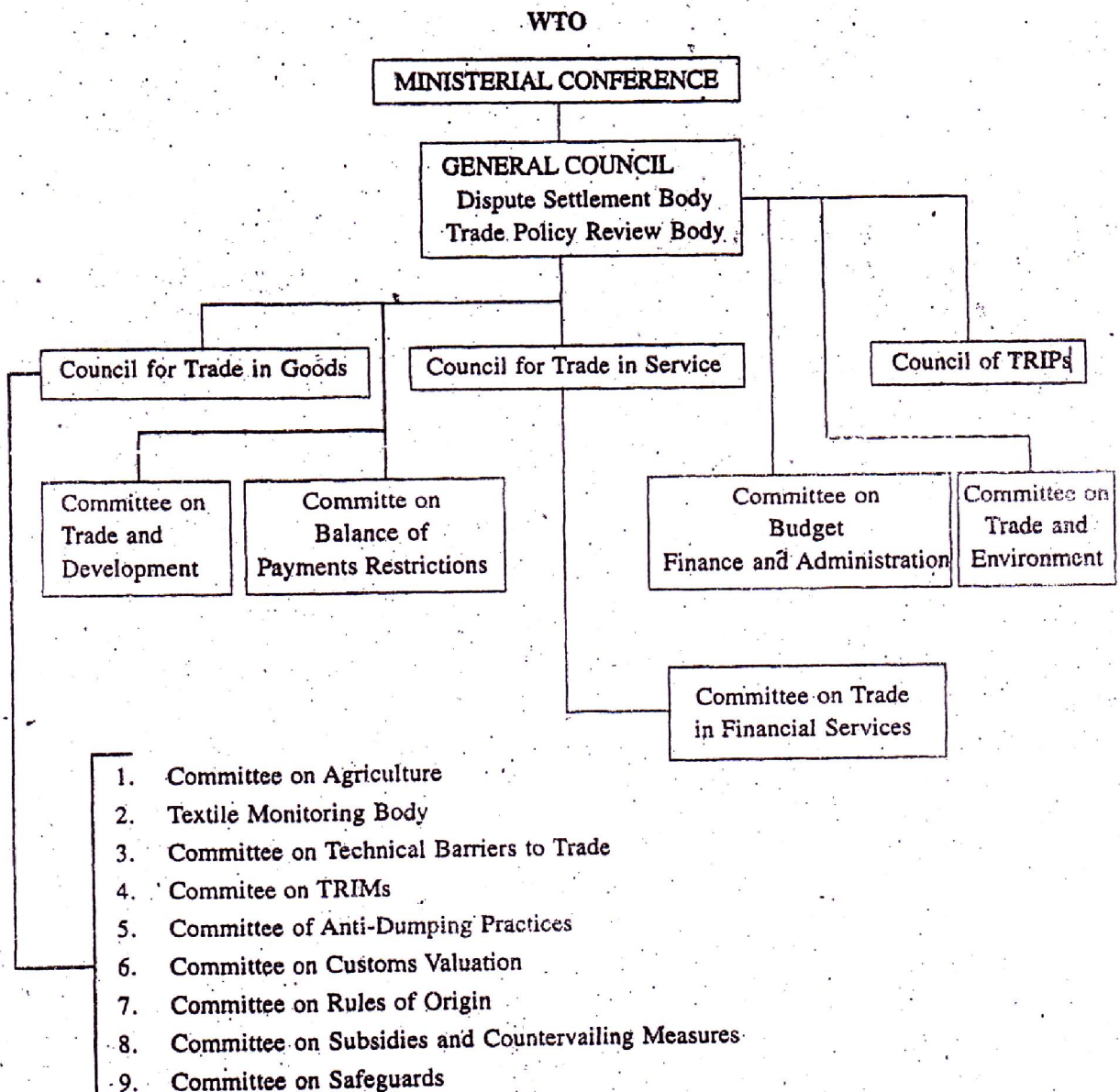
## 9.6 FUNCTIONS AND ORGANISATION OF WTO

The Purpose of the WTO is spelled out in the Preamble and Article II of the agreement establishing the WTO. Paragraph I of Article I reads : "The WTO shall provide the common institutional framework for the conduct of trade relations among its members in matters related to the agreements

and associated legal instruments included in the Annexes to this Agreement". WTO has the following five functions as set out in Article III.

First the WTO shall facilitate the implementation, administration and operation, and further the objectives, of this agreement and of the Multilateral Trade Agreement, and shall also provide the frame work for the implementation, administration and operation of the Plurilateral Trade Agreements.

### ORGANISATION STRUCTURE OF WTO



The Ministerial conference and all other bodies except the Textile Monitoring Body consist of the entire membership of the WTO. The membership of some of these bodies is by self-selection. The Textile Monitoring Body consists of its Chairperson and 10 other members of WTO.

The General Council itself will meet as the Dispute Settlement Body and the Trade Policy Review Body.

'Source : Muchkund Debey, An Unequal Treaty : World Trading Order After GATT, New Delhi; (New Age International Limited 1996). p. 104.

## **9.7 GATT AND WTO**

Second, the WTO 'shall provide the forum for negotiations among its members concerning their multilateral trade relations in matters dealt with under the agreements in the Annexes to this Agreement.

Third, the WTO 'shall administer the Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Dispute'.

Fourth, the WTO shall administer the trade policy Review Mechanism';

Fifth, "with a view to achieving greater coherence in global economic policy-making, the World Trade Organisation shall cooperate, as appropriate, with the International Monetary Fund and with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and its affiliated agencies.

The organisational structure of WTO is presented in Chart 20.1. The highest body will be the Ministerial Conference. This will consist of representatives of all the members and will meet at least once every two years. There will also be a General Council: again consisting of representative of all the members. It is the real engine of the WTO which shall act on behalf of the Ministerial Conference. The General Council itself will meet as the Dispute Settlement Body and the Trade Policy Review Body.

There are three councils working under the General Council ; Council for Trade in Goods, Council for Trade in Services and Council of TRIPs.

The Ministerial Conference has the authority to create special committees. Accordingly, a Committee on Trade and Development, a Committee on balance of Payments Restrictions and a Committee on Budget, Finance and Administration were created. In addition, to be seen from the chart, a Committee on Trade and Economic Environment and a Committee on Trade in Financial Services were also created.

## **9.8 INDIA AND WTO**

No other issue in recent times has generated so much heat than the likely repercussions of the new international economic order on world economy in general and developing countries in particular. According to the supporters, the Uruguay Round agreement, the Marrakesh Declaration (which reiterated, the commitment of the ministers of various governments attending the Final Round to the new multinational trade framework) and the ultimate setting up of the WTO, are expected to bring about substantial gains in world trade and increased income from liberalization, improved market access and greater export opportunities, besides greater predictability of the trading environment. The Government of India has also been harping on this tune. However, critics have pointed out that the entire negotiation process was ruthlessly dominated by the developed countries (Particularly the USA) and the results that have emerged (in the form of various Agreements noted above) are highly tilted in their favour. The poor countries operated in the periphery, seldom consulted until the rich ones had completed negotiations among themselves. As noted by Kelvin Watkins, "Whatever the skills

of negotiators from the South, for the most part they are like extras on the GATT stage: the show cannot go on without them, to nobody is remotely interested in what they have to say." In this section we first of all, highlight the commitments made by the Government of India to the WTO and then discuss the likely favourable and unfavourable effects of the new world economic order on the Indian economy, i.e. how integration of the Indian economy into the global economy is likely to affect us.

## INDIA'S COMMITMENTS TO WTO

1. **Tariff Lines** : As a member of the WTO, India has bound about 67 per cent of its tariff lines whereas prior to the Uruguay Round only 6 per cent of the tariff lines were bound. For non-agricultural goods, with a few exceptions, ceiling bindings of 40 per cent and valorem on finished goods and 25 per cent on intermediate goods, machinery and equipment have been undertaken. The phased reduction to these bound levels is being undertaken over the period March 1995 to the year, 2005. In textiles, where reduction will be achieved over a period of 10 years, India has reserved the right to revert to duty levels prevailing in 1990. If the integration process, envisaged under the agreement on Textiles and Clothing does not materialise in full or is delayed. Under the Agreement on Agriculture, except for a few items, India's bound rate range from 100 to 300 per cent and no commitments have been made regarding market access of subsidies or tariffs.
2. **Quantitative Restrictions (QRs)**. QRs on imports maintained on balance of payments grounds were notified to WTO in 1997 for 2,714 tariff lines at the eight digit level. In view of the improvements in India's balance of payments, the Committee on Balance of Payments Restrictions had asked India for a phase out for the QRs. Based on presentations before this Committee and subsequent consultations with main trading partners, India reached an agreement with these countries, except USA, to phase out the QRs over a period of six years beginning 1997. The USA preferred a dispute under the WTO's dispute Settlement Mechanism. The Disputes Settlement Panel and the Appellate Body ruled in favour of USA and against India. As a result, India was required to phase out QRs in a period of less than six years. In fact, an agreement between USA and India was reached which envisaged the phasing out of all QRs by India by April 1, 2001. In line with this agreement, India removed QRs on 714 items in the Exim Policy announced on March 31, 2000 and on the remaining 715 items in the Exim Policy announced on March 31, 2001.

By their ruling against India, the Disputes Settlement Panel and the Appellate Body have overruled the decision of the Committee on Balance of Payments. According to Biswajit Dharm this brings into clear focus, the fact that the supposedly democratic structure of the WTO, which operates through the various Committees comprising of the member States can be undermined by the Disputes Settlement Panel. 'The experts, who adjudicate the disputes between the WTO member States, even disregard the institutional basis of the organization which passing their judgements.'

3. **TRIPs**. The ruling of the two WTO Dispute Settlement Panels following the complaints made by the USA and the European Union that India had failed to meet its commitments under Article 70.8 (requiring the setting up of the Mail Box System) and Article 70.9 (granting of Exclusive Marketing Rights) made it obligatory for the Government of India to make appropriate amendments to the Patents Act, 1970 by April 19, 1999. The Patents (Amendment) Act, 1999 was passed by the Parliament in

March 1999 to provide for Exclusive Marketing Rights. In respect of plant varieties, a decision has been taken to put in place a sui generis system as it is perceived to be in our national interest.

As far as copyrights and related rights are concerned, the Copyright Act 1957 as amended in 1994 takes care of our interest and meets the requirements of the TRIPs Agreement except in the case of terms of protection of performers' rights. A Bill to increase this term to 50 years was passed by Parliament in December, 1999. As far as lay-out designs are concerned, a legislation giving protection to them was introduced in the Rajya Sabha on December 20, 1999 by the Department of Electronics. In the field of trade marks, The Trade and Merchandise Marks Act (TMMA), 1958 is in its essential features, in accordance with international law. A Bill passed in Parliament in December, 1999 provides for protection to service marks. On the question of geographic indications, there is specific law in India for this purpose. Case law, however, enables legal action for protection of geographical indications'. The Government of India decided to enact a new law on the subject to take advantage of the provisions of the TRIPs Agreement. A Bill in this regard was passed by the Parliament in December 1999.

4. **TRIMs.** Under the **TRIMs Agreement**, developing countries were granted a transition period of 5 years up to December 31, 1999 'during which they could continue to maintain measures inconsistent with the Agreement provide these were duly notified'. The Government of India, notified two TRIMs, viz, that relating to local content requirements in the production of certain pharmaceutical products and dividend balancing' requirement in the case of investment in 22 categories of consumer items.
5. **GATS.** Under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), India has made commitments in 33 activities. Foreign service providers will be allowed to enter these activities. According to the Government of India, the choice of the activities has been guided by considerations of national benefit (viz., the impact on capital inflows, technology and employment).
6. **Customs Valuation Rules.** India's legislation of Customs Valuation Rules, 1998, has been amended to bring it in conformity with the provisions of the WTO Agreement on implementation of Article VII of GAIT 1994 and the Customs Valuation Agreement.

## 9.9 PUBLIC SECTOR IN THE INDIAN ECONOMY AND THE ISSUE OF PRIVATISATION

The present India economic structure is often characterised as 'mixed economy'. There are two fields of production in the structure—the private sector and the public sector. The presence of public sector in the Indian economy is by no means a novel experiment. Even in the capitalist countries of the West, the State has not only interfered in the economic life at times, but also participated directly in the production and distribution activities. Especially in those countries where the process of industrialization was initiated quite late, the role of the State in economic development has been very significant. The contribution of State in industrialization has been important even in countries like Japan, Germany and the USA.

### DIVISION OF THE ECONOMY INTO PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

At the time of the Independence, activities of the public sector were restricted to a limited field like irrigation, power, railways, ports, communications and some departmental undertakings. After Independence, the area of activities of the public sector expanded at a very rapid speed. To assure the

private sector that its activities will to be unduly curbed, two industrial policy resolutions were issued in 1948 and 1956 respectively. These policy resolutions divided the industries into different categories. Some fields were left entirely for the public sector, some fields were divided between the public and the private sector and some others were left totally to the private sector. A cursory glance at the division of fields of industries were kept for the public sectors, the entire field of consumer goods industries (having high and low profit yielding consumer goods industries, etc., are in the public sector, the entire agricultural sector (which is the largest sector of the economy) has been left to the private sector.

The important point that arises at this juncture is — why were the heavy and basic industries like iron and steel, heavy engineering, heavy electrical plant, etc., selected for development in the public sector while quickly yielding consumer goods industries were left for the private sector? The answer to this question has been attempted by R.K. Hazari according to whom the industrial programmes of government that emerged after 1995 were built around two hypotheses:

- (i) private investment in relatively simple goods would be promoted by shutting out imports as well as through excess capacity; home, with a consequent boost to exports and
- (ii) public investment, being autonomous of profits, would take place in basic areas which had long gestation periods, low or no profits, a large foreign exchange component, technology and equally complex problems of coordination.

The logic of the first hypothesis was that private investment was in the nature of 'induced investment' and could be promoted by adopting a policy of protection against imported substitutes. The logic of the second hypothesis was that investments in low profit yielding and heavy investment requiring industries were in the nature of 'autonomous investment' and could, accordingly, be undertaken only by the State.

## 9.10 PUBLIC SECTOR AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Public Sector in India has been criticized vehemently by a number of supporters of the private sector who have chosen to shut their eyes towards the achievements of the public sector. Following description should be sufficient to convince one that the sector has played a definite positive role in the economy.

Public sector and capital formation. The role of public sector in collecting savings and investing them during the planning era has been important. During the First and Second Plans, of the total investment, 54 per cent was in the public sector and the remaining in the private sector. The share of public sector rose to 60 per cent in the Third plan. The Fifth, Sixth and Seventh Plans envisaged respectively 57.6 per cent, 52.9 per cent and 47.89 per cent share of public sector in plan investment. As against this, the actual share of public sector in plan investment was 43.3 per cent and 45.7 per cent respectively in these plans. The Eighth Plan envisaged 45.2 per cent share of public sector in plan investment whereas the share of public sector in total plan investment declined further to just 33 per cent. This reflects the increasing importance that is now being accorded to the private sector. The nationalized banks, State Bank of India, Industrial Development Bank of India, Industrial Finance Corporation of India, State Financial Corporations, LIC, UTI etc. have played an important role in collecting savings and mobilization of resources.

However, savings in the public sector, itself are not much. In fact, there has been a precipitous fall in the share of public sector in gross domestic savings during the last two decades and a



half; it was 18.2 per cent in 1980 - 81, 8.1 per cent in 1995-96 and 6.5 per cent in 1997-98. During the period of Sixth Plan as a whole, public saving was 19.6 per cent of total domestic saving and this fell to 11.1 per cent during the period of the Seventh Plan and just 6.6 per cent in Eighth Plan. During the first year of the Ninth Plan, 1997-98 share of public sector in total savings was just 6.6 per cent. Savings in the public sector were, in fact, negative in the next two years, 1998-99 and 1999-2000. For instance, savings in public sector in 1998-99 were Rs. 14,345 crore and in 1999-2000, — Rs. 23,220 crore. The share of public sector in gross domestic capital formation (GDCP) which was 44.6 per cent during Sixth Plan fell to 37.7 per cent during Eighth Plan. In 1999-2000, it was just 30.3 per cent.

**Development of infrastructure.** The primary condition of economic development in any included developed country is the infrastructure should develop at a rapid pace. Without a sufficient expansion of irrigation, facilities and power and energy; one cannot even conceive of agricultural development. In the same way without an adequate development of transportation and communication facilities, fuel and energy, and basic and heavy industries, the process from the colonial period. After independence, the private sector neither showed any inclination to develop nor did it have any resources to make this possible. It was comparatively weak both financially and technically, and was incapable of establishing a heavy industry immediately. These factors made the State's participation in industrialization of essential since only the government could enforce a large-scale and mobilization of capital, the coordination, of industrial construction, and training of technicians. The government has not only improved the road, rail, air, and sea transport system, it has also expended the manifold. The government has public sector has enabled the economy to develop a strong infrastructure for the future economic growth. The private sector also has benefited immensely from these investments undertaken by the public sector.

**Strong industrial base.** The share of the industrial sector, (comprising manufacturing, construction, electricity, gas and water supply) in Gross Domestic Product at factor cost has increased slowly but steadily during the period of planning. The share of the industrial sector in GDP at factor cost rose from 13.3 per cent in 1950 - 51 to 21.6 per cent in 1980 - 81 and further to 24.6 per cent in 1999 - 2000. On the other hand, the share of agriculture in GDP at factor cost declined from 59.2 per cent in 1950-51 to 41.8 per cent in 1980-81 and further to 27.5 per cent in 1999 - 2000 (at 1993 - 94 prices). These data amply bring out the increasing importance of the industrial sector in the Indian economy. Not only this, the industrial base of the Indian economy is much stronger than what it was in 1950 - 51. There has been significant growth in the defence industries and industries of strategic importance. The government has strengthened the industrial base considerably by placing due emphasis on the setting up of industries in the following fields — iron and steel, heavy engineering, coal, heavy electrical machinery, petroleum and natural gas, chemicals and drugs, fertilizers, etc. Because of their low profitability potential in the short run, these industries do not find favour with the private sector. However, unless, these industries are set up, the consumer goods industries cannot progress at a sufficiently rapid pace. Therefore the production of consumer goods industries. As noted by A.H. Hanson. "Even the view that it is the function of the State to provide only basic 'services' leaves room for a great deal of public enterprises, which are usually capable of, attracting some private capital, depend on the 'services' of the producer - goods industries which are usually capable of attracting some private capital, depend on the 'services' of the producer - goods Industries, in which private capital is at least initially — less interested. Hence one can argue, without any 'socialistic' overtones, that as — of instance — textile or food - processing industries need the support of native equipment

not being available from abroad owing to foreign exchange difficulties, delivery delays, etc.) and as no private entrepreneurs show any inclination to pioneer the latter, the State must state in and do the pioneering itself."

**Economies of Scale.** In the case of those industries where for technological reasons, the plants have to be large requiring huge investments, setting up of these industries in the public sector can prevent the concentration of economic and industrial power in private hands, it is a known fact that in the presence of significant economies of scale, the free market does not produce the best results. Accordingly, considerations of economic efficiency, require some form of government or public ownership. Even in the U.S.A. firms in the electric power, natural gas, telephone and some other industries are being regulated by Federal and State regulatory commissions. Countries like France and the United Kingdom have explicitly preferred public ownership in these fields.

**Removal of regional disparities.** The government in India has sought to use its power of setting up of industries as means of removing regional disparities in industrial development. In the pre-Independence period, most of industrial progress of the country was limited in and around the port towns of Mumbai, Calcutta and Chennai. Other parts of the country lagged far behind. After the initiation of the planning process in the country, in 1951, the government has paid particular attention to the problem and has set up industries in a number of areas hitherto neglected by the private sector. Thus major proportion investment of Rs. 1,14,647 crore by public sector enterprises till 1990-91, as much as Rs. 40,721 crore (i.e. 35.5 per cent) was accounted for by the four backward states of Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh. Their share in public sector employment was 43 per cent. All the four major steel plants in the public sector - Bhilai Steel Plant, Rourkela Steel Plant, Durgapur Steel Plant and Bokaro Steel Plant - were set up in the backward States. It was believed that the setting up of large scale public sector projects in the backward areas would usher a propulsive mechanism in them and cause economic development of the hinterland. These considerations also guided the location of machinery and machine tools factories, aircraft, transport equipment, fertiliser plants etc.

**Import substitution and export promotion.** The foreign exchange problem often emerges as a serious constraint on the programmes of industrialization in a developing economy. The constraint appeared in a rather way in India during the Second Plan and the subsequently plans. Because of these considerations, all such industries that help in import substitution are of crucial importance for the economy. Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited, Bharat Electronics Ltd. Hindustan Antibiotics Ltd. Indian Oil Corporation, Oil and Natural Gas Commission etc., in the public sector are of special importance from this point of view.

Several public sector enterprises have also played an important role in expanding the exports of the country. Specific reference of Hindustan Steel Limited, Hindustan Machine Tools Limited, Bharat Electronics Ltd. State Trading Corporation and Metals and Minerals Trading Corporation can be made in this context.

**Check over concentration of economic power.** In capitalist economy where the public sector is practically non-existent or is very small size, economic power gets increasingly in a few hands and inequalities of income and wealth increase. During the four and half decades of planning in this country it has been said time and again the expansion of public sector will help in putting a brake on the tendency towards concentration of wealth and economic power in the private sector.

Public sector can help in reducing inequalities in the economy in a number of ways. For instance (i) profits of the public sector can be used directly by the government on the programmes of the poorer sections of community ; (ii) public sector can adopt a discrimination policy by

supplying materials to small industrialists at low prices and big industrialists at high prices ; (iii) public sector can give better wages to the lower staff as compared to the private sector and can also implement programmes of labour welfare, construction of colonies and township for labourers, slum clearance, etc ; and (iv) public sector can orient production machinery towards the production of mass consumption goods.

### 9.11 PERFORMANCE OF THE PUBLIC SECTOR

It is usual to judge the performance of private sector units by the yardstick of net profit or loss since in their case, maximization of profit is the sole aim. This yardstick fails miserably in the case of public sector undertakings. Such units are frequently started in those sectors where profitability is low and gestation period long. For instance, investment in infrastructure and basic industries is not likely to yield early returns and accordingly, profits in the "beginning are likely to be very low and in some instances, may even be negative. Yet these investments serve important ends since they create the basis for expansion of industrial activities in the future. Investment made by the public sector in the steel industry, fertilizers, power projects, mining etc., come under this category. Then, in some cases, public sector provides inputs in very easy for it to earn huge profits by merely hiking the prices of its output. However, this is likely to have an adverse impact on the industrial activity in the private sector on the one hand, and push up prices on the other. Accordingly, prices are intentionally kept low even though this cuts into the profits of the public sector seriously. Also, as noted by Hazari and Oza, private sector has invested mostly in consumer and lighter goods which have been granted far greater protection against external competition as compared to capital goods which are mostly produced by the public sector and which need stiff competition from imports financed by aid and foreign private investment. Another point that needs specific mention is that the public sector is not merely capital - intensive and characterized by longer gestation periods ; in steel, which accounts for the bulk of investments, it is also material intensive, and to that extent its value added component is smaller than in items like say chemicals.

Because of considerations such as these, it is often maintained that the performance of the public sector units should not be judged by what they earn in the form of profits but by the total additions they made to the flow of goods and services in the economy. Thus, instead of profits, the yardstick should be the *total value of the sales of an enterprise*. For instance, if an iron and steel plant produces steel worth Rs. 1,500 crore in a certain specified period but makes no profit because its aim is to provide steel at low prices to the industries using steel as an input, it would be wrong to say that its performance is disappointing on this count alone. What is from the point of view of the industrial development of the country is the fact that this plant has added steel worth Rs. 1,500 crore to the social pool of goods and services obtaining in the country.

### EXPANSION OF THE PUBLIC SECTOR AND ITS SHARE IN NATIONAL PRODUCTION

Public enterprises in India constitute a major national capability in terms of their scale of operations, coverage of the national economy, technological capabilities, and stock of human capital. There are over a thousand public enterprises, about 800 of which are owned by the States. The rest are in the Central sector. **They** include departmental undertakings (e.g. railways, post and telecommunications), financial institutions (e.g., the State Bank of India, the Industrial Development Bank of India, Unit **Trust** of India), and non-departmental enterprises or government companies or corporations which are either incorporated under the Company law (e.g., the Steel Authority of India and the Indian Petrochemical Corporation Ltd.) or statutorily created by Acts of Parliament (e.g. Coal India, Air India, Airlines and the national Thermal Power-Corporations).

Details regarding the expansion and performance of public sector enterprises are presented in Table 1.

There were only 5 Central public Sector enterprises at the commencement of the First Five Year Plan with investment amounting to Rs. 29 crore only. The number rose to 163 in 1980 – 81 and 235 in 1998 - 99. Capital employed in them correspondingly rose to Rs. 18,207 crore in 1980-81 and to a staggering Rs. 2,73,697 crore in 1998-99. Gross sales of central public sector enterprises rose from Rs. 28,635 crore in 1980-81 to Rs. 3,09,994 crore in 1998-99. Of the total investment in central public sector enterprises in 1998-99, 68.6 per cent was in enterprises producing and selling goods while 29.6 per cent was in service enterprises. As far as the former is concerned; the four and most important sectors were power (accounting for 15.7 per cent of total investment). In the case of service enterprises, the most important were financial services with a share of 16.2 per cent in total investment in 1998 - 99. As far as the share in national production is concerned, central public sector enterprises play a pivotal role in the production of fuels, basic metal industries, non - ferrous metal industries, fertilisers and communication equipment.

### THE QUESTIONS OF PROFITABILITY

Though we have pointed the earlier that profits are not the criterion for examining the performance of public sector enterprises, their financial performance is of wide interest and concern as they are set up to a huge cost to the national exchequer. As is clear from Table 1, gross profit of public sector enterprises increased from Rs. 418 crore in 1980-81 to Rs. 39,776 crore in 1998-99 while net profit which was negative in 1980-81 turned to an impressive positive figure of Rs. 13,235 crore in 1998-99. The ratio of gross profit to capital employed which was 7.8 per cent in 1980-81 rose to 14.5 per cent in 1998-91. Over the same period, the ratio of gross profit to turnover rose from 5.0 per cent to 12.8 per cent while the ratio of net profit to capital employed which was 1.1 per cent in 1980-81 rose to 5.4 per cent in but fell to 4.8 per cent in 1998-99.

It is important to note here that performance of public sector enterprises has improved considerably in recent years. In fact, net profit of these enterprises rose significantly from only Rs. 2,272 crore in 1990-91 to as high as Rs. 13,235 crore in 1998-99. What is more, the reliance of public sector enterprises on budgetary resources declined while their gross internal resource generation increased. Gross internal resource generation in 1991-92 was Rs. 12,943 crore which rose by 242 per cent to Rs. 31,301 crore in 1998-99. The contribution of public sector enterprises to exchequer increased markedly from Rs. 19,264 crore in 1991-92 to Rs. 46,925 crore in 1998-99 (an increase of 244 per cent). Despite all this, and despite the fact that the ratio of net profit to capital employed, touched 5.4 per cent in 1997-98, the fact of the matter is that the ratio of net capital to profit employed to be highly inadequate looking at the colossal investments that have been made in the public sector (in a number of years in recent past their ratio has been in the range 2.0 to 2.5 per cent). Bimal Jalan has recently alleged that it is this low return on investment in the public sector enterprises that is to a large responsible for the fiscal crisis of the central government.

### EMPLOYMENT AND LABOUR WELFARE

As far as this criterion of the performance is concerned, the public sector seems to have done exceedingly well. It has contributed to a significant extent to improving the overall

employment situation in the country and has acted as a model employer, by providing the workers with better wages and other facilities as compared to the private sector. The number of persons employed in the central public sector enterprises are about 2 million. The industrial sectors which have a sizable number of employees in the public sector include coal, steel, textiles, heavy engineering, and medium and light engineering. The average worker in public sector enterprises is also higher than in the private sector.

The public sector enterprises have also spent a considerable amount on the development of townships around them. These townships were provided with facilities like schools, hospitals, shopping complexes, etc. A substantial sum of money is spent annually on the maintenance and administration of these townships and social overheads. For instance, gross expenditure worth Rs. 3,323 crore was incurred by public sector units in 1998-99 on township maintenance, administration and social overheads. The employees of the public sector enterprises also enjoy medical amenities, subsidized canteen facilities, transport and educational facilities etc.

### **PUBLIC SECTOR AND FOREIGN EX-CHANGE EARNINGS**

'Enterprises in the public sector have helped the economy' in earning substantial amount of foreign exchange and also in saving, the foreign exchange and expenditure via their efforts at import substitution, Capital goods, industrial machinery, and other equipment which are totally imported about three decades back or now being mostly manufactured in the country in the economy itself. This has saved valuable foreign exchanges. The ONGC and Indian Oil Corporation have helped the country in reducing the dependence on foreign imports. The Hindustan Antibiotics Ltd. and the Indian Drugs and Pharmaceuticals Ltd. have entered the field of manufacture of drugs and pharmaceuticals in a big way. While this has helped in saving foreign exchange on the one hand it has almost enabled the country to break the stranglehold of foreign companies in this field. As far as foreign exchange earnings are concerned, the public sector has services rendered by the public sector undertakings, and (iii) through trading and marketing services of the understanding through which exports are canalized. The public sector provided one-fifth of the total export earnings through the eighties.

### **THE QUESTIONS OF EFFICIENCY**

Though there is no dispute regarding the role of the public sector undertaking in country's economic development, yet the feeling widely prevalent is that the rate of profit in these undertakings is either too low or is negative. Accordingly, they are inefficient.

However, it is not so easy to decide the efficiency of the public sector undertakings. As noted by us earlier, the rate of profit might be a good criterion; to judge, the efficiency of a private sector.

#### **9.12 Self Check Questions**

1. Define MNCs.
2. Explain the Organisation structure of WTO.
3. Discuss the role of the public sector in Indian Economy.

#### **9.13 Summary**

A multinational corporation is a company that operates in its home country, as well as in other countries around the world. It maintains a central office. ... Lasting interest differentiates FDI from foreign portfolio investments, where investors passively hold securities from a foreign country. The WTO

has a crucial role in promoting free, fair and stable trade. This is to the benefit not just of developed countries but the developing even more so: "... if the poor are to have any hope of better lives their countries must be given greater opportunities to participate in the global trading system. Of course trade liberalisation must be planned, phased in, and based on clear rules. Of course it must be accompanied by increased trade capacity and domestic pro-poor policies. But the WTO is the only place where global trade development can take place in a way shaped by the developing world. Without the WTO we are left with the economics of the bully. Public sector occupied a worthy place for achieving systematic and planned development in a developing country like India. In a country like India suffering from multi-dimensional problems, private sector is not in a position to make necessary effort for the development of its various sectors simultaneously.

#### 9.14 Glossary

**MNCs:** A multinational corporation (MNC) is usually a large corporation incorporated in one country which produces or sells goods or services in various countries

**Joint Venture:** Joint venture (JV) is a business arrangement in which two or more parties agree to pool their resources for the purpose of accomplishing a specific task.

**Public Sector:** The public sector is that portion of an economic system that is controlled by national, state or provincial, and local governments.

**Private Sector:** The private sector is the part of the economy, sometimes referred to as the citizen sector, which is owned by private individuals or groups, usually as a means of enterprise for profit, rather than being owned by the State.

**GATT:** The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) is a legal agreement between many countries, whose overall purpose was to promote international trade by reducing or eliminating trade barriers such as tariffs or quotas.

**TRIPs:** The Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPs) is an international legal agreement between all the member nations of the World Trade Organization (WTO).

**Foreign Exchange:** Foreign exchange is the exchange of one currency for another or the conversion of one currency into another currency.

#### 9.15 Answers: Self-check Questions

1. See the section no. 9.1, Lesson 9
2. See the section no. 9.6, Lesson 9
3. See the section no. 9.10, Lesson 9

#### 9.16 Terminal Questions

1. What are MNCs? Explain its advantages and disadvantages.
2. Discuss the functions of WTO.
3. Discuss the role of public and private sector in Indian economy.

#### 9.17 Suggested Readings

1. Aswathappa, K., (2009). *Essentials of Business Environment*. Global Media.
2. Dave, B., (2009). *Business Environment in Modern Era*. Global Media.
3. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media

4. Bedi Suresh (2006). *Business Environment*, Excel Books,
5. Mishra, Puri (2006). *Economic Environment of Business*, Himalaya PublicationsHouse,

\*\*\*\*\*

**LESSON 10****SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND FUTURE CHALLENGES****Structure**

- 10.0 Learning Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Sustainable Development
- 10.3 Economy, Environment Interaction
- 10.4 Future Challenges of Society and Business in 21<sup>st</sup> Century
- 10.5 Self Check Questions
- 10.6 Summary
- 10.7 Glossary
- 10.8 Answers: Self-check Questions
- 10.9 Terminal Questions
- 10.10 Suggested Readings

**10.0 Learning Objectives**

After going through this lesson the learners will be able to :

1. Understand the concepts of sustainable development.
2. Discuss the interaction of economy and environment.
3. Explain the Future Challenges of Society and Business in 21<sup>st</sup> Century.

**10.1 Introduction**

The environment has' been the subject of a great deal of concern, research, and writing over the past few decades. However, there is a strong notion that the study of environmental problems are the subject matter of a study of science or technology and hence have been treated as something beyond the scope of Economics. It is nevertheless true that any rational decision concerning the utilisation of environmental resources, can be made only within a framework based on complementary inputs from scientists, engineers and economists.

One of the strong obstacles in the way of identifying the integrated approach to the environmental problems is the failure to understand the inter-disciplinary linkages of Environment. This resulted in the identification of only the "curative aspects" of the environment (encompassing science and technology) which led to the neglect of the preventive aspects. The various social sciences such as Economics, Sociology, Anthropology, etc. offer preventive tools for proper environmental planning and management. Of all the social sciences, Economics offers most of the 'cause-effect' attributes of environmental degradation. The importance of economic in dealing with environmental problems is highlighted by Prof. Larry Ruff who rightly observed:



We are going to make little real progress in solving the problem of pollution until we recognise it for what primarily it is an economic problem, which must be understood in economic terms.....Engineers, for example, are certain that pollution will vanish once they find the magic gadget of power source. Politicians keep trying to find the right kind of bureaucracy, and bureaucrats maintain an unending search for the correct set of rules and regulations. Those who, are above such vulgar pursuits pin their hopes on a moral regeneration or social revolution apparently in the belief that saints and socialists have no garbage to dispose of. But as important as technology, politics and law and ethics are to the pollution question, all such approaches are found to have disappointing results, for they ignore the primary fact that pollution is an economic problem.

On account of the multi-disciplinary nature and linkages, environmental economics cannot be confined to a normal definitional framework. In spite of the fact that the subject has drawn the attention of Economists for more than a few decades, still no proper comprehensive definition has been provided. At the most, environmental economics has been defined as that part of economics which deals with the inter-relationship between environment and development. Such a definition focuses attention on development activities and its effects on environment. Environment here refers to all aspects that people have in mind when they talk of environmental crisis i.e. the subjects of concern are the purity of air and public waters, plentifulness and vitality of natural landscapes, *fauna* and *flora* and the integrity of other natural features such as beaches. These may be precisely termed as *ecosphere*—the living space "shared by all living creatures".

Man has been tempering with the *ecosphere* for a very long time and is now forced to recognise the fact that environment consists of scarce and exhaustible resources. This is where economics enters as the science of allocating scarce resources among competing ends; The fundamental economic problem is that the goods and services which the society wishes to consume are generally scarce. Scarcity exists whenever the demand for anything exceeds its supply at a zero price. The unprecedented high levels of industrial growth achieved in few countries in the twentieth century have transformed environmental quality from a generally free good into a scarce or economic good. At the beginning of this century supply or most of the environmental resources like clean air, pure drinking water, etc. exceeded demand at zero price. But today with increase in the human (abuse) of the biosphere resources, due to expanding population and technological developments, the environmental resource have become scarce goods in both developing and developed economies — in both capitalist and planned economies. Thus there has been a reversal in the supply-demand relationship of environmental quality i.e., demand for environmental quality has registered a sharp increase while the supply of clean air, water and other environmental services have declined. While the former may be attributed to affluence, the latter to effluents. An important by-product of economic growth and development is rising levels of affluence that has led to a sharp increase in the 'demand for environmental quality. On the verge of subsistence people seldom worry about the quality of the environment in which they are placed. Once man assures himself of food and other necessities along with a good deal of luxuries, he can turn his attention to other less immediate wants, including enjoyment of environmental quality and the expectation of a healthier and longer life. Thus environmental quality is highly income elastic and is a luxury good. This means that households with higher income are willing to pay more for better environment. On the supply side, economic growth and development accompanied by population growth and urbanisation has reduced the available supply of clean air, water and other environmental amenities through sheer quality of effluents discharged by the high level of industrial production. Increased industrial output has increased the volume of effluents

discharged and this waste load has reduced the self-cleansing power of the atmosphere and water. Thus on account of reversal of demand and supply relationship, economic growth has transformed environmental quality into a scarce good. All economies — "developed and developing" — planned and capitalistic — bear evidence to this.

## 10.2 Sustainable Development

Sustainability is a concept on which social and natural scientists, and philosophers have expressed their views from time to time. It meant conservation of resources to Epicures, population management to Malthus, carrying capacity to biologists (Hardin 1968), maintaining biodiversity to ecologists (Flint 1992), maintaining cultural diversity but with social harmony to Sachs (1989) the inevitable stationary state (i.e. level of well-being or living) to John Stuart Mill and so on.

In essence, sustainable development is a process of change in when the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and *institutional change* are all in *harmony* and enhance both current and future potential to meet human *needs* and *aspirations* (emphases added).

This concept of sustainable development leaves scope, for dynamic adjustments in institutional factors (such as the market, community and state), common factors (such as investments) and scientific and technological factors, and, above all encompasses both needs and aspirations. In the context of formulating a policy oriented model for a resource rich but economically subsistence level economy such as Palamau district, one can safely settle for this definition and leave the debate for intellectual pursuit.

The focus in this manner of characterizing sustainable development is on a process which links *exploitation of resources, investment, technology and institutions with human needs and aspirations*. Operationalising sustainable development within this framework is the responsibility of policy makers and administrators. In order to translate policies, expressed as employment programmes, investments, price supports and transfer of technology; into sustainable development indicators, they need to have information on the current state of production, consumption, employment, prices, distribution of income, and so on. In addition to conceptualise the links of economic variables with sustainable development, it is essential that this information is supplemented with measures of the services supplied and welfare augmented by non-market assets such as environmental goods and resources. The service-supplying capacity of these goods and resources, as well as the utility provided by the level and quality of their stock, should be monitored carefully. Only then can it be ascertained whether the economic performance of a country or a region is becoming more or less sustainable over time.

If growth in the production of primary products, manufactures and services depletes environmental goods and resources, this may counteract some of the welfare gains from that growth in production and related income. It may even undermine future growth prospects and hence sustainable development. For a proper short and long-term trade-off between economic objectives and changes in the natural resource base, information on economic and environmental variables has to be comparable and the interactions between these variables correctly identified. This can be achieved in a succinct manner through various modeling approaches.

## 10.3 ECONOMY-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION

Economic activities (production, transportation, trade, consumption, etc.) at any spatial level, including the regional and district levels, and linked with—and in fact even based on—a range of

environmental, features and processes. The environment provides economic activities with material and energy inputs; it can be regarded as in a sense a stock or set of resources and their registration systems, on which the economy is based. Further, economic activities are undertaken within the framework of social processes in order to ensure the sustenance and welfare of human groups, and populations. Various features of these processes and the institutional structure surrounding them have to be taken into account in order to understand the specific patterns and levels of economic activities and their derived resource claims. While generating certain patterns and levels of sustenance and welfare, economic activities draw upon natural resources, and lead to flows of pollution and waste back into the environment. There they may give rise to chains of (bio.) chemical transformations that are transported through soil, water and air. Such a process leads to environmental degradation if accumulation of bio-chemical transformation takes place beyond the level of natural assimilation.

Environmental degradation can manifest itself as (a) rising concentrations of pollutants; (b) resource depletion; and (c) intrusion into or modification of ecosystems, e.g., by building physical infrastructures into or through them. These manifestations can be interrelated; pollution may lead to effects in ecosystem, and changes in both pollution and the ecosystem may adversely affect the regenerative properties of the systems. Environmental degradation is linked with a range of features, processes and agents in the natural environment and society:

1. Source of environmental pressure (increase in economic activities such as the production of automobiles and hazardous chemicals).
2. Receptors of environmental degradation (ecosystems), e.g., wetlands; cultural objects, e.g., ancient, temples; people, e.g., slum dwellers).
3. Intermediate environmental processes linking sources to receptors (transportation/dispersion, transformation/decomposition, accumulation etc., in the various environmental subsystems/compartments; e.g., rag-pickers, incinerators waste treatment plants).
4. Feedbacks, or response by social agents, to environmental degradation ('spontaneous' or endogenous responses and/or exogenous policy responses, e.g., awareness camps, minimum national standards, eco-labelling).
5. The social 'determinants' of economic activities (e.g., population and livestock growth, etc.).

#### **10.4 FUTURE CHALLENGES OF SOCIETY AND BUSINESS IN 21ST CENTURY**

21st Century poses both threats and opportunities to the international community in the various fields. The biggest threat before the society is the environmental crisis. Global warming has posed a serious threat to the survival of human race. Snow melting at North and South pole has resulted in increasing the sea level. Glaciers at high altitude have also started melting and posing serious flood threats. By 2080, it is expected that temperature of earth may increase by 4 to 5 degrees centigrade. The greatest living scientist Stephen Hawking has rightly pointed out that if human will not be difficult to protect the survival of human race in the next centuries. Therefore, 21st century provides biggest challenges.

The root cause of most of these problems is the population explosion. Particularly in third world countries, the fastest growth in population has been noticed in the last 3 quarters of 20<sup>th</sup> century and which is still continuing. The excessive urbanisation has created number of social problems. Large number of

plants and animals have disappeared or at the verge of extinction from this planet which has created a serious ecological crisis. Fresh water is also becoming a more and more scarce commodity.

Another major challenge before the human civilisation is ever growing terrorism. Almost all countries of the world are facing terrorism in one or the other form. Immorality and heterogeneity is also increasing amongst various communities throughout the world. The natural resources are also depleting at very fast pace. Crude oil will last for only next 30 years. Most of other minerals will also be exhausted within next 100 years. Therefore, more stress should be made on conservation and renewable of natural resources.

Apart from these challenges, number of business opportunities have also multiplied many times in the recent years. After signing of WTO, there has been a fast expansion in the world trade. More and more trading blocks are emerging and large number of countries have gone for free trade agreement. The success story of European Union has brought very interesting lessons to the humanity that hostilities of nations can be overcome and world can become a unified single identity. If free trade agreements succeed, the problems of poverty, hunger, disparities etc., can be overcome within a shortest possible span of time.

In nutshell, this Century is full of threats and opportunities and if the prevailing threats are channeled properly, then definitely world can become a better place for living.

### 10.5 Self Check Questions

1. Define the concept of sustainable development.
2. Discuss the environmental challenges of society.

### 10.6 Summary

Everyone wants a better place to live. Some people want better homes and housing, while others want better schools, more jobs, better shops, or cleaner and safer streets. Others may want all these things. Whatever the problems in any neighbourhood, they can usually be grouped into three issues. People need: a better environment - that means green spaces, play areas, no litter, nice gardens, decent houses, less noise and pollution. The resources used should renew over generations. A better economy - that means jobs, reasonable prices, cheaper heat and light, no loan sharks. Better social conditions - that means good leisure facilities, lots of community groups offering sports and arts, friendly neighbours. But many people now realise that if we are to tackle one issue, then we'll probably have to tackle the others as well. For instance, new shops are unlikely to open in an area where crime and poverty levels are very high. Similarly crime is unlikely to fall in an area where the housing has been improved unless there are jobs available. People may move into an area where housing and jobs are available, but if the surroundings are run-down and public transport is poor, they may well not want to stay. This is not just a local issue. The same problems are faced at a national level. If the governments of the world are to deal with poverty, they do not just need to provide money and food aid, they need to help local people get educated and get jobs. People also need a safe environment with adequate homes and drinking water. To make these things work, governments also need to make sure that people have an effective voice in deciding what happens where they live.

### 10.7 Glossary

**Sustainable Development:** Sustainable development is a way for people to use resources without the resources running out. It means doing development without damaging or affecting the environment.

**Environment:** **Environment** is a place where different things are such as a swampy or hot environment. It can be living (biotic) or non-living (abiotic) things. It includes physical, chemical and other natural forces

**Society:** A society is a group of individuals involved in persistent social interaction, or a large social group sharing the same spatial or social territory, typically subject to the same political authority and dominant cultural expectations.

#### **10.8 Answers: Self-check Questions**

1. See the section no. 10.2, Lesson 10
2. See the section no. 10.4, Lesson 10

#### **10.9 Terminal Questions**

1. Discuss the environmental challenges faced by society.
2. Explain the concept of Sustainable development.
3. Discuss the future challenges of society and business in 21<sup>st</sup> century.

#### **10.10 Suggested Readings**

1. Cherunilam, F. (2009). *Business Environment*, Global Media
2. Bedi Suresh (2006). *Business Environment*, Excel Books,
3. Mishra, Puri (2006). *Economic Environment of Business*, Himalaya Publications House,

\*\*\*\*\*

## **ASSIGNMENTS**

### **Attempt 75% Assignments**

1. "Environment is dynamic and multi-faceted". Discuss.
2. Discuss the future challenges of society and business in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.
3. What is MNCs? Explain its advantages and disadvantages.
4. Describe the major issues of information technology in India.
5. Discuss industrial revolution in detail.
6. Discuss how the RBI regulates the supply of money in the country.

**M.B.A. Examination December 2005**  
**BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT**  
**Paper-104**  
**Time : Three Hours**  
**Maximum Marks : 60**

*The candidates shall limit their answers precisely within the answer-book (40 pages) issued to them and no supplementary/ continuation sheet will be issued.*

**Note:—**      **Attempt Five Questions in all**  
                 **Select one question from each unit**  
                 **All questions carry equal marks.**

**Unit-I**

1. Discuss in detail different aspect of business environment. How has the interaction of these aspects been influencing the emerging economic environment of Indian economy ?
2. How do you differentiate the medieval Indian business from the contemporary business? Discuss the **major shifts which have occurred** in the basic structure of corporate sector in India.

**Unit-II**

3. State's intervention in the present Indian market is now indirect. What factors have forced government to change its role in respect of the functioning of business in India?
4. Write short notes on the following :
  - (i) Changes in company laws.
  - (ii) Foreign investment.

**Unit-III**

5. Indian economic policies are witnessing a paradigm shift in its intent and content. Discuss the main features of the changes since 1990's.
6. India is experiencing a process of rapid social change accompanied by growing urbanisation and middle class. How these changes impacted the business opportunities in India ?

**Unit-IV**

7. Discuss the recommendations of various Commissions, constituted. to examine, the Centre-State relationship.
8. Discuss the main trends representing the contemporary technological environment of India. What issues are involved in technology transfer ?

**M.B.A. Examination  
Business Environment  
Paper -104**

**Time: Three Hours**

**Max. Marks : 60 (Regular)  
100 (ICDEOL)**

*The candidates shall limit their answers precisely within the answerbook (40 pages) issued to them and no supplementary/continuation sheet will be issued.*

**Note:-** Attempt Five questions in all, selecting One question from each unit. All questions carry equal marks..

**UNIT-I**

- I. Discuss in **detail** the Open Systems approach. Also explain the plus and minus points, if any, of the approach.
- II. Compare and contrast the important features of the History of Indian Business during the medieval and modern era.

**UNIT-II**

- III. What do you understand by Globalisation ? Discuss the positive and negative effects of globalisation on Indian industry.
- IV. Explain the important provisions of Anti-trust law.

**UNIT-III**

- V. Economic Planning and Policy have lost their importance in this era of liberalization and globalisation.
- VI. Compare and contrast Westernisation with Sanskritisation.

**UNIT-IV**

- VII. What are Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles ? How these influence business operations?
- VIII. IT revolution has proved to be a **boon** for Indian outsourcing industry. Comment.

**UNIT-V**

- IX. "The plus points of Privatisation outweigh the negative points in the context of Indian economy." Discuss.
- X. "The business of business is business." Discuss.



**M.B.A. Examination  
Business Environment  
Paper-104**

**Time: 3 Hours**

**Max. Marks : (Regular) 60  
(ICDEOL) 100**

*The candidates shall limit their answers precisely within the answer-book (40 pages) issued to them and no Supplementary/continuation sheet will be issued.*

- Note :-** i) Attempt Five questions in **all**.  
 ii) Choose one question from each unit  
 iii) All questions carry equal marks..

**Unit-I**

1. Evaluate various components of Business Environment.
2. How today's business environment is different from that in fifties or sixties?

**Unit-II**

3. Discuss the role of Government in Market Business Environment.
4. Discuss what changes have taken place in various laws in India.

**Unit-III**

5. Evaluate Monetary Policy as an instrument of Growth.
6. Discuss the changing dimensions of Indian Socio-cultural environment.

**Unit-IV**

7. Discuss how political environment affects Economic environment.
8. How Indian technological Environment has changed in the last few decades ?

**Unit-V**

9. How public sector can be privatized?
10. How we can achieve balance in ecology in this world?

\*\*\*\*\*

## CONTENTS

Lessons No.	Title	Page
1.	Business Environment - Theoretical Frame Work	1
2.	History of Indian Business	20
3.	Regulatory Role of the State	38
4.	Financial Institutions and Various Policies	56
5.	Social and Cultural & Political Environments .	79
6.	Political Environment	91
7.	Technological Environment	95
8.	Information Technology and Knowledge Economy	103
9.	MNC, WTO and Public Sector	114
10.	Substainable Development and Future .ChallengesQuestion Paper	132