ISSN 0302-9298

Contemporary SOCIAL SCIENCES

Scientific Journal Impact Factor: 7.481

Scientific Journal Impact Factor: 2.495

Global Impact Factor: 0.765; General Impact Factor: 2.58; InfoBase Index: 2.5

Index Copernicus ICV: 62.45; NAAS Rating: 2.88; InfoBase Index: 2.5

Founder S. S. Shashi

Chief Editor

Dharam Vir

Volume 31, Number 2 (April-June), 2022



Research Foundation International, New Delhi

Affiliated to United Nations Organization (UNO)

(Autonomous, Regd. Recognized Charitable Organization of Social Scientists, Authors, Journalists & Social Activists)

Contemporary Social Sciences

Double-blind Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed Quarterly International Journal Index Copernicus ICV: 62.45; General Impact Factor: 2.495

Scientific Journal Impact Factor: 7.481

Global Impact Factor: 0.765; NAAS Rating: 2.88; InfoBase Index: 2.5

Founder Padma Shri S. S. Shashi

Chief Editor **Dharam Vir**

Volume 31, Number 2 (April-June), 2022



RESEARCH FOUNDATION INTERNATIONAL (INDIA) Affiliated to United Nations Organization (UNO) (An Autonomous, Registered (1972), Recognized Charitable Organization of Social Scientists, Authors, Journalists and Social Activists)

<Visit us at : https://www.jndmeerut.org> <e-mail: managingeditor@jndmeerut.org>

Editorial Board

Contemporary Social Sciences (CSS) is a quarterly peer reviewed & refereed international journal published since 1972 under the auspicious of Research Foundation (an autonomous, registered (1972), recognized charitable organization of social scientists, authors, journalists and social activists). The journal is published regularly in the months of March, June, September and December. The annual subscription is ₹ 2000 in India and US \$ 80 abroad, including postage by Registered Post/Airmail. All the subscriptions must be prepaid in favour of M/S Saksham Computers, payable at Meerut.

FOUNDER

Padma Shri S. S. Shashi, Executive Chairman, Research Foundation International (India) and Former Director General, Publications Division, Government of India, 'Anusandhan', B-4/245, Safdarjung Enclave, New Delhi-110 029, India.

CHIEF EDITOR

Dharam Vir, Former Head, Department of Post-graduate Studies and Research in Sociology, Nanakchand Anglo Sanskrit College, CCS University, Meerut–250 004, India.

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

Sanjeev Mahajan, Department of Post-graduate Studies and Research in Sociology, Nanakchand Anglo Sanskrit College, Ch. Charan Singh University, Meerut–250 004, India.

Richa Singh, Secretary (Academics), Social Science Division, Research Foundation International (India), Delhi–110 029, India.

MANAGING EDITOR

Kamlesh Mahajan, Former Head, Department of Sociology, Ismail National Mahila Post-graduate College, Ch. Charan Singh University, Meerut–250 004, India.

BOOK REVIEW EDITOR

S. K. Gupta, Professor of Sociology (Retired), Panjab University, Chandigarh–160 014, India.

CONSULTING EDITORS

Dr. A. K. Singh (Assistant Coordinator, IGNOU Centre, Rohini, Delhi); Prof. B. K. Nagla (M. D. University, Rohtak); Prof. Bhoumik Deshmukh (University of Pune, Pune); Prof. D. P. Singh (NIILM-CMS, Noida, India); Prof. Ho Chin Siong (Universiti Teknologi Malaysia); Prof. I. S. Chauhan (Former Vice-Chancellor, Barakatulla University, Bhopal); Dr. László Vasa, (Szent István University, Hungary); Dr. Mamta Singh (Academic Counsellor, IGNOU Centre, Rohini, Delhi); Prof. Neelam Grewal (Dean Postgraduate Studies, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana); Dr. R. W. Sherman, (Adjunct Associate Professor, Silberman School of Social Work, New York); Prof. S. S. Sharma (CCS University, Meerut); Prof. S. K. Gupta (Panjab University, Chandigarh); Prof. Satya Prakash (Department of Law, N. A. S. College, Meerut); Prof. Wang Xiaoyi (Director, Rural and Industrial Sociology, Institute of Sociology, CASS, Beijing, China).

ISSN: 0302-9298; DOI: 10.2021-79977475

DOI Link: https://doi-ds.org/doilink/10.2021-79977475/

World Copyrights of articles published in *CSS* are controlled by **Contemporary Social Sciences**, 1972. No part of this publication may be reproduced in any form without written permission of the Editor.

Contents

1.	Pro-British Role of Rao Gulab Singh of Kuchesar during 1857	
	Vighnesh Kumar, Alpna Poswal, Kuldeep Kumar Tyagi,	1
	Reena & Anita Tyagi	
2.	The Attitude of Society and Family towards People with	
	Disabilities	
	Sita Kumari Bohara	10
3.	Mental Health Concerns of Elderly and COVID-19	
	Sunita Bahmani	25
4.	Women Empowerment through Micro Business: A Study of	
	Beauty Salon in Kathmandu Arjun K. C.	39
-	•	39
5.	Quality demands Priority amid Challenges	
	S. K. Ghai	55
6.	Forests and Women's Livelihood in Tribal Societies : A	
	History of Land Use Change in Assam	71
_	Tejaswita Duarah	71
7.	A Study on Stress Management among Students and Youth	00
0	Swaty and Mohan Kumar	92
8.	Key Components of Scientific and Technical Writing:	
	Demystifying the Complexity that Shrouds it Sunita Dhankhar	105
0		103
9.	Women of Slum : Reproductive Health Diseases of Neglected Populations	
	Sarita Verma and P. K. Gupta	115
10	•	110
10.	Rao Kadam Singh : A Less Known Hero of Indian Revolution of 1875	
	Vighnesh Kumar, Kuldeep Kumar Tyagi and Kajal	131
11.	. , ,	101
11.	Self-financing courses in the Indian Higher Education	
	System	
	Monali	137
12	Analyzing the Indian way of Public-Private Partnership	
14.	(PPP)	
	Phuyal Mohan	153
13.	India's Shyness towards providing Reproductive Health	
	Education to Adolescents	
	Manju Goel	176
	•	

Journal of National Development

Aims and Scope

The Journal of National Development (JND) is an interdisciplinary bi-annual peer reviewed & refereed international journal committed to the ideals of a 'world community' and 'universal brotherhood'. The Journal is a joint effort of likeminded scholars in the field of social research. Its specific aims are to identify, to understand and to help the process of nation-building within the framework of a 'world community' and enhance research across the social sciences (Sociology, Anthropology, Political Science, Psychology, History, Geography, Education, Economics, Law, Communication, Linguistics) and related disciplines like all streams of Home Science, Management, Computer Science, Commerce as well as others like Food Technology, Agricultural Technology, Information Technology, Environmental Science, Dairy Science etc. having social focus/implications. It focuses on issues that are global and on local problems and policies that have international implications. By providing a forum for discussion on important issues with a global perspective, the JND is a part of unfolding world wide struggle for establishing a just and peaceful world order. Thus, the JND becomes a point of confluence for the rivulets from various disciplines to form a mighty mainstream gushing towards the formulation and propagation of a humanistic world-view.

Publication Schedule

The Journal of National Development is published in volumes of approximately 250-300 pages, divided into two bi-annual issues–summer and winter. Besides, a special issue in Hindi is also published every year to meet the demand of social scientists, both research scholars and teachers of Hindi speaking states of India.

Subscription and Business Correspondence

The annual subscription is ₹1500 in India and US\$ 80 abroad, including postage by Speed-Post/Airmail. Special issue in Hindi is free with annual subscription. All the subscriptions must be prepaid in favour of *The Journal of National Development*, payable at *Meerut*.

ISSN: 0972-8309; DOI: 10.2021-36919485

DOI Link: https://doi-ds.org/doilink/10.2021-36919485

All correspondence pertaining to subscription, change of address, purchase of back numbers, books for review and advertisements should be addressed to:

The Managing Editor
Journal of National Development
D-59, Shastri Nagar, Meerut-250 004 (India)

Tel: 91+121-2763765, 2770765; Mobile: 91+9997771669, 91+9412200765

<e-mail: managingeditor@jndmeerut.org>
Website: www.jndmeerut.org

Pro-British Role of Rao Gulab Singh of Kuchesar during 1857

Vighnesh Kumar*, Alpna Poswal**, Kuldeep Kumar Tyagi***, Reena**** & Anita Tyagi**

Indian Revolution of 1857 outbroke at Meerut on 10th May, 1857. Hearing the news Mr. Brind Sapte, the then District Magistrate and Collector called the influential zamindars to assist him with men and horse. Rao Gulab Singh of Kuchesar was the first to assist the Colonial British Imperialism. Mr. Sapte mentions invaluable services rendered by him. He was heavily rewarded by the British. He was styled 'Raja' and rewarded for his good services with the proprietorship of confiscated villages assessed at 8,000 rupees, with remission of one-fourth of revenue for life, and a khilat of 1,000 rupees and the title of 'Raja Bahadur'.

[Keywords: Indian Revolution of 1857, Mutiny of the Sepoy Army, British Government, Native states, Greased cartridges, Colonial British imperialism, Khilat, proprietorship]

- * Professor, Co-ordinator, Centre of Excellence, Department of History, Chaudhary Charan Singh University, Meerut-250004, Uttar Pradesh (India) E-mail: <vighneshkmr@gmail.com>
- ** Research Fellow, Centre of Excellence, Department of History, Chaudhary Charan Singh University, Meerut, Uttar Pradesh.
- *** Assistant Professor, SPC (PG) College, Baghpat, Uttar Pradesh.
- **** Assistant Professor, Kanoharlal Girls (PG) College, Meerut, Uttar Pradesh.

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April-June), 2022 Peer Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed International Research Journal 2 Vighnesh Kumar

The Indian Revolution of 1857* out broke on the 10th May, 1857 from Meerut¹ and next day the revolutionaries had reached Delhi and had proved themselves successful in declaring Bahadur Shah II as the Emperor of Indian empire.² The news of both the events was known to the people of the district of Bulandshahar in the following days.³

At that time Mr. Brind Sapte, C. B. was the Magistrate and Collector of the district of Bulandshahar. Kuar Lachman Singh, the head of the Chaudhary** family of Shikarpur, thus records:

"Peace and prosperity were on their zenith in the country when the mutiny of the sepoy army broke out in May 1857."⁴

It is clear that the approach of the author of the above line is imperialistic. The author, being a Deputy Collector, posted in Bulandshahar District is listed in the beneficiaries' list.⁵ What he further writes is enough to give a clue that there prevailed rumours about the outbreak much before the month of May in the year of 1857. The following paragraph is a nice piece of information in this context:

"For some months before the outbreak vague rumours regarding the defeat of the English troops at Bushire were current in the bazaars. It was generally believed that the Emperors of Persia, Russia and Turkey contemplated a joint invasion of India."

The author, what he had been feeling, describes the factors responsible for being the Indian people curious to spread the rumours against the rule of the East India Company. He further adds:

"Distrust in the intentions of the British Government towards the Native States, and towards the prejudices of the people, was the popular feeling, and the enemies of the Government, on those who had nothing to lose by a change of rulers, were anxious for an innovation."

About the rumour-spreading people, the author again writes: "They busied themselves in circulating reports, calculated to rouse disaffection against the Government. The native army,

^{*} Assessing the nature of 1857, Prof. Vighnesh Kumar suggests it and termed it as Indian Revolution of 1857.

^{**} The Hindi word 'Chaudhary', denotes the higher position in revenue administration right from the Rajput Period upto the East India Company's rule. For details, please see: Kuar Lachman Singh's *Historical and Statistical Memoir of Zila Bulandshahar*. Also, Awadhesh Mishra's *Shikarpur ki Gaurav Gatha*, Bhag-Ek, (in Hindi) C-A, Ganga Nagar, Mawana Road, Meerut.

composed principally of ignorant men, shared in the above belief and feeling."8

"They were prepared to revolt"9, writes the Kuar:

...but wanted a pretext, which unfortunately, they found in the "greased cartridges." ¹⁰

In the country of the then district of Bulandshahr, there existed a number of feudal lords who had helped the colonial British imperialism against their own countrymen.

What measures had been taken by Mr. Brind Sapte C. B., Magistrate and Collector are well recorded in his report submitted to Mr. F. Williams, the then Commissioner of the division of Meerut. Those days it was identified as 1st Division Meerut. Underlining Sapte's ability and acknowledging his valuable services rendered by him in suppressing the revolutionaries, he mentions:

"The subjoined report from Mr. Brind Sapte, Magistrate of Boolundshuhur, is so full and interesting, that I have nothing to add to it, but an earnest hope that Government will acknowledge the gallant and valuable services of all the Officers mentioned in it." ¹¹

What Mr. Sapte, mentions in his report, in it the beginning is as follows:

"On first hearing of the mutiny of the troops at Meerut, I called on all the Talookdars of the District to show their attachment to the Government, by furnishing me with men and horses, and by preventing the villagers on their estates from rising." ¹²

The background as mentioned above, is sufficient to draw the picture what intention the Magistrate and Collector had in his mind. To his mind the most attached to the Britishers was Rao Gulab Singh of Kuchesar.¹³ He preferred to mention his name first as follows:

"Rao Gulab Singh of Kochesar, immediately responded to my call by sending a small body of horse and foot, armed and equipped."¹⁴

Giving few details about the 'would be attack' on the district head-quarters of Bulandshahar, Sapte again writes:

"With the recollection strong upon me of what these men had been capable of in May last, I begged Colonel Farquhar to make a forced march back to Boolundshuhr, which we reached the next morning, and I am confident from my subsequent 4 Vighnesh Kumar

information, that had we not returned, the attack would have taken place." 15

This was the very phase of the revolution of 1857, when the Indian side had an upper hand. Rao Umrao Singh had declared himself 'Raja'¹⁶ and had been trying to route out the East India Company's rule from that part. He made an attack on Bulandshahar Jail with a large number of his men.¹⁷ But Rao Umrao Singh's further progress was nullified by Sapte's management which was being supported by the traitors like Rao Gulab Singh and others.

Rao Gulab Singh's men did good service to the Britishers and that was taken into notice by the British officers fighting against the Indians. The Collector remarks:

"We remained in the station for a week, during which time Lieutenant Smith of the Horse Artillery put the jail into a state of defence, capable of holding out against any body of Goojurs; I provisioned it for ten days, strengthened the guard with Goolab Singh's men and few Beloochees and again on 27th [December 1857] marched to the Ganges."

Mr. Brind Sapte gives some details about his route from the district head-quaters to the Ganga ghats describing as follows:

"We went via Syanah to Pooth, and thence down the right bank of the Ganges, visiting each Ghat. I collected the whole of the boats at Anoopshuhur, where I posted a body of 200 Jats, and the sequel will show how well these men behaved." ¹⁹

Actually, the fear of attacks from the Rohilkhand was still there. The revolutionaries of the Bareilly Brigade were really a danger to the British officers posted in that portion of the Ganga-Yamuna Doab. To make the safety of the Ganga Ghats of Puth, Basi, Ahar, Garmukteshwar and Anupshahr ensured, Sapte found in Gulab Singh an assisting authority. And few stations like Karnabas, and Ram Ghat etc. he was using Rao Gulab Singh as a prove tool. He further writes:

"The Ghats of Pooth, Busee, Ahar between Gurmookteesur and Anoopshuhur, I put under Charge of Rao Golab Singh of Koochesur." ²⁰

Rao Gulab Singh²¹ of Kuchesar was rewarded for good services with the proprietorship of confiscated villages assessed at 8,000 rupees,²² with remission of one-fourth of revenue for life²³ and a khilat of 2,000²⁴ rupees and the title of 'Raja Bahadur'.²⁵

Referring to the genealogy of Rao Gulab Singh of Kuchesar, Nevill records :

"The son of Bhual, one Manjhi Ram, had two sons, Rai Singh and Chatar Singh, the latter of whom rose to considerable power. His two sons, Magni Ram and Ramdhan Singh, joined the Jats of Bhartpur, but Najib-ud-daula secured their allegiance by granting them Kuchesar in jagir, with the titles of Rao and chormar or "destroyer of theeves". Rao Ramdhan Singh succeeded in 1790 and built the fort of Kuchesar, a village that is said to have been founded by a banker of Delhi named Kanchan Shah. He obtained from Shah Alam a perpetual lease of the parganas ..."²⁶

Again, he records:

"Fateh Singh died in 1839... He was succeeded by his son Rao Bahadur Singh. He expressed his intension of dividing his estate between his son, Gulab Singh, and a natural son, Umrao Singh. Before this could be carried out, however, he was found murdered in his house in 1847. Gulab Singh, who succeeded his father, rendered good services during the mutiny and received a grant of villages assessed at Rs. 7,083 as reward. He died in 1859 and was followed by his widow, Jaswant Kunwar and her daughter, Bhup Kunwar, who died without issue in 1861, and was succeeded by her husband, Khushhal singh, nephew and adopted son of Nahar Singh, the rebel Raja of Ballabhgarh, Umrao Singh continued to press his claims, and in 1868 recourse was had to arbitration, whereby five-sixteenth were awarded to Pratap Singh, a grandson of Magni Ram, six-sixteenth to Umrao Singh, and the remainder to Khushhal Singh, who subsequently married a daughter of Umrao Singh. Umrao Singh died in 1898, and has been succeeded by his son Rao Gir Raj Singh, who owns 46 villages and 14 shares assessed at Rs. 62, 772, of which 21 villages and five shares are held in this tehsil."27

For 'good services' during the Indian Revolution of 1857, a total of 32 traitors were rewarded by the Britishers. It was nothing but a traitor-like reward for their good services having been rendered by them to save the colonial British imperialism in the district of Bulandshahar.²⁸ The following is the list prepared and published by the Government:

Kuar Lachman Singh writes:

6 Vighnesh Kumar

"To the above interesting narrative may as well as well be added the following list of persons who distinguished themselves for loyalty during the disturbances in this district, as well as a brief account of the principal rebels:

1. T. Skinner, Esquire of Rewarded for good services with the Bilaspur proprietorship of confiscated villages assessed at 6,000 rupees as annual

revenue.

2. Mahmud Ali Khan of Ditto with the proprietorship of Chattaree confiscated villages assessed at 4,193 rupees; also a khilat of 1,000 rupees.

3. Faiz Ali Khan of Pahasu Rewarded with proprietorship of confiscated villages assessed at 4,000 rupees, with remission of one-fourth of revenue for life, and a khilat of 1,000

rupees.

4. Imdad Ali Khan of Pahasu Ditto ditto 2909 rupees, without remission or khilat.

5. Zahoor Ali Khan of Ditto ditto 3,000 rupees. Dharampur

6. Rao Golab Singh of Kochesar Ditto ditto 8,000 rupees, with remission of one-fourth of revenue for life, and a khilat of 2,000 rupees and the title of Raja Bahadur.

7. Chaudhri Lachman Singh of Ditto ditto, 1,999 rupees. Shikarpur

8. Rai Durga Pershad, Deputy Ditto ditto, 1,400 rupees. Collector

9. Proprietary body of Mouza
Bhuthona (Jats)

These Jats captured the guns of Nawwab
Validad Khan in a battle which took
place between them and the Nawwab's
followers. They also defeated the Jhansie
Brigade, which attacked their village at
the instigation of the Nawwab.
Rewarded with lands assessed at Rs.

2,876.

10. Khusi Ram, Thanadar

Was leader of the Jats of Bhuthona in several engagements against the rebels.

Did excellent service for the Government. Was rewarded with the proprietorship of lands assessed at 1, 202 rupees, with remission of one-fourth revenue for life, and a khilat of 1,000

rupees.

11.	Heirs of Risaldar Ratan Singh Jat of Sehra	Were rewarded with proprietorship of estates assessed at 2,000 rupees.
12.	Jhanda Singh 7	
13.	Basti Ram >Jats of Sehra	Rewarded with lands assessed at 600
14.	Shadi Ram	rupees for each. Also a gratuity of 200 rupees for Jhanda Singh.
15.	Noubat Singh J	
16.	Ahmad Said Khan of Khurja	Ditto lands assessed at 1,893 rupees, and a khilat of 1000 rupees.
17.	Imad Ali of Gulaqthi	Ditto a gratuity of 200 rupees.
18.	Harsarup, Foujdari Sarishtedar	Ditto 500 rupees.
19.	Jaya Narain Singh, Tahsildar	Rewarded with a khilat of 1,000 rupees.
20.	Bishandial, Tahsildar	Ditto Ditto
21.	Haji Sayad Mahomad Shirazi	Ditto 400 rupees.
22.	Farhat-ullah, a mookhtar	Ditto lands assessed at 1000 rupees.
23.	Munshi Lachman Sarup of Sikandrabad	Ditto 200 rupees.
24.	Choudharain Chand Kour of Khurja	Ditto 557 rupees.
25.	Munni Lal, agent of the Skinner family	A khilat of 1,000 rupees.
26.	Daulat Singh	These zamindars kept order in their
27.	Bakhshi > of Jewar	neighbourhood. They were rewarded
28.	Harsahai Singh J	with the proprietorship of lands assessed at 763 rupees.
29.	Hazari Singh 7	
30.	Mohar Singh Dayanatpur	Ditto 388 rupees.
31.	Rai Munnu Lal, Deputy Magistrate, Ganga Canal	Ditto estates assessed at 1,000 rupees.
32.	Harsukhrai, agent of the Kochesur Rais	Ditto 500 rupees.
33.	Than Singh, Ahir of Kota	Ditto 300 rupees and 500 rupees cash."

"Besides the above, there were several other individuals who obtained rewards in landed property in this district for services rendered in other districts. The principal of these will be noticed in the chapter on Castes and Conspicuous Families."²⁹

8 Vighnesh Kumar

Notes and References

 Fredric Salmon Growse, Bulandshahr Or Sketches of an Indian District; Social, Historical and Architectural, Benares: Medical Hall Press, 1884; Vighnesh Kumar, Meerut Ke Panch Hazar Varsh, Meerut: Hastinapur Research Institute, 1996, 124-30; Narrative of Events Regarding the Mutiny in India, 1857-58, Vol. I, Calcutta 1881, para. 333; H. R. Nevill, Bulandshahar: A Gazzetter being Volume V of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Lucknow: Government Branch Press, 1922, 151-155; Vighnesh Kumar and C. S. Bhardwaj, Exploring 1857, Meerut: Hastinapur Research Institute, 2011, 23-27; Vighnesh Kumar, 1857 IN 1857: Original Mutiny Narratives, Vol. I, Meerut: Hastinapur Research Institute, 2014, 78.

- B. R. Agarwala, *Trials of Independence*, New Delhi: National Book Trust, 1991, Reprint 2001, 5-7; Vighnesh Kumar evam Mudit Kumar, 1857 Ka Viplava (in Hindi), Meerut: Hastinapur Research Institute, 2008, 1, 55-83; William Dalrymple, *The Last Mughal: The Fall of a Dynasty Delhi 1857*, New Delhi: Penguin Books, 2006, 2007, 181-191; Abdul Haq, *Ghadar-1857* (Aankho Dekha Vivaran), Hindi translation of Moinuddin Hasan's Khadang-i-Ghadar (in Urdu), New Delhi: Hindi Madhyam Karyanvay Nideshalay, University of Delhi, Pratham Sansakaran, 1999.
- 3. Vighnesh Kumar evan Mudit Kumar, op. cit.; K. Marx and F. Engles, *The First Indian War of Independence 1857-1859*, Moscow: Progess Publishers, 1959, Sixth Reprint 1988, 32-36, 67; Alpna Poswal, *Uttar Mughal Kaleen Bulandwhahr ka Ithas* (in Hindi), Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Chaudhary Charan Singh University, Meerut, Department of History, 2019, 98-135.
- 4. Kuar Lachman Singh (Deputy Collector), *Historical and Statistical Memoir of Zila Bulandshahar*, Published by Order of the Lieutenant-Governor N.W.P., North Western Provinces' Allahabad : Government Press, 1874, 24.
- 5. Ibid., 38-40.
- 6. Ibid., 24.
- 7. Ibid.
- 8. Ibid.
- 9. Ibid.
- 10. Ibid.
- 11. Narrative of Events Regarding the Mutiny in India, 1857-58, Vol. I, Calcutta 1881, para. 333.
- 12. Ibid., para. 334.

- 13. E. T. Atkinsen, *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of North Western Provinces of India*, Vol.3, Part B, Meerut Division, Allahabad: N.W.P. Government Press, 1876, 167.
- 14. Narrative of Events Regarding the Mutiny in India, 1857-58, Vol. I, Calcutta 1881, para. 335.
- 15. Ibid., para 394; Vighnesh Kumar, op. cit., 90
- 16. Kaur Lachman Singh, op. cit., 177.
- 17. Ibid., 39.
- 18. Vighnesh Kumar, op. cit., 91.
- 19. Ibid.
- 20. Ibid.
- 21. H. R. Nevill, op. cit, 98; Biswamoy Pati (ed.), The 1857 Rebellion, Oxford University Press, 2010, 188; Edmund Leach and S. N. Mukherjee (eds.), Elites in South Asia, Cambridge University Press, 1970, 19; C. A. Bayly, Rulers, Townsmen and Bazaars; North Indian Society in the Age of British Expansion 1770-1880, Cambridge South Asian Studies Series, Cambridge Press, 2012, 208. Proceedings of the Indian History Congress, Volume 28, J. P. Tewari, The Revolt of 1857 in Bulandshahr District, 1966, 365-376.
- 22. Kuar Lachman Singh, op. cit., 39.
- 23. Ibid.
- 24. Ibid.
- 25. Ibid.
- 26. Ibid.
- 27. Ibid., 38-40.
- 28. H. R. Nevill, op. cit, 267; Kuar Lachman Singh, op. cit., 38-40.
- 29. Ibid., 40.

The Attitude of Society and Family towards People with Disabilities

Sita Kumari Bohara*

The purpose of this study is to analyze the subjective perception and attitude of family and society towards Persons with disabilities. In developing counties, disability is compared with sin and virtue which was attempt in past life. In this context, disability in the past was taken as the punishment by God for some sin committed in the past life. I found these types of belief in society. Most of Nepalese people believes that 'having disabled children is the result of a past fault or punishment of previous life'. They try to hide the disability from the community due to social stigma. Unlike other citizens of the society disabled people live in most terrible conditions, isolated and excluded from their communities by barriers of policy, environment, and attitude. Due to ignorance, illiteracy, faith in supernatural power etc. the common attitude of the people towards the disability has been to by-pass it as the curse of gods for the wrong done in the past life very few persons thought it to be the result of some disease or accident. Maximum of the respondent were the victims of feeling discrimination in the society. The study found negative social attitudes with misconceptions about disability based on

^{*} Faculty, Saraswoti Multiple Campus, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu (Nepal) E-mail: <seetabohara77@gmail.com>

negative stereotype and a biased social environment. Person with disabilities faced challenges from family and society due to her/his disability.

[Keywords: Burden, Attitude, Discrimination, Disability]

1. Introduction

The term of disability has many different meanings in different society. In developing counties, disability is compared with sin and virtue which was attempt in past life. In this context, disability in the past was taken as the punishment by God for some sin committed in the past life. We can find these types of belief in everywhere in society and we also find it in Hindu mythology. In the past, medical science was not sufficiently developed, and people were not literal in the perspective of disability, so they felt the disability is sin or fate. Most of Nepalese believes that 'having disabled children is the result of a past fault or punishment of previous life'. Due to the lack of aware- ness, parents feel severely burdened by having disabled children and prefer to send their children to an orphanage center rather than keep them with them. They try to hide the disability from the community due to social stigma (Weiss et al., 2006). Unlike other citizens of the society disabled people live in most terrible conditions, isolated and excluded from their communities by barriers of policy, environment, and attitude. Due to ignorance, illiteracy, faith in supernatural power etc. the common attitude of the people towards the disability has been to by-pass it as the curse of gods for the wrong done in the past life very few persons thought it to be the result of some disease or accident. A disabled person was thought to be a stigma to the family.

Due to ignorance, illiteracy, faith in supernatural power etc. the common attitude of the people towards the disability has been to by-pass it as the curse of gods for the wrong done in the past life very few persons thought it to be the result of some disease or accident. A disabled person was thought to be a stigma to the family. Society degrades and despises persons with disabilities and their families. As a result, families felt humiliated and tried to hide the disabled persons from the society as long as they could (IYDP, 1981).

During the United Nations decade of disabled persons (1983-1992), it was recognized that people with disabilities particularly in developing countries were not considered as potentially contributing to social and economic development. Disability had a

devastating effect on the quality of life of the disabled people with a particularly negative effect on their marriage educational attainment, employment, and emotional state. Disability also jeopardized their personal, family, and social life. More than halves of the disabled people were looked at negatively by society.

Internationally there has been an increasing focus on non-discrimination protection in the workplace and human rights for disabled people (Halvorsen & Hvinden, 2011). Article 27 in the UN Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities [CRPD] further states that disabled people have a right to work on equal basis with others, and its main purpose is to ensure individuals with disabilities equal opportunities, to realize their human rights and to reduce obstacles that hinder this (CRPD, 2008). Also the constitution in Nepal ensured fundamental rights to people that no one should be discriminated against in everyday life and in any opportunities.But in our society, the condition of the disabled is critical. Lack of physical mobility and mentally retarded is the major cause of social exclusion and isolation. There is also lack of skill transfer to the care takers. After the great change in country being republic, there are some green signals to have more rights in legislation. One problem is that present legislation is not implemented fully or effectively, and the government officials lack awareness about disabled people. In this background, I have raised questions on the issue of disabilities. Is a disabled person considered a family burden? How is the attitude of the family and society towards persons with disabilities? I am trying to find answers to these questions through this study.

2. Attitude of Family and Society towards Persons with Disabilities

The disabled are helpless and burden in the Nepalese society (Mishra, 2014). Disability has many meanings to others. The disabled person often does not know when he enters a social situation whether he will be an object of curiosity, pity, sympathized with, helped, patronized, exhibited, praised for his abilities, avoided, or actively rejected. The attitude of person with disability towards his own disability, towards other disabled persons and towards the members of his society as well as the attitude of society towards him are determining factors for the development of his personality and for his integration in society (Albrecht, Sheelman, 2001).

According to Mishra (2014), the person with disability who considers himself stigmatized due to his disability condition may be more vulnerable to anxiety than a non-disabled person. Because so many disabled persons' lives tend to revolve around their disabilities rather than abilities, their self-concepts are unrealistically low. Consequently, their self-expectations, levels of aspirations and general motivational levels are unnecessarily diminished. Therefore, those who give up easily owing to their disability condition may not significantly contribute, on the other hand those who refuse to accept disability as a disabled condition and constantly struggle for higher goals, outshine others including those without disability. There are several such examples. disabled individuals often tend to be isolated with regard to their social contacts. Status in the family, neighborhood and at workplace is important, however, for many the possibility of achieving or maintaining such status is impaired (Gokhale, 1995).

The non-disabled majority tends to maintain a certain social distance, often treating the disabled as outsiders. Many non-disabled people feel uncomfortable in the presence of a disabled individual. They find it very difficult to accept and combine with the disabled as they do with other people, and since they have greater prestige and power, they can restrict the opportunities of the disabled. The PWDs are often forced either to associate with each other or become socially isolated. They are frequently segregated - physically, psychologically, and socially. The disabled person, sensing social discrimination gravitates to his own kind who can accept him without reservations (Telford & Sawrey, 1995). Non-disabled treat persons with disabilities as different. They are not included in the competitive group that form among active adolescents. In a sense, they are treated as an outsider whom people may like but exclude from their inner circle for sports and leisure activities. They live with their disabilities in the community, but they are never fully accepted by the teen age peers. Attitude is a condition of readiness, a tendency to respond in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli (Oppenheim, 1992). Attitude towards disabled people have been predominantly negative in direction and the intensity of beliefs and behavior appears (Ingstad & Whyte, 1995; Stone, 2001).

A disabled person, like every other person, is a 'social being' and is, therefore, no different from other able-bodied persons. It is an irony, however, that he is not accepted by the society as he is, for it invariably focuses its attention on his disabilities rather than on his

abilities, victims of disease, accident, or negligence, they have been further victimized by their peculiar and irrational discrimination of the society. Social Scientists have known for decades that able-bodied people tend to avoid interacting with people with disabilities, because they are uncertain about how to behave in their presence (Thompson, 1982; Yamamoto, 1971).

Goffman's (1963) sociological analysis of stigma and its consequences in socially marginalized groups is frequently cited as foundational in disability literature reviews. Goffman's (1963) and Davis's (1961) thesis that relations between disabled persons and non-disabled persons are marked by strain, misunderstanding and disconnection is supported by a wide range of data sources. Murphy (1990) described disability as a 'disease of social relations', adding "Social relations between the disabled and the able bodied are tense, awkward, and problematic. This is something that every disabled person knows". Disabled people of every condition complain that non-disabled act as if we were contagious (Murphy et al 1988) and wheelchair users know that in public places, they are commonly "noticed by everyone and acknowledged by nobody". In my opinion, the society and their families do not have a good attitude towards disabled people. The society does not even accept him/her as a good citizen. Based on this literature I have studied the attitude of society and its family towards disability in Nepalese society.

3. Coverage of Disability in Cinema, Media, and Literature

Negative portrayals of disabled persons in movies such as beggars, comic, wicked and villainous characters. In fictions, a villain is invariably featured by the wicked or deformed. Shakespeare's Richard III, a spastic by birth is one of the most terrible, corrupt, and villainous characters ever created by the author. Several novelists have depicted disabled individuals in bad character (Banik, 2016). With regard to mentally ill, newspaper headlines in England in twenty first century have included 'Nuts to be caged for life by the doctors (*The Sun*, December 2000) and "psychos to be locked up for life' (*The Sun*, June 2002). The animalistic terms 'caged' and 'locked up' suggest those concerned are less than human." Examples of the "life not worth living" narrative include media coverage of the case of Sarah Lawson who was diagnosed as a patient of manic depressive. Her father killed her at the age of 22 by administering an

overdose of drug and then suffocating her with a pillow. He was given a suspended sentence and, when he walked free from court, media comment included 'she would be better off dead'.

Disabled women face a double dose of discrimination and prejudice - both as persons with disabilities and as women with disabilities are triply disadvantaged. Disabled women therefore face multiple barriers to achieving their life goals. As a consequence of the bias, discrimination and stereotyping that disabled women face, they experience low employment rates and wages, low educational levels, high rates of poverty and segregation, limited access to community services and high rates of sexual and physical violence (Fiduccia& Wolfe, 1999). It may be concluded that common reactions of non-disabled towards disabled can be curiosity, pity, over-solicitousness, rejection, repugnance, indifference, fear, and sympathy.

4. Attitudes towards Disability and Discrimination

Discrimination implies denial of opportunity, unequal treatment, and exclusion from the main channels of economic and social life (Jernigan, 1968). It is in the economic sphere that discrimination against the persons with disability is found to be more overt and serious. Their economic security is often threatened by the frequent refusals of work opportunities in many areas of employment. It is a common observation that economically independent persons with disabilities are more accepted in the society than the dependent ones. While it is true that the vocational outlets for the disabled may be realistically circumscribed, the restrictions are often extended to areas where the limitations are not inherently confining. Unrealistic requirements close the doors of employment to many of the disabled.

The social effects of disability tend to create social distance between the disabled and their families on the one side and the community on the other. The distance is often expressed by the non-acceptance of the handicapped in social functions, religious services, educational programs, workplaces, marital relationships leading to social and economic isolation. This may often result in un-social, and even anti-social attitude on the part of the disabled (Gokhale, 1995).

Biklen (1987) and Taylor et al (1993) identified social construction of disability as a barrier to social inclusion. At

community level negative attitudes can become structured into social patterns of segregation and discrimination. The theory of social construction attempts to explain the process by which knowledge is created and assumed as reality (Douglas, 1970).

Particular social constructions of disability portray people with disabilities as "other" and not as an integral part of the 'normal' world. Negative attitudes and behaviors develop from this 'worldview'. In the last two decades disability rights activists and academics have highlighted cultural and environmental factors that marginalized people with disabilities, denying them basic values and the accompanying basic rights/conditions. This social model of disability places a person's impairment in the context of social and environmental factors, which create disabling barriers to participation (Oliver, 1990). This social model of disability approach suggests that the root of disability lies in a failure of the environment to allow someone to function to his/her full capacity as much as in any functional impairment that the person may have.

The social construction of disability represents a basis from which barriers to inclusion of people with disabilities are created (Devine, 1997 citing Olkin et al, 1994). As a result of the social construction of disability, people with disabilities experience decreased expectations by people without disabilities and limited inclusion in society (Devine, 1997 citing Bogdan et al, 1992; Safilios Rothschild, 1976). Understanding social constructions can help to explain why people with disabilities have been sidelined and discriminated against and can draw attention to what needs to be done to eliminate negative attitudes. New interpretations of impairment and disability can be informed by the experience of impairment of people with disabilities; by facilitating their rightful participation in mainstream activities and by the recognition and defense of the common values of autonomy/self-determination, equality, dignity, social justice, and diversity that are rooted in every person and of the rights that flow from them.

Mishra (2014) cites Funk (1987) who said that the social construction of disability is responsible for creating images of people with disabilities as "pathetic figures in need of pity, charity and caretaking". Society prescribes a set of standards for functional independence, capabilities, and social reciprocity. When people's functioning or biological composition does not fall within these

standards, they are assumed to be inferior and are subject to a decrease in inclusion in society (Devine, 1997 citing Allen et al, 1995; Bogdan et al, 1987 and Hahn, 1988).

All human beings are born free both in dignity and in rights but there is a difference between people. There is discrimination within human beings. Discrimination is the act of making unjustified distinctions between human beings based on the groups, classes, or other categories to which they are perceived to belong (Amnesty, 2020). People may be discriminated on the basis of race, gender, age or sexual orientation, as well as other categories (American Psychological Association, 2019). According to Cambridge dictionary, discrimination especially occurs when individuals or groups are unfairly treated in a way which is worse than other people are treated, because of their actual or perceived membership in certain groups or social categories. It involves restricting members of one group from opportunities or privileges that are available to members of another group (W. W. Norton, 2009).

Discriminatory traditions, policies, ideas, practices and laws exist in many countries and institutions in all parts of the world, including territories where discrimination is generally looked down upon. Discrimination against people with disabilities in favor of people who are not is called ableism or disableism. Disability discrimination, which treats non-disabled individuals as the standard of 'normal living', results in public and private places and services, educational settings, and social services that are built to serve 'standard' people, thereby excluding those with various disabilities. Studies have shown that disabled people not only need employment in order to be provided with the opportunity to earn a living but they also need employment in order to sustain their mental health and well-being. Work fulfils a number of basic needs for an individual such as collective purpose, social contact, status, and activity (Vornholt, Katharina, 2013). A person with a disability is often found to be socially isolated or excluded even from family.

The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities clearly outlines that people with disabilities have the same economic rights as those without impairments and should be able to live a life free from discrimination. Further, the National Disability Strategy prioritizes the jobs and economic security for people with disability. However, in practice Australia is failing dismally to life up to these expectations. Discrimination against People with Disability (PWD)

with respect to employment is against the law and it is mandatory that 5 per cent of the jobs be retained for PWDs. However, the Employment Policy does not spell out how to get rid of the discriminatory barriers and provide reasonable accommodation to the employees. In the absence of policy arrangements to support the employees in creating and maintaining an enabling working environment and reasonable accommodation, PWDs are unable to work anyway.

Persons with Disabilities consider Family Burden

A Case Story of Sima Thapa, (Pseudonym) Physical Disable

Sima Thapa is a physical disabled women of 39 years old. She has 2 kids. When Sima was two and a half years old, she developed high fever. A registered medical practitioner treated her locally for fever. As she grew older, she failed to stand up properly.

Initially, her family believed that she was possessed by witchcraft. After that, the family started to go with doctor and treated by him. But her condition did not improve, and her left leg was getting thin and small. But they later learnt that she had had an attack of polio. Till date, Sima experiences weakness in her legs and needs assistant to support herself while walking specially climb stairs.

She can perform most of her household chores but has problems in outdoor work. She tries to live her life like the normal people, but faces many problems when she is attaining school, public places, playing games. Sima attended school till class 8 but feeling hesitate she dropout. Her friends did not call by name, they called by Langadi (physically weak). So, she didn't make friend. Even her friends did not care for her. Instead, she was given various nicknames like Luli, Langadi and even her friends acted like her by making her body movement.

When she was 19, she got married to an inter-caste boy who is identified as a lower caste in the society. But her family was recognized as upper caste in the society as Kshetriya. When she got married and came to her husband's house, she was not accepted by her husband's family. Her mother-in-law did not even allow her to enter the house. Later, at the request of the villagers, she accepted her socially but continued to insult her inside the house. Her mother-in-law was very rude to her. They started calling her by the nickname of her disability, they started giving work that she could

not do. Gradually, they were discriminated against in terms of food and clothing. She felt she was a burden to her family.

However, she took a room in Nepalgunj with her husband and started living there. There was no dearth of those who discriminated against her. Some said that it was due to ancestral sin, while some said misfortune, helplessness etc. But the degree of discrimination was less as compared to the village.

She had a love marriage with a lower caste boy, her parents did not care. She was unknowingly accepted, because she was disabled, the insult and humiliation were justified. She did not know that the society, family, friends had any positive thoughts towards her. As everyone discriminated against her, she also fell victim to a mental illness. However, she continued her study with the idea that advocacy for people with disabilities should protect their human rights.

According to her, the attitude of our society towards women with disabilities is very bad. They are not even treated as human beings. Society has negative attitudes toward disabled people. Negative attitudes may result in low acceptance by peers, few friendships, loneliness and even being rejected or bullied. This can have dramatic effects on the lives of young students with disabilities, resulting in difficulties in joining group activities, declining academic performance, dropping out of school and/or problem behavior (Jackson & Bracken, 1998; Ollendick, Weist, Borden, & Greene, 1992). In worst-case scenarios, rejection and bullying may lead to negative long-term outcomes.

Case Story of Junu Thapa (Pseudonym), Intellectual Disable

Junu Thapa is an intellectual disabled age of 25 years. She can't speak, hear, and have difficulty walking. Growing up for Junu was also difficult. Because she didn't have loving family and relatives to take care of her. She lost her mother at the age of 12. Now she lives with her father and stepmother and their financial condition is also poor, so they are unable to give time to Beli. She never went to school due to her disability, but there is an intellectual special school located in Nepalgunj which is near her home.

According to her elder sister (she is already married), when she lost her mother, she became orphan, and she started living in neighbors' home. After sometimes later her father took her in her house. According to her neighbor Shusila Chhetri, she is too tired to even eat a single meal. Taking advantage of the situation, roguish

boys raped her, when there was no one in her house. Then she was raped repeatedly. Her guardian and neighbor knew it but no one cared. Her neighbors and guardian ignored her as she was useless in their eyes. However, her father told me that he is too tired to care her, he does not have time to care her. Because he is a daily wage laborer. Her stepmother does not take care of her, she despises her a lot. She feels that Junu is a burden to her family.

After repeatedly raping her, she usually becomes pregnant. It is also a burden to her family and now they give Sangeeni Sui (contraceptive injection) every 3 months. A Sangeeni Sui is a three-monthly injection that is a temporary contraceptive method which is most widely used as a family planning method. However, as a person with a disability, Junu has experienced many barriers. But she doesn't speak, though she runs away seeing the boys.

Disability activist DeepaThapa says that the government has provided disability card (Red Card-A) based on Beli's condition. After Junu started receiving social security allowance from the government, now her father has started taking care of her a little bit. Junu has had some improvement over the past few years, but she is continues compelled to take contraceptive injections. Although social workers have repeatedly advocated on the issue, despite that she has been raped repeatedly while her father was away from home for work. Sima said that she seen many of the barriers and negative attitudes towards people with disabilities persist. For the economic burden group such as Beli's father, who have severe intellectual disable child were found to be high family burden and they did not receive special education.

Her family and neighbors thought it would be better if she died. Her neighbors and family believe that she would have been emancipation if she had died. Another thing is that the boys in the society can be spoiled because of her. They worry about spoiling their son, husband but don't think about her. So, the social burden for the girl of intellectual disability is very high and the negative attitude is also high.

6. Attitude of Family and Society towards PWDs

Puspa Raj Upreti, physical disable said that due to ignorance, illiteracy, faith in supernatural poses, etc, the common attitude of people towards the disability has been to bypass it as the curse of gods

for the wrong done in the past life. Very few people thought it to be the result of some disease or accident (Interview 2021). Pushpa is a physically disabled person who uses crutches and sometimes a wheelchair. He also faced much ignorance by family and society. Similarly, Ghanshyam Malla said a disabled person was thought to be a stigma to the family and society. Society looks down upon the disabled persons and their families and hated them if even when accept by the family. Ghanshyam is the army of Nepal, he lost his two legs and one arm during the Maoist insurgency. When he lost his limbs. Many say that it is better to die than to survive. Her family agreed. But he was rescued by the Nepal Army. When they came home, everyone was crying. Now he had to take care of him a lot. He cannot do anything by himself, even cannot eat because he doesn't even have fingers. But he accepted the reason for his regular salary from Nepal Government. But later, it became possible because of the same responsibility towards her family and the support of the government. He now lives with his family, but society still believes it is better to die than to survive. According to his wife, her family and society have put a lot of pressure on her to remarry. As a result, his wife felt humiliated and tried to hide him from the society as long as she could (Interview 2021).

According to Harikala Devi, teacher of Lagdahawa higher secondary school said that some families attempt to hide the existence of their child's disability and they do not want to send school with normal children. She again said that people who are literate and have attended school are developing more positive attitudes towards disability than the rest.

Gangajali Khatik, parent of disabled child said that I feel humiliated having a blind daughter because everyone thinks she was born for the reason that we sinned in the past. She is now 13 years old, and in her community, she should get a gauna (pre-marriage rituals) for marriage at this age, but for the reason of her disability no one came to ask her to marry. She again said, she should be nurtured for the rest of his life. As a parent, there is a lot of concern about who will take care of them after we die. Society also hates being a blind daughter. Relatives also despise it.

Every time a mother of cerebral palsy (Nitu Dahal, Pseudonym) prays to God that her son expires soon and gets salvation. Sometimes she keeps her child in CP Center Caretaker Home which is

established for orphan disabled child and sometimes leaves her relatives/natal home.

During my studies as a researcher, I found that families and societies in general do not accept people with disabilities easily. Society hates and despises being disabled. The family feels more burden. In some cases, I have found that parents wish to see their children die as soon as possible. Most of respondent believes that 'having disabled children is the result of a past fault or punishment of previous life'.

The respondents are facing the difficulties in joining the community activities too. They faced difficulties for fear of being of mocked, some of them just feel uncomfortable among the members of the community, sometimes they felt guilty for not having helpers for walking, not having assistive device etc.

7. Major Findings of the Study

The major findings of the study can be summarized in the following points :

- Maximum of the respondents were the victims of feeling discrimination in the society and only few did not feel about it. They were faced mockery, suffering from abuse by peers in the name of discrimination, family burden, negative attitude of society etc.
- » Respondent feel that disability is a problem for marriage.
- » Most respondents usually do not go to the neighbour's house.
- ➤ Most of the parents reported that they did not know about rights of disabled people. Were unaware about the laws/ policies for them.
- ▶ Parent (respondent parents) think that they are unlucky to having disable child.
- → Almost all the respondents had no participation in political activities. They had no participation in domestic/community level decision making.

8. Conclusion

The study found negative social attitudes with misconceptions about disability based on negative stereotype and a biased social environment. Myths and misconceptions have been found to deeply rooted in society. Traditions and religions related to disability refer to the basis of personal beliefs and attitudes. Person with disabilities faced challenges from family and society due to her/his disability. Even now, disability is compared with sin and virtue which was attempt in past life. I found these types of belief in society. Most of respondent believes that 'having disabled children is the result of a past fault or punishment of previous life'. They try to hide the disability from the community due to social stigma. At last, there is a need for raise public awareness and advocacy to mitigate misconception about disability and promote disabled rights.

References

- Apangata Bhayaka Byektiharuko Parichaya Patra Bitaran Karyabidhi, Bhanu Municipality, Government of Nepal, 2075.
- Banik, Somdev, "Representation of disabled characters in literature", *International Journal of English Language*, 3(2), April-June 2016.
- Biklen, D. and Knoll, J., "The disabled minority", S. J. Taylor, D. Biklen, and J. Knoll (eds.), *Community Integration for People with Severe Disabilities*, New York: Teachers College Press, 1987, 324.
- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). 2006. Retrived https://www.un.org/..../desa/.../convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities.
- Davis, F., "Deviance Disavowal: The Management of Strained Interaction by the Visibly Handicapped", *Social Problems*, 9, 1961, 120-32.
- Disability Promote Rights Act, 2074BS, Kathmandu: Government of Nepal.
- "Discrimination: What it is, and how to cope". *American Psychological Association*. October 31, 2019.
- Douglas, J. D., "Understanding everyday life", J. D. Douglas (ed.), *Understanding Everyday Life : Towards the Reconstruction of Sociological Knowledge*, Chicago : Aldine, (1970, 3-43.
- Fiduccia, B and Wolfe, *Fact Sheet : Violence against Disabled Women*, Cupertino, Calif. : Centre for Women Policy Studies, 1999.
- Goffman, E., *Stigma*: *Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity*, Englewood, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1963.
- Giddens, Anthony and Duneier, M., *Introduction to Sociology*, 7th ed, New York: W. W. Norton & Company Inc, 2009, 334.
- Gilson, Stephen and Elizabeth Depoy, "Theoretical approaches to disability content in social work education", *Journal of Social Work Education*, 38(1), 2002, 153-165.
- Gokhale, S. D., "The Handicapped and Social Stigma", *Bharat Medical Journal* in Murickan, J. S. J. and Kareparampil, G., *Persons with Disabilities in Society*, Trivandrum, Kerala: Federation of the Blind, 1995.

Halvorsen, R. Hvinden, B., Bickenbach J., Ferri D., Marta A. and Rodriguez G., The Changing Disability Policy System: Active Citizenship and Disability in Europe, Vol. 1, London: Taylor & Francis, 2017.

- Ingstad, B. and Whyte, S. R. (eds.), *Disability and Culture, Berkeley*, CA: University of California Press, 1995.
- IYDP, Report on the Sample Survey of Disabled Persons in Nepal, 1981.
- Jernigan, K., *Blindness Discrimination, Hostility and Progress*, NAIB, Second All India Convention of the Instructors of the Blind, 1968.
- Murphy, R. F., J. Scheer, Y. Murphy, and R. Mark, "Physical Disability and Social Liminating: A study in the Rituals of Adversity", *Social Science & Medicine*, 26, 1988, 235-42.
- Murphy, R. F., The Body Silent, New York: Norton, 1990
- Oppenheim, A. N., *Questionnaire Design*, *Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*, New Edition, London: Painter Publishers, 1992.
- Stone, E., "A complicated struggle: disability, survival and social change in the majority world", M. Priestly (ed.), *Disability and the Life Course: Global Perspectives*, Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2001.
- Swain, J., Finkelstein, V., French, S. and Oliver, M. (eds.), *Disabling Barriers*, *Enabling Environments*, London: OUP/Sage, 1993
- Telford, C. W. and Sawrey, J. M., "The Exceptional Individual in Murickan", J. S. J. and G. Kareparampil, *Persons with Disabilities in Society*, Trivandrum: Kerala federation of the Blind, 1995.
- The Sun, December 2002 Vol.; June 2000 Vol. North Carolina.
- Thompson, T., "You can't play Marbles You have a Wooden Hand: Communication with the Handicapped", *Communication Quarterly* 30, 1982, 108-15.
- Vornholt, Katharina, Sjir Uitdewilligen, Frans J. N. Nijhuis, "Factors Affecting the Acceptance of People with Disabilities at Work: A Literature Review", *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation*, 23(4), December 2013.
- "What drives discrimination and how do we stop it?". www.amnesty.org. Amnesty International Retrieved : March 21, 2021.
- World Health Organization and World Bank, *World Report on Disability* (*Summary*), Geneva: WHO, 2011. ★

Mental Health Concerns of Elderly and COVID-19

Sunita Bahmani*

Mental health and well-being is of a great concern for elderly people. The present study aimed at identifying the factors affecting the mental health of the elderly with special reference to COVID-19. The respondents highlighted that because of the stigma attached with mental illnesses prevent them to visit a psychiatrist. Their own apprehensions as well as family and society did not encourage them to go for the diagnosis and treatment of mental illnesses. COVID-19 pandemic resulted in the greater level of psychological disturbances among elderly because their recreational activities got restricted and elderly were confined to home in order to maintain social distancing. Need of creating awareness among elderly people on mental health concerns and connecting the elderly people with their own families, civil society organizations and social networks is suggested by the study.

[Keywords: Mental health, Disease, COVID-19, Pandemic]

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April-June), 2022 Peer Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed International Research Journal

^{*} Associate Professor, Department of Social Work, Aditi Mahavidyalaya, University of Delhi, Bawana, Delhi-110039 (India) E-mail: <sbahmani@aditi.du.ac.in>

26 Sunita Bahmani

1. Introduction

According to World Health Organization (WHO), elderly make important contributions to society as family members, volunteers and as active participants in the workforce. While most have good mental health, many older adults are at risk of developing mental disorders, neurological disorders or substance use problems as well as other health conditions such as diabetes, hearing loss, and osteoarthritis. Elderly are the people who are aged 60 or above. Elderly contribute to society as a productive members. They had already contributed a lot to the family and societal well-being.

In old age, people experience profound changes and face important challenges, including modifications in their roles, retirement, and the death of loved ones (friends and family members). These experiences can increase their levels of stress and lead to a decrease in the resources that individuals feel they have in dealing with their daily lives (Ericsson, S. et al., 2014). Identifying the mental health disturbances is quite easy but identifying and accepting a mental illness is not that easy. Mental health problems can be identified when a person is not able to carry out daily living activities, their decision making is also get affected. Mental illnesses reduced the independence of the person and it disturbs the quality of life. When an elderly persons feel disturbed, they are not able to understand that they are prone to get mental illness. They do not realize the importance of seeking psychiatric help for diagnosis and treatment. Diagnosis of mental illness is imperative for the proper treatment. If the mental illnesses are left undiagnosed and untreated, the elderly population suffers and scuffle a lot. Another aspect of not accepting the mental illness is the stigma associated with mental illnesses. Mental illnesses as stigma are considered as insanity and madness. Mental illnesses are taken as the matter of shame and dishonor by the elderly people. In the absence of correct information and understanding about the mental illnesses the elderly do no acknowledge the signs and symptoms of mental illness and do not want to visit the psychiatrist. They fear, if someone come to know about their illness, they will not be respected by the society and it will impede their independence.

According to Quinn, Laidlaw & Murray (2009) despite the prevalence of mental health problems in later life, older people markedly underutilize mental health services. A greater awareness

of factors influencing older peoples' attitudes to mental illness may therefore improve awareness and treatment of mental disorders in this population. Similar to younger people, older people endorsed a range of positive and negative attitudes to mental illness. However, when attitudes to mental illness were considered within the context of ageing and experience a more complex pattern of results emerged. Although negative attitudes to mental illness were associated with negative attitudes to ageing. Elderly (those with prior experience of mental illness) reported more positive attitudes to mental illness and more negative attitudes to ageing than non-clinical participants, for whom the reverse was true. Attitudes were also differentially related to health behaviour outcomes. Attitudes to mental illness and ageing may be linked and mediated by personal experience and capacity for psychological self-regulation in the face of age-associated adversity.

The ageing of the population worldwide has been followed by an increase in the prevalence of mental illness, making this one of the most important causes of morbidity. There are numerous psychological and behavioural symptoms associated with mental illnesses that strongly affect the objectives and life expectations of the elderly and increase the difficulties in the process of assessment, diagnosis, and treatment of these people (Fernandes, L. et al., 2009). In old age people many elderly face physical, emotional, social, and mental health issues. Although not all the elderly are prone to get the mental illness. Those who get family support are better adjusted persons in the old age. The findings of the study conducted by Gerino, E. et al., (2017) suggested that the importance of the support that elderly people receive from social relationships. In terms of clinical interventions, the reduction of loneliness could be an important factor in primary prevention or the recovery process. A way to reduce levels of mental distress could be represented by the increasing of resilience and self-efficacy and reduction of loneliness dissatisfaction. A high degree of resiliency contributes to increasing perceived life quality at the physical and psychological levels, and at the same time, reducing anxiety and depressive symptoms. The common mental illnesses experienced by the elderly are anxiety disorders, depression, dementia, alzheimer, sleep, and behaviour disorders. Warnings about the impact of an aging population on the nation's health care system have become familiar, rising numbers of seniors with diabetes, heart disease, and other chronic illnesses, increased costs, and a strained geriatric workforce that is insufficient 28 Sunita Bahmani

to meet even today's needs. But despite well-publicized alarm over Alzheimer's disease, whose victims are expected to triple by 2050, scant attention has been paid to non-dementia-related mental illnesses such as depression and anxiety (NIA, 2012-13)

Many elderly people uphold a satisfactory way of living, they spend time with their peers and families. But there are the elderly people who are at risk of developing psychological distress, illness, anxiety and loneliness. According to Liu and Guo (2007) loneliness, anxiety, and depressive symptoms may contribute synergistically to a significant decrease in levels of well-being. As the issues of health, and above all, illness or disability in old age, are a matter of increasing public concern, a perspective on healthy aging is crucial when it comes to identifying, designing, and implementing appropriate strategies to meet the growing needs of the population (Djukanovic et al., 2015). It is very important to focus on elderly care and especially mental health. Elderly people need care, support and proper health care services. They also need supportive social network and close personal relationships. But the hard fact is that they are the sufferers of disturbed personal relations and isolation. Family ties are weakened with the increasing nuclear family system. Mental health and well-being of the elderly has become a serious concern for the society.

According to the "Mental Health Action Plan 2013-2020" (WHO, 2013), mental health is an integral part of health and well-being and includes not only individual characteristics but also social, cultural, economic political, and environmental factors. The report recognizes that depending on the context certain groups, such as older people, are at higher risk of having mental health problems and consequently having higher rates of disability and mortality. The main issues concerning aging and mental health are prevention, early diagnosis, recognition of major diseases, treatment and quality of life interventions, at both individual and community level.

The present study not only reflects how mental health is rising among old age people but it also demonstrates how COVID-19 has a great role in increasing mental illness cases. Previous researches focused on mental health issues and their relationship with family neglect and other diseases but now one more major reason has increased its rate which needs to be acknowledged is COVID-19. As we know COVID-19 has spread swiftly particularly, the mental and physical health of the elderly aged above 60. It also classified as

high-risk groups and is more vulnerable than other age groups, requiring more attention. Strong social restrictions, social distancing, and quarantine measures to prevent the COVID-19 spread have raised concerns about the mental health of the elderly. In response to COVID-19 technology has been adapted to try and mitigate these effects, offering individuals digital alternatives to many of the day-to-day activities which can no longer be completed normally. However, the elderly population, which has been worst affected by both the virus, and the lockdown measures, has seen the least benefits from these digital solutions. The age based digital divide describes a longstanding inequality in the access to, and skills to make use of, new technology. While this problem is not new, during the COVID-19 pandemic it has created a large portion of the population suffering from the negative effects of the crisis, and unable to make use of many of the digital measures put in place to help. For a deeper understanding of the recent psychological and mental effects caused by the pandemic, emotions such as fear and anger should also be considered and observed. Fear is a natural defense mechanism against potentially threatening events that requires greater attention because, when chronic or imbalanced, it can become a key component of various mental disorders. During a pandemic, such as COVID-19, emotions such as fear and anger increase the rate of symptom manifestation and maintain high levels of anxiety and stress in vulnerable social groups, such as the elderly and those with existing mental disorders, as well as healthy people. Moreover, past epidemics have shown that such conditions require more attention because they may cause depression, anxiety, PTSD, and mental illnesses and may even lead to suicide in severe cases.

2. Research Methodology

The study describes the stress due to COVID-19 pandemic, stress due to neglect and isolation, technological barriers, inability to visit social services and support groups by the elderly people. This study not only identifies major causes but also tried to reflect what can be done to deal with the issue. On reading the earlier studies and researches concluded that they were more specific on the mental health issues before pandemic or they only highlight about mental health issues in COVID-19 in general but this study is more specific and is reflecting about all the arenas that has affected old age people

30 Sunita Bahmani

mental health. It is not only pandemic related but it also reflects other problems like due to disease or loneliness. This study also tries to find the coping mechanism for the same.

The research design was descriptive. It described various factors related to mental health and COVID-19. The study adopted the approach to triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative research method. Triangulation has helped in understand the concepts, thoughts or experiences of old age people related to health issues. It enabled the researcher to gather in-depth insights on the topic. The data was collected from primary and secondary sources. The methods of data collection were structured and unstructured interview and observations. The tools of data collection were interview schedule and interview guide. The sample comprised of 25 old age people above the age of 60 years. The data was collected telephonically and through google form. The access to 17 participants was gained through google forms for those who were mobile and computer literate and 8 respondents who were not mobile and computer literate were telephonically interviewed. The potential obstacle in the study was COVID-19 due to which everyone was socially isolated but that was overcome through online platforms available and use of technology. There were 19 questions that were asked from the respondents. To arrange the data properly all the information collected telephonically and in person was filled by the respondents in google form. The research questions were related to the elderly people experiencing mental health problems, family neglect and rejection, dealing strategies, impact of COVID-19.

3. Ethical Consideration

A written consent prior to being involved in the study was taken from the respondents.

4. Results and Discussion

COVID-19 pandemic created a unique stressor which has a great impact on all the communities across the world. There was a heavy toll on mental health of the individuals from all the sections of the society. Elderly people also faced a lot of mental health problems during the pandemic time. The study is primarily conducted keeping in mind the mental health and well-being of the elderly. The major findings of the study are as follows:

4.1 General Profile of the Respondents

The study was done with the age group of 60-80 years. It was found that 8 respondents studied upto 12th class, 13 respondents were graduate and 4 respondents were post graduate. Total respondents interviewed were 25.

Live in old Live alone **Profile** Live with Total their family age home Age (years) 60-70 2 12 1 15 7 70-80 3 10 19 5 1 25 **Total Education** Up to 12th 5 3 8 Under-Graduate 10 2 1 13 Post-Graduate 4 4 **Total** 19 5 1 25

Table-1: General profile of the respondents

4.2 Care and Support

The care and support one gets from the family at their own home is a great emotional security. Elderly people also need the emotional and social security which they feel by living at their own home with their family members. Table 1 revealed that 19 respondents were living with their family and five in old age homes and one respondent lived alone. Many studies focused elderly people living at home, given that the majority of older adults live in their own homes, with many preferring to remain and continue living in their homes as long as possible. Supporting older adults to continue living in their own homes is also a priority. (King's Fund, 2016; Centre for Ageing Better, 2015).

4.3 Followed COVID-19 Protocols

Table-2 on the status of following COVID-19 protocols depicts that respondents (18) were following all necessary precautions related to the COVID-19 and only one respondents was not taking precautions. Seven respondents conveyed that sometimes they

32 Sunita Bahmani

follow but many a time they did not follow the necessary precautions during COVID-19 Pandemic.

Table-2: Status on	following	COVID-19	Protocols
--------------------	-----------	----------	------------------

Status	No. of Respondents
Followed all the necessary precaution	18
Not Followed all the necessary precaution	1
Sometimes followed the necessary precaution	7
Total	25

4.4 COVID-19 Status of the Respondents

In the study, 7 respondents told that they suffered from COVID-19 while 16 respondents informed that they were not tested as COVID-19. Two respondents were not aware of their status as COVID-19 positive or negative as they have not get their tests done, they isolated themselves and taken the medicine paracetamol.

4.5 Fear related to COVID-19

The findings showed that 12 respondents were having fear that if they would get affected by COVID- they would not survive while 7 respondents had no fear of COVID-19 as they had already recovered from the COVID-19 and rest 6 of the respondents opined that they may have fear but they were not sure.

Table-3: Fear of COVID-19

Category	No. of Respondents
Feared	12
Not feared as they have already recovered	7
Not sure	6
Total	25

4.6 Awareness related to Mental Health

On understanding of the mental health 15 respondents replied that they were familiar with the concept of mental health while 7of the respondents were not familiar with the concept of mental health. Three respondents were confused about the mental health conditions they faced anxiety issues but they did not give it recognition.

4.7 Status of Mental health

Respondents were asked to report whether they were feeling mentally healthy or not. It was found that 18 respondents were mentally healthy and 5 respondents were confused about their mental health as they never considered it like they considered physical health. Two respondents reported that they were not mentally healthy.

4.8 Mental Health and COVID-19

Major causes mentioned by the respondents of their deteriorating mental conditions were fear of having COVID-19, being away from their family and feeling lonely, Burden of anything which leads to deteriorate condition, overthinking, living alone and fear of disease, increasing COVID-19 cases, unstable financial condition, negative environment, and increased Stress issues. Nicholson, C. et al., (2012) revealed that respondents in his study expressed fears and worries of losing independence and being burden on others, with feelings such as depression, loss of pride and emotional pain used by some participants to describe their physical losses.

4.9 Approached the Counsellor

Respondents were asked whether they consulted the counsellor or not. It was found that one respondents had visited the counsellor while the other one felt that it was just a phase of life and no need to over react to the mental health condition. It would be fine after sometime. Twenty three respondents were of mixed opinion of visiting the counsellor in case of stress.

4.10 Access to Health care Services

Accessing and availing health care services were also asked by the respondents. It was reported that 12 respondents had faced difficulty in availing health care facilities while 8 respondents had not faced any difficulty in availing health care facilities. Five respondents thought that they might have little difficulty. Marengoni, A. et al., reported that functional decline, poor quality of life and high healthcare costs are amongst the major consequences of living with multi-morbid conditions. There is a need to understand the type of support required by elderly people to cope with the challenges related to availability of low cost or no cost healthcare facilities especially when they have multi-morbidity.

34 Sunita Bahmani

4.11 Online Health Care Facility

Respondents revealed that they also availed health care services using online mode. Three respondents had availed health care facilities using online mode to maintain the risk of not getting COVID-19 while 22 respondents had availed the health care facilities using offline mode for various physical health problems.

4.12 Response from the Family members

Family plays a pivotal role in maintaining mental health and well-being of an individual. Table-4 reflects that 18 of the respondents thought that they have been neglected by their family members. Rest 3 of the respondents felt that they had not been neglected by their family members. Four respondents felt that they may be were neglected by their family members.

Status	No. of Respondents
Neglected by the family	18
Not neglected by the family	3
Might be neglected by the family	4
Total	25

Table-4: Status on Neglecting by the Family Members

4.13 Social Isolation and Feeling of Loneliness

Social isolation and feeling of loneliness were reported by several studies. Studies also reported that physical impairments such as physical frailty, lack of independence, or ill-health reduced their ability to sustain relationships and hence contributed to their social isolation (Centre for Ageing Better, 2015; Nicholson C, et al. 2012).

It can be analyzed that in many cases elderly people are not able to enjoy their social relationships because of their lack physical strength and dependence on others. They feel neglected and isolated. If they are separated from their families and having disturbed relationships with the family members they are susceptible to get anxiety and depression.

4.14 Family Interaction

Healthy social Interaction are of utmost importance in preventing the mental health illnesses. In the study, 13 of the

respondents reflected that COVID-19 has brought them closer to their family. Five of the respondents felt that it has brought family away from each other while 7 of the respondents thought that it had no effect. In a study conducted by Tilburg T. G. et al., (2020) analyzed that older adults experiencing isolation, having more close or meaningful relationships may be protective, rather than just having more interactions with others. Maintaining these connections during the pandemic may require better ability to use technology to connect with loved ones.

4.15 Yoga, Meditation and Nutrition

The activities that make elderly people mentally happy are talking to family, yoga and meditation, eating nutritious meal, taking care of their body, doing exercises etc.

4.16 Knowledge and Usage of Technology

Most of the elderly people are not much technology friendly but they can operate mobile phones and can access social networking site like WhatsApp.

The COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated many issues for older people and their carers, while throwing up new difficulties, particularly an increase in mental health difficulties (Galwa et al., 2020). From the above discussion it can be analyzed that elderly people with one or more physical and mental health problems faced other challenges also related to their social, emotional, financial, psychological well-being. Despite these challenges they need to be valued for their residual abilities. Elderly people expressed their willingness to cope with their illnesses and enjoy their independence. They can enjoy their self-esteem only when they get family support, professional support and support to overcome the barriers associated in accessing the health care facilities. Elderly people develop a feeling of insecurity, it is the responsibility of the family and society to help elderly people to overcome their fear and insecurities. Mental health and well-being is important for the people of all age group but it becomes a major concern for elderly.

5. Implications and Conclusion

Mental health issues is a topic of major concern among elderly people but is often neglected. Elderly people are not only suffering 36 Sunita Bahmani

physically but also mentally. They are suffering from the various challenges confronted because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Efforts to protect mental health are as equally important as effort to physically prevent and treat COVID-19, especially among the elderly. Mental health has been a major concern but it has not been treated properly like physical health. Mental health is often ignored and it is the major root cause of other health problems. It has been proved that stress and depression can lead to other diseases that are fatal and thus it should be properly cared. COVID-19 has increased the number of cases in which mental health has been deteriorating specially in elderly people. They are alone they have fear that they might get caught and suffer from the disease or they might die or they suffer from loneliness., for some this pandemic has brought them close to their family but for others it has made them go away from each other. There is stress among people, depression and other anxiety disorders. Technology has supported some people to cope up in this pandemic and help them to be mentally stable and talk to their family or friends via video chats to calm themselves. But there were many cases where these members have been neglected by their family members and sent to old age homes that made them feel alone. Mental health issue is a great problem but for people above 60 it is a need of the hour to be addressed immediately.

Social workers play a key role in caring the elderly people. The social workers placed in hospital set ups, community, residential and palliative care should be sensitive enough to the mental health needs of the elderly. In caring the mental health of the elderly, the family focused approach is also needed. Social work interventions with the whole system including family, community, psychiatric carers is also essential. Setting up an integrated, person-centered approach is the need of the hour in the mental health and well-being of the elderly people. The study strongly conveyed the need to carry out more research work on the similar topic. Study suggests the need to create awareness among the elderly people on mental health problems and concerns. They need to be educated on the importance of proper diagnosis of mental illnesses and their treatment. Comprehensive mental health care and supportive environments needs to be created by the mental health care professionals including social workers, families, and communities. Elderly should also be encouraged to get themselves socially engaged.

References

- Centre for Ageing Better, *Later Life in 2015 An analysis of the views and experiences of people aged 50 and over*, London. (2015). http://laterlife.ageing-better.org.uk/resources/cfab_lli_2015_methodology.pdf.Retrieved on 12-03-2022.
- Djukanovic, I., Sorjonen, K., and Petersona, U., "Association between depressive symptoms and age, sex, loneliness and treatment among older people in Sweden", *Aging and Mental Health*, 19, 2015, 560-568. doi: 10.1080/13607863.2014.962001.
- Fernandes, L. Gonalves, M., Pereira, Leuschner, A. et al., "Validation study of the Camberwell Assessment of Need for the Elderly (CANE) in Portugal", *International Psychogeriatrics*, 21(1), 2009, 94-102.
- Galwa, S., Raina, M. and Lurie, N., "The Mental Health Consequences of COVID-19 and Physical Distancing: The Need for Prevention and Early Intervention", *JAMA Internal Medicine*, April 10, 2020. Chicago, IL: American Medical Association.
- Gerino, E., Rolle, L., Sechi, C., Brustia, P. et al., "Loneliness, Resilience, Mental Health, and Quality of Life in Old Age: A Structural Equation Model", *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14 November 2017 https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02003. frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02003/full.
- King's Fund, *Social care for older people: home truths*. London., 2016. https://www.kingsfund.org.uk/sites/default/files/field_publication_file/Social_care_older_people_Kings_Fund_Sep_2016.pdf. Retrieved on 12-03-2022.
- Liu, L. J., and Guo, Q., "Loneliness and health-related quality of life for the empty nest elderly in the rural area of a mountainous county in China", *Quality Life Research*, 16, 2007, 1275-1280. doi: 10.1007/s11136-007-9250-0.
- Marengoni A., Angleman S., Melis R., Mangialasche F., Karp A., Garmen A., et al., "Aging with multimorbidity: a systematic review of the literature", *Ageing Research Reviews*, 2011;10:430-9.
- National Institute on Aging (NIA), 2012-2013 Alzheimer's disease progress report: seeking the earliest interventions, Bethesda (MD): NIA. http://www.nia.nih.gov/alzheimers/publication/2012-2013-alzheimers-disease-progress-report. Retrieved on 12-03-2022.
- Nicholson C, et al., "Living on the margin: understanding the experience of living and dying with frailty in old age", *Social Science and Medicine*, 75(8), 2012, 1426-32.
- Sachs-Ericsson, N., Kendall-Tacket, K. A., Sheffler, J., Arce, D., Rushing, N. C., and Cosentino, E., "The influence of prior rape on the psychological and physical health functioning of older adults", *Aging and Mental Health*, 18, 2014, 717-730. doi: 10.1080/13607863.2014.884538.

38 Sunita Bahmani

Quinn K. M., Laidlaw, K., Murray, L. K., "Older peoples' attitudes to mental illness", *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherap*, 16(1), Jan-Feb 2009; :33-45. doi: 10.1002/cpp.598. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm. nih.gov/19170041/.

- Tilburg T. G., Steinmetz S., Stolte E., van der Roest H., de Vries D. H., "Loneliness and mental health during the COVID-19 pandemic", *The Journals of Gerontology*, Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences, 2020. doi:10.1093/geronb/gbaa111.
- WHO, Mental Health Action Plan 2013-2020, Geneva: WHO Press, 2013. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/mental-health-of-older-adults retrieved on 08-03-2022.

Women Empowerment through Micro Business : A Study of Beauty Salon in Kathmandu

Arjun K. C.*

Women empowerment refers to women's ability to make strategic life choices which had been previously denied them. Empowerment equips and allows women to be economically independent, self-reliant, have a positive self-esteem to enable them to face any difficult situation and they should be able to participate in development activities and in the process of decision-making. They may have the opportunity to redefine gender roles or other such roles, which in turn may allow them more freedom to pursue desired goals. It also aids the ability to manage risk and improve women's well-being. The main objectives of the research are to explore the income generating activities of women in the micro business of beauty salons and to examine women empowerment through the micro business of beauty salons. This study uses both quantitative and qualitative methods to substantiate its argument. In this study survey and case studies are used as the tools and techniques. This research reveals that the empowerment brought by the micro business of beauty salon based in Kathmandu. Therefore, the increase of women's

^{*} Research Scholar, Department of Sociology, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu (Nepal) E-mail<arjunkc946@gmail.com>

involvement in the economic development of the family and society is also a crucial issue which needs to be addressed properly.

[**Keywords**: Women empowerment, Micro-business, Beauty salon, Decision Making]

1. Introduction

Ramani and Nandita (2014) views that women empowerment is the capacity to participate as equal partners in cultural, social, economic and political systems of a society. This view is in line with the thinking of those who felt that empowerment of women may be taken to mean strengthening women's position in the socio-political power structure of the society. Empowerment in this sense cannot be achieved without strengthening women's position in the existing economic system, which means creating both more social opportunities and capacities for women so that they can participate in effective and significant manner in the functioning of the economic system of the society.

Kahlen (2013) opines that empowerment is concerned with power, particularly power relations, distribution of power between individuals and groups. Kabeer (2005) perceives empowerment as the expansion of the ability of people to make strategic life choices in a situation where such ability was denied to them. Shakya (2006), expresses a similar view, the author sees empowerment as a means to let women live their own life in a way they think appropriate because of their conditions, family circumstances, qualities and capabilities of which they themselves are the best judges. Demand for empowerment is not a demand for equality or superiority; it is the demand to let them realize their own true sell, which should not be denied to them on any basis whatsoever, anywhere, anytime and anywhere.

Achala (2015) holds the view that the ability to direct and control one's own life is empowerment. It is a process of enhancing human capabilities to expand choices and opportunities so that each person can lead a life of respect and value. Empowerment is a process of awareness and capacity building, leading to greater participation, greater decision-making power and control over transformative action. Briefly, empowerment refers to giving power to individuals in all spheres of life, which are essential for the survival, and overall development of humankind. Empowerment of women means equipping women to be economically independent, self-reliant, have

a positive self-esteem to enable them to face any difficult situation and they should be able to participate in development activities and in the process of decision-making. More employment opportunities in rural areas, availability of more local products and services are the result of local micro enterprises. Since the word 'Micro' represents 'small', the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise. Small manufacturing and service enterprises such as brick kiln industry, stone crushing industry, bakery, steel fabrication, cane and bamboo, washing soaps, food products, beauty parlors, tailoring and embroidery, jewelry designing, supari processing are some of the examples of micro enterprises.

The beauty salon industry is one of the basic businesses that the women entrepreneur follows these days. Nowadays people are beauty conscious, so there is an increasing craze of the business. The increasing craze of this business is increasing participation of women in this sector. Female entrepreneurs identified certain commonalities among entrepreneurs all over the world, such as age, education, marital status, and their interest in pursuing business in the service industry (Crozier and Kafle, 2010). Samden (2016) has highlighted the issues relating to empowering women through the development of micro enterprises via SHGs, in an article entitled empowering women through micro enterprises development. The author has suggested that women SHGs should be financially integrated with mainstream rural credit to become self-sustainable. As a result, they continue to function even after the end of the programmers.

In identifying the differences between male and female entrepreneurs, studies of female entrepreneurs identified certain commonalities among entrepreneurs all over the world, such as age, education, marital status, and their interest in pursuing business in the service industry. The service industry consists of retail, catering, beauty salons/clinics, and similar businesses with low levels of investment; hence, assuming that female entrepreneurs engage in risk-free businesses (Sarker and Hideki, 2007). Pragathy (2017) in her doctoral study, attempts to assess the empowerment of women through micro-enterprises in the Ranga Reddy District of AP. The study reveals that there is a slight improvement in the involvement of women in household decision-making in male-headed families with regard to credit, disposal of household assets, education of children and healthcare.

Chitra (2018) has conducted a study on 202 leaders of Self-Help Group members of Madhurai District in Tamil Nadu with a view to understand the impact of micro-enterprises on quality of life of the women which was measured in terms of their living standards. The author observed that most of the women in micro-enterprises wanted to reduce poverty and share their family responsibilities. The survey demonstrated that the quality of life of the rural women had substantially increased which is the objective of the establishment of the micro-enterprises.

Sahab et. al. (2021) in their article have emphasized the role of micro-entrepreneurship in empowerment of rural women. The authors have stated that the women as members of SHGs are involved in micro-entrepreneurship and are becoming economically independent which in turn has led to development of family, community, society, state and nation. The authors have stressed the need to give keen attention over empowerment of women in the rural area for the real development of our country in all spheres. Microenterprise development forms an essential element for promoting the well-being of the poor by providing significant income and employment generating opportunities.

In this study, it is tried to assess the activities of beauty salon business and economic empowerment of women. Therefore, this study is mainly concerned with analyze; roles of micro businesses of beauty salons for economic and social empowerment of women due to their control in economic activities. Nevertheless, this research tries to reveal the empowerment brought by the micro business of beauty salons based in Kathmandu. There are a lot of studies based on women's empowerment through other forms of micro business, level of education and jobs. However, the roles of beauty salon business have not been more studied. So this study observes women's involvement in the micro business of beauty salons and their level of empowerment. Development of women enterprises is a global issue. It is important for economic growth and it is a growing phenomenon all over the globe. Rural women's involvement in the economic development of the family and society is also a crucial issue that needs to be addressed properly in view of the fact that the contribution is significant especially in poverty alleviation. Since women have been traditionally involved in micro enterprises, it is logical to focus micro enterprise development to ensure sustainability.

2. Statement of the Problem

In most societies, the role of the women is limited within the domestic space, which is one of the major causes of their backwardness. However, the increasing numbers of income generating activities in rural and urban communities on one hand has made women's participation in economic activities. On the other hand, small businesses like street venders and beauty Salon businesses have increased Nepalese women's participation in income generation. These economical activities have been empowering Nepalese women by making them economically independent. It also has created decision making roles of women in family and society. Keeping these issues into the consideration, this research raises the following research questions regarding Beauty Salon Business and Women empowerment:

- 1. What is the role of the micro business of beauty salons in the economic activities of women?
- 2. How are women empowered through the micro business of beauty salons?

3. Objectives

The Specific Objectives are:

- 1. To find the income generating activities of women through the micro business of beauty salons.
- 2. To examine women empowerment through the micro business of beauty salons.

4. Significance of the Study

Empowering women has been an indispensable strategy for advancing development and reducing poverty. Monitoring progress towards gender equality and women's empowerment has been therefore of great importance. Women must have provided opportunities to have control over production resources that would lead to better life for their families and their children. Thus, this research will help the economist and subject related person to know about economic activities of women based on the micro business of beauty salons. It would be helpful to observe the role of women in decision-making and their participation in small business and their changing economic, social and family status. The research would be

helpful for the researchers, students and stakeholders who aim to study and make plans and policies regarding women's empowerment through micro business.

5. Limitations of the Study

This research has certain limitations since it is prepared during a certain time and places. It only deals with the beauty salon business and the participation of women in economic activities within it. This study is related to women who have been handling beauty salon business in Kathmandu ward no. 16 who have come from different parts of Nepal. Since, this study is only based on the beauty salon business in Kathmandu ward no. 16. So, it may not cover the whole beauty salon business of Nepal.

6. Methodology

6.1 Research Design

Since, the research focused on the role of beauty salon micro business in women's empowerment, this study is based on exploratory and descriptive research designs.

6.2 Universe and Sampling

This research has included 28 women of different ethnicity, caste and religion involved in beauty salon business in the area of Kathmandu ward no. 16. In this research total 28 samples were selected through the census method. All of the respondents were affiliated with beauty salon business for their income generating activities.

6.3 Nature and Sources of Data

Primary data were collected by developed questionnaires were used within the respondents. Secondary data or information were collected from different relevant books, journals, reports, institutional publication and website. Secondary data were collected from websites and internet, reports, relevant books, journal, magazine, and other related research literature.

6.4 Tools and Techniques of Data Collection

The primary data were collected from field survey; interview and case studies. Household surveys were done during the field visit to the salon for the research. To obtain the primary data face to face interviews (unstructured and structured) were adopted, where the researcher directly talked to the respondents to know the facts of the women. It involves interaction between interviewer and respondents. It has included different types of questions; general information, information about income, borrowing, expenditure, business activities, occupational change and empowerment.

6.5 Data Analysis and Presentation

Collected information is processed and analyzed scientifically with the help of computer software like excel as well as manually. Different tables were prepared for different socio-economic variables. Mathematical calculation and statistical operations and tests are performed for quantitative information. Qualitative information is presented in a descriptive way.

7. Results and Discussions

Many beauty care service providers have sprung up all over the country in the last decade as the significance of being and looking beautiful has increased among women. The present research study was conducted to bridge the gap by suggesting a sustainable model for the salon industry with the objectives to identify the factors that motivated women entrepreneurs to start their salons, to know the reasons for selecting a particular location for opening a salon, to identify the inter-relationship between elements of the business model and sustainability of salons, and to present a sustainable business model.

Data were collected from 28 women entrepreneurs in Kathmandu by using census method. Frequency and percentage analysis were carried out to study the socio-demographic features of the respondents, and factor analysis was used to identify the factors affecting the motivation levels of the respondents. It present the primary findings from the fieldwork by dividing the analysis into three main sections: family structures; workplace relations; education and training of the women respondents involved in salon business. In which the two sub-questions are addressed. It renders possible understanding of women's motivation to enter the path of self-employment. The questionnaire distributed in research area offers an opportunity to explore and explain women's perspective supporting women empowerment.

7·1 The Background of Respondents

The background of respondents are as following:

Table-1: Background of Respondents

Background of Respondents	No. of Respondents	Percentages		
Age				
16-25	5	16.67		
26-35	12	40.00		
36-45	7	23.33		
46-55	4	13.33		
56-65	2	6.67		
Total	30	100		
Education				
Illiterate	3	10.71		
Literate	7	25.00		
Primary Level	9	32.15		
Secondary Level	6	21.43		
Higher Education	3	10.71		
Total	28	100.00		
Caste/Ethnic Group				
Newar	9	32.14		
Chhetri	7	25.00		
Magar	4	14.29		
Brahmin	5	17.86		
Gurung	3	10.71		
Total	28	100.00		
Religion				
Hindu	15	53.57		
Buddhist	8	28.57		
Islam	2	7.15		
Kirat	3	10.71		
Total	28	100.00		
Marital Status				
Unmarried	2	7.15		
Married	24	85.70		
Widowed	2	7.15		
Total	28	100		

Source: Field Survey, 2021

This data shows that the majority of the women involved in Salon Business belong to the age group 26-35. The age group followed it was 36-45. Likewise, 16.67% of the total sampling population were from the age group 16-25. Only 6.67% of the respondents were from the age group 56-65 and 13.33% of the respondents are from the age group 46-55. It marks that the majority of the women were from the active population group involved in the income generating activities related to Salon Business.

The above presented data shows that the majority of the women involved in Salon Business have primary level education, numbers of these women was 32.15%. Likewise, the group of literate women followed it. Similarly, 16.67% of the total sampling population were illiterate and a similar number of respondents had higher-level education. 21.43% of the respondents had secondary level education. Only 10.71% of the respondents had higher-level education. It marks that both the educated and uneducated have been practicing their economic activities by affiliating in Salon Business. Likewise, women's illiteracy was 10.71% and seems to be decreasing day by day.

The respondents were from various castes and ethnic groups. Following table depicts the ethnic components of the respondents. The above presented data shows that the majority of the women involved in Salon Business were from the Newar community. Likewise, the group of Chhetri women follows it. Similarly, there were 17.86% of total sampling populations from Brahmin communities and 14.29% women were from Magar community. Likewise, only 10.71% of the respondents were Gurung. Anyway, the data clarifies that women from different communities have been involved in Salon Business.

The above presented data shows that the majority of the Hindu women were involved in Salon Business. Likewise, the group of Buddhist women followed it. Similarly, there were 10.71% of total sampling populations were from Kirat religion and 7.15% women were from Islam religion.

From the above table, we come to see that 7.15% of the women respondents were unmarried whereas 85.70% of them were married. While 7.15% of the women respondents were widowed.

7.2 Salon Business and Women Empowerment

Salon Business has been helping for the proper income generation for the Nepalese women who have been affiliated with

this sector. Following information clarifies the contribution of Salon Business for women empowerment.

7.2.1 Duration of Participation in Salon Business

Participation in Salon Business as well as the duration of involvement in income generating activities is another factor to mark women's empowerment. This research tries to bring the reality of women's affiliation in Salon Business. Following table shows their duration of involvement in the Salon Business.

S. No.	Entered Time	No. of Respondent	Percentages
1.	1 Years	7	25.00
2.	2 Years	6	21.43
3.	3 Years	6	21.43
4.	4 Years	4	14.29
5.	5 Years	2	7.14
6.	6 Years and above	3	10.71
	Total	28	100.00

Table -2: Duration of Participation in Business

Field Survey, 2021

The above presented data shows that the majority of the women were involved in the Salon Business only in last year's. Likewise, the other 21.43% and 21.43% were involved in the last two and three years respectively. 14.29% of the respondents worked for four years whereas 7.14% of them worked for five years. There were only 10.71% of respondents who were involved for six and above years. However, the trend of involvement has been growing each year, which assumes that in the near future there will be participation of women in Salon Business in large numbers. It also marks the growing popularity of Salon Business among women.

7-2-2 Contribution of Salon Business

Behind the participation in Salon Business might have different purposes for women Purpose to mark the role of the Salon Business for women empowerment. This research tries to reveal the contribution of salon business by the women from the research area.

S. No. Contribution No. of Respondent Percentages For Income 1. 15 53.57 2. For Saving 7 25.00 3. 6 Both of them 21.43 **Total** 28 100.00

Table-3: Contribution of Salon Business

Field Survey, 2021

The above presented data shows that the majority of the women were involved in the Salon Business for regular income. Likewise, another 25.00% for saving money. Likewise, 21.43% were involved for both regular income and saving. These data indicate that there are more contributions of salon business among the respondents.

7.2.3 Utilization of Income

It is revealed that through the Salon Business, most of the respondents have good income. However, it is necessary to know where the respondents have been spending their income. The result is presented in the following table.

Table-4: Utilization of the Income

S. No.	Entered Time	No. of Respondent	Percentages
1.	Personal use	4	14.29
2.	For daily family expenses	12	42.85
3.	For Buying Land	2	7.14
4.	For buying daily using Utensils	4	14.29
5.	For Building Home	2	7.14
6.	Loan settlement	4	14.29
7	Γotal	28	100.00

Field Survey, 2021

The majority of the women respondents spent their income for settlement of their daily family expenses. Only 7.14 percent of respondents used their income for building the house. Likewise, other 14.29% respondents used income for buying daily utensils. Some of them even used money for buying lands and other

household infrastructure construction i.e. 7.14%. 14.29% of the respondents carry out loan settlement from their income. Likewise, very few respondents, only 14.29% used money for personal use.

7-2-4 Satisfaction with Salon Business

It is necessary to know if the respondents are satisfied with their business activities or not. Given table depicts the level of satisfaction of respondents with Salon Business.

S. No. No. of Respondent Response Percentages 1. **Fully Satisfied** 16 57.14 2. Partially 10 35.71 2 3. Not Satisfied 7.15 28 100.00 **Total**

Table-5: Level of Respondents' Satisfaction with Salon Business

Field Survey, 2021

The above presented data shows that the majority of the women respondents responded that they were satisfied with their business. The Number of such women who were satisfied with Salon business was 57.14% of total respondents. Likewise, 35.71% told that they were partially satisfied and only 7.15% of respondents were unsatisfied with the Salon Business.

7·2·5 Decision Making Role

Decision making is an important factor in family & society. Women participation is a gate of development. The following table shows the decision making role in a household.

S. No.	Decision making in the Household	No. of Respondent	Percentages
1.	Women (active)	18	64.29
2.	Women (inactive)	10	35.71
	Total	28	100.00

Table-6: Decision making role in Household

Field Survey, 2021

In the study area, it was found that actively participating in decision making of women was 64.29 percent. While 35.71 percent

were inactive in decision making. This reveals that in the study area women are active in the role of decision making.

7.3 Selected Case Studies

To find out the maximum possible aspect, two case studies have been selected. Both case studies have been selected on the basis of research objectives as well as their social background, educational attainment and change, change in economic life patterns, social life patterns and empowerment through beauty salon.

7·3·1 Case Study - 1

Smriti Bohora is a middle aged woman living in Vanasthali with her husband two children and in-laws. She has to take all the responsibilities of household chores and also manages her duties at school. Being a patriarchal family, her husband never helped her in household chores nor did her in-laws let male members of family to involve in household chores.

From 2010, she started the beauty salon business on a small scale though her family didn't support her. Slowly she expanded her business through investment done by her own father. Besides family dispute but she never gave up her beauty salon business. And after so many struggles and hurdles, finally she had earned some profit from business after three years and was able to support her family economically due to which family dispute problem was also solved. Moreover, her husband's family helps her in business by investing more money in beauty parlors and then the beauty salon business grows more and more. Now, she is a reputed beautician in that locality and she is socially renowned in that local community.

This case study shows how women empowerment has changed the life of Smriti Bohora from dependent women to independent, socially renowned, economically capable women.

7·3·2 Case Study - 2

Sunita Shrestha from Gorkha was a woman who started Beauty Salon Business 8 years ago. Before starting business she has remained confined with her home not getting along with others. Her economic condition was too poor, because her husband's income from the driver occupation was very less. She has a strong desire to make her daughter to be well educated but her family financial condition was too poor. She was not able to let her daughter into private school

because of financial conditions. Her husband had a friend who was also a driver but was able to teach their son in private school because both husband and wife used to work. Sunita Shrestha was motivated by her husband and she joined the beautician training. After completion of training she worked as a junior beautician in a local beauty parlor with minimum salary. By the dual salary from husband and wife they were able to admit their daughter to a private school. After working for more years as a beautician she gained experience in the beautician field and now she has own beauty salon with an employee. Now after her daughter is studying in class ten and dreams to become a doctor.

This case study reveals that how women empowerment has changed the life of Sunita Shrestha and her family.

8. Conclusion

Micro business play a vital role in women empowerment. It is a key force in improving the holistic conditions of women. The salon business serves as an opportunity space where mutual solidarity and support, close client relations, secure working conditions, informal savings groups help nourish and facilitate entrepreneurial activities. With close proximity to other women who share similar opportunities and challenges, the market offers a supportive base where the entrepreneurs can capitalize on their economic ambitions and express their desire for independence, which may not have been possible in a setting dominated by male entrepreneurs. Besides workplace relations, the importance of education and business training is particularly striking, as many women seem to be strongly motivated by educational opportunities for either themselves or their family members. Lastly, education and training account for one of the most important reasons why women work hard to ensure their children's school enrollment. The normative environment has been argued to influence this factor as it places a large responsibility on women in relation to caretaking of family members.

This study shows that having multiple roles as wives, mothers and entrepreneurs, the women interviewed in the salon sector express several challenges related to their entrepreneurial endeavors. Characterized by its patriarchal structures along with imbalanced gender roles and relations, the normative institutional environment is argued to influence women's motivation to run their

own enterprise. In this study, it was found that some women were motivated by the large responsibility for family dependents; others seem to perceive self-employment as a means to achieve increased empowerment and independence as well education for the family. Operating in a female dominated marketplace with close proximity to other women entrepreneurs enables the traders to exchange information and share business experiences from which they can all benefit. One of the main benefits expressed in this regard, is the opportunity for women to create savings groups where they can obtain loans for their enterprise activities.

It concludes that the majority of the women have been involved in the salon business only in the last year. The trend of involvement has been growing each year, which assumes that in the near future there will be participation of women in Salon Business in large numbers. These factors along with the flexible and secure surroundings of operating in a marketplace location are argued to be significant factors motivating the women in Salon business. Moving beyond regulative barriers and political initiatives related to the advancement of women entrepreneurs and their role in society, this study looks at the underlying societal structures and interplays that arguably motivate women to pursue self-employment. In doing so, this article helps in further research to investigate how the micro business helps in the women empowerment.

References

- Achala, K., *Microfinance Handbook an Institutional and Financial Perspective*, Washington: World Bank, 2009.
- Acharya, M., "Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women", *Journal of Economic and Political*, 40(44/45), 2007, 4719-4728.
- Chitra, H., "Gender Trouble: Feminism and the Subversion of Identity", *International Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(12), 2005, 136-159.
- Crozier, P. and Kafle, S., *Security and Justice from a District Perspective Cooperative Strengthening Programme in Nepal*, Supported by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (UNFAO). 2010.
- Kabeer, J., "The Impact of Dairy Cooperative on Women Empowerment", *A Research Journal of South Asian Studies*, 3(1), 2005, 107-125.
- Kahlen, J. H., *Women Empowerment and Financial Perspective*, Washington : World Bank, 2004.
- Pragathy, K., *Role of Co-operatives in Rural women empowerment*, Central Department of Rural Development Tribhuvan University Nepal. 2004.

Ramani, K. and Nandita, S., "Women's Control Over Savings and Loans Center For Micro Finance (CMF)", *International Studies and Cooperation* (CECI), 2005

- Sahab, J., et al., "The Impact of Cooperative on Women Empowerment", *International Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(1), 2013, 64-77.
- Sarker, M. and Hideki, T., "The Impact of Dairy Cooperative on Women Empowerment", *Empowerment of Women in Agriculture*, 9(12), 2007, 62-83.
- Shakya, K., "Microfinance and Woman Empowerment", *Journal of International Business*, 9(4), 2006, 52-81.
- Samden, S., "Gender Trouble: Feminism and the Subversion of Identity", *Journal of Feminist Theories*, 1, 2003, 48-78. ★

Article Received on May 08, 2022; Accepted on June 01, 2022

Quality demands Priority amid Challenges

S. K. Ghai*

Human-race has travelled a long distance, from lack of language to the evolution of different languages, only because of strong will-power, which has always played a decisive role in overcoming startling impediments in the path of human development and progress. As a result, its progress graph has extended from the earth to the galaxy. The urge to learn something new, to do something different (and moreover, differently); when it reaches the extent of passion, only inventions are made and then new doors are open. It is a universal truth that the treasure of knowledge is unlimited which is available to everyone. The more we drown in this ocean of knowledge, the more we recover. The galaxy can be restricted to boundaries, but knowledge is beyond any limits. It was this aim that enlightened human civilization the immense power of knowledge. Due to this eternal will of learning, new efforts and experiments have been carried out in the field of education from time to time, which have made radical changes in the infrastructure of education itself. The education theory of ancient India firmly believes that the mind-training and the thinking-process are necessary for the attainment of knowledge. The student mainly had to educate oneself and attain his/her mental advancement. India's higher education system is ranked as the third largest

^{*} Assistant Professor, Department of Commerce, N. A. S. (PG) College, Meerut-250001 (India) E-mail<dr.shyamghai@gmail.com>

56 S. K. Ghai

education system in the world, which is next to the United States and China. The main governing body at the tertiary level is the U.G.C. (i.e. University Grants Commission) that not only helps in and ensures proper coordination between the Center and the State but also advises the government on key issues along with enforcement of its standards. Moreover, accreditation for higher education is overseen by fifteen sovereign institutions set up by the University Grants Commission (U.G.C.). India is the world's second largest online market, behind only China, with over 560 million internet users. As per an estimate, there will be more than 650 million internet users in the country by the year 2023. To one's utmost surprise, despite the substantial base of internet users, the internet penetration rate stood at around fifty per cent in 2k20 in India. On the job creation front, the story is just the reverse though India's economy is growing more than twice as fast as the rest of the world. Youth inactivity reflects, according to the OECD, the share of young people (ages 15-29 years) not in training, education or employment as a percentage (i.e. over 30%) of the total number of youth in the concerned age-group which means that India lags most other countries in creating quality jobs. Gurukul System, Traditional University System, Distance Learning System and now, the On-line Learning System of education. Every problem/question has its solution/answer but all depends on our perception. Whenever challenges (in the form of unexpected changes) are accepted, human development has written new history. Latest technical developments have finished it conceivable to be a two-way communication (vide 'live' classes/inter-action sessions) and that too without time-limitations like traditional classes. Involvement as well as interaction also becomes possible when technique helps in two-way communication between the faculty and the students. As a result, something creative comes into existence (even though by way of artificial intelligence) instead of any negative results, which should be appreciated instead of criticizing. Finally, it can be concluded that there should be no compromise with quality standards otherwise it will push generations towards a bleak future.

[Keywords: Ancient India, *Gurukul*, U.G.C., Distance learning, Internet penetration rate, Digital India, NEET, COVID-19]

1. Introduction

Human history has witnessed the way human passion and spirit have conquered the unforeseen obstacles and paved the way for the overall progress and development of human-beings during hard times. Though creative thinking gets obstructed temporarily, but almost every challenge (that challenges human existence) has been fought by humans and successfully subjugated by them. In the series of human development, their journey from four legs to two, from feet to wheels and from wheels to wings has created unique records and has changed the pace and face of the human civilization.

It has travelled a long distance, from lack of language to the evolution of different languages, only because of strong will-power, which has always played a decisive role in overcoming startling impediments in the path of human development and progress. As a result, the progress graph of human-race has extended from the earth to the galaxy.

The urge to learn something new, to do something different (and moreover, differently); when it reaches the extent of passion, only inventions are made and then new doors are open. It is a universal truth that the treasure of knowledge is unlimited which is available to everyone. The more we drown in this ocean of knowledge, the more we recover. The galaxy can be restricted to boundaries, but knowledge is beyond any limits.

It was this aim that enlightened human civilization the immense power of knowledge. Due to this desire of learning, new efforts and experiments have been carried out in the field of education since time immemorial, which have made radical changes in the infrastructure of education itself.

2. Education System in Ancient India

The great Indian poet R. N. Tagore (Gurudev) have once narrated beautifully, the age-old relation between nature and human beings, that *Bharat* had since its origin:

"..... A most wonderful thing was noticed in India is that here the forest, not the town, is the fountain head of all its civilization...."

He continued and said that wherever the earliest and most amazing manifestations of this are seen in India, we find that the males have not come in close contact that they are rolled or fused into a compact mass. There were plants, rivers and lakes, ample opportunities to live in close relationship with humans. In these forests, although there was human society, there was ample open space, of isolation; There was no scuffle, yet it made it brighter.

It is the forest that civilized and trained the two strong archaic ages of *Bharat*, the *Buddhist* and the *Vedic*. Following the foot-path of *Vedic Rishis*, *Buddha* also preached and educated in the nature's lap in India. The stream of civilization flowing through its forests submerged the whole of India.

58 S. K. Ghai

In other words, the main motive of education system in ancient India was to 'Make a Man' and not merely restricted to his survival. The *Shastra* and *Sutra* have described in detail the duties of a teacher and pupil, both. It is these refined skills which finally become the architect of society, by shaping its directions, dimensions and conditions.

The making of man was regarded as a creative and accurate resolution of education. It was discovered as a means to the highest end of life, as a means of self-realization, viz. *Mukti* or Freedom. Education System imparts the same scheme of life and values in ancient India and should also be understood as the result of the Indian theory of knowledge, which takes full account of the eternal truth that life is incomplete without death and includes it and is the form of eternal truth.

It gives a specific angle of perception, mindset and a sense of apportionment in which the material and significance, material and metaphysical, destructive and enduring interests and values of life are precisely defined and stringently comprehended. Education must support in this self-attainment, and should not back in the attainment of simple objective knowledge.

The education theory of ancient India firmly believes that the mind-training and the thinking-process are necessary for the attainment of knowledge. The student mainly had to educate oneself and attain his/her mental advancement.

Thus, system of education in ancient India had three ordinary processes:

- **1.** *Shravan* (Hearing the truth, that fell from the teacher's lips): This wisdom was technically called *Shruti* (i.e. not what was visible or seen in writing but what was heard with one's ears). The reason is that pronunciation is of prime importance. If words have different pronunciations, the exact meaning of the phrase or word will also be different.
- **2.** *Manan*: *Manan* means that the student needs to self-explain the meaning of the lessons given by the teacher so that they can be fully absorbed. In other words, *Manan* means reflecting on what has been heard, that is, listening. This is to remove any type of doubt regarding the knowledge gained through hearing *aka Shravan*.
- **3.** *Nidhyasan* : *Nidhyasan* means a complete understanding of the truth that is taught so that the pupil can live the truth and not

explain it by mere words. Knowledge must result in realization; to pay attention to the essence of what has been understood so far intellectually until there is complete faith.

Thus, journey of enlightenment (or say, rich tradition of learning and education) that starts from home in the lap of mother and continues under the shade of trees in the *Gurukuls*, till the talents emanate after the day-night dedicated hard work for years together. Being aware of the nuances of knowledge, as an ideal personality, one gets ready for the salvation of society and country.

3. Higher Education System in Independent India

India's higher education system is ranked as the third largest education system in the world, which is next to the United States and China. The main governing body at the tertiary level is the U.G.C. (i.e. University Grants Commission) that not only helps in and ensures proper coordination between the Center and the State but also advises the government on key issues along with enforcement of its standards. Moreover, accreditation for higher education is overseen by fifteen sovereign institutions set up by the University Grants Commission (U.G.C.).

The emphasis is on science and technology at the tertiary level of education. Till 2004, Indian educational institutions included several institutes of technology. Distance education and Open education are also one of the features of the IHES (i.e. Indian higher education system), and are looked after by the Distance Education Council. Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) is the world's largest university by number of students, with approximately 3.5 million students worldwide.

According to the latest 2011 census, about 8.15% (6.8 million) Indians are graduates, the union territories of Delhi and Chandigarh top the list, with 22.56% of their population and 24.65% graduates. The IHES has expanded at a rapid pace, adding about 20,000 colleges and more than 8 million students in a decade alone (i.e. from 2000-01 to 2010-11).

Some Indian institutions, like the IITs (Indian Institutes of Technology), BITS (Birla Institute of Technology and Science) Pilani, IIEST (Indian Institute of Engineering Science and Technology), NIT (National Institutes of Technology), IIS (Indian Institute of Science), IISERs (Indian Institute of Science Education and Research), DU

S. K. Ghai

(University of Delhi), IIMs (Indian Institutes of Management), University of Calcutta (1857), University of Madras (1857), University of Mumbai (1857) and Jawaharlal Nehru University (1969), have been acclaimed world-wide for the quality level of education. The IITs enroll around eight thousand (8000) students annually and their alumni have contributed to the development of both the private sector and public sectors of India.

The students of BITS Pilani have always contributed in nation building and many of them are founders of big companies such as Swiggy, Postman, etc. Unfortunately, universities of India still crawl and are miles behind the world-class universities such as Harvard, Cambridge, and Oxford.

All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE 2018-19) covers all higher education institutions of India registered with the code of AISHE at its portal (www.aishe.gov.in). Following details are self-explanatory:

Particulars	Universities	Colleges	Stand alone Institutions
Listed on AISHE portal	993	39,931	10,725
Responded during Survey	962	38,179	9,190
Not responded during Survey	31	1,752	1,535

Thus, Revolutionary reforms are needed in Indian higher education. Strengthening the doctoral and vocational education pipeline, enforcing high standards of transparency and above all, focusing on commercialization of the sector through strong institutional responsibility which, in turn, will help prioritize efforts and work around the intricacies. The rise in India of Information Technology sector as well as engineering education has taken students on a linear path without giving them a chance to discover and explore their passion. There is a need for concerted and collective efforts to broaden the choice of students through liberal arts education.

4. Internet Access in India

India is the world's second largest online market, behind only China, with over 560 million internet users. As per an estimate, there will be more than 650 million internet users in the country by the year 2023.

To one's utmost surprise, despite the substantial base of internet users, the internet penetration rate stood at around fifty per cent in 2k20 in India. Meaning thereby that approximately half of the total population (i.e. around 1.37 billion Indians) had accessed internet in the year 2020. As compared to penetration rate of internet in the year 2k15, which was around 27%, this is clear evidence of persistent upsurge in the accessibility of internet.

However, internet access and usage in a country varies substantially depending on factors such as gender and socio-economic divide. In 2019, rural India had 290 million internet users compared to 337 million urban internet users. But it is noteworthy that the majority of our country's Internet users were in the age group of 20 to 29 years, and the proportion of these users was slightly higher from rural parts. Concurrently, there were more male internet users than female users in the country.

And this digital gender slit has only widened in rural hinterland than in urban metropolises. Most of India's digital population accesses the Internet through their mobile phones. In 2018, mobile Internet users accounted for 29% of the country's total population, and this was anticipated to raise to more than 35%, or about 500 million users by 2023.

The increasing availability of affordable data plans coupled with various government initiatives under the "Digital India" campaign worked together to make mobile the chief internet entree point in the country. Notably, in 2019, 4G networks were the most extensively used in urban and rural India. As most countries around the world clamber to build an app to trace the spread of the coronavirus, India's solution is growing on an unprecedented scale despite privacy concerns.

Purely Indian Government's initiative, that is, 'Aarogya Setu' app (popularly known as 'Contact-tracing' app) which was especially designed to aware as well as make people safe from getting infected due to coming in touch with each other during day-to-day working, has reached approximately 100 million users of smartphones (out of 450 million smartphone owners) within forty-one days' record time after its official release. This story does not stop here, as of 2019, Android accounted for around ninety one percent of the mobile operating system market in India.

62 S. K. Ghai

India has to its credit the world's maximum data usage per smartphone, with an average of 117.60 GB per year and is expected to get almost double, that is, 216 GB by 2024 with rich video content. Followed by North East Asia, which comes second with 85.2 GB per year though West Asia and Africa region has the lowest at 36 GB per year. The factors responsible for such upward swing in data usage are day-by-day improving device penetration, easily affordable data tariff plans and progress in data-intensive content like videos. Activated by the entry of Reliance Jio in September 2016, India's data usage has blasted, with all other operators also started offering data tariffs at cheaper rates.

Rapid growth in mobile data traffic is recorded as more and more Indians started spending time streaming videos. This is expected to account for seventy five percent of overall mobile traffic by 2024. It is also expected that entire mobile data traffic per year will grow within six years, from 55.2 exabytes (2018) to 192 exabytes (2024) at a CAGR of 23%. On one hand, the country's smartphone user base is expected to reach around 1.1 billion by 2024, on the other, mobile broadband subscriptions are expected to raise from around 610 million (2018) to around 1.25 billion (2024).

360-degree video streaming and amplified virtual reality should be key factors to support mobile data progress and improve user involvement with the roll-out of 5G. Grippingly, the report also claims that Indian smartphone handlers are ready to pay over sixty-six percent premium for future 5G services. 5G coverage is projected to reach forty-five percent of the world's population within next two years, that is, by the end of 2024. Its growth is expected to be the fastest in North America, with sixty-three percent of mobile subscriptions projected in the region to be 5G in 2024 itself. North East Asia ranks second (47%) and Europe third (40%).

5. NEET - A Relatively New Concept

On the job creation front, the story is just the reverse though India's economy is growing more than twice as fast as the rest of the world. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) cut its projection of India's economic growth by 0.2 percentage points to 9.7 per cent for the financial year 2021-22. The economy was projected by the grouping of advanced nations to grow by 7.9 per cent next financial year, 0.3 percentage point slower

than pegged by it earlier. If the projections come out to be correct, India's economy would be the fastest growing large economy in both these years. It would be followed by China at 8.5 per cent in 2021 and Spain at 6.6 per cent in 2022. But the employment rate in India has declined and job creation has not happened with the increasing working age population.

Youth inactivity reflects, according to the OECD, the share of young people (ages 15-29 years) not in training, education or employment as a percentage (i.e. over 30%) of the total number of youth in the concerned age-group which means that India lags most other countries in creating quality jobs.

There are several factors which are responsible for such situation:

- 1. Indian labour laws which are comparatively strict and multifaceted.
- 2. In comparison to other evolving economies and OECD countries, employment protection regulation is preventive.
- 3. In order to avoid strict labour laws, Corporates in India have developed a culture to rely more on provisional contract labour, keep small or substitute labour for capital.
- 4. Last but not the least, corporate income tax has generated a huge bias against labour-intensive activities.

Sigh of relief is that the present Indian government is making all sort of efforts to make labour rules and regulations more and more friendly by removing irrelevant administrative requirements' compliance and has taken several steps to increase transparency not only in day-to-day working but in interaction between administrations and organizations/firms. This in turn will help in improving the decades old situation, on one hand and will encourage job creation efforts, on the other. Moreover, states have to realize their respective roles, come forward and take initiatives to streamline labour laws.

6. Internet Speed: World-wide

As of September 2021, the global average download speed on fixed broadband was 113.25 Mbps on fixed broadband and 63.15 Mbps on mobile, (Source: Internet speed specialists Ookla). These are both noteworthy progresses over the scores of 85.73 Mbps

64 S. K. Ghai

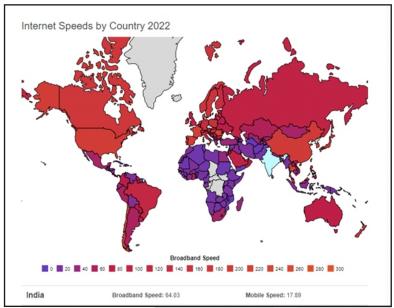
broadband and 35.96 Mbps mobile just one year earlier in September 2020. As technology becomes more innovative and networks are upgraded, these numbers are expected to continue to grow. For 2021, Monaco ranked top position and bagged the broadband speed title with download speeds of 226.60 Mbps, followed by last year's leader, Singapore, and Hong Kong. However, once the focus switches to mobile connectivity the list switches, with United Arab Emirates taking the top spot with 238.06 Mbps, followed by South Korea with 202.61 Mbps and Norway at 177.72 Mbps.

Top ten countries with the fastest mobile internet speeds (Mbps) in 2021 were as follows:

- 1. United Arab Emirates 238.06
- 2. South Korea 202.61
- 3. Norway 177.72
- 4. Qatar 172.18
- 5. China 165.38
- 6. Kuwait 157.18
- 7. Saudi Arabia 155.97
- 8. Cyprus 144.64
- 9. Bulgaria 142.27
- 10. Switzerland 135.70

Top ten countries with the fastest broadband internet speeds (Mbps) in 2021 were as follows:

- 1. Monaco 261.82
- 2. Singapore 255.83
- 3. Hong Kong (China) 254.70
- 4. Romania 232.17
- 5. Switzerland 229.96
- 6. Denmark 227.91
- 7. Thailand 225.17
- 8. Chile 217.60
- 9. France 214.04
- 10. South Korea 212.57



India's Position In The World is shown in the following map:

Source: https://worldpopulationreview.com/country-rankings/internet-speeds-by-country

6. COVID-19: The Pandemic....The Game Changer

Moreover, after outburst of pandemic *aka* terror Covid-19, teachers are linking with their students at a pre-determined time to conduct classes. However, it is observed that this machinery is chiefly being adopted in urban areas and restricted to institutes catering to well-off segments of society. For students to access these online classes the prerequisite is to have devices like laptops/desktops, tablets, android phones etc. as well as internet connectivity at home, this again is something which cannot be expected across all sections of society in urban or rural India.

There are currently many education technology companies having on-line learning platforms and specializing in developing on-line content. This market is growing in India in the last few years. In schools, these solutions have been extensively taken up as complementary to classroom learning in terms of understanding concepts, stimulating critical thinking and curiosity in children, interactive participation through gaming techniques.

However, in most cases the students' family have subscribed for online courses from such companies to supplement the teaching at schools, as they perceive these courses help in preparing for S. K. Ghai

tests/examination and give their wards a competitive advantage over others. These solution sets can help education institutions as well as students only if accessibility challenges across all sections of society can be addressed by providing devices in hands of the students and connectivity at their homes. For wider acceptance of such online courses across the country, content has to be developed in vernacular languages.

However, in the current situation, given the free time that students have now, many edu-tech organizations are offering their products for free trials during this period, that is projected to lead to familiarization of students with such solutions sets. This will possibly result in increased adoption of such product/ solution by education institutions, if such demand comes from students.

7. The Decisive Factor

Change is the law of nature..... and positive thinkers firmly believe that almost every change which brings challenge has with it an opportunity too. The human race has witnessed four stages of development in education system during the last few thousands of years viz., *Gurukul* System, Traditional University System, Distance Learning System and now, the On-line Learning System of education. Every problem/question has its solution/answer but all depends on our perception. Whenever challenges (in the form of unexpected changes) are accepted, human development has written new history.

Phase of change is not easily acceptable to those who cannot think beyond limits. Moreover, no system can be developed overnight and on-line education system is also not an exception which is still under stage of development but it gained more importance when world faced sudden lockdown after outbreak of COVID-19.

Surprisingly, majority of businesses have adapted online system of trading for the last more than a decade but barring few examples, no such changes are ever noticed in education system in pre-COVID 19 eras. If we look back, when the world was heading towards 21st century, at that time computerization was introduced in India but instead of appreciating this move, majority of the government sector employees opposed it because of fear of becoming job-less. They refused to undergo training and keep on opposing the upcoming phase of technology.

But as the time passed, gradually everybody started comprehending the significance of computerization. The main advantages,

which people realized of computerization at large, are saving of time-energy-resources, convenience, speedily transmission of messages (through emails etc.) & funds (through on-line banking etc.), avoidance of unnecessary paper work, increase in efficiency level, productivity etc.

It is a bitter truth that every change has its demerits also but sincere efforts are always required to restrict these negativities within limits. Few years ago, when free wi-fi facility was introduced for the students in the campus of one of the oldest universities of Western U.P., it was (mis) utilized by majority of users (which include outsiders too) for downloading all those unwanted and unacceptable materials (from immoral & illegal websites) which had nothing to do with enhancement of knowledge and education, the the prime objectives for which wi-fi facility was provided to the students.

Compelled by the circumstances, university administration had to stop this facility immediately, team of software engineers etc. was called from IIT and after almost two months of untiring efforts, wi-fi facility is re-stored to selected departments with separate login and password facility with in-built system to surf only selected websites wherein only university courses' related information, study materials, lectures etc. are available.

Likewise, there are certain age-old problems which are intentionally overlooked so far, viz., habit of students of avoiding class lectures (instead of his/her presence in the college premises), pressure of higher authorities on faculties to manipulate attendance of such students so that it crosses minimum stipulated requirement (i.e. 75%), tendency of giving passing marks in internal examinations to non-deserving examinees, liberal attitude during final examination towards students of their own departments/colleges etc. These are few instances which have not only shattered the image of those institutions and universities but also of those regions at large and above all, one of the root causes which has defeated the basic purpose of education so far.

Due to these so-called cheap compromises, quality standards of education get degraded. So, things need utmost attention, not only in traditional system but also in the modern/innovative system. No system can work properly and in the desired direction if questions like these remain unanswered, intentionally or otherwise, for long period.

68 S. K. Ghai

No system is fool-proof but sincere continuous efforts, to make it better, are essentially required otherwise it will be nothing but a futile exercise where only words are spoken on various public platforms but are never religiously followed. Thus, counselling of one and all; not only students but teaching staff, management, parents etc. is also essentially required to make proper atmosphere and cut the first turf for imparting true knowledge and education. As both the systems (Traditional/Off-line as well as Modern/Virtual/On-line) have their positive and negative aspects, therefore, in current scenario, these are to be implemented in those spheres only where these can bring best possible results, either separately or jointly.

Most of the educational institutions in developing nations lack proper infrastructure to tackle these pandemic driven problems though developed countries are in a better position to run on-line classes. In view of above stated facts so far, it can be stated that still most of the persons world-wide are not tech-savvy. Also, availability of Internet, particularly in far-flung parts, with proper speed and connectivity is still barely available but finally it is also true that we cannot avoid these globally upcoming changes. It is need of (h)our to adapt changes while maintaining traditional educational system, which is our roots.

In other words, just like Malthusian theorem, which advocates the nature's role of balancing things when demand increases manifold as compared to available scarce resources, in a similar manner, entire education system also needs a balanced approach. Moreover, problems which are usually faced by the students, who live in remote areas (especially girls), have to be addressed on priority basis, including security issues while covering several miles to reach their educational institutions in undeveloped and backward areas.

Lack of skillful teachers, shortage of space in educational institutions etc. are few other issues which have compelled to switch to the 'default-mode' of education in consequence to epidemic COVID-19. Though certain new issues like sanitation, social distance, holding classes, possible increase in cyber-crimes etc. are those issues which have to be handled diligently on day-to-day basis. On one hand, it is essential to ensure smooth functioning of economic activities in order to curb vital issues like unemployment (which has suddenly increased world-wide during lock-down world-wide) and human beings' health and safety issues cannot also be overlooked, on the other.

Though it is time of world-wide crisis but has brought positive changes too. It has provided time to the materialistic world to think and know, not only about their family members but about themselves too. This is a sort of re-transformation of machines to men. It has made possible for a human being to meet himself/herself.

Though slowly but we are coming back to our roots now. Issues like health maintenance, hygiene etc. have come to our priorities. Various platforms on internet are now not remain as mere devices of entertainment but have become source of spreading knowledge too. Geographical distances have become immaterial now.

Online education system is comparatively convenient, cost-effective, having vast reach in which participation of both, teachers and students, is anticipated to rise in future. This era is of transition (time to upgrade ourselves physically, mentally and spiritually) amidst uncertainties. By adopting positive approach, both systems of education will become helpful in achieving the desired goals of knowledge and self-reliance.

In fact, these two systems are complimentary to each. Online system has not only provided the base for preparing quality study material but has also paved the way of preparing better alternative within the scarce availability of limited resources. Theoretical subjects, viva-voce, projects, assignments etc. can be easily handled through online classes but practical issues (viz., music classes, paintings classes, apprenticeship, industrial training, labs etc.) seem to be little bit difficult to handle on-line. Though creation of virtual labs can provide a better solution but still lot of work is required to make impossible things possible. Proctored examination (under which students appear under digital surveillance) also need more upgradation in order to secure genuineness and avoid any sort of usage of unfair means during examination.

Those who criticize online system of education on the grounds of one-way communication, absence of involvement and interaction (which are usually found in traditional classroom teaching also) and development of artificial intelligence instead of creativity etc. are not completely aware about usage of technology as effective tool of education.

Latest technical developments have finished it conceivable to be a two-way communication (vide 'live' classes/inter-action sessions) and that too without time-limitations like traditional 70 S. K. Ghai

classes. Involvement as well as interaction also become possible when technique helps in two-way communication between the faculty and the students. As a result, something creative comes into existence (even though by way of artificial intelligence) instead of any negative results, which should be appreciated instead of criticizing. Finally, it can be concluded that there should be no compromise with quality standards otherwise it will push, not only present but future generations also, into the 'Black Hole'.

Quality benchmarks for both, traditional and online programs, are to be strictly formed and implemented without hesitation, in order to prepare better team of young aspirants for overall development of civil society. Thus, by blending learning, (or say, hybridization of education system) it is probable to open forum for healthy competition for all the mentors, guides and philosophers and whosoever is the best, will be able to survive ultimately. This, in turn, will prove to be beneficial for the world at large.

References

Altbach, P., "India: A World-Class Country without a World-Class Education: India's 21st Century Dilemma", *International Educator*, 14, Nov-Dec. 2005, 14-17.

"Indian education: Sector outlook". Retrieved 23 January 2014.

Bamzai, Kaveree, "1977-10+2+3 system of education: The new class structure", *India Today*, 24 December 2009. Retrieved 10 December 2012.

https://mhrd.gov.in/

World Bank, Teachers Skipping Work, Retrieved 14 August 2014.

www.worldpopulationreview.com

www.data.oecd.org

www.statista.com

www.atlasandboots.com

www.educationworld.in

www.timeshighereducation.com

Forests and Women's Livelihood in Tribal Societies : A History of Land Use Change in Assam

Tejaswita Duarah*

Women's livelihood in tribal societies has an intricate relationship with forest produce. Such an association has seen a dynamic transition over the years with change in land use. The rise of a new market system, land use has aligned to commercialization and impacting livelihood within tribal societies. Alterations in forest dependency have caused a differential impact on the livelihoods of men and women, which is reflected throughout history. The changing land use of Assam has observed such gender dynamics and an accompanying socio-economic and political environment in tribal societies. The study looks into the history of land use change in Assam to understand the changing dependency of women on forest produce in Assam.

[Keywords: Women, Livelihood, Land use change and Forest dependency]

 Ph.D Research Scholar, Centre for the Study of Regional Development, School of Social Science, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi-110067 (India) E-mail<tejaswitaduarah18@gmail.com>

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April-June), 2022 Peer Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed International Research Journal

1. Introduction

Tribal societies in Assam closely depend on resources extracted from their environment. Any change in land use impact livelihood of the people especially in land-based and forest dependent areas. As livelihood transforms, so thus land use of the area. This close association of human and land are reflected in the socio-cultural, political and economical characteristics of a society and is accountable for any dynamic changes that occur with time. The dependency of men and women in tribal societies of Assam on its forest produce has been influenced by various variables that play a role in shaping and determining its continuation. "Access to livelihood opportunity is governed by social relations, institutions and organizations and power is an explanatory variable" (Haan and Zoomers, 2005). Thus, along with comprehending the change in dependency on forest produce, it is also important to understand the various factors that influence accessibility of men and women to these resources.

Land use is changing from forest and subsistence agriculture to commercial use like cash crops, plantations, intensive agriculture with mechanization and commercial estates. This new market economy had gained momentum with the coming of the colonial government and continued up till contemporary times as rapid commercialization transforms the lands from subsistence based to commercial based landscapes. The tribal economy mostly dependent on its environmental surroundings for natural resources, which regularly collected forest based products like herbs, food, fodder and fuel wood and often cultivated the land for food crops. Here, the society functioned with existing gendered divisions in labour with women mostly engaged in gathering and collecting forest produce while both men and women cultivated the land. Women sowed and cleared shrubs and grass, while men logged down large trees in jhum. This subsistence livelihood kept the local economy content but not with the advent of colonial expansion. The need for revenue generation required the exploitation of natural resources and lands need to be transformed to commercial farms and plantations. Commercial economy employed men but displaced women off their traditional economy and economic roles. The new market economy continued post colonization and have steadily degraded land and forest resource which has compelled inhabitants to access alternative livelihoods options in both farm-based and non-farm activities.

The landscape of Assam comprises of vast wetlands, dense and semi-dense forests surrounded by hills. It is the home to about 50 different ethnic communities. The government of Assam identifies 15 of its scheduled tribes as hill tribes and 14 as plain tribes. The utilization of land accordingly serves communities that inhabit specific areas which determining their territories. The resources of water, land and forest form either private properties or community resource property. However, the landscape of Assam is fast changing with a rise in population putting immense pressure on not just the available land but encroachment in the untouched lands too. This phenomenon has impacted the demographics and land use pattern for the last 100 years of the state and has given a contemporary face to control over land ownership and political crisis of the present. With the pre-colonial arrivals of successive migration to the massive immigration during the colonial regime and post-colonial illegal migration to the state has a long history of land dynamics affecting the different ethnic communities of the region. Scheduled tribes and women are the worse affected of such changes in land resource management as their life are intricately intertwined to it for their livelihood and survival. Socio-economic changes in the society brought by these land management changes deprives women of their traditional rights. As a result, she has to look out for other sources to regain her lost socio-economic and political position in the society. Other than these struggles she is in a constant threat of new thoughts and philosophies which even result into atrocities against women. It is thus important to understand the long history of political and economic change in the region, which reconstructed the contemporary social fabric of the state.

2. Understanding the Land Use Change of Assam

The physiographic features of Assam comprise of vast fertile plains of the Brahmaputra and Barack rivers, plateaus of Karbi Anglong and N C Hills and surrounded by the Purvanchal Himalayas. The plains provide a favourable habitat for human settlement accommodating a major section of the population and some of the "scheduled tribes" residing in the hills. Even though land was profusely available yet the landscape wasn't fully suitable for producing surplus wet rice cultivation. The wetlands which remained under permanent submergence created marshy lands unsuitable to grow crops. Thus, land management in the medieval

times under the semi-feudal Ahoms tried to reclaim agricultural land from the existing wastelands and forests through a system of paiks where each able-bodied person had to render some form of service to the government (Kalita, 2020). The peasants were given some agricultural land for his service towards the state. Such services also included extracting forest produce from the forest and wetlands which were common property resources and in turn even the peasants could supplement their subsistence from here. Land in pre-colonial Assam was either private owned or community based as the Ahoms managed a service oriented system and not taxation. Land which couldn't be put under rice cultivation were left for community uses like fishing, logging for building and other forest produce to produce necessary supplies of food, fodder, honey, rope and other forest extracts.

On the advent of colonial rule, utilization of forest produce saw a dramatic change. The colonial government aware of the potential value of the forests and even wetlands of Assam put its use to a commercial advantage. The British paved the way commercialization of the resources that the tribal societies had treated and known to be their community holdings. Every resource like bamboo, thatch, reed, wood, even fish was brought under taxation (Sharma, 2001). It declared all state resources to belong to the government and revenue generation was implemented on various types of land. Its interest basically lied on the exploitation of teak for the Royal Navy and extension of its railway network. Railways intruding far into the jungles enhanced the commercialization of various forest produce like plywood products, railway sleepers, match sticks, boxes (Tamuli and Choudhury, 2009). Emergence of the tea industry led to a large degradation of forestland under a new colonial management. A massive land cover change arose from the conversions of forests and tribal lands into tea plantations with the tremendous growth of the tea industry worldwide (Karlsson, 2001). Another development under the initiative of the colonial government was the conversion of the once uncultivable wetlands into jute production (Chakraborty, 2012).

The rise of tea industry and jute production created a large labour demand. As the local Assamese population was unwilling to work for the colonial government, the British commenced the bringing in of forced labourer from the tribal belts of Chotanagpur plateau to work in the tea gardens. These people belonged to the Santhals and Oraon tribes of Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and Orissa. Today these people have identified as tea tribes of Assam. These people who belonged to tribal societies carried with them their own tribal culture and practices, but were limited to the tea garden estates. On the other hand, the jute production in the wetlands attracted massive migrants of land hungry poor peasants especially from East Bengal (Saikia, 2008). These Bengali peasants brought along them a new cultural contrast to the social fabric of the region. These poor peasants displaced by various factors of poverty and floods had come in search of new lands to settle and the wetlands provided an excellent opportunity to initiate a living under the patronage of the colonial government.

The penetration of the non-tribals into tribal lands was engineered by the British to serve their own colonial interests (Sharma, 2001). Under their new commercial initiatives to bring common resources under revenue generation, there was a sudden increase in immigration of non-tribal population from other parts of India. According to Singh (1987), the 1921 census showed the descendents of these tea tribes had increased to an estimate of one million, i.e. one sixth of total Assam's population. He further notes that rise in crop and tea production attracted the Rajasthani trading community knows as Marwaris to invest in the emerging business, while Bihari labourers flowed in to do mostly menial jobs. The British Army which accommodated a large number of Nepalis opted to settle down in the available forest lands and river islands and mostly took to dairy farming. According to Shrivastava & Heinen (2005), "while early tea tribes like the Santhals and Oraons confined them to work on tea estates, Bengali Hindus and Muslims vied with the Assamese Hindus and indigenous tribes for land and employment, causing anti-immigrant agitations".

The flourishing economy by exploiting forest and land resources, necessitated the conservation of these resources and thus the government classified them into reserved forests, open forests or protected forests (Tamuli and Choudhury, 2009). These zones facilitated different needs of the government and the people. The British pondered over the question of property rights and distinguishing private, state and common property rights. The colonial policy always practiced a system to bring all property under the control of the state and gradually a large extent of common property resources was replaced by either enclosing it into private

property or government property. These lands were controlled by the British government and then handed down to the government of India. The indigenous inhabitants lost the communal rights over these resources and are at the mercy of the contemporary government to implement rules and legislature to access what was once their daily sustenance. It is interesting to note that it was the policies of the colonial government itself who inspired the settling of marginal peasants in forest areas to cultivate the land for jute production and also in turn collect forest resources (mainly timber) for the colonial forest department (Sharma and Sarma, 2014). Moreover, the introduction of Assam Forest Regulation Act in 1891 gave further way to more exploitation of forests as a new category of Unclassed State forests were created and incorporated under Open Forests. These spaces were the major target areas for land reclamation for agriculture. The AFRA 1891 provide the state with complete control of forest management and monopolization over legislation to regulate any commercial activity regarding forest produce (Saikia, 2008). As customary access to local use was restricted and laws were tightened, the local inhabitants failed to understand for whom and why conservation and reservation were being carried out.

According to Guha (1983), "the compulsions of commercial interests fostered a basic contradiction between capitalism and the rational and sustainable use of natural resources in India which, was further complicated by the competing claims to forest produce exercised by the mercantile/industrial bourgeoisie and the forest dependent people for whom the produce of the forests often constituted the difference between starvation and subsistence". The AFRA 1891 adopted a gradual and systematic deforestation of firstly converting the low lying wetlands for cultivation and then slowly clearing the reserved forests to settle the immigrant peasants who were working in the low lying wetlands. This arouse conflict between the local communities and the immigrant peasants who fought over the rights to access as local communities were debarred from simple sustenance while the immigrants enjoyed both livelihood and land to settle. Successively, even local communities started encroaching forest lands which were considered illegal under the government laws (Saikia, 2008).

The adoption of the Inner Line Policy came as a new innovation to forest management under colonial rule. The policy laid down a line beyond which all activities of movement and land possession for settlement by people were restricted. Permission would have to be taken from proper authorities to access these lands. The British implemented this policy in areas like Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland and Mizoram upon the question of opening up the frontier tribal population (Singh, 1987). However, the line system also aimed at protecting the tribal lands from the immigrant peasants who were encroaching into tribal lands and causing restlessness in the society and government. The classification of the villages of Assam defined their access and grants to resources. Open villages were recognized as where immigrants could or was allowed to settle and where they could settle on only one side of the line drawn on the village map were 'mixed villages' and most importantly the category of 'closed villages' were closed for the immigrants. However, the line collapsed under the aggressive encroachment of the land hungry immigrants and many from the tribal community were displaced and forced to move into the hills (Sharma, 2001).

The problem of land alienation and encroachment by immigrants continued even after independence in post-colonial era. The problems of the local people remained the same, only the government changed and the forest management economy pass from the colonial government to the Republic of India. The economy of Assam established by the British revolved around jute and tea production and these posed a dual economy for the state. The people who were mostly immigrant Bengali Muslims, Bengali Hindus, Nepalis, Tea Tribes and Marwaris involved in these activities generated income to send back remittances out of Assam (Singh, 1987). These included the traders and contractors who drained the profits out of the region. The policies of the government clearly encouraged clearing forests for "development projects" thereby reinforcing the contractual nexus between forest administration and the contractors/ merchants that had evolved under the British patronage (Tamuli and Choudhury, 2009). According to Kulkarni (1983), "the cutting down of forest for the construction of roads, building irrigation and hydroelectric projects, ammunition factories and other projects was justified in the name of national interests whereas cultivation of lands shown as forest lands but without actual tree cover was treated as encroachment".

Just before independence in the 1930s and 1940s on the succession of administrative power Sir Syed Muhammad Sadullah was handed over the stewardship of Assam. He encouraged his

co-religionists to expand and consolidate their hold over agricultural land (Singh, 1987). Sadullah belonged to the Muslim League led coalition ministry which rejected the Line System Recommendations in June 1940 and opted for a development scheme to facilitate the settlement of immigrants in the wastelands (Das, 1986). The Muslim League aimed to settle the Muslim migrants and create a Muslim majoritarian state in Assam which was faced with resistance and the Sadullah ministry fell. However, he returned to power in 1943 and implemented the same (Sharma, 2001). The tribal areas came under a major attack from these policies, especially the scheme of 'grow more food campaign', which mainly aimed to open up more land for immigrants to settle and cultivate the lands. This de-reserved major portions of forest lands and grazing lands to settlement and cultivation. However, in 1946 with the establishment of Gopinath Bordoloi- led Congress government the policies were modified and recognition to tribal belts and blocks were given. Villages with more than 50 per cent tribal population were identified as such, whereas neighbouring villages with even less than 50 per cent tribal population were identified as reserved tribal villages. But, the controversy still continued to surround the fact that non-tribal community already existing in these "contested area" were permitted to keep their land, although transfer of land from tribal to non-tribal people was prohibited. In addition to this the Nehru-Liaquat Pact further encouraged the infiltration and settlement of immigrants by restoring their rights over their properties to those who returned to their lands not later than 31st Dec 1950 (Phukan, 2013). His actions were against the interests of the immigrants and caused panic among them, as a result his ideas were put aside to consolidate control and trust of immigrants in the states especially Muslim immigrants.

Successive governments have ignored the claims and problems of the local people and many have been displaced from the traditional home grounds. The political actions of the government held insensitive to the interests of the Assamese population especially the tribal population disrupted the social harmony of the society and develops tensions between ethnic communities and the emerging immigrant communities (Singh, 1987). They struggle for power and authority against each other. Thus, ethnic tensions in almost the entire North Eastern Region are a byproduct of land alienation (Phukan, 2013). This is a fight for the rights of the people

over natural resources and as demographics change in a particular geographical area the struggle for resources increases over time. Verrier Elwin in his Philosophy for NEFA (1949) observes that "the first cause of their (tribal) depression was the loss of their land and forests. This had the effect so enervating the tribal organism that it had no interior resistance against infection by a score of other serious evils" (Sharma, 2001). According to Roy Burman, land alienation paced up with the settlement of Bengali peasants on wastelands aided by the Assam Land Acts of 1793 and 1834 of which 90 per cent were Muslims (Fernandes, 1999). He further states that the tribal population is not able to cope to the depletions of their traditional resources caused by commercialization which has been expressed in their struggle for nationality, ethnicity and identity. As a result, they have a trend to come together to protect their livelihood traditions or adapt to the modern techniques of production.

Forest lands till 1976 was subjected under the state list in the 6th schedule of the constitution of India but was transfer to the concurrent list in 1976, resulting in the reduction of state power to manage forest resources and activities within the state (Tamuli and Choudhury, 2009). Firstly, the Indian government neglected the problem of encroachment by immigrants and rather took steps to resettle them. This increased land alienation among the local inhabitants especially in tribal areas. Secondly, the government introduced 'development projects' like dams, industries, protective logging to facilitate commerce and enhance economic growth in the region. But the question of 'development for whom' developed dissatisfaction among the local inhabitants. The benefits and the profits that generated out of these projects were held by entrepreneurs and contractors who belong from out of the state and draining out the remittances. Such instances of exploitation spread throughout the state as well as the whole of North Eastern Region. The mechanism to bring land under such projects was a systematically arranged procedure. There was an unequal relationship between the powerful state bureaucracies and the forest communities (Tamuli and Choudhury, 2009). The executive comprising of the village headman and other members of the panchayat formed the Forest Protection and Regeneration Committee in the Joint Forest Management were too being approved or cancel through agreement by the Divisional Forest Officer on the recommendation of the Range Officer. Thus, as Deka (2002) states,

"the people in the fringe consequently come in direct conflict with the forest department over their rights and claims that stands on the protection and conservation of forests".

Assam under colonial conquest of commercializing its forests and lands, faced the pressure of local tenure system intensified by massive influx of immigrants (Karlsson, 2001). Today, this has become a huge problem to both society and economy of the people of the state and strong political resistance has been developing in not just Assam but the entire North-Eastern states facing the same problem. The people of the region don't only depend on forest resources for subsistence but commercial purpose too. The entire population of the North-Eastern region directly or indirectly depends on them for their livelihood (Barik and Mishra, 2008). As forest lands have sustained a high economic value over the years these areas turn out to be 'contested resources over which different sections of the society seek to assert control' (Tamuli and Choudhury, 2009). (As per reports of the Assam Forest Policy, 2004) There is large scale encroachment in the reserved forests by new settlers who arrived here displaced by floods and ethnic clashes or those seeking new opportunities. The control over ownership and usage is the biggest challenge to the socio-economic and political situation of the state. This is evident and more expressive in the linguistic conflict between migrant Bengalis and the local population even in the contemporary times (Phukan, 2013).

3. Gender Dynamics within Tribal Societies in Relation to Forest Produce

"Along with the manifold transformation of the economies in the region, gender relations have also been altered in a diverse and complex manner. This is primarily because gender relations are deeply embedded in the economy and the politics of control over resources - a dimension which is often neglected in the mainstream discussions on economic development and change" (Mishra, 2012). There is a higher dependency of tribal villages on forest resources than on agriculture. Agricultural activities have seen a transition from "female farming system" to commercialization (Boserup, 2008). As a result, there is a change in agricultural roles of both men and women. With increasing valuation of land women grew to a disadvantage as they were usually engaged in subsistence

agriculture for the family, while men were involved with the cultivation of cash crops. With increase in commercial plantations such phenomena during the colonial period deteriorated the status of women in such areas. In tribal societies where women traditionally had more access to the forest were severely affected by the clearing of forest for timber and other commercial plantations. In Meghalaya and other Northeastern states alienation of forests in the name of private individuals deprived women of their traditional roles even from the jhum fields which earlier gave them food security (Mukhim, 2008). In a contrasting feature from shifting cultivation is the plough culture where women (especially in the case of Asian women) are exempted from working in the fields and all agricultural work is carried out by men. Freed from farm work women do purely domestic duties within their own homes and appear in streets or outside their homes in veils (Boserup, 2008). New economic practices often results into livelihood diversification. People indulged in agriculture often choose to take up other occupations and professions. Thus, a mixed economy rises which is rooted both in agriculture (occasionally getting few needs satisfied from the forest and wetlands) and also taking up other activities like animal husbandry, professions and commercial businesses. Occupations are combinations of both traditional and new livelihoods. A study by Hussain, Barthwal, Badola, Rahman, Rastogi, Tuboi, & Bhardwai (2012) has found that villages having more variability in livelihood conditions had better economic conditions than those having not. However, the aspect of women not accessing this diversification need to be further addresses as male members of the family exercise effective control over property.

There has been a rapid change in forest activities. This includes nature of ownership and control over forests which has significant gender implications in women's involvement in collecting forest produce. According to Mishra (2007), "the marketisation of forest products has radically altered the nature of forest use, which in turn has changed the way forests and forest related activities are viewed by the forest dependent population. There is a shift from family and community labour to wage labour for extraction of marketed forest products changes the intra family distribution of work as well as opportunities". With change in forest related activities the distribution of work and opportunities changes. This results in rising

differences in gender relationships, which is commonly observed in more employment, more education and more power to men in both the society and family. He further explains that, the access of households do not mean equitable access to all members of the household. There is a reallocation of assets, responsibilities and risks within the family. The distribution of power, privilege and authority within a household determines the disparity between its members to access and avail these resources provided by the neoliberal economy. Men's participation in household activities increases the time spent by women on household work (Boserup, 2008). This causes exclusion of women and cause barriers to expand their economic livelihoods options. Further, inter household differences leads to greater multiplicity of social hierarchies into the social ladder. Thus, an unequal social system creates differential windows of opportunities even if women had choice. This may result in differential access to employment, empowerment education, including participation by women belonging to different sections of the society. Commercialization weakens both the property rights and collective rights of women, which can be overcomed by eliminating these inequalities.

The rising gender difference in the new economy has based itself on what traditionally the tribal societies have been practicing. Ownership and control over resources makes a vast difference in what is owned and how much control he/she has over it. Several studies have shown that ownership of property and assets may not likely grant power, authority or decision making over its use. This intensifies with social decision made by village councils which are traditionally represented by men. Even in tribal societies of the north eastern region village affairs have been managed by men who derive their power from being an elite of the community having wealth and status in the clan. Thus, they hold a better advantage to acquire education and new occupations. With decision making in their hands they make situations in their own favour and more beneficial to themselves. On the other hand, contractors, non-tribal entrepreneurs, traders and politicians wait for the chance to grab these new profitable spaces for exploitation. There has been a rising nexus between tribal elite men, contractors or entrepreneurs and the government to control the resources (Krishna, 2001). Under the banner of "development" many such policies and projects have been taken by the government with the permission of tribal elites (who are also the decision makers of the village) which has marginalized many with landlessness (Krishna, 2004). This social transformation has resulted in increase of control by tribal elites even within the governance and outside (Sinha, 1998). With the rise of private property or in fact identification of private lands by the government, men were recognized to be the head of the household (even in Khasi matrilineal societies), including the traditional power structure handled by men had dominated the transition of forest and agricultural based tribal economy, further limiting women in choosing her livelihood (Mukhim, 1996).

The decline of forest activities and agricultural changes has left women fewer resources and a loss of control over her livelihood choices. As a result, McDuie-Ra (2012) observes in his study that women often tend to migrate out to urban centers in search of new opportunities and make a living in the neo-liberal market. Studies have shown a large out migration of tribal women from different parts of northeast India to different urban centers and metropolitan cities like Delhi, Bangalore, Mumbai, etc. Women mobility often finds its base in culture and ethnicity. Tribal societies have undergone tremendous change in traditional livelihood practices and along with it the status of its women. Yet, tribal women face lesser barriers to their mobility in case of accessing education, freedom to movement and social choices in comparison to caste Hindu women. Although, the new transition marginalizes tribal women for not getting involved in the new economies of plantations, lumbering, industrial work, etc. The flexibility of ethnic customs and traditions allows women to access education, at least primary education and if financially able for higher education. She equips herself to join professional occupations other that agricultural activities; such that she migrates to cities and acquire employment in the "new consumer spaces" (McDuie-Ra, 2013). Meanwhile, the rising popularity of Self Help Groups in the villages has boosted women's work in the recent years (Sandilya and Kumar, 2012). The goal to reduce women's work burden by adding extra work time and creating new spaces of livelihood has been a concern for many development researchers. Livelihoods that come hand in hand with domestic chores like rearing farm animals, poultry and most significantly the popularity of weaving among tribal women in all over NER has hold potentiality of increasing women's economic

power and reduce extra work burden all together. But the question of empowerment may still be debatable with marketisation and decision making still controlled by men and women still dependent on the household choices she has to make.

Having a right to their land and property generally gives women the power to bargain that they wouldn't normally have and in turn they gain the ability to assert themselves in various aspects of their life, both in and outside of the home. Another way to provide women empowerment is to allocate responsibilities to them that normally belong to men. When women have economic freedom and empowerment, it is a way for others to see them as equal members of society (Kabeer, 2005). When women have the agency to do what she wants, a higher equality between men and women is established. For example, institutions like tourism could be a tool to empower women from various aspects if proper management and governance is taken care of. Tourism could assist women to increase power and control over natural resources and thereby procure economic empowerment, educational empowerment and political empowerment. Having economic opportunities and education is one of the most important ways for women to empower themselves to seek a better quality of life for themselves, their families and their communities. Engaging in tourism enterprises not only breaks the social bubble that has always kept the woman in doors, but also raises herself-esteem whilst providing an opportunity for the entire society to acknowledge what woman can accomplish outside the traditional home tendering (Islam, 2017). By this, women strive to attain social empowerment which further provides her with ladders for further success.

4. The Contemporary Scenario of an Alternative Diversified Livelihood

Women have a significant economic role in traditional societies engaged in economic productivity. In case of forest based societies, women are more involved in gathering forest produce, while in case of agricultural societies there are two distinguished cases. The first is that of jhum cultivation in traditional societies, where the concept of private property is non-existent or negligible. Here, both men and women work together and often women are considered to be the main cultivators. The other is subsistence agriculture where men have emerged as main cultivators and women suffer from the recent

concerns of transition to 'female farming practices' along with commercialization which put more pressure on women's work (Boserup, 2008). In the case of jhum cultivation, men and women have their respective jobs. In fact, in many societies men only clear the forests while women do all the rest of sowing, planting, harvesting, etc. However, the rise of commercialization enormously effected the food grain cultivation. Jhum fields and forests were cleared for cash crops and plantations. This deprives women from their access to forest produce and economic security as active producers. It affects women's roles as agriculture develops from substantive to intensive agriculture along with mechanization of farm tools. Cultivation of cash crops gives men advantage over control of resources by giving (1) better bargaining power, (2) titles to land by privatization, (3) jobs in plantations and other production units. There have been several examples of women's struggles for forest rights taken place in various parts of the country. These struggles have observed a common cause of protecting individual rights to access forest resources on the event of commercialization taking control over such valuable forest or common property resources leading to deforestation and overexploitation. In these cases, it is often the women that have protested against such moves while the men often support it. Some known cases of such struggles can be given of the Bishnoi movement¹, Chipko movement² and most recently the case of men wanting rights to land entitlement in the Khasi matrilineal society³. In all these cases women were at a disadvantage of loosing access to forest resources as their day to day livelihood and sustenance depended on the forest. The women usually were the ones collecting and gathering these resources for daily dependency. However, the men took advantage from commercialization of the area to get jobs in this new market.

Women's role in the economy have transformed from customary to a more contemporary one. As women are deprived of traditional economic roles, they are confined to household work. This transition in agricultural societies of "plough culture" has observed that women only come out in veils (Boserup, 2008). However, women in tribal societies have some form of cultural flexibility provided by their society which helps her continue adopt new forms of economic activities. Ethnicity and cultural practices determine the socioeconomic and political flexibility of women, which affect her accessibility to various resources and opportunities. Tribal societies of

Assam and other Northeast India provide a more flexible access for women to resources than in any other tribal or non-tribal society from rest of the country (Chanana, 1993). Contemporary aids through agencies and institutions help tribal woman looks for ways to rejoin the economy. Socio-cultural accessibility let tribal women from northeastern India to attain education to enter into the neo-liberal job market, and diversify their livelihood. Although, due to prevailing gendered norms and privilege men have an option to diversify their livelihood within the village by cultivating cash crops, animal husbandry, poultry, working in plantations and others, women has lesser options to look for jobs outside. The booming service and hospitality sector in major cities have drawn in women to access these jobs (McDuie-Ra, 2013). Social mobility and access to education have greatly helped tribal women from northeastern India to overcome barriers caused by globalization and remodeling oneself to constructs an economic identity of her own.

Women's role in economic activities often goes unnoticed, also called "invisible labour" (Daniels, 1987). Although, women are engaged in different activities alongside their male counterparts but due to the absence of ownership they lose their claim to economic benefit. Most women do not own property and are not entitled to any of the produce that the household economy generates. Agencies promote the interest of women and aids in reestablishing women as an economic producer. Forming SHGs give a financial platform to assert them individually or in cooperation (Chauhan, 2004). SHGs help tribal women in regaining her dignity and economic significance. The state intervention to introduce and encourage the growth of Self Help Groups (SHG) to provide micro-credits and self-finance communities gave way to women's inclusion to the existing economic growth. These self-help groups formed as small informal association of people with preferably similar socio-economic background get together to help each other and take up collective responsibility. It establishes credit worthiness of the poor especially women and also enhances the ability and potentiality to empower women members (Shandilya and Kumar, 2012). It has given equal opportunities to people from different socio-economic backgrounds, which may have unequal access to resources to provide for themselves. Such that access to land may not be available to most of the rural women, thus SHGs have helped them to put emphasis on other farm assets and livelihoods. According to Mishra (2012), "the reallocation of economic assets and activities, within and outside household is shaped by the layer process of change in political economy as well as micro-realities of power and powerlessness". Social and economic conditions affect women's choice and access to resources. Therefore, only providing credits wouldn't mean that a woman is capable of putting her credits into any venture she desires. Her access to resources is defined by the political economy and social limitations, which includes her social, economic and personal characteristics.

Meanwhile, in agricultural villages which practiced subsistence agriculture either opted to grow cash crops like vegetables or in other cases of men migrating out or joining other livelihoods, female farming practices is such an instance. However, the plains of the Brahmaputra valley are cultivated mainly by small and marginal farmers and an extensive form of agriculture may not be prevalent in these areas. Cash crops like pulses, vegetables and oilseeds are mainly grown as rabi crops not much interfering with rice cultivation in the kharif season. Also low lying plains are not suitable for such crops. There is not much change in rice cultivation. However, the composition of agricultural labour has seen some drastic change in the past years. With opportunities in the new market people migrate to other diversified livelihood and agriculture is left in the care of the elderly people at home (in case of migration outside village) or hires agricultural labourers. These agricultural labourers have also raised a concern in the Assam plains of rise in influx of illegal immigrants, which may have affected the socio-economic and political fabric of the region and women's status in the society. The concerns over the new emerging class of agricultural labourers since colonial era continues till the present. This phenomenon is replacing the traditional semipermanent tenant system with seasonal hired immigrant agricultural labourers. There is a tension over their settlement in unclaimed lands, which are mainly forested or tribal lands as these are not private properties. Such interference in tribal lifestyle is causing contestations over resources which have turned into not just a socio-economic issue but also a political issue of land rights. These harm the indigenous habitats of tribals who have been practicing agriculture in these lands. In many of these cases these forests have been declared protected areas for wildlife conservation. The debate of man-forest in these areas has a grave effect on the lives of these tribal communities.

Thus, changes in land use directly effects women's livelihood patterns. The tribal women practicing her traditional roles as forest produce gatherer and an inclusive jhum cultivator is deprived off her work. She then looks out for other opportunities and educate herself (within the flexibilities of her ethnicity and cultural mobility) to enter the neo-liberal market especially in metropolitan cities. Others that stay back in the villages opt to form agencies to empower themselves and struggle to compete in the new market. Even though the case of unemployment or non-engagement of work has increased with commercialization giving a setback to the traditional modes of women's livelihood; many have diversified their work to others just like men. The effects of land use change on women's livelihood can be a complex phenomenon, effecting different sections of the society or even differing from region to region.

5. Conclusion

Forest dependency within tribal societies has faced several transitions in time. Livelihood based on forest produce has adopted and adapted contemporary forms from traditional economic activities. With rapid land use changes in the recent years' land based livelihoods of tribal communities has increasingly become unsustainable. The emergence of a new market system which has increasingly commercialized, mechanized and privatized resources has further contributed to bring instability to the existing economic, social and political function in tribal societies. As societies undergo these changes, so thus relations within the community, especially gender relations. With sustenance agriculture of cultivation of food crops and dependency on forest resources gradually declining in providing economic support and fulfilling consumption levels, these people are forced to look for alternative means of sustainable resources and household incomes. As a result, both men and women choose to venture into alternative opportunities to which they have access to. Women's livelihood in tribal society shares an intricate relationship with forest produce. Loss of accessibility to forest by land use changes, have altered livelihood options which are limited by socio-political and economic structures of the new market. However, women in tribal societies are increasingly striving to regain their economic significance by the support of agencies and institutions and diversifying the livelihood options.

Footnotes

- 1. In 1970 the Maharaja of Jodhpur ordered the felling of Khejri trees from the nearby village of Khejarli to build his new palace. The Bishnois who were natives of the village protested. Under the leadership of Amrita Devi, many villagers hug the trees as a mark of protest to protect the trees. 363 villagers died by the felling axes. On hearing the news the Maharaja immediately stopped the felling. He apologized and declared the area to be protected, which exists even today. This movement later inspired the Chipko Movement.
- 2. The Chipko movement took place in 1973 in the Chamoli district of Garhwal Himalayas. It was a non-violent protest against the permission being granted to fell trees by a sports equipment manufacturing industry in the area. Many women including Gaura Devi, Suraksha Devi, and Sudesha Devi hugged the tress to prevent them from being felled. The movement was later taken forward by Sundarlal Bahuguna, a Gandhian.
- 3. The rise in Khasi women marrying non-Khasi has led to a concern among men on the issue of land transfer in such a case under their matrilineal cultural norms. The gradual loss of land to non-tribals in the area has led Khasi men to protest and initial legislation to grants them land entitlements.

References

- Barik, S. K., and S. K. Mishra, "Assessment of the contribution of forests to the economy of the northeastern states of India", *International Forestry Review*, 10(2), 2008, 349-361.
- Boserup, E., *Women's Role in Economic Development*, London : Earthscan, 2008.
- Chakraborty, Gorky, *Roots and Ramifications of a Colonial "construct": The Wastelands in Assam*, Kolkata: Institute of Development Studies, 2012.
- Chanana, Karuna, "Accessing higher education: the dilemma of schooling women, minorities, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in contemporary India", *Higher Education*, 26(1), 1993, 69-92.
- Daniels, Arlene Kaplan, "Invisible work", *Social Problems*, 34(5), 1987, 403-415.
- Das, J. N., Genesis of tribal belts and blocks of Assam: Alienation of Tribal Land and Indebtedness, Guwahati: Tribal Research Institute, 1986, 28-38.
- De Haan, Leo, and Annelies Zoomers, "Exploring the frontier of livelihoods research", *Development and Change*, 36(1), 2005, 27-47.
- Deka, M. M., *Joint Forest Management in Assam*, New Delhi: Daya Publishing House, 2002.

Fernandes, Walter, "Conflict in North-East: A Historical Perspective", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 34(51), Dec. 18-24, 1999, 3579-3582.

- Guha, Ramachandra, "Forestry in British and post-British India: A historical analysis", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 18(44),1983, 1882-1896.
- Hussain, Syed Ainul, Shivani Chandola Barthwal, Ruchi Badola, Syed Mohammad Tufailur Rahman, Archi Rastogi, Chongpi Tuboi, and Anil Kumar Bhardwaj, "An analysis of livelihood linkages of tourism in Kaziranga National Park: A Natural World Heritage site in India", *Parks Journals*, 18(2), 2012, 32-43.
- Islam, Syed Sajidul, "Socio-Economic Impact of Tourism upon the Empowerment of Local Women: A Case Study of the Pobitora Wildlife Sanctuary", *IUT Journal of Advance Research and Development*, 2, 2017, 126-132.
- Kabeer, Naila, "Gender equality and women's empowerment: A critical analysis of the third millennium development goal 1", Gender & Development, 13(1), 2005, 13-24.
- Kalita, Krishna, "A Study on the Economic Aspect of the Ahom Kingdom of Assam from the Background of the Paik System", *International Journal of Management (IJM)*, 11(8), 2020, 937-940.
- Karlsson, Bengt G., "Indigenous politics: Community formation and indigenous peoples' struggle for self-determination in northeast India", *Identities Global Studies in Culture and Power*, 8(1), 2001, 7-45.
- Krishna, Sumi, "Gender, tribe and community control of natural resources in North-east India", *Indian Journal of Gender Studies*, 8(2), 2001, 307-321.
- Krishna, Sumi, "Gender, tribe and political participation: Control of natural resources in North-eastern India", S. Krishna (ed.), Livelihood and Gender: Equity in Community Resource Management, New Delhi: Sage Publications, 2004, 375-394.
- Kulkarni, Sharad, "Forest legislation and tribals: Comments on forest policy resolution", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 22(50), 1987, 2143-2148.
- McDuie-Ra, Duncan, "Beyond the 'Exclusionary City': North-east migrants in neo-liberal Delhi", *Urban Studies*, 50(8), 2013, 1625-1640.
- Mishra, Deepak K., "Gender, forests and livelihoods: A note on the political economy of transition in north-east India", Social Change, 37(4), 2007, 65-90.
- Mishra, D. K., Livelihood diversification: Farming, forest-use and gender in Northeastern India: Agriculture and a Changing Environment in Northeastern India, New Delhi: Routledge, 2012.
- Mukhim, Patricia, "Conflict and its Resolution: A Case Study of a Modern Tribal Situation," *Ethnicity, Culture and Nationalism in North-East India*, 1996, 38-48.
- Mukhim, Patricia, "Land ownership among the Khasis of Meghalaya: A gender perspective", Land, People and Politics: Contest over Tribal Land in Northeast India, 2008, 38-52.

- Phukan, Mridula Dhekial, "Ethnicity, conflict and population displacement in Northeast India", *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences* (*AJHSS*), 1(2), 2013, 40-52.
- Saikia, Arupjyoti, "Forest land and peasant struggles in Assam, 2002-2007", *The Journal of Peasant Studies*, 35(1), 2008, 39-59.
- Shandilya T. K. and Kumar A., *Micro Finance and Rural Development*, New Delhi: Deep and Deep Publications, 2012.
- Sharma, Chandan Kumar, "Tribal Land Alienation: Government's Role", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 36(52), 2001, 4791-4795.
- Sharma, Chandan Kumar and Indrani Sarma, "Issues of conservation and livelihood in a forest village of Assam", *International Journal of Rural Management*, 10(1), 2014, 47-68.
- Sharma. M., "Women in the Ahom Economy: Some Texts Re-Examined", *Proceedings of 22nd session of North East India History Association*, Tezpur. 2001.
- Shrivastava, Rahul J., and Joel T. Heinen, "Migration and home gardens in the Brahmaputra Valley, Assam, India", *Journal of Ecological Anthropology*, 9(1), 2005, 20-34.
- Singh, Balmiki Prasad, "North-east India: Demography, culture and identity crisis", *Modern Asian Studies*, 21(2), 1987, 257-282.
- Tamuli, Jitu, and Saswati Choudhury, "RE looking at forest policies in Assam: facilitating reserved forests as de facto open access", MPRA Paper 29560, University Library of Munich, Germany, 2009. ★

A Study on Stress Management among Students and Youth

Swaty* and Mohan Kumar**

Stress is definitely a big word with even bigger impact, however this can be dealt with small changes that we bring in our day to day life. Stress is a frustrating condition as it contains an excess of work and an overload which reduces the concentration, mentality and the normal working condition. Stress is experienced by managers, financers, government officials, administrators, politicians, house wives and is most prevalent amongst students. Stress has become part of students' academic life due to the various internal and external expectations placed upon their shoulders. Adolescents are particularly vulnerable to the problems nowadays associated with academic stress as transitions occur at an individual and social level. It is essential to identify the cause of the stress so that it can be addressed meticulously and efficient interventions can be outlined. Stress is always seen as subjective process and encompasses individual's personal analysis and counter to a threatening event. Stress can result in depression, anxiety and many other hazardous conditions. The rise in the number of workshops being conducted for Stress Management, various articles being published, research reports etc. is an

- * Assistant Professor of Commerce, Government Girls College, Rewari-123110, Haryana (India)
- ** Assistant Professor of Commerce, Government College Bahu, Jhajjar-124142, Haryana (India) E-mail<singlamohan1@gmail.com>

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April-June), 2022 Peer Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed International Research Journal implication of the escalation of stress related cases in the past few decades. This study deals with the conceptual framework of the stress, causes of stress amongst students and the ways to manage stress. The study reveals that 61.89% of the respondents are stressed due to the factor 'Academics' whereas highest level of stress is generated due to 'Future and career growth' which is reported by 79.54% of respondents. It is observed that due to the increasing use of social media the relationship stress is increasing reported by 68.39% respondents. Keeping the results of the study in view, it may be suggested to the young people that make objective planned and systematic use of technology within limits and share your emotions with your loved ones i.e. friends and family members, listening music, play games and do yoga.

[Keywords: Stress, Anxiety, Adolescents, Stress Management]

1. Introduction

Stress is a perception of emotional or physical tension. There are number of incidents in a person's life that leads to negative emotions like anger, frustration and nervousness that further develops stress in an individual. Stress is the body's reaction to challenge or demand. It can be positive at times; however prolonged stress can lead to severe health conditions. Students are most frequently affected by stress due to their academic and personal life. Students face various challenges, difficulties and a whole lot of pressure in today's competitive world. Students get to be trained in handling stress and should get out from it. Stress is the process by which an individual or a person reacts when opened to external or internal problems and challenges. The stress has direct effect on the brain and the whole anatomy of the body as such failure to adapt to a stressful condition can result in brain malfunction, physiological problem and also many areas of psychological challenge's in the form of depression, anxiety, pain and burnout.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) recently conducted a survey involving 72 countries and consisting of 5,40,000 student respondents aged. On average across OECD countries, 66% of students reported feeling stressed about poor grades and 59% reported that they often worry that taking a test will be difficult. The OECD further found that 55% of students feel very anxious about school testing, even when they are well prepared. As many 37% of students reported feeling very tense when studying, with girls consistently reporting greater anxiety relating to schoolwork compared to boys (OECD, 2017). This data

demonstrates that education and academic performance are a significant source of stress to students.

In today's world stress has been an integral part of life and the body's reaction to a challenge because it is not limited to adults only. The stress is increasingly affecting children of all age group. A certain amount of stress is an inevitable and useful part of studying. It assists students to work harder, be focused and return to study rather than doing other things. However, if students are too stressed, they cannot study effectively. It is important to distinguish between stress that assists students to study and stress that prevents students from studying effectively. Everywhere we go, we hear people complaining that students don't concentrate on learning. We see several consultants, trainers, and life coaches assist other people with attaining it. Beyond doubt, stress management has been one of the catchphrases for student's commitment towards their performance on academics, student's relation with fellow students, the more they try or worry the less they can study effectively.

2. Types of Stress

We most commonly refer to stress as a feeling of emotional pressure and stress when we feel unable to cope or are overwhelmed by something. It also affects numerous other systems within us, including our metabolism, memory, and immune system.

- Acute Stress: Acute stress results from your body's reaction to a new or challenging situation. It's that feeling you get from an approaching deadline or when you narrowly avoid being hit by a car. We can even experience it as a result of something we enjoy. Like an exhilarating ride on a roller coaster or an outstanding personal achievement. Acute stress is classified as short-term. Usually, emotions and the body return to their normal state relatively soon. The Symptoms of acute stress are pupil dilation, heart rate increases, emotional ups and downs, poor sleep.
- **Description Episodic Acute Stress:** Episodic acute stress is when acute stresses happen on a frequent basis. This can be because of repeatedly tight work deadlines. It can also be because of the frequent high-stress situations experienced by some professionals, such as healthcare workers. With this type of stress, we don't get time to return to a relaxed and calm state. And the

effects of the high-frequency acute stresses accumulate. It often leaves us feeling like we are moving from one crisis to another. The symptoms of this stress are muscle tension, poor concentration, feeling overwhelmed, uncontrolled anger and irritability and migraines etc.

➤ Chronic Stress: Chronic stress is the result of stressors that continue for a long period of time. Examples include living in a high-crime neighborhood or constantly fighting with your life partner. This type of stress feels never-ending. We often have difficulty seeing any way to improve or change the situation that is the cause of our chronic stress. The symptoms of chronic stress are weight gain, insomnia, emotional fatigue, heightened levels of adrenaline and feelings of helplessness.

3. Causes of Stress among Students

The events that provoke stress are called stressors, and they cover a whole range of situations everything from outright physical danger to making a class presentation or taking a semester's worth of your toughest subject. Some of the main stressor among students are as under:

- Academics: The students worry about academic performance which can cause stress symptoms such as anxiety, insomnia or changes in your appetite and overall mood. According to Morehouse State University, youth have poor study habits and cram last minute studying in the night before exams. The fear of exams and workload create stress among students. The first cause of stress among university students is a lot of assignments.
- ➤ Finances: All young people feel stress about money. Most young people do not have jobs, or the jobs that they have don't pay as much as they would like for them to. They want to maintain the lifestyle and fulfill the demand of articles like mobile, bikes and cars etc. If they fail to fulfill the requirement then it creates a stress.
- Relationships: Relationships are another big aspect of stress. Everyone wants to have friends, whether they are close friends or just acquaintances. If a person finds that making friends is a bit harder than he/she had expected, stress is present here as well.

- ➤ Career: Job Stress is a chronic disease caused among the current youth that negatively affect an individual's performance and/or overall well-being of his body and mind. The high competition, an inconsiderate work colleague, a lack of job security, there are many causes of job stress. The students have fear of not getting the job opportunity and competition in the market.
- **Time Management :** A lack of time management also causes stress on youth, whether secondary or tertiary. Balancing academics, peer activities, and home life can be difficult. Toss in a part-time job and the challenge increases.

4. Managing Stress

'Stress is a normal, and in some cases, helpful part of everyday life,' explains Kate Aitchison, team manager of the counselling and mental health team at Newcastle University. 'The adrenaline that comes as part of our stress response can be motivating and actually help us to perform better. The difficulty comes when stress tips over to distress. When stress is having a negative impact on day-to-day life, when it stops you achieving, relaxing or communicating - that's when some support may help.' Successful coping mechanisms differ for everyone, but if stress is beginning to affect the mental wellbeing, the following strategies should be followed:

- Confront the Stressor: Perhaps one of the best ways to manage your stress is to simply deal with the cause of it directly. If your busy schedule is making you anxious, sit down and see what you can change. If you're attending a traditional university, and are finding that it just isn't going to fit with your scheduling needs, consider transferring to an online university that may be a better fit.
- ➤ Time Management: Proper time management is one of the most effective stress-relieving techniques. Whether it's relaxation, work or study, time must be spent wisely. Students must be able to design and stick to a timetable. Choose a relaxing break between work and study, even if it's just taking out time to breathe. Developing a schedule and managing time properly indicates goals and priorities. Always students should try to plan ahead and avoid procrastination, and then they can manage stress effectively. However if they are stretching too

- thin and running behind, then it is always advisable to stay calm and focused. Hence, make a 'To Do list' or a planner and keep track of deadlines and schedules and learn to say 'No' so that they can beat stress.
- ▶ Be Organized: Organization is very important in academic life for dealing with stress. By keeping academic notes organized, turning in assignments on time, and keeping track of all deadlines, stress can be reduced to a great extent. Always make a habit of keeping the system of organization of note-taking, keeping track of assignments, and other important papers. As a result of which they can develop a good study environment where they can concentrate, focus and get things done. Moreover if they are well organized, they can bring the peace of mind that comes from knowing where everything is, remembering deadlines and test dates, and clearing mind of some of the mental clutter.
- **»** Exercise, Nutrition and Sleep: A proper exercise, healthy diet and enough sleep can beat stress to a large extent. They have to be to be well rested, for a great stress relieves action. So make all work and live a stress free life.
- **» Spend Time With Loved Ones :** Surround yourself with people who you like to spend time with and enjoy their company. Being around someone who makes you feel comfortable can relieve a great deal of stress, even if you don't talk about what's troubling you. A cup of coffee with family or friends is all you need to bring your stress levels back to normal. Stress can also get worse if a person feels lonely. By letting out all your thoughts to someone you trust, you immediately feel a lot better. In addition to the health benefits of stress management and relaxation, Students can also enjoy the benefits of improved relationships with friend's family, parents and teachers. When they are stressed their family feels the effects of that stress, and it is common to take out some of the anger and frustration on family. Family can feel like they are walking through a mine field, never knowing when stress level will trigger an explosion of frustration. If stress is reduced it leads to more relaxation making them happy, and in turn, family friends, teachers will be happier. Stress management and relaxation should be practiced by everyone, especially those who work from home.

Reducing stress can lead to many benefits and schools pressurize the students way too much for the higher grades that disheartens the students, further to add on there is not enough support from the parents and school in terms of guidance. Significant difference in mental health of students from private and government schools was found. He asserted that students from private schools have a different nurturing and vast exposure as compared to government school students who belong to poor socio economic background and lack of exposure. This is one of the reasons for the escalation of stress.

Reddy (2018) in their study concludes that stream wise difference in stress does exist in students. It is important to deal with stress at personal, social and institutional level. Remedies such as feedback, yoga, life skills training, mindfulness, meditation and psychotherapy have been found useful to deal with stress. To identify the main reason of stress is the key to deal with it. The integrated well being include improved health and improved relationships, using stress management techniques like knowing your triggers, exercising, meditating, organizing and taking vacations are essential ways to de-stress and learns how to relax.

"Happiness is not about getting all you want, it is about enjoying all you have."

Get professional support: You may find yourself needing more support than your loved ones can offer or grappling with stressors that are too much for you to deal with. Don't hesitate to reach out for help from a professional. Your school likely has many support resources available to help, even if you are an online student.

5. Review of Literature

Agolla (2009) concluded that stress has become an important topic in academic circles. Many philosophers have carried out considerable research on stress and concluded that this topic needs way more attention.

Radcliff and Lester (2003) studied the anticipated stress among final year undergraduate students and acknowledged that class assignments, not enough guidance, pressure to mingle and to get associated were the reasons for the stress to build up.

McKean (2000) argue that undergraduate students experience higher stress at expected times in each semester. Academic

engagements, financial pressures and lack of time management skills lead to building up of stress. Excessive stress can affect well being, emotional attitude and academic performance.

Busari (2012) found that stress was leading to depression among secondary school students and is linked with affect on academic achievement. Introduction to preventive measures, teaching life skills and other therapeutic techniques should be taken in to serious consideration.

Bataineh (2013) in his study measured the academic stressors experienced by students at university. The result of the analyses showed that there is an unreasonable academic overload, not enough time to study due to the vast course content being covered, high family expectations and low motivation levels are some of the reasons for the stress. Fear of failure is also the prime reason for stress. There was no significant difference found amongst the students from different of specializations.

Kaur (2014) acknowledged that mental health of teenagers get affected due to the academic stress. Girls with academic stress were found to have poor mental health as compared to the boys. This was accounted on the study that parents at times put pressure and strain on students that leads to deteriorated mental health.

Prabu (2015) researched on the higher secondary students and implied that male students are more stressed than the female students. Urban student's academic stress is greater than the rural students. Government school student's stress is lower than the private school student's stress. Students from Science stream are more stressed than the students from Arts.

Subramani and **Kadhiravan (2017)** revealed the link between academic stress and mental health among students. He endorsed that academic stress and mental health are correlated and that students are cramped with the academic structure. Parents students is important not only for the individual but for the institute as well.

6. Research Methodology

The research study is a descriptive study. The tool employed for generating responses was questionnaire based survey of young candidates who are students. The Information was collected from both primary and secondary data. The variables used are socio-demographic variables, reasons for stress and the strategies they use to cope up with stress.

Tools for Data Collection: A questionnaire is designed with the three sections. One section highlights the symptoms of stress, second section highlights the stressor and third section highlights the coping strategies used by the Youth. In order to achieve the objective both primary and secondary sources of information are relied upon. The primary data was collected through structured questionnaires apart from discussions with students. The questionnaire has main three parts, first part covers the different symptoms on a seven point scale, second part covers the causes of stress through 25 statements on five point scale and last section covers the ten coping strategies.

7. Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

Age	N	Percentage (%)
Upto 20 years	32	29.09
21-22	43	39.09
23-24	26	23.64
Above 25 years	09	08.18
Total	110	100.00

Table-1: Distribution of Respondents according to Age

The above table reveals that the present research has taken the socio-demographic variables, stress of the students as independent variable and their management strategies as dependant variable. The table shows that total numbers of respondent were 110 out of which the maximum respondents i.e. 39.09% belong to the age group 21-22 years, 23.64% respondents from 23-24 years age group, 29.09% respondents from upto 20 years age group and remaining 8.18% from age group above 25 years.

Table-2: Distribution of Respondents according to Gender

Gender	N	Percentage (%)
Male	40	36.36
Female	70	63.64
Total	110	100.00

The above table shows that total no. of male respondents selected for study is 40 and female are 70 i.e 63.64% of the respondents are female and rest are male.

Table-3: Distribution of Respondents according to Symptoms of Stress

Symptoms	Percentage (%)	Rank
Headaches	73.92	3
Tense muscles, sore throat and back fatigue	34.18	9
Anxiety, worry and phobias	85.74	1
Insomnia	67.39	5
Irritability	78.50	2
Bouts of anger	57.16	6
Boredam and depression	69.84	4
Binge eating	51.43	8
Constipation	32.59	10
Restless	56.38	7

The above table indicates that students do experience stress and symptoms of stress experienced by respondents have shown in table 3. The highest percentage is 85.74% of the respondents are suffering from Anxiety, worry and phobias, followed by 79.82% suffering from Irritability and 73.92% suffering from Headaches. It is observed that most of the youth suffering from depression, tension etc. The lifestyle of youth consist of various desires which they want to fulfill if they are not capable to fulfill the wishes they feel somewhat stress. Youngsters may be unable to concentrate on academics and sports. They isolate from family activities or peer relationships. Adolescents may be experimenting with drugs and alcohol. They may have poor appetite and low immunity.

Table-4: Distribution of Respondents according to Level of Causes of Stress

Kind of stress	Level of stress (%)	Rank
Academics	61.89	5
Financial or Economic Stress	72.25	2
Relationship stress	68.39	3
Future/Career growth stress	79.54	1
Psychological stress	66.41	4
Overall stress	69.70	

The above table reveals that 61.89% of the respondents are stressed due to the factor 'Academics' whereas highest level of stress

is generated due to 'Future and career growth' which is reported by 79.54% of respondents. It is observed that due to the increasing use of social media the relationship stress is increasing reported by 68.39% respondents. Further 66.41% of respondents are stressed due to psychological factors followed by 72.25% which are facing financial stress.

Table-5: Activities to Reduce Stress

Action	Percentage (%)	Rank
Play games	67.29	4
Talk with friends	73.61	3
Talk with family members	81.92	1
Go to picnic/ excursions	47.32	8
Listen music	79.33	2
Watch movies with friends	66.76	5
Use internet (Social networking site - facebook, google etc.	59.66	6
Do exercise/yoga	54.15	7
Read self help books	37.22	10
Attend cultural programmes	41.67	9

The above table shows the activities to reduce the stress. The different activities used by the students to reduce the stress level include 'Talk with family members' which is reported by 81.92% respondents to reduce their stress. Other activities to reduce stress as reported by respondents include 'listen music by 79.33%', 'talk with friends' reported by 73.61% respondents. In addition to this other strategies which are reported by respondents as stress reducer include watching movies, playing games and using internet.

8. Conclusion

With increasing complexity in our lifestyle, the level of stress has been rising at a phenomenal rate. It is very clear from the findings that students and youth are highly stressed. The symptoms of stress identified from the present study include Anxiety, worry and phobias, Irritability and headaches, are more among students. The study reveals that the main causes of stress among respondents under present study is future and career growth, financial and relationship stress. They want to maintain the social network and thus are

increasing the networking with the use of technology. They have fear of job opportunity and how to survive in the competitive environment. Young respondents were able to identify some strategies to cope with stress such as talk with family members, meditation, enough sleeping, going out with the friends and counseling. It is observed that due to the increased use of social media, the young generation become self centered and only connect with the technology. It reduces the physical movement of the body and spending time with relatives and friends. All these factors create stress which increases the cases of depression and suicide. Keeping the results of the study in view, it may be suggested to the young people that make objective planned and systematic use of technology within limits and share your emotions with your loved ones i.e. friends and family members, Listening Music Play games and do Yoga.

References

- Agolla, J. E., "Occupational Stress among Police Officers, The case of Botswana Police service", *Res. J. Bus. Manage*, 2(1), 2009, 25-35.
- Auerbach, M. S. and Grambling, S. E., "Stress Management Psychological Foundations", *Scholarly Journal of Education*, U.S.A, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1998.
- Bataineh, M. Z., "Academic stress among undergraduate students: the case of education faculty at King Saud University", *International Inter-disciplinary Journal of Education*, 2(1), 2013, 82-88.
- Bernstein, D. A., Penner, L. A, Stewart, A. C. and Roy, E. J., *Psychology* (8th edition), New York: Houghton Mifflin Company Boston, 2008.
- Busari, A. O., "Evaluating the Relationship between Gender, Age, Depression and Academic Performance among Secondary School Students", *International Journal of Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary Studies*, 4(2), 2012, 6-12.
- Denise Pfeiffer, Academic And Environmental Stress Among Undergraduate And Graduate College Students: A Literature Review, The Graduate School University of Wisconsin-Stout December, 2001.
- Kaur, S., "Impact of Academic Stress on Mental Health: A Study of School going Adolescents", *Global Journal for Research Analysis*, 3(4), 2014, 27-29.
- Khan, M. J. and Altaf, S. Kausar, H., "Effect of Perceived Academic Stress on Students' Performanc"e, *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(2), 2013, 146-151.
- Macan, T. H., Shahani, C., Dipboye, R. L. & Phillips, A. P., "College Students' Time Management: Correlations with Academic Performance and Stress", *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(4), 1990, 760-768.

- Nandamuri, P. P. and Gowthami, Ch., "Sources of Academic Stress-A Study on Management Students", *Journal of Management and Science*, 1(2), 2011, 31-42.
- Prabu, Suresh P., "A study on academic stress among higher secondary stress", *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*, 4(10), 2015, 63-68.
- Reddy, K. J., Menon. K., Anjanathattil, "Academic Stress and its Sources among University Students", *Biomed Pharmacol Journal*, 11(1), 2018, 531-537.
- Sharma, B. Kumar, A. and Sarin, J., "Academic Stress, Anxiety, Remedial Measures Adopted and Its Satisfaction among Medical Student, A Systematic Review", *International Journal of Health Sciences and Research*, 6(7), 2016, 368-376.
- Sinha, A., "Stress vs Academic Performance", SCMS Journal of Indian Management, 11(4), 2014, 46.
- Subramani, C. and Kadhiravan, S., "Academic Stress and Mental Health among High School Students", *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, 7(5), 2017, 404-406.

Key Components of Scientific and Technical Writing: Demystifying the Complexity that Shrouds it

Sunita Dhankhar*

Technical and scientific writing is the art of creating different technical documents like journal articles, brochures, user manuals, government proposals, instructional guides etc. using user friendly language and simple terminology so that complex and technical information can be communicated to the readers. Efficient technical writing should aim at relating scientific and technical knowledge to everyday life. The rules behind any good writing-reflecting, effective listening and learning the art of receiving and giving feedback are to be adhered to. The aim of scientific and technical writers is to simplify scientific and technical news and issues in an easily comprehensible language to both academic and non-academic audiences. It demands precision i.e. the precise use of words and phrases with clarity of language and economy of words. The ultimate aim of any writing is "readability" for the end user. The aim of scientific and technical writing is not to impress, but to communicate clearly and lucidly. The write up has to be

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April-June), 2022 Peer Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed International Research Journal

^{*} Associate Professor, Department of English, Aditi Mahavidyalaya, University of Delhi, Bawana, Delhi-39 (India) E-mail: <sunitadhankhar200@gmail.com>

106 Sunita Dhankhar

logical with an organized development of thought which needs to be crystallized to a level that it makes sense to the reader. This paper attempts to demystify the complexity that surrounds the process of scientific and technical writing.

[Keywords: Scientific, Writing, Technical, Complex, Instruction, Communication]

1. Introduction

George Gopen and Judith Swan in The Science of Scientific Writing have said that:

The fundamental purpose of scientific discourse is not the mere presentation of information and thought, but rather its actual communication. It does not matter how pleased an author might be to have converted all the rights data into sentences and paragraphs; it matters only whether a large majority of the reading audience accurately perceives what the author had in mind.

Technical writing needs to be clear, concise, logical and organized. Logic has to be imposed and thoughts need to be crystallized by the writer to a level so that it makes sense to the reader. The first step is to create an outline which is in a logical order, weaving the main and subordinate ideas in a comprehensible way. Creating an effective outline takes the greatest investment of your time. The rationale behind assigning priority of position to all sentences should be evident in the way the supporting ideas flow from the topic sentence in the organization of paragraphs. The entire piece of writing should maintain a natural logic and all paragraphs should be clearly organized around section headings and sub sections. The transition between sections, paragraphs, sentences within sentences should be effective and smooth. Avoid weak phrases - instead, use strong verbs and concrete nouns. The ultimate aim should be to strive to make the implicit, explicit - Never assume that just because as a writer you know what you meant to say, the reader understands it too. Put yourself in the readers' shoes, view the writing objectively with a fresh perspective before finishing the document.

Even the most ground breaking research will make no sense for a wider audience and will be a waste are if it is unable to be comprehended by a non-technical reader. The use of jargon and flowery language, no matter how creative the expression will make the work incomprehensible to the general public. The key to effective technical writing is by simplifying the writing, by avoiding lengthy generalizations, using minimum abbreviations, using clear and interesting topical sentences and summarizing frequently. This type of writing is different as compared to business writing, academic writing or creative writing. The nuances and rules are different toothe author writes about a subject that requires direction, exploration and instruction - hence the writing format has to match the purpose.

2. Characteristics, Purpose and Key Components of Technical and Scientific Writing: Understanding the Basics

All good technical writers practice some thumb rules in writing. Firstly, they are committed to taking writing as a process - a process that calls for a lot of planning and rethinking. It is important to identify your audience and align your writing to their expectations. Take control over that material in hand and have absolute clarity about the purpose of your writing so that you can arrange your thoughts and material accordingly. Do not rush through technical writing - budget adequate time to write, revise, review and edit what you write. Avoid jargon because unfamiliarity of abbreviations and slangs may leave the audience perplexed. It you do use unfamiliar terms, clarify them in their first occurrence and define them right away. Use words efficiently- never use two words when one could do; remember the golden rule - less is more. Try to pin down the main message or the key information in the main clause. Another skill master is to remove redundancy by combining overlapping sentences as far as possible. Do not unnecessarily throw data at audience - although significant data is desirable, use it wisely so that it is balances with the audiences need for clarity. A word of caution-brevity, too, should never be at the expense of the audiences- for example, substitute functionality with feature, aforementioned with mentioned, utilization with use, finalise with end. Circumlocution only adds to the ambiguity. Avoid overuse of abstract nouns; order the word arrangement in sentences carefully and do not overuse pronouns. To be words should be used sparingly, as must excess words that slow comprehension. Prefer active voice over passive because it is more straight forward and stronger. To summarize, for technical writing to be effective, plan an outline of your document before you begin drafting. This skill does not develop overnight-it comes with sustained practice after planning, drafting, reading revising editing, self-reviewing, getting peer reviewed and getting feedback from subject experts; remember there is no shortcut to success.

108 Sunita Dhankhar

3. Communicating in Science and Technology: Pitfalls as compared to General Writing

"We live in a society exquisitely dependent on science and technology, in which hardly anyone knows anything about science and technology," stated Carl Sagan. The above quote clearly illustrates the challenge posed to technical writers when they have the herculean task of communicating scientific/technical information to the world of non-scientists and non-technologists. It calls for technical writers to vary their writing styles to match the needs of the audience. The task is even more challenging because the same document has to be shared as a hard copy, as an online manual and at times even in the form of a presentation. So, the writer needs to be flexible and versatile to use his/her expertise to process the content skilfully. In a way, the writer plays an additional role of a translator in communicating professional information to people with other background. There are both, perils and opportunities associated with this. The leeward side may be that we distort the essence by diluting the content through over simplification reflecting a non-specialist approach. If we take it positively, the same issue gives us an opportunity to communicate with multiple audience and the writer's lucidity and style may offer new insights and better understanding of the issue. "Many scientists, in communicating with the wider public operate from the deficit model, which assumes public deficiency but scientific sufficiency", observed Davies (Davies, 2008) She further notes that this model adopts a tap down communication process, "In which scientists - with all the required information filled the knowledge vacuum in the scientifically illiterate general public as they saw fit." It means that a model-comprising of public-deemed to be ignorant, leads to a model of communication through filling of knowledge vacuum, thereby tying up two concepts. The key to efficient technical writing therefore lies in relating scientific/technical knowledge to people's lives and by communicating great ideas relevant to people rather than detailing research behind the scientific and technical world.

This principle should apply irrespective of whether you are writing a manual, a research article or a documentary. Scientific and technical writers must also realize that their job is not merely "sharing information" but also persuasion. Kovac points out that:

Scientists and thinkers and writers not robots or just recorders of data that 'write up' their findings. In fact, the scientific article is a human made text designed to persuade.

He further elaborates to say rhetoric and rhetorical devices like metaphors must not be limited to genres like literature because their use can help technical/scientific writers to achieve conceptual or paradigm breakthroughs. Another tricky situation might be when the technical writer is also the subject expert. "In some technical and scientific writing situations, professional writers need to work with subject matter specialists to produce documents of various kinds." (Lee and Mehlenbacher 2000; Lagnado, 2003). Both cases can work as pitfall situation or efficient partnership depending on how the situation is handled. If the unison is positive the outcome will be productive and enlightening; else, if metacommunication is poor the outcome will be acrimonious. The subject matter specialists may step over the line if they feel the technical writers are over powering them or patronizing them. Conversely, they may feel that the technical writer is too illiterate in scientific knowledge ending up in frustration. The technical writers, at times, may experience lack of respect or may experience difficulty in understanding what the expert wants him to document due to poor communication skills. The entire scenario is dependent on metacommunication i.e. communicating about communication.

Technical writing differs from general writing on several aspects. If it comes to purpose of writing- general writing may be done with the purpose to entertain or inform but in technical writing the primary purpose is to inform the reader about a specific issue. The relationship of the writer to the subject matter in cases of general writing is usually that of an observer; whereas in cases of technical writing the writer may be a participant as well as an observer. Quotations, slangs, pun, humour are common and acceptable in general writing but technical writers refrain from all this and generally rely on passive voice and third person while drafting their communication. A general writer does usually define specific terms and technical work but a technical writer assumes that the reader knows and understands them. When it comes to presentation, in general writing the emphasis is on the medium of communication as well as the message. Time is also spent on colour and layout; but technical writers purely focus on the message they intend to communication and colour and layout is not so important. The focus and impact of writing also varies- in general writing, there may be no immediate impact but in technical writing the consumers act on instructions and decision makers implement recommendations.

110 Sunita Dhankhar

The style and language of technical writing can thus be summed up as (i) extensive use of "agentless" passive voice (see Dawson, 2007, Carraway, 2006) (ii) extensive use of technical vocabulary and nominalisations (iii) long sentences and long paragraphs (iv) standardized expressions instead of idiosyncratic ones (v) complete avoidance of first and second person pronouns. When these principles are adhered to, the output is a piece of scientific/technical prose that can be read by readers with reasonable level of education.

In scientific/technical writing, however be wary of certain pitfalls. Firstly, be wary of "low readability." To overcome this pitfall, use simple standard English - using more verbs than nominalisations and choose graphic representations over heavy prose. Hartley, Sotto and Pennebaker (2002) in their analysis of scientific articles found that "articles that had good readability scores that is, that could be read by more rather than less, people with limited education were also more influential within the audiences they aimed at." Hedging i.e., the inability to convey clearly what is intended in communication is also a big challenge with technical writers. They encrust the basic argument like layers in an onion. It is heavily laden with restrictions and disclaimers. "It should be possible to identify the intrinsic uncertainty of research without inventing dubious extrapolations and marking out escape routes from challenge". (The Lancet, editorial 1995). Another pitfall in technical writing is waffling i.e., padding your document with meaningless and unnecessary words just to meet the word count motive in today's publish or perish world. It may also happen when you are communicating with absolutely lay audience and you try to blindly restate the obvious by dressing it up in superficially impressive technical language. The opposite of waffling is "super compression" which may lead to a complete breakdown of communication in the absence of sufficient information. This may be done unintentionally by the writer when he/she supresses the intermediate steps and contextual clues assuming the audience knows and understands them. While it is important not to dumb down your writing by explaining the obvious in elementary terms, it is equally important to pitch it at a level that is appropriate to the readers. You can do so by creating multiple levels and sections in your document and lace it up with diagrammatic expressions, glossaries, hypertext and by breaking down dense passages into flow chart or sequences. Another major pitfall is ambiguity which arises when the technical writers hold over grammar is poor and they come up "with

double intenders and absurdities that will have their audiences stop scratch their head, trying to separate the constituent parts of a sentence simply to understand what the writer is trying to say." (Caraway, 2006) A good way to address this pitfall is by trying to read aloud your document to see if it makes sense to the listener. Over citation in a piece of technical writing does not speak high about the writer. In fact, it reflects his / her lack of understanding of the subject. Using too many references and citations indicate that you are standing on another person's shoulders rather than demonstrating your wider reading. If your citations are too many and irrelevant they indicate that you are using them as a smoke screen to conceal your weak grasp over the subject or just name dropping. The reader wants to know your perspective. Ralph Waldon Emerson 19th Century American writer, rightly puts it, "I hate quotations. Tell me what you know".

4. Types of Scientific and Technical Documents : Their Aspects, Utility and Drafting

Readers come from diverse backgrounds, varying levels of knowledge and their motivation levels are also different. The purpose of reading is different too- while some read to learn others read to do i.e., extract information for present use only. Based on this different documents need to be written differently to cater to the communication needs of the audiences.

Reports and Proposals: Reports perform a variety of functions - they may be wholly informative, or wholly persuasive, or a mix of the two. Shorter reports tend to be more informative in nature and are commonly used in the field of science and technology to keep record for people, places and processes. Longer reports follow a three-tiered structure (i) The first section comprising of cover, the title page, summary, abstract, contents page, list of illustrations and index components (ii) the second section consists of the body of the report containing introduction, discussion, conclusion and recommendations (iii) The end matter is the last section and includes references, appendices, glossary and index components. Proposals, tenders, submissions are of a similar nature as long reports and are chiefly persuasive in nature. If you need to fund for a project, you will be expected to pitch it as in Shark Tanks- for example. Alternatively, to compete in the market you might need additional

112 Sunita Dhankhar

push to move your product. All this calls for communicators to be more skilled in document creation.

Research articles and Papers : "There is no form of prose more difficult to understand and more tedious to read than the average scientific paper." (Crick, 1995) Research papers are purely technical writing published in professional journals that are either peer-reviewed or refereed. Anonymous reviewers' comment on the quality of your work and make suggestions regarding publication. Research papers communicate details or research - like the new information created, hypothesis tested via experimentation or simply a review of a particular area. The aim may be any of the following (i) to add to the pool of existent knowledge (ii) to claim ownership of ideas/findings (iii) to further the cause of promotion and recognition (iv) for professional survival (v) to enhance the reputation of the organization one works for (vi) to satisfy the writers ego (vii) to develop one's writing abilities and knowledge. The conventionally accepted structure for research papers includes the title, abstract, keyword Introduction, methods and material, result and discussion. There are laid down guidelines for each section that need to be followed.

Instructions/Brochures/Manuals: A one page assembly instruction for an office chair, an information booklet accompanying a pressure cooker, manual for a new car, brochure on covid management at home, an office manual for policies and procedures all are examples of technical writing. Some are vital documents for marketing products. If these documents are well written they can boost sales and help generated revenues. "Such documents have legal implications too and in case they are ambiguous, confusing or incorrect then customers have a right to sue." (Lannon, 2002). The common assumption is that when all else fails, read the manual. This in itself, sums up the importance of document writing.

5. Roles and Responsibilities of Technical Writers for Seamless Documentation

Boredom and unimaginative writing are usually associated with technical writing. In sharp contrast, technical writers are expected to have a good memory and fertile imagination.

Writers must remember what it was to be without the expert knowledge they now have and to put themselves in the position of absolute beginners; and they must imagine the needs of the variety of users who necessarily have a variety of needs and ways of perceiving things (Eisenberg, 1989).

If technical knowledge helps with the content of the document, technical writing aids the process of communication. Technically sound experts may be amateurs at writing and writers are usually not as sound technically. So who writes documents and manuals? For technical writers this is a continuous dilemma. They need to understand the subtleties and write with a complete overview of the issue. The little ignorance of technical perfection works as a boon because it helps a technical writer to unsentimentally edit what does not make sense without pumping emotions into it. They help maintain neutrality, enhance accessibility and user-friendliness.

6. Conclusion

Technical and scientific writing is an art that helps to communicate complex information in simplistic terms. It is not the same as academic or creative writing because it involves sharing information which may be scientific and technical with an audience who may or may not belong to that discipline. So they need to vary their writing style to match the needs, abilities and motivation of diverse audiences. They make use of different document types to convey different messages or to convey the same message in different ways. The path is laid with opportunities and pitfalls; it depends on the technical writers how to maximize the output in the given means.

References

- Alexandrov, A. V. and Hennerici, M. G., "Writing good abstracts", *Cerebrovasc Dis.*, 23(4), 2007, 256-9.
- Carraway, Leslie N., "Improve scientific writing and avoid perishing", *The American Midland Naturalist*, 155(2), 2006, 383-394.
- Cartwright R., Khoo, A. K. and Cardozo, L., "Publish or be damned? The fate of abstracts presented at the International Continence Society Meeting 2003", *Neurourol Urodyn*, 26(2), 2007, 154-7.
- Chandler, H. E., *Technical Writer's Handbook*, United States: American Society for Metals, 1983.
- Crick, Francis, *The Astonishing Hypothesis : The Scientific search for the Soul,* London : Touchstone, 1995.
- Davies, Paul, *The Mind of God*: *Science and the Search for Ultimate Meaning*, London: Penguin, 1993.

114 Sunita Dhankhar

Davies, R. Sarah, "Constructing Communication: Talking to Scientists about Talking to the Public", *Science Communication*, 29(4), 2008, 413-414.

- Dawson, Chris, "Prescriptions and proscriptions: The three Ps of scientific writing past, passive and personal", *Teaching Science*, 53(2), 2007, 36-38.
- Eisenberg, Ann, Writing Well for the Technical Professions, New York: Harper & Row, 1989.
- "English as she is wrote", *The Lancet*, 21 October 1995, 346(8982), 1045.
- Eunson, Baden, Writing in Plain English, Brisbane: John Wiley & Sons, 1996.
-, Writing and Presenting Reports, Brisbane: John Willey & Sons, 1995.
- Hartley James, Eric Sotto and James Pennebaker, "Style and Substance in Psychology: Are Influential Articles More Readable than Less Influential Ones", *Social Studies of Science*, 32(2), April 2002, 321-34.
- Hayden, J. D., "Readability in the British Journal of Surgery", *British Journal of Surgery*, 95, 2008, 119-124.
- Herring, David, *Why it is important to effectively communicate technical information*, NASA Committee for Education and Public Outreach, NASA Earth Sciences Division, 3, 1995, 130-137.
- Horton, William, "Let's do away with manuals ... before they do away with us", *Technical Communication*, 40(1), 1993, 26-37.
- Kirkman, John, *Good Style: Writing for Science and Technology*, 2nd edn., London: Routledge, 2006.
- Kovac, Jeffrey, "Writing as Thinking", Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 988, 2003, 233-238.
- Lagnado, M., "Professional writing assistance: effects on biomedical publishing", *Learned Publishing*, 16(1), 2003, 21-7.
- Lannon, John, *Technical Communication*, 9th edn., New York: Longman, 2002.
- Lee, Martha F. and Mehlenbacher, Brad, "Technical writer/ subject-matter expert interaction: the writer's perspective, the organizational challenge", *Technical Communication*, 47(4). 2000, 544-53.
- Lindsay, David, *A Guide to Scientific Writing*, 2nd edn., Melbourne: Longman, 1996.
- Meyer, B. D., "The ABCs of New-look Publications", *Technical Communication*, 33, 1986, 16-20. ★

Women of Slum : Reproductive Health Diseases of Neglected Populations

Sarita Verma* and P. K. Gupta**

This study is focuses on Reproductive morbidity and mortality i.e. RTI/STI, because they are very high relative to those associated with other health problems. The impact of RTIs on the transmission of HIV infection and the morbidity and mortality of HIV adds substantially to the total health impact of RTIs. This study has been conducted in six urban slum in the Lucknow city. Many women believe that reproductive health problems - discharge or pain are simply 'women's fate' and therefore, not a condition for which they should seek medical helps. There is a still high untreated reproductive morbidity found among the urban slum population or they seek help unprofessional person. Reproductive morbidity to illustrate the range of acute and chronic morbidities that can affect women related to pregnancy and childbearing that are prevalent in slum areas: anaemia, maternal depression etc. in slum areas. Cause of reproductive morbidity is poor nutrition, insufficient

- * Assistant Professor, Department of Humanities and Arts, MUIT University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh (India) E-mail: <ysarita.verma@gmail.com>
- ** Associate Professor, Department of Sociology, Lucknow University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh (India) E-mail: <pre

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April-June), 2022 Peer Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed International Research Journal sanitation, lack of schooling, lack of agency in families and societies, as well as exposure to gender-based violence.

[Keywords: Reproductive Tract Infection and Sexually Transmitted Infection (RTI/STI), Gynecological disease, Obstetric morbidity, Contraceptive morbidity]

1. Introduction

The magnitude of women's reproductive health problems in India is immense. It is a common problem in India for women in the reproductive age group to suffer from reproductive illnesses and not seek care. Reproductive health status of women in developing countries as indicated by various available this indicator of maternal mortality is very alarming. The figures of MMR, IMR, of developing countries concerned highlight not only the enormity of the poor health status of women, but also the sharp disparity between the developing and developed countries in context.

In India also quite a few studies have examined different aspects of reproductive health of women and men including morbidity and treatment seeking behavior. It was also recognized that women suffer silently from a large number of reproductive illness, which were termed as the silent emergency. This understanding lead to women's health researchers and activists focusing more on women's health, especially in the field of reproductive health.

In India or other developing and low income countries morbidity due to reproductive tract infection/sexual transmitted infection (RTI/STI) are very high relative to those associated with other health problems. Various conceptualizations of reproductive health (Evans et al. 1987; Germaine 1987; Fathalla 1988; Zurayk 1988) consider reproductive morbidity as inclusive of conditions of physical ill-health related to 'successful childbearing' and 'freedom from gynecological disease and risk'. It 's well recognized that in patriarchal setting such as India, hierarchical, unequal gender relations and unequal gender norms impact women's sexual reproductive health, reproductive choice and act as significant obstacles to access services and facilities. Women became more infirmity than men because women's responsibilities and incompatible is relatively compatible with sick role and women assigned social roles which are more stressful than men; consequently they have more illness.

Women illness → Biological risk → Acquired risks → Illness behavior → Health reporting symptoms → Prior health care and caretakers.

Reproductive health needs in India poorly understood and ill served. Although reproductive health addresses not only women health but also addresses empowerment and, rights of women. Reproductive morbidity is an outcome of not just biological factors but also of women's poverty, inability and lack of control over the resources as well. Its shows that women health issues or a problem in India is immense ignored and marginalized too. Studies represent that adolescent and women have high prevalence of RTIs/STI and gynecological morbidity. Few women, however, seek treatment for these problems, mainly because of familial and social constraints that limit their knowledge of and access to reproductive health services.

2. Obstetric and Gynecological Morbidity

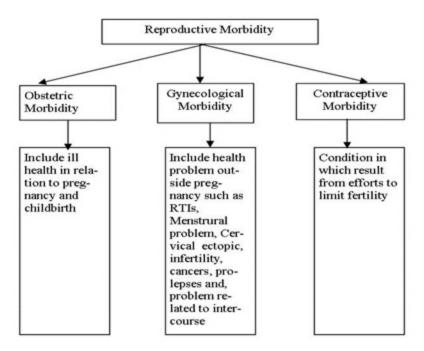
Morbidity is a diseased state, disability, or poor health due to any cause. The term may be used to refer to the existence of any form of disease, or to the degree that the health condition affects the patient. Women and men in India commonly suffer from reproductive tract infections (RTIs) and sexually transmitted infections (STIs), but many do not have information about or access to the treatment they need or are reluctant to seek treatment because of perceived social consequences. The magnitude of women's reproductive health problems in India is enormous. Women suffer silently from large numbers of reproductive health illness, for which termed as the silent emergency.

The World Health Organization (1992) has defined reproductive morbidity as consisting of three types of morbidity:

- Obstetric morbidity (Obstetric morbidity is the equivalent of maternal morbidity)
- Gynecologic morbidity, and
- Contraceptive morbidity.

Reproductive morbidities include gynecological and obstetric morbidities. Gynecological morbidities include :

- ▶ Reproductive tract infections (RTI),
- » Menstrual disorders,
- » Reproductive endocrinal disorders, and
- Primary infertility.



Obstetric morbidities are related to pregnancy, delivery or treatment of conditions that arise during pregnancy or delivery. These can be acute and chronic. The short term or acute morbidities occur during pregnancy, delivery or within six months of delivery or abortion and include eclampsia, antepartum and postpartum hemorrhage, obstructed labour, sepsis and post abortion bleeding or sepsis. In India many women will experience maternal death directly related during the pregnancy. Other facts is mostly women is malnourished when they breastfeeding for infants it places considerable demands on mothers, consuming substantial proportions of their protein, calories, and minerals intake. Benefits of breastfeeding for women and infant is well established but other hand women compromised nutrition their; the over al effect is physically they are became so week and easily infected by several disease like anemia, cardimyopathies, diabetes, dracunculiasis, genital mutilation, HIV/AIDS, hypertension, Sickle-cell disease, Leprosy, and Sexually transmitted diseases etc.

The worldwide emergence of sexually transmitted infections has bought attention to women's reproductive and sexual health. Women's reproductive and sexual health had for decades been a neglected area of international research (Graham and Campbel, 1999, Sen and Snow, 1994). This concern emerge a worldwide vision to develop the reproductive health and reduced morbidity level in over

countries, for that countries make policies, health programme and develop health sector in country. These issues feature more prominently in policy and programme development of government and non-governmental organizations (Muller et al., 1991).

Such concern with sexual and reproductive health gained momentum with the International Conference on Population and Development at Cairo in 1994, various views on human rights, population, sexual and reproductive health, gender equality and sustainable development merged into a remarkable global consensus that placed individual dignity and human rights, including the right to plan one's family, at the very heart of development. Programme of action articulated the need to meet the reproductive health requirements of Individuals. In the context of India, the impetus to bringing these and related issues in to the public domain began with a community based epidemiological study of gynecological morbidity in Maharashtra (Bang etal., 1989).

According to WHO (1995), more than one-third of entire healthy life have lost adolescent and adult women due to reproductive health problems. They often deal with unwanted pregnancy; Risk due to unprotected abortion, the risk of contraception, RTI and STI risk including HIV infection.

Prevalence of reproductive tract infections (RTI) is detrained by number of factors. An association between pelvic inflammatory diseases (PID) women and husband extramarital sexual relation has been well documented (Ooman, 2000). Use of contraception especially, IUD, female sterilization and abortion procedures also increases risk of RTI/STI (Gittlesohn et al., 1994, Bhatia and Cleland, 1995). Also obstetric experiences of women and certain routine procedures during gynecological examination may lead to contracting RTI's. Lack of menstrual and personal hygiene is also found to be associated with RTI's. In addition, there are socioeconomic and cultural determinants of RTI's studies have shown strong association between women's livelihood, work and their reproductive health (Oomen, 2000).

In the study conducted at rural Karnataka women experienced potentially life threatening morbidity in the antenatal period (swelling, fits and convulsions, hypertension, bleeding, and high fever), eight percent during delivery (long labour, excessive bleeding, loss of consciousness, ruptured uterus, tom vagina or cervix, and convulsions), and during the post-partum period (long

labour, excessive bleeding, loss of consciousness, and convulsions) (Bhatia and Cleland, 1996). A studied antenatal care, antenatal morbidity and care seeking behavior has reveal that mostly women reported some antenatal problems. The most frequently reported were abdominal pain, followed by anemia, inability to digest, and nausea.(Kapil, U. 1990) A study for accessing the quality of care of institutional maternity services in an urban slum in India. It was found that quality is far from optimal in both public and private health facilities. The problems include lack of essential drugs, evidence of physical and verbal abuse, birth occurring in hospital without a professional attendance. Thus, overall quality of care was poor. (Dubey, V. P et al., 1999). After the study we identify some chronic diseases which found mostly in slum areas of Lucknow-

Chronic Diseases that need Medical Intervention by the Formal Health Sector Services

Disease	Chronic Diseases and Medical Intervention			
Chronic Diseases				
Diabetes	Kidney failure requiring transplantation or dialysis, chronic infection, acute recurrent infections (urinary tract infection, sepsis, pneumonia), blindness, sexual dysfunction			
Hypertension	Stroke, cardiovascular events, including myocardial infarction, congestive heart failure.			
Asthma	Respiratory infection, respiratory failure			
Ignored injuries	Chronic infection, limb deformity affecting ambulation, manual dexterity, long-term or permanent brain injury			
Mental illnesses	Consequences of attempted suicide or homicide, violence, intractable behavior, restricted self-care			
Reproductive health problems	Sterility; unwanted pregnanc, peripartum complications, congenital complications of infection			
Chronic infectious disea	ises			
Tuberculosis, latent TB infection	TB, Multidrug resistant TB			
Hepatitis B, C	Liver cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma			
HIV/AIDS	AIDS, opportunistic diseases			
Acute infectious disease with chronic outcomes				
Sexually-transmitted infection	Reproductive diseases; AIDS			

Skin lesion	Bacterial superinfection; kidney failure due to post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis		
Untreated bacterial pharyngitis; acute rheumatic fever	Post-streptococcal rheumatic heart disease requiring valve replacement		
Behavior and habits			
Use of Tobacco	Cardiovascular diseases, cancer		
Alcohol abuse	Liver failure, cirrhosis, unintentional injuries		
Illicit drug use	HIV/AIDS; hepatitis B, C, endocarditis, unintentional injuries		

Developing countries or less educated societies have generally women with self reported symptoms of reproductive morbidity do not seek treatment due to existing taboos and inhibitions regarding sexual and reproductive health. They hesitate to discuss about the reproductive problem especially, due to shame and embarrassment (Bang et. al., 1989 and Oommen, 2000). As most of these illnesses progresses to chronic state and remain with the women for the rest of their lives, the importance of early detection and management becomes evident. Until now, a matter of concern that, little is known about the prevalence of Reproductive Tract Infection (RTI's) or Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STD's) among women in developing countries such as India. A recent study of young married women aged 16-22 years in a rural community in Tamil Nadu reports a very high level of morbidity. The study shows that more than half of the women were suffering from at least one or more RTI/STDs. Clinical examination also confirmed STI/s among majority of them (Joseph et al., 2000). Despite government's effort to reach out to pregnant women in all parts of the country to provide all components of maternal health care free or with nominal charges, utilization of maternal health care remains low in the country. For example, NFHS-2 estimated that 65 percent of births, particularly those in rural areas, took place at the homes. Among these deliveries, fewer than one in seven were attended by a health professional.

3. Need for the Study

The health issues of a group or a community are the result of a complex interplay of social, economic, cultural and political factors. Family pressures, social expectations, social economic status, contact with mass media, personal experience, future expectations and so on.

In same way reproductive health and morbidity related issues too. Though there has been increasing concern over the Reproductive health and morbidity status of women last two or three decades in India, but still much attention is required on reproductive morbidity among marginalized women. Several studies show that women suffer from reproductive morbidities for a long time because of their 'culture of silence'. Many women believe that reproductive health problems - discharge or pain are simply 'women's fate' and therefore, not a condition for which they should seek medical helps. There is paucity of evidence base about various dimensions of reproductive morbidity. On the other side, recent efforts in different developing and under-developing countries including India to study reproductive morbidity at the community level suggest a high prevalence of gynecological and obstetric morbidities. Given the common prevalence of the reproductive morbidity, it necessary to understand and identify the underlying correlates. Therefore, the current study focuses on reproduction morbidity and identifies its demographic and socio-economic determinants in slum areas of Lucnow city.

4. Objectives

Aims of the study are to make understanding the reproductive health problems among women of slum dwellers in Lucknow. In the study, focus is not only reproductive context of individual but also societal and environmental factors and migration factor also included. However the specific objectives are :

- 1. To study the prevalence and awareness of reproductive morbidity,
- 2. To study menstrual problems and RTI/ STDs among the Slums of women.
- 3. To examine the health seeking behavior

5. Data and Methods

Uttar Pradesh have over 6 million slum residents. The sampling for the study has been done in two different systematic steps. These are: Selection of Slums and Selection of Respondents.

5.1 Selection of Slums

For the primary data collection select six primary sampling units or slums are :

- 1. Daliganj (wajirganj ward),
- 2. Aliganj (aliganj ward, chaudhari tola),
- 3. Vikash Nagar (Jankipuram-I ward),
- 4. Fajjulah Ganj (Fajjulah ganj ward, chamrahi bharat nagar),
- 5. Rajajipuram (Sarojni nagar ward), and
- 6. Indira Nagar (Indira nagar ward, munshi purva).

Above six slum areas was selected after preliminary field visits to several other slums. According to Nagar Nigam of Lucknow and District Urban Development Authority Lucknow (DUDA) list of Lucknow's slum list; area of Lucknow is divided into six zone and these zones are divided into 17 wards. The six selected slums were mapped and listed for appropriated selection of sample. These six slums are situated in zone three or four. Zone three or four are the center area of the city, which called old Lucknow.

5.2 Selection of Respondents

The total sample size of 400 has decided subject to the time and resource constraints for the field based research. That are selected in all six slums areas (Aliganj, Indira Nagar, Vikash Nagar, Daliganj, Rajajipuram and Fajjulahganj). Above 400 women are selected in equal proportion in all six slum areas.

The data collection was carried out through canvassing of detailed scheduled questionnaires: female's Questionnaire. For the collection of data interview schedule were selected because through to technique researcher interact with interviewee and analysis women's social, environmental, behavioral and health perspectives.

6. Analysis and Findings

6.1 Health Problems

Health Problems and Age of Respondents

Health	Age of respondent				Total
Problems	16-20				
High/Low blood Pressure	9	17	9	14	49
Diabetes	0	0	3	1	4
Asthma	1	3	2	5	11

Thyroid/Nerves' system problem	5	23	13	25	66
Other	25	83	52	43	203
Total	40	126	79	88	333

Percentages and totals are based on responses

Data reveal the overall scenario of reproductive morbidity among women of slum dweller in Lucknow. 400 women (marriage women 15-45 age group) are selected for the study. Nearly three fifth of women reported at least one reproductive health problem. Above table compare two variable as age of respondent and health problems of respondents.

Prevalence of different types of morbidities reveal that nearly 83.25 per cent of women respondents has reporting at least one morbidity, that they have suffering with common health problem of slum area. On the other hand 14.7 per cent women are suffering high or low blood pressure problem. In which women of 21 to 25 age group have higher BP problem than other age group women.

Women are reporting majorly to other morbidity. Some morbidity were common in slum area are - Tuberculosis, latent TB, skin infection, back pain, Migraine (regular headache), etc. Deprived women live, from day to day, from health crisis to financial crisis and they seek to medical care only when the disability or discomfort becomes severe enough to constitute a crisis.

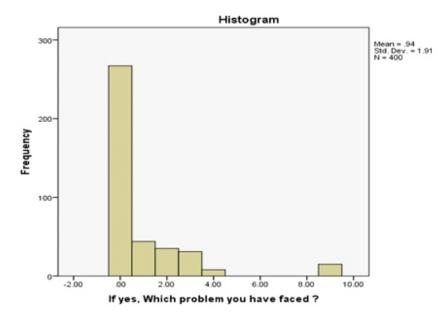
All morbidity is determined by socio-economic, demographic and environment factors influencing women life style and behavioral traits.

6.2 Menstrual Problems

Menstrual Problem Faced by Women

Which menstrual problem you have faced	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No Problem	267	66.8	66.8	66.8
No Periods	44	11.0	11.0	77.8
Excessive Menstrual Bleeding	35	8.8	8.8	86.5
Excessive Pain	31	7.8	7.8	94.3
Inter-Menstrual Bleeding	8	2.0	2.0	96.3

Other	15	3.8	3.8	100.0
Total	400	100.0	100.0	



Above data reveal that prevalence of menstrual problems by specific symptoms among women of slum dwellers of Lucknow. Out of total observe population one fourth (133 respondent) of the women suffering from any menstrual problem. Nearly 24 per cent out of total suffering respondents have painful periods followed by bleeding (26 per cent) delayed period (11.2 per cent) and excessive bleeding (6.01 per cent).

6.3 RTI/STI Problem

RTI/STI Frequencies

S. No.	Problem	Resp	Percent of	
		Numbers	Percent	Cases
1.	Itching of the vaginal area	371	32.5%	94.2%
2.	Burning or frequent urination	310	27.2%	78.7%
3.	Painful blister like lesions in and around vagina	108	9.5%	27.4%
4.	Lower abdominal pain	98	8.6%	24.9%
5.	Pain during Intercourse/ bleeding	45	3.9%	11.4%

6.	Lower Back pain	160	14.0%	40.6%
7. Other		49	4.3%	12.4%
Total		1141	100.0%	289.6%

Above table gives the prevalence of women having different RTI/STD problem in the slum areas. Data reveals that mostly women are affected by one or more problem related reproductive health. But they take all problems as common physical issues. As an overall view 94.2per cent became the high prevalence having Itching of the vaginal area. 78.7 per cent women suffer burning or frequent urination problem. Among the different types of RTI/STDs problem, with 40.6 per cent low backache is dominated in the entire slums. Bleeding after sexual intercourse and pain during intercourse problem prevalence is very low with 11.4 per cent.

6·4 Knowledge about HIV/AIDS

Knowledge about HIV/AIDS

S. No.	Knowledge	Resp	Responses	
		Numbers	Percent	Cases
1.	Unsafe sex	353	24.5%	89.8%
2.	Unprotected sex with HIV/ AIDS Person	348	24.2%	88.5%
3.	Infected mother to child	288	20.0%	73.3%
4.	Unsafe sex with homosexuals	94	6.5%	23.9%
5.	Multiple sexual partners	102	7.1%	26.0%
6.	Transfusion of infected blood	191	13.3%	48.6%
7.	Other	63	4.4%	16.0%
	Total	1439	100.0%	366.2%

Above table express 356 women out of 400 women participated in the informed consent process, after which 44 women declined to have HIV and AIDS knowledge. Out of 356 women participants, 24.5per cent women accept that it is due to unsafe sex, 24.2 per cent women said it is due to un-protection, and 20 per cent of women said it\s transfer mother to child only 4.4 per cent women give some other reasons for HIV or AIDS. Every participant had previously received

partially knowledge HIV and AIDS information, most commonly from radio, government programme, friends has received it from a health care provider. On an average, they has not depth or better knowledge on AIDS in terms of mode of transmission and prevention.

6.5 Health Seeking Behavior

Health Seeking Behavior

eek It?	If yes, Where did you seek treatment?					Total	
Did you seek treatment?	00	Doctor.	ASHA	Dai	Relatives	Other	
.00	55	0	0	0	0	0	55
Yes	0	20	28	183	63	1	295
No	50	0	0	0	0	0	50
Total	105	20	28	183	63	1	400

The health seeking behavior of a community determines how they use health services. While 295 women say yes they seek health care from different source as doctor, friends dai or ASHA when they have any Reproductive health issues. Over all most of the women seek the help of dai 183 women, after that they preference talk to relatives (63 women) than they go outside for medical help. The most significant challenges in utilizing health services were regular stock-out of drugs, high cost of services and long distance to health facilities because they seek facility in government hospitals first.

7. Conclusion

Study on reproductive morbidity is itself a neglected area in the field of research. Women of slum area are mostly migrated, living without any basic facility of living, source of water, unhygienic condition, appropriate health service and without security. Their for country like India reproductive health and status of women needs and requires a lot of attention. Reproductive morbidity has long been discussed and need to focus because reproductive morbidity includes reproductive health status also. This article addresses selected relatively neglected aspects of reproductive morbidity to illustrate the range of acute and chronic morbidities that can affect

women related to pregnancy and childbearing that are prevalent in slum areas: anaemia, maternal depression, infertility, fistula, uterine rupture and scarring and genital and uterine prolapse. This study indicates that prevalence of reproductive morbidity, including menstrual problem and RTI/STD, is very common among slum dwellers. As we know that some of them (nearly 44 women out of total) are not sure about that and remaining consider this as a disease. Women reported treatment not necessary could be concluded as culture of silence prevents women for seeking care. The reasons like cost, physical accessibility, quality of health services and women's autonomy are also important. Moreover personal perceptions and health related behavior were overweighed than socioeconomic, societal and health service factors, when particular to seek care for reproductive illnesses.

Several factors can determine the choice of health care providers that patients use. These include factors associated with the potential providers (such as quality of service and area of expertise) and those that relate to the patients themselves (such as age, education levels, gender, and economic status). Such factors can affect access to health care even when services do exist in a community. High self-reported (295 women) obstetric morbidity was observed with treatment seeking behavior as compared to hesitation or not treatment seeking behavior in women with gynecological morbidity. The data from the HIV knowledge assessment suggest that HIV and AIDS awareness is high but with very common knowledge. Knowledge of how, why, reasons of HIV and AIDS cannot be transmitted and the use of condoms in prevention are limited. Understanding how HIV is not transmitted is important for preventing stigma against individuals with HIV and AIDS.

The study calls for routine inclusion of RTI/STI screening in antenatal and other gynaecology clinics, and improved quality of peripheral diagnostic tests, which is already envisaged under RCH programme of the government of India. quality of care in government institutions should improve. The quality of care must be improved by, providing clean environment, a good system to minimize waiting, a training programme for improving the attitude of service personnel without compromising their wellbeing; and also is to minimize the cost burden to beneficiaries. In case of BPL scheme, the procedure to avail the facility and scheme may be simplified.

Findings suggest that there is a still high untreated reproductive morbidity found among the urban slum population or they seek help unprofessional person like friends, relatives, family members and, untrained dai etc. The highlight of the study show, even today there are substantial portion of women suffer from RTIs\STIs, menstrual related problems, pregnancy related problems and a small proportion had fertility and contraception related illnesses.

References

- Bang, R. and Bang, A., "A community study of gynecological diseases in Indian Villages", Zeidenstein and Moore (eds.), *Learning about Sexuality* : *A Practical Beginning*, New York: Population Council, 1989.
- Barua, A and Kurtz, Cathleen, "Reproductive health seeking by married adolescent girls in Maharashtra, India", *Reproductive Health Matters*, 9(17), 2001, 53-62.
- Bhatia, J.C and Cleland, J., "Self reported symptoms of gynecological morbidity and their treatment in South India", Studies in Family Planning, 26(4), 1995, 203-216.
- Dubey, V. P., Kalla, H. L., Duggal, B., Kaur, R. and Vardhan, R., "Socioeconomic profile of slum-dwellers in Chandigarh", *Man and Development*, September 1999, 125--143.
- Gittelsohn, J., Bentley, M. E., Pelto, P. J., Nag, M., Pachauri S., Harrision, A. D. and Landman, L.T., (eds.), *Listening to women talk about their health: Issues and Evidence from India*, New Delhi: Har Anand Publication, 2011.
- Graham, W. J. and Campbell, O. M., "Maternal health and the measurement trap", Social science and Medicine", 5(8), 1992, 967-77.
- International Conference on Population and Development : Context and Characteristics, Policy and Research Paper No. 7, Cairo, 1994.
- JeJeebhoy, Shireen, "Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Behavior: A review of the evidence from India", Ramasubban and Jejeebhoy (eds.), *Women's Reproductive Health in India*, New Delhi: Rawat Publication, 2000.
- Joseph, A., Jasmin P. and Abraham, S., "Gynecological problems among young married women in Tamil Nadu", Paper presented in an International Conference on Adolescent Reproductive Health: Evidence and Programme Implications for South Asia, Mumbai, India, 2000.
- Khanna, Anoop and Goyal R. S., "A study of adolescent girls in Rajasthan", *Journal of Health Management*, Vol.7 (1), 2005, 91-107.
- Kapil, U., "Promotion of safe motherhood in India", *Indian Paediatrics*, 27(3), March 1990, 232-238.

- Mamndani, M., "Adolescents reproductive health: Experience of community based programmes" in Saroj Pachauri (eds.), *Implementing A Reproductive Health Agenda In India: The Beginning*, New York: Population Council, 1999.
- Muller, D. and Wassaheit, J., *The culture of silence: Reproductive tract infection among women in third world*, New York: International Women Health Coalition, 1991.
- Planning Commission of India, *National Human Development Report-2001*, New Delhi : Government of India, 2002.
- Oomman, Nandini, "A decade of research on Reproductive Tract Infections and other Gynecological Morbidity in India: What we know and what we don't know", Ramasubban and Jejeebhoy (eds.), *Women's Reproductive Health in India*, New Delhi: Rawat Publication, 2000.
- Sen, S. and Snow, R., *Power and decision: The social control on reproduction*, Harvard School of Public Health, Cambridge: Harvard University, 1994.
- World Health Organization, *Safe motherhood: Maternal Health and Safe Motherhood Programme*, Progress Report, 1993-1995, Division of Reproductive Health (Technical Support), World Health Organization, 1995.

Rao Kadam Singh: A Less Known Hero of Indian Revolution of 1875

Vighnesh Kumar*, Kuldeep Kumar Tyagi**
and Kajal***

Indian Revolution of 1857 (as is termed by Dr. Vighnesh Kumar, the then teacher and later on the Head of the Department of History, Meerut College, Meerut) is considered as a land mark in the history of modern world. It outbroke on tenth day of May in 1857 from Meerut simultaneously from both the places - the civic population of the Sadar Bazar and the Lines of the native soldiers stationed at Meerut Cantonment. A number of rural and local leaders took arms against the rule of the East India Company. One of them was Rao Kadam Singh, the head-man of the Gujar family of Bahsuma.

[Keywords: Indian Revolution of 1857, Sadar Bazar, Meerut Cantonment, Bahsuma, Mawana, Jaita Daku, Raja Jait Singh, Raja Nain

- * Professor, Co-ordinator, Centre of Excellence, Department of History, Chaudhary Charan Singh University, Meerut-250004, Uttar Pradesh (India) E-mail: <vighneshkmr@gmail.com>
- ** Assistant Professor, SPC (PG) College, Baghpat, Uttar Pradesh.
- *** Research Scholar, Department of History, CCS, University, Meerut, UP.

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 31, No. 2 (April-June), 2022 Peer Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed International Research Journal Singh, Nattha Singh, Lad Kaur, Rao Kadam Singh, Parikshitgarh, Hastinapur, Muzaffarnagar, Bijnor, Garhmukteshwar, Puth, Ghat Panchli, Nagla, Bhatauna, Tyagi zemindars]

There stand few monumental heritage buildings at the town of Bahsuma* in the tehsil of Mawana of the district of Meerut in U.P. The town is situated on both the sides of the Meerut-Pauri National Highway no.119, some 40 kilometers from the district head- quarters of Meerut.

It bears a number of well-constructed pucca buildings on the right hand side. Some of them are especially of considerable size and of historical importance in terms of their beautiful architecture as well as their strength to what a fortress is expected to possess.

The township is told to bear its name after the name of *Pitamah Bhisma*¹, one of the most respectable characters described in the *Mahabharata*. It is considered that Bhishma used to come and take rest there and after his name, the site was called as *Bhishmanagar*². In due course of time, the word 'Bhishmanagar' took the shape as 'Bhishma' and thus again after sometime was called as 'Bahsuma'.

Another story tells that during the *Mahabharata* period, the royal treasury was kept at this place and so the place gained the name of 'Bahu Suma'³ which means 'treasure' and in due course of time it was changed into the word 'Bahsuma'.

The township of *Bahsuma* was of historical importance during the Later Mughal period. It is associated with that of 'Parikshitgarh'⁴, again a town of considerable 'Pauranic' importance. Both the places are not far from Hastinapur⁵, the central figure of the great war and the main capital city of the Kauravas and Pandavas described in the great epic of the *Mahabharata*⁶.

After the death of Aurangzeb, the fanatic emperor, the Mughal empire was given set back by Banda Bairagi. Emperor Bahadurshah I died at Lahore in 1712** but Banda remained unsuppressed. During the reign of Emperor Jahandar Shah*** and that of Emperor Farrukhsiyar, Banda had risen to full glory. But in December 1716, he was captured, taken to Delhi and had been executed on 9th June, 1717. Emperor Farrukhsiyar was dethroned by the Syed brothers on account of His Majesty's ill-will towards the *Hindustani* party at the

^{*} Longitude - 77.97101 North, Latitude - 29.20062 East.

^{**} He died in illusion due to the psychological fear from Banda.

^{***} He was the eldest son of Emperor Aurangzeb's eldest son named Emperor Bahadur Shah I.

Mughal court under the able leadership of the Syed Brothers.⁹ In 1719, a new prince named Roshan Akhtar* was made emperor. He is known as Muhammad Shah, who soon got success in throwing the Syed Brothers away from both their positions and lives.

During the Later Mughals one Jaita Daku, a man full of bravery arose to prominence because of local *zamindars*′ support. Really, he had become very influential. He started collecting levies at the Ganga *ghats* of Garmukteshwar¹0 and Puth. He was treated as a rebel but remained undaunted. Brave Jaita Gurjar could not be routed out. And in the last, finally, was given land in grant followed by the title of 'Raja'¹¹. He became Raja Jaita Singh. His local chieftains supporters were all of the Tyagi caste, the khandani landlords. These khandani zemindars were again asked to help in setting his revenue office. On his request, he was advised to settle at the town of Parikshitgarh.¹² It means a lot because once in the past the Tyagi settlement of the town of Mawana had been attacked and completely destroyed by the Syeds in previous times.¹³ The Tyagis had not forgotten their glorious past and supported Raja Jait Singh to expend the area of his influence towards those of the Syeds.¹⁴

Raja Jait Singh died without any issue and his companion's son named Nain Singh¹⁵ succeeded him. Raja Nain Singh had one surviving son named Nattha Singh.¹⁶ Raja Nain Singh was imposed a number of restrictions by the Government of the East India Company on account of the 'salt issues'¹⁷. Nain Singh died in 1818.¹⁸ But the Company denied to give the same rights to Raja Nain Singh's successor. So Nattha Singh filed a case and presented some memorandums but nothing of considerable importance could be achieved.¹⁹ Nattha Singh had only one daughter named Lad Kaur²⁰, his only surviving child.

During the Indian Revolution of 1857, Rao Kadam Singh was the head-man of the Gurjar family of Bahsuma.²¹ He was one of Rani Lad Kaur's cousins.** But he had no power and had no proper strength to oppose the injustice having been done to his family by the East India Company.

He gathered his supporters and proclaimed his rule over Bahsuma, Parikshitgarh and surrounding areas. He ordered his men

 $[\]ensuremath{^{*}}$ He was the son of Prince Jahan Shah, the youngest son of Emperor Bahadur Shah I.

^{**} He was neither a first cousin nor a second one, but some 'kutumbi bhai' of same gotra.

to dig out the guns which had been hidden in 1803.²² It was the time when General Lake and his captains were wandering for establishing Company's rule in the vicinity of Western Uttar Pradesh. Rao Kadam Singh was supported by his Gurjar brothern at large. Proclaiming himself as 'Raja'²³, he showed no further farsightedness. Neither he proceeded towards Meerut or Muzaffarnagar or Bijnor or Garmukteshwar nor did he made efforts to unite himself with the other Revolutionaries of 1857,²⁴ actively resisting the British in those areas.

After some months, particularly in the first half of July 1857, the British forces were gaining considerable success day by day. And finally the day came when the British forces had attacked Bahsuma.²⁵ Rao Kadam Singh was captured and taken to Meerut where he was executed and hanged till death.²⁶

The Gurjars of Meerut District in general and those of the Parikshitgarh-Bahsuma area in particular were attacked, plundered and massacred at large during the last phase of the 1857.

What is recorded by F. Williams, Esquire, the Commissioner 1st Division, Meerut, in his letter written to William Muir, Esquire, the Secretary to the Government of North-Western Provinces, Allahabad on 15th November, 1858 is worth mentioning:

"One result of the punishment of Panchlee Ghat and Nugla was immediately reported, viz: that Kuddum Singh, mentioned above as having proclaimed himself Rajah of the Goojurs of Pureechutgurh&c., retreated by Bhysombah, and his men dispersed." ²⁷

The result of punishment of "Panchli Ghat" and "Nugla" can be understood by knowing the incident occurred in both the Goojar villages near Meerut. In this context, the following paragraph is sufficient to convey the factual brutal scene created in both the villages on 4th July, 1857 by the Colonial British Imperialism. It may be seen as follows:

"The principal villages were successfully surrounded, or little after daybreak, by different parties told off. A considerable number of the men were killed, 46 taken prisoners, 40 of whom were subsequently hung, a large quantity of cattle carried off and the villages were burnt, women and children alone were left unmolested; this was on the 4th of July for which day the following entry appears in the magistrate's precis of events:

The Goojurs of Panchali Ghat and Nugla publicly punished by the Khakee Rissalah and a military detachment."²⁸

He further writes:

"Collection of Revenue recommences, Mr. Williams, Judge of Meerut, appointed Commissioner, vice Mr. Greathed on duty at Delhi."²⁹

The impact of the upper hand of the East India Company's forces thus created was proved decisive in the area around the district head-quarters of Meerut. F.Williams mentions it in his own words as follows:

"From this time [4th July 1857 Ghat Panchli and Nugla episode] daily abstracts of the reports received by the Commissioner, were submitted to the General."³⁰

The event of the 4th July was repeated in the same manner at Bhatauna on 6th July,³¹ after a gap of simply 2 days. A greater disaster was felt by the revolutionaries leading at Parikshitgarh and Bahsuma.

References

- 1. *Mahabharata*, Bhishmaparva, Gorakhpur: Gita Press.
- 2. Ibid.
- 3. K. C. Sharma, *MayarashtraManas* (in Hindi), Meerut : Shri Saraswati Parishad, 1972, 209-17.
- 4. Esha Basanti Joshi, *Uttar Pradesh District Gazetteers*, Lucknow : Govt. Press, 1964, 134, 228, 251, 262, 273, 306, 314.
- 5. Vighnesh Kumar, *Yug-Yougin Hastinapur*, Meerut: Bhartiya Itihas Sankalan Samiti, 1993,22-76; Vighnesh Kumar, *Meerut Ke Panch Hazar Varsh*, Meerut: Hastinapur Research Institute, 1996, 38-43.
- 6. Mahabharata, Bhishmaparva, Gorakhpur: Gita Press.
- 7. Vighneshkumar, *Banda Veer Bairagi* (in Hindi), Meerut : Hastinapur Research Institute, 2011, 8-11, 37-43.
- 8. Vighnesh Kumar, op.cit; William Irvine, *Later Mughals*, Vol. 1 and 2 bound in one, Delhi: Munshiram Manoharlal Publishers Pvt. Ltd., 1996, 326-62, 385.
- 9. William Irvine, op. cit.
- Edwin T. Etkinson, Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of North - Western Provinces of India, Vol. III, Meerut Division, Part II, Allahabad: NW Provinces Govt. Press, 1876.

- 11 Pratap Singh Nagar, *Raja Nain Singh Smarika* (in Hindi), Meerut: Raja Nain Singh Smarak Samiti, Bahsuma (year not mentioned), 77-85; H. R. Nevill, *MEERUT: A Gazeteer being*, Volume IV of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Lucknow: Govt. Branch Press, 1922.
- 12. Interview, 13-04-1993, Kunwar Sukhvansh Narayan Singh Tyagi of Asaura Riyasat, Asaura House (Kothi Begum Samru), Western Kutchehry Road, Meerut.
- 13. Interview, 16-04-1993, Late Chaudhary Narayan Singh Tyagi. nephew of well known Chaudhary Vikram Singh, Kasba-Sarawa, District Ghaziabad, U.P. (Preserved in HRI records).
- 14. Ibid.
- 15. Ibid; E. B. Joshi, **U.P. District Gazetteers, Meerut**, Allahabad : Govt. Press. 1964, 48-52; H.R.Nevill, op. cit., 159.
- 16. Ibid., 49.
- 17. E.T. Atkinson, op.cit.
- 18. Ibid.
- 19. Ibid.
- 20. Ibid.
- 21. Vighnesh Kumar and Mudit Kumar, 1857 Ka Viplava (in Hindi), Meerut : Hastinapur Research Institute, 2008,154; Pratap Singh Nagar, op. cit., 77-85; H. R. Nevill, op. cit., 175-76; Vighnesh Kumar, 1857 IN 1857 : Original Mutiny Narratives, Vol. I, Meerut, Meerut : Hastinapur Research Institute, 2014, 62.
- 22. Ibid.
- 23. Ibid.
- 24. SNR Rizvi and SZH Zafri, *Explorations in Indian History*, New Delhi : Anamika Publishers and Distributors (P) Ltd, 2007, 453.
- 25. Pratap Singh Nagar, op. cit.
- 26. Ibid.
- 27. Vighnesh Kumar, op. cit., 62-63.
- 28. Ibid.
- 29. Ibid.
- 30. Ibid.
- 31. Ibid.

"Who is Accessing What?": An Inquiry into enrolment in Selffinancing courses in the Indian Higher Education System

Monali*

The introduction of self-financing courses in state universities and colleges has led to the privatization of public institutions. The present paper shows a higher variation in enrolment in self-financing courses across states than in general courses. The majority of the enrolled population in self-financing courses are in Engineering & Technology which suggests a higher private investment in the technical and professional education sector. Substantial enrolment in self-financing courses in Arts, Science, and Commerce is reflective of limited seats in public institutions or private players are opening up to cater to the rural demand for higher education. Also, the private investments are concentrated in certain regions of the country, mainly the urban centres and their peripheries and economically developed states. This creates a niche for private higher education in one region and deprives the backward regions. The increasing privatization of the higher education system challenges the access to higher education which intersects

^{*} PhD Research Scholar, Centre for the Study of Regional Development, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi-110067 (India) E-mail: <monali ajeet01@gmail.com>

138 Monali

through gender, caste, religion, and region. In the wake of such a challenge, the New Education Policy, 2020 is expected to ensure all access to inclusive and quality education. However, this idea is debated when there is an insufficient share of budget allocation towards higher education.

[Keywords: Access, Self-financing courses, Privatisation, Regional Imbalance, Gender Disparity, Higher Education, National Education Policy]

1. Introduction

An unprecedented growth was observed in higher education institutions (HEIs) and enrolment therein between 1996-2010 (Duraisamy, 2015). This growth was contributed by the introduction of private players in this sector after the 1990s structural reforms. However, the expansion of private institutions is biased towards specific well-off regions, therefore, further accentuating the socioeconomic gap across states. Private players have a vested interest in setting up institutions offering certain technical and professional courses to cater to a specific section of the student population. Meanwhile, the insufficient share of budget allocation towards higher education has attracted the very debated idea of granting "autonomous status" to institutions of excellence (embraced in The New Education Policy, 2020). This autonomy will provide for better governance and fund optimization for an institution. Apart from self-financed colleges, an autonomous public aided college could introduce self-financed courses. This will privatize a part of the "public nature" of such public institutions since the cost of education will be incurred by the students completely. Such mushrooming of private institutions in certain regions and privatisation of public institutions through the introduction of self-financing courses challenge the problem of access to higher education across gender, caste, and region. Such a challenge is critical to the development of a region since enrolment in higher education is a means as well as an end to human capital development.

An interstate study of enrolment in self-financing courses can provide a better picture to understand how the privatisation of higher education can address the issue of access and availability of HEIs. Based on All India Survey on Higher Education data, this paper aims to assess the share of self-financing institutions in the Indian higher education system and explores the interested stakeholders (in terms of enrolment) in self-financed courses at

different programs level in colleges and how this enrolment has changed between 2012-19 across states. This paper also attempts to study the gender, caste, and spatial differentials in enrolment and assess the level of inequality in access to self-financing courses in the Indian higher education system.

2. Data Source and Methods

Data from All India Survey on Higher Education by Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and UGC Directory of colleges, 2002 have been imported and processed for the share of private aided and unaided institutions at state level. Enrolment in general self-financing courses by level of programmes and category for each state has been collected for the survey year 2012-13, 2015-16 and 2018-19 from AISHE website and reports.

Sopher's Index of Disparity has been employed for calculating gender disparity in enrolment for social and religious groups.

$$D = \log [(P2/P1)/(100-P1) (100-P2)]$$

where P2>P1 and are in percentages.

Gender Parity Index (GPI) is the ratio of number of females for a given indicator to the number of males for the same indicator. This has to be employed since the indicators were neither a ratio nor a percentage but absolute numbers. The value of GPI determines the equality measure between two genders. If the value is 1, men and women are at parity with each other, however, a value lower than 1 suggests disparity in favour of men. However, this index does not show whether improvement or regression is due to the performance of one of the gender groups (boys or girls). Interpretation of the GPI requires analysis of trends of the underlying indicators.

The availability of educational institutions was measured through an index of college availability in the form of College-Population Index (C-PI). This Index reflects the number of colleges per lakh population in the relevant age group (i.e. 18-23years) in a certain region.

Average size of enrolment per college has been used to analyze the distribution of HEIs across states. It includes only the enrolled

population, unlike C-PI which takes total population in the age group 18-23 years undermining the fact that how many of them are enrolled in higher studies and thus gives precise idea of availability of HEIs across states.

The Coefficient of Variation or CV has been employed to measure the dispersion in a distribution in relation to its central value for expressing the consistency in the data. The CV is percentage of Standard Deviation and Mean of a given sample, i.e., SD/Mean*100 (Mahmood, 1977). Since the dimension of SD and Mean is same, CV is a dimension less quantity and so comparable. A higher value of CV shows higher inconsistency in the data and vice versa. Thus, the CV for a given indicator across states can provide the relative variation among each other from the national average.

Maps and graphs have been made using cartographical tools and MS-Excel. The indices have been mapped through Arc Map Software using Jenks Natural Break to observe the spatial pattern.

3. Publicization to Privatisation of Higher Education System

Most of the 500 higher education institutions in preindependent India were private. After independence, the Indian government provided Grant-in-Aid (GIA) to many of these institutions to assist and expand higher education in the 1960-70s. These aids generally covered recurrent costs (such as teachers' salaries) of a private institution and sometimes capital costs. Certain states in the 1980s as Kerala followed this system of GIA in order to provide decent salaries to staff and teachers who were otherwise poorly served by the private management (Aggrawal, 2009).

With the financial takeover, came the academic functioning of the private institutions which can now be controlled by the government. Salary discrimination and high student fees were regulated by the state. By the 1980s, the higher education landscape was dominated by state-controlled institutions. Pawan Agarwal suggests this phase be the "de facto publicization of private higher education" (Ibid., 2009). There was a phenomenal increase in private aided colleges and enrolment therein.

However, such change brought certain challenges to the higher education system too. The genuine community-led private initiatives became corrupt. New private institutions were established by the local elites or groups of people with meagre infrastructure and few

teachers for business gain. The nexus between politicians and academicians grew stronger which served the motives of politicians for vote banks and grants and aids for elite college owners and teachers.

In 1990s, after structural changes, the GIA funding shrank substantially due to the decreasing public funds for higher education. This had affected new GIA institutions in rural areas with less infrastructure, amenities, and a poor number of staff and teachers. Many of such new GIA establishments were interested in seizing government subsidies instead of investments in infrastructure and amenities of the institutions.

Decreasing GIA and increasing demand for technical and vocational courses in national and global markets paved way for the expansion of private - unaided institutions in a few states. Table:1 clearly indicates the exorbitant growth of private unaided colleges/self-financing (SF, hereafter) institutes at 23.3% per annum for the years 1995-2019 at the cost of decreasing enrolment in government-funded higher education institutions (Govt. and private aided). However, the quality of higher education became a cause of concern. Different education policy changes, gradual disinvestments by the state through Five Year Plans (Eighth Plan onwards), and court judgments strongly promoted the increased role of private unaided institutions in higher education post-1985-90. In 1993, Supreme Court made self-financing institutions legitimate and a few states encouraged the setting-up of such institutions (Ibid., 2009)

Table-1-Enrolment in Government, Private aided and private unaided colleges, 1995-2019

Type/Year	1995	2007	2014	2019
Government	57.5	46.9	41.4	33.6
Private Aided	35.5	29.1	25.3	21.2
Private Unaided	7.1	22.6	32.7	45.2
Total (%)	100	100	100	100
Growth (% p.a.)	1995-2007	2007-2014	2014-2019	1995-2019
Government	1.7	-1.8	-3.7	-1.8
Private Aided	-1.6	-2.0	-3.2	-1.7
Private	10.2	5.4	7.6	23.3
Unaided				

Source : Thorat & Khan (2018) for 1995-2014 and AISHE Report 2018-19 for 2019.

Self-financing courses and institutions came as an alternative source of funding higher education which had many to cater with limited public resources. Despite such phenomenal expansion of higher education institutions, there are significant regional imbalances.

4. Self-financing Institutions and Regional Imbalances

Due to the insufficient budget, limited HEIs, and introduction of policies of liberalization and privatisation, the private sector has tapped the opportunities to spread the cost of public insufficiency. Also, with increasing incomes, growing awareness, and demand for higher education especially professional courses, private institutions mushroomed in the southern states of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, and Tamil Nadu.

In 2001-02, private aided and unaided colleges constituted 41% of the total colleges in India. 65% of the total private colleges were private unaided. Private unaided colleges are those which receive no aid from the government and therefore cost of education is higher than private aided colleges which receive aid for infrastructure development etc. and cost of education is stipulated by the government. The tuition fees and food and lodging costs have to be borne by students and parents and that is how revenue is generated for maintaining private unaided colleges.

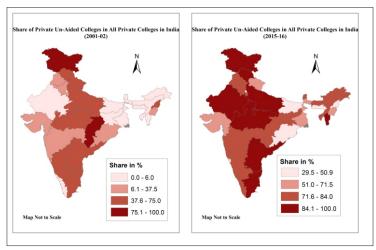
In 2015-16, 78% of the total colleges are under private management, and out of these private colleges, 82% are private unaided colleges. Thus, it is evident that the expansion of HEIs primarily comprises private colleges rather than public colleges and universities. 67% of the total enrolled population in higher education are in private colleges and out of them, 68% of students are in private unaided colleges in India in 2015-16. The proportion of colleges under private management has increased over the last 15 years and so has the enrolled population therein.

However, in 2018-19, there has been a decrease in the proportion of private unaided institutions from 82% to 64.3%. Many private unaided institutions were shut down as a result of strict quality regulating norms set up by AICTE and other vocational councils. Out of total private-managed institutions, 88% of them are unaided or self-financing institutions in Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, which is 87% for Tamil Nadu whereas, merely 16% for Assam (GOI, 2019).

The maps below show the change in the share of private unaided colleges to the total private colleges across states. The level of share has increased from 2001-02 to 2015-16. It is higher for southern states than northern states. Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh have the highest share among the northern states. Bihar and Odisha have a lower proportion of private unaided colleges. The majority of these private colleges are professional or technical colleges. Large-scale migration from the state of Bihar for education and jobs discourages private investors to come up with such institutions and even if they are there, they serve urban upper class and middle-class populations.

Southern states of Maharashtra (14.7%), Karnataka (12.8%), Andhra Pradesh (10.6%), and Tamil Nadu (6.5%) have a larger proportion of private HEIs in 2001-02 and also in 2015-16. However, Uttar Pradesh (18.2%) has the highest proportion of private colleges in 2015-16 followed by Maharashtra (13%) in 2015-16 which had the highest proportion of private HEIs in 2001-02. Kerala has a relatively lower proportion of private colleges than the total private HEIs in India. The states in northeast India have the lowest proportion of private colleges in 2001-02 as well as 2015-16. The private colleges of Bihar, Jharkhand, Himachal Pradesh and Uttarakhand contribute very less to the overall private colleges in India.

Map-1 : Share of Private Un-aided Colleges in Total Private Colleges in India, 2001-02 & 2015-16



Source: UGC Directory of Colleges, 2002 and AISHE Report, 2015-16

The coefficient of variation of 60% suggests the highest variation in enrolment in self-financing courses across states, which

is almost half of general course enrolment (29%). In terms of enrolment in self-financing courses across states in 2018-19, Uttar Pradesh (74.25%), Tamil Nadu (67%), and Andhra Pradesh (50.5%) have a significant share out of the total population accessing higher education. These are also the states with better college-population density and a higher share of private unaided institutions to the total available HEIs. Jammu & Kashmir (5%), Bihar (8%), and Delhi (8.4%) have recorded the least share of total enrolment in self-financing courses. Among north-eastern states, Mizoram (5.4%), Manipur (6%), and Assam (9.5%) have a poor share of enrolment in SF courses. Therefore, it can be inferred that a state with less college-population density has a lower share of private unaided colleges and also, a lower share of enrolment in self-financing courses such as Bihar. However, Delhi has a concentration of HEIs which are mostly government-funded and hence lower enrolment in self-financing courses.

5. Enrolment in Self-financing Courses

According to AISHE, 40.3% of the total enrolled population in higher education attended self-financing courses in 2018-19. Most of the enrolment in self-financing courses is recorded at Integrated (56.4%), Diploma (52.6%), PG Diploma (45.3%), and Certificate (44%) levels of the programme (Fig:1).

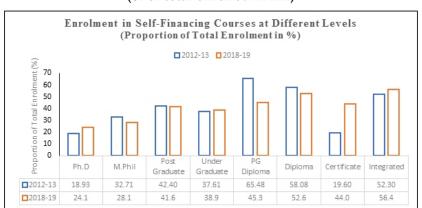


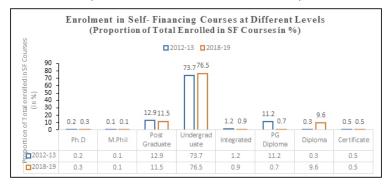
Fig.-1: Enrolment in Self-financing courses by Level of Programmes (% of total enrolled in HE)

Source : All India Survey on Higher Education, 2012-13 & 2018-19.

This may be attributed to the Standalone institutions which offer technical courses to post-higher secondary educated students. These diplomas (PG Diplomas as well) and certificates of various duration are for technical skills training such as management, teacher training, nursing, chartered accountancy, company secretary, polytechnics, etc. These institutions lie outside the purview of any university or college. These institutes need to be recognized by a certain statutory body to offer diplomas and certificates. Few public higher education institutions have started to offer certain PG Diplomas and Diplomas through self-financing course mode. Public colleges and universities provide such courses to their regular degree students as add-on courses. The recurring cost to run such programmes is incurred from students' fees.

However, when the share of the enrolled population in self-financing courses by different levels of programmes, the majority of students who opt for self-financing courses were in under-graduation. In 2018-19, 76.5% of the total population enrolled in self-financing courses were attending UG, and 11.5% in PG level of programme.

Fig.-2: Enrolment in Self- financing courses by level of programmes (% of total enrolled in SF courses)



Source : All India Survey on Higher Education, 2012-13 & 2018-19.

Disciplines such as Paramedica I(70%), Management (69%), IT & Computer (68%), Engineering & Technology (66%), Education (61%) and Law (57%) have attracted significant private investment as well as enrolment therein. More than 50% of the total enrolled population in these disciplines is through self-financing mode of course.

Table-2: Enrolment in SF Courses by Discipline, 2018-19

Discipline	Share of total enrolled in SF Courses (%)		
Engineering & Technology	26.3		
Arts	15.8		

Science	12.6
Commerce	9.5
Education	8.9
Medical Science	6.7
Management	6.6
IT & Computer	5.3
Law	2.2
Social Science	1.4
Others	4.7
Total (%)	100.0

Source: All India Survey on Higher Education, 2018-19

The enrolment reflects the rising demand for higher education in the market. The private institutions have tapped into the opportunities and supported the higher education system. However, the concern for access to quality education remains prevalent as many scholars argue that the expansion of higher education institutions is biased towards a section of society who can afford it. Most of the total enrolled population in self-financed courses are in Engineering & Technology, Arts, Science, and Commerce (Table-2).

Higher share of enrolment out of the total population enrolled in SF course in Engineering & Technology goes with the discourse of the higher rate of private investments in technical & professional education sector. But the substantial share of enrolment in conventional disciplines such as Arts, Science, and Commerce through the SF mode of higher education suggests otherwise. This situation may arise due to insufficient seats in public colleges or the private colleges opening up to cater to rural demand for higher education. This reflects infrastructural deficits on supply-side which failed to address the demand for public colleges in total, leaving aside the need for public investment in professional courses.

Access to self-financing courses can be assessed through enrolment in these courses by different social groups namely, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Classes, and religious groups. A relatively lesser number of enrolments is observed in either mode of courses for the Scheduled population and Muslims. GER in higher education for Scheduled Castes is 23% and 7.2% for Scheduled Tribes as compared to the national GER of 26.3%.

100

Socio-religious Groups/ **General Course Self-Financing Total Mode of Course** Course **OBC** 34.7 38.4 36.3 SC 14.8 14.3 14.6 ST 7.3 3.3 5.6 4.9 Muslims 5.6 5.3 Other Minorities 2.1 2.8 2.4 Others 35.5 36.3 35.8

Table-3: Share of Total Enrolment in different Mode of Course by Social & Religious groups (in %)

Source: All India Survey on Higher Education, 2018-19

100

100

Total

The difference between the share of enrolment in General and Self-Financing Courses proportion of social and religious groups for each social and religious group is pretty less, except for the Scheduled Tribes population. The significant gap between enrolment in two modes of courses suggests that students from the ST community are more inclined towards public institutions for achieving higher education.

6. Gender Parity in Enrolment in SF Courses by Social Groups

The disparity in enrolment in higher education exists between different social groups significantly, despite an increase in GER of each group. The gender parity in GER of the overall population has improved from 0.81 in 2014-15 to 0.92 in 2018-19. For Scheduled Castes, it has increased from 0.91 to 1.02 over 2014-19 and for Scheduled tribes, it has changed from 0.92 to 1.

According to AISHE in 2018-19, gender disparity in enrolment in the general course has been measured at 0.009, which is significantly lower than that in the population enrolled in self-financing courses (0.13). Gender disparity is relatively lower for OBC (0.001), SC (0.024), and ST (0.016) as well for general course enrolments as compared to enrolment in self-financing courses for OBC (0.09), SC(0.07), and ST (0.09). Gender parity for Muslim students enrolled in self-financing courses is 0.8 and for other minorities, it is 1.1.

Across States, the enrolment in the general mode of higher education is at gender parity. However, the enrolment in selffinancing courses at the interstate level shows significant variation. States such as Odisha (0.5), Delhi (0.6) and Bihar (0.7) showed a substantial disparity in gender enrolled in SF courses. Odisha has a lower college population density and institutions are concentrated in a few districts. The share of private institutions is 68% of the total available HEIs. Delhi and Bihar have a lower share of private institutions however, these two states differ from each other as the former has a high college-population density and the latter has the lowest in India. The majority of these self-financing courses in Delhi are attended by a population migrated from other states. The higher cost of migration for higher education acts as an impediment to women's access to such courses. In the case of Bihar, most of the institutions are concentrated in a few urban centers and perhaps, the intra-state migration is expensive for women in the rural surrounding to pay for self-financing courses.

The states of Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, West Bengal, Uttarakhand, and Goa also recorded lower gender parity in self-financing course enrolment. States with overall better gender parity have less gender disparity across social and religious groups enrolment in SF courses as well. However, the coefficient of variation suggests higher spatial variation in enrolment in general courses for Scheduled Castes (29.7%) and Other Backward Class (30%) which is 19.8% for Scheduled Tribes.

Table-4: Gender Parity in Enrolment in Self- financing Courses by Socioreligious groups, 2018-19

States & UTs	Total	SC	$^{ m LS}$	OBC	Muslims	Other Minorities
Andhra Pradesh	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.4
Arunachal Pradesh	0.7	2.3	1.0	2.3	0.6	0.9
Assam	1.1	0.9	1.2	1.2	0.7	1.0
Bihar	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.9
Chandigarh	1.1	0.9	0.6	1.0	0.4	1.6

Chhattisgarh	0.9	0.8	1.2	0.8	0.8	1.8
Dadra and Nagar	1.1	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.8	0.8
Haveli						
Daman	2.9	4.4	4.4	2.6	3.2	2.3
Delhi	0.6	0.7	1.0	0.6	0.4	0.7
Goa	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.8
Gujarat	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.8
Haryana	1.1	1.0	0.7	1.0	0.4	1.2
Himachal Pradesh	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	0.3	1.8
Jammu and Kashmir	1.3	2.4	1.4	1.4	0.9	1.8
Jharkhand	0.9	0.7	1.3	0.8	0.6	2.0
Karnataka	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	1.2
Kerala	1.2	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.1	1.2
Madhya Pradesh	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8
Maharashtra	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8
Manipur	1.1	0.9	1.3	1.4	0.7	1.0
Meghalaya	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.1	0.7	1.2
Mizoram	1.0	0.0	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.9
Nagaland	1.0	2.7	1.2	1.7	1.0	1.4
Odisha	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.8
Puducherry	0.9	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.7	1.9
Punjab	0.9	1.1	0.5	0.9	0.2	1.3
Rajasthan	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	0.7	1.3
Sikkim	0.7	1.5	2.7	2.4	5.3	5.2
Tamil Nadu	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.0
Telangana	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.1
Tripura	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6
Uttarakhand	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.9
Uttar Pradesh	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
West Bengal	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	1.1
Total	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	1.1

Source : AISHE Report, 2018-19

7. Conclusion

The coefficient of variation of 60% suggests the highest variation in enrolment in self-financing courses across states, which is almost double general course enrolment (29%). It can be inferred from the study that state with less college-population density has a lower share of private unaided colleges and also, a lower share of enrolment in self-financing courses such as Bihar, despite ongoing waves of privatisation across the states. This suggests the differential growth of unaided institutions across states is driven by the socioeconomic and political characteristics of that region, creating a niche for private higher education in one region and depriving the other.

A higher share of enrolment out of the total population enrolled in Engineering & Technology supports the discourse of the higher rate of private investments in the technical & professional education sector. But the substantial share of enrolment in conventional disciplines such as Arts, Science, and Commerce through self-financing courses suggests otherwise. This situation may arise due to insufficient seats in public colleges or the private colleges opening up to cater to rural demand for higher education. This suggests infrastructural deficits on the supply-side which failed to address the demand for public colleges in total, leaving aside the need for public investment in professional courses.

study concludes that the present socio-spatial characteristics of enrolment in self-financing courses don't suggest equal access to higher education. The level of development of higher education may have improved over time but these are concentrated in specific regions, instead of extending to backward regions. In view of the above findings, the present National Education Policy 2020 seems to fail the aspirations of inclusive and quality higher education, as it recommends the autonomous status of public and private institutes be granted in a phased manner. To this end, public financial assistance will be provided to achieve the same. The grants and aids for so are driven by the accreditation method. Better HEIs are expected to receive public funds. Given the limited and meagre share of funds allotted to the higher education sector, this will further accrue the public investment in certain private institutions until these institutions become financially autonomous. However, with decreased financial control over an HEI, the state will have little say in the working of that institution and higher education will be left solely at the mercy of the market. The NEP 2020 also recommends identifying the backward regions and targeting socio-economically disadvantaged groups (SEDGs). The significant gap between enrolment in two modes of courses found in this study suggests that students from the scheduled community (STs in particular), depend on public funding, subsidies, and affirmative actions for equal opportunity in higher education. Providing funds to private institutions will leave a very small share for public institutions which are a necessity for socio-economically disadvantaged groups who cannot afford the high cost of education in private institutions.

The National Education Policy 2020 becomes worrisome when the document leaves no clue for how much public funds will be allotted to which target, namely: "Autonomous Status" or "Developing Education Zones in Aspirational Districts".

Footnotes

- 1. UNESCO, http://uis.unesco.org/en/glossary-term/gender-parity-ind ex-gpi, accessed on 7th April, 2017.
- 2. Thorat, Sukhdeo and Khalid Khan, "Private Sector & Equity in Higher Education: Challenges of Growing Unequal Access", N.V. Varghese, Nidhi. S. Sabharwal, and C. M. Malish, *India Higher Education Report* 2016: Equity, 101, New Delhi: Sage Publications, 2018.

References

- Aggrawal, Pawan, *Indian Higher Education : Envisioning the Future*, New Delhi : Sage Publications, 2009.
- Alam, Saraswati Raju and Mohd. Sanjeer, "Contextualising Inter-, Intra-Religious and gendered Literacy and Educational Disparities in Rural Bihar", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 12007, 613-1622.
- Chattopadhyay, Saumen, "New Modes of Financing HE", N.V. Varghese and Garima Malik, *Indian Higher Education Report* 2015, New York: Routledge, 2015, 336-337.
- Duraisamy, P., "Quantitative Expansion of HE in India", N.V. Varghese and Garima Malik, *Indian Higher Education Report* 2015, New York: Routledge, 2015, 69-71.
- GOI, *All India Survey on Higher Education Report, 2018-19, Report,* New Delhi: Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2019.
- Khan, Sukhdeo Thorat and Khalid, "Private Sector and Equity in Higher Education: Challenges of Growing Unequal Access", Nidhi S. Sabharwal, and C. M. Malish N.V. Varghese, *India Higher Education Report 2016: Equity*, New Delhi: Sage Publications, 2018.

Mahmood, Aslam, *Statistical Methods in Geographical Studies*, Delhi : Rajesh Publications, 1977.

- Sinha, Ravi S. Srivastava and Sachidanand, "Inter-social groups disparities in access to higher education", University Grants Commission, *Higher Education in India: Issues related to expansion, inclusiveness, quality and finance*, New Delhi: University Grants Commission, 2008, 103-110.
- Tilak, B. G. Jandhyala, "How Inclusive is higher education in India?", *Social Change*, 2015, 185-223.
- Wankhede, Govardhan, "Perspectives on Social Group disparities in Higher Education", N. V. Varghese and Garima Malik, *India Higher Education Report* 2015, New Delhi: Routledge India, 2015, 123-138.

Online sources

UNESCO, (2017) "Gender Parity Index", Retrieved from http://uis.unesco. org/en/glossary-term/gender-parity-index-gpi, accessed on 7th April, 2017

Analyzing the Indian way of Public-Private Partnership (PPP)

Phuyal Mohan*

This article examines the development scenario of Public-Private Partnership (PPP) in India. The article briefly discusses the origin and implementation of PPP in various infrastructure sectors. Since the New Economic Policy (NEP) in 1991 as economic liberalization, the infrastructure projects via PPP have been actively implemented in India. These days, the infrastructure sectors like roads, airports, and energy are procuring the PPP approach and are in increasing in numbers. The procured models are in ad-hoc- arrangement, absence of clear rules and regulations as well as unclear institutional responsibility to procure, manage, and monitor these projects, which has caused many disadvantages for the implementation of PPP projects in India. As a result, very few PPP projects are recommended through Public-Private Partnership Appraisal Committee (PPPAC). In the central and state-level project procuring process most of the projects are under unsolicited proposals and have been selected by using the ad-hoc arrangement and direct negotiation. The ad-hoc procedure not only interacts with the risks to the government in terms of financial risk, but also the project implementation and monitoring mechanism is unclear, and not efficient.

^{*} Research Scholar, Department of Economics, Soka University, Tokyo, Hachioji (Japan) E-mail: <mohan@soka.ac.jp; pascal_phuyal1986@yahoo.com>

However, India still considers procuring PPP as the best alternative option for financing domestic infrastructure. This is because, the population growth and the user demand has been gradually increased in roads, rails, and energy sectors, while the Government of India (GoI) budget is limited, and on the other hand, PPP brings innovation and increases the quality of infrastructure services and provides better Value-for-Money (VfM). There is a necessity for balanced relation between the GoI, operating mechanism, and the market. The policies are the responsible factors to acquire more investments and putting the PPP projects in financial viability. Therefore, this paper analyzes the past and current situation of Indian PPP. The literature shows that there is an immense probability to procure PPP as the model to develop Indian infrastructure. The author has discussed the importance of PPP to develop infrastructure and it has discussed the institutional and regulatory framework with the issues. For this purpose, a Tripod framework was examined.

[**Keywords**: PPP, Ad-Hoc Arrangement, Tripod Framework, India, Infrastructure]

1. Introduction

Public-Private Partnership (PPP) approaches are widely used to deliver a series of infrastructure projects around the world (Cui et al. 2018). The definition of PPP varies from country to country due to the established political, economic, and social environment. Several attempts have been made by various scholars to define PPP in a single definition, but no consensus has been established. On the evolution of PPP approaches Wettenhall (2010) says PPP has been developed from the earliest civilizations onwards, but that might be a little bit misleading. Bovaird (2010) adds that the PPP acronym itself has been used since the 1970s and got a buzzword status in the 1990s with the rise of the importance of the Public Finance Initiatives (PFI) for the social and economic environment. Although there is a variation in the definition of PPP, researchers Rossi, Festa, and Gunardi, (2019), on their research conclude that there is the belief that the PPP approach could help to increase the economic value of infrastructure outputs and facilitate the overall development of infrastructure inside the country (Li, Wang, and Wang, 2017). In this way implementing PPP in Indian infrastructure sectors, Goldman Sachs focuses on the amount of investment. It has been estimated that India will require \$1.7 trillion in financing from 2010 to 2020 to meet its infrastructure needs (Goldman Sachs, 2009).

To fill the gap between demand and supply of investment, the engagement of private sectors is observed as one of the needed and critical factors for India. In this way on the development and standardization of infrastructure-related entities, PPP is heating the arguments in the Indian market. There is an expectation that the PPP policies will play an important role in bringing private sectors into infrastructure development and service provision, and in merging the sources of both public and private sectors to better serve the public needs (Zhang and Chen, 2013).

Therefore, firstly this research presents some explanations for the PPP mechanism in India. It will try to identify the current structure, and patterns of the Indian way of PPP saying the ad-hoc arrangement with the issues. The following questions are raised:

- R.Q. 1: How does India is practicing PPP?
- R.Q. 2: what could be suggested in an ad-hoc situation?

On answering the research questions rest of the paper is structured as follows. The first section proposes a review of the literature on the importance of PPP implementation. The second part describes the research design and applied methodologies, in this section, this paper has followed the Tripod Framework. The last section summarizes in conclusion and recommendations of the author.

2. Literature on PPP

2.1 PPP Approach in Infrastructure Development

Starting from the deep meaning of the concept of PPP the economic infrastructure like roads, rails, and airports and social infrastructures like schools and hospitals are essential for economic growth and form the basis of providing a better standard of living for the citizen of the country (Kudtarkar, 2020a). Governments around the world are building such infrastructures through government provisions, but many governments in developing countries are not able in a fiscal position to meet the demand and their spending. In this way, the achievement of the optimal balance between the demand and supply philosophies has eluded the PPP approach. The following literature discusses the definition of PPP in international organizations and several researchers are putting their concerns on the lure of PPP in infrastructure projects.

The advent of PPP meant that government entities moved away from proving infrastructure projects through the traditional procurement method (Tshombe et al. 2020). The World Bank Institute, (2012) defines PPP as a conceptually simple firm as "a

long-term contract between a private party and a government agency, for providing a public asset or service, in which the private party bears significant risk and management responsibility". One of the most used academic definitions of the term PPP is from (Grimsey and Lewis, 2004). Grimsey and Lewis state "PPP is a specific approach to the construction and maintenance of infrastructure in which the private sector finances a project, and takes on an expanded role for facility design, construction, operations, maintenance and bears a considerable amount of risk". Additionally, Linder (1999), in his research, goes in precisely on the relationship between infrastructure and PPP. He states that the upsurge of PPP was inspired by the neoliberal focus on privatization and efficiency gains, often building on the assumption that the private sector is more effective and innovative than its public counterpart. Additionally, Savas (2000) viewed PPP as a new way to handle infrastructure projects, such as building tunnels and renewing harbors.

Similarly, Kivleniece and Quelin (2012) in their research, stressed PPP as a three-sided collaboration between private, public, and civic actors. It means that they have to be evaluated by reference to the extent to which all three parties receive benefits from them. Hodge and Greve (2005) in their research characterized the PPP as an institutional collaboration between the public and private segments which is intended to expand the proficiency and viability of the public utilities deliverance. Similarly, Leigland (2018) in his research stressed that PPP involves multiple stakeholders, all of whom have interests in how the project performs. On the other hand Engel, Fisher, and Galetovic (2020) argued that PPP contracts are complex and require more state capability. However, it has been observed that in recent two decades many countries have initiated PPP due to the private sector taking over the responsibility for developing infrastructure and providing public services (Hoppe, Kustere, and Schmitz, 2013).

Since 2006, GoI has accepted PPP and described it as "means an arrangement between a government/statutory entity/government-owned entity on one side and a private sector entity on the other, for the provision of public assets or public services, through investments being made and/or management being undertaken by the private sector entity in a specified time (DEA, 2011). Inside the Indian cases, there are hardly any empirical studies undertaken to examine the issues of PPP on economic growth. Limited issues have been focused

on by few researchers with the motive of understanding the current impediments in executing PPP. Lakshmanan (2008a) in his research discussed the success of PPP projects in India, focusing on the regulatory macroeconomic framework, sound investor-friendly policies, sustainable project revenues, transparency, and consistency of policies. Similarly, Mahalingam (2010a) has discussed the possible barriers to Indian PPP. The distrust between the public and private actors, lack of political will to renegotiate, the absence of an enabling institutional environment, lack of project preparation capacity, and poorly designed PPP projects are highlighted. Similarly, Pathan and Pimplikar (2013) had added various issues of risks in Indian PPP projects like land acquisition delays, permission delays, disputes, litigations, and financial weak sponsors. As a solution, researchers Samii, Wassenhove, and Bhattarcharya (2002) had added key requirements for the implementation of effective PPP in India, which include resource dependency, commitment symmetry, common goal symmetry, intensive communication, alignment of cooperation learning capability, and converging working cultures.

Based on a thorough review of existing literature following hypothesis is constructed and shall be tested in this study.

Hypothesis: To gain a positive result in Implementing PPP, substantial work should be provided in policy and institutional frameworks.

2.2 Analytical Framework

The PPP models are project-specific, and the proposed framework is devoted to a comprehensive analysis of PPP (Carbonara, Costantino, and Pellegrino, 2013). Therefore, in this section, a coherent framework is managed for analyzing the factors that are conducive to PPP development in India. The framework is created in a broader extinct. The framework builds on the four stages of the economic transition process as defined by the International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2000). The framework employs a tripod structure and operates on three mutually supporting and related reinforcing pillars, a) government b) market, and c) operating environment. The market consists of physical elements like buyers and sellers. The buyers and sellers are different from each other in one or more ways. The operating environment provides the rules and regulations and the government plays the role of the referee and the organizing committee.

3. Methodology

This research has adopted a qualitative research paradigm. A qualitative research method provides a comprehensive interpretation of concepts, constructs, and opportunities that brings the research closer to "social reality". This research has used both empirical, as well as non-empirical studies. The conceptual model is developed based on the literature review. The data of all PPP projects in India is collected from government databases. Literature was used extensively to gain theoretical knowledge of the subject matter in this study.

4. Why does India is Turning to PPPs?

After the 1990s economic liberalization, India has embarked on major reforms to liberalize its economy after three decades of socialism and a fourth of creeping liberalization (S and Aiyar, 2016 No 803). India's private sector was freed from significant state control during this period (Mukherji, 2009). As a result, more and more areas are being made open to the private sector and the industrial activities in this sector gained their momentum both through the participation of domestic and foreign private companies. The GoI has shown the policies like Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and PPP way of partnering policies to invest and practice private sector participation. FDI discusses providing necessary finance, technology, knowledge, and job creation (Ghebrihiwet and Motchenkova 2017). Whilst PPP discusses more from FDI, with issues of project selection, Concession Agreements (CA), bidding process, design, governance, human resource, finance, project evaluation, project internationalization, etc. (Cervantes, 2016). Importantly, the motto of PPP implementation is to spread the cost of procuring an asset over time and/or cause the associated capital expenditure to affect private firms rather than the public sector's balance sheets (Gerrard, 2001). Additionally, such partnership contributes to the activation of the investment orientation of the economy, ensuring long-term socio-economic growth (Komarynska et al. 2019). The motto of this research is to discuss the importance of PPP policy paradigms and the institutional characteristics of related organizations in India.

The following reasons could be considered as to why India needs to develop PPP:

To relieve Government Budgets: The widespread argument for PPP among practitioners is that it could relieve strained government budgets (Engel, Fischer, and Galetovic, 2014). PPP practicing could free up GoI resources that can be spent on other projects in high social profitable areas.

To create greater efficiency: The efficiency is related to the utilization of limited financial resources, minimal organizational costs, and efforts in pursuit of target results. For a complex and permanent modernization of the public sector, a complex strategy of modernization is required. The partnership between the public and private sectors is recognized as one of the factors of modernized infrastructure development and service efficiency (Skietrys, Raipa, and Bartkus, 2008).

For financial Arrangements : The present number of PPP projects under GoI involves a large initial upfront investment. PPP could be a financial technique that helps to borrow against the cash flow of a project that is legally and economically self-contained.

Quality assurance and scrutiny: The PPP process usually involves a much greater level of quality assurance than the standard public procurement process as the public authority. The scrutiny can generate a more informed and realistic debate on project selection and a focus on output.

Lastly, introducing advanced technology from foreign countries, as well as developing domestic technology: This goal could be achieved through PPP. It would be in harmony with the national policy of developing Indian technology and promoting business with other developing countries. Therefore, the PPP model could be a tool for reforming procurement and public service delivery not only a means for leveraging private sector resources. Overall practicing PPP would be able to strengthen public sector procurement processes and capacity in infrastructure sectors.

5. A Theoretical Framework to Understand the Mechanism of Indian PPP

Partnerships between government and private sectors exist in several forms (Whiteside, 2020). PPP analyzed in this paper is one type of partnership ranging from relatively loose and informal governance arrangements. In this vein, defining the role and responsibilities of the government in public service delivery is

critical (Yang, Hou, and Wang, 2013a). The stronger position held by the private partners (technology, capital, and information) requires more skilled government participation (Scharle, 2002). Best practicing and inclusive innovation can be explored through the established management theories. The internal and external drivers play a vital role but in the current context, the richness and variability of the Indian PPP framework are unanswered. In this way, the relation between the GoI, the market, and the operating environment could play a vital role in successful PPP implementation. Despite the increasing pace of PPP worldwide and increasing academic attention regarding development and innovation, the conceptual research into the relationship between innovation and infrastructure PPP remains limited. Therefore, the author has tried to examine the Indian PPP with a Tripod framework to analyze the developing scenario and consequences.

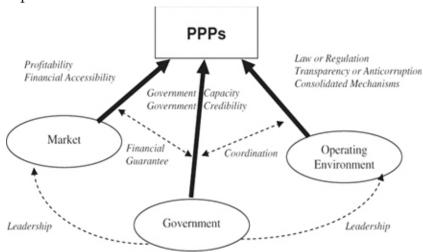


Figure-1: Theoretical Framework on Understanding Indian PPP

Source: Yang, Hou, and Wang (2013b)

Figure-1 shows the relation between the key pillars and several related factors for successful PPP procurement. As IMF defines the Indian market encompasses four stages: 1) economic liberalization 2) macroeconomic stabilization, 3) restructuring and privatization and 4) legal and institutional reforms. The current operating environment overlaps with legal and institutional reforms. The tripods are strengthened by interpillar connections. The relation between the market and the government is a "financial or credit guarantee by the GoI" which is especially crucial in India. Still, the Indian market is not yet mature and access to the financial market is often hindered by

ambiguous rules. In the conceptual framework, three components are crucial: operating environment, partnership structure, and leadership activities of the government. Therefore, in this research author has discussed the following Governmental mechanism and market issues.

5.1 How Does the Gol (Government) is practicing PPP

There is no exact date and year which could speak of the beginning of PPP but it is said that the PPP story began with the private sterling investments in Indian railroads in the latter half of the 1800s (Patel and Bhagat, 2019). Similarly, it is followed by the mid-1900s when private makers and merchants developed in the power sector in Kolkatta (Calcutta Electric Supply Corporation) and in Mumbai with the Tata playing a prominent role in starting the "Tata Hydroelectric Power Supply Company" in 1910. After that, the concept and implementation of PPP became very nascent in India. There were very less PPP activities till the 1990s. Only, the 1990s economic liberalization is responsible for PPP activities. As a result, private sector participation in diverse models is being operationalized by multiple stakeholders in a wide variety of sectors. Unfortunately, there are no exact rules and regulations for specific PPP projects. On the one hand, the GoI policy regarding regulatory, legal, and institutional frameworks is still evolving (Datta, 2009). It means that macroeconomic stability, and legal institutional stabilities are rare. Therefore there is a necessity to understand how the GoI is performing PPP in infrastructure development. The following sections discuss the PPP practice made by GoI in the establishment of PPP institutions, rules regulations, and the characteristics.

a) Establishment of Operating Environment: Supporting Institutions, Legal framework, and Institutional framework

The mechanism of PPP is a system that defines the order of interaction of subjects of PPP in the conditions of the developed institutional environment (Nikolaev and Bochkov, 2017). As a rule, the mechanism of PPP is considered through the system forming a certain order of interaction of subjects concerning the object of PPP conditions. The elements are identified as the main issues: subject, object, forms, models, as the form of financing tools (Institutional, organizational, financial, etc.) (Kutsenko, Berezhnaya, and Korabenynikov, 2019). As the main elements of the mechanism of interaction between private business enterprises and state structures

are used. The World Bank, Public-Private Infrastructure Advisory Facility (PPIAF) has proposed five principles for the good mechanism of PPP that could provide quality, sustainable, and well-structured projects to provide infrastructure services (PPIAF, 2012).

- Development of PPP policies.
- Establish a dedicated PPP unit.
- Adopt a clear procedure and define responsibilities for developing and implementing PPP.
- Establish a mechanism for evaluating the PPP framework.
- Legally establish the principles of the PPP framework through PPP law.

The proposed principles have five elements, however, this paper summarizes into three main elements which are: a) clear PPP policy, b) an appropriate legal and regulatory framework, and c) dedicated supporting institutions including clear procedures and responsibilities as well as a mechanism for evaluating the PPP framework in India. The GoI mainly developed its support for PPP along three dimensions, designing policies and expressing political commitment, articulating the legal and regulative framework, and creating supporting institutions.

b) Establishment of PPP Cell

In the year 2005, the Department of Economic Affairs (DEA) set up the PPP cell. The PPP cell is responsible for policy-level matters concerning policies, schemes, programs, Model Concession Agreements (MCA), and Capacity Building. The PPP cell is motivated for the following reasons: a) to attract private investment for developing a project (capital funding), b) to benefit from private sector technical expertise, and c) to realize gains from private sector operational and management efficiencies (Mathur, 2017). For this purpose, in 2006, the PPP Appraisal Committee (PPPAC) was established (Lakshmanan, 2008b). The motto of PPPAC is to streamline the appraisal and approval of infrastructure projects. PPPAC is set upby compromising the following members:

- Secretary, Department of Economic Affairs (in the chair)
- Secretary, Planning Commission (CEO from Niti Aayog)
- Secretary, Department of Expenditure
- Secretary, Department of Legal Affairs, and
- Secretary of the Department sponsoring a project (GoI Ministry of Finance Department of Economic Affairs, 2005)

As the working agenda, the PPPAC encourages the utilization of standardized contractual documents. PPPAC lays down the standard terms relating to the allocation of risks, contingent liabilities, and guarantees as well as service quality and performance standards. PPPAC demands to notify a standardized bidding document. These days PPPAC is practicing Model Request for Qualifications and Model Request for Proposals as selection for PPP projects. Under the PPPAC a Transparent and competitive bidding process has been established. It has also managed to provide broader cross-sectoral project development funds. While providing the development funds viability gap funding, user charge reforms, provision of long tenor financing and refinancing as well as institutional and individual capacity building are proposed as conditions.

c) PPP Legal and Regulatory Framework

One of the major issues that a private player in the infrastructure space in India today has to contend with is the rather cumbersome regulatory framework that relates to infrastructure projects. There was a demand for common regulatory principles to guide and evolve regulatory institutions in the country. As a result, GoI has enacted and amended several laws and regulations. Respectively it has put in the public domain a draft regulatory reform bill, which aims at setting up commissions to oversee the regulations in 12 infrastructure sectors. Some major sectors are mentioned in the following Table 1 which includes sectors like electricity, oil, gas, and coal, telecommunications and internet, broadcasting and cable television, ports, airports, ports&inland waterways, railways, mass rapid transportation systems, highways, water supply and sanitation (Garg and Tripathy, 2010).

Table-1: Regulatory Framework on Various Sectors

Sector	Relevant Legislations/ Statutes	Regulatory Authority
Transport	No sectoral regulator	
Roads	National Highways Act of India, 1998, Under NHAI Act, 2000. The Control of National Highways (Land and Traffic) Act, 2002	No Independent regulatory authority. NHAI acts as the regulator as well as the operator.

Rail	Indian Railway Board Act 1905 Railway Act 1989	No independent regulator Railways act as the operator as well as the regulator.		
Airports	Aircraft Act 1934 Airports Authority of India (AAI) Act 1994	No independent regulator, proposal to set up one. AAI is the operator as well as the regulator.		
Ports	Indian Ports Act 1908 Major Port Trusts Act 1963	No independent regulator. Tariff Authority for Major Ports (TAMP) has the sole function		
Telecom and Internet	Telecom Regulatory Authority India, Act, 1997	Responsible for the regulation of telecom and internet service providers.		

Source: Compiled by the Author.

Analyzing table-1 to date, there has been no specific PPP law in infrastructure sectors. Since 2010 the DEA, Department of Infrastructure under the Ministry of Finance has been heavily involved in PPP research. After that, the innovative program called the PPP capacity building program has been initiated, which developed a PPP toolkit to assist decision-making for PPP implication (Kurniawan et al., 2013). To strengthen the national-level regulatory framework and streamline PPP procedures, the DEA produced guidelines for the formulation, appraisal, and approval of PPP projects as well as standardized bidding documents. The guidelines also apply to the provision of financial support for PPP- based financial and economic viability assessments. Model concession agreements (MCA) have also been developed by different ministries to ease contract negotiation (UNESCAP, 2021). Various regulatory bodies like TRAI, Central Electricity Regulatory Commission, State Electricity Regulatory Commissions Tariff Authority of Major ports, National Highway Authority of India, and Airport Authority of India (AAI) have been established as autonomous agencies to regulate the activities coming under their jurisdiction.

d) The Function of Institutional Framework

The institutional framework is a social mechanism and institutional arrangement in which an actor can be held to account by a forum (Fombad, 2013). It is a broad concept and it concerns the functions of governments, private enterprises, political jurisdictions, judicial systems, legislative bodies, and regulatory agencies. For the

Institutional framework, the GoI has drafted the PPP policy under consideration and many projects were under various stages of implementation that are based on GoI PPP guidelines (Ullah, 2014). These projects are conceptualized and enacted at two distinct levels 1) at the national level by the central government and 2) at the state and urban levels by the respective state governments or nodal agencies (Mahalingam, 2010b).

While implementing PPP projects both at central and state levels PPP cell plays a role as the overall decision-making body. The PPP cell is responsible for the approval of central sector PPP projects, and proposals cleared by the PPP Appraisal committee. The central government also supports the creation of PPP cells at the state levels for example states such as Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Orissa, and Uttarakhand, have their PPP cells. But there is a division of power between the central government and the state governments. Some areas are reserved exclusively for central governance, while there are a few sectors that are subject to joint governance. An examination of the existing laws, policies, and regulations indicates that they are a result of an ad-hoc approach, which is exacerbated by the overlapping power of the central and state governments (Chothani and Mulay, 2021). In this way, the GoI public procurement regime comprises a framework of overlapping administrative rules and guidelines, sector-specific manuals, and state-specific legislation (Mara, 2021).

e) Financing Support mechanism

Infrastructure financing requires both equity and debt. Equity funding is necessary as the lenders need some cushion in the cash flow from the project less operating and maintenance costs and the debt service requirements. For the purpose, the GoI notified the Viability Gap Fund (VGF) scheme, in 2006 to enhance the commercial attractiveness of competitively bid infrastructure projects which are justified on the ground of economic returns. Under the VGF scheme, only the central government can grant assistance up to 20% of project capital costs to PPP projects. The VGF scheme is only applicable when the concession is awarded to a private sector company that is selected through open competitive bidding and is responsible for financing, construction, maintenance, and operation of the project during the concession period (Haldea, 2013).

5.2 PPP Trends from 2006 to 2021

Even though there were ad-hoc situations, inadequate rules, and regulations, and unclear institutional arrangements to implement, manage and monitor PPP projects, India has run PPP projects in the energy sectors, airports, bridges, and road sectors since the 1990s. To date, India presents the case of the largest number of PPPs in number both at the central and state government levels in providing infrastructure and public goods. According to the reports of Private Participation in infrastructure (PPI) World Bank group following Figure-2, shows that the five major sectors where PPP projects are allocated are Energy, Transport, Port ant Information Communication Technology (ICT), Water-sanitation. Respectively, Figure-3, shows the nature of the investment, and Figure-4 shows the number of projects that were recommended for implementation and currently are in different phases.

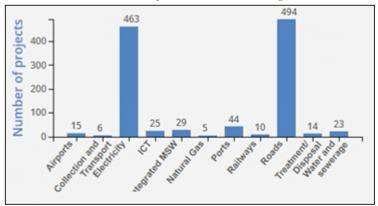


Figure-2: Total Available PPP projects in various sectors from 2006 to 2021 Source: India Snapshots - Private Participation in Infrastructure (PPI) -World Bank Group

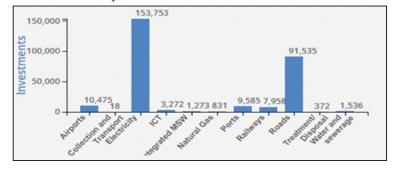


Figure-3 : Investment Commitment by sector Since 2006-2021 Source : India Snapshots - Private Participation in Infrastructure (PPI) - World Bank Group

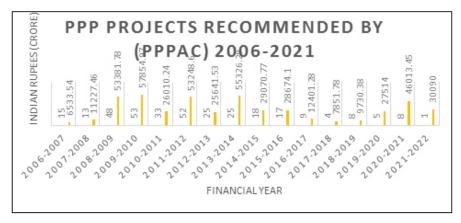


Figure-4: PPP projects recommended by PPPAC

Source: DEA PPP Cell, Infrastructure Division (2021)

PPP trends in India, both by numbers of projects and investments are shown in Figure-2 and 3, and recommended projects were shown in Figure-4. The total identified PPP projects were 1128 and the total recommended projects were 334.

From the date 2007 to 2012 the Indian PPP experienced an upsurge and reflected in recommended PPP projects. The private sector contributed to more than 500 billion (US dollars) (Pratap and Chakrabarti, 2017). The initial euphoria in the PPP projects diminished after 2012. There was little impact of the Global Financial Crisis of 2008 on the pace of PPP investments. During 2011-19, the recommended projects were reduced in numbers and amounts of investment, many projected projects were delayed, stalled, and terminated (Kudtarkar, 2020b). The deceleration both in numbers and investments reversed because of proactive policy measures by new models in the road sector and addressing some of the constraints in the other sectors like the availability of coal in the power generations. According to the IBEF, (2021), India will require investment worth Rs.50 trillion (US\$ 777.73 billion) across infrastructure by 2022 for sustainable development in the country. To deal with the budget gap India pays more attention to private participation considering that the private sector is an engine of economic growth and later chose an alternative option of financing public infrastructure investment (Rajpuria and Mehta, 1991).

6. Challenges in Implementing PPP

There are several challenges the GoI faces in recommending PPP projects from PPPAC. Inside the private sector participation,

most of the rules and regulations were established the first is that the central and state government in India tend to misunderstand their role in implementing PPP. The overlapping nature of regulatory authority in specific sectors is not clear.

Public management and monitoring system is another challenge. This is severely challenging because of the lack of capacity, in both central government and state governments, in selecting the PPP projects. Setting up an appropriate monitoring system both at the central and state levels is necessary.

Lack of database: the unavailability of reliable and timely data has tied the hands of policymakers and exposed the critical gaps in the official. The present PPP database provided by the PPP cell, PPP toolkits, Department of Economic Affairs, GoI, is very scanty with many data points missing. For example, the concession agreement is not disclosed to the public. Researchers are not able to understand the nature of the project and the consequences.

Finance: with the creation of new investment policies and financing models. It is also beginning to improve regulatory clarity and reduce execution risk through policy reform.

7. Limitations of the Study

Due to the nature of research questions and the limited use of data evidence, this research was based on largely qualitative research methods. The evidence discussed in this research provides the key knowledge for further PPP-related research. It is possible to enlarge the current research in project-specific research. PPP proposals approvement methods, and stakeholder management issues are for future research topics.

8. Conclusion and Recommendations for India

This paper has discussed the developing scenario of the Indian way of PPP in public infrastructure development on the existed policy paradigms. It has discussed the importance of PPP in India by acquiring the knowledge of literature. Although India does not have a long history of PPP practicing it has established several governmental institutions. It has shown the policies both in central and state governments. As a result, it has been shown that there were above 1128 identified PPP projects. But on one side only 334 projects were recommended from PPPAC to the implementation stage. The

result has shown the gap between the existed PPP projects and the total recommended projects by PPPAC. It means that most of the projects were not viable to be implemented in the current policy situation. Only the adequate rules, regulations and a viable market could show the attraction of the PPP market for GoI to implement more PPP projects. Therefore, the author has recommended the following issues to refrain from the ad-hoc situation in India.

- 1. It is important to identify the appropriate roles and responsibilities of the public sector and private sector partners at the policy level. There are similarities PPP-based projects should satisfy the interests of the public sector, private sector, and users to realize optimum efficiency in construction and operation/management and effectiveness. The role sharing between the GoI and private sectors should be based on social welfare.
- 2. Strengthen the legislation of PPP in government. In addressing issues such as corporatization, the opening of the market through deregulation, and providing access to the private sector by increasing coordination between the GoI and private sectors.
- 3. The leadership of GoI, to address the problems of stakeholders including developers, is very essential to establish independent sector-specific regulators. The GoI needs to take appropriate measures for the formation of independent monitoring organizations. Monitor organizations need to do a) Monitor contract compliance and service performance by the private party and ensure penalties or bonuses. b) Monitor and ensure compliance by the government with its responsibilities under the contract. c) Monitor on mitigating possible risks. d) Evaluate and allocate risk to the appropriate party resulting from the contract.
- 4. It is necessary to establish an impartial organization and a consulting company at an organizational level. The central government and state governments need to coordinate high-quality advisers to plan and implement the entire process.
- 5. Risk mitigation as far as the common risks are concerned for the success of the PPP projects. The risks could be dealt with at the national level through legislation or commitments. Social, economic, and environmental risks could be better dealt with at the local level.

6. Formulation and execution of regulatory agencies. For example, in the transport sector, NHAI plays twin roles-both as a developer and regulator. There is a need for an independent regulator for the national highways for effective monitoring of the projects by their desired objectives. The existing toll-related disputes, operation and maintenance quality issues, financing, renegotiations, and other issues need to be independently reviewed and required action.

- 7. It is necessary to encourage strong banking and domestic business to take a leading role in PPP-based initiatives. The PPP projects were mainly financed by commercial bank debt, which is normally short-term to medium-term in nature, and is not completely suitable for long-term infra investment needs. Hence, the government needs to take measures for developing the capital market by way of exploring the use of provident and pension funds and by developing an innovative bond market to meet the long-term financial needs.
- 8. Standardization of PPP policies. The central and the state-level projects have got stuck for a long time. There is a necessity for discussion on the consequences of the cost and time overruns for project execution. Importantly, the inter-organizational relations between the Tripod framework should be analyzed.
- 9. Availability of data it is very hard to decide the success or failure of PPPs projects in India. For this purpose, the author recommends that data of financial aspects of projects, like the total project cost-estimated and actual-with respect to construction, operation, debt, and equity ratio, cost of debt, discount rate, project-level financial burden, mostly the nature of investment the period time should be included in the government database on time.

References

- Bovaird, T., "A Brief Intellectual History of the Public-Private Partnership Movement", G. A. Hodge, C. Greve, & A. Boardman, *International Handbook on Public-Private Partnerships*, Cheltenha: Edward Elgar, 2010, 17-42.
- Carbonara, N., Costantino, N. and Pellegrino, R., "A Three-Layers Theoretical Framework For Analyzing Public-Private Partnerships: The Italian Case", *Organization, Technology, and Management in Construction: An International Journal*, 6(2), 2013, 799-810.

- Cervantes, M., OECD. (2016, 11 2). Available at: https://www.meti.go.jp/committee/kenkyukai/sangi/sangakukan_renkei/pdf/003_03_01.pdf Accessed on: 2021, November 10.
- Chothani, P., and Mulay, M., Infrastructure Investments in India. (2021). Available at http://www.legalserviceindia.com/article/l306-Infra structure-Investments-in-India.html. Accessed on 2021, November,1.
- Cui, C., Liu, Y., Hope, A. and Wang, J., "Review of studies on the public-private partnerships (PPP) for infrastructure projects", *International Journal of Project Management*, 36, 2018, 773-794,
- Datta, A., "Public-Private Partnerships in India: A Case for Reform?", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 44(33), 2009, 73-78.
- DEA PPP Cell, Infrastructure Division. (2021), Available at: https://www.pppinindia.gov.in/projectssummary?p_p_id=projectsummarydisplay_WAR_PPPININDIAProjectportlet_INSTANCE_PXBY5cotkTHJ&p_p_lifectycle=0&p_p_state=normal&p_p_mode=view&p_p_col_id=column1&p_p_col_count=2&projectsummarydisplay_WAR_PPPININDIAProjectp Accessed on 2021, November, 10.
- DEA, National Public Private Partnership Policy, (2011). Available at: https://ppp.worldbank.org/publicprivatepartnerships/sites/ppp.worldbank.org/files/documents/India_draftnationalppppolicy_EN.pdf Accessed on 2021, November 2.
- Engel, E., Fischer, R. D. and Galetovic, A., *The Economics of Public-Private Partnerships : A Basic Guide*, Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2014.
- Engel, E., Fischer, R. and Galetovic, A., When and How to Use Public-Private Partnerships in Infrastructure: Lessons from the International Experience, Massachusetts Avenue Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research Inc., 2020.
- Fombad, M. C., "An Overview of Accountability Mechanisms in Public-Private Partnerships in South Africa", *Ufahamu : A Journal of African Studies*, 37(1), 2013, 1-32.
- Garg, S. and Tripathy, P., "Indian Infrastructure Vision: Financing Challenges", *RITES Journal*, 19(1), 2010, 19.10.
- Gerrard, M. B., "Public-Private Partnerships", *Finance & Development*, 38(3), 2001. Available at: Finance & Development, September 2001 Public-Private Partnerships (imf.org). Accessed on 2021, November 25.
- Ghebrihiwet, N. and Motchenkova, E., "Relationship between FDI, foreign ownership restrictions, and technology transfer in the resources sector: A derivation approach", *Resources Policy*, 52(6), 2017, 320-326.
- GoI, Ministry of Finance Department of Economic Affairs. (2005), Available at: https://www.pppinindia.gov.in/documents/20181/45106/1.+Notifiati on+29th+Nov%2C+2005.pdf/b16df4ed-6887-44dd-8fb8-5091863b8b5b Accessed on, October 11, 2021.

Goldman, Sachs, India CAN Afford Its Massive Infrastructure Needs. (2009). Available at: http://www.gbv.de/dms/zbw/611425971.pdf Accessed on 2021, November 11.

- Grimsey, D. and Lewis, M. K., *The Economics of Public Private Partnerships*, England: Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, 2004.
- Haldea, G., Public Private Partnership in National Highways: Indian Perspective, New Delhi: OECD/ITF, 2013.
- Hodge, G. and Greve, C., The challenge of Public-Private Partnerships: Learning from International Experience, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, 2005.
- Hoppe, E. I., Kusterer, D. J. and Schmitz, P. W., "Public-private partnerships versus traditional procurement: An experimental investigation", *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 89, 2013, 145-166.
- IMF, Transition Economies: An IMF Perspective On Progress and Prospects. (2000). Available at Transition Economies: An IMF Perspective on Progress and Prospects-An IMF Issues Brief Accessed on November 6, 2021.
- IBEF, (2021). Available at:https://www.ibef.org/industry/infrastructure-sector-india.aspx Accessed on October 12, 2021 .
- Kivleniece, I. and Quelin, B. V., "Creating and Capturing Value in Public-Private Ties: A Private Actor's Perspective", *Academy of Management Review*, 37(2), 2012, 272-299.
- Komarynska et al., "Public-private partnership as an effective mechanism for attracting private investment in achieving the aims the socio-economic development of Ukraine", *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 17(4), 2019, 469-479.
- Kudtarkar, S. G., "Resetting PPP in Infrastructure Model in India Post-COVID-19 Pandemic", *The Indian Economic Journal*, 68(3), 2020a, 365-382.
- Kudtarkar, S. G. "Resetting PPP in Infrastructure Model in India Post-COVID-19 Pandemic", *The Indian Economic Journal*, 68(3), 2020b, 365-382.
- Kurniawan, F., Ogunlana, S., Motawa, I. and Dada, M., "Public-Private Partnership Projects Implementation: Three Case Studies of Seaport Projects in India", PPP International Conference 2013 Body of Knowledge, University of Central Lancashire (UCLAN) Preston, UK, 2013, 65-80.
- Kutsenko, E., Berezhnaya, L. and Korabeynikov, I., "Formation of the Mechanism of Public-Private Partnership as a Factor of Innovative Development: Advances in Social Science", *Education and Humanities Research*, 392, 2019, 296-299.
- Lakshmanan, L., "Public-Private Partnership in Indian Infrastructure Development: Issues and Options", *Reserve Bank of India Occasional Papers*, 29(1), 2008a, 37-77.

- Lakshmanan, L., "Public-Private Partnership in Indian Infrastructure Development: Issues and Options", *Reserve Bank of India Occasional Papers*, 29(1), 2008b, 37-77.
- Leigland, J., "Public-Private Partnerships in Developing Countries: The Emerging Evidence-based Critique", *The World Bank Research Observer*, 33(1), 2018, 103-134.
- Li, Y., Wang, X. and Wang, Y., "Using Bargaining Game Theory for Risk Allocation of Public-Private Partnership Projects: Insights from Different Alternating Offer Sequences of Participants", *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 143(3), 2017.
- Linder, S. H., "Coming to Terms With the Public-Private Partnership: A Grammar of Multiple Meanings", *American Behavioral Scientist*, 43(1), 1999, 35-51.
- Mahalingam, A., "PPP Experiences in Indian Cities: Barriers, Enablers, and the Way Forward", *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 136(4), 2010a, 419-429.
- Mahalingam, A., "PPP Experiences in Indian Cities: Barriers, Enablers, and the Way Forward", *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 136(4), 2010b, 419-429.
- Mara, P., India Procurement Series: Risks And Challenges in Supplying To the Government, (2021). Retrieved from mondaq: Available at: https://www.mondaq.com/india/food-drugs-healthcare-life-sciences/1087784/india-procurement-series-risks-and-challenges-in-supplying-to-the-government Accessed on, 2021, October 12.
- Mathur, S., *Public-private partnership for municipal water supply in developing countries: Lessons from Karnataka, India*, Urban Water Supply Improvement Project. 2017, 56-62.
- Mukherji, R., "The State, Economic Growth and Development in India", *India Review*, 8(1), 2009, 81-106.
- Nikolaev, I. A. & Bochkov, O. S., "Public-Private Partnership in the Russian Federation: economic contents and legal support. Real estate and investments", *Legal Regulation*, 3, 2017, 21-32.
- Patel, B., and Bhagat, S., "Significance of Public-Private Partnerships in India", *International Research Journal of Engineering and Technology*, 6(12), 2019, 1523-1528.
- Pathan, R., and Pimplikar, S. S., "Risk Assessment of BOT Road Projects", *IOSR Journal of Mechanical and Civil Engineering*, Vol. 5, No.3, 2013, 40-59.
- PPIAF, Available at PPP Basics and Principles of a PPP Framework Note 1, (2012). https://ppiaf.org/documents/3118/download. Accessed on 2021, November, 11.
- Pratap, K. V. & Chakrabarti, R., *Public-Private Partnerships in Infrastructure Managing the Challenges*, Gurugram, Haryana : Springer, 2017.

Rajpuria, K. & Mehta, R., "Role of Public and Private Sectors in India's Development: Selected Simulations from a Macroeconometric Model", *Economic and Political Weekly*, 26(31/32), 1991, 1873-1875.

- Rossi, M., Festa, G. and Gunardi, A., "The Evolution of Public-Private Partnerships in a Comparison between Europe and Italy: Some Perspectives for the Energy Sector", *International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy*, 9(3), 2019, 403-413.
- S, S. and Aiyar, A., "Twenty-Five Years of Indian Economic Reform A Story of Private-Sector Success, Government Failure, and Institutional Weakness", *Policy Analysis CATO Institute*, 803, 2016, 1-24.
- Samii, R., Wassenhove, L. V. and Bhattacharya, S., "An Innovative Public-Private Partnership: New Approach to Development", *World Development*, 30(6), 2002, 991-1008.
- Savas, E. S., *Privatization and Public-Private Partnerships*, New York: Catham House, 2000.
- Scharle, P., "Public-Private Partnership (PPP) as a Social Game", *Innovation*: *The European Journal of Social Science Research*, 15(3), 2002, 227-252.
- Sebastian, M., "India Infrastructure Report 2001 Issues in Regulations and Market Structure", M. Sebastian, *Issues in Infrastructure Development Today: The Interlinkages*, pp. 9-32. New Delhi: Oxford University Press, 2001.
- Skietrys, E., Raipa, A. & Bartkus, V. E., "Dimension of the Efficiency of Public-Private Partnership", *Engineering Economics*, 3(58), 2008, 45-50.
- Tang, L., Shen, Q. & Cheng, E. W., "A review of studies on Public-Private Partnership projects in the construction industry", *International Journal of Project Management*, 28(7), 2010, 683-694.
- Tshombe, L. M., Molokwane, T., Nduhura, A. and Nuwagaba, I., "An Analysis of Public-Private Partnerships in East Africa", *Research in World Economy*, 1(5), 2020, 152-163.
- Ullah, A., "An Analysis of Public Private Partnership (PPP) Policies in South Asia", *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4(1), 2014, 61-69.
- UNESCAP. (2021), Available at: https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/S4_PPP-Policy-Legal-Institutional-Frameworks_0.pdfb Accessed on 2021, November, 20.
- Wettenhall, R., "Mixes and Partnerships through Time", G. A. Hodge, C. Greve & A. Boardman, *International Handbook on Public-Private Partnerships*, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, 2010, 17-42.
- World Bank, COVID-19 and Public-Private Partnerships Practice: Note Assessing Operational PPP Portfolios, PPIAF, 2021.
- World Bank, PPI data. (2021, 913). Available at: https://ppi.worldbank.org/en/ppidata Accessed on August 13, 2021.

- Whiteside, H., "Public-private partnerships: market development through management reform", *Review of International Political Economy*, 27(4), 2020, 880-902.
- World Bank Institute PPIAF, *Public-Private Partnerships: Reference Guide Version 1.0. World Bank*, Washington DC: World Bank, 2012 https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle10986/16055 License: CC BY 3.0IGO. Accessed on 2021, November 1.
- Yang, Y., Hou, Y. and Wang, Y., "On the Development of Public-Private Partnerships in Transitional Economies: An Explanatory Framework", *Public Administration Review*, 73(2), 2013a, 301-310.
- Yang, Y., Hou, Y. and Wang, Y., "On the Development of Public-Private Partnerships in Transitional Economies: An Explanatory Framework", *Public Administration Review*, 73(2), 2013b, 301-310.
- Zhang, X. and Chen, S., "A systematic framework for infrastructure development through public-private partnerships", *International Association of Traffic and Safety Sciences*, 36(2), 2013, 88-97. ★

India's Shyness towards providing Reproductive Health Education to Adolescents

Manju Goel*

Despite the fact that as many as one fifth of the India's population comprises of adolescents, their reproductive health needs are poorly understood and ill-served. Dangerously enough, there is no consensus in India over introducing reproductive health education in the school and college syllabus. The present research article aimed at understanding the need of adolescents for reproductive health education. There is a need that students must feel comfortable seeking counseling on reproductive health issues. The tactic is to speak the same language as students do and to keep an open mind. There is no right or wrong answer when talking about reproductive health issues, and every question needs to be addressed, no matter how private. There is a need of involving parents and the community and of fostering an enabling environment by equipping adults, through training and sensitization efforts, to help adolescents. Adult family members of both sexes have to be informed of the need and value of reproductive health education for adolescents, and need to be reassured that young people need their support. The present paper recognized that school are an efficient way to reach young people and

 ^{*} Assistant Professor, Department of Social Work, Aditi Mahavidyalaya, University of Delhi, Bawana, Delhi-110039 (India) E-mail: <goelmanju12@gmail.com>

their families. Teachers can function as healthy role models, advocates for healthy school environments, gatekeepers for students in need of services, resource people for accurate information and effective instructors. Schools could provide a safe place for adolescents to discuss reproductive health issues, get advice and explore non-stereotypical gender roles. However, little is known about how ready schools are to embark in this task.

[Keywords: Reproductive health, Adolescents, Need, Challenges]

1. Introduction

"Reproductive health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and to its functions and processes... It also improves sexual health, the purpose of which is the enhancement of life and personal relation, and not merely counseling and care related to reproductive and sexually transmitted diseases" (WHO, 1996). The above definition of reproductive health contained in the programme of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), Cairo is an improved version of the world health organization's technical definition, which was accepted by the United Nations general assembly. It is being followed now for all practical purposes by government and voluntary agencies world over.

The reproductive health thus includes a much wider area than only physical well-being. Reproductive health addresses the physical, social, emotional and psychological dimensions of sex and reproduction and not just the presence or absence of disease of reproductive organs. The proponents of the reproductive health framework believe that reproductive health is inextricably linked to the subject of reproductive rights and freedom. The reproductive health concept extends beyond the narrow confines of family planning to encompass all aspects of human sexuality and reproductive health needs during the various stages of the life cycle. The present paper aimed at understanding the need of adolescents for reproductive health education. The present paper analyze the status of reproductive health education in India by reviewing the research studies conducting on reproductive health education theme.

2. Reproductive Health Status of Adolescents in India

The World Health Organization defines adolescence as the period of life between ages 10 and 19. Adolescence is a stage of

development transition i.e. a bridge between childhood and adulthood. It is a progress from appearance of secondary sex characteristics (Puberty) to sexual and reproductive maturity. It is the stage of development of adult mental process and adult identity and transition from total socio-economic dependence to relative independence (WHO, 1986 and, Gupta et al., 2004).

About one fifth (22-23%) of world's, population is adolescents (Population report, 2001). Situation of adolescents vary by gender, class, and region. About 30 percent of all adolescents are illiterate, 20 percent of all boys and 40 percent of all girls (IIPS, 1995). Among adolescents aged 11-14 years, 76 percent boys and 55 percent girls are enrolled in school. More than half of adolescent boys and less than 20 percent girls were reported to be working for livelihood. Again more than 50 percent of girls marry before 18 years and have at least one child by age 20. Like women, girls' work is largely unrecognized and not valued (Jejeebhoy, 1995 and, Bhende, 1995). Gender disparities in nutritional status, access to health care, educational attainment and growth are also well documented.

Adolescence is a phase when rights of the childhood start shaping while responsibilities and rights of the adults are yet to become accessible. One is 'old enough' for certain things and 'still too small' for certain other things. This phase continues through the second decade of every individual's life. This age group is particularly vulnerable to conditions in their social and physical environments, due to exposure to wide range of positive and negative determinants of health. The interaction of these determinants at each developmental stage helps to define both their level of health and its impact on the later life. The key determinants including social status, income, employment, environment at work, education, social set up, natural and built up environment, personal health practices, individual capacity and coping skills, biological and genetic endowments (Acharya and Dasgupta, 2005). Although adolescents are 1/5th of world's population still it is pertinent to note that many girls are grossly underweight at adolescence (Jejeebhoy, 1995).

Adolescents are an important resource of any country. They have successfully passed the adversaries of childhood and are on their way to adulthood. This is the stage when physical changes are taking place in their development. During this transition period they may face troubles due to lack of right kind of information regarding

their own physical and or sexual development. Many adolescent are sexually active increasingly at early ages. Their vulnerability, ignorance on matters related to their reproductive health, their inadequate knowledge on contraception, and their inability or unwillingness to use family planning and health service leads adolescent to face reproductive morbidity and mortality (Onifade, 1999). Jejeebhoy (1996) in his study showed that adolescent fertility in India occurs mainly within the context of marriage and over half of all women aged 15-19 years have experienced pregnancy or birth of a child. Unfortunately, their education lacks inputs on reproductive health this is despite their strong desires to participate in activities geared towards their own reproductive health and social development needs. It is feared that adolescent girls as well as boys if not duly informed find themselves at risk of pregnancy, child bearing and getting infected by sexually transmitted diseases. From the forgoing discussion it is clear that reproductive health is an emerging issue among adolescents.

3. National Policies for Adolescents in India

It is surprising to note that there has been no dedicated policy for the adolescents in India. The National Health Policy 2002 (GOI, 2002) and the national Youth Policy 1985 (GOI, 1985) has nothing for the adolescents, not even a ritualistic mention. The National Youth Policy 2003 (GOI, 2003) addressed the need and concerns of adolescents to a certain extent.

The National Youth Policy-2003 has defined adolescents within the overall framework of 'youth'. Youth has been defined as the age group of 13-35 years, estimated to be about 37% in 1997 and to reach 40% by 2016. The age group of 13-19 years within this broad definition has been defined as adolescents. Despite recognizing adolescents as a 'separate constituency' and 'adolescents' particularly female adolescents' as a 'priority target groups' the policy document has no dedicated policies for adolescents.

The National Population Policy, 2000 (GOI, 2000) did not recognize adolescents as a group having special needs. The overriding concern in this policy is enforcing the Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1976. Marriage and fertility among young people have been a policy concern because of population growth. Emphasis has been given to protection from unwanted pregnancies and Sexually

Transmitted Infections (STIs) and reproductive health services for adolescent boys and girls in rural India. The operational strategies suggested ranged from providing counseling through Primary Health Centres and Sub-Centres and expansion of the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) to cover adolescents. These prescriptions do not take account of ground realities and after so many years following the declaration of the Policy, no action has been taken on these counts.

The Tenth Five Year Plan (GOI, undated) estimated the number of adolescents at 200 million in 1996 and has been projected to increase to 215.3 million by 2016. Adolescent girls in the age group of 15-19 years currently account for about 10 percent of the population. In the context of health care for adolescents, the Tenth Plan has proposed certain initiatives: specialized counseling and IEC though NGOs, appropriate nutrition and health education, advocacy for "delay in age" at marriage, health and nutrition interventions during pregnancy in adolescents. It is not clear how these initiatives will be operationalised. The overriding emphasis on education and advocacy does not identify the structure that will implement these initiatives. Clearly, most of these are beyond the functions of health service systems.

Reproductive health services provided by Reproductive and Child Health Programme is deeply rooted in the concern for population growth. The primary focus has been on contraception for adult married women. Other aspects of reproductive health-education, awareness, diagnosis and treatment of STIs, and HIV/AIDS, services for young unmarried men have been weak or neglected. Where services exist, social constraints pose enormous obstacles for young people to access these services. The National Population Policy of 2000 acknowledged that the services have not reached the young population.

Recently Directorate of Education in collaboration with Delhi State AIDS Control Society (DSACS) has initiated School Adolescence Education Programme titled "YUVA". It seeks to sensitize adolescents about a range of issues confronting them at different stages of their growing up. It includes scholastic and career plan, generic life skills, growing up and health and hygiene, body image and nutrition, interpersonal relationship and effective communication, mental health and substance abuse, adolescents'

sexual and reproductive health. It can be noticed that sexual and reproductive health is one of the area along with other components. In the first phase they have targeted only government schools in Delhi and later on it will reach out unaided and aided private schools and out of school students.

Thus from the above discussion it is clear that adolescent are still growing up without the opportunities, information, skills, health services and support they need to go through sexual development and postpone sex until they are physically and socially mature and able to make well informed, responsible decisions. Moreover many traditional practices and myths surround normal physiological process such as menarche and when adolescent are not given scientific explanation of such phenomenon, they are left puzzled and are unable to differentiate between myth and reality. This has resulted in anxiety and psychological trauma in adults, who as teenagers had held firmly to certain belief about sexuality (Basanayake, 1985). Due to aforesaid reasons, it is felt that there is a need for creating a generation with proper knowledge for good health.

4. Need for Reproductive Health Education among Adolescents

The need to address reproductive health issues of the adolescents has been recognized at various national and international forums. Various Government and Non-government organizations are trying to develop acceptable and effective reproductive health education packages for adolescents. As have been discussed earlier that adolescents' information about their own sexuality and physical well-being is extremely poor.

The experiences of girls and boys are largely shaped by the construction of gender, caste, class and community norms. The experience of adolescence by boys is almost diametrically opposite to the experience of adolescence by girls. Although the institution of marriage underlies and strongly determines the gender differential norms that govern Indian adolescents, the norms of sexuality underlying the general social norms come to the forefront. There is a growing acceptance of the fact that adolescents need proper information.

It is an established fact that adolescence is a period of increased risk-taking and therefore susceptibility to behavioural problems at

the time of puberty and new concerns about reproductive health. Female adolescents, compared to their male counterparts, face disproportionate health concerns following puberty, foremost among these are too-early pregnancy and frequent childbearing. Male adolescents, for their part, often lack a sense of shared responsibility for reproductive matters and respect for reproductive choices there is a growing acceptance of the fact that adolescents need information and education so they can protect themselves and make informed decisions regarding their reproductive health. At the same time it is recognized that parents have important rights and responsibilities in that regards. Despite such awareness, resistance persists. Some people fear that educating adolescents about reproductive health and providing them with related information and services will lead to irresponsibility and promiscuity, although studies have shown that the reverse is true. For their part, many adolescents are reluctant to seek help from adults either within their families or in school they therefore do not get the information, counseling and services they need. There is a need of involving parents and the community and of fostering an "enabling environment by equipping adults, through training and sensitization efforts, to help adolescents. Adult family members of both sexes have to be informed of the need and value of reproductive health education for adolescents, and need to be reassured that young people need their support. Thus parents ought to be the main source of information on reproductive health education but were not giving adolescents what they needed.

It has been seen in the literature that with more children than ever in school, these institutions are an efficient way to reach young people and their families. Teachers can function as healthy role models, advocates for healthy school environments, gatekeepers for students in need of services, resource people for accurate information and effective instructors. Schools could provide a safe place for adolescents to discuss reproductive health issues, get advice and explore non-stereotypical gender roles. However, little is known about how ready schools are to embark in this task.

Literature review has shown that adolescents are becoming sexually active at a younger age. The age of which sexual activity begins varies from 12-18 years (Abraham, 1998; Awasthi and Pande, 1998; Acharya and Das gupta 2005; Sharma and Sharma, 1995). The trends indicate greater permissiveness towards premarital sex (Awasthi and Pande, 1998 and, Sharma and Sharma, 1995)

Adolescent have misconception, myths and little access to correct information and knowledge about sex, sexuality and reproductive health (Ahuja and Tewari, 1995; Awasthi and Pande, 1998; Bhasin et al., 1997; Acharya and Das Gupta, 2005 and, Reddy, 2005). Studies have shown that misconception existed, more among females than males (Amalraj et al., 1997; Abraham, 1998; Shilpa and Ratna Kumari, 1999; Devi, Reddy and Laxmanna, 1998) Most of the studies have recommended the need for comprehensive reproductive health education (Awasthi and Pande, 1998; Abraham, 1998; Ahuja and Tewari, 1995; Somaya julu, 2004; Shilpa and Ratnakumari, 1999). Studies also discussed the crucial role that schools and parents can play in strengthening adolescent reproductive health programme (Bhatia and Swami, 2000; Acharya and Dasgupta, 2005; Devi, Reddy and Laxmanna, 1998). Studies have stressed that adolescent sexuality should be geared in a positive way for boy and girls (Bhasin and Aggarwal, 1999; Sandhya, 2005; Reddy, 2005; Goyal, 1995; and Acharya and Dasgupta, 2005) and the concept of sexual behaviours can also be clarified and inculcated during this phase of life.

The studies carried out so far on reproductive health issues have identified a number of pathways through which different factors may influence reproductive health of adolescents. It's high time to address some of the issues that still need to examine like, identification of the reproductive health needs of adolescents, proper documentation and evaluation of existing adolescents' programmes, designing various approaches to address reproductive health needs of adolescents, ensuring involvement of parents, teachers and at large community also.

5. Implications for Social Work Practice

Social work professionals can help in raising the sensitization among people about the different problems encountered by adolescents in getting information on reproductive health issues. They can highlight the need to make the existing school health service more sensitive to the needs of adolescents. Social work professionals can bridge the gap between the adolescents and adults (parents and teachers) who continue to be the main and easily accessible source of information especially in the area of reproductive health education for adolescents.

Further there is a need that the information regarding reproductive health issues should be made available to adolescents, so that they can make informed and responsible decisions. Social work

professionals can also emphasize on the need to provide education to adolescents and organization working with adolescents to make them aware of their rights and responsibilities for their own personal health care, and to encourage them to demand for reproductive health education that will meet their particular needs and concern.

In order to ensure universal access to reproductive health education for the adolescents the Social workers can emphasize on the need to create and support programs in the schools as well community, also help in realizing the need to create programs and services that address specific health needs of the adolescents.

Thus adolescents need realistic and accurate information related to reproductive health to prepare them for healthy adult relationships and equipping them to protect themselves from risky situations.

References

- Abraham, L., *Understanding Youth Sexuality : a study of college students in Mumbai, India*, Mumbai : Tata Institute of Social Sciences, 1998.
- Acharya, S. S. & R. Dasgupta, "HIV/AIDS and adolescents: Some issues and concerns from India", *Indian Journal of Social Work*, 35(1-2), 2005, 123-137.
- Ahuja, A. & S. Tewari, "Awareness of pubertal changes among adolescent girls", *The journal of Family Welfare*, 41(1), 1995, 46-50.
- Amalraj, E. R. et al., "First Year Medical Students' AIDS knowledge and attitude", O.P. Aggarwal, A.K. Sharma & A. Indrayan (eds.), *HIV/ AIDS Research in India*, New Delhi: NACO, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, GOI, 1997, 243-246.
- Awasthi, S. & V. K. Pande, "Sexual behaviour pattern and knowledge of sexually transmitted diseases in adolescent boys in urban slums of Lucknow, North India", *Indian Pediatrics*, 35(11), 1998, 1105-1109.
- Basanayake, S., "Knowledge and Attitude about Reproductive Health among Young in Srilanka", *Journal of Family Welfare*, 33(4), 1985.
- Bhasin, S. K. et al., "Knowledge and attitudes amongst school children regarding AIDS in East Delhi", O. P. Aggarwal, A. K. Sharma & A. Indrayan (eds.), *HIV/AIDS Research in India*, New Delhi: NACO, Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, GOI, 1997, 166-170.
- Bhasin , S. K. and Aggarwal , O. P., "Perceptions of teachers regarding Sex education in National Capital Territory of Delhi", *Indian Journal of Pediatrics*, 66(4), 1999, 527-531.
- Bhatia, V. & H. M. Swami, "Fertility Control methods: Knowledge of adolescent girls in school of Chandigarh", *Indian Journal of Medical Sciences*, 54(8), 2000, 342-346.
- Devi, G., N. V. Reddy & M. Laxmanna, "Knowledge of sex education among adolescents", *The Journal of Family Welfare*, 35(1-4), 1988, 55-60.

- Government of India, *National Youth Policy 1985*, New Delhi : Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports, 1985.
- Government of India, *National Health Policy 2002*. New Delhi: Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports, 2002.
- Government of India, *National Youth Policy 2003*, New Delhi : Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports, 2003.
- Government of India, *Tenth Five Year Plan* (2002-2007), 2, New Delhi : Planning Commission, (not dated).
- Goyal, R. C., "Impact of health education on AIDS awareness among the rural community", *Health and Population: Perspective and Issues*, 18(20), 1995, 81-89.
- IIPS, *National Family and Health Survey (MCH and Family Planning) in india* 1992-93, Bombay: International Institute for Population Science and Macro International, 1995
- Jejeebhoy. S., Women's Education Autonomy And Reproductive Behaviour Experiences From Developing Countries, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995.
- Jejeebhoy, S., "Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Behaviour: A review of the evidence from India", Working Paper 3, International Council for Research on women, 1996.
- Onifade, I., *Unmet Reproductive Needs of Adolescents: Implications of HIV/AIDS Prevention in Africa*, Canberra: National Centre for Epidemiological and Population Health and Australian National University, 1999.
- Population Report, *Meeting Needs To Young Adults Population*, Reports Series 41, 2001.
- Reddy, P. J., D. Usha Rani, G. B. Reddy and K. K. Reddy, "Sexual and Reproductive Health Constraints of Adolescent School Girls", *Indian Journal of Social Work*, 66(4), 2005, 431-441.
- Sandya Rani, P. M. "Sexual and Reproductive Health Status of adolescents and young married girls: Isues and concerns", *Indian Journal of Social Work*, 99(4), 2005, 460-470.
- Sharma, V. and Sharma, A., "The Letter box approach A model for sex education in an Orthodox Society", *The Journal of Family Welfare*, 41(4), 1999, 31-34.
- Shilpa, V. and, Ratnakumari, S., "Knowledge of high school students on 'reproductive health and AIDS'", *Indian Psychological Review*, 52(1), 1999, 14-23.
- Somayajulu, U. V., "Sexual Behavior and HIV/ AIDS Related Implication", **The Indian journal of Social Work**, 65 (4), 2004, 596-604.
- World Health Organisation, *Young People's health a challenge for society*, Geneva: WHO series 73, 1986.
- World Health Organization, *Identifying Needs and Developing A National Strategy For Reproductive Health*, Geneva: WHO, 1996. ★

Form 4 (See Rule 8)

Place of Publication : Delhi, India

Periodicity : Quarterly (English)

Printer's Name : Dr. Priyanka Mahajan

M/S Saksham Computers

Nationality : Indian

Address : D-59, Shastri Nagar

Meerut-250 004 (INDIA)

Editor's Name : Dr. Dharam Vir

Nationality : Indian

Address : D-59, Shastri Nagar

Meerut-250 004 (INDIA)

Names and addresses of : Dr. S. S. Shashi

the individuals who own B-4/245, Safdarjung Enclave

the journal and of the New Delhi-110 029

partners or share-holders Dr. Dharam Vir

holdings more than one per D-59, Shastri Nagar

cent of the total capital Meerut-250 004 (INDIA)

I, Dr. Dharam Vir, hereby declare that the particulars given above are true to the best of my knowledge and belief.

Dharam Vir

ISSN 0302-9298

Regd. No. RN 23807172

Double-blind Reviewed, Indexed and Refereed Quarterly International Journal

For enquiry, please contact:

The Managing Editor

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES

D-59, Shastri Nagar, Meerut - 250 004 (INDIA)
Ph.: 0121-2763765, +919997771669, +919219658788
Visit us at www.cssdelhi.org <email: editor@cssdelhi.org; papersubmission@cssdelhi.org>