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Founder
S. S. Shashi

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Dharam Vir

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Contents

1. Justice Theory Model for an Ideal State of Plato and Aristotle <i>Zinat Ara and Akanksha Bansal Chopra</i>	1
2. Gender-based Violence against Women <i>Shalini Mishra</i>	13
3. Political Dynamics of India's Responses to Refugees <i>Rochana Mittal and Deepak Tomar</i>	22
4. State of Poverty in Nepal <i>Dipesh Kumar Ghimire</i>	34
5. Commercialization of Women by Mass Media <i>Savya Sanchi</i>	54
6. An Assessment of Socio-economic Situation during the COVID-19 Pandemic : A Theoretical Review in Nepalese Context <i>Manoj Kumar Chaudhary</i>	62
7. Mauryan Weavers - The Pioneer of Textile Industry <i>Smita Sharma</i>	79
8. Attaining Prosperity through Power Trade with Neighboring Countries <i>Hom Raj Dahal</i>	85
9. Testing the Convergence Hypothesis for Income across Indian States : Before and After the Economic Liberalization <i>Prabhjot Kaur</i>	93
10. Infrastructural Techno-sociality : A Study of Cyber-café Managers in Guwahati, India <i>Krishanu Bhargav Neog</i>	113
11. Women Development through ICTs <i>Sanjeev Mahajan and Bhawna</i>	129
12. Disability and Health Issue : A Social Perspective <i>Roli Prakash</i>	136
13. Unintended Consequences of Migration and Labour Vacuum in Agrarian Rural Village in Nepal <i>Mahesh Kumar Shrestha, Madhu Giri and Guman Singh Khatri</i>	146
14. Analysis of Political History of India and Africa Relations <i>Suresh Kumar and Vibha Gupta</i>	163

15. Bridging the Digital Divide in Education in India : Problems and Prospects <i>Saksham Mahajan</i>	176
16. Use of Social Media in Social Activism <i>Sanjeev Mahajan and Umesh Kumar</i>	188
17. Consolidation of Economic Empowerment of India and Africa <i>Prahlad Kumar Bairwa, Suresh Kumar and Vibha Gupta</i>	196
18. A Study of Academic Stress among Senior Secondary Students during E-Learning <i>Santlal Ravat, Ankita Goyal and Rajive Kumar</i>	212
19. Accessibility and Inequality in the Indian Health Care System among Scheduled Caste Women <i>Sanjeev Mahajan and Alisha</i>	219
20. Shinzo Abe's Contribution in India- Japan Relations <i>Sandeep Kumar Patel</i>	230

Justice Theory Model for an Ideal State of Plato and Aristotle

Zinat Ara* and Akanksha Bansal Chopra**

Plato and Aristotle both were ancient Greek Philosophers who have critically studied various aspects of Philosophy. Aristotle's work has been more acceptable compared to Plato due to its empirical and logical reasoning. Plato wanted that all should be given equal opportunity in order to prove their ability in the circle of social stratification, but for Aristotle there should be laws guiding education as a national concern. Plato had influences Aristotle in many ways. For instance, democracy is not a perfect type of government as it relates all with it, while not everyone possess the capability to be a part of the government. The common objective of both the philosophers was to establish an ideal state with the aim of achieving justice as a supreme virtue by considering various aspects namely, education, division of society, democracy, employment and communism. For this, Plato had used an inductive reasoning method while Aristotle had used deductive approach. In this research, the comparative study of their philosophies is done and a mathematical model is developed to achieve the said objective.

[**Keywords** : State, Democracy, Justice, Government, Communism]

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1. Education

1.1 Plato on Education

Plato regards education as a means to achieve justice, both individual justice and social justice. According to Plato, individual justice can be obtained when each individual develops his or her ability to the fullest. In this sense, justice means excellence. For the Greeks and Plato, excellence is virtue. According to Socrates, virtue is knowledge. Thus, knowledge is required to be just. From this Plato concludes that virtue can be obtained through three stages of development of knowledge : knowledge of one's own job, self-knowledge, and knowledge of the Idea of the Good. According to Plato, social justice can be achieved when all social classes in a society, workers, warriors, and rulers are in a harmonious relationship. Plato believes that all people can easily exist in harmony when society gives them equal educational opportunity from an early age to compete fairly with each other. When the political system falls into the hands of the unskilled, who do not have equal educational opportunities, an unjust society will emerge. The result will be an oligarchy, flawed Democracy, or tyranny. In most Asian countries, modern education has made a significant contribution to the economic development of their societies.

Education in these countries has its problems. There is serious social inequality, inequality of educational opportunity, lack of character education, and economic burden on parents. So to achieve Justice, modern society needs the Platonic theory education. Plato's philosophy of education can provide a comprehensive vision to solve those problems in education. There is also some controversy about the relationship between education and economics. It is a widespread view standard in East and West that businesses should indirectly control or even take over education to compete with other nations economically. However, Plato disagrees with this notion since business is concerned mainly with profit.

On the other hand, proper education is linked to the common good based on the rational principle of individual and social justice. For Plato, education is a matter of moving people from simple beliefs to correct knowledge. This education is of paramount importance to those who become politicians and leaders. Plato's pedagogical theory has a practical purpose in teaching citizenship and leadership. His main interest is character education.¹

1.2 Aristotle on Education

Another innovator of ancient education, Aristotle, adopted a Greek version of the liberal arts curriculum, emphasizing the natural sciences, biology, botany, physiology, and zoology. He studied with Plato for 20 years at the Academy and eventually joined him and Socrates in the history of Western education. Aristotle took Plato's philosophical and educational ideas as a starting point and modified them throughout his life to become his philosophy. Plato believed that truth was in the mind, but Aristotle looked to the world outside the mind to prove what was true.

Aristotle was born in 384 BC in Greece. He worked as a tutor to Alexander the Great for seven years, eventually establishing a school in Athens known as the Lyceum. Aristotle believed that the purpose of the school was to develop and realize the reasoning abilities of the students, form an ethical character, and provide a basis for skills and knowledge. He was of the view that the purpose of schooling was to develop the mind and develop the dispositions and habits that shape the human mind. The school was to prepare future citizens with the functional knowledge necessary to carry out political, social, and economic affairs. His lifelong passion for science and medicine is reflected in his educational philosophy, and one of his most important philosophies is to define humans as rational animals.

He is the founder of natural realism. His work spans many disciplines, including logic, metaphysics, philosophy of mind, ethics, political theory, aesthetics, and rhetoric. They even explore mainly non-philosophical areas, such as empirical biology, where he excelled in detailed observations and taxonomy of plants and animals. In all these areas, Aristotle's theory has shone, met resistance, aroused controversy, and generally aroused the steady interest of ordinary readers.

Aristotle, like Plato, recognized the importance of infancy as a formative period of human development. He divided school education into primary, secondary, and higher education. 7-14 years old attend primary school and may consist of gymnastics, writing, reading, music, and drawing. The 14-21 year old will attend high school and continue her primary education, choosing literature, poetry, drama, choral music, and dance. Their last four years will be devoted to military training, tactics, and strategy. Higher education began at the age of 21 and continued for as long as the student

wanted and could do it. Because Aristotle believed that women could not carry out such complex studies, higher education was only given to men.

Mathematically, let us define the criteria of education discussed by both the philosophers as follows :

Let k denotes the knowledge; k' denotes the knowledge complement

M denotes the number of total males in the society; and

F denotes the number of total females in the society.

Then,

$k_P = (M_k \cup F_k)$; where k_P is the knowledge explained by Plato.

$k_A = (M_k - M_{k'})$; where k_A is the knowledge explained by Aristotle.

2. Democracy

2.1 Plato on Democracy

Plato talks about Politics in the form of a danger to Democracy due to excessive freedom. This sort of system gives the right to rule to people. This concept has been very different from the present time of understanding the same Democracy, according to Plato, occurs when "the poor defeat and kill or deport their opponents, grant the rest equal civil rights and opportunities to public office, and appointments are made by lot."²

According to Plato, only philosopher-kings had the right to rule society, and except for ordinary people, they were considered barbarians and did not deserve to rule. This idea may have to do with his aristocratic background. For him, only the elite should rule. Plato asserts that the special education provided to the minority enables the minority to become philosophers. However, this will result in creating a ruling class that does not represent the ruled. It is also difficult to find a government representing 100% of the population.

Plato's thought begins with his masterpiece and one of his greatest works, the Republic. The Republic focuses on the question of what justice is. He explores the supreme political order, the fairest or the happiest soul, and explains how to dedicate one's life to knowledge, a broad philosophical study including mathematics and philosophy. In his work of Republic, political inquiries may be clear by examining his Laws, which are dedicated to the question of the

best practicable form of government, or “regime.” Both the Republic and Laws involve the relationship between political affairs and cities in speech-between actual politics and philosophy-what is lawful and traditional compared to rationally or by nature good.

He was the first Greek philosopher to undertake a careful, systematic analysis of fundamental questions in political philosophy. His political views were designed mainly by the conception of “human good” and “nature of knowledge”. He further believed that the purpose of a political community is to attain the best possible life for its inhabitants. This is to ensure that rulers have true understanding of human nature and what makes human life truly meaningful. These starting points of Plato’s political ideas were the impact of Socrates thought. The Theory of political constitutions of an ideal state was not formed by Socrates as his aim was to achieve knowledge of the human good-the values that determine how we ought to live our lives. He believed that such knowledge was indispensable to wise decision-making in the political sphere.

2.2 Aristotle on Democracy

According to Aristotle, Democracy is not the best form of government, same as those assigned to oligarchy and monarchy, the powers of Democracy and types of government. Poor governance for them in Democracy. Conversely, the best forms of government are the rule of law, aristocracy (literally the rule of the supreme), or a monarchy, a government in which the ruler truly cares about his country’s interests.

Aristotle says that government should be occupied by those who have sufficient time to practice virtue. It is very different from modern professional politicians who get their wealth at the expense of citizens. Aristotle thinks rulers should be propertied and leisured, so, without other worries, they can invest their time in producing virtue. Labourers are too busy.

According to Dahl, Aristotle and Plato agrees with modern Democracies of the society that aims “to produce good citizens” and “Virtue, justice, and happiness are companions in developing citizens who seek the common good.”

Aristotle claimed that there were six general ways where societies could be organized under the political rule, depending on the masters and the slaves.

Table-1 : Forms of Government

	The One	The Few	The Many
For Common Interest	Monarchy	Aristocracy	Polity
For Ruler(s) Interest	Tyranny	Oligarchy	Democracy

He referred to the first row as “true forms” of government, while the second row as the “defective and perverted forms” of the first three.

The fundamental difference between Democracy and oligarchy is poverty and wealth. There is an oligarchy where a few or many rule because of their wealth. There is a democracy where the poor rule.

It is important to note that Aristotle did not consider oligarchy and Democracy to be inherently bad. Even if they rule for the benefit of those in power, they can create a comfortable society instead of tyranny in which no freeman of the right mind will choose.

Let us mathematically define the criterion of Democracy discussed by the two philosophers as follows.

If D_P denotes the Democracy explained by Plato and D_A denotes the Democracy explained by Aristotle, then

$D_P = k_P \cup k_P^c$; where k_P is the knowledge explained by Plato and k_P^c is knowledge complement.

$D_A = k_A$; where k_A is the knowledge explained by Aristotle

3. Employment

3.1 Plato on Employment

When Plato wrote “Republic” around 375 BC, Athenian women were (mostly) second-class citizens. They could not play any role in voting, land ownership, inheritance, or political life. Before marriage, at the average age of 14, women were cared for by their fathers or other male relatives. Once married, a woman was legally under the authority of her husband. In the state, Plato presents his vision of an ideal society. The Republic is a cornerstone of Western philosophy, exploring issues such as the nature of a perfect community, the role of individuals in that community, and issues related to justice, politics, and knowledge.

Given the cultural context, Plato's role in women in their ideal state is surprising. Women in the Republic were able to occupy the highest strata of public life alongside men, rather than from the disenfranchised lower classes. In the Republic, the state's highest class is what Plato calls the "guardians." Guardians come from the elite of society and play a complex role. They are warriors, political managers, and philosophers. At the time, the idea of accepting women as a guardian class must have shocked Athenian society. The absence of women in political life does not mean that women are strictly relegated to the private realm. Ancient Greek literature from often depicts a woman alone at home, and for many years historians have taken hints from this literary depiction.

3.1.1 Two Sides of Plato's Thought

According to Emily Hume Cosey, who reads ancient history and philosophy at the University of Melbourne, Women in ancient Greece "do all kinds of work", "participated in the market", "engaged in the production and maintenance of textiles", "worked as midwives, and in some cases as doctors, painters, and bronzesmiths".

Therefore, Plato's recommendations for women's participation in public life are less revolutionary than they seem. The vision of women in political life is certainly radical and has its roots in key elements of Plato's philosophy. In the Republic, Plato has an obvious idea of the character of the ideal guardian: it should be someone friendly to their fellow citizens but fierce in the face of any enemy - much like a typical guard dog.

Plato accepted the concept of a division of labour, separating them first into categories of rich and poor and then into categories by different kinds of work. He argued that the abolition of private property could only avoid such an arrangement.

3.2 Aristotle on Employment

Aristotle supported the division of labour as a vital feature of the ideal state. He wanted enslaved people to work in the field (agriculture), and their free time was a means to work again. However, he thought that leisure was an end for those exempt from the necessity of labour, the Philosopher king class. Other people's labour as a means of leisure for this privileged class. It justifies slavery and insists that only the leisure class should actively

participate in exercising sovereignty. Work was needed to meet material needs. Aristotle made it clear that the goal of the majority's efforts is for the minority, the elite, to engage in the pure activity of spirit, art, philosophy, and politics. Aristotle supported the ownership of private property and wealth. He saw labour as a corrupt waste of time that hindered the pursuit of virtue by citizens.

Let us mathematically define the criterion of employment discussed by the two philosophers as

Let E_P be the employment defined by Plato, then

$E_P = k_P |_a$ where $a \in$ knowledge possessed as per the ability of the person.

And E_A be the employment defined by Aristotle, then

$E_A = (R \cup R') |_a$ where R denotes the Ruling class; R' denotes the Ruled class and where $a \in$ knowledge possessed as per the ability of the person.

4. Division of Society

4.1 Plato on Society

There are three types of people in an ideal state - productive workers, helpers, and rulers. The productive workers that make up most of the population include farmers, skilled and unskilled workers, business people, artists, entertainers, personal service providers, and professional workers. Support personnel include military and law enforcement personnel. A relatively small number of rulers are made up of those best suited to govern with knowledge, dedication, and integrity in serving and protecting the country's interests. Plato assumes ideal state morality and considers three classes: wisdom, courage, Temperance, and justice. Wisdom belongs to a ruler who uses knowledge to carefully manage the affairs of a nation. Courage belongs to the auxiliary units that bravely and decisively carry out the monarch's orders and defend the country. Temperance exists in an ideal state where all classes exercise the discipline necessary to obey the best laws adequately. Justice also consists of each class that functions for the state's good. Accordingly, injustice occurs when members of one class, naturally suited to one occupation try to take over the occupation of another class that does not belong to them. For example, if a person has interest to grow peanuts or to act in a movie, and try to rule the state instead, then it would be an attempt of injustice.

Having arrived at the meaning of Justice in the Republic, Plato proceeds to specify the education, discipline, and lifestyle appropriate to the rulers and auxiliaries of the state's guardians. Of special importance, Plato describes the thirty-year training program for rulers, "philosopher-kings," in the ideal state.

4.2 Aristotle on Society

He begins the book Politics by defining its subjectivity state (political partnership). Aristotle supported that all partnerships aim at some good. The most authoritative associations of all men are especially exercised, including all others, and strive for the most authoritative good. It is what is called an urban or political partnership.³

He describes a partnership between people who will initially be among "those who cannot exist without each other."⁴ Below are two pairs. One pair is a man and a woman for production, and the other couple is "naturally dominated and controlled for preservation."⁵ Here Aristotle is referring to slavery. The word "conservation" means that slaves and slaves need each other to preserve themselves. Slavery is a partnership that benefits both slaves and slaves. Mathematically, let us define the criteria of a division of society discussed by both the philosophers as follows :

Let P denotes the Production class; W denotes the Warrior class; R denotes the Ruling class; R' denotes the Ruled class.

Then,

The division of society given by Plato is $S_p = (P \cup W \cup R) = k_P$

The division of society given by Aristotle is $S_A = (M_k - M_k') = k_A$; where $R \notin k_A$

5. Communism

5.1 Plato's Theory of Communism

Plato's theory of Communism is based on the belief in corrupting influences of family and property over people holding the public offices. It aims to free the ruling classes, i.e., the philosophers and the warriors, from the institutions of family and property. According to him, the attachment for family and property make the rulers self-seeking, indulgent, greedy, and corrupt. This may divert from and impediment to appropriate performance of their duty to rule. The crux of Plato's Communism is the deprivation of all the

members of the ruling classes, the guardians, and soldiers from having any private property, including private houses, land, gold, and silver (wealth). Their survival needs shall be taken care of by the commodities collected from the producing classes in the form of taxes. They shall live in the state-managed barracks and eat in the public mess. No salary or allowances will be paid to them. The state shall take care of their essential needs. It is important to understand that Communism applies only to ruling classes and not to the producing masses. Plato stated that the longing for property corrupts the rulers and makes them greedy and selfish, can lead to the instability of the state. Further, according to him, family and property were the chief sources of disunity and social tension. Plato's arguments in defense of abolition of the institution of property among the ruling classes is not economical in terms of the nature of ownership of means of production and exchange but moral, political, and psychological. Based on the basic assumptions about human nature and the principles of functional specialization, he asserts the moral rationale that everyone should realize his or her nature to achieve desired goals beyond self-interest. Plato believed that an individual should exist not as an individual but as part of a group (state) for the benefit of the individual, and that should subordinate interests to the group. Plato also advocates for the abolition of the family. He says that the family has to do with property and is just as distracting and corrupting as property. A ruler must not waste time and energy on family responsibilities. Attachment to the family undermines absolute commitment to the country, and caring for offspring causes selfish tendencies, undermining social cohesion and harmony. He believed that the family would undermine the spirit of cooperation that was the nation's foundation. It is very important to destroy selfishness to destroy the family. Plato wanted the ruler of an ideal state to be free from distractions and self-interest. Because property and family relationships were seen as the main causes of discord in society, Plato declared that neither should be accepted under ideal conditions. By abolishing these two aspects, Plato sought to create a new social order in which the ruling class abandoned the family and private property and adopted the communist system. This practice of Communism is only for the ruling class and the patron class. However, Plato did not associate this principle with a third class, the artisans. That is, maintaining property and families was permitted but under strict supervision. Another issue raised concerns children born into families. According to Plato, they would

become the property of the state. As soon as they were born, they were taken to an orphanage, where they were cared for and nurtured. Therefore, as soon as children are born, they are taken care of in the state nursery. No one will know the origins of these children except for the philosopher rulers. Even biological parents and children will not know about the relationship.

5.2 Aristotle's Theory of Communism

Aristotle was completely against Communism with Plato's wife and property. It was neither scientific nor rational. He said that Plato had disregarded the instinct of acquisition by partly making the plan, excluding the proletariat, declaring it aristocratic and leaving the best to the watchers. He argues that abolishing the family as an institution would result in disharmony and render state-controlled mating systems inoperable. He disagrees with Plato's assertion that the possession of property poses a problem, not from the property but from the fall of human instinct.

Let us mathematically define the criterion of Communism discussed by the two philosophers as follows.

Let C be Communism; F stands for family and M stands for total number of males in society.

Then, $(F^1 \in M^1), (F^2 \in M^1) \dots \dots (F^N \in M^1)$

where, $F = \{1, 2, \dots, N\} \mid \{F^1 \in \text{one Family}, F^2 \in \text{two Families} \dots F^N \in \text{many Families}\}$

Similarly, PP denotes Private Property

Then, $(PP^1 \in M^1), (PP^2 \in M^1) \dots \dots (PP^N \in M^1)$

where, $PP = \{1, 2, \dots, N\} \mid \{PP^1 \in \text{one private property}, PP^2 \in \text{two private properties} \dots PP^N \in \text{many private properties}\}$

Then,

Communism explained by Plato is, $C_P = F \cup PP$

Communism explained by Aristotle is, $C_A = F \cup PP$, where $F = \{0, 1\} \mid \{F^0 \in \text{no Family}, F^1 \in \text{one Family}\}$ and $PP = \{0, 1, \dots, N\} \mid \{P^0 \in \text{no private property}, PP^1 \in \text{one private property} \dots PP^N \in \text{many private properties}\}$

6. Justice

For both philosophers, the object of an ideal state is the good life or virtue. Plato argued that justice is an attribute of the soul. For Plato, people should adapt to the fulfillment of their sole function,

justice for society, abandoning the irrational desire to taste all pleasures and obtain selfish gratification from all objects. Therefore, mathematically, Justice explained by Plato is,

$$J_P = (k_P \cup D_P \cup E_P \cup C_P)$$

Aristotle accepted JUSTICE as “Treating equal persons equally and treating unequal persons unequally”. For him, JUSTICE requires that benefits be distributed to individuals in proportion to their merit or desert. Therefore, mathematically, Justice explained by Aristotle is,

$$J_A = (k_A \cup C_A \cup E_A)$$

7. Conclusion

Justice is a quality an indispensable quality of moral life. Three human virtue, Wisdom, Courage, and Temperance representing three classes, are harmonized by Justice. Plato insists that Justice must be one thing only, always the same in its manifestations. Therefore, Plato’s search for Justice proceeds by way of refutation and exclusion, that is, by showing what Justice is not to arrive at a univocal view of what it is. In contrast, Aristotle’s approach supports justice at several different things in several different ways. In particular, justice can be viewed in many different ways, each of which can contain important truths.

Aristotle clarified the relationship between “moral justice” and equality, pointing out that equality is related to “moral justice” in the same way that parts are related to the whole. Unlike Plato’s ‘Republic’, Aristotle’s work stood out for its high thinking and analysis that reflected the mind of a scientist, not a philosopher. He is the father of political science and the first political thinker to systematically and scientifically analyze political institutions and behavior.

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Gender-based Violence against Women

Shalini Mishra*

For ages, the Indian culture has accorded high respect to the women goddesses. These goddesses are revered and worshipped and form an integral part of the Hindu religion and practices. However, in a strange dichotomy of sorts, women in society have faced challenges in establishing an independent identity and status. They have had a subjugated existence, with very little say in the key decisions of the household. Worse still, they have to bear the brunt of violence, discrimination or gender-related crime during their life-cycle. The present paper is an attempt to discuss gender-based violence against women. It is becoming a common belief that women empowerment through providing equal rights and opportunities will ameliorate the condition of women, including the gender-based violence. This has to be backed by more progressive legislative amendment policy implementation and institutions for swift redress of grievances of women.

[Keywords : Violence, Dharmashastra, Socialization, Prenatal, Infancy, War and calamities]

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The need for improving the status of women has been felt for years. The government has drafted legislations and made policies to make progressive changes. No doubt, the status of women is changing fast globally, but the problem of gender-based violence still persists and needs serious analysis. The present paper is an attempt to explore gender-based violence against women, its causes and remedies needed for the amelioration of status of women as well as find out the ways and means to the problem of gender-based violence. Secondary sources have been used in this paper.

1. Background

For ages, the Indian culture has accorded high respect in the women goddesses. These goddesses are revered and worshipped and form an integral part of the Hindu religion and practices. However, in a strange dichotomy of sorts, women in society have faced challenges in establishing an independent identity and status. They have had a subjugated existence, with very little say in the key decisions of the household. Worse still, they have to bear the brunt of violence, discrimination or gender-related crime during their life-cycle.

2. Status of Women through Ages

Manusmriti says, “A woman should never be independent. Her father has authority over her in childhood, her husband in youth and her son in old age” (*Dharmashastra*, IX, 3). This broadly summarizes the woman’s status and identity in the Indian society. For ages this description has governed her access to resources and opportunities. The religious texts clearly demarcated the roles for women in the family. Through a mix of religion and socialization, the women’s identity is limited to the same choices.

3. Different forms of Gender-based Violence

Gender-based violence or violence against women happens in different ways and forms across the life-cycle :

- » **Prenatal** : Sex-selective abortion (India, China, Vietnam and Middle-East), violence during pregnancy causing emotional distress.
- » **Infancy** : Female infanticide, emotional and physical abuse, discrimination in food and medical care to female child.
- » **Childhood** : Discrimination in food, education, medical care, child marriage, sexual abuse by family members or strangers (pedophiles).

- » **Adolescence** : Sexual abuse in school/college or workplace, prostitution, Sati, economically-triggered sex (Cambridge students offering sex/escort services for funding rising education costs), women trafficking (prevalent in under-developed countries like Nepal, Bangladesh and Latin America), teenage bullying (through internet and other internet-related crimes).
- » **Reproductive** : Dowry-related abuse (burning, killing for dowry). Marital rape/abuse, psychological abuse (in relationships gone sour frequent showdowns, emotional distress), forced pregnancy (abortion), and forced sterilization.
- » **Old age** : Abuse of elders and widows, lack of medical care and financial support from family, disowning responsibilities by family.
- » **War and calamities** : Sex for food and money (famine in African countries), forced abduction, revenge killing and rape during communal riots and political upheavals (in Bosnia, Iraq), Custodial violence (in Myanmar and Indonesia) or class/caste conflict (assault and torture of Dalits)

4. Factors Responsible for Gender-based Violence

Gender-based violence is a complex problem caused by a variety of social, economic, cultural, legal, psychological and biological factors. Some of the factors that perpetuate violence are given below :

Table-1 : Factors of Gender-based Violence

Factor	Forms
Cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-specific socialization. • Cultural definitions of appropriate sex roles. • Expectations of roles within relationships. • Belief in the inherent superiority of males. • Values that gave men proprietary rights over women and girls. • Notion of the family as the private sphere and under male control. • Customs of marriage (bride price/dowry). • Acceptability of violence as a means to resolve conflict.

Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women's economic dependence on men • Limited access to cash and credit • Discriminatory laws regarding inheritance, property rights, use of communal lands, and maintenance after divorce or widowhood • Limited access to employment in formal and informal sectors • Limited access to education and training for women
Legal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lesser legal status of women either by written law and/or by practice • Laws regarding divorce, child custody, maintenance and inheritance • Legal definitions of rape and domestic abuse • Low levels of legal literacy among women • Insensitive treatment of women and girls by police and judiciary
Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Under-representation of women in power, politics, the media and in the legal and medical professions • Domestic violence not taken seriously • Notions of family being private and beyond control of the state • Risk of challenge to status quo/religious laws • Limited organization of women as a political force • Limited participation of women in organized political system

Across the world, domestic violence is one of the biggest sources of gender-based violence.

5. Legal Framework as a Shield against Gender-based Violence

In most countries, Gender-based violence is not covered under a comprehensive law (refer table on the next page). The legal protection to women vulnerable to domestic violence is inadequate. It highlights the need for judicial system to be sensitive to gender-specific needs and the need for women empowerment.

India has been progressive albeit at a slower pace in terms of enactment of legislations to protect women's rights. With the economic role of women becoming more pronounced, the legislations are also shifting focus from women's welfare to women's development.

The women's issues gained prominence in the 70s with the United Nations General Assembly Declaration of the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (1967). The Indian Government came with a draft on National Plan of Action for women in response to the UN Call for Action (1975). The plan suggests concerted action in the field of education, health, welfare, employment with special reference to the weaker sections of the society. The other policy changes/key initiatives by the government include setting up the National Commission on the Self-employed Women (1988), National Perspective Plan for Women (1988-2000), National Commission for Women (1991) and the 72nd Amendment to the Indian Constitution reserving one-third of seats in local elected bodies for women.

Amendments to the Indian Penal Code have redefined the terms dowry deaths' (through Dowry Prohibition Act) and cruelty to have a broader connotation. Also, the responsibility of furnishing proof of custodial rape has been shifted from the victim to the accused. The police investigation has been made mandatory for unnatural causes of deaths of women. The Commission of Sati (Prevention) act (1987) declared the practice of Sati unlawful.

In 1986, the earlier SITA Act was amended to prevent trafficking in prostitution. However, the revised version, Immoral Traffic in Persons Prevention Act (ITPPA) has similar aims, objectives, logic and premises. It continues to be biased against the prostitute and the client is not made an offender.

To address the human trafficking related concerns at regional level, the government has drawn up the SAARC convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in women and children for Prostitution in 1998. The National Plan on Action to Combat Trafficking and commercial sexual exploitation of women and children (1998) is being implemented by the relevant central ministries and state governments.

The Criminal Law Act has been amended to provide protection to rape victims from media glare during investigation and trial besides enhancing the punishment for this crime. The Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act bans the depiction in any manner of the figure of a woman, her form or body or any part thereof in such a way as to have the effect of being indecent or derogatory or denigrating women, or is likely deprave, corrupt or injure the public morality or morals (NPPW, 1988).

In 1997, the Supreme Court has issued guidelines to tackle sexual harassment at the workplace. According to the guidelines, sexual harassment is unwelcome :

- » Physical contact and advances,
- » Demand or request for sexual favours,
- » Sexually coloured remarks,
- » Display of pornography and
- » Any other unwelcome physical, verbal or no-verbal conduct of a sexual nature.

At the place of work; women are assured of equal treatment. The Equal Remuneration Act (1973) provides for basic minimum needs of workers and forbids discrimination gender discrimination in wages/employment.

In 1990, the National Commission for Women was setup by an act of Parliament to safeguard the rights and legal entitlements of woman.

6. Execution Efficiency to Operationalize Legal Framework

At a broader level, we need to move from enactment to execution of legislations. Mere legislation or its awareness will fail if we are unable to develop processes and strengthen systems to implement them.

Data suggest that the reported number of incidents related to violence against women is insignificant. Out of the total offences reported in India, 7 per cent are related to violence against women. In 1999, the ratio of such reported crimes was 13-8 for every 100,000 population. In 1999, only 87 cases of infanticide and 61 cases of foeticide were reported. Five years later this number rose to 256 despite widespread coverage in media on the negative impact of such practices. It highlights the need to improve effective execution of the Pre-Natal Diagnostic Techniques (Registration and Prevention of Misuse Act, 1994).

Likewise the crime rate of cruelty by husband/relatives is 0.044 per cent but the arrest rate is just 10-3 per cent of this. Other reported crimes are also low in comparison to their prevalence in society. Dowry deaths are at 0.0007 per cent and sexual harassment is at 0.0009 per cent of the population.

The law and order system needs to be more responsive to women's needs for justice in cases of assault need to be given stringent punishment. Currently, a conviction of husband for cruelty under Section 498A IPC does not give sufficient leeway for women to get divorce. It can be used to get divorce only on mutual consent. And this too does not provide relief in terms of woman's entitlements to husband's property and assets or the custody of her children.

The police force and army deputed in sensitive areas need to uphold integrity and function without any mal-intention. The Indian government has made some efforts to sensitize the law enforcement system towards gender-related violence. In this regard, district level committees and State Commissions for Women have been setup for protection of women's rights. All acts of omission and commission need to be escalated to National Commission for women for penal action.

The judicial system too needs to ensure that justice is given within reasonable time-period. It also needs to ensure that the perpetrators of crime are brought to book and given punishment. Much legislation needs to be modified to meet the requirements of a dynamic society.

7. Awareness of Right and Judicial Remedy

Awareness of rights will instill more self-confidence in women. The fact that they can reach up to an authority, government body, or court would encourage them to speak up against the prevalent inequality and injustice in society. The awareness of rights is a function of a women's education level, earning status and caste. Broadly speaking, working women are more aware of their rights than the women engaged in domestic chores.

As a starting point, the self-help groups (engaged in economic activities) which have a wide presence across India can engage their members to understand key laws like Hindu Succession Act (1956) Dowry Protection Act (1961), SITA Act (1956) and Immoral Trade Prevention Act (1966). This would make them aware of basic constitutional rights relating to marriage, inheritance, maintenance livelihood, etc. In this way, the self-help groups can make them empowered and self-aware at the same time. This can further translate into a community-wide ownership of certain responsibilities towards women UNIFEM provides professional family

counselling services through NGOs to promote better understanding and resolve conflicts at domestic level. The Indian government has also initiated awareness generation projects for rural and poor women.

Mass media can also play an active role in disseminating the information on women rights. Since, the footprint of the electronic media (TV, Radio, Internet) covers more than 80 per cent of India it can create a big impact. It can play an integral role in shaping the gender stereotypes and community norms to overcome the awareness barriers. Media can also play a strong role in the proper recantation of women. It can come up with self-restraint guidelines on what it constitutes appropriate and dignified portrayal of women. It can do the moral policing and strike a balance between commercial gains and the maintaining the societal fabric.

8. Empowerment as a Tool to Counter Gender-based Violence

Empowerment is probably the most effective and potent tool for the fulfillment of women's status in society and addressing the age-old structural issue at the roots. The government has shown commitment to secure gender equality, gender justice and eliminate discrimination against women. It has prepared a National Policy for the Empowerment of Women after consultations with NGOs, state governments and other developmental institutions. The policy aims at incorporating a gender perspective into all plan, policies, programmes, budgetary allocations, appraisals, monitoring and evaluation exercises. It envisages development and advancement of women by changing societal attitudes and challenging established norms.

The National Commission for Women has reviewed laws and has proposed legislations to safeguard women's rights. The government has also committed to allocate more resources into women education and healthcare. Focus on elementary education for the girl child and a national mid-day meal programmes is aligned to the above policies. It is also trying to improve the wages given to female labourers at farmhouses, agriculture and non-agricultural operations. This would help overcome rural poverty and improve the nutrition standards for rural women. Rural development programmes such as DWCRA, thrift groups, etc. have shown

tremendous contribution in enabling rural women to manage their economic future.

In one of the biggest action undertaken by the government, reservation for women in legislatures was made through the 73rd amendment to the Indian Constitution. This revolutionary step allows the women's role to transcend from the boundaries of her household to the echelons of power. Political participation of women is being considered synonymous to basic requirements in women's status and their human rights. Reservation for women in local self-governments and the legislatures is a positive step in this direction. In the Platform for Action charted out at the Beijing conferences violence against women and their human rights are two of the critical obstacles in their advancement.

9. Conclusion

Gender-based violence has been an area of concern across developed and developing nations. Its impact is magnified in the case of developing nations since it restricts women's health, education, economic and social status. Apart from the various conventions enacted by the United Nations and governments, empowerment can emerge as the most potent tool to check instances of violence against women. Gradually, it is becoming a common belief that women empowerment through providing equal rights and opportunities will ameliorate the condition of women. This has to be backed by more progressive legislative amendment policy implementation and institutions for swift redress of grievances.

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Political Dynamics of India's Responses to Refugees

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Addressing refugees for the countries have always been a challenging task at hand. In this scenario South Asia have experienced huge shifting of people from one country to another. But when people tend to leave their native country in search of a safer haven, mainly due to persecution, it is even more challenging. This kind of involuntary migration leads to the genesis of the terms like refugee, asylum etc. Such involuntary migration in South Asia, majorly takes place towards India, especially due to ethnic proximity. It is the diverse and stable nature of India that have attracted the persecuted to migrate from their native especially from South Asia. India is determined towards maintaining a tolerant, democratic and secular characteristics, while the neighbouring countries seem to be unstable in nature. While analyzing the Indian stand on refugees, it was found that even after tackling such influx of population time and again, India doesn't possess any Refugee Policy

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as such. Since there is a lack of uniform policy dealing with refugees, the Government of India takes care of refugees based on the bilateral relations maintained with the native country. The recent developments in South Asia have again laid the question on the policy framework regarding the same. The present study deals in analyzing the reasons for choosing case by case tackling of refugees rather than having a uniform structure. It will provide clarity on the frameworks of India on refugees from various ethnic groups and will make India's stance on humanitarian grounds more clear at global level.

[**Keywords** : Refugees, South Asia, Policy framework, Ethnic, India, GOI]

1. Political Dynamics of India's Responses to Refugees

India has been an attractive host for those experiencing persecution in their native country. In South Asia India is determined towards maintaining a tolerant, democratic and secular characteristics. The ethnic and cultural affinity makes it even easier for persecuted to move towards India. Almost all the eleven countries with which India shares either land or maritime borders, have undergone civil, military or strife in one or the other form. This has led to a huge influx of refugee populations from these countries.

Refugees and asylum seekers are different from migrants.¹ According to the Convention A person who crosses an international boundary in fear of persecution because of their race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion is defined as a refugee under the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees. Therefore, refugees and asylum seekers are externally displaced persons (EDPs) who are unable to return to their countries of origin due to a well-founded fear of persecution. IDPs, who have been forced to leave their homes despite not having crossed an international border, share the well-founded fear of persecution that refugees and asylum seekers have.¹ On the other hand, migrants cross international borders in quest of better socioeconomic conditions, therefore they do not have a legitimate concern about being persecuted when they return. The number of people who have fled their home countries in search of safety in India owing to persecution is unknown. There was once a time when South Asia was united. But even after being recognized as separate sovereign nations, their borders have remained porous. Therefore, crossing borders and entering into India have been feasible for this persecuted community of South Asia.²

However, there is no statute to deal with refugees in India, and the legislative has never progressed towards building one. The outdated Foreigners Act (1946), which is the current law that authorities consult with regard to refugees and asylum seekers, has a major flaw in that it makes no mention of the term “refugee,” which is why the National Human Rights Commission (NHRC) has recommended in a number of reports that it be changed or amended.³ Thus refugees, immigrants and international tourists are categorized as foreigners.

India is not a signatory to either the Refugee Convention or its 1967 Protocol. The country don’t even possess a legislation as such to govern the influx of refugees. There has been a unique executive management completely based on its relation with the country of origin. This approach has brought relative success for India which makes it free from any legal obligations focussing more on political instincts. As a result, this has been terrible for some sincere refugees. India’s three-pronged approach to addressing the refugee problem in the lack of a separate law dealing solely with the status and rights of refugees is as follows :

- » The Home Ministry is responsible for developing policies for the settlement and rehabilitation of refugees.
- » The Ministry of External Affairs is given the authority to handle bilateral talks and international matters.
- » Local protection and upkeep of the camps housing refugees falls under the purview of the state governments.

2. Role of Foreigner’s Act in dealing Refugees

India relies on the Foreigners Act, 1946 to regulate the status of foreigners in India in the lack of a legislative framework. The Foreigners Act, a colonial relic that was implemented in response to Second World War needs and is still in effect today with absolute ability to deal with foreigners, is a colonial remnant. The definition of a foreigner in Section 2(a) of the Act is someone who is not an Indian citizen⁴, which includes refugees.

The Foreigners Act gives the president broad authority to expel foreign nationals from India, which has typically been done without court oversight. The Central Government has certain rights under Section 3(2)(c) of the Foreigners Act, 1946.⁵ If the Foreigner’s Act is broken, this results in immediate expulsion. The Supreme Court

originally upheld the executive's unfettered ability to expel foreign nationals in 1955, ruling that: "The Foreigners Act provides the facility to expel foreign nationals from India. It grants the Central Government complete and unrestricted power, and because the Constitution contains no language restricting this discretion, the ability to expel remains unrestrained."⁴

The Supreme Court has affirmed the executive's unrestricted ability to expel foreign nationals from India in a number of subsequent rulings. Furthermore, while exercising this broad executive discretion, the government is not required to provide a justification for the deportation of any foreign national.⁵

According to the requirements of the UNHCR Statute and the Refugee Convention, citizens of other nations submit applications to the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) for individual refugee status determination. Indian refugee policy is frequently determined by political imperatives rather than rights-encouraging legislative requirements. Refugees are free to apply to the UNHCR for recognition of their refugee status if the Indian government does not offer them immediate help. The UNHCR in India looks into the process of conducting Refugee Status Determination (RSD) as per international conventions.⁶ Even though there isn't a formal agreement between the Indian government and the UNHCR, India nevertheless has a seat on the UNHCR's Executive Committee in Geneva. India also hasn't ratified or signed the Refugee Convention. As a result, India sits on the UNHCR's Executive Committee and permits the organization to operate on its soil, yet it refuses to sign the legal document that established the organization, leading to a contradictory and rather perplexing scenario.

3. Indian Judiciary and Refugees

Indian Judiciary have been refuting to interfere with the powers of executive on foreigners. Though, it has adopted more humane approach towards refugees in India based on the degree and merit of things produced in the court.

The Supreme Court stepped in with a liberal interpretation of the law in *National Human Rights Commission v. State of Arunachal Pradesh* in 1996 to argue that refugees are a distinct class deserving of the protection of Article 21 of the Constitution. The Court determined that :

"We live in a nation where the rule of law is paramount. Every human person is given certain rights under our constitution, and citizens are given additional rights. Everyone has a right to legal equality and equal protection under the law. Additionally, nobody is frequently deprived of their life or their personal freedom unless it is in accordance with legal procedure. Therefore, the State is obligated to safeguard each person's life and freedom, whether they are citizens or not. As a result, it cannot allow anyone or any group of people⁸, such as the AAPSU, to threaten the Chakmas with expulsion from the State or otherwise force them to make an attempt."⁷

Additionally, India's judiciary has rendered immeasurable assistance in defending citizens' human rights. Although the courts in the nation have been lenient in their treatment of asylum seekers, they have largely been constrained by their inability to uphold the provisions of international instruments relating to human rights and the standards of refugee law in the absence of incorporating national legislation. Even then, in compliance with international refugee law, the Indian judiciary made commendable interventions in a few cases involving refugees and asylum seekers. As the front entrance has been closed by the executive, the Indian judiciary has, in a sense, entered refugee law into our legal system through the backdoor. The 1951 Refugees Convention and its Protocol's provisions are frequently used when there is no contradiction with any sections of local legislation, according to Justice J. S. Verma. By issuing important rulings in the field of refugee protection, the judiciary has helped to advance the interests of refugees and fill the gap left by the absence of domestic legislation. The Indian courts are actually able to provide human rights the proper status thanks to the Indian Constitution. The judicial branch of our state recognizes refugees and refugee legislation to some extent, despite the fact that India's governmental branch does not. The courts helped raise public awareness of issues with refugee protection.

4. Framework for Refugees implemented in India

India is non signatory to any international convention on refugee. It does not have any legal framework over the status of refugees within the country either. Though still India have good number of refugees residing in several places or refugee camps across the country. Considering the religious and cultural affinity of

the region in South Asia and South East Asia or to be more precise the neighbouring countries referred to as the Indian Subcontinent, India faces most of its refugee problem from this region. Now since India does not possess any legal framework generally, it is into the matters regarding refugee problem on a case by case basis. Thus, the country do maintain or frame Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) based on the bilateral relations with the countries.

5. Framework for Refugees from Tibet

The Tibet refugees in India form one among the most important refugee groups in South Asia. Their population in India is estimated at 110,000. The reasons, which forced the Tibetan refugees to cross over to India in 1959, as also in subsequent years are stated to be instances of spiritual persecution, harassment, coercive sterilization, devastation of families (with Tibetans apparently being forced to marry the Chinese) and confiscation of property. At present, dissatisfaction with the way their children are educated in Tibet is emerging out to be one of the most important reasons for Tibetan children being smuggled into India every year.

A mix of geopolitical considerations as also moral and humanitarian concerns are seen as reasons for the 'special treatment' of refugees from Tibet by Indian government, as compared with other refugee sects in India. This special treatment is despite the very fact that the Government of India considers Tibet as "an integral part of China" and has also not provided recognition to the Tibetan Government in Exile with its headquarters in Dharamsala, Himachal Pradesh. Asylum was granted to the Tibetans by the Government of India. It was all because of the cultural affinities with the Buddhist culture prevailing in Tibet. Geopolitical considerations also played a vital role with welfare assistance being provided by the Government of India "as compensation" for Jawaharlal Nehru's "political inability to pursue anything for Tibet" on the eve of its invasion by China.

"Differential and preferential treatment" of the community has also been attributed due to the political and strategic significance to India with regards to China.

Though during the 2014 general elections, the committee gave voting rights to those Tibetans who are born in India or hold Indian citizenship.

Fewer rights and services are available to Tibetans who arrived after the 1970s, which is a sign of a shift in Indian policy, maybe in an effort to maintain Sino-Indian relations. The Indian government stopped formally classifying newly arrived Tibetans as refugees in 1963. As a result, people who arrived after 1979 have experienced more difficulty obtaining RCs. The more recent process to obtain an RC is difficult and especially troublesome because these rights to employment, residency, and international travel depend on this certificate. In addition, while the Indian government gave land to the first settlement of refugees, later arrivals have not had the same good fortune. Since Indian law prohibits foreigners from buying land, the government prohibiting Tibetan's from purchasing land is troublesome for them as farming is their main source of income.⁹

This hostility stems from the belief that they are negatively harming employment chances and that they enjoy higher service standards than Indian nationals.⁹ Although it is thought that the community ties between the Tibetans and their Indian hosts have been improving, there have been rare reports of violence and prejudice that local police have mostly ignored. Tibetans do not have easy access to channels for redress because they are not represented in the local or national legislature, which exacerbates the problem. However, it has become evident that as Tibetans continue to cross the border, India has cut back on both the rights and the services it offers to these immigrants.

The Indian Government came up with a Tibetan Rehabilitation Policy, 2014,¹⁰ after serious discussions with the Dalai Lama led Central Tibetan Relief Committee (CTRC) located at Dharamshala⁷. The discussions were about the problems faced by Tibetan refugees numbering approximately 110,095 as per 2009 figure. These Tibetans are located in 45 number of settlements spread out mainly in ten states in India. The discussions led to the fact that there was no uniformity in the facility/assistance provided by the various states. Thus, the 2014 rehabilitation policy was introduced to bring in uniformity in the assistance provided across all states in India.

Assistance such as providing land over lease was one of the major issue as clearance was hard to get and various state looked into the matter as per their own statutes, missing on uniformity. Therefore the Government of India found it extremely important to streamline the process of giving land documents to the Tibetan

refugees. It was found that there was no uniformity in extension of benefits of central and state government sponsored schemes to the Tibetan refugees. The GOI categorically clarified that they may be extended the benefits of various development schemes of the Government of India such as MNREGS, PDS, NRHM, extension of loan facilities by nationalized banks etc.

Extension of other benefits by the state governments such as allocation of land for setting up Tibet Bazaars and other handlooms setting programs to earn livelihood. Providing educational and health services were also being put in the policy.

Government of India also guided CTCRC to conduct Census of Tibetan population and it shall share the details of the census with the Government of India.

6. Framework for Tamil Refugees

Due to their frequent entrance into India since 1983, Sri Lankan Tamil refugees have raised concerns in India. Refugees from Sri Lanka were the only group to have exclusive and special permission from the state government to stay in India.¹¹ Sri Lankan migrants were not barred from entering India and went unnoticed until Rajiv Gandhi, the previous prime minister of India, was assassinated.¹² After the murder, all pity was gone for the Sri Lankan refugees in India. Asylum seekers, including Sri Lankan citizens or “stateless persons who had not applied for Indian citizenship or those not yet conferred Sri Lankan citizenship,” are “granted relief on humanitarian grounds” upon arrival in India and housed in camps where they will remain until their return to Sri Lanka can be arranged, according to the government, despite official Indian government policy that discourages Sri Lankan Tamils from seeking asylum in India.¹³ According to the Indian government, Sri Lankan asylum seekers who live outside of the camps in Tamil Nadu have registered with their local police departments.

In order to determine whether they may have had connections to the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE), Sri Lankan asylum seekers are subjected to a screening process when they arrive in India. Following the screening, they are then subjected to further questioning and physical checks for scars associated with the conflict. As a result, the Indian Government's framework for dealing with Tamil refugees in India divides them into camp-based and

non-camp-based refugees. Refugees from Sri Lanka are unable to own land. However, they are able to purchase livestock as well as other domestic and household necessities for existence.

7. Framework for Non-Muslim Minority Refugees

Non-Muslim minority, the term itself clarifies its meaning. Basically, the term constitutes the people who reside in Muslim majority countries neighbouring India such as Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Afghanistan and so on. There have been cases in the past whereby it could be analyzed that these Muslim majority country tend to persecute the people from other religious orientations especially Hindus. We could see that since its birth as an independent nation, Bangladesh's Hindu population have been deteriorating at very decent pace. This is due to the persecution these Hindu people face along with other minorities such as the Buddhist, Sikh and so on.

Such non-Muslim minority refugees are welcomed by India. Time and again these people turn up to Indian soil may be due to the religious affinity. The Government of India too shows its leniency in dealing with such people. These people are given Long term visa facility after proper documentation. They could even engage themselves into self-employment on the basis of the long term visa that is provided to them which is city specific in most of the cases. They can even own PAN card, AADHAR and even own or buy properties in the Indian jurisdiction.

8. Conclusion

For a country like India which is known for its special abilities of hosting its guests since time immemorial, has been experiencing huge influx of refugees since its inception. India, believing in the essence of '*Atithi Devo Bhava*', has addressed the concerns of refugees from almost every country in its neighbourhood. Despite of the fact that India is not a signatory to the 1951 Convention on Refugees and also to the 1967 Protocol, which is an amendment to the convention itself, the country has not pushed itself back or neglected the humanitarian concerns of the refugees persecuted in their countries on political, social, religious, racial grounds.

India has not believed in the violation of human rights of neither its citizens nor the aliens residing in the country. This is so because India believes that human rights are the rights inherent to all

human beings irrespective of a person's nationality, place of residence, sex, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion and language etc.

Though, India do not conform to any international law on refugees but India was proactive in drafting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which was the core inspiration behind the formulation of the UN Convention on refugees in 1951. The Indian delegation to the UN made significant role in drafting of the declaration.¹⁴ India is also a signatory to the six core human rights covenants. This may be considered as a reason for India's active role in pursuance of refugee concerns.

But then there exists a notion that India being a liberal democracy is devoid of the statute or a specific law to protect the rights and responsibilities of refugees. Though India believes in protection of human rights, but in absence of a law regarding the matter creates a havoc situation. It creates ambiguity amidst the refugees themselves who've been facing persecution physically in their own country and would have to face mental persecution in a country with absence of a general framework or law to deal the matter.

India has a federal country with a Union of States. The Parliament of India has the right to legislate on citizenship, the process of naturalization and aliens.¹⁵ There is no such refugee law or policy regulating the entry and exit of refugees. The country has dealt refugees on political and administrative grounds. Resulting in treating refugees under a law applicable to aliens in India.

In India, refugees are considered within the ambit of the term 'alien'. The term alien could be seen mentioned in the Constitution of India (Article 22, Para 3 and Entry 17, List I, Schedule 7), in Section 83 of the Indian Civil Procedure Code, and in Section 3(2)(b) of the Indian Citizenship Act, 1955, along with other statutes.¹⁶

Thus India, considering the geo-political situation of the region in South Asia follows a policy of differential treatment.⁷ Considering the past history, India has treated its refugees as per the geo-political situations of the time. In International Politics, national interest is given the utmost importance. India, while serving the refugees on humanitarian grounds have also served its national interest. National interest during the refugee influx was more influenced by security of the country. Considering the ethnic, religious and cultural

affinity of the region in South Asia and also the economic status of the country, it is natural for a country to have caution on security lines. There was a case recently whereby the undocumented group of Rohingyas were found in Jammu and Kashmir where they were found in touch with terrorist organizations. The Tamil refugees unless the assassination of Rajiv Gandhi were given immense support and assistance. It was only after the leader's assassination that the Government of the country started looking at it with suspicion. The Tamil refugees were also linked with creating a havoc in Tamil Nadu which disturbed the peace of the region and also such incident may lead to the weakening of the Federal structure of the country.

But an absence of a clear law in the country also leads to troubles for already troubled refugees. India being a liberal democracy, requires a clear statute regarding the status of refugees in the country so that a uniform law could deal with refugees irrespective of the religion, race, nationality, sex or place of birth. Although the recent and much debated Citizenship Amendment Act, 2019 is seen implicitly by many as a saviour for a lot of migrants and refugees who were being religiously persecuted. But again it is restricted to refugees and migrants from Bangladesh, Pakistan and Afghanistan and does not address statutory uniformity for refugees in India.

Thus, there requires a pro-active role of the Government of India to achieve solution in this direction. Though the suggestive solution in treating refugees with dignity in India and also meeting the humanitarian concerns, is to either conform with the Convention of 1951 and incorporate it into the domestic law of the country or it requires an enactment of a uniform legislation specifically for refugees so that it is not left to the discretion of the executive and the judiciary to decide the future of the persecuted. The policy of differential treatment does not put the refugees on parity.

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State of Poverty in Nepal

Dipesh Kumar Ghimire*

Poverty is lacking essential goods and services or deprived from it. The poor people are deprived from the basic facilities like food, shelter, cloth, education, health that they need for surviving and spending normal life. Poverty is the deprivation of material; physical and social needs and it is a multidimensional phenomenon which is deeply rooted in social and cultural norms in the community level. Poverty is an inability to meet the basic needs like food, housing, clothing, basic health care facilities, education, and other kinds of physical wellbeing. Poverty is the widespread phenomenon in Nepal. This article provides the trends, disparities, and variation of the poverty in Nepal. This study finds out that Nepal has been making slow but steady progress in reducing the poverty since long period of time. The poverty has decreased from 42 percent in 1996 to 31 percent until 2004. Similarly, it has decreased to 18.7 percent until 2019. There is high provincial disparity in terms of poverty in Nepal. Similarly, poverty is high in the rural areas compared to the urban areas. The strategies and approaches for poverty reduction in Nepal are not effective. So, there has not been positive changes in the process.

[Keywords : Poverty, Deprivation, Disparity, Poverty Reduction, Nepal]

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1. Introduction

In general, poverty is the lack of food, shelter, clothes, other basic needs and lack of property, low level of living standard and weak conditions of all the spheres of human life. There exists various definitions of poverty. World Bank (2016) defines poverty as the hunger, lack of shelter, basic health and education facilities. Jenson (2009) has defined poverty in a different way. According to him, poverty is not only the lack of economic resources but also the aspects of people's life including cultural, social and psychological aspects. He further argues that poverty is the chronic and debilitating condition which affects mind, soul and body of individuals. Jenson (2009) stated about six different types of poverty. These are; situational poverty, relative poverty, absolute poverty, urban poverty, rural poverty, and generational poverty.

Sen (1999) focussed on human capability while defining the poverty. He highlighted that poverty is the result of lack of basic capabilities to achieve well-being. In the meantime, Nikku and Azman (2014) gave more emphasis on social exclusion in poverty debate. Crossman (2019) gives sociological definition of poverty. According to him poverty is a social condition which is characterized by the lack of basic resources for survival or necessary to meet a certain minimum level of living standards expected for the place where one lives a life of human being.

In this way, if we look at various definitions of poverty, lack of material, social and economic resources an individual requires to live a healthy and well being life can be said as poverty. The definition of poverty can be different in accordance with the level of income. So, to simply understand about it, poverty can be said as the lack of access of food, shelter, and clothes. Similarly, it also includes inadequate or absent of education and health care contributing to alienate the individual from the mainstream society.

This study has tried to explain the historical changes in the situation of poverty in Nepal. Similarly, the regional, rural-urban disparities of poverty has also been proved to explain. This study was conducted from April to July of the year 2022.

2. Poverty in Nepal's Periodic Plan

If we analyze the history of political economy of Nepal, political development process has directly affected the economic growth and

development of Nepal. The 104 year long autocratic Rana rule ended in Nepal on February 18, 1951. For about a decade after this political transformation, the political system was in transient state. During this time, the economic agendas and programs were hardly surfaced. Since the beginning of 1950s, the inflow of foreign grant and aid to Nepal began from USA, India, China, USSR, and other countries. The mixed economic model was adopted in Nepal from that time in which the state and the market led private sector complemented each other. The National Planning Commission and the Nepal Rastra Bank were established in Nepal in 1956. After this, the planned development started in Nepal.

NPC drafted and introduced first five year plan (1956-1961) in 1956. However, the situation of the country was very weak and unfavorable for its implementation. At that time, the education status of the country was weak with the National Illiteracy of 95 percent. The health status was equally weak. The birth rate and the death rate were equally higher. The country lacked skilled manpower and the necessary infrastructures. The economic status of the country was weak and high poverty prevailed. Though, poverty was the most promising problem of the country, the first five periodic plans did not include the agenda of poverty alleviation in any plan, policy or strategy. The first five year plan (1956-61) had not included the agenda of poverty, however, stated that a large population of Nepal was in poverty (NPC, 1956).

While the first five-year plan was being implemented, the first general election was held on 1959. The Nepali Congress party formed the government with majority. This government continued the mixed economic policy and strategy. The government kept the land reform work in the first priority which was directly related to the poverty alleviation. Due to this, the conservative landowners went against the government. As a result, King Mahendra took over the power and implemented the partyless autocratic Panchayat regime on December 15, 1960 (Seddon, 1987). This political change had put negative impacts on the economic growth activities in the country.

The land reform program got implemented again in 1964. According to Seddon (1987) this program abolished intermediaries in the land revenue collection system in Nepal. However, the land distribution program which was focussed for landless could not be much effective. As a result, the poor landless people could not get

ownership over land. Thus this program could not contribute in poverty alleviation at that time. After this in the second and third periodic plan, the poverty alleviation issue was not included. In the fourth periodic plan (1975-80), it was tried to analyze the cause of poverty stating that 'low productivity is the root cause of poverty'. However, the periodic plan was silent in developing the plan, policy, strategy and program for poverty alleviation. Similarly, the fifth periodic plan has neither stated about the poverty alleviation issue. The first five periodic plans have not included about the poverty status of the country, the number or percentage of poor people, or the policy, programs and strategy for poverty alleviation works.

The foreign loan aid and loan got peaked after establishment of the Panchayat system in Nepal in 1960. During the time, western democratic countries provided 'soft aid' to Nepal for infrastructure development and poverty reduction related works. Similarly, socialist countries like USSR and China supported to built large factories, road, transportation, hydropower etc. India also provided aid to road, education, and health facilities sectors to Nepal. Not only this kind of foreign aid and loan helped in development of the country, but also a basis for poverty reduction was formed. The next positive aspect of the Panchayat system was the introduction of the national education system plan in 1971. This plan created an open environment for the private sectors to invest in schools and higher education (Manandhar, 1995).

In the meantime, the sixth five year plan (1980-85) introduced the poverty alleviation issue for the first time. It was stated production should be increased in a faster rate for poverty reduction. Also, the poverty reduction strategy included the women involvement and programs for farmers. According to this plan, the living standard of the people living below the line of absolute poverty can be improved only if the workforce is utilized effectively to achieve desirable progress in National production (NPC, 1980). Similarly, from the seventh five year plan (1985-1990), poverty reduction has been included as a separate plan. The plan identified that extensive poverty is the main problem of the Nepalese economy and the increasing production is the only solution for gradual removal of widespread poverty from the country (NPC, 1985).

The 1989 movement was held demanding the multi-party democracy. After that the Panchayat regime was eventually

overthrown in 1990. After this, general election was held in 1991 and the Nepali Congress party was elected with an absolute majority. After the restoration of democracy in 1990 the poverty reduction became the main agenda in development discourse. The Eighth plan (1992-97) and Ninth plan (1997-2002) had main objective of poverty reduction in Nepal (Chaudhary, 2018). Furthermore, tenth plan (2002-2007) to Fifteenth plan (2019-2024) have kept the poverty reduction as the single objective of the country.

Eighth plan gave more emphasis to fulfilling the objectives of poverty alleviation in the country. The plan had the principal objective of poverty reduction. The plan also emphasized in formulating integrated and inter-regional programmes, focused in creating productivity assets and employment opportunities for poverty reduction. 9 million (i.e. 49 percent of Nepal's total population) was estimated to have been living in absolute poverty during the beginning of the eighth plan period. For reducing the absolute poverty, the plan had taken this issue as the cross-cutting issue and formulated the policy and programmes accordingly (NPC, 1992).

Similarly, the Ninth plan (1997-2000) had the main objective of poverty alleviation. The plan had a target of reducing poverty from 42 percent to 32 percent during the plan period. The plan had also aimed to improve the living standard of the people below the poverty line (NPC, 1997). Tenth plan (2002-2007) also gave priority to poverty alleviation. For this, the objective included improving economic, human and social indicators. The plan focussed on strengthening the capacity of the private sectors and encouraging them in contributing to the social and economic development activities (NPC, 2002).

Three year interim plan (2007/08-2009/10) had the main objective if reducing the existing poverty in the county. The plan had aimed in reducing the poverty of the country from 31 percent to 24 percent through social justice, economic growth and equitable distribution (NPC, 2007). However, the aim could not be achieved. Until the end of the plan period, the poverty was reduced to 25.4 percent (NPC, 2010). Twelfth plan (2010/11-2012/13) had aimed of reducing poverty from 25.4 percent to 21 percent. However, the twelfth plan also could not achieve the aim. During the plan period, poverty was reduced to 23.8 percent (NPC, 2013). The major objective of the thirteenth plan (2013/14-2015/16) was to reduce the poverty to

18 percent through contribution and involvement of private sectors, government and cooperative sectors in development process (NPC, 2013). The poverty was reduced to 21.6 percent until the end of this planning period (NPC, 2016).

The fourteenth plan (2016/17-2018/19) had aimed of reducing poverty to 17 percent from 21.6 percent. For this, the focus was given in transforming agriculture, tourism, industries, physical infrastructure development, social development among others (NPC, 2016). The poverty was reduced to 18.7 percent until the end of the plan period. The strategy of the plan was constructing equitable society with poverty alleviation and socio-economic equality (NPC, 2019).

While we study about all 15 periodic plans in a micro level, the poverty alleviation has been the major agenda and plan, strategy and programmes have been developed accordingly. Most of the periodic plan had poverty reduction as the main objective. However, the implementation status and achievement of the objectives is very poor. Thus, the poverty alleviation work has not been effective.

3. Measurement of Poverty in Nepal

Measuring poverty is a complicated process (Sen, 1979). Few scholars and institutions have developed the method of measuring it. In the beginning, the unidimensional indicators based on income or consumption expenditure were identified in measuring poverty (Atkinson, 1970). Later, the concept that single indicator can not cover the multiple aspects of poverty was developed (Anand and Sen, 1997). Townsend (1979) developed the concept of multi-dimensional measurement of poverty. IRP (2020) has stated the two types of poverty measurement process. First is the official poverty measurement and next one is supplemental poverty measurement.

Foster et al. (1984) developed the concept of multi-dimensional poverty Index (MPI). They used the different indicators to measuring the poverty beyond the income and expenditure based measurement of poverty. Based on this, the global MPI was designed in 2010 by OPHI and UNDP. MPI complements traditional monetary poverty measures by capturing the acute deprivations in education, health and living standards (OPHI, 2013). The MPI has become a popular and effective method which has replaced the previous approaches (Dhonde and Haveman, 2017). Poverty measurement and estimation cannot be taken on a linear fashion (Gyanwali, 2020).

However there are many other factors that contribute to fluctuation in poverty rate (Subedi, 2019).

If we look at the history of poverty measurement in Nepal, NPC from 1976/77 and Nepal Rastra Bank from 1984/85 have been measuring the poverty in Nepal adopting various methods (Gyanwali, 2020). A household budget survey conducted by the Nepal Rastra Bank (NRB) in 1984 revealed 41.5 percent of the population living below the poverty line. A study carried out during the formulation of the Eighth plan found out that due to increasing population pressure and unequal distribution of resources about 49 percent people fell below the poverty line (NPC, 1992). Other institutions have also carried out the study for poverty measurement in Nepal at various time in the history (Table-1).

Table-1 : Poverty in Nepal

Source	Year	Sample HH	Calorie Requirement Day	Poverty Line/ Person/ Rupees	Incidence of Poverty (%)
NPC	1976/77	-	2256	-	36.2
NRB	1984/85	-	2250	-	42.5
WB/UNDP	1989	-	2250	-	40.0
NLSS I/CBS	1995/96	3912	2124	5089	41.8
NLSS II/CBS	2004/05	3373	2144	7696	30.8
NLSS III/CBS	2010/11	7200	2220	19261	25.2
MPI/NPC	2016	12000	-	-	28.6
MPI/NPC	2018	-	-	-	18.7

Source : Content Analysis (2022)

The table-1 shows clearly about the historical poverty state of Nepal. The study carried out by NPC in 1976/77 showed 36.2 percent poverty in Nepal. According to the study carried out by Nepal Rastra Bank later in 1984/85 showed that poverty increased to 42.5 percent. The poverty has decreased to 18.7 percent until June 2018.

Various other independent studies have showed different figures though Alkire et. al. (2011) findings suggested that 44.2

percent of people were multi-dimensionally poor in Nepal in 2011. It was higher than income based measurement approach (25.2 percent) of Nepal according to the Living Standard Survey 2010/11. The Nepal Human Development Report (NHDR) 2014 estimated about 31.1 percent people were poor in Nepal.

Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS) was conducted in Nepal from 1995/96. NLSS was conducted in Nepal for three times, in 1995/96, 2004/05 and 2010/11. The NLSS had carried out the poverty in Nepal adopting basic needs approach. Based on national poverty line, there were 41.8 percent poor people in 1996. This number decreased to 30.9 percent in 2004 and 25.2 percent in 2011. During this time, there had been significant increase in national per capita income too. The per capita income was NRs 7696 in 2004 which increased to NRs. 19,261 until 2011. During the time, the poverty seems to have decreased based on the international poverty line (\$ 1.25 per day) as well (Figure-1).

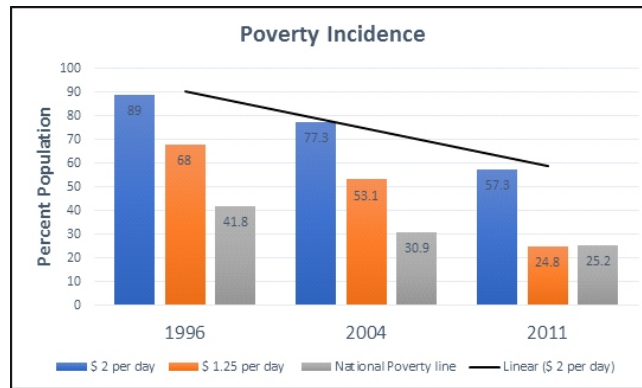


Figure-1 : Nepal Living Standard Survey's poverty line

The poverty in Nepal has been decreasing from 68 percent in 1996 to 53.1 percent in 2004 and 24.5 percent in 2011. Similarly, based on American Dollar, it was 89 percent in 1996 which decreased to 77.3 percent in 2004 and 57.3 percent in 2011 (Table-2).

Table-2 : Changing Dynamics of Poverty Ratio in Nepal

Year	Total Population (In Million)	Poverty percentage	Population under the poverty line (in Million)
1995/96	20.50	41.80	8.57
2003/04	24.70	30.85	7.62
2010/11	26.49	25.20	6.68

2015/16	28.33	21.60	6.12
2017/18	29.10	18.70	5.44

Source : Karki (2021)

From the table-2, it can be clear that through about 2 decades, the poverty in Nepal has been decreasing. It was 41.8 percent in 1995/96 which decreased to 18.7 in 2017/18. There were 8.57 million people living under the poverty line which decreased to 5.44 million during this period. The poverty decreased by about a half during the 20 years period, however, the poverty is one of the prominent problem in the country. The provincial poverty inequality is more prominent.

4. Poverty in Provincial Level

There are seven Provinces and 753 local levels along with the federal government in Nepal. There is inequality in poverty in the provinces (Table-3).

Table-3 : Level of Poverty in Provincial Level in Nepal

Poverty in Provincial Level	Indicators		
	Population under absolute Poverty	Multi-dimensional Poverty rate	Unemployment rate
Nepal	18.7	28.6	11.4
Province 1	12.4	19.7	10.2
Madhesh	19.8	47.9	47.9
Bagmati	15.3	12.2	7.0
Gandaki	15.5	14.2	9.0
Lumbini	18.2	29.9	11.2
Karnali	28.9	51.2	9.7
Sudurpachhim	33.9	33.6	11.5

Source : Economic Survey 2018/19

According to the table above, the poverty in Madhesh, Lumbini, Karnali and Sudurpaschim provinces is above the national average. The poverty is highest in Sudurpaschim province with 33.9 percent while it is least in Province 1 with 12.4 percent. In the meantime, the multi-dimensional poverty rate is highest in Karnali

province and lowest in Bagmati province. The MPI also shows similar picture of province level poverty in Nepal (Table-4).

Table-4 : Severe and Vulnerable Poverty of Provinces in Nepal

S. No.	Provinces	Severe Poverty	Vulnerable Poverty	Poverty Rate (%)
1	Province 1	17.4	29.5	12
2	Madhesh	20.8	21.5	35
3	Bagmati	4.7	20.5	9
4	Gandaki	5.6	22.1	5
5	Lumbini	8.2	20.1	20
6	Karnali	10.3	20.6	8
7	Sudurpachhim	6.6	25.9	11

Source : NPC (2018)

The severe poverty rate is highest in Madhesh province with 20.8 percent according to the above table and least in Bagmati province with 4.7 percent. Similarly, vulnerable poverty is highest in Province 1 with 29.5 percent while least in Lumbini province with 20.1 percent. There is inequality in multidimensional poverty in provinces as well (Table-5).

Table-5 : Multidimensional Poverty by Provinces, 2019

Provinces	Population Share (%)	MPI Value	Incidence (H %) value	Intensity (A%) value	Poor (number in thousand)
Province 1	17.0	0.066	15.9	41.4	773
Madhesh	18.7	0.109	24.2	45.0	1,296
Bagmati	23.3	0.028	7.0	40.3	470
Gandaki	8.2	0.035	9.6	36.4	227
Lumbini	18.4	0.078	18.2	43.1	958
Karnali	5.6	0.169	39.5	42.9	636
Sudurpachhim	8.7	0.105	25.3	41.3	631
National	100	0.074	17.4	42.5	4,980

Source : NPC, 2021

The Table-5 on the preceding page presents the sub-national and national estimates for the MPI, the incidence (H) and the intensity of poverty (A). According to the table, Karnali province has the highest level of multidimensional poverty with an MPI of 0.169. 4 of every 10 people in Karnali province are multi-dimensionally poor. Madhesh province and Sudurpaschim province ranks second and third in terms of multidimensional poverty. The table also shows that the lowest level (MPI-0.028) and incidence (H:7 percent) of poverty are found in Bagmati province. Similarly, the lowest number of poor people is found to be in Gandaki province. According to NPC (2021) 39.5 percent of people in Karnali Province are poor in terms of MPI. Similarly, 25.3 percent in Sudurpashchim Province and 24.2 percent in Madhesh Province are poor in terms of MPI. In contrast, in Gandaki Province 9.6 percent of people are multidimensionally poor, while this falls to 7.0 percent in Bagmati Province.

5. Disparities between Rural and Urban Areas

Various studies show that the rural poverty is more prominent than urban poverty in Nepal. During the time, though the overall population of the country living under the poverty line has been decreasing, the poverty disparities have not been improving. The urban poverty was 21.6 percent in 1996 which decreased to 10 percent in 2004 but increased again to 15.5 percent in 2011. However, the rural poverty was 43.5 percent in 1996 which decreased to 35 percent in 2004 and to 27.4 percent in 2011. According to NPC (2010), the urban poverty was 10 percent and in contrast, the rural poverty was 35 percent. Until 2009, the urban poverty decreased to 8 percent while the rural poverty was 28.2 percent.

According to the first NLSS, urban poverty was about 23 percent and was only 4 percent in the Kathmandu valley alone which is very less compared to overall national poverty incidence of 42 percent of the population. The report showed that there is geographical disparity in poverty of the country as well. The poverty was 42 percent in the Terai region, 41 percent in the hill region and 56 percent in the Himalayan region (CBS, 1994). At the beginning of the ninth five-year plan, 36 percent of the total population of Nepal was under the poverty line of which 23 percent lived in urban areas while 44 percent people lived in the rural area (NPC, 1997).

The seventh plan (1985-90) had brought the concept of local resource mobilization with the use of increased resources,

production and employment oriented programmes for poverty reduction. However, the concept could not contribute much in rural poverty alleviation. The various programmes were implemented for economic progress in the country from 1985. These programs were able to contribute directly in non-agricultural sectors which did not have effect on rural sector. The programs could not contribute in rural poverty alleviation.

Due to the weaknesses in plan implementation, the rural poverty could not improve substantially. There is still huge difference in rural and urban poverty. According to NPC (2021) total 28 percent of rural dwellers were MPI poor, compared to 12.3 percent in urban areas in 2018. Various plans were formulated from the eighth five-year plan specially focussed for poverty reduction in Nepal. Professionalization of agriculture, local resources mobilization, identification of poor and distribution of allowance, aid in animal husbandry were some of these programs. However, poverty exists in Nepal as a rural phenomenon (Table-6).

Table-6 : Multidimensional Poverty by Rural/Urban Areas, 2019

Index	Urban		Rural	
	Population Share (%)	Value	Population Share (%)	Value
MPI	67.3	0.053	32.7	0.119
Head Count Ratio (H%)		12.3		28.0
Intensity (A,%)		42.6		42.4

Source : NPC (2021)

The above table clearly shows that the incidence of poverty is higher in rural areas than the one for urban areas with 28 percent in rural areas and 12.3 percent in urban areas. About two thirds of the country's population (28.6 million) now live in the urban areas. This shows that a big population of Nepal is still multi-dimensionally poor.

6. Poverty and Human Development Report

The Nepal Human Development Report (NHDR) gives more emphasis on capability development and is focused on multi-dimensional approach to measure the poverty (NSAC, 1998). Similarly the 2001 HDR focused on poverty reduction and

governance. This report stated that poverty in Nepal is a manifestation of governance crisis. According to HDI reports, the HDI values of Nepal have been increasing over time (Table-7).

Table-7 : The Trends in Nepal's HDI Value Over Time

Year	HDI Value
1990	0.378
2000	0.446
2005	0.475
2010	0.529
2015	0.566
2016	0.569
2017	0.574
2018	0.579
2019	0.587
2020	0.602

Source : Various HDI Reports

The table above shows the continuous progress in HDI in Nepal. From 1990 to 2020, the HDI value has increased from 0.378 to 0.602. This makes clear that there has been continuous progress in poverty status of the country. During this period, life expectancy, expected years of schooling and per capita income has increased. However, there is no progress in absolute poverty status of the country. There is no substantial progress in rural poverty.

7. Education and Poverty

There is close relationship between education and poverty (Sen, 1999). Education contributes to diminish poverty but poverty always restricts access to education. In many developing and under-developed countries like Nepal, poverty is a big constraint for access to the education. Education is the best instrument to fight against the poverty. Education plays an important role in enhancing (Figure-2).

The figure on next page clearly shows that education seems to be an instrument to improve the living standard and quality of life of people. With the improvement of level of education of the household leader, it helps directly to poverty reduction. The household with higher poverty level are also deprived of education facilities. Similarly, according to various studies, investment in women's

education makes sense for achieving a victory against poverty. In this way, education and poverty have causal relationship and they both are reinforcing to each other while access to quality education directly contributes to break the vicious circle of poverty and improve the people's ability and capability. Education also supports to develop the ability of a person to utilize the existing facilities. Educated people can raise their voice and demand for good public services and goods.

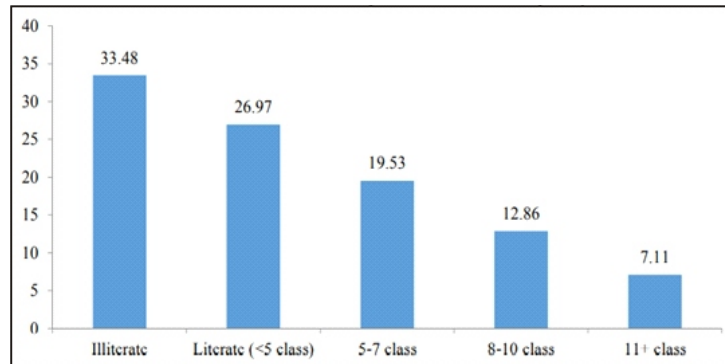


Figure-2 : Education status of household head and % of household below poverty line (Source : CBS, 2011).

8. Poverty Reduction Approaches in Nepal

The Poverty reduction has always been an overriding concern of Nepal's development planning exercises, but only since the sixth plan has it been explicitly stated as development activities. The GoN has formulated a program in seventh plan for fulfillment of basic needs and it also developed the first separate plan for reducing poverty. Furthermore poverty reduction was the major objective of the Eighth plan. Ninth Plan gave more emphasis on poverty alleviation and it also established long-term goals for improving development indicators in all sectors. Reducing poverty was the sole objective of this plan. The GoN developed and implemented the master plans for poverty reduction (ADB, 2002). Tenth Plan also focused on the poverty reduction. The GoN had also formulated poverty reduction strategy in this plan. The plan had kept an aim of reducing poverty from 38 percent to 30 percent by the end of the plan period. This plan categorized poverty into three broader dimensions. These are income poverty, human poverty and social exclusion.

Tenth Plan's poverty reduction strategy was guided basically by the three aspects. *First*, poverty reduction strategy needs to be

rural oriented where focus on rural/agricultural growth. *Second*, focused on actions and intervention, and *finally*, effective implementation of the policies and plan (IMF, 2003). Similarly, the strategy was built on the four pillars. First, broad based economic growth, second, social sector development including development, third, targeted program including social inclusion and finally good governance (IMP, 2003 : 41).

ADB (2002) has mainly focussed on narrowing the income disparities for poverty reduction in Nepal. The first was improving the poor's access to resources, second, removing the institutional barriers for poor from accessing the resources and finally, promoting strong economic growth with equity. Similarly, ADB also focused on following sectors to poverty reduction in Nepal :

- Agriculture and rural development,
- Transport,
- Energy,
- Finance,
- Education,
- Water supply, sanitation and urban development, and
- Environmental management.

A governance system where citizen's ownership is established is the main sustainable attainment of the poverty reduction (UNDP, 2001). Nepal Human Development Report 2001 strongly argued that good governance is the missing component or issue in poverty reduction related work in Nepal till date. However, tenth plan's poverty reduction strategy paper had adopted good governance as the main strategy in poverty reduction. The NHDR 2004 initiated the discourse in Nepal's development policies and practices. The report focussed on policy and practices for poverty reduction (UNDP; 2004). Furthermore NHDR 2009 identified the main reason of the poverty as the conflict and war. Thus, the report focussed mainly on sustainable peace, inclusion and participation (UNDP, 2009 : 1). The Nepal Human Development Report 2014 gave emphasis on human capital. NHDR 2014 gave more emphasis on multi-pronged approach to improving the productive ability (UNDP, 2015).

The Ninth Five Year Plan started the concept of human development in Nepal. The plan defined human development as "building up component, skilled and healthy human resources by

making available the social services, such as proper education, training, health services, sanitation housing, drinking water etc (NPC, 1997). The Tenth Five Year Plan critically evaluated the income based poverty approach and realized that this approach is not adequate to address the multiple deprivation and thus using the concept of human development. There had been change in social, political and economic spheres in Nepal through people's movement and political transformation in 2006 during the implementation of 10th plan. After this, Eleventh three years interim plan (2007/08-2009/10) gave more focus on inclusive and just Nepal. It helped create opportunity to move forward in raising the living standard of Nepali people living in poverty, deprivation and backwardness, with strong determination to dismantling old attitudes, obsolete structures and feudal remain (NPC, 2007).

As a government initiation for poverty reduction, the Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF) was established in 2003. The fund had aimed of main-streaming the excluded and poor communities in development. It had adopted the approach of demand driven program, direct community funding, community cost sharing, community institution building. However, it could not contribute substantially to poverty reduction in Nepal. There had been extensive corruption and financial irregularities. As a result, the then Government of Nepal dismissed the fund in 2018 (Karki, 2021).

The Fifteenth plan has focussed on four main aspects. First is the sustainable and productive use of remittance income, second is entrepreneurship development, the third is inclusive and sustainable economic growth and fourth one is increase in agricultural production and productivity (NPC, 2019). The strategies adopted in various plans have brought few positive changes in poverty alleviation campaign in Nepal. A study by Dreze and Sen (2013) shows that Nepal has been able to reduce the national level poverty faster than India, Bangladesh and Pakistan. However, the country still remain as the poorest of the poor countries. The HDI value was 0.548 in 2014 ranking Nepal 145th out of 187 countries (UNDP, 2015). The HDI value increased to 0.602 in 2019 which put the country in the Medium human development category positioning it at 142 out of 189 countries and territories (UNDP, 2020). In this way there has been few positive changes in poverty reduction, however, it is not sufficient.

Poverty is the deep-seated and complex phenomenon in Nepal and it does not have hard and fast solutions. Poverty has the

multi-dimensional character and poor people are most affected by it. The GoN has been trying to formulate and implement the poverty reduction policies for helping the poor to rescue from the poverty trap. However, the policies are formulated without proper work with implementation hardship. Thus majority of poor people are still under the poverty line. Various approaches and strategies adopted in poverty reduction have not been able to include the cultural capital of the rural communities. The identification of cultural capital, and mobilization have remained as a missing component in policy formulation process. The poverty reduction strategy is basically focussed to monetary approach. Thus, there has not been substantial progress in poverty reduction in Nepal on one hand and on the other hand the poverty persists as rural phenomenon in the country.

9. Conclusion

Nepal has been making slow but steady progress in reducing the poverty since long period of time. The poverty has decreased from 42 percent in 1996 to 31 percent until 2004. Similarly, it has decreased to 18.7 percent until 2019. Though the poverty reduction process is sluggish, there has been an improvement in the living standard of people as well. There has been improvement in some of the human development indicators as well. During the time, there has been improvement in the indicators such as life expectancy, infant and maternal mortality rates, adult literacy among others. However, poverty is still pervasive and multifaceted problem in Nepal ranking Nepal among the poorest of the poor countries. The fifteenth five-year plan which is in implementation currently has aimed of achieving zero poverty until 2024 from 18.7 percent in 2019.

There is high provincial disparity in terms of poverty in Nepal. The situation of Province no 1 is good compared to weak status of Karnali, Sudurpaschim and Madhesh Provinces. Similarly, the poverty is high in the rural areas compared to the urban areas. Rural poverty has suffered by stagnation in the agricultural growth. Similarly, the rural areas lack basic social and economic infrastructures. The plans formulated for alleviating the rural poverty have not been able to bring substantial positive changes. The strategies and approaches for poverty reduction in Nepal are mainly focused to the monetary approach. The policy and strategies made in this way have not been able to bring positive changes in the process.

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Commercialization of Women by Mass Media

Savya Sanchi*

Ever since India entered the space age, the mass media has become very popular so much so that the entire population of India is enjoying the mass media by visualization and direct knowledge of the events covered over the globe. The mass media is very much helpful to the masses to have direct knowledge about the events all over the globe. In the past cinema was the only media of entertainment which gave mass knowledge for the population by way of cultural programmes and films. Throughout the cinema age which is rather about 7 to 8 decades from now has women participation stage by stage. In the past only man orientation was common. Gradually, the women by the background of cultural education, civilization and advancement have been participating in the film world. So there is much predomination of the women in as far as cultural and social activities are concerned so to say for the last two decades TV has been the main mass media for the public who enjoyed many cultural events and programmes. This article describes about commercialization of women by mass-media in current modern era.

[Keywords : Mass-media, Space age, Rights, Commercialization, Culture]

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1. Introduction

Ever since India entered the space age, the mass media has become very popular so much so that the entire population of India is enjoying the mass media by visualization and direct knowledge of the events covered over the globe. The mass media is very much helpful to the masses to have direct knowledge about the events all over the globe. In the past cinema was the only media of entertainment which gave mass knowledge for the population by way of cultural programmes and films. Throughout the cinema age which is rather about 7 to 8 decades from now has women participation stage by stage. In the past only man orientation was common. Gradually, the women by the background of cultural education, civilization and advancement have been participating in the film world. So there is much predomination of the women in as far as cultural and social activities are concerned so to say for the last two decades TV has been the main mass media for the public who enjoyed many cultural events and programmes.

2. Women in Space Age

Women participation is increasing day-by-day as so many serials and films deal with the topics related to women sociology, culture and development in our day to day life, social life and also in politics.

Women have gained equal status with man in every stage. Women is competing in the advancement of the space age. Now a days we observe that women are going to the stars and the other planets on the space voyage. Even Indian women are going to travel in space in the research adventure along with the international space scientists so much so that women is equally participating in all events as in daily life. Naturally there is much exploitation of women spirit and energy in the mass media Especially, through the TV media there are many cultural programme serials and films which give the features of cultural, political, and social life and also in criminology that women are being shown in different roles to portrait several features of the programme. This naturally leads to women exploitation and there is much danger to harm the Spirit of entertainment and participation by the women in the mass media Recent Kashmir issue is an example and so also as we see in Karnataka the artist women who participate in film making as extras

in dance programs and mass media programmes they are exploited and harassed in certain stages by the strong elements of film industry. A strike has been organized to protest such harassment in Kannada film world. This is an example of how women are viewed and exploited in the mass media. So this requires a constitutional control over abnormalities of the women participation to check the misuse and exploitation of women participation in mass media

3. Problems of Mass Media

Television while depicting the serials on crime features women participation in a very delicate manner. To portrait the roles of crime by women and victimization of sex scandals we need to handle the situation very delicately and diligently. There is fear of exposure and organizing the women features is very difficult to acquire the women spirit to participate in the mass media. Naturally there will be less attraction and less portrayal of the features to depict the events of social and economic realities concerning the development of life and morality in the society. Hence, it involves psychological, social, economical and political problems.

4. Economy Fare in Mass Media

The main difficulty in mass media administration is question of cost of production of mass entertainment. To keep the cost at an economical level the programmes have to be featured accordingly. At this economic rate it is very difficult to get the human employment whether it is male orientation or female orientation. The software techniques and computer operations are also costly. As a result mass media programmes have got a triangular problem as the participation of human spirit, cost of maintenance and the cost of software. So mass media is naturally a very costly affair and it leads to high cost of maintenance at socio-economic level. Now a days the younger generation have taken up computer technology in almost every part of the life. The automatic utility of computation has got a better value than human labour. We find that the typewriters and the pencil and carbon, etc. have become outdated. Everywhere computerization is being utilized to compete with. We have to train the mass staff to compete and participate the computer world to participate any event or role in the features.

The television has given a vent to build up the new avenues for communicating the mass media with the update electronic

equipment. Today we can see any event anywhere on the globe at the very moment. This is an astounding feature where human spirit and energy has compete with the advancement of electronic technology. India is a third advanced country in the world. India has paced with TV media almost competing the western media. Now in India the TV features cover almost every area of human and space development. Almost in every language TV media is broadcasting the scientific and cultural events. Simultaneously the entertainment field has gone too much advanced to give entertainment to the masses.

This is a very attracting feature where women exploitation has become common. To check these events a special investigation is necessary and research is most urgent so that the difficulties observed and experienced by the women folk are minimized and the interest of the women artist are safeguarded at every stage of participation in mass media. In the media production level, the basic requirement is training of the personal dealing with the mechanism of the media.

5. Training of Personnel

Training of the artists to compete with the technical media requires extra potential power to evaluate a system of process in feeding the productions for the mass media. It needs familiarization with new terms, new equipments, new methods of operation and new people at every stage of mass media productions. Here what is required is the understanding of the features. Specific skills and familiarization of the artists with the production is also necessary. Skilled training is needed for the artists as an essential factor. Language is another important subject to be dealt with the productions. Specific words to suit the technicality of the electronic equipment's is also a skilled element. We have to train the artists in a specific language to expressions and enactment of any feature. Oral defect in speech and action results in heavy loss to the producer and we will have to go through again the whole feature. It involves heavy and heavy cost and heavy loss. So the participation of artists in mass media program is very significant and important feature. There is involvement of human element at both the sides so the participation of women is especially a very delicate matter.

6. Media Cost and Interest

Media requires a lot of time and energy. The women participants have to spend a long time for every feature or production.

So the interest of women artist has to be specially safeguarded socially, morally and economically. It is a problem for every sector where women participation in the programmes is concerned. If the media programmes are to be successful and popular it necessarily requires a constructive buildup and an intelligent approach to give the productions. It requires strong social, cultural and economical basis to produce the features.

Where the women participation is concerned the problem is more economical and social than psychological. A psychological makeup of the participants or the artists has to be at a certain moral level without which it cannot be expected for any kind of features and their participation. It is more economical and social problem where commercial productions are concerned. The payments of the wages or the remuneration are of a high order and artists are attracted by the financial profits.

The more you pay the more expectation is possible so to say women participants are also morally and ethically bound to go with the features when they receive handsome remuneration or profit. There has to be a psychological preparedness on the part of the artists to participate in the features. May it be a romance or a love feature or a trouble or a crime feature. The artists will have to replay the sequences as desired by the directors. So directors will have total control over the artists and all the human elements under the control of an electronic setup. As in the past now a days electronic features simplify the features to a great extent and the human labour and enacting is very easy and simple emotions, expressions, etc. are mostly featured electronically.

Here another problem arises, i. e., the equation of health features. Electronic nearness will naturally disturb the health conditions of the staff. So this is a prime feature to take care of so that the health condition of the artists does not jeopardize disturbed. While the mass media has to be successfully maintained the interest of the audiences should also be kept at a required level so that the attraction of the public remains interesting and useful. Training of the media personnel is very important so that the permanent of the audience is kept throughout to satisfy the needs of the entertainment study.

7. Status of Women

The mass media is a bridge between the audience and the features. While communicating the features by visualization and

dialogue the artists participation is equally important together with the electronic equipment's stability. The women of today are working together with men on equality in almost all the fields. Media is one among them and it is latest one. Many new problems and intricacies are possible to be noticed in the mass media administration.

Women are specially made for depicting the finer features and sex matters. So where women features are concerned a special care has to be taken so that the vulgarity and the indecent elements are eliminated in the process of mass media production. Once the public or the mass people begin to notice demoralization or indescence in the mass entertainment, the entire entertainment world will have to face a very dangerous situation and bear the risk of insult and loss.

The women has to maintain her life in the present day situation so as to make earning for herself and family. Although a family comprises of husband, wife and children the economic status of a family is generally strengthened by the earnings of both husband and wife. So the women as a housewife has also to earn in several fields, Media is one among them. In media women has to maintain herself prestige and personality with special features. For this she has to take a special care both mentally and physically. They have not to only work with men but also to cooperate with them and make a coordinated effort for their living and also professional ventures. A women is generally considered as a wow and she has to maintain her home, career, children and family,

8. Vivid Roles of Women

Women has to maintain the health standards and food maintenance. In the present day situation a woman or be it a man has to work all round the clock to keep up the development in the working field. The working conditions are vigorous and time involved. So the women have to carve themselves in a safe limitation to maintain their peace of mind and health. When the women rise above all the hurdles of her domestic and professional career she is considered to be a successful person in the society.

The society demands all the decency and regularity even from women artists especially in mass media. The cinema field has many advancement to provide different roles for the women. She may work as a director, cameraman, artists, technician and writer. Above

all these she may also become a producer. For all these professional status the women has to maintain her status to suit her professional career. For this the society, industry and the legislation should be encouraging and helpful for the progress of women in India.

9. Conclusion

To say the last word the Indian women are a pride of India. She has crossed the usual domestic barrier and reached the space horizon and has proved her task and merit to the development of the whole country. Especially in mass media women's contribution is appreciable not only for their merit but also for the entertainment value and capability they have shown in every sphere.

Women has an advantage in mass media to uphold her feminine values and rights and fight for her weaknesses against the men competitive world. It is very difficult to understand the problems of the women in industry. It all depends on the society and the environment they are living. If the problems are taken into consideration isolating the social background of the country of the region we will be denying the natural element of disadvantage the women are facing. It is very necessary that their problems should be understood and studied with reference to their social, economical, psychological and regional background. Especially the problems of Indian women are more difficult to be understood because the women in India are mainly the house holders. They are not capitalists or industrialists or professionals in any career.

The social and cultural background should be created to a harmonious background where women can feel free and exercise their rights of expression and speech. The rights conferred on the women seems to be insufficient as far as their economic poor conditions are still to be improved in most part of the Indian sector.

The first and the prime requirement of the industry and society is their economic conditions should be brought up to the level of their administrative setup. India is a democratic country, democracy for all and at all levels is a right of honour and integrity but when we actually go to the root problems of India, democracy seems to be not present in most of the fields. Then a question arises Democracy by whom? And Democracy for whom? So there are two classes-one who enjoy democracy and the other who is denied democracy. Many are ignorant or even denied what is democracy in India.

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An Assessment of Socio-economic Situation during the COVID-19 Pandemic : A Theoretical Review in Nepalese Context

Manoj Kumar Chaudhary*

The primary goal of this research is to look into the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the Nepalese socio-economic situation as well as the country's limited economic and social life. As a result, the study relies on secondary methods of analysis to find answers to these questions. For secondary analysis, data and information were gathered from articles, reports, newspapers, magazines, and other scholarly publications about the socio-economic effects of the novel coronavirus outbreak. The result of the study depicts that a socio-economic situations was affected tremendously in Nepal. Further, the study's findings also show that effective leadership among the responsible individuals in the local government is lacking. As a result, the paper concluded that integrated policies, programs, and plans are necessary tools for locating and realizing Nepalese people's new future dreams.

[**Keywords :** Socio-economic, Peoples life, Impact, Pandemic, Nepal]

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1. Introduction

The impacts of COVID-19 induced pandemic have been experienced in the others sectors of the economy in Nepal as well (Kathmandu Post, 2021; NRB, 2020). Pandemic has expanded to practically every country on the planet, wreaking havoc on society and the economy, and Nepal is no exception in this matter. In January, the country saw its first instance. Following then, the number of COVID-19 patients, as well as its consequences in other areas of the country, have steadily increased. Because to their particular culture, mechanism, conditions, infrastructure, health facilities, and capacities to respond to the virus, the effects of this pandemic vary by region and country (Poudel, 2020). Its effects can be seen practically everywhere and felt by almost everyone, but not equally (Kathmandu Post, 2020). Similarly, the economic and financial losses produced by COVID-19 would differ each country because the impacts are mostly dependent on the size and structure of the economies, the maturity of the financial system, and the virus's response strategy.

The unsure effects of the virus COVID-19 on Nepalese socio-economic situations has threaten the lives of people across the world including Nepal and such impact have led to severe challenges of survival, which have been experienced by the countries over the past two years. Such effects have resulted in serious survival and sustenance issues for practically all countries and businesses around the world (Poudel, 2020). While businesses deal with the negative repercussions of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, questions arise about how these countries may survive, revive, and sustain their economies while still caring for their citizens. The pandemic's impact on the lives of practically everyone in the world, as well as in every area of the global economy, and its highly astonishing repercussions of overwhelming effects, are important to note at this point (Poudel, 2020). The economy of the nation has started to bear the shock of the dangerous virus.

Every country is linked to the global economy through trade and investment in this setting. This is a global phenomenon, and Nepal is not immune to its consequences. Furthermore, the entire situation has revealed that the COVID-19 pandemic might cause higher stress in everyone, particularly those who are socially and economically underprivileged. Mental stress, employment uncertainty, future plan unpredictability, prejudice, food insecurity, cultural disturbances, and other factors may all play a role (Goldmann & Galea, 2014;

UNICEF, 2020). As a result, disruption in all areas of the economy is unavoidable, and the entire supply chain may be disrupted. According to a statement released by the World Bank in June 2020, the Corona virus pandemic poses a long-term risk of poverty in South Asian regions, particularly among low-income countries. The informal sector employs the greatest number of people in the South Asian region's economies (Kathmandu Post, 2020). Nepal will be the hardest hit in this region due to a drop in tourism, remittances, open border issues, inadequate outer structure, and land-locked disabilities. As a result, the COVID-19 has produced a slew of issues that are posing a severe threat to developing economies like Nepal. Understanding the pandemic's effects on Nepal's socioeconomic condition is critical, as is exploring suggestions for how to get the country's economy back on track. Thus, the worst situations created by pandemic has proven to be more dangerous and costly as compare to past. So, this article has mainly focused on presenting the real scenario of COVID-19 and its negative impacts on Nepalese socio-economic which led to narrowed economic and social life.

2. Methods and Materials

The main aim of this paper is to review the published and reliable literature related to COVID-19 pandemic impact on socio-economic scenario specially in Nepal. COVID-19 Pandemic have had a variety of adverse and beneficial consequences on the global socio-economic landscape, and Nepal is not immune to the pandemic's effects. As a result, published materials such as articles, reports, newspapers, magazines, and other scholarly publications that are connected to socio-economic repercussions of novel coronavirus outbreaks have been evaluated for this work. This study focuses on the effects of COVID-19 on the Nepalese people's socio-economic situation and other elements of their social and economic lives.

3. Reviews and Analysis

Data on major economic indicators of Nepal are presented in table-1 on next page. The data presented by Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) regarding the major economic indicator of Nepal shows that the overall economy of the nations affected by the pandemic. Further, the effect of Covid pandemic has been seen in the various sectors of the economy as well. There are food and beverage, export and import, remittance, government revenue and the like.

Table-1 : Major Economic Indicators of Nepal in the year 2019 to 2020
(Rs. in Billion)

Particulars	2019	2020	
	Mid-Apr	Mid-Mar	Mid-Apr
Consumer Inflation (y-o-y)	4.44	6.7	6.74
Consumer Inflation (Compared to Previous month)	0.58	-0.27	0.62
Food and Beverage	1.35	-0.66	1.68
Non Food and Service	-0.02	0.04	-0.21
Total Export	8.6	9.9	3.9
Total Import	112.5	120.6	58.3
Travel Credit	7.1	5.1	1.6
Travel Debit	6.4	5.4	1.2
Remittance Inflow	71	79.2	34.5
Total Government Expenditure	-	124.1	64.6
Recurrent Expenditure	-	85.1	44.6
Capital Expenditure	-	19.6	8.7
Total Revenue	-	54.4	43.9
Total Deposit	24.9	51	53.4
Private Sector Credit	46.5	35.6	40
Weighted Average Interest Rate on Deposit	6.7	6.8	6.7
Weighted Average Interest Rate on Credit	12.3	11.8	11.8

Source : Nepal Rastra Bank 2020.

This situation has resulted from the government decisions to impose several phases of nationwide lockdown that leads to industries operating in the low capacity, distribution of supply chain and market vulnerability etc. As a result, Socio-economic situation was affected the tremendously in Nepal. Therefore, the paper concluded that coronavirus waves continually across the globe including Nepal have been affected all kinds of activities must importantly economic activities and overall socio-economic situation in Nepal.

The table-2 presents the economic condition of Nepal from earthquake and economic blockade in 2015 to the world pandemic of COVID-19. The GDP per capita in USD at current price of Nepali was

increasing from 862.6 in 2016 to 1154 in 2019 but it is deceased to 1130.30 in 2020 after COVID-19 outbreak around a globe. GDP growth rate at market price of the country after the great earthquake in 2016 was just positive i.e. 0.4 percent then it was 9 percent, 7.6 percent, and 6.7 percent during 2017, 2018 and 2019 respectively. Moreover, the Nepalese economic growth has become negative by 1.9 percent in 2020 due to the negative impact of COVID-19 pandemic which is severe than that of the economic loss caused by the devastating earthquake of 2015.

Table-2 : Nepalese Economy and narrowed Social Lives

Item	Fiscal Year				
	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
GDP per Capita (\$, current)	862.6	1005.1	1133.2	1154.6	1130.3
GDP Growth (% , in market prices)	0.4	9	7.6	6.7	-1.9
a. Agriculture	-0.1	5.2	2.6	5.2	2.2
b. Industry	-4.1	17.1	10.4	7.4	-4.2
c. Services	1.2	8.4	9.3	6.8	-3.6

Source : NRB, 2021.

Further, the Nepalese economy is composed of three sector like agriculture (Primary) sector 25.8 percent, Industry (manufacturing) 13.1 percent and Service (territory) sector 61.1 percent in 2021. The contribution of agriculture industry and service sectors to the economic (GDP) growth of (at Market price) during devastating earthquake were negative except service sector. The contribution of growth of the industry and service sector from 2017 to 2019 has remarkable positive. However, the contribution of agriculture, industry and service sectors 2.2 percent, -4.2 percent and 3.6 percent respectively in 2020. This situation shows that the main impact of COVID-19 was industry and the service sectors in Nepal.

There is no scientific research or planning done in our country. The government must determine to have a stable economic growth in order for things to grow. The current issues are a lack of food supply, a scarcity of money in the market, and a lack of awareness or understanding of the global situation. Self-production; more opportunities for Nepalese companies to produce goods and services; generate

more opportunities at the local level rather than outsourcing human resources; and improve tax patterns and work on loopholes to eliminate tax-embezzlement are some of the economic improvements and stability measures that have been identified (NRB, 2020). There are a number of obstacles, including slow economic growth, sluggish economic development, corruption, an unstable economy, political instability, and other problems (Poudel and Subedi, 2020; Chaudhary, 2021). Furthermore, this has emphasized the importance of digitalization synergy. As a result, agricultural growth through contemporary technologies, techniques, and information diffusion, as well as government financial aid for new SMEs by aspiring entrepreneurs with appropriate interest rates, could be some of the measures for stability and economic improvement. Domestic violence, despair, abuse, family breakup, and unhealthy conflicts may become more common as a result of disrupted economic and social lives.

4. Socio-economic Situation during the COVID-19 Pandemic in Nepal

4.1 Socially and Culturally Disrupted

The first time lockdown due to the dangerous wave of pandemic from 24th march to 21st July 2020 had divesting impact of Nepalese economy. The situations witnessed on negative growth of 2.1 percent for the first time in Nepal since the year 1982 to 1983 (The Kathmandu Post, 2021). During the lockdown, there was very limited social life as there were no cultural festivities or social meetings. It was also a difficult existence without freedom. The spread of the COVID-19 epidemic, as well as the subsequent lockdown, impacted people's social lives. The social separation of all people has a negative impact on everyone's social life. People's familiarity with their daily demands has been aided by online access. COVID-19 was no exception, causing enormous economic losses such as unemployment and debt defaults all around the world (Kantamneni, 2020). COVID-19 causes socioeconomic problems for low-income and marginalized persons, such as food insecurity, discrimination, housing instability, and employment insecurity, all of which add to their mental load (Goldmann & Galea, 2014). People's lives have been severely impacted by a lack of money and its sources, as they are unable to meet all of their basic necessities. Even survival has become a difficulty as a result of job losses and income cuts, as there is less availability of various items, despite the fact that

expenses are rising in lockstep with inflation. On the other side, the pandemic lockdowns have had a positive impact by reducing fuel costs and other unnecessary spending. Still, practically everyone's sources of money have come to a standstill as bills have become difficult to pay as everyone's job life has come to a halt.

During the lockdown, our culture and traditions were disrupted. We were unable to participate in New Year's Eve and other cultural activities. Our everyday jobs, mentalities, and routines about daily life activities were all designed to keep our minds occupied. As a result, living at home was a difficult way to experience freedom. During the lockdown, we were all culturally disrupted. During this time, no festivals were celebrated - neither the jattras nor the gatherings at temples and churches. Nervousness, loneliness, helplessness, guilt, frustration, aggravation, wrath, dread, concern, and melancholy are some of the psychological mediators that pandemic-related constraints like home quarantine, isolation, and spatial separation can cause. This has been a source of concern for the economy's long-term viability as well as individual well-being (Bhuiyan et al., 2020; Mukhtar, 2020). The nation's average suicide rate climbed by 20% in the first month of the lockdown, from 410 in mid-February to mid-March to 487 in the first month of the lockdown (My Republica, 2020). In comparison to the previous year's total of 5,785 persons (15.8 per day), the statistics obtained by Nepal Police from the beginning of the lockdown (i.e. 23 March to 6 June) of a total of 1,227 suicide (16.5 per day) incidents is alarmingly high (The Kathmandu Post (2020); Poudel & Subedi 2020). The following are the various socioeconomic, psychological, physical, and cultural effects of the epidemic in Nepal (Ministry of Health and Population Nepal, 2020). This situation clearly indicates that the difference waves of virus does not look like that pandemic is going to be over any time soon because, Nepal over the last 25 days has seen a step-rising COVID-19 cases from 213 on 2nd January, 2022 to 8054 cases in 25th January 2022 which shows the large number of cases in Nepal (Ministry of Health and Population Nepal, 2022).

4.2 Supply Chain and International Trade in the Pandemic

Despite Nepal's resourcefulness in agriculture, various health safety measures during the COVID-19 caused lack of food supply. Similarly, a number of goods distribution systems were interrupted. Farmers have been forced to dump milk and vegetables due to a major

decline in supply and the closure of processing enterprises and adequate marketplaces, which has driven farmers to dump milk and vegetables and disrupted such production channels (Poudel et al., 2020). The local markets have recently seen artificial product shortages, unlawful marketing, and price increases as a result of these factors.

Nepal had seen a clear dependence on foreign trade in this era. The high dependence in this area has been creating a havoc in the market during these types of unfavorable situations. However, if we all put in the effort to cultivate food on our own property and encourage people to work in our own country, we can help to build the local economy. It is possible for an economy to be self-sufficient without international trade, but it is necessary for it to grow and remain stable in international trade. Local products can earn money abroad and contribute to the country's long-term economic development with the help of international trade. International commerce has played a critical role in countries' economic progress. If there had been no international trade, the underdeveloped countries would not have been able to modernize. It encourages economic growth by increasing competitiveness, extending the market, and supplying current technology and machinery to the industrial and agricultural sectors. As a result, international commerce is also regarded as a vehicle for economic development, as it aids in the promotion of contacts between mutual countries and the exchange of technology. The transactions in this sector have also resulted in the use of high-tech in the trading industry. Commodity imports declined by 12.7 percent in the first three months of 2020-21, reaching Rs 292.27 billion, according to Nepal Rastra Bank (2020). Similarly, commodity exports climbed by 14.3 percent to Rs. 31.05 billion. In the first three months of 2020-21, the total trade deficit shrank by 15.1 percent to Rs 261.22 billion, down from 12 percent in the same period in 2019.

4.3 Impact on Remittance Inflow in Nepal and others SAARC Countries

Migration and remittances play critical roles in our economy and have long-term consequences. Prior to the epidemic, remittances were the lifeblood of the Nepalese economy. Migration and remittances were key challenges for the Nepalese economy during and after the outbreak. The situation of migration is now interrupted. Remittances would play a significant role in this epidemic because Nepalese people rely largely on them for survival and to meet their

daily requirements. A big number of young people are working in foreign nations to support their families back home. Since Nepal's government is unable of providing the means for its inhabitants to meet their needs during this pandemic, remittances will play a critical role. Students were forced to employ distance learning techniques because migration was abruptly halted due to a lack of remittances. As a result, new habits such as social distancing, quarantine, severe sanitization, the use of defined zones, and other new behaviors have emerged, as has the use of technical means in online education. According to the Nepal Rastra Bank (2020), remittances increased by 12.6 percent in the first three months of 2020-21, after decreasing by 5.1 percent in 2019. However, it is interesting to note that the overall number of Nepali employees based on institutional and individual labour has reduced by 96.8%, as new and legally recognized pleasing approval for foreign employment has decreased. Nepal is the fifth most remittance- dependent country in the world, sending millions of labour migrants overseas every year for international labour. Despite the fact that remittances account for up to 25% of Nepal's GDP, it is expected that migrant remittances will drop during COVID-19, restricting households' sources of income (World Bank, 2020).

4.4 Foreign Returnees' Issue and need of Technical Skills

Nepal has to diversify its civilian employment situation by creating new chances within the country, as well as developing newer destinations such as self-employment and encouraging enterprise by giving low-interest loans. Agriculture, industry, manufacturing, and the service sector should all be investigated with a focus on cultivation work and exports to other countries, with the goal of reducing foreign imports. Foreign returnees can be managed productively if they are given opportunity to work in their home country. Academically qualified individuals should seek employment. Those who aren't should use the money they saved by working abroad to establish a small business. Nepalese people should also manufacture and consume local products so that they may invest more in local businesses, which will inevitably lead to greater job possibilities. In the actual world, online working methods should be implemented. Migrant workers have been unable to reach their places of work in their destination nations as well as return to their countries of origin as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, making them particularly vulnerable to its direct side effects. (ILO, 2020).

The foundation for combating any situation is strategic knowledge. Aside from that, after the pandemic, information technology may have a higher perceived value and importance in terms of virtual operations. Knowledge of digital technology will aid in overcoming the crisis's pre- and post-crisis issues. Following the epidemic, the globe will quickly shift toward digitization. People who do not understand digital technology will find it difficult to make a living. Workplaces may become more intense as the age of robots and robotic technology advances. In this context, automotive empowerment is essential. Everyone should be well-versed in digitalization as it pertains to their enterprises. As a result, this time period has become increasingly important in establishing how skills development in the information and communication technology (ICT) sector will take place in the future. In this instance, partnership initiatives to provide Nepalese youngsters with the necessary educational skills to satisfy increasing needs would be critical. Education and training will play a key role in supporting inclusive and sustainable growth, as they play a key part in attaining this (Asian Development Bank, 2020).

4.5 Tourism Agriculture and Cooperatives Business

The tourism industry has been seriously impacted by the pandemic. The only way to restore it is for the government to provide a meaningful relief package and solve the tourism industry's major shortcomings. With the pandemic causing a health and economic catastrophe, overseas tourists are a threat in and of themselves, but only for a limited period, until the virus is under control on a domestic level. For the time being, the country can increase the number of local and domestic tourists visiting its various regions. Tourism facilities such as building access to decent roads for all tourist areas and making online hotel reservations available at a reasonable price might be built. Furthermore, the tourism industry in Nepal can be revived by empowering local businesses, such as reviving local art and crafts, lowering travel costs, spreading global awareness and providing online tourism education about Nepal's tourism sector, and eventually developing proper strategies to attract tourists from all over the world, all while inspiring and launching local tourism at the moment. Due to the postponement of Visit Nepal 2020, the suspension of on-arrival visas, and the statewide lockdown, tens of thousands of people have lost their jobs. When mountaineering was banned, 20,000 tour, trek, and guide operators, as well as porters, lost

their jobs (The Kathmandu Post, 2020). The Nepal government had to abandon “Visit Nepal Year 2020,” which sought to welcome 2 million tourists to Nepal, due to the severity of the corona virus and its effects on the general public’s health (Ulak, 2020).

Agriculture may be a lucrative source of employment for people of all socioeconomic groups. Farmers must primarily be supported with financing, agriculture subsidies, seeds, and fertilizers. Agribusiness marketing supply network must be created in addition to irrigation infrastructure. Farmers can have income profits from various jobs when they receive monetary benefits from agriculture sector work, which can circulate in cooperatives in the form of credits and debits.

COVID-19 is mostly responsible for poverty, because our country is primarily based on agriculture, and vast territories are still uncultivated, allowing for the production of sufficient food for Nepali inhabitants. If a cooperative assists a farmer in producing food from his or her farming and harvest, many others would be interested in doing the same. This will also assist entrepreneurs in expanding their businesses in metropolitan regions. If such infrastructure is put in place, it will assist unemployed people in finding suitable employment. To function properly, the agriculture industry requires financial investments and cooperatives. The Agro supply chain can be transformed with the help of digitalization. Low and middle-income countries have experienced a swift and serious economic catastrophe as a result of the spread of COVID19 and the ensuing lockdown measures. Experts and economists have suggested to the authorities that the lockdown be gradually eased, starting with the agriculture sector (Shrestha, 2020).

4.6 Industry and Financial Sector Role for Sustainable Economic Development

The industrial sector is the greatest hope for long-term economic growth. It underlines the potential for environmentally sound measures to boost industrial competitiveness and create new jobs. It also emphasizes the importance of a well-balanced policy mix, including a greater use of market-based instruments and voluntary initiatives, while taking into account the cost-effectiveness of the various measures. It has the potential to raise living standards, increase economic self-sufficiency, and expand the vast opportunities for new initiatives while also working toward the sustainable

use of available natural resources. As a result of its growth, industry adds value and improves the application of science, technology, and innovation. This, in turn, motivates increased investment in skills and education, resulting in the resources needed to achieve larger, more inclusive, and long-term development goals. This industry has been identified as one in desperate need of online access technology that allows for more efficient distance operations, production, and supply chain for industry items. This version estimates four important economic sectors in contraction: construction, manufacturing, 'transportation, communication, and storage', and 'hotels and restaurants.' During an economic downturn, the private sector's demand for products and services is the first to suffer (The Asia Foundation, 2020).

A bank or financial institution can act as a key creditor to promising industries that can help the economy expand and prosper. In Nepal, this industry is also important for job possibilities. These businesses can introduce new programs to assist and push other industries and entrepreneurs financially through low-interest loans. As a result, Nepal requires ever-increasing support and assistance in order to achieve inclusive development and socioeconomic transformation. To support the working class, immediate action is required to provide incomes, social protection, and employment. A fundamental investment climate reform to enhance physical infrastructure and access to finance is required for the informal sector to shorten the transition to recovery (World Bank, 2020).

When it comes to economic growth, service sectors are like hidden treasures. They don't require any raw ingredients or large plant setups. They can begin with low-budget investments and work on a virtual level, such as customer pleasure and signaling a beneficial effect on the national economy, without incurring significant cost or generating more money. The private sector is an important player in both urban and economic development, contributing significantly to national GDP and serving as the primary creator and employer of jobs at all times. This sector employs people in developing countries (both formal and informal occupations), supplies essential goods and services, and contributes to tax revenues and capital flow efficiency.

4.7 Role of Education Sectors in the Pandemic

The health industry relies heavily on the education sector. Before entering the health care field, everyone must have the requisite

education and knowledge. In times of health and economic crises, education is critical. Rather than operating schools and colleges, education sectors should conduct online classes during this time. They have the ability to introduce new digital technologies, as well as digital learning equipment. They can assist everyone in achieving a smooth and easy existence as well as a comfortable school/college life by empowering them to practice digital livelihood. They can introduce new digital technology as well as other digital learning tools. In the current health and economic crisis, education sectors are promoting learning through various online mediums such as Zoom, Microsoft Teams, and other online mediums. The government of Nepal's decision to restrict gatherings of more than 25 people in one location, postpone all national level examinations, and close all educational institutions in just three days resulted in a mass exodus of more than 300,000 people from Kathmandu (Rising Nepal Daily, 2020). Today, more than 1.5 billion children and teenagers in more than 160 countries are affected by school closures (World Bank, 2020). Setting aside time each day for yoga and physical activity might help you live a healthier life. Similarly, practically everyone's personal health is limited these days, as is our ability to stay inside our houses. However, eating healthy foods, washing hands often, and taking a bath on a regular basis are all advantages. As of now, the only answer is to stay at home and maintain our own health in the COVID-19 Pandemic by washing hands, using hand sanitizers, social distancing, drinking enough of water, and engaging in physical activity indoors. The spread of the novel coronavirus on a global scale has resulted in neuropsychiatric issues such as fear, anxiety, depression, panic attacks, psychomotor excitement, suicidal deaths, and a general decrease in overall wellbeing, while a preventive vaccine and treatment option against it have yet to be developed (Brooks et al., 2020).

During such a situation, a visionary leadership style may be beneficial. Leaders must be able to motivate their teams while being optimistic about the eventual result. He or she must have improved and expanded communication and information technology abilities, as well as a clear vision and mission for the organization's objectives. In the face of a catastrophe, proactive leadership is necessary. Educated leaders are individuals who use courteous and humble demeanor to lead others in maintaining discipline, harmony, and cooperation within their team. Effective leadership qualities could not be found among the accountable persons in our administration

during the pandemic crisis. Bureaucratic barriers that prevent people with disabilities from being counted and included in relief efforts can result in the loss of inter-generational knowledge and even starvation. This is primarily due to the government's lack of coordination with local communities and related organizations that represent such individuals (Minority Rights Group International, 2020).

5. Conclusion

Over the last few years, the enormous disruptions in people's lives caused by the coronavirus pandemic have not only been devastating, but they have also produced problems in every aspect of Nepal's socioeconomic environment. The ongoing new coronavirus epidemic has had an enormous socioeconomic impact on the world, and Nepal is no exception. Daily employment, attitude, and habits about daily lives and activities were expected to keep everyone's brains and bodies engaged in a balanced work ecosystem, but for many, this did not happen. Remittances have played a significant role in this pandemic since Nepalese people rely largely on them for survival and to meet their daily requirements. Furthermore, during the epidemic, the repatriation of foreign migrants was perceived as a new challenge. Foreign migrant returnees can be managed productively in the country if they are provided with opportunities to work in their native country of Nepal.

With the rise in health and economic problems as a result of the pandemic, the tourism industry has been threatened. However, for the time being, it is getting ready to reopen after the sickness has been controlled at the domestic level. Poverty is a major issue that has arisen as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, because our country's economy is primarily reliant on agriculture, and many lands remain uncultivated despite the country's capacity to produce enough food for all Nepali inhabitants. People who do not understand digital technologies are more likely to lose their jobs. The emergence of a new era of robots and robotic technologies may exacerbate these issues in the workplace. Banks and financial institutions can act as significant creditor to prospective growth and elevate sectors in the economy. In Nepal, this industry is also important for job possibilities. Banks and financial institutions can develop new programs to assist and encourage various industries and businesses financially with low interest rates.

As industry grows, it adds more value to the economy and improves the application of science, technology, and innovation.

This will inspire even more investment in skills and education, providing the resources needed to achieve broader, more inclusive, and long-term development goals. Although the economy can function independently of foreign trade, it is necessary for it to grow and remain stable. The private sector is an important player in both urban and economic development, contributing significantly to national GDP and serving as the primary employer and generator of jobs. Before entering the health care field, all employees must have the requisite education and knowledge. In times of health and economic crises, education is a critical component of the solution.

In our local context, the current issues are a shortage of food supply, a scarcity of money in the markets, and a lack of knowledge or understanding of the global crisis. Effective leadership was not apparent among the relevant personnel in the local administration during the pandemic crisis. As a result, integrated policies, programs, and plans are important instruments for Nepal's rehabilitation in order to find and realize its new future dream. COVID-19's impact on economic health, culture, and financial loss will, however, differ by country. It is due to the fact that its consequences are very dependent on the economy's size and structure, financial system's maturity, health infrastructure, strong governance, and the country's response to a virus-induced pandemic, among other factors. Moreover, developing countries like Nepal is already in the midst of crisis because of poor infrastructure and less investment in key infrastructure project. Therefore, the paper concludes that the ongoing socio-economic recovery of the country is possible or the overall economy can be back on the track, if the attentions put forward on critical infrastructure development projects also the goods which are currently in demand in the country are produced within the country. Hence, the researcher recommend that government of Nepal and concern authority too must take the plunge to get things done when it comes to developing basic infrastructure in the country. Finally, the government of Nepal has been focusing more on increasing revenue instead of promoting domestic goods and industry and its exports. Hence, the governments lackadaisical approach also contributed to current surge of socio-economic environment that affected the external sector of the economy.

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Mauryan Weavers - The Pioneer of Textile Industry

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Textiles are the most important commodity used by a civilized society for living and earning. India is one of the oldest textile manufacturing countries of world. The textile industry has played a pivotal role in the economic development of the country ever since the Harappan days. The ancient Indian people made yarn, cloth and garments that laid down the foundation of textile industry in India. Yarn and threads were manufactured from animal hair, wool, cotton and silk. Due to their efforts and hard work clothing industry had been thriving in the later periods and reached a very high level of excellence in the Mauryan period. Kautilya in his Arthashastra provides a great deal of information about the yarns, colours, fabrics and technology used by the artisans that had popularized their products all over the world. Mauryan artisans pioneered the techniques of spinning, weaving, dying and embroidering. Their products were highly praised by Indians, Romans, Chinese and other Asians. The progress in the acquisition of multifarious skills and the efficiency won worldwide fame for India and filled state coffers with gold and silver.

[Keywords : Cotton, Woolen, Silk, Fabrics, Commodities]

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1. Introduction

India has a rich tradition of manufacturing cotton, silk and woolen commodities. Its origin dates back to the Indus valley and vedic period where people replaced clothing made of animal skin to the plant fabric. They made Indus Saraswati region and Gangetic Plains the most important centers of textile production. Their efforts not only reduced the killing of animals and provided scope for designing, coloring and fashioning clothes but also marked the blossoming of a more civilized society. The ancient Indian people made yarn, cloth and garments that laid down the foundation of textile industry in India. Yarn and threads were manufactured from animal hair, wool, cotton and silk. With the passage of time Indian craftsmen gained proficiency in the field of cloth making and started the weaving of coarse as well as fine varieties of textiles. Numerous small kingdoms and dynasties played significant role in the development of textile industry in India. The age of Mauryas testify the excellence of Indian weavers and praise their achievements. Kautilya in his Arthashastra provides a great deal of information about the yarns, colours, fabrics and technology used by the artisans that has popularized their products all over the world. It speaks of woolen products exceeding in beauty and goodness and also about the dresses made from the finest muslin and silk worn by the wealthy. The Mauryan administration had improved transportation thus beginning the process of making strong commercial links with outside world. The beauty and brilliance of Indian textile was held in high esteem. Their quality, variety and range were unsurpassed. Mauryan artisans pioneered the techniques of spinning, weaving, dying and embroidering. Ancient India must have been deeply indebted to Mauryan weavers for winning glory for the country and for flooding state coffers with Indian as well as foreign currency.

2. Woolen Textile in Mauryan Period

The woolen articles manufactured in the Mauryan period were of considerably high quality. The Arthashastra depicts the existence of a wide variety of woolen textiles. The hilly areas provided abundant raw material for manufacturing woolen commodities. It was collected from different regions such as Bhutan, Tibet, North Himalayas and Kashmir etc. This raw material was treated extensively by weavers and converted into finished products such as

carpets, shawls and blankets etc. The Arthashastra furnishes a list of woolen articles mentioning kambalah kuchipakah kulmitika saumitika, turugasataranamvarnakam tilicchikam varavanah paristomah samantabhadrakam chavikam. Some of the high quality blankets were slippery smooth and soft.¹ The eightfold blankets called bhingisi are also mentioned in Arthashastra. The ornamental work done on these woolen articles was quite decorative.² The bright colours of woolen cloth enhanced their beauty. The Arthashastra refers to them as white (shuddha), purered (shuddharaktam), part red (paksharaktam). Woolen textiles were made either by sewing the worsted thread or by weaving the woolen thread of various colors or by joining different pieces together or with broken off threads.

The geographical location of India contributed a lot in the growth of woolen textile. Wool industry needed a favorable climate and continuous supply of wool that was available in the mountainous region. The weavers were hard working and skilled. They were organized in guilds which looked after their interests. They concentrated on the improvement of the quality and quantity of their product. As a result Mauryan India began to produce quality products in sufficient quantity and starting exporting large quantities to the other countries. It speaks volume of the skill and efficiency of Indians that they could accomplish so much through manual devices in those days when the electronic or steamrun and machines could not even be conceived of. The high quality of Indian wool and woolen products gave them widespread popularity both in Indian and international markets. The blankets and shawls were widely used to beat the winters. The coarse wool was purchased by the poor customers and the superior wool was exported to foreign lands. There was a variety of attractive carpets which were highly appreciated by the royalty. The uniqueness of the designs, patterns and colors made them popular in the foreign markets as well. Woolen industry provided livelihood to weavers and business to merchants and traders.

3. Silk Textile in the Mauryan Period

Another branch of textile where high quality and variety won glory for India was silk industry. The beautiful silk products show the great skill acquired in the Mauryan period in silk manufacturing. The Arthashastra contains many words such as Parorna, Cinapatta and Krimitana etc for silk apart from the common word Kausheya.³

The Mauryan textile workers acquired great skill in different spheres of silk production- in collecting, classifying, spinning and weaving silk. They developed multifarious skills relating to the collection of raw silk such as rearing of silk worms and the separation of silk from the leaves without destroying the quality of thread. They had acquired the knowledge of proper time and suitable trees for the collection of silk. The naga tree, the likuca, the bakula and the banyan tree are mentioned in the Arthshastra as the source of silk. The naga tree yielded yellow silk? while that obtained from likuca was wheat coloured? The silk from bakula was white coloured? while that obtained from banyan tree had the colour of butter? Kautilya speaks of the hatrona silk coming from Magadhas, the Pundras and the Suvarnakundiyas? The Suvarnakundiyas silk was considered the best? This shows the advance of Mauryan silk industry about the classification of silk according to its color, place of origin and the trees which yielded it. The various silk products were definitely in great demand as they fetched high prices. Although most scholars give the credit of evolution of silk manufacturing to China but practice of silk production prevailed in Mauryan India also. Indian silks weavers were skilled and enthusiastic workers. They were eager to increase the production of silk to expand their craft. Silk was considered unpolluted textile that was fit for being used during rituals and ceremonies by Indians. This increased its value and popularity in Indian market. Moreover, the rich variety of silk manufactured during the Mauryan age was highly praised by foreign merchants also for its unique technique and pattern. The developed trade routes and highways of Mauryan times provided artisans and traders the opportunity of supplying the textiles to western regions and foreign markets. It expanded the role of weavers as ambassadors of Indian art and culture to western countries.

4. Cotton Textile in the Mauryan Period

From a very early time cotton clothes were the chiefly worn clothing of India which were made up of locally grown cotton. Traces of cotton fabrics and dresses can be witnessed as early as Indus Saraswati era. Indian farmers cultivated cotton plants and it was converted into finished fabric by ancient Indian weavers. Use of cotton was prevalent during the Mauryan period also. Availability of raw material and manpower encouraged the growth of cotton industry. Repeated references to cotton found in the Mauryan texts

indicate the flourishing condition of cotton industry. Cotton was one of the chief commodities of trade. However, money was not the sole motive for developing this variety of cloth. Initially, the climatic condition of India would have attracted the people to produce a variety of cloth which would help them in tolerating the hot Indian sun and the chilly winter nights but gradually with its improved quality and increased demand it became a very profitable commercial product. The widespread use of cotton and cotton cloth and the resultant development in their quality encouraged further development in the refinement of their different varieties. There is no doubt that cotton was widely used in cloth making, the cloth then used for clothing and other purposes. The cotton textile industry was quite advanced in the Mauryan period in the field of spinning, weaving and dyeing cotton. Very fine varieties of cottons and linens are mentioned in Mauryan texts. Bengal, Banaras Ujjain and western India were famous for cotton products. Not only fine cotton cloth was made but also coarse cotton was converted into fine cloth by parcelling into small pieces, beating, cleaning and weaving it. Cotton cloth was so beautifully made that Arrian praised the greater brightness and superior quality of Indian cotton as compared to the brightness and quality of products obtained from elsewhere.¹² A passage of Arthashastra suggests that some clothes were made as beautiful and shining as lac, saffron or blood. Such cloth required much skill and care in making them shine.

The manufacturers of cotton fabrics were presented with scents, garlands and other prizes by the state to encourage them.¹¹ Sometimes mixed cloth were also made ie mixing cotton with wool or silk. All this suggests the developed state of Mauryan textile industry and dexterity and skill attained in the Mauryan period. The Greek travellers too mentioned several seats of cotton manufactures within the Mauryan kingdom which corresponds with Kautilya's list weaving units. Muslins, coarse, dyed cloth and ordinary cloth were carried to the cotton bazaars. Fine muslins and linens were either exported abroad or purchased by rich and affluents while the ordinary products were used by masses.

The study of Mauryan textile products reveals that the skill and proficiency of weavers, the stylish and sophisticated taste of Indian people and the availability of raw material contributed to the growth of rich tradition of textile manufacturing during Mauryan age. Each region of India played its part in the growth of textile industry by

providing man and material. The extensive growth of Mauryan textile industry is mirrored in the improved quality and variety of textile goods. The male and female weavers were actively engaged in the task of making valuable garments with distinct style and artistic patterns. As a result of this development and improvement Indian textile products became popular in other countries also. India became renowned for its craftsmanship and the beauty of its textile commodities. It goes without saying that the progress in the acquisition of multifarious skills and the efficiency won worldwide fame for India.

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Attaining Prosperity through Power Trade with Neighbouring Countries

Hom Raj Dahal*

The recent conflict between Russia and Ukraine has endangered peace worldwide. It has shrunk the supply of petroleum products, food, and chemicals. Economic hardships and inflation have doubled during the fourth wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. By reducing the import of petroleum products and electrical energy from hydropower, we can move forward to attain sustainable development. In these contexts, Nepal has done a power trade agreement with India for the mutual benefit of the two countries. The article has focused on the development of harnessing electricity from hydropower and using it to supply to Bihar and Uttar Pradesh during the demand seasons. Soon, power trade has prospects for mutual benefits with Bangladesh and China.

[**Keywords** : Sustainable development, Mutual co-operation, Energy, Electricity, Power trade]

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1. Introduction

The development of a society is said to be sustainable if there is economic, cultural, and social durability is guaranteed. We should develop our world so that future generations should be able to be safe, prosperous, and healthy. Environmental protection should be kept in mind while developing our society.

Land, air, and water pollution should not be permitted while doing developmental works. Local cultures must be preserved. Economic development must be addressed to all sections of society. United Nations has done tremendous work on climate change, environment protection, and sustainable development (<https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/>).

John Williamson has stressed reform in government policies to attain sustainable development (Williamson, 2004). Amartya Sen has viewed development as freedom. In his book, development as freedom, goals of economic, social, and general welfare should be freedom (Sen, 2001).

Arturo Escobar has explained failed development model prescribed by the Western countries in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. He is against naming the local people as the third world and forecasts the dangers of development discourse (Escobar, 1997).

Critical analysis of hydropower project implementation shows that there are numerous stakes to be handled carefully. They may be : displacement ,loss of land, environmental issues, riparian rights, loss of local culture and human rights issues (Kunwar, 2015).

As S. B. Kunwar illustrates :

The series of resistance movements also depend upon the nature of state, political economy, and its trajectories. Resistance and negotiations are never-ending processes in the case of hydro- power projects which are the sites of contestation in Nepal (Kunwar, 2015).

We are overusing fossil fuels and destroying the planetary ecosystem. Non-renewable energy sources may pollute the planet. It is best to reduce the use of nonrenewable energy sources such as coal, petroleum products, and natural gas. Most of the renewable Energy is generated from wind, water, and sun.

These types of energy are non-pollutant and sustainable. Only ten percent of the needed energy produced is renewable. We have

been producing only about 5 percent of energy from hydropower at the global level. Generating energy from hydropower is cost-effective and sustainable.

Sanjib Khagram has explained on the new discourse of sustainable development in his book *Dams and Development*. Transnational cooperation and conflicts are seen in hydropower, irrigation, and water supply. But basic problems of displacement and environmental degradation are not properly addressed (Khagram, 2004).

Nepal has the potential of producing a large amount of electricity for its needs and it can supply extra electric power to India for cooperation and benefit. Nepal and India signed an agreement known as Power Trade Agreement to solve the power crisis.

2. Objectives of the Study

The conceptualization of the article is based on competent theories on the development, critical reviews on hydropower projects, and regional and multinational cooperation. The article analyzes hydropower production, ongoing projects, collaborations, and scope of supply of demand of energy through the power trade. Objectives of the study are to analyze discourse on development, sustainable development; to find out historical development, scope, and challenges in the hydropower sector and to explore the possibilities of power trade in transnational level.

3. Research Method

The research is based on exploratory and descriptive research design. Primary data are collected through field visits, observations, and interviews. Secondary data are collected from the library, books, journals, newspapers, and online materials.

4. Timeline of Hydropower Development in Nepal

Nepal started to produce hydropower in 1911 A.D. at Pharping near Kathmandu city. At the time, the political system was very closed and authoritarian. The electric energy produced was served to the king and Rana family in Kathmandu. In 1934, the next hydropower station started at Sundarijal. After achieving democracy in 1951, Trishuli, Panauti, and Fewa hydropower stations started to produce electricity. When the multi-party democracy was abolished in 1960,

King's direct rule prevailed up to 1990. During the period, Sunkoshi, Gandak, Kulekhani, and Seti hydropower stations were operated.

During the period of multiparty parliamentary practice from 1990 to 2006, Marsyandi, Chatara, Puwa, Modi, and Kali Gandaki started to operate. Kali Gandaki has a capacity of producing 400 megawatts of electricity.

Nepal experienced a great political change by abolishing the monarchy in 2006. Now, Nepal has become a federal, democratic republic. Middle Marsyandi, Chamelia, Upper Tamakoshi, and Kaligandaki 3 projects have started operations. Upper Tamakoshi has the capacity to produce 753 MW of electricity.

Now Nepal is at capacity to produce 2190 Megawatts. Nepal can supply electric power to neighbouring countries India, Bangladesh, and China. They are the most important partners in power trade. At present, India and Nepal have reaping mutual benefits from Power Trade. Bangladesh has joined to purchase electricity from Nepal with coordination from India.

5. Cross-Border Power Trade

During the rainy season from May to December, Nepal can supply electric power to India, Bangladesh, and China. At present, Nepal and India signed an agreement to 364 MW of power to export to India. It has become successfully implemented. In the near 111 MW and more power is expected to be exported to India. This project is a landmark achievement for both countries (<https://www.onlinekhabar.com>).

In 2022/04/2 Nepal and India agreed on :

“(a) joint development of power generation projects in Nepal, (b) development of cross-border transmission infrastructure, (c) bi-directional power trade with appropriate access to electricity markets in both countries based on mutual benefits, market demand and applicable domestic regulations of each country, (d) coordinated operation of the national grids and (e) institutional cooperation in sharing latest operational information, technology and know-how”
<https://moewri.gov.np/>

From the above-mentioned power trade agreement, both countries have materialized enhanced power exports and shared mutual benefits.

According to Pampha Bhusal, the Minister for Energy, Water Resources, and Irrigation, the total installed capacity power has become 2,190 MW. The minister explains the milestone of the power trade agreement between Nepal and India in this way :

Following the concurrence from the Government of India, NEA has been exporting up to 364 MW of power from six hydropower projects to India in the Day Ahead Market of Indian Energy Exchange. This will decrease the country's trade deficit with India and at the same time, help to manage the seasonal surplus energy.

The Joint Vision Statement in the Power Sector Cooperation was issued during the visit of the Rt. Honorable Prime Minister of Nepal to India. It will open further avenues of cooperation in the cross-border electricity trade including grid connectivity infrastructures and adequate market (Bhusal, 2022).

To the agreement, Nepal has started to participate in Indian Energy Exchange (IEX). Other areas of sustainable growth are: Nepal's 93% population uses electricity and 5.4 million consumers have access to electricity approximately (Tiwari, 2022).

6. Trans-Border Transmission Line

According to Kulman Ghishing of the Nepal Electricity Authority, the 400 KV transmission line between Nepal and China is expected to be built in near future for future power trade between Nepal and China (Ghishing, 2022).

The current transmission line selling from Nepal to India is from Dhalkebar-Muzaffarpur 400 kv transmission line from which 364 MW power is being exported. Nepal is importing power from India from Tanakpur - Mahendranagar 132 KV transmission line at present.

Bangladesh and Nepal have signed an agreement on power trade so that electricity can be exported to Bangladesh. This can be implemented after approval from India and managing transmission lines.

7. Scope and Challenges

New field of energy is an alternative to fossil fuels and natural gas. Additional to hydropower, Green Hydrogen is seen to be a major source of energy in times to come. It can be used as a fuel for

transportation, to produce ammonia and urea. Nepal can open a new avenue for self-reliance in the power sector. Solar power is also a natural source of energy. Nepal can utilize solar power to produce energy. As Shyam Bahadur Kunwar has pointed out, there are huge challenges. First and foremost is the huge money for investment. Multinational companies have signed agreements with Nepal to construct, produce and sell electricity with Nepal Government. Their capacity to complete the hydropower projects is not tested. Second problem is about sustainability; these huge dams and stations require large portions of land and water. The political economy, local issues and environmental problems may hinder the project implementation.

The third sphere of problems comes from the regional and global politics. Nepal should work cautiously to benefit from engagement with India, China, America and Bangladesh to implement the hydropower projects for the region.

8. SAARC, BIMSTEC, BRI and MCC

Sustainable development can be achieved in the South Asian region through SAARC, BIMSTEC, BRI and MCC.

SAARC was established in 1985 to create regional co-operation in South Asia. The headquarters is in Kathmandu.

Due to geo-political misunderstandings, it is not as active as it should have been developed. Through SAARC, power exchange and development of hydropower could be done.

The other sub-regional grouping is BIMSTEC. It should work for sustainable development and co-operation in the region.

BIMSTEC has priority on trade, investment, technology, energy, transportation, etc. The BIMSTEC Summit of 2018 had a major theme on peace, prosperity and sustainability and emphasized on energy cooperation.

Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) is a program launched by China. Nepal can benefit from BRI by exploring power-trade with China.

Nepal's parliament has ratified the agreement of MCC between Nepal and the United States of America. This agreement is to be executed within five years to enhance the power transmission lines from Nepal to India, modernize road transport and alleviate poverty. A large amount of power generated in Nepal will be exported to India through the assistance of the MCC of USA.

9. Conclusions

After the end of the Second World War in 1945, development discourse developed to modernize the Third World countries (Escobar, 1995, Blaikie, 1980). New theories on development have emerged in recent time, they are: sustainability, welfare, Washington Consensus, Human Development, and freedom (Sen, 2000; Kothari, 2005; Willimson, 2005).

Development of hydropower and distribution of electric energy to human populations for heat, light, transport, industrial purposes, and service sectors may preserve the ecosystem. Nepal is heavily reliant on fuels, petroleum products, and natural gas for the people. Some experts have warned about the danger of economic crises like the Sri Lankan experience. Nepal's hydropower development and economic progress lie with cooperation in power trade with India, Bangladesh, and China. Nepal should maximize using electric vehicles for transport, use electricity in place of LPG Gas, use electricity for irrigation, and promote industries for consuming electricity.

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Testing the Convergence Hypothesis for Income across Indian States : Before and After the Economic Liberalization

Prabhjot Kaur*

The present study analyzes the Time series unit root stochastic convergence for the per capita NSDP, NSDP originating from agriculture, industrial and services sector across 24 Indian states and further panel data unit root tests has been employed to examine income convergence before and after economic liberalization across states. Study found that Gujarat and Tamil Nadu were the only two states (out of 24 states) converging in terms of NSDP originating from agricultural, industrial and services sector. The panel data unit root tests for stochastic convergence reveals that the states have been diverging in terms of per capita NSDP over the period 1980-81 to 2011-12. However, the states have been converging during 1980-81 to 1990-91 (pre-reform period). The non-stationarity found during 1991-92 to 2011-12 (post-reform period), indicated that the poor

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states are not catching up with the rich ones and the gap is widening further in terms of per capita NSDP.

[Keywords : Convergence, per capita net state domestic product, catch-up, Liberalization, Inequality]

JEL Classification Code : I14, I24, I25

1. Introduction

India is a country with a population over 1.21 billion and comprising of 29 states and 7 Union Territories. Balanced regional growth is one of the major objectives of each five year plan. Neo-classical economic growth model suggests that economies would converge in the long run in terms of production or income level. But if we turn our eyes to Indian economy, we find that the basic assumption of neo-classical growth theory might not necessarily be fulfilled (Gunji and Nikaido, 2004). From a dismal growth rate of 3.5 per cent in 1960's and 1970's (the so-called Hindu growth rate), the Indian economy broke the barriers and achieved GDP growth rate of 5.82 per cent during 1980/1981-1990/1991 and accomplished an impressive growth rate of about 7.5 per cent in the post 2000 period. Thus, after crossing the Hindu rate of growth in 1990's, India has made a noteworthy progress due to the continuous efforts made by the Indian government. But the benefits of growth have not trickle down and regional inequalities are still persisting across states. All states have not grown at the same pace with the states like Maharashtra, Kerala, Karnataka, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu etc. growing rapidly whereas the states like Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Assam and Madhya Pradesh have lagged behind. There are huge differences in levels of education, health, literacy, infrastructure, investment expenditure, population growth, and the structure of regions which causes disparities in per capita income and regional inequalities are still persisting across states (Cherodian & Thirlwall, 2013). This may cause widening of the standard of living across the states of India. Therefore, it is important to know whether the initial poorer states are catching up of with the richer ones or not. This catching up, in the domain of development economics is known as the theorem of convergence. The convergence theorem (Barro, 1991) presumes that when the growth rate of an economy accelerates, initially some regions with better resources would grow faster than others. But after sometime, when the law of diminishing marginal returns set in, first growth rates would converge, due to differential

marginal productivity of capital (higher in poorer regions and lower in richer regions), and this in turn would bridge the gaps in the levels of income across regions (Bhattacharya & Sakthivel, 2004).

2. Objectives of the Study

The present study aims at achieving the objectives as specified below :

- » Analyzing the Time series unit root stochastic convergence for the per capita NSDP, NSDP originating from agriculture, industrial and services sector across 24 Indian states.
- » An examination of income convergence before and after economic liberalization by using panel data unit root tests.

3. Database and Methodology

The data used in the study for the 24 Indian states namely Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Arunachal Pradesh, Goa, Meghalaya, Nagaland and Sikkim were collected from Central Statistical Organisation and Economic and Political Weekly Research Foundation 2011. The study has been undertaken for the period 1980 to 2011, the earliest and the latest years as per the availability of data. In order to obtain comparable data for per capita NSDP at 2004-05 prices for the period 1980-81 to 2011-12, shifting of base year from 1980-81 to 1993-94, from 1993-94 to 1999-2000 and then from 1999-2000 to 2004-05 constant prices is necessary. So, as per the requirement, state-wise per capita NSDP at 1980-81 constant prices has been converted into 1993-94 constant prices for each state and then from 1993-94 to 1999-2000 and furthermore, the per capita NSDP at 1999-2000 constant prices for each state has been converted into 2004-05 prices for the entire period 1980-81 to 2011-12.

4. Time Series Unit Root Tests

For testing the convergence hypothesis by applying Time Series Approach, we have used the standard Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root test.

For each state i , we examine the natural logarithm of the ratio of Per Capita Net State Domestic Product (PCNSDP) relative to the average of all the states.

$$Y_{it} = \ln \frac{\text{PCNSDP}_{it}}{\text{average PCNSDP}_t} \quad (1)$$

Then, we applied the Augmented Dickey Fuller test to examine the convergence hypothesis. The ADF test for a unit root developed by Dickey and Fuller (1979) has been used to check whether a data is stationary or not. For this, the following type of Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) regression has been applied:

$$\Delta Y_t = \mu + \beta_t + \alpha Y_{(t-1)} + \sum_{i=1}^k \delta_i \Delta Y_{(t-1)} + e_t \quad (2)$$

Where e_t is white noise. The equation is with intercept and time trend.

The Hypothesis is:

$$H_0 : \alpha = 0$$

$$H_1 : \alpha \neq 0$$

If the calculated ADF statistics are insignificant then the null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted and the series are taken as non-stationary. Hence, unit root exists. Alternatively, if the calculated ADF statistics are significant then the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is accepted and the series are taken as stationary. Hence, unit root does not exist.

5. Panel Data Unit Root Tests

Levin, Lin and Chu Test

LLC argued that individual unit root tests have limited power against alternative hypotheses with highly persistent deviations from equilibrium. This is particularly severe in small samples. LLC suggest a more powerful panel unit root test than performing individual unit root tests for each cross-section. The null hypothesis is that each individual time series contains a unit root against the alternative that each time series is stationary (Baltagi, 2005).

The maintained hypothesis is that

$$\Delta Y_{it} = \rho Y_{i,t-1} + \sum_{L=1}^{p_i} \theta_{iL} \Delta Y_{it-L} + \alpha_{mi} d_{mt} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad m = 1, 2, 3 \quad (3)$$

with d_{mt} indicates the vector of deterministic variables and α_{mi} indicates the corresponding vector of coefficients for model $m = 1, 2, 3$. The following steps will be used to implement LLC test :

Step 1 : Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) regressions for each cross-section :

$$\Delta Y_{it} = \rho Y_{i,t-1} + \sum_{L=1}^{p_i} \theta_{iL} \Delta Y_{i,t-L} + \alpha_{mi} d_{mt} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad m = 1, 2, 3 \quad (4)$$

Choose a maximum lag order p_{\max} for a given T and in order to determine if a smaller lag order is preferred, use the t -statistic of $\hat{\theta}_{it}$.

After determining p_i ,

In order to get residuals \hat{e}_{it} , Run Δy_{it} on $\Delta y_{i,t-L}$ ($L = 1, \dots, p_i$) and d_{mt}

And

In order to get residuals $\hat{v}_{i,t-1}$, Run $y_{i,t-1}$ on $\Delta y_{i,t-L}$ ($L = 1, \dots, p_i$) and d_{mt}

To control for different variances across i , these residuals will be standardized

$$\tilde{e}_{it} = \frac{\hat{e}_{it}}{\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon i}} \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{v}_{i,t-1} = \frac{\hat{v}_{it}}{\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon i}}$$

Where $\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon i}$ is the standard error from each ADF regression, for $i = 1, \dots, N$.

Step 2 : In the second step, the ratio of long-run to short-run standard deviations will be estimated.

$$\hat{\sigma}_{yi}^2 = \frac{l}{T-1} \sum_{i=2}^T \Delta y_{it}^2 + 2 \sum_{L=1}^{\bar{K}} w_{\bar{K}L} \left[\frac{l}{T-1} \sum_{t=2+L}^T \Delta y_{it} \Delta y_{i,t-L} \right] \quad (5)$$

where \bar{K} refers to the truncation lag that can be data-dependent.

$$w_{\bar{K}L} = 1 - \left(\frac{L}{\bar{K} + 1} \right)$$

Step 3 : The panel test statistics will be computed by running the pooled regression

$$\tilde{e}_{it} = \rho \tilde{v}_{i,t-1} + \tilde{\varepsilon}_{it}$$

based on $N\tilde{T}$ observations where $\tilde{T} = T - \bar{P} - 1$. \tilde{T} refers to the average number of observations per individual in the panel with

$\bar{p} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p_i}{N}$. \bar{p} refers to the average lag order of individual ADF

regressions. The t-statistic for $H_0 : p = 0$ is $t_p = \frac{\hat{p}}{\hat{\sigma}(\hat{p})}$, where

$$\hat{p} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=2+p_i}^T \tilde{v}_{i,t-1} \tilde{e}_{it}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=2+p_i}^T \tilde{v}_{i,t-1}^2}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}(\hat{\rho}) = \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{\tilde{\varepsilon}}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=2+p_i}^{T_i} \tilde{v}_{i,t-1}^2}$$

and
$$\hat{\sigma}_{\tilde{\varepsilon}}^2 = \frac{1}{NT} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=2+p_i}^T (\tilde{e}_{it} - \hat{\rho} \tilde{v}_{i,t-1})^2$$

is the estimated variance of $\tilde{\varepsilon}_{it}$.

Compute the adjusted t-statistic

$$t_{\rho}^* = \frac{t_{\rho} - N \tilde{S}_N \hat{\sigma}_{\tilde{\varepsilon}}^{-2} \hat{\sigma}(\hat{\rho}) \mu_{m\tilde{T}}^*}{\sigma_{m\tilde{T}}^*}$$

where $\mu_{m\tilde{T}}^*$ and $\sigma_{m\tilde{T}}^*$ are the mean and standard deviation.

Im, Pesaran and Shin Test

The Levin, Lin and Chu test requires ρ to be homogeneous across i . Im et al. (2003) (IPS) allow for a heterogeneous coefficient of y_{it-1} and offer an alternative testing procedure which is based on averaging individual unit root test statistics. The null hypothesis is that each series in the panel contains a unit root, i.e., $H_0 : \rho_i = 0$ for all i and the alternative hypothesis allows for some (but not all) of the individual series to have unit roots (Baltagi, 2005).

$$H_1 : \begin{cases} \rho_i < 0 & \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, N_1 \\ \rho_i < 0 & \text{for } i = N_1 + 1, \dots, N \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Formally, it requires the fraction of the individual time series that are stationary to be nonzero, i.e., $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{N_1}{N} \right) = \delta$ where $0 < \delta \leq 1$. This condition is necessary for the consistency of the panel

unit root test. The IPS t -bar statistic is defined as the average of the individual ADF statistics as

$$\bar{t} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N t_{\rho_i} \quad (8)$$

where t_{ρ_i} refers to the individual t -statistic for testing $H_0 : \rho_i = 0$ for all i in (7).

$$t_{\rho_i} \Rightarrow \frac{\int_0^1 W_{iz} dW_{iz}}{\left[\int_0^1 W_{iz}^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}} = t_{iT} \quad (9)$$

as $T \rightarrow \infty$, where $\int W(r)dr$ refers to a Weiner integral with the argument r suppressed in (9), IPS assume that t_{iT} have finite mean and variance. Then

$$\frac{\sqrt{N} \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N t_{iT} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N E[t_{iT} | \rho_i = 0] \right)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \text{var}[t_{iT} | \rho_i = 0]}} \Rightarrow N(0, 1) \quad (10)$$

as $N \rightarrow \infty$ by the Lindeberg-Levy central limit theorem. Hence

$$t_{IPS} = \frac{\sqrt{N} \left(\bar{t} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N E[t_{iT} | \rho_i = 0] \right)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \text{var}[t_{iT} | \rho_i = 0]}} \Rightarrow N(0, 1) \quad (11)$$

as $T \rightarrow \infty$ followed by $N \rightarrow \infty$ sequentially (Baltagi, 2005).

The present study also employed other two Fisher type tests developed by Maddala and Wu (1999) and Choi (2001). The MW test (Maddala and Wu 1999) test is based on the combined significance levels (p-values) from the individual unit root tests.

$$P = -2 \sum_{i=1}^N \ln p_i \quad (12)$$

which combines the p -values from unit root tests for each cross-section i to test for unit root in panel data. $-2 \ln p_i$ has a χ^2 distribution with 2 degrees of freedom (Baltagi, 2005).

Residual-Based LM Test

Hadri (2000) derives a residual based lagrange multiplier (LM) test where the null hypothesis is that there is no unit root in any of the series in the panel against the alternative of a unit root in the panel. It

is based on OLS residuals of y_{it} on a constant, or on a constant and a trend (Baltagi, 2005). The following two models has been considered by Hadri (2000):

$$y_{it} = r_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad i = 1, \dots, N; \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$

and

$$y_{it} = r_{it} + \beta_i t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (13)$$

Where $r_{it} = r_{i,t-1} + u_{it}$ u_{it} is a random walk. By making use of back substitution, model (13) becomes.

$$y_{it} = r_{io} + \beta_{it} + \sum_{s=1}^t u_{is} + \varepsilon_{it} = r_{io} + \beta_{it} + v_{it} \quad (14)$$

Where $v_{it} = \sum_{s=1}^t u_{is} + \varepsilon_{it}$. The stationary hypothesis is simply $H_0 : \sigma_\mu^2 = 0$, in which case $v_{it} = \varepsilon_{it}$. The LM statistic is given by

$$LM_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{N} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T S_{it}^2 \right)}{\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2}$$

Where $S_{it} = \sum_{s=1}^t \hat{\varepsilon}_{is}$ is the partial sum of OLS residuals $\hat{\varepsilon}_{is}$ is

from (14) and $\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2$ is a consistent estimate of σ_ε^2 under the null hypothesis H_0 .

$$\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2 = \frac{1}{NT} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\varepsilon}_{it}^2$$

Time Series Unit Root Test for Stochastic Convergence:

Most time series tests of convergence are related to the notion of stochastic convergence. "Stochastic convergence implies that shocks to the income of a given country relative to the average income across a group of countries will be temporary. Thus, a common test for stochastic convergence involves testing for a unit root in the log of the ratio of per capita income relative to the group average. Failure to reject the unit root null hypothesis is an evidence of divergence, whereas rejection of the unit root null supports stochastic convergence" (Dawson & Strazicich, 2010).

Table 1, 2, 3 and 4 presents the results of Augmented Dickey Fuller test statistics for the per capita NSDP, NSDP originating from agriculture, industrial and services sector respectively for each state. Column II of each table gives the value of Augmented Dickey Fuller

test statistics against which the null hypothesis has been tested whereas column III, IV and V of each table shows the Mackinnon critical values (1996) at 1 per cent, 5 per cent and 10 per cent level of significance respectively. If the value of test statistics exceeds the critical values at any level of significance then the null hypothesis is not to be rejected.

Table-1 : Stochastic Convergence for Per Capita NSDP

I	II	III	IV	V	VI
States	Test Statistic	τ -critical value at 1%	τ -critical value at 5%	τ -critical value at 10%	Acceptance/ Rejection of Null Hypothesis
Andhra Pradesh	-3.658** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Arunachal Pradesh	-2.189 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Assam	-5.292* (4)	-4.339	-3.587	-3.230	Reject H_0
Bihar	-1.512 (4)	-4.339	-3.587	-3.230	Cannot Reject H_0
Goa	-2.007 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Gujarat	-3.230 (4)	-4.339	-3.587	-3.230	Cannot Reject H_0
Haryana	-2.635 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
Himachal Pradesh	-2.392 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Jammu and Kashmir	-2.544 (2)	-4.309	-3.574	-3.222	Cannot Reject H_0
Karnataka	-2.719 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Kerala	-4.527* (5)	-4.356	-3.595	-3.233	Reject H_0
Madhya Pradesh	-1.967 (3)	-4.324	-3.581	-3.225	Cannot Reject H_0
Maharashtra	-2.332 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Manipur	-2.229 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0

Meghalaya	-3.233*** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Orissa	-3.047 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
Punjab	-0.747 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
Rajasthan	-1.175 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
Sikkim	-1.358 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Nagaland	-2.861 (5)	-4.356	-3.595	-3.233	Cannot Reject H_0
Tamil Nadu	-2.855 (7)	-4.394	-3.613	-3.243	Cannot Reject H_0
Tripura	-2.610 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Uttar Pradesh	-3.267*** (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Reject H_0
West Bengal	-3.128 (7)	-4.394	-3.613	-3.243	Cannot Reject H_0

Note : *, ** & *** denote significance at 1, 5 & 10 % levels.
Critical values are from Mackinnon (1996).

The estimated test statistics from the ADF unit root test presented in table 1 shows that the null hypothesis of a unit root has been rejected in favour of stationarity for Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Kerala, Meghalaya and Uttar Pradesh. This suggests that only these five states are stochastically converging with the average level of all the states, whereas the remaining 19 states have been diverging over the period of time. Majority of the states in India indicated no evidence of income convergence during the study period, as only five states out of twenty four states were in the convergence club, whereas the remaining 19 states were categorised under non-convergent club, following different steady-state paths. As most of the poor states except Assam, Meghalaya and Uttar Pradesh did not catch up with the rich ones due to wide disparities in geographic, demographic and economic features across the states. Thus the results are not enough to prove income convergence in India. The existence of different clubs (convergent and non-convergent) may be due to the reasons that the high income states like that of Goa, Maharashtra, Haryana, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, and Gujarat have been pulling away from the national average and are best performing

states in one way or another. Goa is India's richest state with per capita income of Rs. 112602 at current prices during 2011-12 and was ranked as the best state by the Eleventh Finance Commission for its infrastructure. Maharashtra is India's leading Industrial state contributing 13 % of national industrial output and almost 46 % of the GSDP is contributed by industry.

Table-2 shows that out of 24 states in the sample, only 7 states displayed tendency towards convergence as the null hypothesis of non-convergence has been rejected for Gujarat and Rajasthan at 1 % level of significance, for Assam and Maharashtra at 5 % level of significance, whereas at 10 % level for Bihar, Himachal Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. Bihar's success in catching up in terms of NSDP originating from agricultural sector is that Bihar's economy is basically agrarian in nature and is the eighth largest food grain producer in the country.

Table-2 : Stochastic Convergence for NSDP originating from Agricultural Sector

I	II	III	IV	V	VI
States	Test Statistic	τ -critical value at 1%	τ -critical value at 5%	τ -critical value at 10%	Acceptance/ Rejection of Null Hypothesis
Andhra Pradesh	-2.974 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Arunachal Pradesh	-2.902 (4)	-4.339	-3.587	-3.230	Cannot Reject H_0
Assam	-3.609** (3)	-4.324	-3.581	-3.225	Reject H_0
Bihar	-3.533*** (2)	-4.309	-3.574	-3.222	Reject H_0
Goa	-1.918 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
Gujarat	-4.778* (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Haryana	-1.077 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Himachal Pradesh	-3.301*** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Jammu & Kashmir	-2.225 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0

Karnataka	-2.850 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Kerala	-0.066 (2)	-4.309	-3.574	-3.222	Cannot Reject H_0
Madhya Pradesh	-2.273 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
Maharashtra	-3.866** (5)	-4.324	-3.581	-3.225	Reject H_0
Manipur	-0.899 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Meghalaya	-2.514 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Orissa	-3.098 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
Punjab	-0.034 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Rajasthan	-4.548* (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Sikkim	-2.600 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Nagaland	-1.538 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Tamil Nadu	-3.239*** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Tripura	-1.955 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Uttar Pradesh	-1.594 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
West Bengal	-1.406 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0

Note : *, ** & *** denote significance at 1, 5 & 10 % levels.

Critical values are from Mackinnon (1996).

Table-3 : Stochastic Convergence for NSDP originating from
Industrial sector

I	II	III	IV	V	VI
States	Test Statistic	τ -critical value at 1%	τ -critical value at 5%	τ -critical value at 10%	Acceptance/ Rejection of Null Hypothesis
Andhra Pradesh	-1.651 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Arunachal Pradesh	-4.379* (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0

Assam	-3.117 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Bihar	-0.964 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Goa	-2.605 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Gujarat	-3.557*** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Haryana	0.4889 (7)	-4.394	-3.612	-3.243	Cannot Reject H_0
Himachal Pradesh	-3.829** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Jammu & Kashmir	-2.651 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Karnataka	-3.596** (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Reject H_0
Kerala	-2.792 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Madhya Pradesh	-2.742 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Maharashtra	-2.283 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Manipur	-2.510 (7)	-4.394	-3.612	-3.243	Cannot Reject H_0
Meghalaya	-2.951 (2)	-4.309	-3.574	-3.222	Cannot Reject H_0
Orissa	-2.231 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Punjab	-3.014 (7)	-4.394	-3.612	-3.243	Cannot Reject H_0
Rajasthan	-4.598* (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Sikkim	-1.080 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Nagaland	-1.898 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Tamil Nadu	-4.481* (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Tripura	-2.076 (5)	-4.356	-3.595	-3.233	Cannot Reject H_0
Uttar Pradesh	-2.497 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
West Bengal	-2.372 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0

Note : *, ** & *** denote significance at 1, 5 & 10 % levels.
Critical values are from Mackinnon (1996).

Table-3 shows that the null hypothesis of a unit root (non-stationarity) has been rejected for the six states only (Arunachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu) but it cannot be rejected for the remaining 18 states. Further, it has been found that Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan (Table 2 & 3) were the only states converging in terms of NSDP originating from agricultural and industrial sector. The Rajasthan Mega Highways Project, which was being implemented by the Road Infrastructure Development Company of Rajasthan Ltd. (RIDCOR), aimed at improving and maintaining 1053 Km of roads and involving an investment of US\$ 326mn- has been completed. This has not only driven industrialisation in the state but also generated employment. The tremendous boost in tourism augments growth in the state. Rajasthan Financial Corporation (RFC) is also providing financial support for setting up of new industries and expansion and renovation of existing industries. Investments in irrigation facilities, technology breakthrough and infrastructure development etc. are the factors affecting agricultural production in the Rajasthan.

Table-4 : Stochastic Convergence for NSDP originating from Services Sector

I	II	III	IV	V	VI
States	Test Statistic	τ -critical value at 1%	τ -critical value at 5%	τ -critical value at 10%	Acceptance/ Rejection of Null Hypothesis
Andhra Pradesh	-2.193 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Arunachal Pradesh	-3.225*** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Assam	-3.179 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Bihar	-2.069 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Goa	-1.995 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Gujarat	-3.391*** (4)	-4.339	-3.587	-3.230	Reject H_0

Haryana	-1.772 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Himachal Pradesh	-2.528 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Jammu & Kashmir	-2.114 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Karnataka	-2.048 (5)	-4.356	-3.595	-3.233	Cannot Reject H_0
Kerala	-4.568* (7)	-4.394	-3.612	-3.243	Reject H_0
Madhya Pradesh	-4.033** (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Reject H_0
Maharashtra	-2.925 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Manipur	-3.161 (7)	-4.394	-3.612	-3.243	Cannot Reject H_0
Meghalaya	-2.188 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Orissa	-3.247*** (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Reject H_0
Punjab	-2.365 (3)	-4.324	-3.581	-3.225	Cannot Reject H_0
Rajasthan	-2.592 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0
Sikkim	-0.569 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Nagaland	-1.644 (5)	-4.356	-3.595	-3.233	Cannot Reject H_0
Tamil Nadu	-3.619** (7)	-4.394	-3.612	-3.243	Reject H_0
Tripura	-1.779 (0)	-4.284	-3.563	-3.215	Cannot Reject H_0
Uttar Pradesh	-2.226 (6)	-4.374	-3.603	-3.238	Cannot Reject H_0
West Bengal	-1.618 (1)	-4.297	-3.568	-3.218	Cannot Reject H_0

Note : *, ** & *** denote significance at 1, 5 & 10 % levels.

Critical values are from Mackinnon (1996).

The results displayed in table-4 shows that the unit root null hypothesis has been rejected for Arunachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Orissa at 10 % level, Madhya Pradesh and Tamil Nadu at 5 % level and Kerala at 1 % level of significance. It may be noted that Gujarat and Tamil Nadu were the only states converging in terms of NSDP originating from agricultural, industrial and services sector. Gujarat

has been in first few states of India which initiated private sector investment. The strength of Gujarat's agricultural success has been contributed to diversified crops and cropping patterns, the existence of four agricultural universities in the state, which promotes research in agricultural sustainability and efficiency. Tamil Nadu is among the most industrialised states in the country and attracted several industrial projects and is amongst the highest FDI attracting states which helped in achieving greater technological advancement and more exportable products. Tamil Nadu is also a leading producer of agricultural products in India.

6. Panel Data Unit Root Tests for Stochastic Convergence

The convergence hypothesis has been examined in terms of per capita NSDP for the whole period (1980-81 to 2011-12) as well as for the two sub-periods i.e. pre-reform period (1980-81 to 1990-91) and post-reform period (1991-92 to 2011-12). For applying stochastic convergence framework, the natural logarithm of the ratio of per capita NSDP of each state relative to the average of all the states has been computed and then LLC, IPS, ADF Fisher, Fisher-PP and Hadri tests were applied to investigate unit roots in the relative per capita income. The null hypothesis of all panel unit root tests, with the exception of Hadri, is that states do not converge and series have a unit root (non-stationarity). On the other hand, for Hadri test the null hypothesis is of no unit root (stationarity), against the alternative of a unit root (non-stationarity) for time series data. In case of panel unit root tests, stationarity of the panel reveals convergence in state per capita income, whereas non-stationarity reveals divergence of state per capita income.

Table-5 : Unit Root Tests for the Full Panel for 24 States

Types of test statistics	Test statistics	P-value
LLC	1.03630	0.8500
IPS	5.11018	0.9000
Fisher-ADF	4.75175	0.9000
Fisher-PP	63.8631	0.0624
Hadri	15.8103	0.0000

Source : Author's Calculation

Table-5 reports the results of all the five panel unit root tests of 24 states for the entire period 1980-81 to 2011-12. The table reveals that null hypothesis of unit root is not rejected for all the tests except Fisher-PP test. The Hadri statistics also rejected the null of stationarity. So, the results of all the tests (except Fisher-PP test) highlights that the mean deviation of per capita income of Indian states poses a unit root. This indicates no sign of convergence of per capita income across Indian states, suggesting that the poor states are not catching up with rich ones over the period 1980-81 to 2011-12.

Table-6 : Unit Root Tests for the Pre-Reform Period for 24 States

Types of test statistics	Test statistics	P-value
LLC	2.06958	0.0192
IPS	3.03791	0.0012
Fisher-ADF	69.8210	0.0215
Fisher-PP	75.2151	0.0073
Hadri	-1.23387	0.8914

Source : Author's Calculation

The results of panel unit root tests for 24 states for the pre-reform period (1980-81 to 1990-91) has been presented in table 6. Table reveals that the unit root null hypothesis has been rejected in all the four tests (LLC, IPS, Fisher-ADF & Fisher-PP) and the Hadri statistics also accepted the null of stationarity, which indicates convergence across Indian states during the pre-reform period. So, the gap between the states has declined in terms of per capita income over the period 1980-81 to 1990-91.

Table-7 : Unit Root Tests for the Post-Reform Period for 24 States

Types of test statistics	Test statistics	P-value
LLC	2.12901	0.0166
IPS	0.23430	0.5926
Fisher-ADF	31.0419	0.9726
Fisher-PP	0.29205	0.6149
Hadri	12.3461	0.0000

Source : Author's Calculation

The results of panel unit root tests for 24 states for the period 1991-92 to 2011-12 has been presented in table 7. Table reveals the evidence of divergence during the post-reform period as in case of all

the tests, the null hypothesis is not rejected (except for LLC result, which indicates convergence across states during the post reform period). The Hadri statistics also indicates evidence of divergence by rejecting the null of stationarity.

Overall, the results of this section reveals that for the period 1980-81 to 2011-12, the states did not show any evidence of convergence, rather states have diverged. But the stationarity in the pre-reform period indicates stochastic convergence across states during the period 1980-81 to 1990-91. Whereas the non-stationarity achieved during the post-reform period (1991-92 to 2011-12), indicates that the rich states are becoming richer and poor are becoming poorer in case of per capita income and the gap is widening further during this period. The results of this section are in line with K. G. and Kumar (2011), who also by applying four different panel unit root tests (LLC, IPS, MW and PP Fisher Chi-square) found that Indian states in terms of per capita income did not show any indication of convergence for the period 1980-81 to 2008-09, rather were diverging during this period. According to their study, the Indian states are converging during the pre-reform period (1980-81 to 1990-91), however, non-stationary in the post-reform period indicated that the state per capita income has been diverging during the post-reform period (1991-92 to 2008-09).

The possible reason of divergence across Indian states could be that with the launching of economic reforms in 1991, few states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, and Karnataka have attracted larger FDI and were the big gainers from the process of economic liberalization. Whereas states, such as Orissa, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan lagged behind as being less attractive destinations of FDI. State level policy reform could be another reason for divergence. There are major differences across states in the area of policy reform. Few of the Indian states such as Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh have been more reform-oriented, but states such as Madhya Pradesh, Haryana, Kerala, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan and West Bengal have lagged behind in implementing economic reforms.

7. Conclusion

Estimating stochastic convergence by applying ADF unit root test statistics across Indian states, study found that while the null

hypothesis of a unit root (non-stationarity) can be rejected for five states only in case of per capita NSDP. Study found that the null hypothesis of non-convergence has been rejected for Himachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Assam, Bihar, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan in terms of NSDP originating from agricultural sector. While the null hypothesis of no convergence can be rejected for six states each for NSDP originating from industrial sector (Himachal Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu) and for the NSDP originating from services sector (Gujarat, Arunachal Pradesh, Orissa, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh and Tamil Nadu). Gujarat and Tamil Nadu were the only two states (out of 24 states) converging in terms of NSDP originating from agricultural, industrial and services sector.

Further, the panel data unit root tests for stochastic convergence reveals that the states have been diverging in terms of per capita NSDP over the period 1980-81 to 2011-12. However, the states have been converging during 1980-81 to 1990-91 (pre-reform period). The non-stationarity found during 1991-92 to 2011-12 (post-reform period), indicated that the poor states are not catching up with the rich ones and the gap is widening further in terms of per capita NSDP. After opening up of economy, only few states- which were already industrialised- have gained in terms of industrial investment both domestic and foreign, thus widening the gap which was earlier bridging. Liberalization and opening up of economy has helped some sectors to grow rapidly, but it also negatively affected the other sectors which could not compete internationally. This has increased inter-state inequality in the country. Special attention should be given to overpopulated states and special policy efforts to promote investment are required in these states to bridge the economic and social gap among the leading and laggard states. Poor performing states such as Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Assam and Uttar Pradesh can improve their growth performance by attracting FDI through well targeted initiatives that involve state as well as central government participation.

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Infrastructural Techno-sociality : A Study of Cyber-café Managers in Guwahati, India

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Cyber-café managers were an integral part of the history of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in India's cities, even though cyber-café have been in decline for some years now. This paper seeks to understand the 'infrastructural' role played by these Indian cyber-café managers in the 'social' that emerges around ICTs. Towards this end the paper draws upon theorizations from Science and Technology Studies on 'techno-sociality' as well as critical infrastructure studies of communication. The paper is based on data collected through fieldwork conducted in cyber-café in the North-East Indian city of Guwahati. How cyber-café managers have translated technological protocols for local contexts, how they regulate access to these spaces and how they regulate the transgression of social and technical norms is investigated by the paper.

[Keywords : Cyber-café, Managers, Infrastructure, Techno-sociality, De-scription]

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1. Introduction : Infrastructural Investigations

This paper seeks to understand the ‘infrastructural’ role played by the cyber-café managers in cyber-café in Guwahati, Assam. The paper finds that cyber-café managers are important engineers of the ‘social’ that emerges around the internet in the Global South, especially among those less-privileged and without much access to digital literacy. They have singular engagements not only with technological materials but also with cultural and social networks and norms, and in shaping and re-shaping them. I used the long-interview method to interact with cyber-café managers in this study along with long hours of situated study at these cafés. In investigating this, the paper also makes a case for a ‘provincialized’, and contextualized study of how techno-social ‘translations’ or ‘de-scriptions’ of the internet in the Global South (in this case in a ‘center’ of India’s ‘periphery’) often varies widely from its original intended uses (Akrich, 1992; Aouragh and Chakravartty, 2016). The cyber-café managers under study here are an essential node of this process.

My paper focuses on the offline, ‘hardware’ world that undergirds the ‘online’. This offline network of technology, socio-economic arrangements shall be called ‘infra-structure’, following a particular approach of thinking about such arrangements (Parks and Starosielski, 2015). A fair bit of attention has been garnered by the bodies and socio-cultural practices that animate these infrastructures. While the initial focus was on the Global North, an enriching and defining array of studies have been conducted on the Global South. Ever since Hughes’s ground-breaking work on ‘large technical systems’ infrastructural concerns have crept into the social scientific disciplines, especially sociology (Hughes, 1993). Such concerns now sew together studies of media usage and access, urban spaces, information and communication technologies (ICTs), affect etc. and wrangle with intersecting sociological and political questions. The role of individuals in this new urban ‘networked sociality’ has received a fresh impetus as they chalk out un- anticipated structural paths in the Global South while negotiating with these technological systems. Media networks and coloniality in Nigeria (Larkin, 2008), cassette tapes of Islamic sermons and political publics in Egypt (Hirschkind, 2009), rural handpumps in Zimbabwe (Laet and Mol, 2000), mobile phones and elections in India (Jeffrey and Doron, 2013) - studies in this field in the Global South have shown us rich potential.

There is a paucity of such research on cyber-café and cyber-café operators; there has only been a handful of research on this aspect in the last decade (Burrell, 2012; Harris, 2017). There is a need for more engagement with regard to such 'infrastructural' aspects, especially from the diverse regions in South Asia. This paper focuses on Guwahati, in India's North-Eastern region, and addresses this lacuna.

In the pursuit of this broader rationale, the paper explains the following - how cyber-café managers have translated technological protocols for local contexts, how they regulate access to these spaces and how they regulate the transgression of social and technical norms. This approach of studying 'infrastructure' is uniquely placed to help reach the objectives of this paper. Conventional wisdom understands infrastructure to mean servers, server farms, signal towers, wires, hard drives etc. as the infrastructure of the internet (Parks, 2015). These are the 'hard' infrastructural form. In response, 'soft' infrastructural forms evolve. These include the social practices, networks, transactions and cultural forms around these technological artifacts (Harris, 2017). Hard infrastructure interacts with social structures such as urban spatial and economic inequalities, social networks, norms etc. The everyday social practices that come into being around these technical systems go on to become integral infrastructures through repeated deployment over a long period of time (Parks and Starosielski, 2015). As Star and Ruhleder had famously stated, unless they deviate from the norm or malfunction infrastructures usually sink deep into the social, and become a part of the everyday mundaneness (Star and Ruhleder, 1996).

2. The Cyber-café as a field in the Global South

Internet cafés are 'publicly accessible sites of concentrated interaction with new technologies making it easy to recruit people for interviews and observe behaviour online and offline' (Burrell, 2012). The 'public'-ness of cyber-café often defy the traditional definition of this term. This leads to singular opportunities as well as challenges in the process of conducting interviews. Although internet access has shifted dramatically to private devices one can see cyber-café still soldering on. As Routray notes, cyber-café have not 'evaporated' completely unlike the Public Call Office (PCO) booth that was ubiquitous in India's cities and towns. However, these cafés are rapidly in decline (Routray, 2015). They generate revenue primarily

through the Desktop Publishing, photocopying and printing services provided by the café managers. The existing scholarship on cyber-café have also looked at how the business model and interactions in cyber-café in the Global South often veer far from the path originally envisaged in official policies. In addition to Jenna Burrell's work in Ghana, Africa, scholars have looked at the cyber-café operators in Turkey where, counter-intuitively, adhering to traditional conservative religious norms of gender have actually helped café operators and women access these public-private spaces.

3. Methodology

The questions raised in this paper have been addressed based on interviews across 2 months with the managerial staff in 3 cyber-cafes in 2016. (These interviews were part of a larger study that involved interviews with over 30 customers as well). The cafés were situated in socially diverse locations. There were no criteria by which prospective respondents were filtered, although glimpses of their socio-economic background become apparent upon analysis of the interviews.

Qualitative studies that consider both the 'offline' as well as the 'online' lives on the internet were heralded by Miller and Slater in the late 1990s (Miller and Slater, 2000). With time, the divisions between 'online' and 'offline', interpersonal and mass communication became more and more outmoded (Walther et al., 2011). The internet lends itself to distinct methods (Jensen, 2011) and has also been methodologically viewed as a space around which the 'everyday' life of human beings unfold, which can then be treated as a discourse to be analyzed (Bakardjieva, 2011; Hine, 2001).

The data for this paper was based on interviews conducted in 3 cyber-café across Guwahati from May to July of 2016. From these interviews the paper will focus primarily on the interviews with the 4-5 cyber-café managers with whom I conducted extensive qualitative interviews (the interviews with the customers are beyond the scope of this paper). Instead of a survey method, a case-study or a quantitative study, I used the long-interview method (McCracken, 1988). I proceeded more or less along the lines of McCracken's schema. After a review of the relevant literature, I pondered upon my own experiences of cyber-café. This helped me think of what sort of discussions and respondents would be most fruitful for this venture (McCracken, 1988 : 31-32). After a few initial questions regarding

their digital lives and encounters with political content I usually let the conversation take its own course. As is done in the long-interview method, instead of questions I used prompts to carry the conversation forward (McCracken, 1988 : 42). I recorded most conversations with the permission of the respondents and transcribed them later on. This approach allowed the research to develop an understanding of the 'social', the 'political' and the 'cultural' that had developed around the respondents' interactions with the technological artifact called the internet, and its attendant forms of new media or digital media.

4. The 3 Cyber-café

The three sites, or the cyber-café in this case, are located in three quite different locations; that, however, does not allow for a categorization of their clientele. The fees for access were quite low too, to the tune of Rs. 10/- for half an hour.

One of the cafés is situated in Hatigaon, an area that can be demarcated by the presence of two mosques. The area has transformed rapidly over the past decade, especially after the construction of pukka roads in 2005-06. Commercial activity and residential buildings have proliferated. Another café was located in the Survey area, and has been witness to similar commercial transformations in the past decade. Both these areas are populated by people of affluent as well as socio-economically weaker sections. They are well-connected to the areas of importance such as Dispur and Ganeshguri by roadways.

The third café was chosen in the Ganeshguri-Zoo Road area, an area that has been associated with commercial and business activities for a much longer period of time, and has important markets for apparels, spices etc. Both Hatigaon and Survey lie to the South-East of Guwahati, close to the border with Meghalaya, while the Ganeshguri-Zoo Road area lies to the East.

4.1 Glob-comm Infotech

One can reach the Glob-comm Infotech (name changed to protect privacy) cyber-café with a minute or so of walking from the Hatigaon Masjid, an important landmark in the area. Mr. Rehman and his two sons started this café in 2001 as a part of his enterprise, which included a computer training center in a different building just across from the café. The business has since expanded, and Glob-comm

Infotech is the registered name of the company. The enterprise is now a part of the digital grievance redressal mechanism of the Assam government in the public distribution system of rations. Prior to that Glob-comm Infotech was engaged in providing repair and maintenance to the laptops and tablets provided by the Government of Assam to matriculate students who scored above 60% marks.

Dinesh and Raja Ali (name changed at the request of respondents) had taken over the running of the café around 8 years ago from the earlier staff. They proved to be quite effusive in narrating their experiences in the café. I was present in the café over several days, interviewing them and watching every-day life unfold in the café. The ground floor of a petite concrete building housed the café. The sole door to the café opens onto the road. Adjacent to the door is the desk of the manager. I often found the manager sitting behind the desk as customers dictated the contents of documents to be typed/printed. As can be found in cafés across the country the cubicles were made out of ply-wood. There were two rows of these cubicles housing the computers where customers browsed the internet. The two rows were at right angles to each other, along two walls of the room.

Back in 2008 when Dinesh had first started, there were more personnel and more machinery as well in the café. Sometimes crowds would gather by 7 AM, waiting for their turn inside. Each cubicle often had more than one occupant in those days, as friends came in groups to access the internet. By the time of this fieldwork, however, it was rare to have more than two customers browsing the internet. The revenue model had changed; the primary source of revenue was the DTP work done by the managers, as well as the photocopies and print-outs they provided the customers.

4.2 Aadarsh

Aadarsh (name changed to protect privacy) is located in the Beltola-Basistha Road in Guwahati. It is operated by two managers and a changing roster of helpers. The lady manager operated the cafe from 9 AM till 2 PM, which is when Mr. Bijoy (name changed at the request of respondent), the other manager, would take over. Interviews were conducted with both of them, but the lady operator was quite reticent and revealed little about herself, except for the occasional slips which indicated that she enjoyed watching Hindi serials online in the café. Both of them were experts in DTP work, especially in Assamese and dealt in the framing of court documents as

well. Bijoy, in particular, seemed to be well-trusted by the customers. He managed multiple e-mail IDs for multiple customers (he knew their passwords, had in all probability set them up in the first place and received and sent mails). A lot of these were from proprietors of shops in the vicinity who were not very digitally literate but wanted to send scanned copies of bills, memos, slips etc. over the mail. They would saunter over to the shop, without haste, and start up a conversation with Bijoy, patiently waiting for him to get done with the customers before them and then get their work done. They were not charged anything more than the cost of scanning documents.

The manager's desk was right next to the entrance, and its back was turned towards the cubicles downstairs, five in number. An old, creaking wooden staircase led to the floor upstairs which had four more computers for the customers to browse the internet.

The café had more number of customers than the others, especially because no one else provided DTP services in Assamese nearby. The social ecology that had developed over time around the café, which shall be elaborated upon in sections below, was another major reason behind the cafés popularity.

4.3 Sify iWay Café

This café is a remnant of the thousands of Sify franchise-holders in Tier I and Tier II Indian cities in the 2000s. This particular café still carried the Sify name, and was in the commercially abuzz Zoo Road area of Guwahati. Sify was no longer the internet service provider to the café. As a significant proportion of the population shifted to internet consumption on personal devices, Sify suffered significant losses and had drastically cut back on their domestic operations already by 2013. The café had installed a software named iCafe Manager in every computer for customer verification in adherence to national legal directives. Unlike the other two cafés the owner displayed some hostility to my data collection process. He made some dismissive comments about the research endeavour but never physically or verbally stopped me. I interviewed the manager and the helper here.

5. Emergent Sociality, Emergent Practices

A new 'social' is emergent when the internet, as a network, or a technological entity, merges into the everyday and the mundane.

This 'social' has multiple points of intersection with politics, economics and culture.

5-1 Techno-sociality : De-scription of Technology

The imagination of the Global South and its populace in the literature that arose from the developmental perspective was often found to be weighed down by technological determinism in the service of some variant of modernization theory (Sarukkai, 2008; Vijayabaskar et al., 2008). For instance, the rich technological expressions in urban slums of Africa in the hands of the socio-economically disadvantaged (Burrell, 2012).

Human beings and technology interact in complex ways long before a concept such as 'cyber-culture' comes into play (in terms of the cultural practices online). This is the quantum of interactions to which the term 'techno-sociality' is applied. This body of complex interactions evolve when newer technological forms slowly sink into the everyday life of human beings, leading to unique, new forms of the 'social' (in this case, the 'new 'social' has emerged around the internet). The online lives of the customers are co-extensive with the human and non-human entities that comprise the social milieu of the cyber-café in this new 'social'. This is constitutive of the 'soft' infrastructure undergirding the internet.

Even an object such as a register of customers could play a significant role in this 'social'. Debo spoke of an incident which almost led to him facing an extended stint in jail due to an incident of cyber-crime that happened at GNet Infotech. A customer had managed to obtain the transaction password of the travel agency Thomas Cook and had defrauded them of over Rs. 60,000/-. Since the perpetrator could not be traced through the register of customers, the proprietor's youngest son took the blame as a proprietor and did spend some time in jail. Dinesh had also come into contact with some politicians as electoral candidates from different districts of Assam came to Glob-comm Infotech in order to get their CV spruced up and printed in high-end stationery. Dinesh would be in charge of these tasks and hence they would have enthusiastic conversations with him. Dinesh believed their interest in his views was based on his location as a young man from a rural background.

Narratives such as these reinforce the interrogation that the often-used binary of the 'real' and the 'virtual' has been subjected to

by social science scholars in the past two decades. The activities such as receiving and sending mails, web-surfing and chatting online are meaningful experiences for the people who engage in them (Miller and Slater, 2000). For Sherry Turkle, the 'real' and the 'virtual' are fields of existence for the human being, part of a larger constitutive whole and need to be navigated through metaphors (like 'Windows') (Turkle, 1995). Scholars have been studying the myriad ways in which a technological artifact is 'being interwoven into the social fabric of life' (Monteiro, 2008). Here, the 'symbolic' and the 'social' is as important as the material, composed of rituals, identity construction and values (Bakardjieva, 2011). Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) are no longer merely a form of mediation; they are now the very substance of the associations and relations that make up the social fabric. But instead of a rigid conception of internet and ICTs, we can also subject the internet to 'interpretive flexibility'. It can be interpreted in different ways, based on the social location of individuals and groups (Escobar et al., 1994; Wittel, 2001). This holds true especially in the context of a café. Unlike a government-run kiosk the list of permissible actions is far longer in a café, while browsing the internet. Often practices such as downloading media through peer-to-peer networks and tools happens in these cafés, which is proscribed by the market and the state. Evidence of this is often present in the hard-disks of the computers in cafés. These are not the ideal uses of ICTs envisioned by designers and policy-makers, where the transformation to be brought about by ICTs is pre-determined.

Therefore, the ascription of meaning and meaning-making is done by both the designers and intended users of ICTs, at different levels. This meaning-making process is always a negotiated arrangement with the material and symbolic aspects written into technological artifacts at its inception and design. Such 'interpretive flexibility', as Escobar calls it, allows Steven Woolgar to think of them as 'texts' that can be 'read' in different ways (Woolgar, 1991). There are, however, limits to how many different 'readings' are possible; the possibilities are limited by the design choices based on a vision of its intended uses and users. The internet, for instance, was designed to present solutions to a set of questions regarding horizontal rather than vertical, hierarchical networking, hyper-fast communication etc. - obstacles that humanity is supposed to overcome. This 'distribution of attributes' ascribes agency and limits to these entities.

This 'complex of relationships' is called by Woolgar a 'moral order of representation' and 'is a world view which embodies notions about the character and capacity of different entities, the relationship between them, their relative boundedness, and the associated patterns of rights and responsibilities'.

6. Transgressive 'De-description'

The sections above strongly suggest that an 'inscription' of a vision of the world occurs in a technological form, one that 'define actors with specific tastes, competences, motives, aspirations, political prejudices, and the rest, and a vision that presumes morality, technology, science, and economy will evolve in particular ways' (Akrich, 1992). Functions and agency are 'delegated' among various human and non-living technical objects. The 'delegation' has a moralizing aspect too, for it seeks to pre-empt and control the moral behaviour of the users. But the vastly varied social and geographical locations where these technological forms reach always present the opportunities of 'de-description', where users negotiate with the vision of the designers to extract alternative possibilities. The users may deviate significantly from the moral-ethical choices the designers envisioned in the 'script' (their technological product) (Lee, 2016). The techno-sociality that has been discussed so far is this series of negotiations, advances and retreats made when users in various socio-economic locations contend with the vision inscribed into technological artifacts, in the course of making meaning (Akrich, 1992).

A contemporary instance of 'moral delegation' that has been a major pre-occupation in contemporary times that we see in the case of both human and non-human components is the issue of security and protection of privacy. With this in mind better encryption measures are in high demand (the non-human component) (Lee, 2016) while there are many articles in the popular news media on the importance of techniques to make passwords that are difficult to hack (the human component) (Lee, 2015).

In view of the prevailing concern with privacy online, it is quite startling to note the 'social' that exists in the Adarsh internet café. The manager, Bijoy Das, has constructed around him a network of trust that flouts the 'moral delegation' vis-à-vis privacy and encryption discussed in the paragraph above. It did surprise me during

fieldwork that he had access to the passwords of multiple customers who relied upon him to send and receive mails on their behalf. These customers, as has been mentioned earlier, were mostly shop-owners from the vicinity who were lacking in digital literacy. These intimate customers of Bijoy would slowly make their way to the café with documents such as bills and memos to be scanned, photocopied and mailed. They usually gave Bijoy hand-written notes with the e-mail ids to which they wanted their correspondence sent. Bijoy would take care of these special customers of his whenever he could get some time off from his DTP responsibilities, often in the absence of these customers.

Similar findings have been found from the field in anthropological-sociological studies of internet and ICTs. One study found young girls in Rajasthan who collectively operated one Facebook page - around five girls had access to the passwords of one Facebook profile. Such findings also lead us to interrogate concepts that have been taken for granted, like 'networked self' and 'networked individualism' (Mertia, 2014).

A similar ecology is also seen around the café manager in Glob-comm Infotech. Although the number of customers have declined precipitously in this café since 2011-12 onwards, they do have a few regular patrons who seek to exploit the network of social capital established with Dinesh and Raja. Such customers had managed to establish intimate relationships with them, much to Dinesh's chagrin, as it usually means more work for him for nominal payment. Unlike Bijoy, Dinesh was not too fond of such intimate customers as he often had to perform unpaid work for them owing to the levels of familiarity between them.

In Sarah Harris's work we see how Turkish cyber-café operators are indispensable in enabling access to ICTs to those that do not possess the requisite digital literacy, or those that are barred by conservative societal norms. While gender-segregated cyber-café spaces might seem to be a regressive norm, the women-only sections have made it acceptable for women from conservative backgrounds to access the internet in these cafés. These are also vibrant spaces of care, where women are seen sharing technological expertise and experience with one another. They also sell pirated operating systems and softwares to those who cannot afford the high market rates. These practices have developed carefully evading the

perfunctory security sweeps conducted by the police to ensure adherence to IT laws (Harris, 2017).

Such relationships of care were also seen to a certain extent in my field-sites. An ethics of care is seen at play especially when things do not go according to plan, to deal with unexpected break-downs and glitches in technology (Jackson, 2014). Customers often call upon the harried cyber-café manager to help them out in filling up online forms, to get documents printed from their systems (because documents require some amount of re-configuration before printing) and so on and so forth, at no extra charge. Again, the norms around privacy are in operation in completely different ways here. As mentioned before, even the features built into the technological systems such as passwords are deployed in different ways. The password joins the register of the merely procedural, the same as the log-in id or e-mail id, rather than a mechanism of data protection. Relationships of care develop and become an important infrastructural component, with vastly different descriptions and moral delegation in the Global South than those imagined by the designers of technical systems. 'Attachment' beyond instrumental ends of infrastructural components, both 'hard' and 'soft', become a feature (Jackson, 2014).

From the discussion in this and the section preceding it becomes apparent that the infrastructural role of these managers become a part of everyday functioning of and access to these ICTs. These are hardly considered in the official imagination of the role of a cyber-café manager. Their role involves re-negotiating and creating of new boundaries, boundaries inside which a singular set of rules apply dissimilar to spaces outside. Such bounded spaces generate their own economic and cultural circuits of circulation. Cyber-café managers, thus, seem to occupy a space that is not wholly unfamiliar in the history of networked technologies, such as 'messenger' boys in the heydays of telegraphy in the West. Such labour is often invisible, but indispensable, in the seamless operation of these networked technologies such as the internet. These messenger boys had a cache of knowledge that wasn't available officially, such as local routes. They carried in their memory the price-per-word charts, and on their person they carried all the important documents (Downey, 2003). But in the annals of history these messenger boys - the human labour component - are often ignored.

7. Gate-keeping and Techno-sociality

The bonds and networks around the café manager, therefore, have a significant impact on the techno-social milieu in the cafés. They play a vital infrastructural role. However, the ties of social capital and trust that ease accessibility for some (to the point where they can be annoyances for some managers) can also function as disciplinary or exclusionary mechanisms for others. In addition to the cyber-café manager, These forms of 'gate-keeping' can be performed by the 'non-human' elements of this techno-social milieu - for instance, registers where customers have to enter their details or internet café management software.

Dinesh spoke of the transformations that have been made to the cubicles in Globcomm Infotech over the years. In the 2008-09 period, the partitions ensuring privacy for the occupants of a cubicle were shortened. The reason behind this, according to Dinesh, was the fact that teenage boys and girls used the privacy of these cubicles to indulge in 'bad behaviour'. Dinesh complained that he had found such couples in 'objectionable conditions' ow watching 'objectionable content'. There is a mirror installed in the top corner of the right side of the wall to discourage such acts. Dinesh was of the opinion that it was 'question of the future of young boys and girls' and these surveillance measures had to be taken.

Thus, in addition to the fears about the nature of the content consumed through the internet, spaces like cyber-café also fuel concerns and anxieties regarding the possibility of bodily transgressions due to their unique position in the spectrum between the public and the private. Such anxieties related to the internet and the internet are tied into historically produced concerns regarding propriety, consumption and the subject that consumes in South and South-East Asia. There is considerable apprehension regarding the risks of 'infection' by cultural products 'sourced from Europe and America.... seen as already culturally inscribed' that could lead to loss of 'traditional' values such as 'modesty' (Beng-Huat, 2000).

Another example of such regulation of who can access these techno-social spaces came from Bijoy. He usually responds with a curt 'No seats available' to those customers who looked like they are 'from the streets', or have been marked as 'problematic', or because they were chewing gutkha. These were usually the markers found in the person of daily-wage earners and those who are on the lower rungs of

the socio-economic ladder, especially young males. The assumption at work here is that young men bearing such markers are prone to delinquency and are not good for business. Indeed, there were no such customers in any of the cafés where I had conducted my fieldwork. These markers, thus, served as devices of gate-keeping.

All of the cafés adhered to the government directives to maintain a register of customers' details (the Sify iWay café had a management software installed in each computer system, as mentioned above). Customers were required to verify their identity before they were allowed to access the computers. Given the price of browsing the internet in any of these cafés is Rs. 20/- per hour it is not the cost that plays a significant role in keeping out certain customers.

8. Conclusion

The cyber-café manager emerges as a significant node of the social field, the pulls and pushes around which can lead to infrastructural re-alignments, determining access and usage of ICTs. Although their sphere of influence continues to diminish, they still play an important role in providing commercial and, as has been seen in this paper, personalized, non-monetary services based on social networks and capital. They are at the intersections of 'hard' infrastructural forms and the 'softer' forms involving protocols, social norms as well the transgressions of these protocols to set up new social practices. These managers have, therefore, been called 'engineers' of the new social that emerges. And this new social emerges through the localized translations of technology, from which springs forth entirely new and unanticipated socio-technical and legal practices. Social infrastructure forcefully intrudes into these cyber-café forms, regulating certain transgressions through these managers. Those that do not possess the necessary capital have been excluded from these networks.

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Women Development through ICTs

Sanjeev Mahajan* and Bhawna**

If we talk about development on global level in all countries, multi-dimensional development is going on for better future. Development is uniform concept for male and female then why there is a huge gap between development of man and women? If we talk about household women from ancient time to modern time they are struggling continuously and developing, being Independent and making empowered themselves. There is continuous change and development in status of women in modern days. The woman has learned cooking in kitchen to flying an airplane. So we can see different status and position of women in different areas like economic field, political field, technological field and social field. Women have developed own identity by their talent. They are not weak anymore they are empowering. In this research paper on the basis of secondary data we have discussed, how ICT (Information and Communication technologies) can be tool for development of women in different areas. We have concluded that ICT is very helpful in women entrepreneurship, women education, women skill development, and women banking.

[Keywords : Women development, ICT, Empowerment, Women entrepreneurship, Women education, Women Security]

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1. Introduction

India is a developing country which is growing in technological field also. The whole world is advancing in technology by the internet network. If we talk about communication and technological field then no class is marginalized from it, from child to the adult the technological development is going uniformly. If we talk about women those are living in their home from Ancient times, those that did not have some Human Rights , did not have educational right, working only in home without any outside interaction, they didn't have on own identity, they were economically dependent to their husbands or father and constraint socially. But because of some great social reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Rai, Jyotiba Phule, Savitribai Phule, Dr Bhimrao Ambedkar the status and conditions of women started getting better. The social reformers developed many educational institutions made many protecting law for women. By means of that many women started developing, becoming Independent and empowering. this process is still going on but still in Modern Times many Women are suffering for basic amenities and facilities this shows that there is need of many steps for developing our women.

B R Ambedkar said :

"I measure the development of society by measuring the development of women"

If we do not cross the boundary of a stereotype mindset then we cannot lead the society towards ideal society. We need to know women are not the symbol of household works. Women are the half of the human population, without development of women we cannot developed the city, state or nation.

2. Objective

This research paper will examine the use of use of ICTs (Information and communication technologies) in different dimensions like women entrepreneurship, banking, education and skill development.

3. Methodology

This paper is based on secondary data and we have used method of content analysis for collection on secondary data.

4. Women Entrepreneurship through ICTs

India is a patriarchal country where male is dominant. If it come to trade or business then male is considered as dominant figure in field of business. But to overcome this inequality women's are doing hard work in field of trading. Yes we should admit first that the participation of women in business is very less but as compared to ancient time a little development is better than zero development. In field of industries now days business women is emerging as industrial businesswoman. In today's technological world ICT based business is getting very popular which is formerly known as e-business. Women do not have access to local general market, they do not have capital investment to set up their entrepreneurship model, they are doing home based business on online market. Women those stay in home due to social constraints are now producing their product in their home like cooking, clothes, jewellery etc and selling it on online platforms like meesho, eBay, Amazon, etc. These digital platforms are supporting women to be financially independent also they are becoming job producer by giving employment to another woman living in their neighborhood.

5. Women Education through ICTs

In routine life the use of technology is increasing rapidly. As we have discussed, how ICT is very helpful in entrepreneurship sector let us understand first it is not limited to entrepreneurship only. In COVID-19 wave when state announced the complete lockdown then this ICT and digital electronics supported human race to interact with each other. Concepts like work from home and online or distance education came into existence to every house to every person. Education which is formally taken through the institution set up by state or a private individual which require economic capital, infrastructure and many other legal requirements, now can be done through electronic media which is known as distance education. the household women get benefitted from this concept of distant education. Women completed their studies which they have left in their childhood. Women did online professional course like digital marketing course, makeup and hairstyling course, cooking course, dance course, entrepreneurship development course, art and craft course etc. to make them economic independent.

6. Skill Development among Women through ICTs

The problem of unemployment is present in all countries whether it's developed country or a developing country. Due to high population density it is very tough for state, cooperative sector and for private sector to produce a permanent job for everyone. That's why skill based professions or self employment is increasing day by day. A man and women can be developed and empowered through their skills. If we talk about women, there is many online skill based courses are available on internet like learning music, dance course, painting, handcrafting etc. Government of India has developed many platforms to produce and to teach these course to the women of urban and rural areas. These platforms are :

1. National skill development course,
2. MOOC (massive open online course),
3. e- skill India NSDC and
4. Skill share.

7. Easy Banking through ICTs

Indian banking sector has a history of 250 years. On a global level banking sector got much support by using internet and ICTs. Due to development of ICTs financial activities has become easy for everyone. As we have discussed from ancient time to modern time women are not economic independent. They did not had financial rights because they never owned any business for them. Because of development of mobile banking, everyone can do economic transactions easily. Mostly women got benefit from it. Online shopping and selling become very easy for women. As we also discussed how social constraints don't allow women to do business. But online trading platform and mobile banking made women able to do their business. Mobile banking platforms like PhonePe, PayTM, GooglePe etc are being very popular among household women.

8. Women Security through ICTs

Women security is always been a important issue to tackle. Security of women is been one of the main political issue since feudalistic society to modern days society. IT and CS engineer has developed some ICTs and software for the purpose to solve problem of women security. Device like mobile phones, smart watch, surveillance system. There is high utility of these devices. A women

working in night shift used to have fear in walking on the street. Now she can book a cab by her mobile phone, can sent her live location to her parents, can be track through her smart watch.

We have tried to review the findings from earlier studies on women security through ICTs. Some of these are summarized here. Deshpande and Rashmi (2022) have conducted study on “Women security system”. In their study they have talked about how some ICT devices like surveillance and smart bracelet providing security and giving confidence to women.

Jena (2021) has conducted study on “Distance education in India”. He concluded that there was no time limit in ancient education system. Individual can grasp knowledge on the basis of his interests and desire. In Hindu Scripture “Mahabharat” there is a story of “Eklavya” that how he learned the archery by himself in front of statue of Guru Dronacharya. We can say that it was primal model of distance education, where there is no teacher student interaction. It came again in modern times in new dimension, one can learn skill and grasp knowledge without any direct interaction between teacher and student through media, it is known as online distance education.

Noor and Asghar (2021) have conducted study on “Role of ICT in women empowerment and achieving SDGs : A case study of women labour force in developing countries”, they studied 51 developing countries including India and concluded that women has less access to ICTs. They also shows many ways of sustainable development of women through ICTs. They says ICTs has huge impact on development of women labour. women labour of developing countries those are using ICTs are also contributing better in GDP of country.

Mahadev S. Sahshikaran (2021) has conducted “library service through social media”. In his study he concluded that, most of the students live in rural area don’t have access to library due to poor transport system in their village. Many formal library developed their website and mobile application for digital access to library.

Haque (2021) has worked name as “Women Development Policy-2011”. He studied on women participation in work force. He said the women of Bangladesh need to ensure their participation in women development policy making and develop policies by own. Other social development institutions like GOs, NGOs, international bodies, civil society and social worker should also work for making policies for women development.

Vardhah (2020) has conducted study on “Social media ICT and Women Empowerment : A Study”. This study is based on how social media and ICT play important role in women life. Time has changed, earlier women were not aware for her rights and the policies launched by government, but not in this time. Media and ICTs helps women to be aware about them. ICTs has increased their participation in multiple areas. This research paper found many positive development among those were absent in past time.

Adholia and Adholiya (2019), have conducted study on “Role of ICTs for women empowerment in Udaipur, Rajasthan”. They found that by using ICTs many women have excelled in socio-economic and political sectors. A women respondent made it clear that use of ICTs made them aware about their rights, made able to earn money, made aware about political conditions. Most of the women admit that ICTs has took confidence and interdependent in them.

Halena (2019), has conducted study on “Teaching through social media”. In this research she found that the medical student at UG and PG level, the online education playing important and effective role in their education. Due to which the researcher has observed the better relation between doctor and patient. Education through media is giving positive contribution in health of individual or of community.

Salam (2019), has conducted study on “the effect of ICT on Women Empowerment”. His study is based on working women of Bangladesh. He collect primary data for 75 females working in small and medium enterprises. He found that use of ICTs have given support to traditional and small enterprises.

Rathi and Shyamalendu (2015), have conducted study on “Role of ICT in women Empowerment” their study states that, by having access to ICTs women are getting aware to their rights and also getting distance education. This awareness leads to social change among society. many NGOs and social activists are using social media platforms to share and express the information to the common people. The only logic behind is providing information to more and more women.

9. Conclusion

On the bases of literature review we can conclude that, there is a large impact of ICTs in development of women in different areas like

women education, women entrepreneurship, skill learning, economic literacy and women security. Women are using ICTs on a very big level. Although there is gender based digital gap in our country still women rate of ICT literacy is increasing on very large manner. Finally the above discussion states that ICTs are very helpful in development of women.

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Disability and Health Issue : A Social Perspective

Roli Prakash*

Over the years the country India is showing great pace in every sector of life. Ironically talked about health systems, such systems are not fit in coherence to population rate which are mandatory for the development of nation. The population of India is second in number than China. India is constantly working for all diverse people specifically focus area on marginalized section like disabled people, women, old people etc. Data discrepancy related to the disability are the biggest hurdles in the formulation of health policy. Social ignorance of disability brings people with disabilities into the basket or backdrop of marginality. This study tries to understand the different models of disabilities through which they can contribute to the nation building furthermore social impact of disability when the people with disabilities are facing immense pressure of health crises. Inclusive society sharpened all aspect of social life. It would help in understanding the different need, or the functioning for the disable people. Hence, the awareness for health services without any discriminatory practices would allow the disabled people to accommodate into mainstream and non-biased societies.

[Keywords : Disability, Health, Models, Impairment, Handicap]

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1. Introduction

On a world level, recent estimates show that more than one billion people out of the total world population are greatly impacted by disability. According to World Health Organization (WHO), such a number of disabled accounts for 15 percent of the total population and heighten this issue as the largest global minority. While in India, 2.21 percent population facing one or many types of disability. The discrepancy in the data on disability brings variation in setting standards in the definition of disability. According to WHO Disability results from the interaction between the individual with a health condition such as cerebral palsy down syndrome and depression with personal and environmental factors including negative attitudes, inaccessible transportation and public buildings and limited social support results into disability. Mehrotra (2013) mentioned the two organizations working for the welfare of disabled people which are International Classification of Impairment, disabilities, Handicaps (ICIDH), and World health Organization. Both these organizations have come up with different variables in which their distinction is made in terms of health experiences. These variables are as follows Impairment, Disability and Handicap.

Impairment : Any loss or abnormality of psychological, physiological or anatomical structure or function.

Disability : Any restriction or lack (resulting from an impairment) of ability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being.

Handicap : a disadvantage, for a given individual, resulting from impairment or a disability, which prevent the fulfilment of a role that is considered normal (depending on age, sex and social and cultural factors) for that individual.

In 2001, ICF (The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health) is a revised version of ICIDH. ICF has re-established a new definition of disability including various component such as Impairment, Activity Limitations, and Participant Restrictions.

In Indian history, the status of disability could not be traced back before 1980s. In 1981 census, three types of disabilities are included. Later, the sequence of inclusion of disability increased with different Census. In general term, the definition of disability corresponds to physical or mental incapability through which he /she does not able

to work as equal as normal person. In technical terms, disability is a universal term which has more than one variable definition.

According to Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) PWD Act, 1995 'Disability' means blindness, low vision, leprosy cured, hearing impairment, locomotor disabilities, mental retardation and mental illness. In India those people are disabled who have a minimum victimized criteria of 40 percent (or say not less than 40 percent) of any disabilities certified by the medical authority.

The Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act (2016) replaced the existing PWD Act 1995. According to the Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act (2016), Persons with Disabilities means a person with long term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairment which, in interaction with barriers, hinders his/her full and effective participation in society equally with others. In the rights of Persons with Disabilities Act 2016, the types of disability have been expanded from 7 to 21. Thus, 21 disabilities are followed as blindness, low vision, leprosy-cured, hearing impairment, locomotor disability, mental retardation, mental illness, cerebral palsy, dwarfism, muscular dystrophy, acid attack victims, hard of hearing, speech and language disability, specific learning disabilities, autism spectrum disorders, chronic neurological disorders such as multiple sclerosis and Parkinson, disease, blood disorders such as hemophilia thalassemia, and sickle cell anaemia, and multiple disabilities.

Statistically, the data obtained through Census of India (2011) showed that children in the age group 0 to 6 years are disabled estimated in the ratio 1 out of 100 children. Total 20.42 lakh children are disabled. Whereas in the age group 10 to 19 years and 20-29 years, disability found around 17% or 4.62 lakh and 16% respectively. Overall, Census data suggest that men with disabilities (14,986,202) are higher in number than women with disabilities (11,824,355). 15% of the world population underwent with disability at some time period in their life. Statistics also point out that number of people who get disabled in road accident is more than any gulf war in a particular time period.

2. The Disabled and the Health Issue

People with disabilities meet with various range of barriers in accessing the health care services. Experiences of stigma, prejudice,

discrimination by the respected hospital personnel and their staff and others etc. are considered as attitudinal barriers. Health policies and programmes are formulated without understanding the need of disable people. Inadequately trained health service providers do not know about the rights of people with disability. Some physical barriers faced by disabled can be attributable as hospitals are at distance and it is difficult to reach there without proper transportation facilities. Buildings are also not in coherence to inclusive pattern. Therefore, infrastructural problems lead their life a worst, like lack of access of elevator, inaccessibility to various places as the wheelchair is not easily accommodated there.

Communication barrier in the form of sign language interpreter, braille, and large print written material in the health sector are less available which create a barrier to visual impaired, hearing-impaired and cognitive impaired disable people. Information and prescription provided by the health officials are in inaccessible format i.e., presented in a jargon manner which is also a problem for them.

Financial problems are also faced by disabled people in low-income countries as they cannot afford proper health care facilities. Cost of some medicines are too high and it is unaffordable to them.

Poor health infrastructure, malnutrition and medical issues during birth etc. pave the way to the person toward disability. Disabilities can be from inherited (genetic disorder problem), serious illnesses, and injury. Several disabilities have associated with different health problems. Iron-deficiency in an individual creates anaemia situation. The anaemia is the top cause of disability in India from 10 years till today. India is in worst form in BRICS (In BRICS, 5 nations are as Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa). Cerebral palsy disability occurred when there is a lack of oxygen to the brain and reduced the blood supply in the development of brain of a child before and during birth. Rubella/Measles illness during pregnancy, brain accidentally injured, meningitis in children and premature birth can also be the causes for cerebral palsy. They face health problems, like experience weakness in walking, lack of muscle control, movement are not well coordinated and other symptoms. Multiple sclerosis disabled people face number of health diseases. The symptoms are fatigue situation, numbness, memory loss, loss of

motor control, depression, visual disturbance and cognitive difficulties. Muscular dystrophy disability is a genetic disorder. It includes symptoms like heart or other organ dysfunction, difficult to breathe or swallow, find trouble in walking and also joint movement restriction. Dwarfism disability is a short stature person whose height is 4 feet 10 inches or less than that. Anti-nutrients, food shortage, and eaten unfamiliar food, not prepared properly can cause neurological damage.

3. Objectives

The objectives of this paper are as follows :

1. To know various types of disabilities
2. To understand the various models of disability with respect to health problems
3. To highlight the perception of disabled toward their own health issue.
4. To know the social perspectives on disability.
5. To give conclusions and suggestions.

4. Review of Literature

Watson and Nolan (2011) Studied 'Social portrait of people with disability' and found that disability impacts negatively on people's social relationship and social participation. Older adults with disability are at greater risk of isolation.

Kurawa (2010) found in a study that disability affects the interaction with others. Onset of disability disrupts and destroys social relationships. Poverty cultural deprivation, lack of education and a depressed job market influence the disabled.

Gannon (2007) made a study on 'The impact of disability transition on inclusion' and found that people with disabilities have much lower levels of social inclusion

Parodi and Sciulli (2019) studied 'Disability and social exclusion in Italian households'. The results indicated that the presence of disabled members affected the household risk of being excluded. The findings also revealed that presence of severely disabled members increase the probability of being socially excluded.

Kar et al. (2021) linked the mental illnesses with socio-economic burden and disability and sources taken from the National Mental Health Survey of India (2015-16) in the State of Uttar Pradesh. Impairment in mental functioning was more pronounced in people with common and severe mental illnesses. In a month of work, disabled people facing mental health problem had done 10 days absentees and 20 days' work with reduced efficiency.

Reichman, Corman and Noonan (2008) found in a study 'Impact of child disability on the family' that living with a disabled child can have profound effects on the entire family which in turn can affect the health and well-being of the child who is disabled.

5. Models of Disability

The models of disability are, in fact tools for defining impairment. Different people conceptualize the phenomenon of disability differently. The conceptions regarding disability have undergone changes time to time, place to place and from person to person. The meaning of disability for a doctor is different from that of sociologist, economist, psychologist and educationist. So different models of disability are evolved. Some of these are described here. These are charity model, medical model, Social Model, Human Right model and ICF (International Classification of Functioning, Disability, and Health, 2001).

Charity Model focuses on the charity done for the sake of themselves without giving attention to the rights and capabilities of disable persons. Example are giving clothes, food to People with Disabilities.

Medical Model watch out the medical history, condition of the disabled. It considers that it is the problem of the disabled person. This model says people are disabled by their impairments or differences. These impairments or differences should be 'fixed' or changed by medical and other treatments. Medical model looks at what is 'wrong' with the person and not what the person needs. It creates low expectations and leads to people losing independence.

Social Model opposes the medical model and says that disability is caused by the way society is organized, rather than by a person's impairment or difference. It looks at ways of removing barriers that restrict life choices for disabled people. When barriers

are removed, disabled people can be independent and equal in society, with choice and control over their own lives.

Human Right Model focuses on equality and non-discrimination, reasonable accommodation, accessibility. Breaking down barriers, equal participation and inclusion and private and public freedom. Based on basic human rights principles, it recognizes that disability is a natural part of human disability that must be respected and supported in all its forms. People with disability have the same right as everyone else in society.

The International Classification of Functioning (ICF) 2001 Model, in which the ICF conceptualizes a person's level of functioning as a dynamic interaction between her or his health conditions, environmental factors, and personal factors. It is a biopsychosocial model of disability, based on an integration of the social and medical models of disability.

6. Social Perspectives

Social Impact could be drawn up with the surge of health cases in the population of disability. According to WHO, it is observed as persons with disabilities are likely to be denied healthcare three times more than non-disabled and four times get more bad treatment in health care services. Apart of this, person with disabilities suffer from catastrophic health costs around 50% more than other social category during their DALY (Disability Adjusted Life years) time period. People with disabilities experience more violence in terms of physical, mental, psychological, etc.

The impacts of disability include economic, political, psychological and social factors. Specifically social impact are those consequences of disability that are experienced at the individual, community and family. These include poverty, issues of easy approach as well as social rejection or exclusion. The social impacts further affect that how the individuals and community manage with disability. Some of the social impacts of disability are described here :

Family : Families of disabled persons experience both positive and negative impact. Disability can bring about a sense of togetherness and closeness within the family and community and make them aware about how to cope with disability. Apart from this disability can also be a source of family strain and conflict between spouses and also between parents and children. It is generally seen

that families with special needs children suffer from tension because of the psychological and emotional stress.

Social Exclusion : Social exclusion means lack of belongingness in the social environment. A person with disability faces many restrictions in interacting with friends and colleagues at work place and with family members at home. In the school college and society people do not like to mix-up and interact with children. Because of the social exclusion a person with disability lacks social skills, social support and communication skill to survive with disability.

Risk of Economic Hardship : Individuals with disability slid into poverty faster than of those who have not experienced disability. Poverty as a social impact of disability is mainly due to a loss of paid employment. Disable people have less opportunities for gaining meaningful employment and proper earnings. Sometimes the family members of the disable persons also suffer from financial crisis because of the high expenses on the health care services provided to them

Society's Attitude : Society holds some biased stereotypes toward disabled people. The problem is with society's attitude toward disability and not with the person with disability. People with disabilities face social hurdles in the form of prejudice, discrimination and avoidance. They become the object of pity while they are in a group. A disable person is a part of social environment so his relationship, attitude and behaviour patterns are vitally affected by the nature and extent of the harmony or disharmony of his relationship with community members. The persons with disabilities are less handicapped by their own disability than by the attitude of the members of the society.

Attitude of Health care Workers : Biased mental construct is still functional in health care system of the persons with disabilities. Doctors, nurses and other medical practitioners do not have sensitivity towards them. They feel overburdened dealing with their problems.

7. Conclusion

Health related terminology such as Impairment, Handicap and Disability are highly operational in all societies. Not only this, new definition of disability is redefine at impairment level, activity limitation level, and participation restriction level. In India, inclusion

of various other disabilities is done through government amendment. Now, the number of types of disability has increased 7 to 21. Major issues in health segment faced by the disable people like lack of infrastructure, communication, financial, nutritional awareness etc. are increasing the health-related grievance among the disabled people. Malnutrition, poor health infrastructure, medical issues during birth, burn or accidental cases etc. are various factors turning people into disability. International Classification of functioning, Disability, and health model along with charity model are functioning in the society at a great deal. Addressing the biased mental attitude, stigma, discriminatory Practices in the health sector placed a disability on an equality framework of a society.

8. Suggestions

The above analysis of disability and health issues from a social perspective leads to some very important suggestions. These are as follows :

1. There should be improvement in access to public venues, general services, moving about in the locality and medical health centers.
2. Improvement to the accessibility of public transport services should also be done.
3. There should be flexibility of hours and modification of the tasks in the jobs.
4. Attitude of the society and health workers should be positive towards the disable persons. Sensitivity training should be provided to the doctors, nurses and other medical practitioners.
5. Persons with disabilities should be included in all types of social activities.

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Unintended Consequences of Migration and Labour Vacuum in Agrarian Rural Village in Nepal

***Mahesh Kumar Shrestha*, Madhu Giri** and
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A large number of youths from the rural areas have been migrated to the urban areas and abroad for better opportunities for a few decades. As the volume and pace of youth outmigration increased, it created an agricultural labour vacuum and precipitated unintended consequences on rural agrarian economic production, livelihood, and consumer behaviors of the people in the village. The main objective of the article is to explore and analyze agrarian recession (decline of agricultural and livestock activities) and strategies of livelihood among the villagers whose family members were migrated in and out of the country. Previous studies on migration are mostly limited to the analysis of cost-benefit in the national economy and thus were unable to explore the scope, intensity, and unintended consequences

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of out-migration on rural agriculture and the economy. Based on in-depth interviews, observations and household surveys carried out in a village in western Nepal, this study tries to articulate the agricultural downturn and crisis in the rural village due to labour migration. It focuses on the pattern of use of remittance, changes in land use, and consumer habits. The research compared the number of out-migrants, investment areas of remittance, and changes of livelihood in 1990 and 2020. The relations between migration and rural agrarian production have been found inverse impacts. The migrant households tend to face a not only dearth of agrarian labour during pick seasons but also villagers' inclination to market luxurious goods. Instead of investment of the remittance in agricultural land-livestock and innovation of production system for sustainable development, it is mostly invested in unproductive areas.

[Keywords : Agrarian, Migration, Recession, Labour, Remittance]

1. Introduction

Sher Bahadur Thapa (62 years old) was sitting on a stone in the middle of his fallow land at Narethati. His seven goats were grazing on the land. His wife informed him that we were interested to meet him. He called us to the grazing land. This land has been left fallow for more than a decade because of the labour migration of his sons and a serious dearth of labour in the village. His daughters-in-law and grandchildren stayed at Baglung Bazar for their education and profession. He said that foreign labour migration transformed his family structure, food habits, and land-use system. More than half of his arable land area turned into grassland and grazing land. He showed us that the areas of land and family labour produced sufficient maize and millet for the six-membered family before 2000. Gradually, he reduced agricultural and livestock activities because of the lack of labour in the family and village. He and his wife raised only goats because goat keeping was a relatively easy task in comparison to cows and buffalo. Both of them became old and helpless for the labour-intensive work. He said, "Maize and millet were everyday food crops produced in own land replaced by rice of market. Now, we eat bought rice every day". He added that this was not a single story of his family and the end of the story of foreign labour migration and the agrarian decline of the Narethati. He claimed that a similar labour vacuum and decline of agrarian products were realized, in at least, 70 households in the village. We stayed overnight in his house and listened to recession narratives of the crisis of agrarian culture and the unintended consequences of foreign labour migration. He introduced us to neighbors and the

villagers who shared similar stories of labour vacuum and the decline of agrarian productions.

Maisara Nepali (63 years old woman) was weaving a mat out of fiber of maize. She remembered heydays of weaving straw mats told every year. Both sons were in gulf countries and their family members stayed at Baglung Bazar. They bought house-land (Ghaderi) out of their remittance. The paddy field of the village was also sold and added to the house-land. She left half of her Pakho (maize-millet land) barren because of the dearth of agrarian labour in the village. She said that there were no people to go funeral procession and caregivers of sick people in the village. Her husband died last year because he did not get timely hospital care when he was sick. One of her sons did not return to observe the mortuary rituals. She argued that foreign labour migration not only declined agrarian production but also declined family values and traditional cultures. Urban dweller family members did not care much about the food, shelter, and health of elderly members in the village.

Suman Khatri (33 years returnee migrant) argued that there was no prestige and social respect for agrarian work in the village. He claimed that agrarian labour was not only the lowest-paid but also the least preferred and prestigious work in the village. The migrants preferred similar types of work out of village and country because nobody noticed the social dignity of the labour. It is estimated that 30% of migrant labour worked in the most dangerous and least dignified sectors in foreign countries (World Bank, 2016). Similarly, it is estimated that 6 million Nepali migrants around the world shared 28 percent of the labour force of Nepal. Remittances from migrant workers contribute 25.4 percent of GDP and 56 percent of all Nepalese households receive remittances (Bhandari, 2016). The villagers experienced low productivity because of the shortage of labour, due to out-migration, and lowly investment in agriculture. The study indicated that if the remittances are not invested in farming, the migration negatively impacts agricultural production and the remittances of the migrants were the source of income (World Bank, 2016). The same report argued that the national GDP contribution of agriculture was decreasing and the contribution of remittances was increasing (World Bank, 2016). Therefore, agrarian production and migration have gained significant attention in both scholarly and policy arenas.

Various researchers had found that rural out-migration is a significant driver of significant changes in land use, rural economy, and socio-economic transformations, with the unintended consequence of farmland (Chen et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2016; Radel et al., 2019). It is essential to understand these complex interactions and the effects on the design of land-use policies that help rural livelihood to accomplish food security, and sustainable utilization of natural resources (Lambin et al., 2011; Zimmerer, 2010; Jokisch et al., 2019). The observed agrarian change is neither 'agricultural involution' (Geertz, 1963) nor radical transformation (Aase & Chapagain, 2005) to make the village independent. Like the case of many developing countries, Narethati has been facing increasing challenges of the recession of agrarian production caused by a labour vacuum. Sher bahadur remembered that there was cash scarcity in the village thirty years ago. Some vegetables and dairy products were occasionally sold in the regional market to obtain cash for necessary commodities like cloth, salt, sugar, tea, and household utensils. He added that most of the villagers besides Dalits, ate their own food, utilized family and village labour, restored soil fertility by adding animal manure, and worked with the tools manufactured by village blacksmith (kami). He argued that there was cash flow from foreign countries and the expansion of roads in the village. The unintended consequences of the migration and expansion of roads caused the agrarian crisis by the replacement of local tools and technology, labour scarcity, and decline of production in the village.

2. Objectives

The general objective of the study is to analyze and tell the stories of the decline of subsistence village life due to the implementation of the neoliberal economic policy of the state. The main objective of the article is to present a declining graph of agrarian production and land use after the increasing trend of foreign labour migration from rural villages. It argues the agrarian recession (land use, production, and a number of livestock) by comparing and analyzing data from 1990 to 2020. It tries to present the impacts of labour migration and remittances in an agrarian recession in a rural village. Multidimensional impacts include not only agricultural crisis but also changes in family values and the socio-cultural life of the agrarian village in Nepal.

3. Methodology

This study has been conducted in Narethanti of Baglung district, in the western mid-hills of Gandaki province of Nepal.¹ The author employs a mixed-method approach in terms of the nature of data and modes of analysis. Out of eight clusters of village Municipality, Narethanti was selected by employing a cluster sampling method. For quantitative data, 30 households were selected. Within the households, 40 plus years old (both male and female) informants were selected. The recall or remembered method was employed to generate actual data around 1990. This primary information was collected from fieldwork from December 2020 to April 2021. Informants The informants remembered information Qualitative information was collected by observations, in-depth interviews, case studies, and the life histories of the village people. Life histories and in-depth interviews helped to generate data of the 1990s. Field observations and stories of the villagers regarding migration and the agrarian systems were employed as reliable information. Collected information was presented and analyzed by using simple statistical tools, and thematic and narrative analyses of the stories.



Figure-1 : Geographical view of Narethanti

4. Results and Findings

4.1 Migration in Narethanti of Baglung

Narethanti is a multi-ethnic village where Chhetri, Brahmin, Magar, Damai, Sarki, Kami, Gurung, Thakali, and Muslims have been subsisted. Around the 1990s, agriculture was the main profession for all the households except four households of Gurkha and a nominal number of labour migration in India. To reflect the stories of the Sher Bahadur Thapa and Maisara Nepali at the very beginning of the article, their family members depended on substance agricultural products in the 1990s. Every household in the village utilized the

maximum area of land and labour resources for the maximum extent of production. Below labour-aged children and elderly people were employed in livestock caring. Livestock is an integral part of the agrarian economy. An adequate number of livestock is required for the particular area of arable land. The land and livestock are considered not only the main source of livelihood and wellbeing but also an indicator of socio-economic status and prestige in the village. There were different and historical trajectories of unequal distribution of land in the village. The household survey explored that 8% of the households had wide-ranging surplus land and 2% had no private land. Out of 30 households, 55%, had enough land to feed and support their families. The rest of 35% hardly managed nonetheless to live and eat working own land and exchanging labour in the village. Sher Bahadur remembered 30 years back and argued that a large number of youths entertained during the marriage, birth, and festivals of the village. He claimed that there were hundreds of villagers participation in any death procession. Both of them remembered collective plantation and harvesting crops by singing and dancing in the rich people. Labour exchange was another village tie that bonded different caste ethnic people into a single production system. These rituals practices and production systems built intimate relations and ties of different castes and kinship relations which were essential social production in the agrarian village.

On the contrary, respondents said that there were few youths and abled people in the village now. Cases showed that migrated youths did not return to the mortuary ritual of their own parents. Inter-caste ritual reciprocity and the system of labour exchange have been transformed with the decline of agricultural activities. Both observations and survey data informed that household structure and family size have been shrinking because young members have either migrated to foreign countries or left the village, particularly women, for the education of their children. The number of people actually living in the village was dramatically declined. The total population of the 30 households was 168. Of the total population, 72 members were currently living at the village home while the rest 96 were migrated out of their homes for more than 6 months. Of the 96 migrants, 44 were migrated to countries like Japan, Saudi, India, Malaysia, Korea, Dubai, Qatar, Portugal, UK, China, and Australia, and the rest 52 were migrated to urban and semi-urban centers of the country like Chitwan, Pokhara, Kathmandu, Butwal and Baglung.

Both qualitative information and survey data suggest that remittances are not being invested in agriculture and livestock in the village. Though the volume of remittance received from the migrants for the past 30 years i.e., 1990-2020 increased significantly, it has not contributed to agrarian village livelihood. In the last 12 months of 2019-2020, a total amount of 34,620,000 (an average value of 1,154,000, with max-4,500,000 and min-60,000) has been received by the 30 migrant households from their migrant family members. The remittance received has been invested in estate and commercial land, household consumption (food, clothing/meat/drinks), electronic goods, vehicles and jewelry, education, health, and repayment of loans. Similarly, socio-cultural functions, business, saving, capital formation, social support, financing migration, construction, and maintenance of houses are other areas of investment of remittance. Out of total remittance, only 6.2% of the remittance were invested in agriculture and farming as shown below :

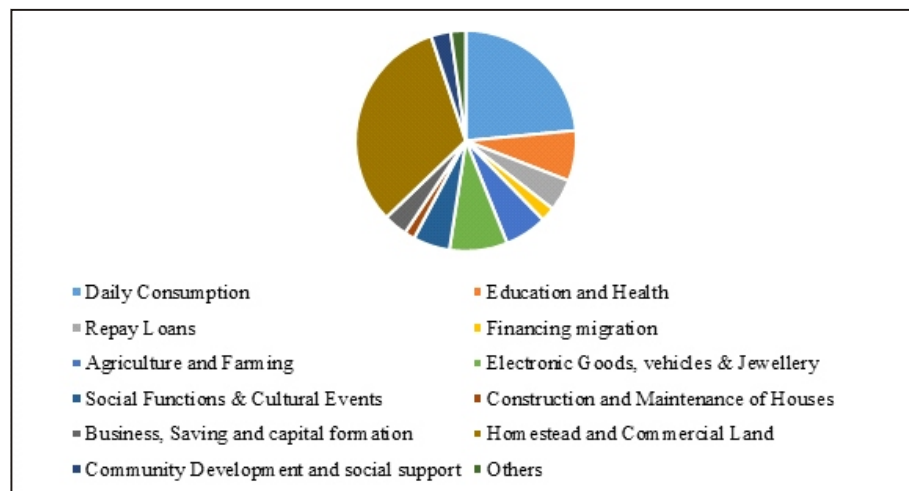


Figure-2 : Investment Field of Remittance

The chart shows that a large amount of remittance is invested in homestead and commercial land (44.91%) and daily consumption (13.5%), followed by socio-cultural events (6.56%), repay loans (6.34%), and school/college fees (6.16%). The high volume of remittance is invested in non-agrarian sectors. It also indicates that the second priority areas of investment are: jewelry (4.64%), loan giving (3.67%), saving in banks (2.85%), business (shops/stock/transport) (2.35%), TV & mobile (1.91%), construction and improvement of the house (1.9%), electricity, mobile, and internet bill (1.51%), money lending (1.17%), health care (1.06%). Among them,

only a very few amounts are invested in agriculture: hiring labour (0.57%), livestock (0.44%), chemical fertilizer, seeds/irrigation (0.3%), and the least percentage of respondents were obtained amongst agricultural tools (0.15%).

On the basis of the chart, it can be claimed that 53.33% of the households purchased real estate out of the earnings from migrant workers. Consumption, luxury materials, health, and education are second priority areas of investment. Agrarian innovation and commercialization are the least priority area of investment in the village. Moreover, traditional agricultural practices and arable land areas have been shrinking.

Besides subsidiary occupations² agriculture was the main occupation for the households from the Narethanti of Nepal till 1990. To compare agrarian activities and labour migration from 1990 to 2020, it found a dramatic decline in agrarian work and a rapid increment in labour migration. The decline is clearly shown in the following bar figure-3.

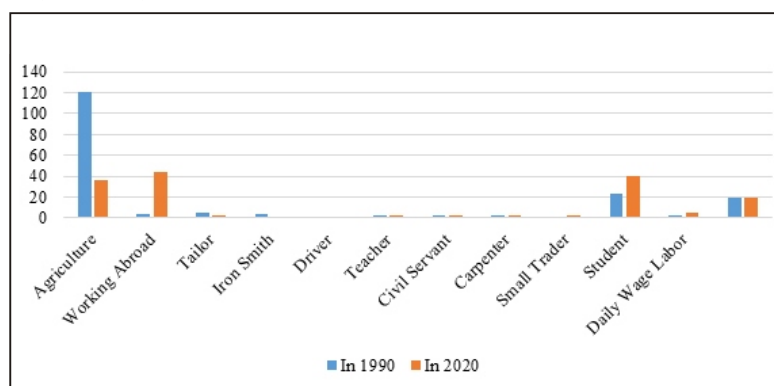


Figure-3 : Occupational status in 1990 and 2020

The negative impacts of migration can be observed in subsidiary occupations like tailor, ironsmith, carpenter, and civil servant. Because of the penetration of the market and the opportunity of foreign labour migration new generation of their family members denied continuing tailoring and iron ore. Small traders and the number of students increased. Though the number of children declined the number of elderly increased in the village.

When compared the number of livestock from 1990 to 2020, their numbers have been decreased. Buffalo, goat, cow, and ox are considered an integral part of agriculture in the village. They not only produced dairy and meat but also their manure revitalized the

fertility capacity of the land. The livestock number decrease also indicates the decline of agriculture activities and productivity in the village. The number of livestock directly impacts agricultural production. The buffalos and cow/ox are considered the main sources of manure for agricultural production. The number of buffaloes was found to be reduced in 2020 as compared to 1990 as shown in the figure below. Few of them started using chemical fertilizer because of a lack of livestock manure. The quantity of chicken and goats increased because 3 families started commercial poultry farming and two others started commercial goat farming.

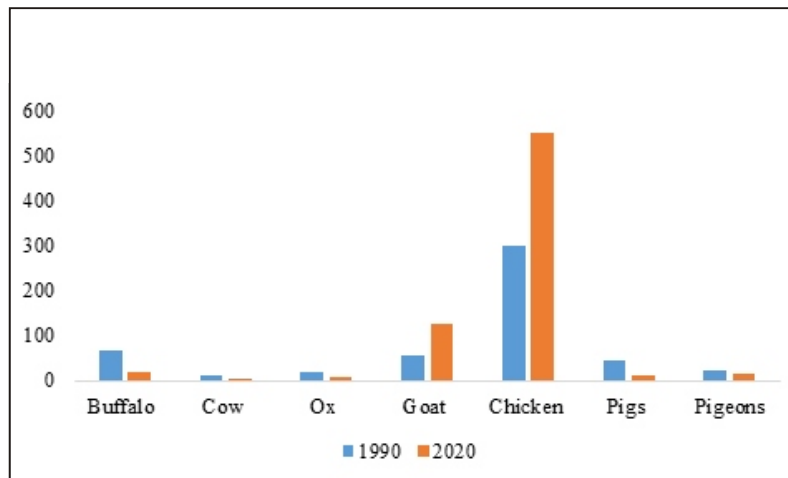


Figure-4 : Changes in Livestock rearing in Narethanti in 1990 and 2020

The production rate of paddy and maize per unit area has decreased because of a lack of manure and care. The overall production of corn, rice, millet, wheat, lentils, soybeans, and mustard has decreased whereas the production of green vegetables, off-seasonal and hybrid vegetables, and hybrid chicken have been increased. The respondents reported that their traditional varieties of rice, maize, and vegetables have been disappeared. The farmers are now cultivating only in a small patch of farmland to consume their own families instead of a surplus-value.

Out of sampled respondents, 67.74% reported that they experienced a serious hearth of labour in the village. They claimed that the main cause of labour shortage was labour out-migration, particularly third-country migration. Similarly, 25.03% of the respondents reported that they mortgaged arable land either lease or sharecropping. And 16.9% of the respondents turned arable land into grassland or left it barren. Villagers told that about 45 Ropani (22892.4

msq.)³ previously cultivated land are turned into barren grassland. They claimed that out-migration caused labour shortages in the maintenance of farmland and irrigation. The following figure shows the transformation of the main source of income from 1990 to 2020.

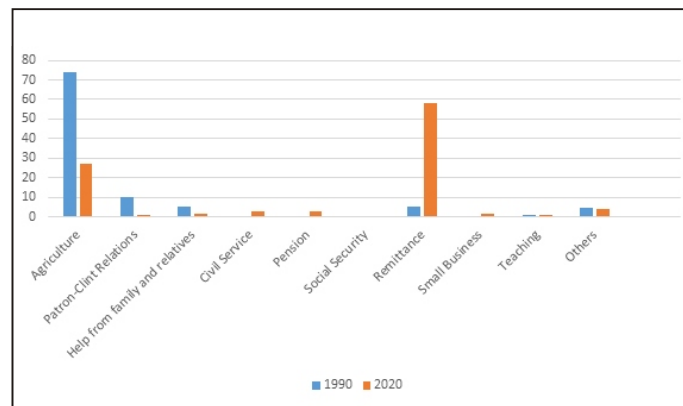


Figure-5 : Main Sources of Income in 1990 and 2020

Among various sources of income, agriculture contributed more than 75% of family income during 1990. The contribution of agriculture declined by 25% of family income in 2020. The remittance income increased from 5% to 60% from 1990 to 2020. Similarly, patron-client relations also significantly declined in 2020. The dramatic increase in remittance and decline of agrarian income show not only economic changes but also other socio-cultural ramifications of village life.

4.2 Effects of Labour Migration on Agrarian Systems

Changes in family structure, the recession of reproduction rate, cultural practices, and agrarian systems are some of the unintended consequences of labour migration. Household structure and family size are important to subsistence agrarian systems. Sher Bahadur shared that the family size of the villagers has been shrinking because young members have left the village. After school education, most of the youth migrated either for higher education in urban centers or foreign labour. Suman Khatri said that married mostly males stayed out of the village and consequently there was a lower reproduction rate in the village. None of the married couples about 45 and below years have more than three children. The downfall of the population growth rate is also matched by the census report 2022 (CBS, 2022). Foreign labour migration has significant effects on the population growth rate.

The access to roads, education, drinking water, and health services has expanded in the village but labour migration has not been stopped. A study noted that migration negatively affected agrarian production in rural areas (Jha, 2010). The study proposed two commonly opposing conditions for migration. They are : (i) the expulsion of labour threatens the household's capacity to react to labour demands, prompting a decrease in cultivation and production (ii) remittances overcome labour deficiencies and give capital inputs to develop agriculture (Jha, 2010). Numerous investigations in Nepal support the former, revealing that migration destabilizes agriculture; loss of labour denies households work, and remittances are seldom invested agrarian system improvement (Black, 1993). But the predominant explorations were that the remittances economy invested in essential family needs, education, family wellbeing, housing, debt repayment, and consumption (Durand & Massey, 1992). The result of the study also matched with the earlier research. In most cases, migration causes a shortage of labour, which is the proximate cause of the overall crisis of the agrarian system. These comprise (i) insufficient attention to agriculture prompting including environmental degradation; (ii) pernicious impacts on the cultural and social organizations that sustain agriculture; (iii) hardship of agricultural innovation or a stagnant agricultural base; and (iv) an overburdening of the individuals who remain (usually women) with labour responsibility of the family (Durand & Massey, 1992).

Few scholars argue that migration leads to the development of agriculture by investing remittances in agricultural production (Jaquet, Kohler & Schwilch, 2019). The villagers have reported that few migrant families bought agricultural land. Instead of being improved or cultivated routinely, the lands were utilized for pasture and grassland. Additionally, the agricultural recession continued due to the low rate of wages and gender-specific labour requirements.⁴ De Hass (2006) presented that households in Southern Morocco invested more in housing and agriculture following a rise in remittance income.

It was found that some remittance-receiving households were using modern agricultural technologies such as improved varieties of rice and improved transplanting techniques. However, labour migration did not significantly alter household cultivation patterns and remittances were also not used for agricultural improvements in Canar Province of Ecuador (Jokisch, 2001). Similarly, other investi-

gations also explored the labour deficiencies arising from migration led to a decline in agriculture production (Turner et al, 1993, Harden, 1996). Yet Lucas (1987) discovered that in the short run migration decreases subsistence agriculture production, but remittances enable households to improve agricultural productivity and capital accumulation over the long run. Utilizing an ethnographic methodology, Zimmerer (1993) found labour deficiencies due to out-migration, along with the abandonment of traditional soil conservation techniques and increased participation of women in farm work. Researchers showed that out-migration reduces the number of cattle and subsequent extension of shrublands, predictable to the theory of deintensification (Preston et al., 1997). Another research revealed the differential effects of international and internal migration on the change in agricultural land use (Maharjan et al., 2020).

Various studies of Nepal revealed that labour migration is bringing about incessant labour deficiencies in agriculture prompting agricultural land abandonment and low productivity (Paudel et al., 2014; Thapa, 2001). Further, remittance-receiving agricultural households are also not seeing an uptake in agriculture output in Nepal. These discoveries infer that large-scale migration is making a deficiency of agriculture labour, adversely influencing agriculture productivity. A policy geared toward channeling remittances to investments in productiveness-improving agricultural capital and inputs would possibly increase agriculture yield. The negative impact of migration on agriculture yield might not have been compensated through remittances (Rozelle et al., 1999). This is not surprising in Nepal's case due to the fact that nearly 80% of remittance income is utilized for daily consumption and only 2.4% for capital formation. A study revealed that remittance-receiving rural households did not use productivity-enhancing agricultural inputs like chemical fertilizers despite the fact that remittances enhanced their income (Maharjan et al., 2013). If the remittance is highly excessive, the farmers do not spend money on low-productivity subsistence crop farming and livestock, rather preferred the non-farm sector or use remittances for more leisure and consumption goods.

Researchers explore evidence of how out-migration impacts the land management practices and the land-use transition underway in Nepal (KC et al., 2020). It also shows that the

underutilization of farmland is a common and considerable phenomenon taking place in rural landscapes, much more so than the extensively stated abandonment of farmland. Rather, the presence of a huge community-level migration network shows an enormous level of adverse influence on fertilizer use, which proposes that migration brings about a decrease in investment in the crops (Maharjan et al., 2013). A household's decision to opt for migration also has a significant negative impact on crop output. Fertilizer use is also affected by other variables. Despite the fact that remittances have improved household earnings generously, they don't appear to significantly influence fertilizer use. In contrast, community migration networks show an exceptionally significant negative impact on fertilizer use. The outcomes of agrarian production in Narethati and other researchers indicate an increasing feminization of the agricultural sector resulting from a shortage of male labourers.

5. Discussion

The revised and enlarged edition of 'Nepal in Crisis' in 2001 stated that "there is a remarkable lack of investment in agriculture generally and only low levels of production for the market. Indeed, there is even evidence of reduced sales of agricultural products by hill households in the sample" (Blaikie et al. 2001 : 298). On the contrary, some researchers argue remittance economy can act as a catalyst in transforming the subsistence farming sector into a more productive and commercial one by removing some of the constraints it faces (Azam & Gubert, 2002). Both the survey and narrative articulate that remittance has not invested transformation and involution of agriculture in the village. Migration has a negative impact on agrarian production.

The migrant households experienced a labour vacuum in agricultural work during the peak seasons of plantation and harvest. Similarly, the number of domesticated animals have been significantly decreased. Cultivated land areas and domesticated animals have symbiotic relations for the continuation of the agrarian production system. Soil fertility must be recharged by applying domestic animal manure. Domestic manure is highly valued and taken well care of. For the proper distribution of the manure domestic animals were temporarily shifted to different locations of arable land. The agriculture-livestock system works such that the more animals a family owns, the more manure it can accumulate, and more land can

be cultivated. The manure heaps outside the farmhouse are signs of wealth and rank in the village. We have not observed big heaps of dung outside farmhouses in the village. Without manure, villagers do not plant crops because it is west of labour and seed. Rather they left barren land. Observation and surveys show that there was a dramatic decrease meant of domestic animals in the village. Absence of active members in the family, elderly people are compelled to reduce or quit domestic animals though they preferred diary products. It implicitly indicates the downfall of agricultural production. Some of the households quit agricultural production completely. The case of lessening of agricultural land is also found in Himalayan regions too. Pawan Ghimire argues that at least one-third of fields once cultivated are permanently abandoned in Mustang (Ghimire, 2005). He noted that 70% of the farmland was not cultivated in the village of Pisang in 2004 (Ghimire, 2005). Aase and Chapagain (2005) argued that despite the profound transformation in the eastern hill (cardamom and other cash crops), an agricultural recession occurred western hills of Nepal. It indicates the crisis of the centuries-long domestic production system.

6. Conclusions

The present study compared the subsistence agricultural system of a village in 1990 and 2020. The selected adult informants recalled and told stories and actual information of 1990s and 2020s. When compared from 1990 to 2020, the recession of the agrarian system (land used, production, and domestic animals) and the increasing trend of labour migration and volume of remittances are presented in the figures. The main livelihood strategy of 1990 was agrarian production whereas remittance was considered the main strategy in 2020. The agrarian system of the village includes the integration of the agriculture practices, fertility-manure-irrigation management, labour system, animal husbandry, and socio-cultural unity of the village. One of the major unintended consequences of migration, particularly foreign labour migration, was the agrarian crisis in the village. The villagers abandoned one-third of arable land without cultivation. Both quantitative and qualitative data provide strong evidence of labour dearth, reduction of arable land area, decreasing numbers of livestock, and volume of remittance investment in agrarian sectors. The crisis of the centuries-long agrarian system of production has wider ramifications reflected in

short-term and long-term unintended consequences at Narethanti of Baglung district. More specifically, the huge scale labour migration resulted in gender imbalance, a deficiency of male agriculture labour, and the work burden of females.

The total area of arable lands, animal manure, and resource investment including irrigation, innovation, and mechanization have been significantly decreased and the downfall results in the quantity of production and relations of production. The survey data present a dramatic downfall in the number of domestic animals in the village. The ramification of the reduction of domestic animals caused a reduction in manure, dairy product, crop production, and the crisis of sustainability of the village's livelihood. Gender-specific division of agrarian labour and feminization of agrarian production is an interesting area to be further explored. The male-specific division of agrarian labour and ritual roles demanded the presence of male labour in the village.

There are various factors responsible for the situation of labour vacuum in the village. The neo-liberal economic policy of Nepal since 1990 not only opened but also encouraged youth to foreign labour migration. Similarly, the intensification of the Maoist insurgency (1996 to 2006) displaced an enormous number of youths from the villages. Shrinking economic activities and investment threats cultivated migration ecology. The lower income from agriculture was the principal reason for the crisis of the traditional agricultural system. The downfall of the agricultural sector has taken place in a situation where the fundamental structure of the political economy of Nepal remains stagnant. The agricultural crisis indicates crisis in the economy and the state at large. Lack of progressive changes and profound transformations in technology, policies, and investment, the speed of downfall accelerates. The situation of abandonment of arable land, decreasing number of domestic animals, and no investment of remittances in agriculture could be claimed crisis of the agrarian system in the Narethati village.

Footnotes

1. The village is located at 28.24°N 83.46°E. The average temperature of the flatland is 20°C, which is incredibly suitable for agriculture.
2. Tailor, ironsmith, driver, teacher, civil servant, and small traders
3. 1 Ropani = 508.72msq
4. Women should not plough land.

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Analysis of Political History of India and Africa Relations

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India's relations with Africa date back several centuries. The presence of Indians in East Africa is documented by an ancient Greek author in 60 AD. Solidarity and political affinity between these two countries going back to the early 1920s when both regions were fighting against colonial rule and oppression. India was at the forefront of the international community in its support to the anti-apartheid. India has worked consistently to put the issue of apartheid on the agenda of the UN, NAM and other multilateral organizations and for the imposition of comprehensive international sanctions against South Africa. An attempt has been made in this paper to analyze the political history of India and Africa relations. It has been shown that The political history of India and Africa has achieved the complete independence with the freedom of South Africa from the clutches of apartheid and Nelson Mandela elected as President of South Africa.

[Keywords : Political history, Africa continent, Colonialism, Indian community, NAM]

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1. Introduction

Political history of India and Africa continent majorly connected the modern history and fought against colonialism together. But the history of India and Africa has started with the idea of Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam directly connected to India and Africa since the beginning of human life on earth. Geologically, it is stated that all the landmass of the earth was united millions of years ago. Africa and India were untied and it is evident when the maps of Africa continent and India merges on the spot from Somalia- Mozambique in Africa to Gujarat-Maharashtra. Geologically, these roots of nation-states of Tigris-Euphrates and Nile river civilization had commercial connections with Asia. All European colonialism began with the Scramble of Africa by which Africa was divided, annexed and reconfigured the continent. The European interests protected Christianity and there were wars and other fighting between Islam and Christianity that is clearly seen in Egypt, Ethiopia and Sudan (Patricia, 2021 : 1-54). But the modern period of colonialism, the educated youth of India and Africa studied in Europe and America and started fighting against colonialism in their countries.

Liberation is historical process, which can be completed systematically. "African liberation has four stages of the liberation process. The first its freedom from colonialism and racist minority rule; second is freedom from external economic domination; third is freedom from poverty, injustice and oppression imposed upon Africans by Africans and fourth is mental freedom, an end to the mental subjugation" (Prahlaad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014 : 7), which makes Africans look up other people or other nations as inherently superior, and their experience as being automatically transferable to Africa's needs and aspirations.

The idea of NAM brought forward in the Bandung Congress on 18 April 1955. It supported freedom struggle of the Afro-Asian countries. Along with it, 'India demanded to end the policy of apartheid in South Africa. The notion of liberation in its broad sense, due to various kinds of liberation struggles, has continued to acquire nuances in the volatile political context of Africa. In effect, the links between the major western powers and the political regimes in the mineral rich and geo-strategically significant Africa continent were constantly reinforced in colonial and post-colonial times (Prahlaad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014 : 7).

2. India & Africa during Colonialism

Liberation struggles in Africa had become an important feature of international relations during the last quarter of the preceding century. At the rudimentary level the significance of these struggles was self-evident due to diversities in their objectives as also the involvement of the multiple actors in the making of those struggles. For instance, liberation, struggles in Angola and Mozambique were essentially anti-colonial struggles against Portuguese imperialism while those in Zimbabwe (Southern Rhodesia), Namibia and South Africa could be characterized as anti-racist struggle, which aimed at ousting the white minority regimes. In the process, major western powers like the US, Britain, France, Germany as well as Portugal and Italy were involved with the forces that were overtly and covertly defending, the colonial or racist establishments in the region. The USA also extended support to the pro-west movements such as the Union for the 'total independence of Angola (UNITA) and the Front for the National Liberation of Angola (FNLA) in the Angolan civil war. In contrast, the countries like the former Soviet Union and its East European allies as well as Cuba were actively supporting liberation movements such as the African National Congress (ANC) of South Africa, the Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU), a faction of the Patriotic Front (PF) of Zimbabwe, South West African People's Organization (SWAPO) of Namibia, the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA) and the Front for the National Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO), while China supported the FRELIMO and Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU), the other wing of the PF. Besides, International Organizations like the United Nations (UN), regional organizations like the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and major movements like the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) and leadership of India, in their own ways, were also shaping the trajectories of these struggles' (Prahlaad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014 : 8). By being sensitive to the dynamic and constantly evolving notion of liberation, this paper attempts to present an Indian perspective on the liberation struggles in Africa.

Today, although all the countries of Africa are members of the NAM, several of them have, in the conduct of their foreign relations, deviated from, and compromised with, the basic principles and policies of the non-aligned movement. Therefore, 'one of the objectives of African non-alignment is to persuade and pressurize the

capitalist countries of the world to cooperate in ushering in the new international economic order. In this struggle the non-aligned countries are trying to settle the following issues with the industrialized countries : to avoid deterioration in terms of trade, to increase the volumes of commerce, to achieve stable and remunerative prices for their basic products, to accelerate the process of industrialization, to get sufficient financial resources and to secure an adequate transfer of technology' (Prahlad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014 : 11).

Nehru did not support any ill-motive activities of Indian communities in Africa. The reply to Mr. U.K. Oza, Editor, "Democrat", P.O. Box No. 97, Jinja (Uganda) on 6 December 1928, Nehru clearly said, "I am sorry to learn that some Indians have created an impression in the minds of the natives of the country that Indians are against their aspirations. This is very unfortunate. I think it should be made perfectly clear to all concerned in East Africa that Indians have not gone there to injure the interests of the inhabitants of the country in any way. If necessary, the Indians ought to be prepared to take a back place so far as the natives of the country are concerned. On no account must there be rivalry between the two. I am glad you emphasized this before the native chiefs. You can certainly assure the Chief Justice and other native chiefs that this is the attitude of Indian nationalist leaders. They must not be led away by what a few Indians may say or do. Indians who go to foreign countries go there not to exploit the inhabitants of those countries but to live in co-operation with them for the mutual advantage of both. We go on these terms abroad and we expect others to come on the same terms to India. We want no one to come to India to exploit us. I shall be very glad if the greatest emphasis is laid on this position and every assurance is given to the native chiefs" (Letter to Mr. U. K. Oza, 1928). Not only that, India's vision of anti-colonial struggle and economic dominance of European countries strengthening European companies' political economy was clear. Nehru as General Secretary, A.I.C.C. consistently attacked on imperialism and shared it by writing a letter to B. Weinbren, Chairman, South African Federation of Non-European Trade Union, Johannesburg, January 22nd, 1929. Nehru wrote, "In our struggle against imperialism in all its manifestations. It is a great consolation to us that our comrades from thousands of miles away are with us. We are fully aware of the difficulties against which you have to center in South Africa and we watch your efforts to overcome them

with the liveliest sympathy. We feel that imperialism in India has been the bulwark of imperialism in many other parts of the world. A free India would help greatly in freeing the other oppressed races of the world" (Letter to B. Weinbren, 1929 : 89-90).

3. Indian Community During Colonialism in Africa

Nearly 60 different laws had been enacted in South Africa restricting the liberty and the economic and social development on the 2, 50,000 Indian settlers. The Pegging Act established separate areas for Indians, outside which they might neither reside nor occupy nor acquire ownership of landed property. Nehru wrote, "My greetings and good wishes to Indians in South Africa. I have followed with deep anxiety the troubles and racial barriers and disabilities imposed upon them. Not knowing all the facts, I am unable to say much at this stage. But one can never accept anywhere in the world a status of inferiority. No Indian worthy of his country can thus demean himself and his motherland" (Message to South Africa Indians, 1945 : 434). Nehru spoke on Independence in Three Years at Allahabad, 2 October 1945, "I have also received a letter from Africa in which it is stated that the Africans are watching India's struggle for freedom, which they wish to follow. Their fight for their independence on the lines of the Congress indicates that the question of the independence of India has got more significance. It implies that the Congress, in fighting for independence, is also fighting for the independence of other slave countries. Therefore, India will have to persist in fighting, not only for the freedom of its own, but for the greater responsibility of taking up the struggle of other countries" (Address of J. Nehru, 1945 : 209). A letter written 29 to Mr. Charles Onyeama from Nigeria on 14 May 1946 mentioned, "I was glad to get your letter. You will forgive me if I write briefly as I am full up with work here. But I want to tell you that, engrossed as we are in the future of India, we do not forget the people of Africa. We shall help them and stand by them whenever occasion arises. Your question about nonviolence may be answered in many ways. But perhaps the most effective way is to say that you can only use guns when you have them. Also, that bigger guns prevail and so you must take care to have the biggest guns. Normally the biggest gun or the latest weapon of offence is not available to the people" (Letter to Mr. Charles Onyeama. Nigeria, 1946 : 530). Nehru conveyed the message to a visiting South African Indian delegation on 3 June 1946 and

stated, "Indian does not intend to recognize or submit to the theory and practice of racial arrogance and discrimination, and would not tolerate the subjection of Indians abroad to any indignity. The time has come when the theory and practice of racial arrogance and discrimination must be challenged. It is true that at the present moment we are not strong enough as a nation, or as a people, to put an end to racial discrimination and national indignity. But the time is coming soon when we may be strong enough. Whether we are strong enough or not, once thing, however, should be certain - that we prefer any consequences to submission to this evil. The issue of Indians in South Africa has become a world issue. It is up to the Indians there to realize this fact, and act worthily on the world stage, which they occupy in this matter. They have not only their own dignity and interest to safeguard, but have the honour of India in their keeping. That is not a light obligation. Let no man, woman or child, who claims to be Indian, forget this privilege and obligation at any time. Let him remember that the day is coming when the strong arm and stout heart of India will protect her children, wherever they might be. South African Indians should not claim anything which might be against the rights and dignity of the African people, as claims should be based on the broader foundation of racial and international equality. We must remember in this matter we do not stand along. The whole of Asia and Africa will stand with us, and we shall stand with them" (Message to a visiting South African Indian Delegation, 1946 : 542).

Nehru statements on food for Indians in Mauritius on 17 June 1946 in *Hindustan Times*, highlighted, "Though there may be distress in India we cannot forget our countrymen abroad and any appeal from them to the mother country must always have a hearing. Our people in Mauritius have especially suffered from the lack of the food they were used to. On their behalf, a request which is modest enough has been made for 2,000 tons of pulses. (An Indian member of the Mauritius Legislative Council came to India early in 1946 to urge the Government of India for 2000 tons of pulses to help restore a balanced diet for Indians in Mauritius). They have avoided asking for rice and wheat which are badly needed here. What the situation in India is as regards pulses I do not know. But if it is at all possible, I hope this request of theirs will be agreed to and pulses sent to Mauritius" (Statements on food for Indians in Mauritius, 17 June 1946 : 543). Similarly, Nehru replying to a cable of the Secretary of the

Natal Indian Congress telling of the struggle in South Africa on 18 July 1946 that stated, "We are watching with anxious interest and deep admiration our country-men's heroic struggle in South Africa. (In protest against the segregation law Indians in Durban started a satyagraha in June 1946 by establishing tented camps in the European residential zone. On 24 June 1946, 99 passive resisters were arrested. We shall be with you to the end. Jai Hind). Some Allied fighter planes have also cooperated with the Dutch. It is well for us to remember that, while we are inevitably concerned with our own struggle for independence, our brothers and sisters in 31 Indonesia are fighting to retain their independence and no protect their new-born Republic. The 17th of August is the Independence Day of Indonesia and I am sure that on that day large numbers of people in India would like to end their greetings and good wishes to the people, of Indonesia and to express their solidarity in the cause of Asian Freedom from the East, South-East and West of this great continent becomes ever more evident. In order to ensure this unity and to develop closer relations between the different countries of Asia it has been proposed to hold a conference of representatives from Asian countries in January or February next. Meanwhile, our thoughts go to Java and all other places in Asia where the struggle for freedom is going on today" (Cable of the Secretary, 1946).

The Congress Working Committee in its meeting in Wardha passed a resolution on the issues of restrictions on immigration in East Africa (Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika) and stated that 'the Working Committee having heard Mr. R. B. Pandya on behalf of the East African Indian National Congress and Mr. Harichand M. Shah on behalf of the Africa and Overseas Merchants Chamber, on the attempts made by the Governments of Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika to introduce anti-Indian immigration legislation, express their deep concern over the situation developing in these territories. (The bill aimed at making permanent the immigration restrictions imposed under cover of shortage of food and housing as a temporary war-measure. The bill also started that an immigration permit might be refused if it was sought for employment which a suitably qualified resident could take up. Permits required capital sums from the immigrants seeking to start business on their own account.). In view of the assurances given by the East African Governments to the Government of India that defence regulations restricting immigration were a temporary measure to meet certain

wartime needs, the Working Committee take a very grave view of the refusal of these Governments to withdraw these regulations as promised, and ask the Government of India to take appropriate measures to secure without delay the fulfilment of these promises by the Government concerned. The Working Committee can see no justification whatsoever for the introduction of the immigration restriction bill in the present state of the political, economic and social development of the East African territories and their inhabitants, and is emphatically of opinion that the British Colonial Office should restore pre-war conditions as regards immigration by withdrawing wartime regulations and should prevent the anti-Indian policy of the European inhabitants from being given sanction and legislative shape. Indians were in East Africa long before any British set foot on that soil and they could point to as many generations of useful industry on the coast as well as inland as the white settlers could count years of residence.

In consideration of this history of colonization and opening up of East African territories, Mr. Winston Churchill came to the conclusion and wrote in his book many years ago that no government with a scrap of respect for honest dealing between man and man could introduce a policy of keeping Indians out of East Africa. The Committee are also of opinion that any step to bring about the economic union of the three East African territories should include the provision for equal representation as proposed by the British Colonial Office and should not yield to the pressure of the European population to abandon this provision. The Committee are also of opinion that any step to bring about the economic union of the three East African territories should include the provision for equal representation as proposed by the British Colonial Office and should not yield to the pressure of the European population to abandon this provision. The Committee reiterated the protest against the reservation of the best part of the land, the Highlands, for white men, by excluding even the Africans to whom the soil of their own country must belong. The Committee wish all success to the delegation (The Government of India had deputed Maharaj Singh, K. Sarwar Hasan and C. S. Jha to East Africa to examine the extent to which Indian interests would be affected by the proposed Immigration Restriction Bill) going to East Africa under the leadership of Rajah Sir Maharaj Singh to study the situation on the advisability of dropping their proposed anti-Indian immigration legislation which is now being

precipitated, in view of developments in India, and hope that they will be able to convince the East African Governments that any anti-Indian policy encouraged in East Africa will be an intolerable addition to the insults and provocations which are aimed at India and which undoubtedly serve to postpone the day of realization of true world peace and security. The Working Committee have noted with pleasure that cordial relations prevail between the Africans and Indians, and trust that there will be continued cooperation between the two for their mutual advancement, and for the removal of the disabilities which are sought to be imposed upon both of them by the white settlers' (Restrictions on Immigration to East Africa, 1946: 181 and Prahlad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014: 33). This message was spread among the Indian masses living in the country and East Africa and stated, "My good wishes to our countrymen and countrywomen in East Africa and through them to the Africans. The Congress Working Committee have already expressed their opinion on the position of Indians in East Africa and the attempts being made to prevent further immigration of Indians there and otherwise to discriminate against our people (see preceding item). Nowhere in the world can we accept a lower status for our people than the status of others. Nowhere will we approve of racialism or the suppression of one people or race by another. Indians abroad must always remember that they have the honour of India in their keeping. That is a great privilege and responsibility. That honour involves fair and friendly dealings with the people of the country they go to. It involves also non-submission to wrong and injustice" (Goodwill to East Africa, 1946). Along with it, Congress put its position on before the Peace Conference in the media clearly and mentioned that India is naturally interested not only in the problems of some of the African territories but in the wider and more vital problem of ensuring peace and security. An Indian delegate will have to express India's viewpoint on this more basic problem also. For the present, however, the party feel that no steps need be taken regarding the choice of fresh delegates. 'The interim government can consider the situation then existing and decide this matter.

Similarly, the issue came before the General Assembly of U.N.O. regarding some provisional arrangements that have been made for the representation of India at the forthcoming meeting in America at which the South African Indian question is likely to come up for consideration. It was suggested some names too which

included Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Sir Girja Shankar Bajpai A till lately the Agent General in South Africa' (Prahlad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014 : 34).

However, it was said that Sir Ramaswami Mudaliar might be induced to go more specially for a meeting of the section over which he has been presiding. In South Africa Indian gallantly fought not only for the rights of Indians but of all people and races under subjection. 'Indian Community in South Africa organized passive resistance on 13 June 1946 in protest against the Adriatic Land Tenure and Indian Representation Bill which became law from 3 June 1946. There were about 200,000 Indians in South Africa' (Prahlad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014 : 34). Nehru wrote on the conditions of the Afro-Asian countries and highlighted that, "The problem of the colonies and dependent countries thus is a vital part of the world problem, and an attempt to isolate it results in other problems becoming for more difficult to solution. Behind that problem today lie the passion and hunger for freedom, equality and 35 better living condition which consume hundreds of millions of people in Asia and Africa. That passion cannot be ignored, for anything that drives vast number of human beings in a powerful factor in the dynamics of today (Nehru. Colonialism Must Go, 1946 : 509).We want to raise our own standards to the highest level. But it is obvious that high standards in Asian and African Countries cannot be allowed. If the people of any Country can maintain high standards by their own productive efforts, they are welcome to do so, but such standards must not be at the expense of starvation and misery elsewhere (Nehru. Colonialism Must Go, 1946 : 511).It is also realized that there should be no monopolies in materials or markets or in the natural resources of the World. These should be shared equitably for the advantage of all. But it must be remembered that the peoples of Asia and Africa have been exploited and deprived of their natural riches and resources for many generations, and others have profited enormously by these one-sided transactions. It has to be remembered that this had resulted in terrible poverty and backward conditions. The balance has to be righted. In certain parts of Africa, it may perhaps not be immediately possible to establish independent state of the kind mentioned above. Even so, independence in the near future should be aimed at and a large measure of it granted immediately, with suitable provision for rapid advance in education, commerce and allied fields" (Nehru, Colonialism Must Go, 1946 : 512). Nehru interview on Free

India's Foreign Policy to the Press in Bombay on 15 March 1946, mentioned, "Obviously India will be attracted more to those Countries which support its cause of independence and progress. Its general policy is sure to be one of promoting World peace, preventing aggression anywhere, and helping, in so far as possible, in the attainment of freedom by the subject Countries of Asia and Africa" (Press Interview on Free, 1946 : 525). Then there is the old question which was recently before the United Nations, the question of Indians in South Africa, which again has raised very vital issues not only for India, but for the whole world, because it raises the vital issue of racialism. "We are intimately concerned with those people of Indian origin who settled down in South Africa and who have become South African citizens. They being South African citizens we have nothing to do with them politically, although culturally we are connected, because they went from India. But because it involves these questions of racialism, because it involves not only the self-respect of India and the Indian people, but of every people in Asia, and for every people in the world, this has become a vital matter. Again, you will observe the patience we have shown in this matter, how we have proceeded year after year arguing patiently, trying to make the other people understand, going to the United Nations, the United Nations passing resolutions and our trying to fulfil the directions of the U.N.O. Now another resolution has been passed (On 2 December 1950, the General Assembly passed a resolution calling upon India, Pakistan and South Africa to discuss at a round table conference the conditions of Asians in South Africa. It directed South Africa not to proceed with the implementation of the Group Areas Act, which provided for the separation of different ethnic groups and races, and suggested the setting up of a commission to hold negotiations if no decision was reached at the round table conference by 1 April 1951). As the resolutions go, we welcome this. What it will lead to I do not know. But again, one thing is certain. Whether it takes a month or a year or more, we shall not submit to any racialism in any part of the world" (Parliamentary Debate, 1950 : 424-25 and Prahlad Kumar & Suresh Kumar, 2014 : 36). India supported political liberation of Africa continent and post 1990s India contributed its economic solidarity with Africa in the globalization.

The cold war period has witnessed a marked increase in the economic integration of the world and emergence of numerous powerful trans-national actors and forces. State boundaries have

begun to loosen up, undermining their political importance. Rather these manmade boundaries are sometimes viewed as discontinuities or obstructions in the smooth flow of cross-national transactions. Now, the world is being increasingly viewed as a global village where international interdependence and mutual co-operation are the new mantras.

4. Conclusion

The political history of India and Africa at bilateral level and through NAM has experienced the changes in the international system and with the globalization of Post 1990 India supported NAM movement for the liberation of Southern Africa. Sh. Narasimha Rao came to power in June 1991 and affirmed the NAM objectives. Mr. Rao spoke in Tokyo in June 1992 and said, "The pursuit of Non-aligned foreign policy is even more relevant today than ever before. Non-alignment basically consists of the espousal of the right of nations to independence and development, regardless of the block phenomenon. Whether there is one bloc or more at a given moment, the urge of a non-aligned country would continue to be to maintain its independence, to take decisions according to its rights, not tagging itself in advance to others (M. S. Rajan. 1994 : 122). India took the forward position in the Draft Declaration during the 10th NAM Summit at Jakarta in 1992 and looking forward for the independence of South Africa. Finally, the 'Crime against Humanity' came to an end with the independence of South Africa on 16th April 1994 and India welcomed this move and supported ANC leader Nelson Mandela. The political history of India and Africa has achieved the complete independence with the freedom of South Africa from the clutches of apartheid and Nelson Mandela elected as President of South Africa.

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Bridging the Digital Divide in Education in India : Problems and Prospects

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'Digital divide', a multi-dimensional concept, is widely debated and researched globally, particularly during COVID-19 in context of online education for its economic, social and political consequences in the respective societies. Empirical studies have revealed that the existing gap between haves and have-nots in respect to access to ICTs and digital devices has led to exclusion, endangering social integration and hampering economic growth at global, regional and national levels. There exist multiple divides between men and women (gender), young and elderly (age grades), rich and poor (economic strata or classes), rural and urban (community background), lower and higher social strata (ethnic and caste categories), tribal and non-tribal, and most importantly between educated and non-educated ones at national level. The present paper is an attempt to explore the problem of digital divide in general and particularly with reference to online education during corona virus pandemic, to find out its causes and consequences as well as measures helpful in bridging digital divide. It has been revealed that there are

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many reasons and negative consequences of this digital divide. Though it is not impossible, still is a very difficult job requiring sincere efforts on the part of government, non-governmental organizations and more importantly community participation and commitment to the deprived and disadvantaged sections of society. Thrust has to be laid down on the development of infrastructures; increasing literacy level and connectivity provision; cost reduction, content creation, capacity building and augmentation; creation of core technologies etc. to bridge the gap of digital divide.

[Keywords : Digital divide, Digital inequality, COVID-19 pandemic, Online education, Deprived and weaker sections]

Despite very rapid increase in the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in India, there is a substantive level of inequality in use of digital technology in India. The extent of digital inequality across the rural-urban divide, across the economic classes, across the various social groups, and across the geographic regions in the form of States and districts is clearly visible. This has become more explicit now during the corona pandemic at various levels of educational institutions among students who can afford digital devices and access ICTs (haves) and those who can't afford (haves-not). This digital divide has resulted in widening the gap between men and women (gender), young and elderly (age grades), rich and poor (economic strata or classes), rural and urban, lower and higher social strata, educated and non-educated ones, tribal and non-tribal communities, deprived and weaker sections of societies like women, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and most importantly between those students who have easy access to devices and high speed internet facilities and those who are deprived of such facilities in India. This paper has been divided into following seven broad categories : *first*, meaning of digital divide; *secondly*, types of digital divide; *thirdly*, causes of digital divide; *fourthly*, consequences of digital divide; *fifthly*, manifestations of digital divide in education during pandemic; *sixthly*, the measures for bridging the digital divide in India; and *lastly*, conclusion.

1. Meaning of Digital Divide

The problem of digital divide or digital inequalities is global in nature that affects everyone from all walks of life. It has emerged as a growing concern in modern societies. This digital divide relates to disparities in access, actual use and use efficacy of digital resources. It is a multifaceted issue, but two main characteristics define this gap:

first, access to high-speed internet and *secondly*, access to reliable devices. Many of the individuals who struggle from the digital divide face both of them. In simple words, the digital divide or technology gap is defined as the gap that exists between those who have reliable internet access and devices and those with very limited access to both or none at all. In other words, it refers to the gap that exists between those who benefit from the Digital Age and those who don't. This is considered a problem as it increases the existing gap between gender, race and ethnicity, caste and class as well as rural and urban communities, or we may say haves and have-nots. This gap doesn't exist only in education and work places, but also between different individuals, households, business firms/enterprises and geographic areas at various socio-economic levels with regard to both the opportunities to access information and communication technologies (ICTs) and to use the Internet for a wide variety of activities in their respective fields.

According to Gunkel (2003), the origin of the term 'digital divide' remains uncertain and ambiguous.¹ The term digital divide dates back to mid-1990s when it replaced similar concepts such as 'information inequality', 'information gap' or 'knowledge gap', 'computer literacy' and 'media literacy'. Since then, this issue remains an important public policy debate that encompasses social, economic and political issues. Social scientists refer it to a broad range of social differences in accessing and using digital equipment and services (affecting 52% of women and 42% of men worldwide) increasing existing gap between different social strata. It is believed that this term was first used by the US Department of Commerce's National Telecommunications and Information Administration² as a deeply ambiguous term in the sharp dichotomy that separates those having access to new forms of ICTs from those who do not.

According to OECD (2001), the term "digital divide" refers to the gap between individuals, households, businesses and geographic areas at different socio-economic levels with regard both to their opportunities to access information and communication technologies (ICTs) and to their use of the Internet for a wide variety of activities.³ In other words, it is a divide between "haves" and "have-nots" so far as the use of the Internet is concerned. The digital divide reflects various differences among and within countries.

Recent COVID-19 pandemic, as stated by Beaunoyer et al. (2020)⁴, has highlighted digital divide in various fields, including

education, globally as many countries, individuals, households, countries and educational institutions have not been able to take advantage of the opportunities offered by digital technologies in online classes during long periods of successive lockdowns. This digital divide refers to the gap in access to, use of or impact of information and communication technology between individuals and households. In the field of education, it relates to students from various socio-economic background, including their gender and community backgrounds. Digital divide is definitely a reflection of existing socio-economic divide as well as divide between different politico-geographic regions in most of the developed and largely all the developing countries. It is worth mentioning that the digital divide has to be defined in terms both of access and of the use of ICT as well as affordability, quality and relevance as this divide in one field exacerbates divides in other fields. It has been emphasized that a multi-pronged strategy is required to handle the challenge and develop a resilient strategy in the long term in all the fields where this divide exists.

Van Dijk⁵ has criticized the underlining assumptions that it is a simple divide which is difficult to bridge; this divide is about absolute and not relative inequalities; and this divide is a static condition. Many scholars have emphasized that the term digital divide, in fact, echoes some kind of technological determinism having its origin in the inequalities in getting physical access to digital technology. Once these inequalities are overcome and there is such technology access for all in any society, the problem of digital divide would become redundant for that particular society.

We may say that the digital divide is probably one of the first concepts reflecting on the theme of the social impact caused by Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) on different segments of society. It is a problem that affects people from all walks of life. Hence, digital divide is labelled as a multifaceted issue. However, two prominent characteristics define the digital divide : firstly, access to high-speed internet and secondly, access to reliable devices. Many of the individuals who struggle from the digital divide globally do face both of them. These two characteristics are further related to affordability, quality and relevance. Another related issue is about capability to utilize available technology. The global digital divide is still seen as a consequence of socio-economic development and is often seen to exist between rich and poor

countries, between those in cities and in rural areas, between males and females, between the rich and the poor individuals, between literates and illiterates, between marginalized and well-off sections, between physically challenged and those without any disability.

2. Types of Digital Divide

The digital divide between any two entities is of various types. In fact, there are numerous types of the digital divide that influence users efforts in accessing the internet. Eszter Hargittai (2002)⁶ as well as Dewan and Riggins (2005)⁷ has categorized it in the following two types :

1. **First order digital divide** : This digital divide refers to the difference in access to and utilization of technologies. In other words, this type of digital divide deals with access to digital infrastructure and online tools. For instance, internet penetration rates in different countries or access rates between rich (“haves”) and poor (“haves-not”) sections of society within the same country.
2. **Second order digital divide** : This digital divide refers to the difference in skills or capabilities to use devices among those who have access to ICTs and can benefit from their effective use. In other words, this digital divide deals with the development of digital literacy and digital capabilities. Here the focus is on possible gaps in the use of the internet, online tools and digital environments. An example of second order digital divide is the gap in online capabilities of younger and older people or rural and urban students during online classes.

The digital divide is also categorized in the following two types :

1. **Gender divide** : according to this divide, women are still lagging in access to the internet as compared to men globally, especially in most of the developing countries. In certain countries (such as Africa or the Arab States), the gender gap is more pronounced.
2. **Social divide** : Internet access and usage has influenced social stratification which is evident in societies among those who are connected to the internet and those that are not. This creates social divide among people with shared interests. For, example, social media platforms like Twitter and Facebook create online

peer groups based on similar interests. This leads to exclusion of non-connected groups.

3. **Universal access divide** : This divide is related to those people who lack digital literacy skills, low education levels, and inadequate broadband infrastructure. Even those with physical disabilities are often disadvantaged when it comes to accessing the internet.
4. **Access and usage gap** : This is related to certain population groups being unable to access ICTs and lack sufficient digital skills to use ICTs on a personal or professional level.
5. **Generation gap** : This is related to inter-generational access and usage of digital skills. It has been shown evidently that aging population (between 65 and 74 years of age) has low digital skills as compared to younger generation. This gap is also related and manifested in economic as well as rural-urban divide.

3. Causes of Digital Divide

It is true that the access to computers and the internet continues to grow unabated, still the digital divide dramatically also continues to persist at an alarming rate due to the following reasons :

1. The digital divide stems from the gradual spread of the latest technologies. Rich countries have enough resources to make use of these new technologies as compared to those developing countries who not only lag behind the spread of the latest technologies, but also don't have sufficient resources and skills for taking advantage of these technologies. Language, political and cultural customs are the main reasons for the inability to use them. Not only this, lack of physical infrastructure, network, software, etc. is also responsible for the digital divide in most of the developing countries.
2. Sometimes government policies are not conducive for the expansion and development of technology resulting in delays in the expansion of latest data technology creating a visible digital divide not only in developing and developed countries, but also the "haves" and "have-nots" within the same country.
3. The digital divide is also a matter of private choice as it depends on the motivation and desire to use latest internet technologies.

This results, in somewhat ambiguous digital gap. It has been shown that there is a portion of the global population that has the necessary income, education and computer literacy, but have zero interest to learn about the potential of the internet due to their apprehension that this is a luxury and also too complicated to comprehend.

4. Another important cause of widening the digital divide is low literacy levels among some sections of the society who are deprived and marginalized. It has been proved time and again that highly educated people do have much more capabilities to tap into the full potential of the internet and computers in their day-to-day lives as compared to those who have low literacy levels. Digital literacy is said to be dependent upon level of education, higher the level of education, higher is the digital literacy and vice versa.
5. Besides low literacy levels, the income gap also plays a considerable role in magnifying the digital divide. High-income earners and wealthy families do own computers and high-speed internet connection at home than low-income families whose earnings are channeled towards basic needs and computers and high-speed internet are luxury for them.
6. Geographical restrictions like rural-urban divide and areas near international borders also widen the digital divide. Urban regions are more likely to have access to 4G, 5G or fiber optic internet network as compared to rural regions, border regions or mountainous zones.

4. Consequences of Digital Divide

Digital divide has created significant distinctions globally. Some of the most important consequences of digital divide are as follows :

1. **Increase in inequalities among different groups :** Differential accessing and use of ICTs has resulted in manifold inequalities among various groups. Digital divide prevents part of the population from getting benefits of ICTs. This has been amply demonstrated during the lockdown due to COVID-19 pandemic when a number of students suffered from their online classes as they lacked the right tools and high speed

internet facilities. Similar has been the case for some adult people during work from home.

2. **Difficulty in accessing education** : the lack of access to ICTs makes it difficult for both children and adults to access education. According to a report by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), published together with UNICEF, 63% of young people between 15 and 24 years of age do not have an internet connection at home.
3. **A barrier to accessing work** : people face greater difficulties in finding a job, not only because digital know-how is increasingly necessary but also because they are unable to check online job websites where these offers are published.
4. **Social isolation** : Social isolation, especially as a result of the pandemic, has increased among people who do not have access to the Internet. Additionally, people living in rural areas without reception are virtually cut off from communication services.
5. **Social differences** : The obstacles to connecting to the digital world make the differences between groups more evident. Digital divide reinforces existing social inequality and social differences. Today, it has been revealed that the divisions of age, gender, ethnicity, labour, education and nation or region are the most important factors in explaining digital inequality in all societies.
6. **Geographical differences** : Digital divide leads to geographical differences as these are also intensified between regions and countries, which directly affects their possibilities for growth. It is not only limited to the differences in developing and developed countries, but geographical restrictions within a country also widen the digital divide. This is the reason that the urban regions are said to be more likely to have access to fast internet than rural or mountainous zones.
7. **Dependence and vulnerability** : Digital divide and technological discrimination means that some people have less independence in performing certain tasks, which in turn makes them more vulnerable (e.g., digital crime). Vulnerable segments of the population in a society risk falling further behind in accessing socio-economic opportunities.

8. **Economic recession :** COVID-19 pandemic led to the complete restrictions on people's socio-economic activities globally to limit its spread, resulting in the slowdown of economic growth and even recession. The economic gap widened especially within developing countries which lack adequate ICT integration. Scenes of migrant labourers walking on foot to reach their native villages hundred of miles away was terrible in India. Lakhs of people lost their jobs and the government packages helped the poor families.
9. **Impact of digital divide on society :** With socio-economic divisions already present in today's societies, the digital divide has compounded the effects. It has contributed to the segregation of individuals and groups in the society based on ethnicity, age, race, and gender due to the differential access and use of ICTs. Technology has created new alignments among groups with access to the internet and those without access. Those with limited access continue to lag hindering their growth and development.

Besides the above consequences of digital divide, it is also said to lead to change in political behaviour, especially political participation, job opportunities, communication, consumer satisfaction, health information, community involvement, e-governance, and emergency information. Its consequences on cultural practices has been well documented. Even some social scientists like W. F. Ogburn⁸ hold that the cultural lag appears when technological innovations move faster than social innovations.

5. Manifestations of Digital Divide in Education during Pandemic

COVID-19 has massively disrupted people's lives and livelihoods, and has one of the most profound impacts on education. The digital divide between students and educational institutions at various levels has increased alarming. Factors like necessary technology, lack of internet access and up-to-date devices, lack of technology-based skills among teachers and students, varying teaching styles etc. contribute to digital divide in education. This divide was clearly evident during online classes at the time of pandemic when all the educational institutions were closed for successive periods of lockdowns. It is estimated that more than 276

million children have been out of school for extended periods of lockdowns since March 2020 in India.

The access and use of ICTs are closely associated with academic success at various levels and robust research activities in higher education. The inadequacy of ICT equipment has made the already weak education system in the developing countries even more ineffective. The rapid shift to e-learning prompted by the coronavirus pandemic has resurfaced long-standing issues of inequality and a digital divide in India. As a consequence, the education system in India is facing a new crisis.

According to recent UNICEF-supported surveys⁹, it has been revealed that nearly 40 per cent of families expressed concerns about the damages that the COVID-19 crisis had on the education of their children. Not only this, half of the parents also revealed that distance learning or online education was ineffective for many reasons like lack of resources, limited access to internet, lack of support from adult family members and difficulties to connect with teachers. It has to be underlined that online education is inimical to inclusivity and access. Not only this, a move towards online education is likely to dismantle the transformational potential of university spaces, and usher in a commodification of learning. Besides, a thrust for online education hides access disparities caused by the digital divide, but also fails to provide a space for active teacher–student and student–student socialization, which plays an important role in the process of learning. the commutative impact of all these hurdles makes the bridging of digital divide a more difficult task.

Reddy et. al. (2020) have rightly concluded in the above context that “the double whammy of low access and deep digital divide will possibly exclude a large majority of students from actively participating in and benefitting from online education.”¹⁰ This is due to the fact that we don’t have the availability of strong internet connectivity and modern-day electronic gadgets, which are the fundamental requirements for the success of online teaching. It is well-known fact that India ranks very low with respect to digital infrastructure available in developed and some of the developing countries

6. The Measures for Bridging the Digital Divide in India

To bridge the digital divide, it is necessary to act on all fronts and apply measures from different sectors. However, it must be emphasized that the digital divide can’t be bridged completely. When when

the whole world population would reach access to the digital media such as the internet, inequalities of digital skills, usage and outcomes or benefits will remain and even tend to grow. The only solution is to hit hard on the root causes of digital divide, which is not an easy task. The state governments as well as central government have to hammer on infrastructural barriers, literacy and skill barriers, economic barriers, content barriers, and language barriers etc.

The push towards online classes and use of digital technology in primary, secondary and higher education predates the pandemic, but it has garnered greater public attention due to pandemic-induced curbs on physical meetings and spaces. It dates back to 2011, when the BharatNet project was launched to connect 0.25 million panchayats through an optical fibre (100 MBPS) and connect India's villages. It was further reinforced by National Digital Literacy Mission and the Digital Saksharta Abhiyan in 2014; Digital India campaign and Internet Saathi Program in 2015; PM Gramin Digital Saksharta Abhiyan and DIKSHA (Digital Infrastructure for Knowledge Sharing) platform in 2017; and Gyandoot service in 2000 etc. Some of the other notable schemes/programmes include Optical Fibre Network (NOF-N) for panchayats, eVidya, Unnati project, Gyandoot, digital mobile library, Online Massive Open Online Course (MOOC), on air Shiksha Vani, DAISY by NIOS for differently-abled, e-Path Shala etc.

The New National Education Policy announced by the government in July 2020 has, inter alia, evangelized “online” tools as a game-changer in education and has encouraged their adoption. It is evident from its objective of making “India a global knowledge superpower”. However, all these initiatives have proved insufficient. There is urgent need for developing infrastructure necessary for promoting digital literacy among all sections of society and also the content creation for students in regional languages. India has to adopt more realistic policy for digital literacy keeping in mind the diversity of population.

7. Conclusion

The unequal access to ICTs has led to the digital divide globally. Although India has made encouraging efforts to bridge the gap by initiating a number of projects and programmes for rural and remote locations, a lot more needs to be done to bring the people into the information society. Digital divide policy has to focus both on

physical access as well as improving digital skills. There is urgent need to foster e-learning. It must be mentioned that the bridging of the digital divide is the best way to overcome socio-economic differences also. Though, the Government of India had started taking significant steps towards acquiring competence in ICTs to cope with India's digital divide, still much more serious and honest efforts are needed to achieve the goal.

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Use of Social Media in Social Activism

Sanjeev Mahajan* and Umesh Kumar**

Now-a-days, digital social networking is part of human life, people use social media for expressing their feeling and showing their routine activity in form of pictures and video. Sometimes post done by individual on social media got viral and reached to one pole of earth to another pole, because of high network strength of social media. This power of social media is utilizing by many social activist and political leaders. They are using social media platforms as alternative media to express their thoughts, to protests and to polarized the common people. On the bases of secondary data available on role of social media in social activism we have concluded that social media has very large impact on society. social activists and political leaders are using social media for their purposes.

[Keywords : Social media, Activism, Politics, Women, Scheduled castes, Polarization]

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1. Introduction

World is changing rapidly, this era is known as digital era because now days we are living in sphere of technology. Technology is a part of life from home to office we required technology at many events. Today person wake up in morning by digital alarm clock, communicate by mobile phones, write in note pad, book food, cab, by software and many more (Ngozi Nwosu, 2022). As said by Aristotle "Man is Social Animal". It means social interaction is crucial part of human life style. Modern man uses digital social networking or we can say social media for social interaction. Today's generation is very familiar with social media. We can observe that every single person has minimum one account in any social networking sites. Social media has became the part of life, people use it not just as communication media but also as platform to express their feelings and to show the daily activity in form of pictures or video media. People has many uses of social media in different dimensions like they share their experience while travelling, share ideas for cooking, home decoration. Social media also puts impact in politics, economy, social life or in culture of society. Contemporary generation also using social media to express their feelings to state or administration, by doing online protests, the frequency of these online protests are increasing day by day (Ulrike Gretzel, 2018).

It is seen that with the increasing popularity of social media, social media activism is gaining popularity. Many political parties in India as well as in foreign using social media in election campaigning. Social movement demands fast and clear communication, which can be achieved by social networking (Dhiraj Murthi, 2018) As the name shows, social media is a media for society, by society. it has seen that social media is emerging as Alternative to main stream media

2. Objective of the Paper

This research paper will examine the use of social media in social activism in different dimensions like women activism and movements, scheduled caste assertion and activism, impact of social media on political polarization.

3. Methodology

This paper is based on secondary data and we have used method of content analysis for collection on secondary data.

4. Use of Social Media in Women Activism

Feminists are using social media for protest against gender discrimination and harassment. Due to this many social media movements came into existence. Let us examine some social media based feminist movements.

#Me_Too : It is the movements against sexual harassment. Basically it has started in 1997 by Tarana Burke, a American social activist. A formal campaign launched in 2007 but after 10 years in October, 2017 movement gained prominence and momentum after impose of multiple allegation of sexual harassment against Hollywood producer Harvey Weinstein. Hollywood actress Alyssa Milano speak up against sexual exploitation under #Me_too. In next 10 days movement got global response. Harvey Weinstein harass more than 70 women, #Me_too used 12 million times and retweeted 24000 times. In same year a Law student, Raya Sarkar from University of California accused 50 professor under Me_too movement (Rathi, MDU Rohtak, 2020).

This movement came to India also. We have some following notable examples :

In 2017, approximate 25 home guards accused their commissioner for sexual harassment. Singer Sona Mohapatra accused singer and music composer Anu Malik and Kailash Kher for sexual assault. A bollywood actress Tanushree Datta imposed allegation against well known actor Nana patekar for sexual exploitation in 2009 (Abhinav Bansal,2021).

5. Use of Social media in Scheduled Caste Activism

Approximate all scheduled caste activist do not believe in main stream media. They are working at alternative media like social media and print media. But due to high reach of social media to the public, most of the activist gives priority to social media (Kanishk Verma, 2020).

5.1 Some Notable Social Media Channels/Accounts

There are some notable social media channels/accounts which are in active status this time. They are as follows :

1. **Tathagatlive** : This channel belongs to Anjul bahmroliya, who lives in Gwalior, Madhya Pradesh. He makes daily life video vlogs under the theme of Ambedkarism.

2. **Jai Bhim** : This channel is started by young boy Jacky, he is radio jockey by profession. He lives in Nagpur and uses his skills and talent to make video.
3. **The Shudra** : It is the web news platform, which is operated by Sumit chahuhan, a dalit reporter.
4. **The News Beak** : It is a Youtube channel which has news as a main content but also makes documentaries. This channel also belongs to Mr. Sumit Chauhan.
5. **Dilip Mondal** : Dilip mondal is dalit activist and former chief editor in "the Print". Basically he raise his voice by twitter account with almost 320K followers.
6. **Ambedkarnama** : A History Professor from Delhi University, Dr. RatanLal also has position in Dalit Activism, Ambedkar-nama is a youtube channel at which he review the literature and newspaper article written by Babasaheb Ambedkar.
7. **Mission Ambedkar** : It is a Twitter account with 63K followers. This account is working for SC/ST/OBC for their rights and managing equality.
8. **The Untold Ambedkar** : It is a Youtube channel which mainly makes video about the incident happened in babasaheb's life. This channel is operated by Mr. Sumit, who is IT engineer and works in Dell.
9. **National Dastak** : National Dastak is a Youtube Channel, which works on news. National dastak channel is operated by team. Mr. Shambhu singh is a famous reporter among Scheduled caste youth. He works in this channel.
10. **The Activist** : It is also a news broadcasting platform. It has two faces, a youtube channel with following and a facebook page with impressive following. This channel is run by Mr. Ved Prakash.
11. **The Cover** : This is a youtube channel run by Sunny singh jatav. This news channel basically focuses on Political news.
12. **Arjak Sangh TV** : This is youtube channel which belongs to the organization named as Arjak Sangh. The team of this channel make videos which are generally anti-blindfaith.
13. **Koli Times** : This is also a News Channel, works on Youtube. Biographies of historical dalit personality and Politics are the main content of it

The list has not over yet, there are many other social media platform working as activist and news broadcasters.

5.2 Some Notable Social Media Movements By Scheduled Caste

We can see some recent trends on social media, launched and run by scheduled caste activists, like :

1. **#SureshMoochRakhega** : A 22 years old dalit young boy was assaulted by group of six member. The reason was only a "Sporting a moustache". When case went viral on social media the scheduled caste activists started this campaign on social media. That results in FIR on 6 alleged boys.
2. **#DalitLivesMatter** : Dalit activists started this campaign to tease the so called upper cast, the upper caste were campaigning on social media in protest for black American killed by police officer.
3. **#TaxfreeJaiBHIM** : The movie was released in 2 Nov 2021, but when the government did tax free Kashmir files then the scheduled caste activist started campaigning for re releasing Jai Bhim in cinema on tax free conditions.
4. **#DravidianModel** : This campaign was going viral throughout the social media for the support of MK Stalin the CM of Tamil Nadu. The current CM of Tamil Nadu believe in philosophy of Periyar. This campaign was running against the Gujrat Model and Kejriwal Model.
5. **#DalitHistoryMonth** : The Scheduled caste activist was running this campaign because of celebration of April month. This month includes many important historical events like Samrat Ashoka Jayanti, Jyotiba Rao Phule Jayanti, Babasaheb Ambedkar Jayanti. Etc.
6. **#DeathOfMeghwal** : This is the Case from Rajeshtan, two young man with casteist Mindset killed the man Jitendra Meghwal, a COVID health worker. The reason was only his Good looks and moustache.

6. Social Media as tool for Freedom of Expression

The rise of many political and social movement through social media, indicates us that common man is more comfortable on social media that protesting on streets. Social activist use social media as primary platform to protest against wrongs by elites of society. these

protests are basically nonviolent in nature. Like the movement #BlackLivesMatter is a social media movement against racial discrimination thinking in USA. Also #RRB_Result, #NTPC_Exam is a movement by Indian students against recruiting board (Halt Kristoffer, Freedom of Expression, Democratic Discourse and Social media, 2020).

7. Use of Social Media in Politics

The question arises, is there any connection between Social media and politics? Let us see some important political events around the world, which has driven through social media and then come to this question again.

7.1 #YoSoy132 (I am 132)

This social media movement happened in Mexico in 2012. There was a political party Institutional Republican Party(PRI), which had been in power since 1990. At the time of presidential election in 2012, there were two opposition parties Party of Democratic Revolution (PRD) and National Action Party(PAN). The opposition were campaigning against PRI on the issues like Economic crises and crime on street. On may 11, 2012 young PRI leader Enrique Pena Nieto and also a president figure by PRI went to private Jesuit university. At where university student was expressing their anger towards PRI because two national TV channels refuses to broadcast the debate on economic crises. Some university students protest for it, but Nieto refuses the protest and said only 131 students were showing unrest. This statement created a big issue and a protest emerged in a single night. The #YoSoy132 started circulating on Facebook, Twitter, Youtube etc. that social media protest lead to power shift in Mexico (Javier/contreras Alcantara, 2017).

7.2 Twitter Campaign, 2011 National Election in Slovenia

This campaign done against ruling government because of economic crises,2009. Political Leaders of opposition were very active approx 64% MP has Facebook account, 66% Government ministers has Twitter Account. the political leaders and common people started a campaign in evening, the reason behind were problems emerged due to economic crises. Social media campaign lead to dissolution of parliament and pre-term election (Bongdon Patrut and Monica Patrut, 2018 : 141-164).

7.3 Facebook in Turkish General Election, 2011

Social researchers recorded 9 Facebook account for 3 months while execution of general election. The results were very surprising. It is seen that common people those were engaged with these social media accounts, were more likely to participate in street campaigning and give their most time to political activities and discourse (Bongdon Patrut and Monica Patrut, 2018 : 165-200).

7.4 Social Media in USA Presidential Election, 2012

In that general election formal President Obama was claiming to seat of President, his opponent was Romney. Obama and democrats used social media mostly Facebook and twitter. He appealed to people to register themselves in voting list, volunteer your time, donate money. His tweets were very enthusiastic and he always tried to motivate people by his posts. As result Obama won the presidential election (Bongdon Patrut and Monica Patrut, 2018 : 201-212).

8. Use of Social Media in Political Polarization in India

Social media has a pivotal role in doing political polarization in society. Indian political parties have their own IT and communication cell. India's leading political party BJP has it own very developed IT cell house. Congress and other parties also have their IT cell. They spread their agenda by social networking. We can observe some notable events like when output report of demonetization released, the report said that 99% of currency get back to bank. But BJP IT sell started spreading that demonetization get successful. When Kejriwal's Aam Aadmi Party won the Delhi state election, most of the analyst claimed that Facebook and twitter plays important role. For their victory They used social media to show their Delhi education model to common man. These example shows us that social media has some power to polarized people (Tabreez Ahmed Neyazi, 2017).

9. Conclusion

As the above discussion we can conclude that social media has large impact on society, it can mould the social perspective, as we have seen some examples like many political parties are using social media for their campaign, many social and women activist are using social media for expressing and spreading their movement to common people. Although it is debatable that social media should be

censor or not but it is definitely emerging as strong tool for freedom of expression and for the development of democracy.

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Consolidation of Economic Empowerment of India and Africa

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India and Africa have a long and rich history of interactions of cultural, economic and political exchanges based on the principle of South-South Cooperation. In recent years, a number of steps have been taken to further and strengthen these relations for the consolidation of economic empowerment. An attempt has been made in this paper to analyze the consolidation of economic empowerment of India and Africa using secondary sources of data. It has been underlined that Africa as a whole, for Indian business, is still a largely uncharted territory. The existing level of business ties between India and Africa does not reflect the full potential. Present there is a need particularly to work as building block to realize the Pan Afro-Asia vision through a bilateral and multilateral socio-economic cooperation. Besides economic ties, there is a need to build people to

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people contact programme in understanding each other culture, language, traditions and ethics.

[**Keywords** : Economic empowerment, Political economy, EAC, SADC, African Union]

1. Introduction

India @75 years of independence celebrations, Mr. Narendra Damodardas Modi, Prime Minister of India profoundly declared the five vows (PanchPran) in his address to the nation from the Red Fort on 15th August 2022 and conveyed :

1. Resolution of a developed India,
2. Liberate ourselves from the slavery mind set and erase all traces of servitude,
3. Proud of our heritage and legacy,
4. Unity and solidarity, and
5. Sense of duty among citizens (DD, 2022).

Along with it, he overwhelmingly announced to cleanse the country from corruption and ill effects of nepotism in the National and State politics of India and will be elaborated further. The present political development reiterates its ancient foreign policy believing in VasudhaivaKutumbakam meant the world as one family. The history of VasudhaivaKutumbakam refers to India's supremacy in the social, economic and political arenas. Will Durant analyzed the Indian economy and written in 1930 and quoted Sunderland, "Indian wealth was created by the Hindus' vast and varied industries. Nearly every kind of manufacture or product known to the civilized world-nearly every kind of creation of Man's brain and hand, existing anywhere, and prized either for its utility or beauty-had long, long been produced in India. India was a far greater industrial and manufacturing nation than any in Europe or than any other in Asia. Her textile goods-the fine products of her looms, in cotton, wool, linen and silk-were famous over the civilized world, so were her exquisite jewelry and her precious stones cut in every lovely for, so were her pottery, porcelains, ceramics of every kind, quality, colour and beautiful shape, so were her fine works in metal-iron, steel, silver and gold. She had great architecture-equal in beauty to any in the world. She had great merchants, great business men, great bankers and financiers. Not only was she the greatest ship-building nation, but she

had great commerce and trade by land and sea which extended to all known civilized countries. Such was the India which British found when they came" (Will Durant, 1930 : 8-9). India's economically was empowered in the world and is the richest nation at that time.

Analyzing the population and income magnitude of GDP from the year 1000 AD, India attracts 27.8% of its GDP, the highest of the world income (Angnus Maddison, 2022 : net). But the colonizers had devastated the India and African economy. Findlay Ronald and Kenvin (2007) explained that 'cotton textiles and silks from India and porcelain from China were the leading manufactured exports in the world economy until the late 18th century. During the 19th century, merchants from India, using both its coasts, plied the Indian Ocean for more than one thousand years and competed on equal terms with European trading companies. The political institutions and empires or dynasties in Asian countries were sophisticated and formidable in terms of strong military, productive agriculture and vibrant commerce.' The slavery was a small part of the economic life of many societies in Africa until the introduction of transcontinental slave trades (Arab and Atlantic). European industrialization has shown that the changes started by 1820, which led to de-industrialization of the India and Africa over the next three centuries. 'Yet in 1820, less than 200 years ago, Asia, Africa and Latin America still accounted for almost two-thirds of the world's manufacturing production. China and India were the manufacturing hubs that contributed 50 percent of world industrial production even in 1820' (Deepak Nayyar, 2013). Both India and Africa have worked for their economic development and are ready to function on mutual basis. Today, India's ancient philosophy of Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam has taken the front seat as far as India's foreign policy is concerned and functioning accordingly.

Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam of our Vedic period in India explains Indian ideals of wisdom that narrates this world is one family or Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam and the entire world as a nest (yatra visvambavatyanidam). The world is one family reciprocates the idea of globalization and market liberalism in which any person from any part of the world can travel to any part of globe and live like a family member in that society. Advances in modern communication technology and subsequent globalization has made the vision of our ancient saintsof Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam come true by creating this well-connected global village.

Africa continent strives towards development and is generating enormous demand today for infrastructure, appropriate technologies and capacity building for facilitating local value addition to its abundant natural resources, augmenting local production to meet the demands of the growing middle class and generating employment through development of small and medium industries. It covers the areas like infrastructure, telecommunications, information technology, energy, water and sanitation, health care, pharmaceutical sector and human resource development. Today, fifty-four African countries of the continent and India work as sovereign states having constitution, democratic elected government, multi-party systems and rule of law along with the socio-cultural affinities. This socio-cultural bonding has strong historical connectivity.

2. Consolidation of Political Economy

Post 1990s, there seems to be a reversal of the process of strictly confining cultures and people within the rigid boundaries. Today the concept of global human family and sincere efforts to dismantle manmade barriers among nations and people is much talked about. This unifying tendency has been made possible only because of the progress in science and technology that has led to vanishing of distances. Disappearance of geographical inaccessibility of the world has reduced it to a small village, a 'global village'. Global as it envisages that all the people of the globe are member of one big extended family. The term 'village' conveys that all the people are connected with each other frequently in endearing ways, sharing experiences and emotions of joy and sorrow, having feeling of brotherhood and readiness to help one another. This pleasant combination of all the people of the world in harmony with their environment and having a sense of shared identity, shared ideals and common purpose can truly be called a global family.

Even today, "the government uses this foreign policy goal on all the different international platforms right from the UNO, UNHCR, European Union, ASEAN, African Union, SAARC to bilateral countries deliberations. India has actively engaged in resolving the issues of Yemen, Nepal, Mozambique, Fiji, negotiations of Paris Agreement and now the COVID-19 pandemic under the driving force of 'Vaccine Maitri' (Vaccine Friendship). India fulfilled the global demand of pharmaceuticals and medical capabilities and made possible high recovery rate and cognizant of low fatality rates at

domestic level.Keeping age old relations with Africa, India under Vaccine Maitri campaign had sent more than 210,000 vials of COVID-19 Vaccine to 43 African countries in the initial stages. India's assurance of vaccine production and delivery capacity to help all humanity in fighting this pandemic to the UN General Assembly in September 2020 'is not only in keeping our age-old tradition of Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam but to utilize India's growing capacities for the benefit of humankind. We have never seen a contradiction between this internationalism and the nationalism that endeavors at nation building' (Vaccine Maitri Initiative, 2021) and the global community has appreciated it. India delivered these vaccinations to the global world irrespective to any partiality and not to strengthen their trade policy, business expansion or any other business plan but to fulfill its foreign policy objective of Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam" (Suresh Kumar, 2021 : 104-105).

The contemporary international politics requires regional mutual cooperation not only in terms of political but social and economic cooperation are in their priority on equal terms. East Africa particularly East Africa Community (EAC) is a group of three major countries of East Africa namely Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya. 'The East African Legislative Assembly enacted the East African Community Customs Management Act, 2004 on 16th December 2004, and will apply uniformly in East Africa. This Act will govern the administration of the Customs Union, including legal, administrative and operational matters. The Act provides for a transitional decentralized administrative structure for the EAC Customs Union. Within this decentralized set up, the day-to-day operations of customs including collection of revenue will continue to be managed and administered by the respective National Revenue Authorities. The newly established Directorate of Customs, under the EAC Secretariat, will initiate policy issues, coordinate and monitor customs and trade related activities in East Africa' (Suresh Kumar, 2022 : online).

Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) agreed that underdevelopment, exploitation, deprivation and backwardness in Southern Africa would be overcome through economic cooperation and integration. One of the major aims to achieve SADC objectives is to "secure international understanding, cooperation and support and mobilize the inflow of public and private resources into the region" (SADC Objective, 1980). Today, the new market economy influenced

the SADC as a regional bloc. SADC is moving ahead with the objectives to build regional community, peace, security, democratic governance and economic integration. The Chairperson of SADC and Mauritius Prime Minister writes, "I am confident that the SADC vision, the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan and the Strategic Indicative Plan of the Organ provide us with a road map for the development of our community over the next decade. As we re-engineer our own regional integration process, we also need to foster better linkages with the other regional economic communities in consonance with the African Union's vision, Mission and Strategic Plan.Our common destiny is also linked to the closeness of the relations we seek to establish with the rest of the world, beyond our continent. In this respect, I am deeply grateful to India for the commitment it has shown in helping us achieve our key objectives in a spirit of Afro-Asian friendship, solidarity and partnership. ---India and SADC are bound by common history and a shared vision of the future" (SADC At 25, August 2005). Along with it, SADC has set up an Organ on 'Politics, Defence and Security Cooperation' under the leadership of Mr. Thabo Mbeki, President of the Republic of South Africa. It has energized continental mechanisms for conflict prevention, management and resolution. To promote real democracy in this region, national elections are conducted under 'Governing Democratic Election' adopted at the SADC Summit in Mauritius in the year 2004 (Suresh Kumar, 2022 : online).

The Sub-Saharan region particularly Francophone Africa growth has been resilient, but it continues to face a wide range of development challenges, which undermine macroeconomic stability and the long-run growth potential, adverse weather conditions and natural disasters that generate high output volatility; infrastructure and health conditions that hold back productivity growth. This region's need to redouble their efforts is firmly articulated in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), EBID- the Bank for Investment and Development of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), ECOWAS Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and ECOWAS Regional Investment Bank (ERIB).

2.1 India and East Africa

Today, there is a need particularly to work as building block to realize the Pan Afro-Asia vision through a bilateral and multilateral socio-economic cooperation. EAC Custom Union signed on 1st

January 2005 and India looks forward to it. The EAC Customs Union will create a single market of over 90 million people and a combined GDP of around US\$30 billion. The main goals of the East African Community Customs Union focuses upon 'liberalizing intra-regional trade in goods on the basis of mutually beneficial trade arrangements among the Partner States, promoting efficiency in production, enhancing domestic, cross border trade and foreign investment, promoting economic development and diversification as well as industrialization, liberalizing intra-regional trade in goods on the basis of mutually beneficial trade arrangements among the Partner States, promoting efficiency in production, enhancing domestic, cross border trade and foreign investment and promoting economic development and diversification as well as industrialization' (Suresh Kumar, 2022 : online).

The economic development needs to be strengthened between India-EAC on mutual foundation based on their indigenous social and economic environment. EAC trade promotion under Article six mentions that the Partner States shall initiate trade facilitation by 'reducing the number and volume of documentation required in respect of trade among the Partner States; adopting common standards of trade documentation and procedures within the community where international requirements do not suit the conditions prevailing among the Partner States; ensuring adequate co-ordination and facilitation of trade and transport activities within the Community; regularly reviewing the procedures adopted in international trade and transport facilitation with a view to simplifying and adopting them for use by the Partner States; collecting and disseminating information on trade and trade documentation; promoting the development and adoption of common solutions to problems in trade facilitation among the Partner States; and establishing joint training programmes on trade' (Suresh Kumar, 2022 : online).

Today, India is known in various sectors such as infrastructure development (railway, road, airports, sea corridors and port development, construction of tourism, medical colleges, residential complexes, parliamentary buildings, tele-communication, power generation and others), agriculture and food processing, printing and publishing, small and medium scale industries and pharmaceuticals. Along with it, there is a need to assert EAC and India as building block to realize the Pan Afro-Asia vision through a Common Union. India

should observe the strategic areas of great economic importance of EAC member states like trade liberalization, custom cooperation, trade related issues, industry and energy, monetary affairs, agriculture, economic and social development. A vast experience and potential of Indian agricultural economy desires to contribute it with Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. It will strengthen the ongoing export and imports with the individual country and as a part of EAC on the one hand and fulfills the objectives of the EAC Customs Union on the other hand. The specific objectives of the EAC Customs Union highlights 'creating a Common External Tariff (CET) regime for goods originating from outside East Africa, establishing Common Customs Laws and Regulations, which will apply uniformly in the Partner States and harmonizing and simplifying customs procedures and documentation' (Suresh Kumar, 2022 : online).

3. EAC Tariff and India Prerequisite

3.1 Common External Tariff

A three-band Common External Tariff structure of 0%, 10% and 25% will apply to goods imported into East Africa. A selected list of sensitive items shall attract rates above 25% as an additional protection measure for similar locally produced products. The preferential treatment under COMESA and SADC shall continue to apply during the transition period. India needs so structure between 0 and 10% that help EAC to get the products in its best amount produced range and supplying the goods to EAC will benefit India.

3.2 Internal Tariff Trade

The EAC Internal tariff trade on goods originating and traded among the Partner States will attract a zero tariff. In the transition period of 5 years, a limited number of goods from Kenya to Uganda and Tanzania will attract minimal rates of duty in keeping with the principal of asymmetry. The zero tariff rates shall commence to apply on goods that satisfy the Rules of Origin for the EAC. This internal tariff treatment will enhance trade between the Partner States, resulting into better resource allocation and increased productivity within the EAC. India should adopt the same kind of structure (0-10%) to receive the indigenous goods from EAC. These tariff systems well enhance the bi-lateral and multi-lateral trade with in the EAC region that will strengthen Indo-Africa economic cooperation.

3.3 The Contribution of India's offer to EAC

India produces electricity through the water dams and supplying it to the neighbor countries. EAC region is full of big waterfalls and India will provide the necessary skill that help to build the region a self-dependent in terms of electricity power generation.

EAC region needs the training and technical knowledge in the mining areas like coal mines, gold mines, precious mines, oil exploration and mine-crashers to prepare small stones, and other things as per requirement of the road building, railway links, house development sector and others.

India is attracting the international tourists on Eco-tourism like National Reserve Forests, National Tiger Reserve, National Bird Centuries, Lakes and developing River Basins and organizing regional handicraft fairs in the different states. The EAC region keeps a long tradition of handicraft industries, natural dense forests, deep vegetation, deep river basins, water falls, etc that need India's experience to keep the natural sanctity on the one hand and provide the employment to the rural youth on the other hand.

The agriculture sector of India can no doubt raise their food production, storage techniques and building a self-sufficient region. Along with it, the herb industry will be developed in EAC region because of their geo-morphological environment.

3.4 India and SADC

SADC on economic front is setting up of legal frameworks providing a wide array of fiscal and non-fiscal incentives to new business, duty free on raw materials and equipment and encourage joint venture. SADC established different centers to promote trade like Zimbabwe Investment Center, Namibian Investment Center and Enterprise Mauritius. SADC provides institutional guarantee under Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) to attract investors in investing their money in any SADC member states. SADC implemented the liberalization of intra-regional trade on September 1st, 2000 and decided to establish SADC as Free Trade Area by 2008.

SADC countries' principal exports continue to be sold in world markets. There are limited prospects in the short- to medium term of increased exports to SADC despite preferential market access (except for South Africa). 'The entire SADC regional market is very small by international standards with aggregate gross domestic product

(GDP) of about US\$ 187.7 billion in 2000, of which South Africa contributes over 70%' (SADC, 2021 : online). This limits the scope for an inward-looking regional trade strategy. Therefore, for many SADC members (if not all) the SADC Trade Protocol is only useful if it is used as a platform for improving global competitiveness.

Overall, there are mainly three barriers to move forward India-SADC economic cooperation highlights 'the non-uniform trade regulations in the SADC countries in many cases proved to be a major stumbling block for increased intra-regional trade, the average poor transport infrastructure in the region nullified the geographical advantage of the region and the poor communication infrastructure is adversely affecting trade relations in the SADC region' (Suresh Kumar, 2022: online). As a result, India and others are having lack of information about the regional market both in terms of demand and supply conditions.

3.5 India and African Union

With a view to significantly enhance India's trade with Africa, the Government of India launched an integrated programme "Focus Africa" since the period of 2002. The main objective of the programme is to increase interactions between the two regions by identifying the areas of bilateral trade and investment. India under 'Focus Africa' programme has been designed with the objective of enabling India to emerge as a key partner in Africa's developmental processes by providing competitive and appropriate technologies, products and services. The Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) Africa Committee has the mandate to further business co-operation that helps establish a symbiotic relationship between India and emerging African economies. CII has Institutional Agreements with 32 counterpart organizations in 18 African countries with the objective of facilitating exchange of information and promoting business interests of Indian and African Industry. Export-Import Bank of India (EXIM India) operates a number of financing and support programmes to facilitate and promote India's trade and Investment in the African region. The EXIM Bank operates a programme to support overseas investment by Indian promoter through joint ventures/wholly owned subsidiaries. Such support includes finance and in select cases, directs participation in equity along with Indian promoter, to set up such ventures overseas. This has assumed significant relevance lately in the content of Africa's Look East Policy. Recently, the 17th CII-EXIM

Bank conclave on India-Africa Growth Partnership held in India on 19-20 July 2022 and India's significant role of curbing the COVID-19 epidemic successfully in the country and globally is well-recognized and greatly appreciated among the world community including African continent. This conclave held in physical mode has equally important for India and Africa continent.

3-6 India's Efforts (TEAM-9) in Africa

India today pledged about one billion US\$ in the form of concessional credit facilities to eight West African countries (Burkina Faso, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Guinea Bissau, Mali and Senegal) who, together with India, form TEAM-9 or Techno-Economic Approach for Africa-India Movement. TEAM-9 Ministers, signed a memorandum of understanding (MoU), agreed that a Heads of State/Government meeting would be held regularly. It was announced that the willingness of Government of India provided seamless and integrated satellite, fiber optics and wireless network connected fifty-three African countries including Franco-phone during the Pan African Parliament. It connected all Heads of the State Network for e-governance, tele-education network for higher education, skill enhancement and capacity building and tele-medicine for providing health care and super specialty medical care. This programme is funded by India. This network took place in early 2007 and today took a bright side of the connectivity as the different universities, medical colleges, heads of states and information service sector wonderfully.

3-7 India-Africa Summit

The first India-Africa Summit, April 4-8, 2008 was indeed a pan-African glimpse on the emerging opportunities in the African continent. The summit was represented at the ministerial level by most of the African countries. Besides the ministers, the respective national chambers of commerce, financial institutions and top businessmen were also part of the event. The leaders from African countries saw India strongly focusing on joint venture projects with them, which would facilitate Africa's ability to access the 500 million US dollar line of credit under TEAM 9 and the 200 million US dollar line of credit under NEPAD.

The African countries look at India as a source for technology, expertise and manpower training. There is a great deal of

convergence of interests. The organizers said, "The primary objective of the event was to enable Indian technical consultants, industry and project exporters to participate in a wide range of developmental activities and projects, which are in the offing in several African countries, and which are also recipients of significant funding from multilateral or regional agencies and India" (Suresh Kumar, 2022 : online). India's efforts to aid and support Africa in its development and in the establishment of its industries, received a major boost through the three-day India-Africa Project Partnership.

It is felt that there is also a need to facilitate the sharing of technologies available with Indian Small & Medium Enterprises (SME), for partnering projects in the private sector in Africa. The target areas for Indian companies are infrastructure, especially power and energy, transport, telecom, irrigation, water supply, sanitation and housing. Other sectors would include agriculture, agro-food processing, healthcare and pharmaceuticals, turnkey projects and engineering consultancy. Power and energy sector is crucial to the development of African economies. Leading companies of India like Tata, Kirloskar Brothers Ltd, Angelique International, Mohan Energy, International Tractors, Sterlite, Kalpataru, Jaguar Overseas, SSP Ltd, Praj Consultants, who have made a mark in the African continent, need to focus Africa through region wise.

India has been geared towards strengthening of horizontal South-South linkages, and towards promoting self-reliance through transfer of technologies, appropriate to the needs of her partners. India sees South-South Cooperation as the embodiment of a new spirit, of an alternative, cooperative approach to the challenges of economic development. Minister of State for Commerce and Industry Mr E.V.K.S. Elangovan spoke about India's burgeoning trade ties with Africa and the need for more people-to-people contacts.

3.8 India-Africa Second Summit, 2011

The Second Africa and India summit held in Ethiopia from May 24-25 2011, focused on the TEAM-9 efforts and its activities in the West Africa. This conclave emphasized on the New Partnership for Africa Development and TEAM-9 projects valued at \$ 360 million has been approved and letters of credits opened. India focused on the Energy sector, Small and Medium Scale Enterprise (SMEs) under TEAM-9 programme. The e-commerce, e-medicine, telecommunication and IT sector were discussed and number of countries presented their

projects. The programme of Focus Africa, line of Credit to SME & SME & another sector is announced that valued \$360 million. Along with it, e-education, tourism and hotel industry, housing construction projects are also targeted. MEA shared favorable opinion on the Space Technology and India's experience regarding it. The need of Africa in this area is appreciated and MEA promised to work on this issue with them. This summit came forward with the motto that continues to be at the forefront and has been addressed that involves the need for raising the trade and investment levels as well as avenues of technology transfer and the need to address education and training requirements in Africa. The key sectors covered in power and energy, transport and other infrastructure projects, agriculture, food processing and water management. One of the highlights has been a special session devoted to deliberations on financing partnerships. SMEs sectors discussed how to overcome them to become effective participants in the globalized regime.

3.9 India-Africa Third Summit, 2015

The third summit was attended by more than 40 African countries with the objective of new hope, new horizons. Mr. Narendra Modi, Prime Minister of India, rightly expressed, "From the memory of our common struggles; and the tide of our collective hopes; From the richness of our heritage; and the commitment to our planet; From the pledge to our people; and the faith in our future; From the generosity of the African saying that a small home can hold hundred friends; From the spirit of India's ancient belief 'santaswayam-parhitenihitaabhiyoga' means that great souls are always taking the initiatives to do good to others. We pledge to walk together, with our steps in rhythm and our voices in harmony. This is not a new journey, nor a new beginning. But this is a new promise of a great future for an ancient relationship" (Narendra Modi, 2022 : online). India's Prime Minister approach of India initiative has been seen during the global emergency of COVID-19 pandemic. Even today, "the Indian government uses this foreign policy goal on all the different international platforms - from the UN, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), European Union, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), African Union, Southeast Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) and bilateral country deliberations. India has provided critical relief in emergencies in Yemen (2015 evacuation of civilians caught in Saudi Arabian

airstrikes), Bangladesh (2007 Cyclone Sidr), Myanmar" (2008 Cyclone Nargis), Mozambique (humanitarian and disaster relief in 2019) and Fiji (2020 Cyclone Yasa). India was represented during recent negotiations of the Paris Agreement, and now the COVID-19 pandemic has prompted India's creation of Vaccine Maitri, or "Vaccine Friendship." India has helped to fulfill the global demand for pharmaceuticals and medical support, and has made possible high recovery rates and corresponding low fatality rates at the domestic level. India supported the creation of SAARC Covid-19 Fund in 2020 - established to mitigate the risks associated with the pandemic in the South Asia region - with an initial \$10 million US\$ contribution. Further, the country has facilitated a special visa program for doctors and nurses, is coordinating a regional air ambulance agreement and building a network for epidemiology to prevent future pandemics. These efforts, in their initial stages and born of Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam, have benefitted Africa, Asia, Gulf countries and global world today" (Suresh Kumar, 2021 : 103-104). CII-EXIM Bank organized India-Africa conclave of July 2022 summarized that currently India is working in the different sector in Africa. India's project summary in Africa explains that "number of projects in agriculture & Food processing are 34, 16 projects in consultancy, 4 projects in defence, 5 projects in education & skills, 4 projects in financing partnership, 30 projects in healthcare & pharmaceuticals, 21 projects in information & communication technology, 42 projects in infrastructure, 13 projects in logistics, 41 projects in manufacturing, 17 projects in mining, 31 projects in power & energy, 67 trade and 34 other projects" (CII, 2022 : 8-9).

4. Suggestions and Conclusion

Africa as a whole, for Indian business, is still a largely uncharted territory. The existing level of business ties between India and Africa does not reflect the full potential. The consolidation of Indo-Africa economic co-operation, bilateral or multilateral, can usher in a new era of South-South co-operation. Regional economic cooperation is considered to be an answer to Africa's developmental needs. Various steps were taken for integrating regional economies are creating opportunities for projects in all sectors including agriculture, manufacturing and services. Indian government introduced many initiatives for partnerships and mutual benefits

between India and the African countries. Institutional capacity building is crucial for development. A trained and educated workforce has given India a considerable edge over the rest of the developing world. India can help African countries in developing their infra-structural systems.

The preference trade agreement with number of African countries bilaterally and through regional organizations are going on and move to free trade agreement (FTA) with Africa continent through regional organizations are working on. The need to avoid the Double Taxation Avoidance is felt and there is possibility to remove this barrier. FTA between India and SADC will enhance the level of bilateral trade. Thus, it was agreed to adopt a long-term approach to the idea of an FTA and recommend implementation of measures to expand Indian trade in Africa on a priority basis. The emphasis should be on trade creation and minimizing trade diversion to maximize welfare. Exim Bank agreed to help Africa region during the different summits to strengthen the trade on the preferential line of credit.

Overall, India has geographic advantages in linking the African and Asian continents. There is a need to develop trade between Indian Ocean and Atlantic Ocean routes in building Indo-Africa trade and economic relations in a comprehensive way. To start with, India needs to strengthen bilateral relations with Francophone countries particularly Benin, Cameroon, Congo, Dem. Rep. of Congo, Djibouti, Guinea, Gabon, Mauritania, Niger and Rwanda. The rest of Francophone countries are already covered under the scheme of India and TEAM-9. Once the bilateral relations will develop between India and East African countries, the efforts for multilateral relations should be persuaded. It will lead to develop a common market between India and Eastern African countries. India should carry forward this idea of common market in SADC region by involving NEPAD, EBID- the Bank for Investment and Development of ECOWAS, ECOWAS Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and ECOWAS Regional Investment Bank (ERIB). Along with it, there is a need to build people to people contact programme in understanding each other culture, language, traditions and ethics. It will demystify the existing doubts and impact established by French and British colonialism about each other on the one hand and will provide a way to move forward in understanding common issues of development

on the other hand. This is the beginning and inspiration for African countries and India to move forward in the changing international relations and develop their markets accordingly.

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A Study of Academic Stress among Senior Secondary Students during E-Learning

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The present paper is an attempt to study the academic stress among senior secondary students during e-learning. Descriptive survey method was used by the investigator. The simple random technique was taken into the consideration in the selection of the sample which includes 50 female and 50 male senior secondary students. 08 different senior secondary schools (04 schools from urban area and 04 schools from rural area) were randomly selected from Meerut district of Uttar Pradesh. A self-designed questionnaire was used to study academic stress among senior secondary students during e-learning. Significant difference between academic stress of female and male senior secondary students during e-learning was observed. Also, a significant difference was found between academic stress

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among senior secondary students of rural and urban area and between students studying in CBSE & U.P. Board Schools during e-learning.

[Keywords : Academic stress, E-Learning, Education, Adolescents, Digital platform]

1. Introduction

Education is considered to be the greatest tool for achieving growth and development in the society and country. Soon after the independence in 1947, the Government of India took challenges for bringing uniformity in educational system. With the development of science & technology, several initiatives were taken to assist students, scholars, teachers and lifelong learners and E-learning became a major platform for education system.

But during the corona virus pandemic, identified in December 2019 followed by stringent step everyone was in isolation which led an awful social and educational life and gave mental or intellectual stress. There was lack of elements like group learning, lab activities and experimental work, lack of physical participation and living maximum time at home make an affluent negative effect on the execution of the students. The senior secondary students cover the adolescence age which is said to be storm age by Stanley Hall. Moreover, students belonging to rural and low-income families encountered financial constraints, limited access or no access to attend e-learning classes and became stressed towards their academic performance.

Research on academic stress has been made since old times considering different aspects but since the digitalization became a part of life; it gave rise to study its impact among learners.

Kapali G. D (2019) studied about Academic Stress among adolescents in relation to their parents and academic achievement. Neha and Preeti Bala (2020) attempted to study the Academic Stress among Students amid COVID. Indah Dwi Cahya Izzati, Fatwa Tentamai, Hadi Suyono (2020) identified the various components and the indicators which could shape academic stress variables. Yamini Chandra (2020) studied for online learning during COVID about the perception of academic stress among college students. Deepti Deshpande and Chandrakala Kaluram Mhatre (2021) observed about the impact of digital platform on student's life on various perspectives and majorly on their mental health and

academic performance. Giusi Antonia Toto and Pierpaolo Limone (2021) investigated about the influence of digital technology among teacher's practices with respect to constructs of enthusiasm, stress and proficiency towards confrontation/ reception of technology. Therefore, researchers thought to study the academics stress of senior secondary students during e-learning.

2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are as follows :

1. To investigate the difference between the academic stress of female and male senior secondary students during e-learning.
2. To find out the difference between the academic stress of senior secondary students studying in CBSE & U.P. Board Schools during e-learning.
3. To study the difference between academic stress of senior secondary students of rural and urban area during e-learning.

3. Hypotheses

An attempt has been made to test the following hypotheses :

1. There is no significant difference between the academic stress of female and male senior secondary students during e-learning.
2. There is no significant difference between the academic stress of senior secondary students studying in CBSE & U.P. Board School during e-learning.
3. There is no significant difference between academic stress of senior secondary students of rural and urban area during e-learning.

4. Method and Procedure

Keeping in view the objectives of the study, descriptive survey method for research was used. For the present study, first of all 08 schools were selected randomly (4 from urban and 4 from rural area). Further in each area, 2 C.B.S.E & 2 U.P Board schools were randomly selected. A total of 100 (50 female and 50 male) senior secondary students were randomly selected from these schools. A self-designed questionnaire was used to study academic stress among students during e-learning.

5. Results

Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test were used to analyze the primary data, collected from the questionnaire.

Table-1 : Summary of t-value for Academic Stress among Female and Male Senior Secondary Students during E-learning

Gender	N	Mean	S.D	t-value
Female	50	24.72	0.46	9.34
Male	50	23.86	0.45	

It may be seen from the above table that the obtained t-value between female and male students on academic stress was found to be 9.34 which is significant at 0.01 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis has been rejected and shows that significant difference exists between the academic stress among female and male senior secondary students during e-learning. Further, mean value on academic stress of female students was found more than male students, which reflects female students faced more academic stress than male students during e-learning.

Table-2 : Summary of t-value for Academic Stress of Senior Secondary Students studying in CBSE & U.P. Board School during E-learning

Type of Board	N	Mean	S.D	t-value
C.B.S.E	50	24.94	0.48	14.27
U.P. Board	50	23.64	0.42	

It is clear from the above table that the obtained t-value for the difference between students of CBSE and U.P. Board on academic stress was found to be 14.27 which was significant at 0.01 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis has been rejected. The rejection of the hypothesis shows significant difference between the academic stress of students of both boards during e-learning. Further, mean value on academic stress of CBSE Board students is greater than U.P Board students, and reflects that CBSE Board students faced more academic stress than U.P Board students during e-learning.

It is evident from Table-3 on next page that the obtained t-value for the difference between students of rural and urban students on academic stress was found to be 14.27 which was significant at 0.01 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and interprets that

there is significant difference between the academic stress of rural and urban students during e-learning. Further, the mean value of rural students is more than urban students, and reflects that rural students were found to have more academic stress than urban students during e-learning.

Table-3 : Summary of t-value for Academic Stress among Senior Secondary Students of Rural And Urban Area during E-learning

Area	N	Mean	S.D	t-value
Rural	50	24.84	0.42	14.27
Urban	50	23.74	0.49	

6. Main Findings

The findings of the study are :

1. There is significant difference between the academic stress of female and male senior secondary students during e-learning. Therefore, gender account for the difference in the academic stress among students during e-learning.
2. There is significant difference between senior secondary students of C.B.S.E & U.P Board schools during e-learning. This reflects environment of school makes a difference for students towards academic stress.
3. There is significant difference between senior secondary students of rural and urban area during e-learning. This might be due the reason that rural school students generally have lack of resources, proper guidance and appropriate environment so they face more academic stress as compared to urban area students.

7. Conclusion

Since e-learning became major platform in teaching learning process, when everyone was surrounded by COVID-19 .It is important to provide proper training to the students as well as the teachers to make themselves compatible towards innovative practices in learning process. It was also observed that students are unable to share their problems at the age of adolescence; they face lot of conflicts, so there is need of proper guidance and counseling

which should be provided by each school. Also, there should be interactive sessions between teachers-parents-counselors so that they can understand students' problems and support them as and when required. All these measures would be helpful to educational persons to some extent to reduce students' anxiety and stress. Moreover, students are the future generation of the nation, they should always be provided right direction and proper guidance so that they can accept the new changes and think broadly towards the positive aspects. It will be beneficial not only for their individual growth but also it will contribute towards the development of the nation and society.

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Accessibility and Inequality in the Indian Health Care System among Scheduled Caste Women

Sanjeev Mahajan* and Alisha**

Health care is a public right, and it is the responsibility of the governments to provide equal health care to all people without any discrimination. In India, health care is entirely or mostly a governmental operation. It refers to those personal services provided directly by the physician's directions. Medical care is a subset of the health care system. The effective discourse in public health in India usually raises the questions of differences in health status among various social groups due to the existing intricacies of inequality and further pushes them into the sphere of social exclusion that they experience i.e., "graded discrimination" as compared to other social groups. Many special schemes and institutions have been established to improve the health of Scheduleds Caste women in India, which provides special assistance and treatment facilities to specific sections of the society. Besides this institutional assistance and special schemes, it arises a question; Are these health

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facilities flawless, or are there any glitches in them? My broader argument is that there is no doubt that many institutional and special schemes are run by the state and central government to provide better health facilities to a woman. However, in reality, these health facilities exist with many flaws and biased processes and approaches which not only create inequality regarding the health matters related to Scheduled caste women which make them sufferer in accessing the health facilities.

[Keywords : Inequality, Scheduled caste women, Discrimination, Indian health care, Accessibility]

1. Introduction

World Health Organization (WHO) 1948 defined health as a state of complete physical, mental and social being and not merely an absence of disease or infirmity. Health is one of the many aspects of human life; while not only a physiological condition. The physiological condition provides psychological and physical well-being, boosting people's morale and resulting in the progress of the community and nation. This Paper focuses on the contradiction in terms between institutional information and the existing health conditions of Scheduled Caste women and further, it tries to evaluate the issue in the logical context that the inferior health outcomes of the marginalized, especially Scheduled caste women in the mainstream by exploring their health-related associated aspects. Boorah.et.al (2012), findings show that women in India are not equally disadvantaged. For the majority of health indices, women from 'excluded groups such as Scheduled Castes' suffer worse than those from higher castes. So, Caste is one of the biggest barriers to achieving equal opportunities to access health care facilities, education, and employment due to the caste stigma. Scheduled caste women faced more inequality and social exclusion due to their poverty and caste position, which became a greater risk for women's health; especially Scheduled caste women faced double discrimination because of their identity as women and their belonging to the lower caste. However, in reverse cases where health facilities are deteriorating or providing of facilities become selective and larger communities remained not beneficiary, at that moment, the model of exclusion commenced. "This study demonstrates how some health factors, like women's pregnancies, children's and women's nutritional status, and other general traits that are influenced either directly or indirectly, have an effect on the health of both women and children. According to the results of the current study, there is a link between socially excluded

groups and health status; women and children who belong to socially excluded groups have poorer health statuses than members of other groups. As a result, the issue must be addressed as a top priority.” (Katoch and Nawaz, 2018). In public health, facilities are an essential part of human life to provide quality of life through quality of health services, progress, and improvement in equity towards those who cannot afford it. Acharya’s study reminds policymakers to create a health equity environment in order to reduce financial burdens and disparities based on many characteristics such as social, economic, gender, rural place of residence, SC/ST, and minority groups. As a result, there is a need for organizations to provide inclusive services in order to reduce health disparities (Acharya, 2018). Such research is essential for policy formulation for universal access to healthcare and to create an enabling environment for the achievement of SDG 3.

2. Concept of Health Care

Health is determined by adequate food, housing, basic sanitation, healthy lifestyles, and protection against environmental hazards and infectious diseases. The bound of health extends beyond the narrow limits of medical care. It is thus clear that health care involves more than medical care. It embraces multitudes of services provided to individuals or communities by agents of health services or professions to promote, maintain, monitor or restore health; medical care is not equivalent to health care. The critical indicator for assessing a country’s healthcare policy and infrastructure discloses the most crucial consideration in establishing healthcare facilities. In April 2018, India had 4035 hospitals and 27,951 dispensaries to provide healthcare under AYUSH. As many as 158,417 sub-centres, 25,743 Primary Health Centers (PHCs) and 5,624 community health centres had been established in India as of March 2018 to provide healthcare for India’s rural populace. India’s public health care system seeks to provide primary, secondary and tertiary care in an affordable and accessible manner in both rural and urban areas. In 2005, National Rural Health Mission was launched to give affordable, accessible and quality healthcare to the rural population, especially those belonging to vulnerable groups. Particular concentration on the empowered action group states Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttaranchal and Uttar Pradesh, as well as the north-eastern states, Jammu & Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh (Health Care Sector in

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3. Health Care System in India

“International Primary Healthcare Conference” was held in Alma Ata, Kazakhstan, in September 1978, emerged as a significant turning point in public health throughout the 20th century, seeing primary healthcare as essential to achieving the objective of “Health for All.” Primary healthcare is fundamental healthcare that is universally available to all individuals and families in the community by their active involvement and at a cost that the community and the nation can afford to maintain at every level of their development. So Gross disparities in people’s health status currently exist and are politically, socially, and economically unacceptable. As a result, all nations share this concern. These disparities are most noticeable between developed and developing nations as well as within countries. (Unicef.org and WHO). In the 1980s, changes in the research model on health inequalities in India were seen by the attainability of survey data by the Ministry of Statics and Ministry of Health and Family

Welfare, i.e., the Ministry of Health Survey and National Sample Survey. Both these surveys provide an in-depth understanding of health inequalities in India. People’s. Movements in 2000 for Health highlighted variously distresses faced by vulnerable groups. The WHO Commission in 2005 on Social Determinants of Health indicated the significance of systematical investigation on social inequalities, mainly living conditions for health. George Institute for Global Health India’s report (2016) raised essential questions : Does the Indian healthcare system treat women fairly and justly? In order to properly comprehend the health requirements of Indian women in 2016 and what has to be done to develop a healthcare system devoid of gender bias, this paper summarizes conversations that have taken place in those areas. This study aids in understanding the environment needed for the healthcare system, which must be devoid of gender prejudice in order to promote women’s health. The landmark report on Gender Toward highlighted the socio-economic difficulties women face in different spheres of life. Movements regarding caste, gender, region, and religion have also increased the understanding of inequalities.

Therefore, Gender and Caste are considered the structural determinants of health inequalities in Schedule Caste women's health. Moreover, the health sector is rapidly increasing in India, and India's healthcare system is in trouble by great contradiction because of the lowest per capita expenditure on healthcare cost as a percentage of GDP and cost of healthcare services in the world. However, health inequity comes to insufficient light regarding the access to health care services and lack of affordability for large sections of the society that are socially and economically deprived. (Bhan et al., 2016, p.166). Another, Oxfam Report (2021) discovers that India's health system is more unequal as a result of existing socioeconomic inequities. The general category performs better than the Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs), Hindus perform better than Muslims, the wealthy perform better than the poor, and men perform better than women. On a number of health measures, the urban population does better than the rural population. Therefore, Health is a social phenomenon in the social sciences that concentrates on health as a matter of social justice broadly; there have been numerous health movements that highlighted health equity and added to our understanding of public health facilities, legislation, and the healthcare system.

4. Health Infrastructure in India

Health Care system in rural India has been established as a three-tier system based on the following norms.

- 1. Sub-centres (SC) :** These are established in a plain area with 5,000 people and in hilly/difficult-to-reach/tribal areas with a population of 3,000. Type A sub-centres provide all mandated services except facilities for childbirth. Type B sub-centres provide all recommended services and facilities for delivery. The staffing recommendations for both facilities are different but require at least one ANM (Auxiliary Nurse Midwifery) female health worker and one male health worker. The minimum assured services include preventive, promotive, and a few curative and referral services (Government of India, 2012).
- 2. Primary Health Centres (PHCs) :** These are established with six indoor/observation beds in a plain area with a population of 30,000 people and in hilly/difficult to reach/tribal areas with a

population of 20,000, PHCs were designed to provide integrated preventive, promotive and curative healthcare to the rural population. As per the minimum requirement, a PHC is to be staffed by a medical officer and other staff (Government of India, 2012)

3. **Community Health Centres :** Community health centres (CHCs) are set up by state governments in an area with 1,20,000 people and in hilly/difficult to reach/ tribal areas with a population of 80,000. They aim to provide optimized and specialized care to the community. An anaesthetist and public health specialist will be required in addition to specialists for surgery, medicine, obstetrics and gynaecology, and paediatrics.

A district/sub-divisional hospital or CHC can be declared a first referral unit if it can provide round-the-clock emergency obstetric and newborn care and blood storage. District hospitals serve as secondary-level care providers for rural areas.

National Urban Health Mission (NUHM) was launched as a sub-mission of the National Health Mission in 2013. It seeks to cover all state capitals, district headquarters and cities/towns with a population of more than 50,000 with a primary focus on care for vulnerable groups and reducing out-of-pocket expenditures. Inter-sectoral convergence that focuses on all determinants of public health is one of the critical objectives of the national urban health mission (Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, 2013).

5. Caste, Discrimination and Health Inequality

J. H. Hutton defines caste as a “collection of families or groups of families bearing a common name; claiming common descent from a mythical ancestor, human or divine; professing to follow the same hereditary calling, and regarded by those who are competent to give an opinion as forming a single homogenous community” (Hutton, 1963 : 4). According to Murray’s argument “social group differences are the best approach to measuring health, inequalities confound a positive issue, the extent of inequality across individuals, and a normative question: which inequalities are unjust?” (Murray, Gakidou, Frenk, 1999 : 537). Due to discrimination by the higher caste and discrimination within their communities, women from Scheduled Castes have a lower status in Indian society. It is true that Women are oppressed generally, but Scheduled Caste Women carry a

disproportionately larger burden of this oppression. Because of the division of labour in the home, women suffer more from a lack of access to sanitation, fuel, water, and health care, which puts them at risk of abuse. Women from the Scheduled Castes are segregated based on their gender, caste, and class. They have struggled against discrimination due to caste hierarchy and untouchability and experience the most significant hardship. According to a study by Acharya (2007) in Gujarat and Rajasthan villages, 94% of children reported encountering discrimination from local residents in the form of “ANMs not entering the house”, “ANMs spending less time”, “ANMs not speaking kindly”, and “ANMs not touching when administering medicine.” Health inequality is frequently used to refer to distinctions, disparities, and discrepancies between individuals and social groups. “People from various origins, social groupings, and countries have varying levels of health indispensable” Arcaya, Arcaya, and Subramanian, (2015). To put it another way, the term “health inequality” is broad and does not necessarily include using moral judgement. Since the social determinants of health, such as access to treatment and educational opportunities, are distributed unequally among social groups, such as caste, class, and race, almost all health inequalities are unfair. Subramaniam talked about the worst health condition of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes compared to other sections of society. There is higher morbidity, mortality, under-nutrition, lower use of preventive and curative services and low accessibility among scheduled castes and tribes. (Subramaniam, 2018). To determine the degree of health inequality in the nation, a thorough analysis of health status across various socioeconomic categories was conducted.

H. R. Raghavendra (2020) assesses how the SCs fall behind in the various human development indicators of literacy, health and access to health schemes through secondary data collected from the National Family Health Survey-2015-2016 (NFHS-2015-2016). Therefore, organizations must offer inclusive services to lessen health disparities. Due to their poverty and caste position, Scheduled Caste Women suffered increased inequality and social exclusion, increasing the danger to their health. The Study shows the importance of using an inter-sectional approach to pinpoint the causes of health disparities and give the economically disadvantaged and socially outcasts a special place on the policy agenda. In order to realize universal health

coverage, the multidimensional construct of distinguishing qualities must be eliminated, which is why removing the obstacles to accessing health care accomplishes this. These findings ought to help in developing and reorganizing the current healthcare interventions to attain equity in healthcare delivery (Mahapatro, James, Mishra, 2021). In particular, Scheduled Caste Women experienced double discrimination due to their identification as women and low caste. So that social groups are the cause of social stratification patterns, which in turn is the cause of health inequities

6. Inequality in Accessibility of the Indian Health Care System

Accessibility is defined as more than merely being there or being available at a specific time and location. It comprises the features of the resource that make it easier for or more difficult for potential customers to use it. Consider accessibility as the degree of adjustment between the population's characteristics and those of healthcare resources as a conceptually more appealing alternative. Public health standards in India do not meet public expectations in light of the healthcare revolution. Not all populations receive health care equally, and only some societal groups profit from them. Guha (2007) found that just 42.2% of Adivasi children and 57.6% of Dalit children were immunised and that 28.9% of Adivasis and 15.6% of Dalits lacked access to doctors or clinics. Patients from the ST, and SC, populations have a higher chance of dying prematurely, have poor health, and have far less access to treatment and care. Significant health and access disparities continue and have even widened across states, between rural and urban areas, and within communities. The health sector in India has been characterized by three types of injustice. Historical inequities have their origins in the practises and policies of British colonial India, many of which were carried out long after independence; socioeconomic inequities show up as caste, class, and gender disparities; and injustices in the accessibility, use, and price of health services (Baru, Acharya, Acharya, Kumar, Nagaraj, 2010).

Again, some questions appear : Does the availability of health care and access to Scheduled caste women experience inequity and discrimination in the healthcare system? Is caste-based inequality and discrimination to blame for the current health service system?

While there is evidence to support the linkages between inequality, social exclusion and Scheduled caste's poor health status and specifically Scheduled caste women. Analyzing SC women's beliefs, health-seeking behaviour, and access to maternal healthcare services in Bihar investigate the causes contributing to this poor utilization of maternal health services. The biggest impediments were insufficient ASHA (Accredited Social Health Activist) coverage, limited information availability, transportation costs, and unauthorized charges to SC women by Health Care staff (Patel Parisa, Das Mahua & Das Utpal, 2018). To inquire into the uses of the national-level data set of both NFHS-3 (2005-06) and NFHS-4 (2015-16) shows How caste affects social groups' ability to use Janani Suraksha programmes, it is discovered that 72% of access to JSY may be explained by endowment variables. The remaining unexplained percentage (28%) points to caste discrimination against SCs/STs in access to JSY (inequity linked to social discrimination). So, the exact pathways need to be examined further to understand that Access to health care facilities is not only restricted to physical accessibility, the inclusion of an intersectional strategy in the policy agenda, with special attention to the low-income and socially marginalized is significant in order to identify the causes of health disparities (Mishra, Veerapandian and Choudhary, 2021).

7. Conclusion

Health is a social phenomenon in the social sciences that concentrates on health as a matter of social justice broadly; there have been numerous health movements that highlighted the importance of health equity and added to our understanding of the conception of public health facilities and the healthcare system. This paper is critical because it provides a new perspective to see the health condition of Scheduled Castes women. Additionally, the paper also provides in-depth insights into our weak health care system in the context of India which makes us think again about the required changes in the basic health care system at the local and national level and also suggests an effective way to reduce the inequality by narrow the gap of income. There are pieces of evidence which reflect that inequality and exclusion result in deprivation and it further impacts the Scheduled Caste Women's health in the Indian context. Therefore, eliminating the barriers in health care access means

eliminating the multidimensional construct of identifying hurdles and focusing on realizing universal health coverage. Therefore, there is a need to formulate and restructure the existing healthcare system through government interventions to achieve equity in the accessibility of healthcare facilities.

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Shinzo Abe's Contribution in India-Japan Relations

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Japan is regarded as a key partner in India's economic transformation. India-Japan relations have entered into a period of relative stability, which is the focus of this article. India has always placed the 'Indo-Pacific' at the heart of its engagement with the Southeast and East Asian countries. Japan also endeavours to support strategic connectivity linking South Asia to Southeast Asia through the synergy between "Act East" policy and "Partnership for Quality Infrastructure." The present article also explores the steps taken by both India and Japan to strengthen the ongoing cooperation and relations. Today, India and Japan share a global vision of peace, stability, security and shared prosperity based on sustainable development, democratic values and commitment to human rights, open society, and the rule of law. Particularly, the study will point out the tenures of Japanese PM Shinzo Abe and successive Indian counterparts, PM Manmohan Singh and Narendra Modi, major actors in enhancing mutual relationship. Japan and India view each other as partners in responding to global and regional challenges. A

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strong, prosperous and dynamic India is, therefore, in the interest of Japan and vice versa.

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India-Japan relations have long traditions of spiritual affinity and strong current of cultural and civilizational ties. Throughout the varied phases of history the two countries have never been adversaries. Over the years, both have built upon the values of democracy, individual freedom and also the rule of law. Such affinities have developed a robust association based both on values and pragmatism. Today, India holds the identity of largest democracy in Asia and Japan as the most prosperous country in the world.

1. Important Milestones in India-Japan Relations

After the World War II Japan became isolated because it was devastated by the nuclear tragedy. India hosted the Asian Games of 1951, and invited Japan to engage in world affairs. Within the year 1952, formal diplomatic relations started between the two countries, which initiated a number of high level visits for the shake intense exchanges in several fields. Japanese Prime Minister Nobusuke Kishi's visit to India in 1957 was significant and PM Nehru's return visit in the same year and President Rajendra Prasad's visit in 1958 had established the foundation stone between India and Japan. The Japanese Prince Akihito with Crown Princess visit to India in 1960 took the relations to a new height. However, such momentum were not quite sustained in the following decades.

The year 1998 includes a special mention between India and Japan, as there emerged a rift within the friendship of those two countries. In the month of May 1998, India conducted five nuclear tests, which attracted harsh imposition of sanctions from many countries of the world including United States and United Kingdom. Japan was also one amongst those countries. The use of nuclear weapons in Japan has always been a sensitive issue as Japan has seen closely the nuclear tragedy during the second World War in 1940s. The restrictions put by Japan remained in place for two years, then in the year 2000, the warmth returned in the relations between the two countries.

Given the Cold War politics, with Japan as a U.S. ally and India as a champion of the non-alignment movement, which that

frequently anti-American, Tokyo and Delhi did not engage much. The improvement in India-U.S. ties led to the enhancement of the India-Japan relationship. This led to Japanese Prime Minister Yoshiro's visit to India in August 2000, which provided a fresh drive to the bilateral relationship. Prime Ministers Mori and Atal Bihari Vajpayee pushed for the establishment of a "Global Partnership between Japan and India." The advent of the twenty-first century has witnessed an impressive transformation in the bilateral relationships. In such scenario, annual Prime Ministerial Summit between India and Japan was launched in 2006. The 'Global and Strategic Partnership' initiative has made Summit level talks as a routine exercise. In the process, PM Abe, was invited as the Chief Guest at the Republic Day parade in New Delhi, in 2014.

Japan has been generous in granting bilateral loan and grant assistance to India since 1958. India has the special status under Japan's Overseas Development Assistance (ODA). Japan is the largest bilateral donor for India, which is instrumental in India's economic transformation, especially in the areas like transportation, power, infrastructure and the projects of basic human amenities. The Suzuki Motor Corporation's path breaking investment in India has transformed the economic history of India. In the early 1980s, such investment including modern technology and managerial skills had revolutionized the automobile sector in India. Japan unconditionally bailed India out of the balance of payments crisis in 1991, thus proving a reliable friend. The India-Japan Comprehensive Economic Partnership Agreement (CEPA) that came into force in August 2011 is the most comprehensive of all such agreements, which covers not only trade in goods but also Services, Movement of Natural Persons, Investments, and Intellectual Property Rights. The CEPA proposes the tariffs abolition over 94 percent for the goods traded between Japan and India.

2. Shinzo Abe : Pivotal Chapter in India-Japan Relations

In 2006, Abe became the youngest Prime Minister of Japan, But for a short period. In 2012, he returned as Prime Minister and repeated in the years 2014 and 2017. He is the longest serving PM in Japan. Having faith in nationalism, he tried to amend Japan's pacifist constitution. He created the country's first National Security Strategy.

The biggest goal of Abe's life was to restore the military power of Japan so that right to self-defence could be achieved. Bypassing the strong opposition by North Korea and China, the Japanese parliament approved this controversial change. Abe's thoughts on key policies are referred as "Abe Doctrine". The objectives of such Doctrine remain ingrained in his belief that Japan must be a 'tier-one' power in international affairs. In his "Japan is Back" speech, he identifies a 'reactive Japan' narrative, which would be seen as a 'proactive contributor to peace'. Thus, he reincarnated a new character of Japan, which essentially represented as a security actor in the global affairs.

A rising China with aggression designs and a belligerent North Korea with growing nuclear and missile capabilities shaped Abe's thinking. Abe's efforts also been driven by the ambiguities around the U.S. alliance relationship. The relative decline of the U.S. and the dramatic rise of China have made a lot more problem for Japan. This thinking probably also led the Abe administration to develop and strengthen new Asian strategic partnerships such as those with India and Australia.

Abe would not only be known for his efforts to revive Japan's military might, he would also be known for his distinct act on the economy. His economic policy was given the name 'Abenomics'. This policy sought to revitalize the Japanese economy through a mix of fiscal and monetary stimulus and structural reforms. His administration pushed the conservative business elites to boost wages, ease stricter work hours, and hire more women. They boosted liquidity, depreciated the yen, boosted exports and increased employment. Through these steps, the growth rate of Japan increased significantly, but its record was ultimately mixed. By 2020 the economy seemed to fall and Japan entered in an economic recession for the first time since 2015. The Covid-19 pandemic affected it further. Due to mismanagement of Covid situation and economy, Abe resigned.

3. Abe-Modi Bonhomie

Many leaders of India have remembered Shinzo Abe as a good friend of India. Remembering him Indian PM Narendra Modi has announced a day of national mourning. He tweeted (8 July, 2022); "I am shocked and saddened by the sad demise of one of my dearest friends, Shinzo Abe. He was a great global statesman, a brilliant

leader and a remarkable administrator.” Shinzo Abe has been an important link in India-Japan relations from the year of 1998 to the present phase. PM Modi regretted at his demise : “It was my privilege to work with him to bring about an unprecedented transformation of the strategic partnership between India and Japan. From a largely narrow, bilateral economic relationship, Abe San helped turn it into a broad, comprehensive one, which not only covered every field of national endeavour, but became pivotal for our two countries’ and the region’s security. He was resolute in pursuing the civil nuclear agreement with India, a most difficult one for his country, and decisive in offering the most generous terms for the High Speed Rail in India. He ensured that Japan is there side by side as New India accelerates its growth.”

In 2006-07, after becoming the Prime Minister of Japan, Abe visited India and addressed the Indian Parliament : “a strong India is in the best interest of Japan, and a strong Japan is in the best interest of India.” In the year 2014, Narendra Modi as the new PM chose Japan for a bilateral visit. PM Modi has visited Japan six times in his two terms. Similarly, Shinzo Abe has visited India thrice (2014, 2015, 2017). No other Japanese Prime Minister has visited India so many times during his tenure. From the year 2014 and onwards, Modi and Abe met more than a dozens at different forums across the world. In the process personal bonhomie developed, and India-Japan relations got a new height. Shinzo Abe was the right-wing Prime Minister. The convergence of his ideology and that of Modi was also one of the reasons for their increased bonding.

In the year 2018, when PM Modi was on a state visit to Japan, PM Abe had given him a special feast at his ancestral home for dinner. It was a big occasion as no foreign head of state had previously received this honour in Japan. Before this, in the year 2015 PM Modi took Shinzo Abe to his parliamentary constituency, Varanasi. There both had enjoyed the Ganga Aarti together. There they developed a cultural bonhomie by clubbing Kyoto in Japan and Varanasi in India as sister cities. Kyoto, like Varanasi is a religious historical city. India and Japan in 2014 signed an agreement to develop Varanasi on the lines of Kyoto, a smart city. Again in 2017, when Abe came to India, PM Modi personally welcomed him at the Ahmedabad airport. He joined a road show with PM Modi from the airport to the Sabarmati Ashram. During the visit he got a chance to get acquainted with

several colours of Indian culture. For these reasons, examples are given of the warmth friendship of Modi and Abe. In the year 2020, when Abe announced his resignation due to ill health, PM Modi expressed his grief and wished for his speedy recovery.

In the year 2016, when PM Modi visited Japan, the two Prime Ministers declared the year 2017 as the “Year of Japan-India Friendly Exchanges” to enhance further people-to-people contacts. His contribution to India-Japan relations was richly recognised by the conferment upon him of the prestigious Padma Vibhushan in 2021, India's second highest civilian honour.

4. The Geo-Politics in Indo-Pacific

Abe was the primary architect of the idea of Indo-Pacific as a common geo-political space. He was among the first Asian leaders to recognize the shift in China's foreign policy from a period where Beijing emphasized the peaceful nature of its rise to its increased belligerence across the region. This increasingly manifested itself in China's expansive maritime claims in the South China and East China Seas, its rhetoric on Taiwan, military assertion on contested islands of Japan, and in recent years, Beijing's unilateral aggression against India.

Shinzo Abe could be given the credit of being the father of Indo-Pacific concept. In his first visit to India in 2007, speaking in the Indian Parliament, he quoted from the book of a Mughal prince, Dara Shikoh, that there was “a Confluence of the Two Seas”. and the “Indian and Pacific Oceans (were) a dynamic coupling as seas of prosperity and freedom. A ‘broader Asia’ that broke away geographical boundaries is now initiating to take on a distinct form. Our two countries have both responsibility and ability to make sure that it encompasses and to nurture and enrich these seas to become seas of clearest transparency”. Thus, the Indo-Pacific narrative really emerged.

Shinzo Abe always will be remembered for something other than the bullet train project, that is, the formation of “Quad group”. The US, Japan, Australia and India came together for the ‘Arc of Freedom and prosperity’. In such a free and open network, the movement of goods, capital, people and knowledge will flow freely. Abe believed that Asia would be led by a “democratic security diamond”, which included Quad members. Abe had always pitched

to work closely with “like-minded democracies”, such as the US, India, Australia and South Korea. He well forwarded a grand strategy having foundations of universal values human rights, the rule of law and democracy.

The Quad came into existence in 2007, when navies of the four countries conducted joint exercise. But since then nothing concrete happened as Australia withdrew from the group in 2008. But in the midst of increasing military tensions with China in the border areas (Galvan valley in 2020, Doklam dispute in 2017), India had started efforts to strengthen this group again. Similarly Australia, Japan and the US all have increasing differences on the issues of trade, maritime security and espionage with China. The Quad forum is strongly committed for an open and independent Indo-Pacific region. Therefore, to mitigate growing influence of China, it wis desirable that this partnership agrees on clear objectives regarding China.

China, having a cynical world view keeps an eye on any development between India and Japan as it considers these two as a rival countries. China looks the Quad as a group against itself. On the eve of first summit of Quad in 2021, China issued a statement saying that “Countries should not create exclusive blocks”. Again, on the summit held in Japan in 2022, Chinese Foreign Minister Wang Yi dubbed it the ‘Asian NATO’ and said its aim is to prevent China’s rise. He further said that Indo-Pacific strategy is “cooked” in the name of “freedom and openness”.

Denying such Chinese assumptions Quad on the other hand, emphasised on increasing mutual cooperation in the Indo-Pacific region. Indian PM Modi has best summarized the intentions of Quad, “United in Our fight against COVID-19, we launched a landmark Quad partnership to ensure accessibility of safe COVID-19 vaccines. India’s formidable vaccine production capacity will be expanded with support from Japan, US and Australia to assist countries in the Indo-Pacific region”. Addressing further, he said, “we are united by our democratic values and commitment to an inclusive, free and open Indo-Pacific region”.

Quad members say the group is meant to deepen economic, diplomatic and military ties among the four countries. In the March 2021 declaration laying out the “Spirit of the Quad,” the leaders said, “We bring diverse perspectives and are united in a shared vision for the free and open Indo-Pacific. We strive for a region that is free, open,

inclusive, healthy, anchored by democratic values, and unconstrained by coercion." The group has held "Quad-plus" meetings that have included South Korea, New Zealand and Vietnam, which could form the basis for future partnership in the region.

5. India-Japan Relations: Modi-Abe Era

Abe described the relationship between India and Japan as the 'important relationship of the 21st century'. Even though the foundation of India-Japan relations was laid in 1952, but the new phase of this relationship started after 2014, when the Prime Minister of both countries started frequent engagements. Abe proactively enticed India, a notoriously reluctant and cautious actor in global politics, to join his vision of the Indo-Pacific, an ideological framework that is now an important bulwark against the rise of China. Abe elevated India-Japan relations a Strategic and Global Partnership, set sail by addressing both strategic concern and economic partnership. As India gearing up its modernization plan, it started integrating with Asia through the Act East Policy. In the process, Abe committed to assisting India through capital investment, advancing technologies, and infrastructure development. The first sign of investment was the signing of the Civil Nuclear Deal in 2017. Japan as a country that faced a nuclear holocaust, has a strong aversion to nations that were not signatories to the Non-Proliferation Treaty. However, realizing India's need for nuclear energy, Abe pushed it through the National diet and shored up public opinion to ink the deal.

Abe also plugged Japan's cooperation with India on the economic front with assistance in schemes such as Make in India, Skill India and many others. India is the largest recipient of Japanese ODA, which rose to about \$4 billion per annum. Several collaborations such as the Ahmedabad-Mumbai High Speed Rail, Delhi-Mumbai Industrial Corridor, Dedicated Freight Corridor, and Chennai-Bengaluru Industrial Corridor, new industrial townships, development of smart cities and clean up of the river Ganges are such gigantic projects, which would be instrumental in transforming India in the coming decades. Prime Minister Abe, laid the foundation stone for the construction of the first bullet train network in India in 2017, which is a dream project of PM Modi. Most of the funding of this project is to be taken from Japan with a long-term loan at the minimal rate.

Japanese Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in India, since 2000 till September 2019 have been around US\$ 32.058 billion (Japan ranks

fourth largest investor in 2020). The sectors like telecommunications, electrical equipments, automobile, pharmaceuticals and chemical etc. have been the major beneficiary of Japanese FDI. The presence of Japanese companies in India has been continuously rising. The number of Japanese companies in 2020 reached to 1,455, which was a 5 percent increase compared to 2017. Similarly, the Indian companies working in Japan has registered a remarkable growth, currently more than 100 companies have presence in Japan.

Another equally important reflection of this strong partnership is India's invitation to Japan to take part in infrastructure, connectivity, and development projects in sensitive border areas, including the Northeast and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. India has remained particularly sensitive about these projects on the border. Japan is an important component of India's 'Act East Policy'. Act East is the foreign policy, in which India is initiating important cooperation and partnerships towards Southeast Asian countries. India's north-east region is the launch-pad of this policy, where Japan is engaged in several infra-structural projects. The India-Japan Indo-Pacific Vision 2025 has identified the Northeast region as a way to link India to Southeast Asia. Expanding connectivity will promote Free and Open Indo-Pacific (FOIP) by bridging gaps in regional integration. Asia-Africa Growth Corridor (AAGR) announced in 2017, where India and Japan will work together on joint projects in some countries like Bangladesh, Maldives, Sri Lanka and in Africa.

India's emergence as a prominent variable has a special mention in the maiden 'National Security Strategy' of Japan, which came in 2013. This strategy identifies the key security and strategic allies, namely India, Japan, Australia, United States and ASEAN. Japan needs to nurture a multifaceted strategic, defence, and security cooperation with those powers. As much as Abe took the initiative to strengthen Japan-India friendship, he also did lots to handle the economy of Japan. To get the economy back on track, he initiated pumping billions of dollars into Japan's economic growth. Such measures collectively referred to as "Abenomics." Similarly, introduction of economic reforms brought by PM Modi in India is referred as "Modinomics."

Since 2005, the two governments began annual summit meetings, when Koizumi Junichiro travelled India in the same year. When PM Manmohan Singh visited Japan in 2006, the relationship got a new height. Both PM Abe and Singh upgraded the relationship

to “Special Strategic and Global Partnership.” When Modi became prime minister, his summit meeting with Abe in September 2014 transformed the relationship, with the two leaders signing a joint statement called “Tokyo Declaration for Japan-India Special Strategic and Global Partnership”.

6. Defence and Security Cooperation

In October 2008, when Prime Minister Singh visited Japan, two leaders introduced a joint Declaration, which focused on ‘Security Cooperation’ between India Japan. The strategic cooperation between the two countries became visible in 2+2 meetings of foreign and defence ministers (first meeting held in 2019), partnerships in maritime security, which took place in the forms of annual Defence and Coast-Guard dialogues and joint exercises (military, naval and air). The Tri-Service Exchanges between Japan and India have been institutionalized completing the triad. Both countries conduct several armed exercises such as Dharma Guardian, Shiny Maitri, and Malabar Exercises. Coast Guards have regular annual exchanges since 2006. India-Japan Defence and Security partnership has evolved over the years and today forms an integral pillar of the bilateral ties. Our exchanges have strengthened due to growing convergence on strategic matters; and the common outlook on issues of peace, security and stability of the Indo-Pacific Region.

Under the aegis of PM Modi, India’s determination to gain a leadership role proved advantageous for Abe as India and Japan committed themselves to maritime security cooperation. Further, expansions in maritime domain awareness and the signing of the ‘Acquisition and Cross Servicing Agreement’ (ACSA) with the reciprocal provision of logistics services and supplies between the Armed Forces of both countries, strengthened cooperation in peace and security. ACSA came into force on July 11th, 2021.

7. Conclusion

Abe’s visionary leadership repositioned Japan in the world order. His concept of ‘Free and Open Indo-Pacific’ strengthened, deepened, and bolstered India-Japan relationship. Moreover, his personal equation with PM Modi provided vitality to this relationship. Abe’s legacy will not go to waste as India witnessed Japanese PM Fumio Kishida’s firm commitment to this relationship in

his maiden visit to India in March 2022'. In the India-Japan partnership, no leader played a more important role than Shinzo Abe. In a historic speech to the Indian Parliament in 2007, he spoke of a "broader Asia", the confluence of the Indian and Pacific oceans, and common democratic values. Abe, who met Narendra Modi in 2007, struck a chord with the then Gujarat chief minister. And from 2014 onwards, two leaders as PMs, qualitatively transformed India-Japan ties to the extent that Japan is India's closest friend in Asia today. It helps India meet its infrastructural, technological and developmental aspirations, shares its strategic concerns, and is partner for the present and the future. After his sad demise, India will truly miss him.

Abe believed in a high-powered diplomacy, which would deliver the rich dividends. He has good faith in PM Modi's nation-building vision. He stood firmly in materializing such idea and offered Japan's state-of-the-art infrastructure, massive investment and developmental aid across India including strategically located Northeast. With his energy and innovative thinking, Abe had invested greatly in institutionalizing India-Japan relations. It was his tireless enthusiasm that India's value in the strategic frame of Japan, increased. India-Japan relations will continue to thrive in the post-Abe chapter, since the variables that brought the two nations together have indeed become ever more compelling.

Abe moved Japan-India ties away from a narrow financial assistance paradigm to developing a vision for shared leadership in the vast Indo-Pacific region stretching from the South China Sea to the Suez and the east coast of Africa. It is a legacy that the Indian political class will not forget for a long time.

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