SOCIAL WORK JOURNAL

(Bi-annual)

Department of Social Work
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EDITORIAL

It gives me immense pleasure to bring out the first issue of 'Social Work Journal' by the Department of Social Work, Assam University, Silchar, Assam. It is an humble beginning to provide a space to the various actors in the field of Social Work to exchange and integrate varied perspectives in Social Work. This academic exercise would pave way for addressing the emerging challenges to social work profession, from local to global level. This issue is an outcome of contributions from the social work educators, social work practitioners and social science researchers across the country on diversified topics. There are totally 15 contributed papers for the Journal and an overview of the same is summarized below:

Prof. A. N. Singh in his paper "*Status of Field Work and Research in Social Work Education: with special reference to Hindi Speaking Areas in India*" reviews the trends of the field work practice/training in the schools of social work in India. The paper highlights the students' perspectives on objectives, goals and supervision of field work in Social Work. Prof. Singh tries to explore and evaluate the emerging trends of field work practice in North India.

The Paper -*"Empowerment of Women through Education – Need for Radical Social Work Intervention Strategies"* by Dr. V. Venkateshwarlu and Ch. Prasuna highlights the need for social work intervention in the area of education. Gender sensitization, community based initiatives, policy advocacy and mass mobilisation can ensure women's equality and empowerment.

A paper on *"Adolescence and Social Work Intervention"* by Dr. M. Tineshowri Devi examines the gaps between RCH (Reproductive and Child Health) Programme and the health care needs for adolescent girls. She elaborates the complexity of adolescent girls' health problems, associated with socio-economic and cultural factors.

The paper contributed by Dr. M. Gangabhushan on "*Plight of Women in Brick Industry: Need for Social Work Intervention*" brings forward the plight of women engaged

in Brick Industry with special reference to Barak Valley, Assam. The paper highlights the working and living conditions of women in this industry and suggests for need-based programmes and varied strategies by the governmental and non-governmental organisations to ameliorate the vulnerability of the women.

Dr. Subhabrata Dutta in his paper entitled "Rural Development Programmes and Panchayati Raj Institutions: Role of Professional Social Work" highlights the role of Panchayati Raj Institutions in Rural Development Programmes. The author believes that the social worker can work either independently or associate with the government or NGOs for the fulfilment of the goal of Panchayati Raj Institutions.

Mr. Mrityunjay Singh highlights in his paper *"Globalisation and Civil Society in India"*, has emphasised the significant role of civil society in the context of Globalisation, where the role of the State is shrinking to facilitate the trade and the market. The paper focuses the need for making both the State and the Corporate bodies to accountable through empower the common people with all the needed inputs.

Another paper *"Globalisation and Marginalisation: Reflections on HIV/ AIDS"* by Dr. Tarun Bikash Sukai highlights the HIV/AIDS as an epidemic of global nature and gives a brief account of the menace of the problem of HIV with mitigation. He further proposes to strengthen the healthcare system to help in combat the epidemic.

Another paper on *"Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Development"* by Dr. S.Y. Swadi, delineates the role of corporate sector to make positive contributions to the societal needs and aspirations through community development programmes. In order to restore the confidence of the people in the development strides, he emphasizes the essential role of corporates in the area of education, health, livelihood, infrastructure development, empowerment of the weaker sections etc.

Dr. Sanjoy Roy in his paper *"Socio-economic Conditions and Development of Migrant Rickshaw Pullers in Delhi-An Empirical Study"* highlights the problems of the migrant Rickshaw Pullers and suggests ways and means to educate them in the areas like

literacy health and recreation and also to impart legal awareness to improve their living conditions.

Dr. Onkar Kakade's paper entitled *"New Perspectives on Consumer Awareness in Media"* draws the attention of the readers on the significant role of media in the era of globalization, liberalization and changing consumer strategies. The author suggests the need for bringing consumer awareness on the aspects of sale and purchase of goods, the health and security. Media's promoting capacity would pave way for greater awareness and service to the consumer movement and society.

Prof. Siddegowda Y.S. in his paper entitled "A Comparative Study of Stress and Proneness to Various Psycho-Medical Illnesses Among The Institutional and Non-Institutional Senior Citizens" has analyzed the stress and proneness to major Medical and Psychiatric illnesses among institutionalized and non-institutionalized senior citizens.

Dr. Gangadhar B. Sonar in his paper *"Coping with Old Age: A Review"* attempted to highlight the problems in old-age and intends to bring out the effects of Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization on elderly people who are being neglected and denied from support mechanisms. He proposes the need for intervention of social work practitioners in productive and successful aging.

Another research paper by Dr. Channaveer on *"Status of the Socially Excluded Children in Urban High Schools: Need for Inclusive Strategies for Social Justice"* brings out the observed disparities between the public and private urban high schools, manifested in the form of social divide and social exclusion. He suggests to extend the scope of SSA (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan), to the socially excluded children as an inclusive public program to ensure Social Justice.

Dr. Ramesh B. and D'Souza Ashok Antony Jacob in their paper *"Activists' Understanding of Neo-Liberal Globalization: Some Implications to Social Action in India"* make an attempt to present the views of a cross-section of the Indian social activists about the neoliberal globalization. The authors suggest the social activists to take

steps to read, discuss and understand the latest patterns and dynamics of globalization to fortify their responses to social action requirements.

The paper "The Socialism of Sarvodaya: M. K. Gandhi's approach to Collective Human Welfare" by Dr. Adarshapally Nataraju makes a critical analysis of the concept of Sarvodaya, non-violence and trusteeship. The paper emphasises that Gandhi's model of achieving social transformation based on non-violence.

I am happy to express my sincere thanks to our Hon'ble Vice-Chancellor, Prof. Tapodhir Bhattacharjee for his kind encouragement and motivation to initiate and publish Social Work Journal, by the Department of Social Work, Assam University.

I would like to acknowledge the heartfelt gratitude to all the paper contributors and referees, members of the Advisory and Editorial Board for their consistent co-operation in bringing out the first issue of the journal. I sincerely hope that, this academic exercise will go a long way in strengthening the social work profession, through collective efforts.

Dr. B. S. Gunjal

(Editor-in-Chief)

Status of Field Work and Research in Social Work Education: With special reference to Hindi Speaking Areas in India

A. N. Singh

For social work profession the 'work' or 'service' has to concentrate mainly on practice carried out with people particularly of weaker and vulnerable section of the society. In this direction every student or professional must be properly equipped with required knowledge and understanding of the people, their problems and situations in which they live. This could be possible only when adequate opportunities are made available to social work students to test the veracity of knowledge and skills imparted in the class-room with reference to the real life situations. Field work, research and extension work is directed towards achieving this goal and social work educators have the pivotal role to play having good orientation and practice in the matter and make the students in turn to get orientation through the classroom platform.

The author has attempted to examine this situation with the help of a case study carried out in Hindi speaking areas in India.

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INTRODUCTION

Social Work is an emerging profession directed towards promoting social development and welfare as also human development in order to enable people, especially those belonging to weaker and vulnerable sections of society, to lead a dignified, emancipated, satisfying and peaceful life. As a professional discipline, social work prepares its professionals for achieving the objectives through interventions in the real life situations which are dynamic in nature; and therefore, demand an individualized attention. For the purpose of preparation of trained professional and man-power for social work

profession, formal education and training, like other various human service professions such as medicine, nursing, law etc. are being imparted through a network of educational institutions created at the highest level of universities/ colleges/schools etc. A perusal of the existing system of social work education in India (began in 1936 with the establishment of Sir Dorabji Tata Graduate School of Social Work, now Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai unravels that social work education and training are formally imparted either through independent schools/colleges affiliated to the universities recognized by the University Grants Commission or through the specially created departments of social work functioning as a part and parcel of the university system. The courses provided by these institutions may be generic or specialization-oriented. Class-room education, field work/field practice, research and extension work are the four basic components of a profession and especially for the social work education which is provided to students by competent social work educators and trainers in order that the students may acquire knowledge, learn skill and conduct empirical researches for promoting social and human development through varied kinds of interventions by utilizing a number of methods and techniques.

In the term 'social work', the suffix of 'work' makes it obligatory for the profession to concentrate its attention mainly on practice which has to be done with people or issues particularly of weaker and vulnerable section. For doing this, every student or professional must be properly equipped with required knowledge and understanding of the people, their problems and situation in which they are located, as also with skills and techniques required for introducing the desired changes in people's personality structure as well as social structure and system. This could be possible only when adequate opportunities are made available to social work students to test the veracity of knowledge and skills imparted in the class-room in the real life situations. Field work, research or extension work is directed towards achieving this goal. It is known that field education is one of the core components of professional social work training programmes worldwide. Review of available literature appears to suggest that research and publications on field education are very few, with even less relating to field education in national, international and cross-cultural contexts. Ryan and Martyn's (1996 observation was that although students are the main actors in fieldwork, their

inputs are very limited in field education research. Spencer and McDonald (1998 note that there were no articles written by students projecting the student perspective. Thus, remarkably, the voice of the student was absent from the literature. They further point out that what the students learn during the placement or concerning their process of learning was largely missing in the field education literature and suggest the importance of including students' perspectives in future research. Recognizing this gap, Patford (2000 has explored students' perceptions of key learning experiences and has analyzed seven significant learning experiences (feeling at a loss and the need to gain knowledge and skills; academic learning; operating solo; organizational constraints; discomforting social interactions; regulating emotion; and reappraising his/her commitment to social work and seven lessons learnt (the embodiment of social work principles/values in practice; self confidence and self-management; the impact of organizational structures and staff relationships on practice; the management of emotion; that life is fragile and unpredictable; the importance of process; personal suitability for particular social work roles in particular settings) during practice in the area of disabilities and reflected on the role of a social worker.

The literature on social work practice and research base reveals that there should be given enough focus and attention in the area of research along with theory and practice. Moti Ram Maurya (1962) expounds the philosophy of social work in the purview of field work programmes. He says field work programmes serves as a social library in social work. He added that the importance of field experience for an empirically evolved science like social work is evidently paramount and its practice arts is still evolving through the experiences of those who are working in it. Thus we see that social work has two facets-theory and practice. The significant role of bringing these two aspects of social work together with a view to equipping students to help people realistically and constructively is performed by field work. J. M. Kapoor (1961) has emphasized on the importance of field work in social work and how students slowly progress towards professional competence. Containing some questions like who is a field worker? What are the objectives of field work training in social work education? He explains that field work training in professional education is consequential because of its nature of dealing with the problems practically. He added that it is evident that

field work varies in quality and quantity. The duration of time is one factor, amount of working another and it is not merely visiting an agency or observing what goes on. But training of field work is always done under the able supervision of well equipped faculty supervisor and also, sometimes, under the supervision of an agency supervisor. Rosemary Reynolds (1961) has elaborately described three basic principles of modern professional social work training: 1. Complementary classroom and field work; 2. Actual work in social agency rather than merely an opportunity for observation; and 3. Individualized supervision of a tutorial nature. She further described that field work comprises three elements i.e. Plan, Methods and Goals and all the three methods can be tested according to the principles. In the first principle, she mention that schools of social work use two types of field work learning-the Concurrent plan and the Block plan. In schools using concurrent plan, a student usually spends two days a week in field and four days a week at school through out his two years of professional training. In some of the schools, in India as well as abroad, the field work days are increased from two to three owing to greater emphasis on field work. In the second principle it is said that the field work placement provides realistic work situation to students for practical experience. During the whole work situations student is supervised directly or indirectly and certain safeguards are maintained with a view to overcome his difficulties which he faces often and to remove the pressure of work or forces internally or externally. In the absence of these safeguards, his field experience follows the general plan and pattern of work within the agency. In the third principle, she analyses that throughout the field placement the student is provided with constant supervision. Supervision of student is done for various reasons. The student of social work is expected to become a professional worker upon completion of his training.

Field instruction is a crucial component of social work education and is recognized as an educational process to facilitate integrative and experiential learning. Through the pattern, and organizational of social work practicum have some universality, the micro-based practice model adopted in the Indian context has led to inappropriately designed field education programmes producing students unsuited to meet the developmental need of the Indian society. They further added that field practice comprises experiential learning where the field instructor and the student use the

theoretical perspectives taught in the class room as foundations for the development of practice skills of techniques in the field and the major role of the field instructor is to help the student to see connection, relationship, differences and similarities between concepts taught in the class room and realities in the field. They mention field work instruction in an international perspective and say irrespective of the dichotomies between micro and macro social work practice models of the region or nation, the field instruction programme seems to have greater consistency cross-nationally in terms of its educational values, pattern of field practicum and the profession's accountability for the quality of field learning of students (B. Devi Prasad and B. Vijayalakshmi, 1997).

Verma D. Mehta *(1975)* has referred three basic methods of social work viz. Case work, Group work and Community Organization and its practice in the field. She observed that by and large it has been found that among all the methods, case work gets the strongest concentration in schools of social work where there is both generic and specific training and the students well informed about case work practice in the fields of Family and Child Welfare, Medical and Psychiatric Social Work, Correctional Administration, etc. with out the subsequent focus on other two. She also referred that unlike the USA we have not adopted the system of method specialization in our school curricula and undoubtedly, the Indian social worker is much more of a generalist and has been a forerunner in this than this western counterpart, who considers himself as a case worker, group worker or community organizer. Adding to this, she mention that while we have been called upon to use all the techniques many of our educationists and practitioners have not theorized or grasped the content and mode of integration of methods and the various innovative ways in which we can implement social work programmes. She has given concentration on the basic theoretical framework for the integrated methods approach by saying that there can be no effective implementation of programmes in the field unless the students has a prior and sound conceptual understanding of the methods.

R. R. Singh (2005) has clearly mentioned some terms like field, practice, field education, field work and practical training used by social philosophers, educators and practitioners, and also explains those terms and its application in the context of

professional training in social work. He also brings out the interrelationship and unity of theory and practice in social work.

Karen Healy (2005) has clearly discussed the importance and relationship of theory to practice. She tried to identify the major ideas that form the foundation of social work practice for gaining knowledge of these ideas and increasing its relevance to social work's values and goals. She idealistically focused on social work ideas which cover a complex terrain including context, discourse and theories. By 'context' she tried to mean the interaction between the organization and the profession's formal base. The term 'discourse' explained by her was based on the influence on practice by bio-medicine, economics and the law; for example, seem to minimize the rich complexities inherent in the real life situations of social workers and their clients. In terms of social work 'theories', she argues that theories are critical to accurate assessments and effective delivery and that practitioners, along with academics, share responsibility for their development. She tried to mean theory as 'theories in situ' and ultimately it is at the level of these specific case theories that social workers make sense of the problems in broader aspect.

Let's see how those components i.e. training or field work practice and research of social work profession carries wattage in social work especially in Hindi speaking areas.

There is a plethora of theories in social work education which need to be taught to the student and those theories have been borrowed from other disciplines. The social work educators and professionals are exercising in attempting to have a good-fit of these theories with professional practice. From a overview of social work courses in India, it could be highlighted that the theories are intangibly taught, are not properly stated by the department or schools and for a comprehension of these theories there are innumerable books prescribed by the schools which pertain to different disciplines such as sociology, psychology, political science, anthropology, economics, criminology etc. Social work has only six own methods i.e. case work, group work, community organization, social

action, social research and social welfare administration to be taught during the whole year of teaching.

On the other side, a professional must be able to academically analyze the existing reality as well as the outcome of intervention, which is not possible unless he/she is has proficiency in research. In the first year of MSW, the students will be taught thoroughly and extensively about the research and use of statistical data while preparation of field work observation notes. In the second year, students need to undertake intensive exercises so as to learn to use research findings to sharpen field work practice. They learn to prepare assignments, field based case studies, research reports, monographs, research proposals, synopsis etc. It could be seen that social arena in India has been characterized by rapid change throwing our social values, norms and behavior patterns and developing of other social evils like communalism, terrorism etc. has created the situation more critical. Through research project or doctoral research, social work students are providing considerable attention to those social problems.

METHODOLOGY

Rationality of the Study

The study aims at reviewing the trends in field work practice/training in schools of social work in India especially in Hindi speaking areas. Emphasis has given in understanding the aims and objectives of field work practice and training of students, research characterized by the school of social work.

The study has further emphasized on perspective of trainee i.e. MSW final year students of the institutes/schools regarding the objectives, goals, supervision, content of field work assignments and it's research outcome. How it is related to their career and do they practice in near future? The existing system or market scenario has been changed for new professional and new concepts emerged like social ecology, good-governance, health-communications, development-communication, management in health management in social sectors. The field work should also be dealt with the

changing pattern of the market so that emerging professionals would be able to adopt themselves with the flow of pattern.

As field work is an integral part of the social work curriculum and this study hopes to explore the kind of training or field work, research that goes into the making of a social worker. It hopes to examine the different components such as teaching, training and research. There is dearth of empirical study in field work and field work practice and training have different schools of social work in India.

Objectives of the Study

The General objective of the study is to analyze the nature and content of field work training in different schools of social work, especially in Hindi speaking areas in India.

The specific objectives of this study will be:

1. To find out the background and perception of the social work students and educators regarding the objectives, content of field work, supervision and research undertaken at schools of social work.

2. To find out the new process and mechanisms of field work.

3. To explore and evaluate the emerging trends of field work and research today with new requirements of the present scenario.

Research Design

In order to carry out the present research, an *Exploratory Research Design* has been adopted following the above objectives of the study.

Universe

The study is based on fifteen schools of social work in different universities of India. It has covered four zones i.e. North, South, East and West zones of India. Seven schools from North which are Hindi speaking areas, five from South, two from East and one from West zone have covered.

Sampling Size

Total 300 students and 90 social work educators were taken as respondents for this study from different schools of social work in India.

Sampling technique

Since the universe was undefined, both *Probability and Non-Probability* sampling techniques have been used by the researcher in this study. To achieve the first objective *Simple Random Sampling* has used. To achieve the other objectives, the *Purposive Sampling* technique (Non-probability) has used for collecting primary data and also secondary data will be supported for analyzing of departmental profiles, and field work manuals on the basis of Purposive Sampling. Also the study has used '*Case Study'* method to get in-depth understanding about the field work. The data has collected through both *Primary & Secondary Sources*. All the students of MSW final year of all the institutions had given *Questionnaire* to collect the data as primary sources. All the educators of the institutions had administered questionnaire to collect the primary data. Also the researcher had *Discussions* with senior professors and field work directors to get more in-depth understanding about the field work and related issues. The researcher used *Focused Group Discussions (FGDs)* with both student's community and educator's community in some of the institutions/ departments to get a concrete idea and additional idea and knowledge about field work and other related issues as a primary source of data. The researcher also used *Observation Method* for the present study to acquaint with the actual field work training, supervision and evaluation practices in some of the schools of social work in India and field welfare agencies during my supervision time to time. As a secondary source, books, journals, the field work files, field work manuals, departmental profile, have been consulted to get data. The researcher also used *Case Study Method* to get deep and detailed information from all the schools/ departments of social work in India for both primary and secondary sources of information.

Analysis and Interpretation

After collecting data, the researcher has checked carefully and all the entries were edited properly. Then the code book was prepared and master sheets were filled. The master sheets were processed through computer using Microsoft Excel and SPSS package and tables have prepared in which data have furnished in different tabular form. Then the proposed data has analyzed & interpreted and the results have obtained accordingly.

Situation in Hindi Speaking Areas

Basically the Hindi speaking areas denotes the schools of social work in Uttar Pradesh and Delhi. Under the study total seven schools of social work i.e. five from U.P and two from Delhi have covered. These schools are Delhi School of Social Work (DSSW), Jamia Milia Islamia University, University of Lucknow, Banaras Hindu University, Mahatma Gandhi Kashi Vidyapeeth, Aligarh Muslim University, Chattrapati Sahu Ji Maharaj University. It has been seen that in the Hindi speaking areas except in Delhi, Jamia Milia and Lucknow university field work is not up to the mark related to maintaining all the dimensions of it. Some schools have introduced social work as self-finance course without having proper field work arrangements, lack of systemic supervision and specialized agencies nearby and social work departments are collaborated with sociology or other social sciences without requisite faculties (As in BHU, the social work department is associated with the department of sociology named as Faculty of Social Work in department of Sociology). Most of the schools do not provide Supportive Field Instructions Programme (S.F.I. aims at providing the students exposure to innovative methods of working and various intervention strategies through bi-weekly two hours interaction with experienced professionals from field) and unavailability of Placement Cell (The role of the Cell is to identify the employment opportunities and to create awareness regarding the relevance of social work inputs ineffective delivery of services by the organizations involved in the welfare of people). The faculties are advocating research projects in the areas of child labour, HIV/AIDS, women health, child rights, disability, drug abuse, problem and services of elderly etc. involving the students time to time in the department.

Case Study

UNIVERSITY OF LUCKNOW

(DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK)

NATURE OF FIELD WORK

Field work is provided by the department through a large number of well-established development agencies, institutions, hospitals, schools, old age homes, urban health centre, after care homes and other NGOs. Students placed in these agencies or institutions participate in a variety of welfare and development activities as part of their programmes. They also involve in the slum community through agencies. The minimum number of field work days in an academic year shall be 60 and students are required to attend at least 90 percent of the total field work days. Also each student has to spend a minimum of 15 hours a week on the field. Field work in the department is composed of through Orientation Programme, Concurrent Field Work, Winter Placement, Rural Camp and Block Placement. The department identified and adopted a model slum and a village to promote their integrated development through varied kinds of action oriented programmes.

SUPERVISION SYSTEM

Supervision has different dimensions and it counted through daily supervisory visits, remarks made on the daily reports/ records submitted by the students, individual and group conferences and mid-term sharing etc. ICs held in the department once in a week for all BSW and MSW students depending on the faculty members. GCs also held once in a fort-night and it are compulsory for all to attend. All the departmental supervisors will conduct a sharing session i.e. Mid-Term sharing to monitor the progress of the students.

SYSTEM OF EVALUATION

Evaluation system is based on the written and monthly report, weekly individual conferences and group conferences based on report writing. A mid placement review is

conducted before the completion of the first term and then conduct an evaluation meeting with students. Before writing the final evaluation student need to prepare a summary report of the work done through out the year and need to submit their field work diary. The evaluation of the field work will be done both by Internal and External examiners.

FINDINGS

Findings have analyzed from both educators and student's point of view.

Qualification

The qualifications of the respondents were varied. It was found that out of total respondents, 36 respondents were holding Ph.D. which represents 40 percent. 21.1 respondents were having PG degree in social work and 17.8 percent respondents were also holding M. Phil. degree. Only 11.1 percent respondents noted that they did BSW at the initial stage. Surprisingly it was found that 10 percent respondents were having other degree than social work degree. This percentage of respondents were having the degree of sociology, even they have Ph.D. degree in sociology. It has analyzed that some of the schools of social work such as Aligarh Muslim University, MGKV Varanasi, and BHU etc. having affiliation with sociology department and rather can be said that department of sociology initiated to start social work in their university, so that it could be obvious that they are still running and coordinating with social work department.

Additional Qualification

Additional qualification aspect showed that 23 respondents were having extra qualification rather than social work qualification. Out of 23 respondents, 12 respondents i.e. more that 50 percent have PG Diploma in Rural Development and Human Resource Management and 4 respondents have Certificate Course in Computer Application. Rest of the respondents were having Degree in Economics (8.69 percentage) and 21.73 percent respondents have other certificate courses in Research Methodology, LLB and MBA.

Teaching Experience in Social Work

It appears that 30 respondents i.e. 33.3 percent have less than five years teaching experiences and 28.9 percentage respondents have more than five to ten years teaching experiences. A few respondents i.e. 10 percent, 13.3 percent and 6.7 percent respondents were teaching experiences of ten to fifteen, fifteen to twenty and twenty to twenty five respectively. Only 7.8 percent respondents were having teaching experiences of more than twenty five years. It is concluded that young social work educators are coming to this profession.

Research Experience

Here research experiences covers only doing research in terms of job or any projects other than Ph.D. work. It has found that around 50 percent were having less than five years of research experience and 22.2 percent were having less than five to ten years experience. On the other hand equal number of respondents i.e. 13.3 percent respondents have ten to fifteen and fifteen to twenty years of research experiences respectively. It has also found that only 2.2 percent respondents do not have any research experiences and they directly joined in teaching.

Involvement in Organization/ Project before joins Teaching

It has found that out of total respondents, 51 respondents have opinion of not to join in any organization or any projects before joins the teaching but 39 respondents said that they joins in organization or project work before joining of teaching. It has found that out of 39 respondents, only 2 respondents have less than one year experience and 19 respondents have one to three years experiences. On the other hand 12 respondents and 6 respondents have three to five and more than five years experiences respectively in any organization or any project in different parts of India.

Association with Professional Organization

A majority of educators i.e. 62.2 percent responded that they are associated in professional organizations in different capacities such as a member of governing body

which consists of 25 percent, 12 respondents as a consultant (21.42 percent), 4 respondents as a advisor (7.14 percent), 24 respondents as a member (42.85 percent) and two respondents (3.57 percent) as evaluator and secretary of the organizations. It has concluded that educators not only involve in teaching but they are involve in different association or organizations in different capacities and some of them also having their own NGOs working in developmental issues involving their students in project work.

Teacher-Agency Meeting and its Frequency

The majority of respondents (72.2 percent) said that they do organize teacher-agency meeting to know the requirements from both sides related to the issues and problems dealing by the students and only 27.8 percent said that do not organize meeting because of the negligence of the department and the negative attitude of agency. Out of total respondents who do organize meetings, one respondent said in a fort-night organize meeting, two respondents said organize meetings once in a month, 34 respondents said organize meetings once in quarterly and six respondents said organize meetings once in a year. On the other hand, 22 respondents said that they organize teacher-agency meetings but do not have any fixed schedule. From the above scenario it is clear that no schools have their actual fixed date to organize teacher-agency meetings.

Satisfaction with Field Work

It has found that around 80 percent students are satisfied with their field work dealing with social issues and problems because they get help from the department as well as from the agency but 20 percent students are not satisfied with their field work dealing with issues because they are very often helped by the department as well as by the agency.

Change in Field Work Process

68.3 percent (205) student respondents are in favour of change in field work process for the betterment of their career today and they mention some processes like field work placement should be based on the interest of the students, exposure should be given to the students in different settings instead of placing in some settings more than once,

special classes and examination should be for field work, specialist teacher should be there to deal with field work, laborious students should be entertained with awards like 'best field worker', small research/ study should be given to the students etc, but 25 percent students (75) were not in favour of change of field work process. On the other hand a little percentage of total student (6.7 percent) respondents did not comment on this issue.

Field Work Helps in Job Profile

Almost all the student respondents (96 percent) think that concurrent field work would kelp in their job profile as it gives increasing the competency to them, kelps in understanding the reality based problems solving process, have a scope to relate theories into application dealing with either problematic or normal individual, group and community in different situations, helps and show the way how to work in grass root levels, develop skills of rapport establishment with community people etc. Only 4 percent student respondents comment that field work does not help much in job.

Regarding Complexity of Social Problems

An overwhelming percentage (94.3) of students have said that social problems are more complex today rather it was before and rest of the students respondent (5.7 percent) were against on it.

Need for New Mechanism or Theory

It has found that majority of the students (65 percent) were of the opinion that we need new mechanism and theory to deal with emerging issues today and 27 percent said against it, though 8 percent student respondents did not comment on it. They pointed out about the mechanism and theory such as need reality based approach, balancing two phenomena for both positive interest, more living and attracting theory to deal issues, more ethical and morals dominant theory, rationality inculcation theory, provision of effective implementation of PRA method, deal social problems according to the nature of the problems, theory related to human behaviour, theory for maximum utilization of

human capital, theory related to mind set up towards the sustainable development, more democratic theory etc.

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Empowerment of women through education – Need for radical social work intervention strategies

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As a general goal, empowerment has been described as a political and a material process, which increases individual and group power, self reliance and strength. Empowerment of women calls for strict and rigid implementation of all the laws and programmes that have a bearing on their lives. Those in authority should have the will to enforce all women's development programmes, which if done in right earnest can go a long way in empowering women.

The National Education System will play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women. It will foster the development of new values through redesigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision makers and administrators, and the active involvement educational institutions; this will be an act of social engineering. The policy of non-discrimination will be pursued vigorously to eliminate sex stereotyping in vocational and professional courses and to promote women's participation in non-traditional occupations, as well as in existing and emergent technologies. This paper highlights the impact of Women's education on her Empowerment and also the need for Radical Social Work Intervention Strategies for achieving Empowerment of Women and Self reliance.

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of empowerment of an individual or a social group pre supposes that a state of social, oppression exists which has disempowered those in the group, by denying them opportunities or resources and by subjecting them to an ideology and a set of social practices which has defined them as inferior humans, thus lowering their self esteem. As general goal, empowerment has been described as a political and a material process, which increases individual and group power, self reliance and strength.

Empowerment of women also calls for strict and rigid implementation of all the laws and programmes that have a bearing on their lives. Mere passing of laws and launching of welfare schemes have little meaning for women. Those in authority should have the will to enforce all women's development programmes, which if done in right earnest can go a long way in empowering women.

Investing in women's capabilities and empowering them to exercise their choices is not only valuable in itself but is also the surest way to contribute to economic growth and overall development. In spite of various efforts to equalize opportunities between men and women, gender disparity continues to exist. Even today, women still constitute 70 per cent of the world's poor and two thirds of the world's illiterates. They occupy only 14% of managerial and administrative jobs and 8.9 percent of Lok Sabha seats and 7.3 percent of Rajya Sabha seats India.

Our country has made tremendous attempts/efforts towards developing women's capabilities, yet women and men still live in an unequal world. Development efforts have been focusing on identifying the situation of women and attempts have been made to ensure that women have opportunities, improve their role in development. In order to equal opportunities, improve their over all status, to remove various gender biases, the government of India has provided constitutional guarantees, evolved legislative measures and has adopted various policies advocating women's concern. This paper highlights the impact of Woman education on her Empowerment and also the need for Radical Social Work Intervention Strategies for achieving Empowerment of Women and Self reliance.

With the introduction of the National Policy on Education 1986, 'education for women's equality' came to be accepted as a legitimate part of government strategy. Advocates for women's empowerment greeted this unprecedented section of the policy with enthusiasm. The oft-quoted section of the policy reads: Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. In order to neutralize the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well conceived edge in favour of women. The National Education System will play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women. It will foster the development of new values through resigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision makes and administrators, and the active involvement educational institutions; this will be an act of social engineering. The policy of non-discrimination will be pursued vigorously to eliminate sex stereotyping in vocational and professional courses and to promote women's participation in non-traditional occupations, as well as in existing and emergent technologies.

The year 2001 was commemorated as Women's Empowerment year. Many issues have remained and will remain untouched if we are not convinced that increased Gender Equity has enormous benefits in establishing a culture of Human Rights. A nation or a society goes ahead only through the contribution of all its members. Pushing the women into backyards leads the society to lag behind. Women need to be viewed as not beneficiaries but as active participants in the process of development and change – her capacity to work, her knowledge and her skills are often the only resource to call upon for survival of household. Thus they act as critical factors in moving their families out of poverty.

The 1991 Annual Report of the Asian Development Bank points out: "A one year increase in mother's education is associated with a 9 per cent decrease in the mortality rate -of children under five years of age ……. Improved education also encourages women to participate more in community development activities which often provide increased income-earning opportunities. As better educated mothers have better educated children, benefits are passed on from one generation to the next".

Development for women means the opportunity and ability to assert their rights and fight for justice. Development also means real improvement in the socio-economic conditions of women. Women and men alike have to be educated to see women's potential in a new perspective. Education can help women to conquer the disadvantages and discrimination which they suffer from and that is indeed the greatest and foremost empowerment. Empowerment through law is no doubt very necessary and essential but law by itself can bring little change if other conditions do not change. The improvement of the status of women requires a change in the attitudes and roles of both men and women. Women's development should not only be viewed as an issue in social development but should be seen as an essential component in every dimension of development. When women are educated their dependence automatically disappears or at least decreases. Education helps women to resist exploitation, besides of course empowering them to be self reliant. Where women are educated they can become potential sources for harnessing a community's resources for general well being. Education which increases women's awareness thus leads to their overall development in particular, and society in general.

➢   The Millennium Development Goals commit the international community to a comprehensive vision of development, which places human development at the centre stage of social and economic progress and puts great value on global partnerships for development. Since 2000, when the MDGs were ratified at the United Nations Millennium Summit, the goals have been widely accepted as a yardstick for measuring development progress across countries. Gender equality and women's empowerment has been recognized as a crucial component in development. The United nations has developed eight important target indicators fro global development in 2000, which were declared as Millennium Development Goals:

➢   Eradication of Poverty

➢   Basic education for all

➢   Gender Equality

➢ Women's empowerment

➢ Reducing infant mortality rate

➢ Fighting the diseases of AIDS and Malaria

➢ Environment protection and

➢ International networking

Most of the target indicators are in one way or other related to women and can be achieved only by making women as the active participants, besides being passive beneficiaries also. No society can prosper without making women educated and empowered. The relevance of women's education to social, economic, cultural and political development of the individual, family, community and nation is universally acknowledged. Globally gender equality and women empowerment have been recognized as vital components to achieve overall development.

Table – 1 State wise Female Literacy Rate (2001)

Rank	Name of the State	Literacy Rate	
		Female	Male
35	Bihar	33.57	60.32
34	Jharkand	39.38	67.94
33	Jammu and Kashmir	41.82	65.85
32	Uttar Pradesh	42.98	70.23
31	Dadra and nagar Haveli	42.99	73.32
30	Rajasthan	44.34	76.49
29	Arunachal Pradesh	44.24	64.07
28	Madhya Pradesh	50.28	76.80
27	Orissa	50.97	75.95
26	Andhra Pradesh	51.17	70.85
25	Chattishgarh	52.40	77.86
24	Assam	56.03	71.93
23	Haryana	56.31	79.25
22	Karnataka	57.45	76.29
21	Gujarat	58.60	80.50
20	Manipur	59.70	77.87
19	West Bengal	60.22	77.58
18	Uttaranchal	60.26	84.01
17	Meghalaya	60.41	66.14
16	Sikkim	61.46	76.73
15	Nagaland	61.92	71.77
14	Punjab	63.55	75.63
13	Tamilnadu	64.55	82.33
12	Tripura	65.41	81.47
11	Maharashtra	67.51	86.27
10	Himachal Pradesh	68.08	86.02
09	Daman and Diu	70.37	88.40
08	Pondicherry	74.13	88.89
07	Delhi	75.00	87.37
06	Andaman and Nicobar islands	75.29	86.07
05	Goa	75.51	88.88
04	Chandigarh	76.65	85.65
03	Lakshadweep	81.56	93.15
02	Mizoram	86.13	90.69
01	Kerala	87.86	94.20

The above table clearly depicts that the literacy rates of the States and Union Territories in India. Kerala holds first position in having highest literacy rate while Bihar is holding last position among the states in India.

Decadal Variations in Literacy Rates in India, 1951-2001

Census Year	Persons	Males	Females
1951	18.3	27.2	9.0
1961	28.3	40.4	15.4
1971	34.5	46.0	22.0
1981	43.6	56.4	29.7
1991	52.2	64.1	39.3
2001	65.4	75.9	54.2

Note: The table should be read caution, as literacy rates from 1951 to 1971 are not strictly comparable to those from 1981 to 2001 because of change in the computational procedure. In comparison to the former period (1951-57), the latter one tends to present a bit more inflated picture.

Source: Census of India, 2001, Provisional Population Totals, Series-1, India, Paper-1 of 2001. New Delhi: Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India.

The above table clearly indicates that the total literacy rate and also for Male and Female has been steadily increasing. The Female literacy is still lagging behind Male literacy rate. More than three-fourths of Male population and a little more than half of the female population were recorded as literate.

Women's Education – Social Development:

An important component of social development is the access of the girl child to the world of knowledge and information. Despite the efforts of government, education appears to be a distant dream for many poor and rural girls. Two thirds of world's total illiterates are women. Education is the basic instrument of social change. Parents have to change their attitude towards the educational development of their daughters and encourage them to go for higher learning. They should have an access to the emerging fields of science and technology. Through education they can be conscious of their rights and duties in the society. Educated women can get employment in all fields. They

should no longer be dependents of their brothers, fathers or husband. They should be in a position to manage their families with their own will. Social development can be achieved through the educational development of the women in India.

Education for Women's Equality:

Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. In order to neutralize the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well conceived edge in favour of women. The National Education System will play a positive, interventionist role in the, empowerment of women. It will foster the development of new values through resigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision makes and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions, this will be an act of faith and social engineering. Women's Studies will be promoted as a part of various courses and educational institutions will be encouraged to take up active programmes to further women's development.

Present Indian Education Scenario at a Glance:

Despite the theoretical availability of education throughout India, the practical limitations of imparting universal elementary education and encouraging women to continue into higher echelons of learning has challenged the resources of the administrative machinery of India. At the very basic level of literacy rates for the country, one can see the immediately disadvantaged condition of women. According to the 2001 census, the literacy rate for women was 54.28 percent as compared to men for whom it was 75.96 percent. According to selected educational statistics, 2002-2001, Ministry of HRD, GOI, there were 6.1 million recognized primary schools in India and 1.8 million upper primary schools in India. In 2001, the total number of teachers in recognized primary schools was 18.9 millions and at the upper primary level was 13.3 millions. Out of these 55% teachers were females at the primary level and 62% at the upper primary level. The literacy rate for women worldwide is 71.4% as compared to 83.7% for men. Of the 960 million illiterate adults two-thirds is women. In India female literacy rate is 54% where as that of males is 76% and this clearly shows the gender inequity in our education system. The literacy rates of females among SCs and

STs are even below the national average. The statistics given below highlight the gender inequalities in India.

S.No	Indicator	Female	Male	Total
1	Population (in millions)	495.7	531.3	1027
2	Sex Ration	933		
3	Infant Mortality Rate (2002)	65	62	64
4	Literacy Rate	53.67%	75.26%	64.84%
5	Gross Enrollment Ration (2002-2003) Min. of HRD Class I-V Class VI-VIII	93.1	97.5	95.3
6	Drop Out Rate (2002-2003) Min. of HRD Class I-V b) Class VI-VIII	33.7 52.3	35.8 53.4	34.9 52.8
Source: India country Report (2005), Department of Women and Child Development, ministry of women and Child Development				

The Existing Gap Between the Policies and Realities:

Despite the initiatives taken in the realm of policy, discrimination faced by girls in schools, and gender construction of roles within families and the society continue to be major barrier for participation of girls in schools. This discrimination becomes more acute when they belong to the socially disadvantaged classes. Also, girls face socioeconomic barriers at every step of the schooling process. These issues imply a realization that girls and boys are placed in structural inequalities and unequal power relationships, and in practical terms, it means subjugation of one sex to another. It therefore becomes vital to understand and analyze the present practices that take place in the family and in school, both of which are part of the larger society, which is patriarchal in nature.

Need for Radical Social Work Intervention Strategies:

A holistic approach for intervention has to be adopted focusing on both micro as well as macro level approaches to bring about attitudinal changes by working at the family and community level and the policy level.

a.   **Gender Sensitization Programmes**: There is a need an environment where there is respect for girl children and a positive environment for them to identify and nurture their inner talents. Gender sensitization programmes with adolescent boys, girls, community men and women, school teachers, principals and officials working for development welfare of children may be organized at regular intervals. In these training sessions the role of these groups as agents of change for bringing about gender equality may be highlighted in order to break the age old perceptions and norms.

b.   **Community Based Activities**: Professionals, activists, social workers, volunteers attached with different NGO's working at the family, school and community levels, can organize multifaceted awareness programmes aimed at ensuring that girls receive proper care, survival, opportunities for development, protection and recreation. Through planning, handholding and support activities like cultural activities, latent talent development exercises and rallies by ch8ldren may be organized by community groups on a regular basis in order to give the girl children positive discrimination and motivating them to come forward. Community leaders, volunteers, PTAs may be motivated and trained to ensure the enrolment of all girl children in formal school. Non-formal education, Open-schooling need to be made available as alternatives wherever formal schooling is not possible. Creative awareness programmes to eliminate all forms of discrimination against the girl children like female feticide, infanticide, neglect, abuse and incest may also be organized through demonstrations by community children, mothers and fathers groups, leaders; healthy baby shows (focusing on healthy 'girl' and 'boy' children), celebrating women's day thereby also involving men.

c.   **Policy Level:** Advocacy is needed for formulation of policies and programmes to help the family in supporting, educating and nurturing roles, provision of more schools and basic infrastructure. Changes in the school curriculum / textbooks need to be made to make them gender friendly. The Government has to take steps to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2015, which is also Millennium Development Goal.

d.   Advocacy Level: In making girl child's rights a reality, vigorous efforts are required mobilizing political, cultural, administrative and community resources and promoting transformation of public awareness of girl child needs into demands to be fulfilled on time. This calls for massive advocacy and social mobilization starting from the highest policy level. Action has to be taken to create an enabling environment to safe guard the rights of the girl child and empower communities in a manner that they are ready to assume their primary responsibilities towards the development of the girl child the woman of tomorrow.

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Adolescence and Social Work Intervention

M. Tineshowri Devi

An attempt is made in the paper to examine the gaps between the Reproductive and Child Health Programme and the health care needs of adolescent girls. It emphasizes the need to provide not only the reproductive and sexual health but also the whole gamut of other factors that are closely associated with adolescents' health that have hither to ignored by policy makers. Further the author examines the complexity of adolescent girls' health problems and their association with social, cultural and economic factors.

Key Words: Adolescent Health, Sex Education, Health Seeking Behaviour

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INTRODUCTION

The World Health Organization defines adolescents as young people aged 10-19 years. "Adolescence" is often synonymous with the teen years, thus identified as 10-19. "Youth" usually covers the ages 15-24, and "young people" is used for 10-24. "Young adults" are typically considered in the age range 20-24. Adolescence is the period in life that signals a shift from childhood to adulthood (Government of India, 2006).

In India, it is estimated that there are 225 million adolescents comprising nearly one-fifth (22 percent) of the total population (Census, 2001). Of the total adolescent population, 12 percent belong to adolescents comprise of almost 47 percent female and 53 percent of male adolescents. The sex ratio among the 10-19 years is 882 females for 1000 males, lower than the overall sex ratio of 933. It is 902 for younger adolescents aged 10-14 years and 858 for older adolescents aged 15-19 years (Government of India, 2006). Adolescence is a time of tremendous opportunity and change. It is also a time of

heightened vulnerabilities. Programs that can provide information, ensure access to services and develop life skills are crucial to the future of this population. As a result, adolescents' general health and reproductive health are an increasingly important component of global health. However, despite adolescents being a huge segment of the population, policies and programmes in India have focused very little on the adolescent groups. This article is trying to examine the gaps between the RCH Programme and the health care needs of adolescent girls in the context of socio-economic and cultural set up of Manipur.

The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), 1994 marked the start of a global rhetoric on reproductive well-being. In India, in 1995, the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MoHFW) introduced the Reproductive and Child Health Programme (RCH) as part of a paradigmatic shift in its on going family welfare programmes (Rachel, 2002). Reproductive and Child Health Programme draws the same principles of the ICPD. RCH Programme has two separate packages, the Comprehensive (expanded package) and the Essential package. But neither the Comprehensive package nor the Essential package considers the general health of the adolescents. Their emphasis is on reproductive health services, prevention and treatment of reproductive tract infections and sexually transmitted infections, health sexuality and gender information, education and counselling. Thus RCH Programme does not seem to recognise the general health of the adolescents where reproductive health is a part of the general health and the social and cultural factors that are associated with it.

METHODOLOGY

An exploratory research design was used for the study. In two districts, 128 girls were selected from 8 Higher Secondary schools and information was collected through focus group discussion and interview schedule. Likewise 64 couple parents were also interviewed by using interview schedule to collect the necessary data in order to analyze the factors that influenced the adolescent girls, their health seeking behaviours and distribution of health services towards the girls. 32 teachers, 12 doctors, 12 nurses, 8 health workers, 12 NGO workers were selected as key informants and they were

interviewed accordingly to gather the information on the curriculum; services available in the schools, hospitals, and NGOs.

Findings:

(A) Adolescents- The sample of adolescents is from school going girls of 10+1 and 10+2 at the age group of 15-19 years who reside in both Thoubal and Chandel districts. All the respondents are unmarried. It was found that the average earning members among the families of respondents was 2.06. Majority of the households with 30.5 percent live in a poor economic condition having a monthly family income of less than 3000 and closely followed by 28.9 percent whose income ranges from 3001 to 5000. There is less number of respondents, 3.2 percent who belong to the income group of above 10000.

All the adolescents under the study had experienced restriction that came not only from society but also from parents in many ways. Many of the girls responded that there was not much safe and supportive environment for them starting from family, schools, and hospitals and at large in society. They were often neglected and restricted by the parents and society in their mobility, mixing up with friends, by not allowing in kitchen and puja during periods. They found that they were being neglected their potentials and abilities. They were often teased by classmate boys in schools, strangers in market areas, and even by relatives at their locality. It is evident that 24.2 percent of the respondents felt they became care takers and subordinate in the family. The data revealed that girls and women continue to be victims of social humiliation with social evils and practices. Girls and women are always being treated as impurity. The physiological changes occurring among the girls are not taken as their becoming of maturity rather they are treated as impurity. It is also shown that girls always remain the center of subordinate and inferiority. They are physically, emotionally and culturally deprived.

The natures of the problems faced by adolescent girls are seen in the light of physical, medical, social and psychological aspects. The most common health complaints mentioned by girls were general health problems of 75.8 percent like fever, cold, cough, body ache, headache, diarrhoea, stomach problems, skin problems, eye

problems, dizziness, weakness, etc. than the reproductive health problems of 24.2 percent including the cases of itching, white discharge, dysmenorrhoea and irregular menstruation. It can be noted that girls may be shy to disclose reproductive health related information or they are not aware that they have got the problems until it has become serious. However, it can be revealed that the need for general health has to be given more importance along with reproductive health.

Looking at the health seeking behaviour, in general health related illness, girls preferred more of private doctors with 57 percent along with homemade medicine, chemist shops, and pastors than government doctor (hospital). Regarding reproductive health related treatment only 4.7 percent of the girl respondents sought medical advice from private doctors and government doctors (hospital). Majority of the girls 75 percent did not reveal their reproductive health problems if they had any and accordingly they had not attended any medical treatment. This reveals that majority of the girls do not go to doctors for their reproductive health problems thus reproductive health problems remain within self or in peer circles. The significance of this data is that if people are not accessing the public health services how will the programme reach to the people where majority of the people are going to private doctors, self medication and chemists. Thus the health systems should not always be medicalised and it is worth studying the traditional medicines as well the cultural aspects behind it.

Regarding awareness on reproductive organs the data revealed that the awareness levels among the girls on reproductive organs were quite high with 98.4 percent. Majority of the girls 75.8 percent learnt about the reproductive organs from books, peers and magazine, only 10.2 percent mentioned teachers and books. Thus, it is found that the most likely source of information is from peers who may not be fully informed and books and magazine, which tends to focus on sexual and gender stereotypes or extremes. The educational system is also ambivalent about imparting sex education. Teachers, by and large, find the topic embarrassing and try to avoid it. Hence, both the teachers and parents are generally reluctant in addressing these issues.

The awareness levels of different methods of contraceptives were quite high among the girls with 93.7 percent. All the girls, 100 percent were aware of HIV/AIDS

but it is evident that even if Manipur has the highest prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS by injecting drug users with 451 cases in 2001, a large proportion 80.5 percent of the adolescents responded that the mode of transmission of HIV/AIDS were through sexual contact and blood transfusion from infected persons. There were only 19.5 percent adolescents who had awareness on the mode of transmission by injecting drug users along with blood transfusion and sexual contact. Again, girls of 79.7 percent are aware of the methods of prevention through condoms, screening of blood before transfusion but only 27.3 percent of adolescents are aware of sterilization of needles. It further reveals that the awareness levels of mode of transmission of HIV/AIDS among the adolescent girls are very high. However the knowledge is general and not specific to the condition and situations of the Manipur state.

Very interestingly, majority of the girls 96.1 percent had not heard of RCH Programme whereas very few girls 3.9 percent were aware of it. But no one knows what RCH Programme is all about. Those girls who have heard and got the information are mainly from mass media and seen in posters.

(B) Parents- Very minimal parents with 13 percent could explain to their daughters about their physiological changes on the onset of puberty. It can be noted that often girls were told how to maintain themselves during the periods and also told to maintain the secrecy of their periods to others. It reveals that parents especially mothers do not explain the girls before their puberty and even after the puberty, but only the managing of themselves during periods.

Majority of the parents revealed that girls did not share their health problems and personal problems with their fathers but to their mothers. It revealed that girls did not disclose their problems but parents came to know on observing the attitudes and behaviours of their girls. Many of the mothers added that they were the mediator between their husbands and daughters. If their daughters wanted money or any permission to go out, they would tell their mothers to tell fathers and get the permissions. Often girls take support of their mothers in solving their problems in negotiating with fathers. Sometimes fathers scold mothers instead of scolding directly to

daughters so that mother can pass on to their daughters. Indeed parental communication and education are important from adolescents' perspectives.

Regarding sex education among the girls, the parents who were not in the favour of sex education expressed that if girls were taught about sex education then they would try to practice that knowledge somewhere or other thus it should not be discussed in the open arena. Girls would tend to ask embarrassing questions even in front of us. Thus the RCH Programmes need to focus on clearing the mindset and the myths in providing sex education. So it should also target on the primary group which is very close to adolescent groups. Thus it is necessary for the programme planners to provide safe and supportive environment for the safety of adolescent group.

Very few parents reflected of awareness of RCH Programme. Parents especially mothers revealed that they were aware of family planning programme, mothers' health and immunization which was a part of RCH Programme but they did not know any programme for adolescent groups.

(C) Health personnel and NGOs- Health Personnel mentioned that there were no specific medical services offered for adolescent groups within RCH Programme in both the districts. There was no separate counselling center for adolescent groups. There was no particular programme implemented for adolescent groups besides providing awareness on HIV/AIDS in schools and colleges. There were hardly any cases of adolescent coming to the hospital. Even if they come, the cases are of fever, poisoning, Diarrhoea and sometimes for abortion, etc. So there is no specific importance given to this section but according to NRHM, there are programme components for adolescents especially on behaviour change modification.

Social Work Interventions

As adolescents need family support, Social Worker can encourage parents in the following areas:

1. Parents' involvements in planning policy are necessary for ensuring a safe and secure environment for growth during the formative years of their children.

➢ Providing information, education and counselling and clinical services to parents.

➢ Support sexual and reproductive health education programmes and courses in schools and in non-formal centers. And also to find out what is being taught about sexuality, who is teaching it, and what their children think about it.

➢ Support the setting up and functioning of school and community-based adolescent health centers.

➢ Work with adolescents to and books and websites that offer accurate information on sexual and reproductive issues.

2. School Environment Promotes learning therefore, Social Worker needs to work with teachers in the following areas:

➢ Teachers can make a successful adolescence education, thus teachers involvement are important. Teachers should be given proper training for adolescence education.

➢ Encourage students to identify their personal, family, community, and religious values on sexual health.

➢ Provide medically accurate information on reproductive and sexual health, including information about contraception and disease prevention.

➢ Encourage participation of students in planning, designing and implementing a comprehensive adolescence education programme.

➢ Creating a supportive school environment is important thus there should be counselling center and common rooms for students in schools and hospital.

3. Community Leaders can advocate on Reproductive Health Programme, thus Social Worker needs to work with community leaders in the following ways:

➢ Issues related to adolescent reproductive and sexual health require a supportive community environment and also encouraging open discussion and conversations on sexual and reproductive health in public spaces like panchayat meetings.

➢ Talking of the importance of educating young people and how it can empower them to look after themselves and take acre of their families**.**

➢ Creating and distributing pamphlets on powerful messages related to the issue on adolescent health.

➢ Mobilizing the media, including local and folk media, to produce in-depth news stories, article and features on issues for younger person or a radio station to make an announcement on these issues particularly on days like the World AIDS Day, International Youth Day and Women's day.

4. Service Provider can make a difference in the health status of adolescents where Social Worker needs to work with health providers in the following areas:

➢ The programme should not be target oriented focusing only on women and children.

➢ The programme should not be generalized with other states.

      i. as societal and cultural play a very important role in the development of a child and

      ii. Problems of the state need to be dealt.

➢ Involve adolescents in setting up the services to enhance their sense of ownership.

➢ Ensure that Programme are relevant to adolescents' actual needs

➢ Seek their help to identify messages and communication channels and activities popular with their subculture.

➢ Equip adolescents to participate in devising evaluation mechanisms to get feedback.

➢ Service providers like hospitals and NGOs can make a difference in the health status of adolescents, so adolescents need a friendly environment

to access freely these services, so attitudes of service providers, locations of service is very important.

➢ Involvement of adolescent in planning and development of health services is necessary so that there will be ensured that programme are relevant to adolescents' actual needs.

➢ Peer educators can become change makers; form network to encourage, support and promote healthy living. This will empower then and enhance their life skills.

CONCLUSION

The study concludes that there is a gap between the health care needs of adolescent girls and RCH Programme in the context of socio-economic and cultural set up of Manipur. Thus there is a need in formulating the methods of delivery of the health services; the government should take an approach from "womb to tomb" that includes the health of the girl child right from birth, adolescence, reproductive age, menopause to old age, etc. It has to be cyclical in nature because at all points in a girls' life, her health status impinges upon the next phase. If adolescents' general health is not taken care of, it will be hard for the RCH Programme to succeed as one should not separate adolescents' health from the overall development of a girls merging towards the womanhood. It is seen that in RCH Programme there are components for adolescents' health but it is not at all meeting the health needs of girls. It is quite obvious that RCH Programme is concentrating on Family Planning, Immunization Programme as well as HIV/AIDS. These are not the needs of adolescent girls.

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Plight of Women in Brick Industry: Need for Social Work Intervention

Gangabhushan M. Molankal

The Constitution of India has recognised the link between decent conditions of work and the promotion of enterprises in the unorganised sector, emphasising the goals of just and humane conditions of work and ensuring a decent life. However, the workers in unorganised sector suffer from lack of protection in terms of job security, wages, working conditions and welfare due to various factors. These include casual and seasonal employment, scattered places of work, poor working conditions, lack of a concrete employer-employee relationship, irregular working hours, and a complete lack of legal protection or government support.

The paper tries to bring forward the plight of women engaged in Brick Industry with special reference to Barak Valley, Assam. The problems of women workers in this industry revolve around issues such as unequal wages, lack of childcare facilities and discrimination at the workplace. Many more special programmes and strategies are required to ameliorate the problems of women engaged in unorganised sector.

Key words: Brick kiln workers, working conditions, social work intervention

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INTRODUCTION

In India, the unorganised sector offers opportunities for survival to a large number of unskilled and semiskilled migrants and those excluded from employment in the formal sector. The nature of work in this sector is usually insecure, low earning and carried out under appalling conditions. A large number of peasants with small holdings have been forced to wage labour, if not in their ancestral villages but to other places. Agricultural work being seasonal in nature is unable to generate regular employment for majority of

the agricultural workers. Employment, therefore available to them is casual in nature. With growing demographic pressure and mechanisation of agricultural operations, the avenues of employment for agricultural labour are also declining. This phenomenon has resulted in the *casualisation* of labour which had made rural labour circulatory in nature generating several streams of migration. Thus forcing a large number of them to seek employment outside the organised sector and join the unorganised sector.

Poor women are invisible workers and the invisibility is thrust upon them by confining them to the so called subordinate roles. The statistics thus collected even by the official agencies largely categorises them as non-workers. They are classed as weaker sex, confined to strenuous and monotonous work and withdraw voluntarily from the labour force as and when the situation demands (Bannerjee, 1988). The accounting of females as workers in the census and the NSSO suffers from serious enumeration and recording drawbacks. According to Mitra (1981) the underreporting of female workforce participation rates in the Census varies from 30-40 per cent. He estimates that the participation of females in the informal sector is as high as 49 per cent as against 1 to 17 per cent in the case of males. Jain and Chand (1982) also found that the measurement of female labour force participation and analysis suffer from gross under enumeration, inadequate attention to unpaid family labour, own production and household work and relationship between them.

The Brick Kiln Industry:

The Brick kiln industry occupies a very significant place in the unorganised sector of Assam. With the advent of building booms in the urban areas, brick-making in India has become a significant industry in the unorganised sector, confined mainly to rural and semi-urban areas. There are no reliable estimates on the number of brick makers in India. According to Gupta (2003), there are around 50,000 brick kilns in the whole of India, and according to the Association of Brick Kiln and Tiles Entrepreneurs in Tamil Nadu there are around 2000 brick kilns in that specific region.

This industry is characterized by aspects like instability, short duration. A large number of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labourers are absorbed in this industry.

Nearly half the workers in this industry are women. The state of working conditions of the brick kiln workers is miserable. They are neither provided with minimum wages for their work nor do they get health and welfare amenities at their place of work. In spite of their right to life and livelihood and to be protected against all forms of deprivation and exploitations, these workers are not adequately protected by the state. They are left to the condition of the market and are constantly exploited. No special concern appears to have been shown towards these workers either by the central or state governments or trade unions and the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). They are not covered by the legislation in the field of labour as it is not applicable to the establishments in which they work. Consequently, their conditions of work do not provide for minimum safeguards like in larger factories; they are not assured of regular and reasonable payment of wages and are not entitled to benefits such as medical care, compensation in case of accidents, occupational diseases, injuries and death.

The Gender Perspective:

It is important to look at the brick kiln worker's problem with a gender perspective. With the increasing participation of women in work, she is spending more time at the work site. If the conditions are bad for male brick kiln workers, women suffer more managing the triple burden of work, home and childcare. Health, Workplace and family are the three components, which plays a significant role in the life of a woman.

The Constitution of India has granted powers under Article 15 (3), to make special provisions for women and children within the framework of the fundamental rights. Articles 39 and 42 specially refer to women and children. They direct the State to secure health and strength of all workers, men, women and children and not abuse children for economic gains. Humane and just condition of work and maternity benefit are assured to women by Article 42. Vaidya (1993) states the roots of the 'labour legislation for women in India' to the Indian Constitution guided by International Labour Organisation conventions.

Therefore, it is necessary to study the above mentioned components and conditions of women engaged in brick kiln industry. Though the work of women is

treated as manual and monotonous, still they are not less burdened with that of male workers. Stress at the work site and manual work at home has compounded the problem of women's health. The patriarchal attitude, gender discrimination, work nature and other problems faced at work place and home may contribute to her low self-image in her mind.

In view of the above, the study attempted to bring forward the genuine causes of deprivation and marginalisation of the women labourers engaged in brick kiln industry.

Objectives of the Study:

1. To study the division of labour by sex in the organisation of work in the brick kiln industry,

2. To investigate the pattern of migration in brick kiln industry,

3. To understand the impact of work environment (working conditions) and unpaid work on the health of women labourers,

4. To understand implications of Social Work with reference to the unorganised labour in general and kiln labour in particular.

METHODOLOGY

For the present study exploratory research design was considered keeping in view of the objectives of the study. The subjects for the study[i] constituted 300 women brick kiln workers drawn from 30 selected brick kiln industries situated in the three districts of Barak Valley. A multi stage stratified random sampling technique was used for selecting 10 brick kiln industries. From each industry 10 women workers were selected purposively. Thus a total of 300 (i.e.10X3X10 = 300) women respondents were interviewed using interview schedule followed by focused group discussion to elicit the required information from the respondents.

Brick Kiln Industry in Barak Valley:

Brick kiln industry in Barak Valley is a major employer of unskilled and semiskilled labour. There are around 150 brick kilns are running in the three districts of Barak Valley (viz. Cachar, Hailakandi and Karimgunj) employing on an average 70 to 80 Workers in each industry. The process of brick production largely requires both skilled and unskilled labour. The work at Brick kilns is a seasonal activity occurring largely between October to the beginning of monsoon season (i.e. up to May). The work in this industry attracts migrant labourers from surrounding rural areas and forms a large bulk of inter-state as well as intra state migratory labour force. Due to the lack of opportunities for work in agriculture, labourers migrate through brokers to work in brick kilns.

The labourers for brick kiln industry are recruited through *sardars* (labour agents/contractors) which is accompanied by payment of advances to the workers for a specified period of employment. The advance is paid during *Puja* festival when they are in need of money. This is crucial time for both the labourers and brick kiln owners in terms of unemployed labourers seeking work and the owners requiring huge number of labour for the running of industry. From the date of getting advance they are accountable to *sardars* directly. The advance paid to the workers is deducted from the beginning of the season, the amount of deductions depends upon the understanding between the worker and the labour agent. If the worker wishes to leave mid-term, he has to return the balance advance.

The structure of brick kiln industry is pyramidal in nature and composed of four levels. At the head of the pyramid are the owners, and on the second level there are the managers (accountants). On the third level, there are the brokers, who have a special function in this industry. Finally, at the bottom of the pyramid, there are workers composed of five main groups (moulders, loaders, un-loaders, wooden cart drivers and firemen). This hierarchical structure exists in brick kilns of large size. However, a smaller brick kiln has to resort less to managers and to middlemen. It was found that in case of small kilns the existence of brokers is less compared to the big kilns.

Payment to the workers is made once in a week and that is not considered as payment but advances towards their running cost of living (*Khurakhi*). These amounts do not match up to the value of their work and wages due to them in accordance with what they have produced. The money given to them towards expenses and the advance that they have taken are both deducted at the end of the season when the final payment is made to the workers. In a way, the workers are held back by the owners and the contractors till they have earned enough to pay back the advance and the amount that they have been given as expenses although the expense money comes from the workers labour and from his unpaid wages. It is not easy for the workers to leave the kiln as and when they wish to look for better or alternative work opportunities.

Demographic Profile:

The personal profile of women shows that they belongs to the lowest economic strata of the society and are landless labourers. The near absence of upper caste women could be explained by their more privileged position in the society. An overwhelming majority (32 percent) fall in the age group of 26-30 years followed by the age group of 19-25 years (26 percent). This shows that the nature of work in brick kilns requires stamina of able bodied. Though children were not found working as labourers but adolescents were seen engaged in brick kiln industry both in moulding bricks and transporting bricks. Same types of findings were reported by the Labour Bureau, Government of India in its survey (1982) on brick kilns in the Union Territory of Chandigarh, Haryana and Punjab.

Regarding marital status, an overwhelming majority of the respondents are married (76.0 per cent), while 14 per cent are unmarried. The proportion of Widow, Separated and Divorcee are 7.3 per cent, 1.7 per cent and 1.0 per cent respectively.

Regarding educational status of the women brick kiln labourers, a large majority of the respondents (84.7 percent) have never gone to school. Very negligible portion of labour force could reach up to high school. The reason to this may be attributed to the fact that these small portions of the respondents who have studied are the first generation literates. Poverty coupled with illiteracy and ignorance makes them vulnerable and prone to exploitation.

Occupational pattern of the head of the household of respondents shows that they are largely seen to be employed in the informal sector as casual labour. Occupational pattern of them indicate the incidence of men in the family in brick kilns is predominant. This is also an important factor for women to feel secured when her male counterpart is also engaged in the same industry.

Past Work Profile:

Past work profile of the women labourers in brick kiln reveals that a predominant majority of them (62.3 percent) have entered in to work on payment basis at the age between 15 to 18. One fifth of the respondents had taken up the work when they were at the age between 10 to 15 years. This is an indication that parents often take the help of children to supplement their own earnings, and this is a major reason for the widespread prevalence of child labour in the brick kiln industry. This fact is hidden by not including them in the muster rolls or perhaps by increasing their age on record. With the record on age of joining and who had introduced them to the brick kiln, and the job category they had entered with it appears that there is a large section of child workers work in the brick kilns.

With regards to the first time work experience of the respondents, it was revealed that a predominant number of respondents (40 per cent) have entered in to work in brick kiln industry, followed by a significant number (31.33 per cent) in Tea Gardens. The nature of work was mostly as casual labour or daily wage labour. Under furious conditions they have started working to supplement their family. Poverty was cited as main reason for working in brick kilns.

Migration Pattern:

The poor migrants are either pushed out by economic and social deprivation, or pulled into urban life with the attraction of employment and better wages. Migration is a voluntary decision motivated by economic factors but many a times, migration is forced under various circumstances and some time due to social and biological factors. Migration acts as an equilibrium force for supplying labour from labour surplus to

labour deficient areas as last surviving strategy. Numerous instances can be evidence of migration under debt bondage of people from lowest rung of the society from chronic poverty stricken belt of country to various brick-kilns stone quarry, coal- mines and in several labour intensive low paid jobs. It was found that the nearly half of the labour force in brick kilns is comprising of migrants. Although principle force of migration is economic motive, however the study shows that women tend to move to nearby places than to far off places i.e. women are resorting to inter-district migration than inter-state migration. Inter-state migration is mostly resorted by the men (from Bihar, Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh).

The review of source villages of the migrants revealed that the migration is arising out of poverty stricken districts. Women migrants come from two backward districts of Assam, namely Dubri and Kokrajhar. These districts are considered as the worst hit districts of the state in terms of poverty, thereby contributing largely to the migration of population to other districts of the state.

Migrants are predominantly comprising of Muslims. Caste wise study of women migrants shows that most of them are from backward castes. The migrants are predominantly from the age group of 26 to 30 years followed by the age group of 19 to 25 years. Comparatively greater participation of women from migrated families was found due to the fact that these groups have no access to employment and are landless labourers.

Working Conditions:

Within the occupational structure, participation of women in brick-making process is characterised by distinct division of labour. Starting from moulding till extraction of the baked bricks from the kiln, the division of labour based on the nature of work is seen. Though, predominantly men are involved in moulding, stacking and firing, an overwhelming majority of the respondents are engaged in loading and unloading work which is performed by the labourers from the local areas. Little above 15 per cent of the respondents engaged in moulding bricks are the migrants. In case of transporting bricks from one place to the other both men and women are involved. Men make use of

wooden carts or cycles, where as women carry the bricks over their head. In observation, I noticed that the continuity of work solely depends upon the hard labour of the migrants. The present findings are in line with those of the Gulati (1979).

At the aggregate level the weight carried on the head, a majority of the respondents (66.3) carry weight up to 30kg on their heads. There is a wide spread argument that women's tasks are less physically arduous than men's; 'regardless of energy output, when a task is performed by men alone, it is always described as hard work, requiring strength, and when it is done by women it is simply taken for granted' (Mencher 1993:114). The bias that women lack physical strength is deeply internalised, although the evidence from the field revealed that women often bear a greater load of the labour-intensive tasks than do men.

Though the working hours are not rigid and the payment of wages are made based on the piece rate, it was found that an overwhelming fifty percent of the women respondents were working for 9 hours a day, followed by one-third respondents working for eight hours a day. In contrast, nearly one fifth of the respondents were working for 12 hours a day. This is more relevant to the migrants who are staying at the site and are giving more time as they are in proximity to their work place.

Although, on an average this industry provides continuous employment for five to six months in a year, but there is a variation in the availability of work. Nearly half of the respondents had worked up to 5 months in a year in the brick kiln industry. Another significant number of respondents (43.67 per cent) had worked in the brick kiln industry up to four months period.

With regards to work satisfaction, it was found that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (41.67 per cent) are not satisfied with the work they do, in contrast a significant number of respondents (33 per cent) have expressed that they are satisfied being working in brick kiln industry. Due to near absence of alternate gainful employment, work in brick kilns is perceived as the only source of survival.

Though the system of advance is an important factor which attracts the labourers to work in brick kilns, it was found that nearly 40 per cent (39.6 percent) of the respondents have not received any advance from the brick kiln owner. One third of the respondents received an advance amount up to Rs. 1000, where as 18 per cent have received Rs. 1001 to 2000. Very few families could get advance ranging from Rs. 2001 to 3000. A negligible percent of the respondents have received advance amount above Rs. 3000.

An average weekly income from the brick kiln industry revealed that more than fifty percent (52 per cent) of the respondents gets up to Rs. 250/- weekly i.e. payment for the work done for 6 days. It shows that the major proportion of women labour getting far less than minimum wages as fixed by the Government of India and the State Government. Above 38 per cent of the respondents gets between Rs. 251/- to 500/- and 9.7 per cent of them get Rs. 501/- to Rs. 1000/- as weekly payment for their labour. It also reflects the stark violation of equal remuneration Act in the brick kiln industry.

Monthly income of the family from the brick kilns also reveals that more than half of the respondents have total monthly income ranging between 1001-3000, more than one fifth of the respondents earn below Rs. 1000. Another one-fifth of the respondents have monthly income ranging between 3001-5000, only a negligible portion of the respondents could earn a monthly income which is above Rs. 5000. An overall earnings of the families engaged in brick kiln industry is not attracting. The earnings of the family are not in consonance with the amount of time and labour they are putting in. The earnings are meagre even to fulfil their basic necessities of life.

Women's contribution in terms of running the family is very much visible in terms of her share in the family income. It was found that a majority of the respondents (i.e. 78 percent) contribute 25 to 50 percent of the family income. However, irrespective of the respondents equal contribution to family income, it was found that only a small percentage of the respondents had the right to retain their earnings wholly and spend the same according to their own choice. Among the remaining respondent some could enjoy

limited freedom in the matter of spending a portion of their own earnings, while others did not have any freedom in this regard.

Aforesaid picture, as we could notice, was in sharp contrast to the picture that was available for the male labourers who spend a considerable portion of their own income or of the income of the family on consumption of liquor. It shows that women in their familial domain enjoys lower than that of male counterparts. Firstly, male domination in the families of women workers with regard to decision making was found. That is, women workers were found not participating equally with their male counterparts in decision-making process within the families. Secondly, it was found that women workers share in the right to spend in the sample area was not at par with men's share in the right to spend. Thirdly, with regard to savings, it was found that predominant women engaged in brick kilns hardly could save anything out of their earnings. Their earnings were exhausted to manage their day to day consumptions. This shows the vulnerability of women both at work place and at home.

Thus, the working condition of women workers in the sample brick kilns was also found to be wanting in many respects. Unable to entitle various essential facilities in work place like crèche facility had created additional hardships for women.

Household Burden:

Work burden and domestic burden are compounding determinants for developing various health related disorders for women. The brick kiln labourers do tedious work in a given whole day which affect their physical and mental wellbeing. The major responsibilities at home includes household maintenance i.e. the responsibility of cooking food, cleaning and maintenance of the house, taking special care of the children, aged and disabled persons in the family.

In terms of getting assistance from the other family members, certain trends are evident that majority of the respondents were not receiving any help from them in performing the household chores. Among the family members who extend assistance to the household work and childcare, daughter is the most prominent member. In very

negligible cases the help is extended by the husband. This shows that the social tradition of females to compulsorily carry out domestic duties of the household prevails.

The un-substitutable function of child bearing is mostly entrusted to women alone. Absence of childcare facilities like crèche is a source of anxiety and tension for the respondents having children. It also affects the work efficiency. Lack of crèche will also make the children to get exposed to dust and heat and are vulnerable to health hazards. Apart from the question of health, lack of pre-school education makes them deprived from right to education.

Thus, the study after analyzing the sharing pattern of responsibilities and rights among the two genders in the realm of families of the women brick kiln labourers could observe that an asymmetrical gendered division of labour in favour of men prevailing. Thus, women have larger share of responsibilities and lesser share of rights. This unequal gender relation in turn reflects the ongoing gender specific deprivation of women workers in their familial domains.

Health Status:

The health status of workers depends upon their indefinite working condition and term of services – this includes their working hours, rest intervals, holidays and payments. Incongruous living conditions i.e. access to basic facilities like sanitation, safe drinking water and other welfare amenities like access to healthcare system and education including for their children plays a pivotal role in deciding their health status.

The working environment of brick kiln industry is subjected to the uncertainties of nature and climatic conditions like rains, extreme heat, of cold weather, which is arduous and hazardous for the workers. This results in the direct impact on the workers i.e. attack of diseases while the indirect impact is sustained mental pressures culminating in health deterioration.

Workers in this industry are more susceptible to muscle strain, injuries from long periods of lifting head loads. It was found that they normally suffer from the ailments like stomach ache, head ache, body ache and fatigueness. Apart from fatigueness they

are prone for respiratory problems due to inhalation of dust and to stress-related conditions as a result of target-oriented work, they ignore taking proper rest and engage for long working hours.

The common health related ailments reported by the respondents like fatigue, body ache, head ache, backaches, eye strain, stomach ache and anaemia. It clearly shows that the respondents are suffering from physical pain in upper part of the body i.e. headache, pain in upper limbs, shoulder pain and neck pain. The probable reason of these ailments could be their nature of work at work place. Carry weight on head and lifting the weight to carry it would affect the upper part of the body. Secondly when the person does hard work without taking proper intake makes them more vulnerable.

It was found that the respondents avoid consulting the doctors except under extreme situation due to non affordability of healthcare. Non availability of healthcare facilities within an accessible distance is also another reason of avoiding treatment. The government hospitals' timings and procedures of availing healthcare services are reported to be not feasible for the respondents if they approach to the government hospital they have to leave a day's work or spend money on transportation and on medicine. Thus poor state of affordability could not allow the women to avail treatment facilities.

Perceived Mental Health:

Women in brick kiln work have developed some problems relating to their mental health due to strenuous nature of work i.e. mental exhaustion, irritation in day to day life, loss of control, conflict with others etc. Even with the exhaustive nature of work, a significant number of the respondents gave negative responses. This shows that most of the women workers could not express their problems. They have become so socialized to their life situations that difficult situations are not seen as problems.

Concluding Remarks:

Although there is an increasing number of a woman in paid occupations, this does not seem to ensure their well being and an improvement of quality of life. Women are being

used only as a source of cheap labour. In these new types of employment, the burden on the women gets multiplied. Workers in the Brick kiln industry comprise one of the poorest and weakest segments of the society. The working conditions of labour in general and women in particular shows that they are working under extreme exploitative conditions. The vulnerability of women can be manifested in terms of practicing discriminatory wages, lack of childcare facilities at the work place. With the advent of no alternative employment avenues, women are compelled to opt work in brick kilns. Paid and unpaid work load is also posing threat to women's physical and mental health.

In order to realise the employment and productive potential of the unorganised sector and unorganised workers, to meet the universal standards for decent conditions of work, such as securing minimum wages, social security, and boost to enterprise, the current realities of the sector require thoroughgoing attention. The realisation of rights of the brick kiln labourers in general and women in particular is possible only when diversified initiatives at various levels by diversified actors make their efforts through proper co-ordination. Policies and legislations for formalisation of labour alone cannot achieve the goal unless the developmental goals are delivered in a manner, which will take into account the socio-economic reality. The State's responsibility is to strive towards protecting and promoting the rights of the marginalised with a political will. Social work strategies need to be employed to facilitate the process worker's access to fundamental rights.

What needs to be done?

The problems of women engaged in brick kilns requires for integrating unorganised women's concern in general and women in brick kilns in particular into development process. Multi varied initiatives from various actor need to be taken up in the following areas:

1.   **Formalisation of the unorganised labour**

Formalisation of unorganised labour is needed to ensure their basic rights. An initiative is required for the documentation of who works for whom and for how long, no matter

how temporary, seasonal or casual the employment is. A prerequisite for the same would be possible by way of ensuring compulsory registration of the kilns by the government, identity cards, attendance diaries and pay slips, etc. For contract workers, there is an additional complication, because the labour contractor acts as a middleman between worker and employer without taking on the responsibilities of an employer. In principle, whoever pays the worker's wages should be regarded as the employer i.e., there should be no intermediary between employer and worker. In most cases, the contractor should be registered only as a recruitment agent and paid a commission by the employer, who should then pay the workers directly. Formalization of the unorganised labour would facilitate to introduce additional measures to ensure a maximum amount of regularisation of employment.

With a record of all employment being kept, it would become much more obvious when unfair labour practices are being used, such as creating artificial breaks in employment, terminating one worker and employing another simply in order not to make the first worker permanent, or moving production to another location when workers unionise. If, in addition, it is stipulated that irregular workers have to be paid the same wages as permanent workers doing comparable work, with pro rata facilities (like paid off-days, holidays and crèches) and benefits (health care, retirement benefits, bonus, etc), the temptation for employers to use irregular workers in the place of regular ones would be much reduced. Their argument for using irregular workers is flexibility, and if this is the real reason, there should be no objection to spending as much on these workers as on permanent ones.

We may also refer to the Unorganised Workers Social Security Bill 2008. This draft Bill received the Assent of the President of India on 23rd December, 2008 and has now become an Act. This Act titled "The Unorganized Workers' Social Security Act, 2008" has not been brought into force yet. An overall assessment of the positive and negative features of the Act, reveals that many positive features like Registration and issuance of Smart Cards for the Unorganized Workers have been included in the Act. Certainly, the success or failure of this initiative largely depends upon the political will to ensure effective implement of the same.

2.   **Advocacy through collective bargaining**

The aim of advocacy is to bridge the gap between policy change and public activism for the benefit of the poor and those suffering injustice. The ILO Core Conventions – protecting freedom of association, the right to organise and bargain collectively, freedom from forced and bonded labour, the abolition of child labour, and freedom from discrimination – were made mandatory in all member states of the ILO in 1998. The right to a safe and healthy workplace can also be seen as basic human rights, although they are not included in the core conventions. Ignorance about the rights makes the unorganised labour more vulnerable to exploitation. Lack of association and collective voice make them weaker in terms of their bargaining power. Collective bargaining can be a viable strategy in support of advocating for the rights of the vulnerable. Civil society organisations can do a lot in terms of organising them on the issues that affect their lives. Through collective representation they can have their collective voice heard.

3.   **Keep prime mandate of working with unorganised labour by NGO**

Non government organisations can play a pivotal role by making prime mandate of working for the rights of the unorganised workers to build their collective bargaining. The present context necessitates that more NGOs should come forward to work with the unorganised workers and employ the strategy for poverty alleviation. The funding organisations also should have a prime mandate of supporting the organisations working for the rights of the unorganised labour. If rural development programmes are to be targeted, it is necessary that the district centres must have at least one NGO working exclusively on unorganised labour. It requires a constant follow-up. Finally, the plan document of the government should prioritise the unorganised labour as a major programme. With the increasing trend of migration from the drought prone areas in search livelihood it becomes all the more pertinent that new avenues for employment generation be identified at the source villages. This strategy of generating adequate employment on a sustained basis should be seen as a plausible strategy to reduce poverty and distress migration.

4.   **Poverty alleviation programmes**

Poverty alleviation programmes should include reallocation of productive resources in favour of women and other marginalised groups through investment in socio-economic infrastructure, trade facilitation and business development services such as basic infrastructure, basic healthcare, primary education, provision of safe water, law and order and other activities that directly affect the poor and the women. Effective implementation of existing poverty alleviation and development programmes is essential. The success of these programmes would largely depends upon the organising strategies of the rural masses towards availing the benefit.

SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION

The goal of social work profession is to remove the defects in the system which prevent growth and liberation; promote social justice and equality of opportunities, along with help in redistribution of society' goods and services. Some of these goals are achieved by developing an environment which encourages "interaction" to aid social betterment and improve the quality of peoples' lives, especially of those who are vulnerable. The social systems that the profession works with are the families, large and small groups, communities, and organisations, while the situations the profession addresses itself to are developmental, facilitative, preventive and dealing with crisis situations, not essentially in any particular order.

In order to achieve the goals of the profession, the conventional strategies and methods of social work would be inappropriate with such a category of population. The need of the hour is to take up various initiatives at various levels to attain our goal of empowering the marginalised sections of the society. The role of social work is needed in the following areas:

Literacy

Literacy is an important area of work where social workers have substantial experience. Establishing a platform for stakeholder interaction (industry representatives, policy-makers, researchers, NGOs, financial institutions etc.) to expedite the adoption of

efficient strategies for the workers engaged in brick industry and their accompanying children. Efforts should be made to institutionalise the educational facilities for the children of migrant labour. These children are to be put through a period of structured and unstructured learning and subsequently they can be integrated in the formal schooling system. In the process there is a need to inject the significance of education and motivate community, parents and children to regard school as beneficial and worthwhile. Emphasis should be on equal access to learning opportunities by girls at all ages. Efforts should be made towards removal of all social and familial biases and discriminations against the girl child and strive towards building non-discriminatory culture in the society.

Health

There is a need to provide protection of the basic rights, health and safety of workers and the progressive improvement of overall working conditions. Strengthening of efforts towards facilitating the role of Government in improving health policies that reduce, with a view to eliminating, environmental health hazards and provide for occupational health and safety, in conformity with the relevant Conventions. Provide brick kiln owners and all workers with accessible information and guidance on how to enhance occupational safety and reduce health risks. The state should recognize and act upon their obligation to provide childcare facilities to working women. Widespread ignorance in this respect poses danger to social justice. In view of widespread illiteracy among overwhelming majority of brick kiln workers, facilitating role of social workers is predominantly needed in comprehensive adult education initiative for raising level of literacy among them.

Presently the workers to a great extent depend on the private sector for identification and treatment. Along with the private sector, steps can be taken to improve the liasoning work with the local public health systems. There is a need to strengthen the local healthcare system more responsive to the needs of the vulnerable sections.

Income enhancement

Poverty alleviation programmes and income generation programmes should go hand in hand. Poverty alleviation programmes should emphasise reallocation of productive resources in favour of women and other marginalised groups through investment in socio-economic infrastructure, trade facilitation and business development services such as basic infrastructure, basic healthcare, primary education, provision of safe water, law and order and other activities that directly affect the poor and the women. Complementary role of social work in Effective implementation of existing poverty alleviation and development programmes is essential. The success of these programmes would largely depends upon the organising strategies of the rural masses towards availing the benefit.

The data of the study has shown that almost all the respondents are poor. The problem is not only of low income but also of stable incomes as a result of which savings become difficult. Income generation and habit of saving together can address the problems of the poor. Social work role can be in terms of formation of Self Help Groups, enabling them to involve in income generation programmes. Linking groups with the banks can meet the small loan requirements of the women labourers. The timely financial help can prevent them from borrowing money from the money lenders on heavy interest. This would be an effective strategy of combating vicious circle of indebtedness among the brick kiln workers.

Policy- Making

The problems of the workers of the unorganised sector are more at the level of policy-making and implementation than at the micro-level. Lack of comprehensive legislation for the unorganised sector, the scattered nature of women workers, their lack of education and legal literacy, bureaucratic bottle necks procedures leaves them with vulnerable to exploitation.

Professional social work need to integrate the rights perspective and approach to plans, policies and programmes and processes. Historically social work has distanced

itself from politics. Doubts have been expressed, 'whether social workers as a professional group can participate in movements of social action, which raises issues of law and order. Short of this and depending upon their ingenuity and skills of mobilisation, social workers can and should represent, argue for and press the interest of the disadvantaged' (Gore, 1973:45 and 65). Gore's reservation has been about social workers taking an active role with implications for the law and order situation. But a via media is possible. Based on selected issues 'mobilisation and campaigning' can be undertaken in collaboration with political leaders and other groups in society. This will also strengthen the nature of Indian civil society.

Social Work Education and Research

Social work education is becoming increasingly challenged by the need to reorganize, modify and strengthen its educational curriculum in order to respond to the emerging social realities. A content examination of the syllabus of Social Work with Labour Welfare and Personnel Management specialisation finds the field work aspect of the curriculum has centered around institutional settings, which not only encompassed very small segment of the population having problems but also meant that the problem was being defined narrowly. Over the last two and half decades non-institutional settings like communities and Panchayats have found a legitimate place in field-work settings. The social work curriculum needs to be altered time to time in order to equip students with competence to deal with the client's environment.

Social Work profession can play a pivotal role in generating authentic quantitative and qualitative data concerning various problems suggesting the appropriate approaches of intervention viz., preventive, alleviative, curative, promotive or rehabilitative (or some combinations thereof). This would provide basis for realistically projecting the emerging problems and issues of communities.

Notes:

  i.   The data for the study were collected during the years November 2006 to March 2007.

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Rural Development Programmes and Panchayati Raj Institutions: Role of Professional Social Work

Subhabrata Dutta

India lives in Villages. Since independence special attention was given to the development of rural life and infrastructure with various policies and programmes. Planning Commission of India found in its study that during 1973-74 to 1993-94 poverty ratio was reduced from 55 to 36 per cent. However, due to increase in population the number of rural poor remains almost the same. One important finding was the lack of people's participation and many programmes failed to satisfy the needs and aspiration of the target groups. The concept of People's Participation is an integral part of the Democratic Welfare State contained in the Indian Constitution. The concept of Community Participation dated back to 1950 but it has not been properly followed. At present both the central and provincial governments are giving importance to participatory approach in implementing development programmes in rural areas. 73rd (Constitutional) Amendment introduced Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) for the effective planning and implementation of schemes and programmes in rural areas with the involvement of rural people. But various studies in different parts of the country have showed that the villagers are not as yet in a position to contribute through an effective participation. In this situation, the initiatives and roles played by the professional social.

Key words: Rural Poverty, Panchayati Raj, Rural Development, People's Participation, Five Year Planning, Schemes and Programmes, Empowerment, Social Work.

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INTRODUCTION

The planning era in the country started with the initiation and implementation of the First fives year's plan in 1951. Concern for weaker sections of rural areas was built into the planning process from the very inception. For instance, quite apart from providing for the amelioration of the schedule casts and schedule tribes, the plan envisaged the establishment of Community Development Projects (CDP) for all round and balanced development of rural areas. The central theme of community Development activities was to help people to help themselves. Through the C.D activities the development of the entire Community was aimed at.

Human resource development is sine qua non for the material prosperity of a nation. No country with an essentially ill nourished, illiterate and low productive population can drive towards the goal of development. Poverty at the root and thus can be taken care of. It is difficult to define poverty and even harder to measure in any quantitative sense. It is not simply a matter of physical or material deprivation but much more complex social phenomena. It means the existence of a number of conditions that are casually inter-related. In a broader sense, poverty is thus defined: "When a substantial segment of society is deprived of the minimum level of living and continues at the bare subsistence level, the society is considered to be suffering from mass poverty."

The commonly used term ' Rural Poor' refers to that section of the country's population, which is placed in a comparatively unfavorable portion in terms of assets and income distribution and comprises in the rural areas, namely, land-less labourers, marginal farmers, rural artisans and the schedule casts/ schedule tribes. The development of the rural poor in the new millennium has become a matter of serious concern among the policy makers, planners and the enlightened section of bureaucracy and intelligentsia. 50 years have been passed that our country has gained independence and in recent future its planning process is also going to celebrate its 50 years, but it is widely accepted that population growth makes serious unbalances in the matter of assets and income distribution coupled with widespread poverty. Unemployment and under employment have worsened the lot of the weaker sections especially of the rural poor. So, in this new millennium, the government, the policy makers, rural reconstruction

workers, the social scientists, the people of the country must analyze the impact as well as the drawbacks of rural development programmes in ameliorating the socio- economic conditions of the rural poor.

THE CONCEPT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT:

The term "Rural" is essentially means an area, which is characterized by non-urban style of life, occupation structures, social organization and settlement pattern. Rural is essentially agriculture; its settlement system consists of villages or homesteads; socially it cannot greater inter – dependence among people, more deeply rooted community life and a slow moving rhythm of life built around nature and natural phenomenon and occupationally it is highly dependent on crop farming, animal husbandries, tree crops and related activities.

The term 'Rural Development' is an Ariel concept. It is a complete term, which integrates a variety of elements of human life and activities. It is essentially means desired positive change in the rural areas both in quantities as well as qualitative sense, in such a way that each component of rural life changes in a desired direction and in sympathy with the other components. Further more ' Rural Development' means structural changes in the socio-economic situation in the rural areas in order that human welfare which the prime goal of all development is secured at the earliest and that the society is able to absorb changes necessary in the field of technology, man – environment relationship, population growth etc. (Kunwar: 1990). According to Mohsin (1985), Rural Development involves a process in which the rural society as a whole moves from one step of the economic ladder to the next step ahead, thereby enhancing its social and economic status. Shepherd (1998) said that, Rural Development is the set of activities of diverse actors- individual, organizations and groups which taken together leads to progress (growth of income and wealth, poverty alleviation and cultural, spiritual and ethical development) in rural areas.

The gist of all these definitions or concepts is decent living to the masses of low-income population of rural masses on a self-sustaining basis along with the development of their culture.

PHILOSOPHY OF PLANNING FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT:

The planning processes initiated after the attainment of independence was a set of state interventions to guide and channelise the economic forces and activities into meaningful and intended direction. These interventions were to be in shape of policy interventions, institutional interventions and technological interventions. Through the planning process, the Indian economy was to be steered along predetermined parameters and directions in accordance with the broad policies of a welfare state that India professed to be rather than to be allowed to drift along its own way on the lines of a free market economy based on the principle of laissez faire.

Where the planning process was first in produced the planners adopted the growth-centered models of economic development. The planning process was oriented towards promoting general economic growth rather than achievement of over all economic growth through the development of the different component elements of society.

Since there was no elaborate discussion at the time of choice of planning strategy and it was difficult to assess what promoted Indian policy makers and planners to opt in favour of strategy of general economic growth with the assumption that the trickling down effects will also be on rural poor. Perhaps, the most important factor responsible for that choice was to be a historical experience of western model of development where economic growth has been accompanied by specialization, centralization, maximization urbanization and industrialization.

ATTENTION TO THE RURAL POOR:

Ever since the beginning of planning, the removal of poverty and raising the living of rural poor, has been, in one from or other, one of the main objectives of the nation's successive five year plan. But In the first three five year plan, the planner kept their sole concern to overall increase of production and economic growth without any reference to particular category of beneficiaries. Further more, the agricultural production sector was

the main focus of rural development activities and there were hardly any programmes worth the name of land-less labourers, artisans or even for marginal farmers.

At that time, the country registered a higher rate of growth of basic agricultural commodities, which took place in the economy as a whole in this aggregate sense, but the long standing structural disparity in the population persisted on more or less same scale, instead of showing a declining trend. It became clear that the benefit of a purely growth oriented strategy did not percolate to the poorest of the poor. It was about just prior to the initiation of the fourth plan, that the economists and the planners started quantifying poverty conditions and the people living under conditions of absolutes and adjusts poverty. According to Ojha (1970), the poor constituted 51.8 % of the rural population in 1960-61, which rose to 70% in 1967-68. Poverty in rural and urban areas has been constant over the years with 40% of the population remaining below the poverty line (Dandekar & Nath, 1971). Such exercises revealed that a sizeable proportion of the population were stagnating under poverty conditions and were left out of the main stream of development which sounded an alarm for planners as to what was the ultimate goal of development efforts in a welfare state. This then led to the recognition of an alternate strategy of rural development paying special attention to the large section of rural poor in the country. In the Fourth Five-year plan in 1969, various programmes were taken up which reflected Government's concern for reaching out the development effort to the rural poor by direct intervention in this favour. It was however, in the fifth plan (1978-83) when the word 'poverty' was the first time specifically introduced and 'removal of poverty and attainment of economic self-reliance' was enunciated as one of the two basic objectives of the plan.

DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES WITHIN THE FRAME WORK OF FIVE YEAR PLAN (AN OVERVIEW):

The fourth fives year plan 1969 introduced various programmes for the rural poor. These are, (a) Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA), (b) Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers (MFAL), (c) Tribal sub-plan, (d) Antyodaya Scheme and Area Development Programmes like Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP), (E) Desert

Development Programme (f) Hill Area Development Programme (HADP) and special component plan for schedule castes.

In the fifth five year (1975-1980) plan Minimum Need Programme (MNP) was introduced which covered various aspects of social development in contrast to the primary emphasis on economic activities and ventures in the beneficiary and area development approaches. The main feature of the MNP were to –

(a)   Provide universal elementary education to the age- group of 6-14 years

(b)   Make all persons in the age- group 15-35 literate.

(c)   Provide one community health worker in each village.

(d)   Assure supply of potable water to all problem villages.

(e)   Connect villages with a population of 1000 or more with link road.

(f)   Provide house sites and financial assistance for housing to all needy households.

(g)   Provide mid- day meals, for children in the age group of 11-16 years and supplementary feeding programmes for under – nourished children up to 6 year of age, pregnant women and nursing mothers

(h)   Provide for electrification of villages.

The minimum need programme was primarily intended to provide an essential infrastructure and social services to the rural poor. Most of these items of basic necessities could be categorized under the head of social consumption. This theme was another important approach outlined in the fifth plan for ameliorating the living condition of the rural poor.

The programmes grow in side during the 1970s and by the beginning of the Sixth plan had blossomed into a full fledged strategy of a direct attack on poverty through a three fold rural development plan within the stated perspective. The motivation was to bring down the poverty ratio in our country to 10 per cent by 1995.

The strategies taken in the Sixth Plan (1980-1985) were following:

(a)   Individual household and poverty group oriented programmes of income generation through assets and skill endowment and direct supplemental wages employment through public works.

(b) Programmes of special areas to counter endemic poverty caused by hostile agro-climatic conditions and degeneration of eco- systems.

(c) Giving back up support to the poverty group by providing for social consumption and social services through the minimum needs programme, which aims at improving quality of life and giving infra-structural supports to programmes of poverty alleviation

The first component of the above mentioned strategy is two fold. The first element comprises a strategy of providing self employment opportunities to certain families and includes the Integrated Rural Development programme (IRDP) and its sub-components - Training of Rural Youth for self-employment (TRYSEM) and Development of Women and children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) . The second component of wage employment programmes seeks to provide wage employment opportunities to the rural people and through the process, build up community assets of a durable nature. In this direction the schemes were - National Rural Employment program (NREP) and Rural Land-less employment guarantee programme (RLEGP), by merging two it was latter named as Jawahar Rozgar Yojana, which is presently renamed as Prime Minister Rozgar Yojana.

The seventh five-year plan (1985-90) reiterates the sixth plan goal of bringing down the percentage of population living below the poverty line to less than 10 by 1994-95. This objective has been reaffirmed in the 20-point programme, 1986, which boldly declares, "The war on poverty is our priority".

Latter in the Eighth (1992 - 97) and Ninth (1997 - 2002) Five Year Plan is also continuing the same programmes for the development of the rural poor. On 1st April '1999 Swarnjayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SGSY) has introduced in all development blocks replacing the earlier self - Employment programmes like IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA, GKY, MWS etc. keeping the same philosophy in mind - credit and subsidy for overcoming weakness of the earlier programmes. Same time new Yojana has been launched called 'Pradhan Mantri Gramodayaya Yojana' (PMGY) to achieve the objectives of sustainable human development of the village level. In the First Budget of the Millennium the Govt. provided the amount of Rs.5000 corer to this scheme. Fifty

percent of its amount will be spent on road & linkages, which is really a good objective in this direction. Under the scheme of Indira Awas Yojana the budget also propose to provide more than 12 lakhs of houses for the people below the poverty line. So, stabilization for selecting the programmes of rural development has been seen from the seventh plan. Changes are going on the process of its implementation through better planning, close monitoring and tighten organization for effective implementation as well as restructuring the old schemes and introducing new one to cover wide range of masses and areas. In the area of health, Centrally Sponsored Sanitation Programme (CRSP) is now restructured and becomes Restructured Centrally Sponsored Sanitation Programme (RCRSP).

In the seventh five-year plan (1985-1990) it proposed that backward and forward linkages would be provided so that the beneficiaries are able to make use of this assistance. To protect the interests of poor section, special safe guards for certain section of target groups have been laid down in guidelines for the implementation of rural development programmes. For example Under PMGY preference shall be given to S.Cs/ S.Ts for employment and 30 percent of the job opportunities will be reserved for women. Similarly the allocation of resources from center to states / U.Ts will be made on the basis of incidence of rural poverty alone. From the states to districts, the allocation will be made on the index of backwardness formulated on the basis of percentage of agricultural labourers to main workers in rural areas, percentage of rural S.C/ S.T population to total population and inversely of agricultural productivity defined as the value of agriculture produce out of each unit of land for the rural areas taken on the net basis in the weight of 20:60:20.

Specific Schemes and Programmes:

In the last four five year planning, that is eighth (1992-1997), ninth (1997-2002), tenth (2002-2007) and eleventh (2007-2011) revising the old schemes introduced different schemes focusing the specific aspects and needs of the rural areas. The schemes area follows:

(a) Poverty Alleviation and Employment Generation Schemes: two national programmes, specially aiming at ensuring food security and improving nutritional levels at rural areas by way of providing additional wage employment to the people who are unskilled are in operation. They are SGRY (Sampoorn Gramin Rajgar Yojana) and NFFW (National Food For Work) Programme.

(b) Schemes for Rural Infrastructure Development: for the development of the rural infrastructure like roads, drinking water, electrification housing etc., government introduced schemes like PMGY (Prime Minister Gramodaya Yojana), IAS (Indira Awas Yojana) and PMGSY (Prime Minister Gram Sadak Yojana).

(c) Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) introduced in the year 2003 combining IRDP, DWCRA, TRYSEM and few other old schemes for better efficiency in result.

(d) The National Rural Employment Gurantee Scheme (NREGS) considers the latest scheme for guaranteeing the employment to the unemployed. By this scheme the government has ensures the 100 days employment of an unemployed at the rural areas.

(e) Few area specific programmes like Integrated Wastelands Development Programme (IWDP), Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP) and Desert Development Programme (DDP) launched for the development / treatment of wastelands / degraded lands etc.

A new initiative called "Hariyali" was taken up with an objective of empowering Panchayati Raj Institutions both financially and administratively in implementation of Watershed Development Programme in the country (2003-04).

SHORTCOMMINGS OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES:

The development of rural areas with special emphasis on the poor sections of society had been a major strategy of planned development during last four decades of the last century, which is as usual going on in the new millennium. The IRDP is the most important antipoverty Programme has been significant from 1980-81 to September 1988 about 28-90 million families including 5.51 million old families have been assisted and an amount of Rs 10,120,12 crore has been invested under the programme.

However, poverty and unemployment are the biggest problem faced by the rural poor. In 1951 there were about 33 lakh people were unemployed which increased up to nine crore in the year of 1990. In the same year the people living the poverty line was 30 crores (Mittal 1990). The programmes, which are going on for the up-liftment of the rural poor, have failed to achieve the desired goal of distributive justice. There are galloping gaps between policy protection and real achievements. Every programme looks impressive on paper but when implementation begins many constraints are felt. Various evaluators (Institutions) such as Reserve Bank of India, Programme Evaluation Organization, NABARD etc. have studied the IRDP on the basis of the experiences of the first one or two years indicate that the sole concern of the beneficiaries identified and benefited, loan and subsidies distributed and adjusted etc are not implemented properly. Weakness of the Programme observed by different studies may be summarized as below:

1) Imbalances in the supply and demand potentialities of inputs and outputs of various types of enterprises were noticed where as the target fixed for each block was uniform.
2) Wrong identification of poor households.
3) Fake purchase on transfer of assets and non- use of assets of their subsequent disposal to others.
4) Inadequate training of functionaries.
5) Low level of investment.
6) Inadequacy of administrative, banking infrastructure as also supporting services.
7) Lack of close supervision.
8) Lack of Cooperation and coordination.
9) Overall Lack of People's Participation

DISCUSSION:

From the above discussion it can be said that at first our policy makers failed to adopt appropriate strategies for the up-liftment of the rural poor. Special attention for the rural poor was brought into in the planning process at the beginning of the fourth five-year

plan. Then various programmes introduced evaluated and changed. In the seventh five-year plan the consistency came in the programmes. The main programmes became IRDP, DWCRA, TRYSEM, which latter merged under SGSY and PMGY, which are still going on, but many shortcomings have affected these mainly in the process of implementation. Parthasarathy (1985) said that anti-poverty programmes in India are implemented by several agencies and there is a lack of coordination between them in both planning and implementation.   Therefore, an imperative need for drastic reorientation in the operation of the programme and for adopting remedial to check pilferage completely and there is urgent need of strengthening the implementation machinery of rural development programmes so that policy perspectives and goals could be translated into reality. In this direction G.V.K. Rao committee has rightly recommended that local initiative must be encouraged by involving the people effectively in drawing up programmes of rural development. The committee's observation was that Block Development Officer (BDO) had become ineffective and credibility of the organization has been eroded. Moreover, anti-poverty programmes should be vested on panchayat because all anti-poverty programmes are location specific that requires knowledge of local resources. So there should be strict rules in panchayat, which will provide opportunities for the representatives of the poor through the electoral process to gain control over local resources.

PANCHAYATI RAJ AS A REMADIAL STEP:

On 20th April 1993 getting the assent from the president of India, The 73rd Constitutional Act 1992 was brought into the force by government notification which provides new look, dimension and power to the Panchayati Raj system as an weapon for Rural Development (Dutta: 2009). It has mentioned that there shall be a three-tire system of panchayats at village, Intermediate block and district level (more than 20 lacks populated states), seats in panchayats at all three levels shall be filled by direct election, in all the panchayats seats would be reserved for SCs and STs in proportion to their population, offices of chairpersons of the panchayats at all levels shall also be reserved in favour of SCs and STs in proportion to their population and on third of total number of seats will be reserved for women, state legislators have the liberty to provide

reservation of seats and offices of chairpersons in panchayat in favour of backward classes.

The newly set up of Panchayati Raj system introduced 'Gram Sabha' - " A body of consisting persons registered in the electoral roles relating to a village comprised within the area of panchayat at the village level". Gram Sabha is the forum in the system where people participate directly and it expresses the collective aspiration, wisdom and will of the people. Face to face participatory democracy can be practiced here which will foster maximum accountability and transparency of administration and public awareness. At this level all the available resources - physical and human are mobilised to develop priority programmes in socio-economic sectors.

Constitution has empowered panchayats with various powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as institution of local self-government. There are 29 items ranging from agriculture, minor irrigation, mining of minor minerals to small-scale industries. It has also touched the issue of education, health, literacy and sports. The welfare activities for weaker and disabled persons are also placed under its jurisdiction. In this developmental functions mainly ranging from land improvement, social forestry and minor irrigation, all the way through village, khadi and small-scale industry, to education, literacy and family planning are included. These functions are classified as per the nature into three categories (a) General administrative function (b) Developmental and social and (c) maintenance. In SGSY the role of PRIs is described clearly that they should take the leading role in identifying, planning and implementing the scheme.

ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL SOCIAL WORK:

Social work is a professional activity that has gained recognition as a profession only in the 20th century. Professions are better identified by the nature of the contribution they make (to the persons with whom they work), by the type of skills they utilize, by their knowledge base and work values. The contribution of social work is to enable individuals, groups or communities with which it is concerned to function better in their social environment so that, on the one hand, they are able to grow and develop to their

greatest potential and on the other have the same measure, are able to contribute their best to the society of which they are a part (Gore: 2003).

In India, the community development programme started in the year 1952 with a view of integrated development of the rural community. Let us examine the role of social work in the field of community development. The relationship of social work and community development (social development) is still undefined and in an exploratory stage (Gore: 2003, Desai: 2000). In India, social workers have tried in the past to be involved in some of the programmes of community development with only partial success. In the 1950s when the community development programme was launched by the government, social workers sought an entry into it but the only area where they stabilized themselves as an important professional group was the area of training, particularly, the training of the social education officers but failed to create impact directly in the field where the need was most. The reason why the social work profession sought to enter the field was both practical and philosophical. The setting in which the community development programmes were to be undertaken was the rural setting and the professional social workers did not have great deal of experience (Gore: 2003). The practical reason why the profession wanted to enter the Community development programme was the scope that it offered for large –scale employment. The potential contribution of the social work had yet to be interpreted to the community. On the other hand, except one, all schools of social work were relatively new (came up just before the CDP launched) and were primarily oriented to the problems of urban area.

Social worker has a body of knowledge and skills that are basic for rural development with people's participation. Now, presently, many social work schools' education prepares a student for understanding the dynamic forces that influence a man either to accept or to resist change in the rural India with the knowledge of PRI. In addition, as part of his training, the social worker acquires, in the course of practical application of his knowledge, the special skills that are required for helping individuals, groups and communities to discover their own needs and also to engage in constructive action.

Now, social workers have engaged in different action-oriented works in India. Professional social workers are working in organizations (either establishing by themselves or as an volunteer/ employee) which are engaged in different issues like the issue of displacement ('Tribal Displacement issue' of Maharashtra, North East, Orissa, Gujrat etc), right to participate, right to information (efforts of Mazdur krishan Sramik Sangha), land issues (*Dadi* Land Issue of Maharashtra, 'Common Property Resource' of Nagaland etc.) etc. where they are directly confronted with the government for its faulty public policy. Such kind of picture was not very prominent even in the end of 80s. 'Networking' and 'Advocacy' are very common for the social work professionals. So, situation for the social worker as a professional to start his or her career becomes more easy and this has widen the scope to work with the Panchayati Raj system as all these issues are also a part of PRIs. It can not be said that this is entirely a new set up for the social work profession but the researcher prefers to say that a new approach is required for applying the existing methods of social work practice.

The author believes that a social worker can work independently or becoming a part of either the government or an NGO for the fulfillment of the goal of PRIs and for doing so they have to create a service structures to meet the needs and aspirations of the local people in villages. So, they must participate in the planning and policy formulation process at the local agency (NGO), local community, village, district, state (province) and national levels.

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Globalisation and Civil Society in India

Mrityunjay Kumar Singh

There is little doubt that economic globalization is rapidly changing the contours of Society and politics in India. Monumental growth in the role and mandate of International Finance Institutions (IFIs) and the increasing reach of transnational corporate interests have, in significant ways, altered the nature and role of the nation - state. Governance is no longer the traditional monopoly of the nation - state. The Role of the state is shrinking , state has taken on the role of facilitator of trade and markets. This simply means abdication by the state of its primary responsibilities as provider of welfare services. This paper is tries to answer the questions like how has civil society responded to these changes in India? How has civil society engaged with the nation-state in this new context? What are the limitations of civil society in dealing with the state as well as multinational corporate interests.

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INTRODUCTION

"A market economy can exist only in a market society," warned Karl Polanyi, writing several decades ago. The great economic anthropologist predicted that subjugation to the laws of the market was destined to lead to "the demolition of society".

The end of the Cold War made way for what came to be called "globalisation",

American and western economic dominance over the world under a new imperial rubric. It was launched two decades ago over the heads of the public in virtually every country. Major policy departures were made by national political elites at the beckoning

of the so-called international financial and multilateral institutions, the IMF, the World Bank and the WTO. This is what formed "the Washington Consensus". The public was never part of the consultations and deliberations which led to what has appropriately been named "stealth reforms". Democracy -- understood as political processes well beyond periodic voting -- was conspicuous by its absence from the decision to globalise.

National governments have been made hostage to policy directives serving the interests of global investor elites, the bulk of whom reside in the western world. As a result, there has been a definite shift in the locus of power from the state to the corporate sector. Looked at another way, the state itself has changed character. From being the overarching institution guaranteeing security, human liberties and the pursuit of fairness and justice, it has become a handmaiden of the investor classes. It has become an enterprise for "political entrepreneurs" and "business leaders". . This too is the case only in formally democratic societies like India and those of the western world. Following from the above, there is a growing blurring of the time-honoured boundary between the public and the private realm.

A "revolving door" appears to exist between positions in the government and in the corporate world. Like in the US, many of the top planners in government today are unelected officials, unaccountable to the people whose lives they affect directly through the decisions they take. The distinction between the public and the private realms is not only sacrosanct for a democracy. Indeed it has traditionally been a healthy operating principle for any political set-up, keeping in check potential abuses of power. Violation of this principle is leading to a predictable rash of such abuses these days.

Interceding between the state and the corporations on the one hand and the teeming public on the other are to be found growing layers of non-governmental organisations NGOs). Their political status is uncertain, since they are not technically accountable to the public. If anything, their funding norms oblige them to report to their donors and patrons. Through the "partnerships" that they form with people's groups, they often inadvertently do the work that their corporate patrons would like them to do. Today NGOs are made up of the widest possible range of organisations -- from business

associations and lobby groups to community-based and self-help groups, advocacy groups, coalitions and campaigns of various kinds, not to forget that important species "movement-based NGOs" which appear to sponsor social and political movements themselves! What Arundhati Roy has called the "NGO-isation of politics" is thus an obvious corollary of the evolving institutional pattern.

Movements have traditionally been the springboard of social change. In fact, it is difficult to see how democracy itself could have emerged in the western world without the long history of people's struggles in that direction over the past few centuries. The "NGO-isation of politics" has essentially meant that the "million mutinies" that is India today are sought to be somehow converted into harmless "partnerships" with corporations or the state. The political fact that there is a legitimate contestation over spheres of decision-making is ignored under such a view, thus reinforcing the injustices that make up the status quo.

According to the Washington Consensus, domestic state actions in the economy are meant to shrink, making way for "the free market". Wherever there are deficits, NGOs have come to be seen almost everywhere as substitutes for state support of social services like health and education, when in fact they are at best complements.

It need not be emphasised that these trends continue in the face of what is probably history's greatest "market failure": the great financial and economic crisis that has engulfed the world today. Despite historic state interventions in every economy in the world, few doubts are being expressed from the high offices about the essential correctness of the world-view that has been bequeathed by the Washington Consensus. And yet, doubt is very much in order.

Civil society

The term "civil society" is of ancient lineage. In classical times it was used to denote a "good society", usually indistinguishable from the state itself. In Socratic Athens, for instance, it meant resolving public issues through open dialogue and discussion.

Civility consisted in the proper discharge of one's duties as a good citizen. Modern usages, dating from the time of Tocqueville, make a sharp distinction between "civil society" and "political society". Classical liberalism believed that the latter was part of the structure of the state, and given to excesses of power, while the former constituted the realm of "democratic sentiments", where people could express their views and sort out social conflicts in a rational manner, often standing against the state in order to do so. Living in arguably the most illiberal phase of European history, Antonio Gramsci was more sceptical that civil society could perform this designated function. To him, civil society was essentially the locus around which the cultural and ideological conceptions suited to the hegemony of capital cohered in the public imagination.

What has to be asked in the phase of history that we are living through -- in India as much as in the world as a whole -- is whether the reigning theory and practice of civil society (and its institutions) is performing the liberal, possibly radical, role that Tocqueville expected it to. Or is it the case that the cultural, ideological and institutional role of civil society has essentially become one of legitimising the unjust socioeconomic order of global capitalism?

The question cannot be answered in a theoretical manner, since it is ultimately an empirical one. We have to look around us today and see whether the myriad organisations, institutions and forums which constitute the thickly-braided fabric of civil society are decisively supportive of people's struggles for justice. Or do they simply constitute a smiling mask which knowingly or inadvertently reinforces the hegemony which sustains the routine injustices we can all see?

Economic Globalisation

It has had a profound impact on all spheres of life of a common man in India. For the purpose of this paper, the impact of globalisation on critical areas of Health, Agriculture and employment is being analysed.

Health:

Health spending in India is estimated to be in the range of 4.5–6% of GDP. The results from the National Health Account (NHA) for the year 2001–02 showed that total health expenditure in the country was Rs 105734 crore, accounting for 4.6% of its GDP. Out of this, public health expenditure constituted Rs 21439 crore (0.94%), private health expenditure constituted Rs 81810 crore (3.58%) and external support 2485 crore (0.11%). This clearly reflects the decreasing trend of public expenditure on health after globalisation in India. This will have a negative effect on vast majority of poor people who cannot afford costly private treatment.

Studies have shown that the poor and other disadvantaged groups in both rural and urban areas spent a higher proportion of their income on health care than those who are better-off. The burden of treatment is high on them when seeking inpatient care (NSSO 60th Round). Very often they have to borrow at very high interest to meet both medical and other household consumption needs.

Agriculture:

The liberalisation of India's economy was adopted by India in 1991. There was a considerable amount of debate in India at the time of the introduction of the reforms, it being a dramatic departure from the protectionist, socialist nature of the Indian economy until then. However, reforms in the agricultural sector in particular came under severe criticism in the late 1990s, when 221 farmers in the south Indian state of Andhra Pradesh committed suicide. (The damage done, 2005) The trend was noticed in several other states, and the figure today, according to a leading journalist and activist, P. Sainath, stands at 100,000 across the country. (Sainath, 2006) Coupled with this was a sharp drop in agricultural growth from 4.69% in 1991 to 2.06% in 1997 (Agriculture Statistics at a Glance, 2006). Andhra Pradesh's (AP's) experience is particularly critical in this debate because it was headed by former Chief Minister Chandrababu Naidu, who pursued liberalization with enthusiasm. Hence liberalization in AP has been faster than other states, and the extent of its impact has been wider and deeper. (Sainath, 2005).

Indian Agriculture today: A Snapshot

Agriculture employs 60% of the Indian population today, yet it contributes only 20.6% to the GDP. (Isaac, 2005) Agricultural production fell by 12.6% in 2003, one of the sharpest drops in independent India's history. Agricultural growth slowed from 4.69% in 1991 to 2.6% in 1997-1998 and to 1.1% in 2002-2003. (Agricultural Statistics at a Glance, 2006) This slowdown in agriculture is in contrast to the 6% growth rate of the Indian economy for almost the whole of the past decade. Farmer suicides were 12% of the total suicides in the country in 2000, the highest ever in independent India's history. Agricultural wages even today are $1.5 – $2.0 a day, some of the lowest in the world. (Issac, 2005) Institutional credit (or regulated credit) accounts for only 20% of credit taken among small and marginal farmers in rural areas, with the remaining being provided by private moneylenders who charge interest rates as high as 24% a month. (Sainath, 2005) NSSO survey in 2005 found that 66% of all farm households own less than one hectare of land. It also found that 48.6% of all farmer households are in debt. The same year, a report by the Commission of Farmer's welfare in Andhra Pradesh concluded that agriculture in the state was in 'an advanced stage of crisis', the most extreme manifestation of which was the rise in suicides among farmers. Given the performance of agriculture and figures of farmer suicides across the country, this can be said to apply to Indian agriculture as a whole. So liberalization in the agriculture sector is having a devastating impact on millions of farmers.

Employment

Unemployment scenario in India in the era of globalisation

- The rate of unemployment has increased from 6.1 in 1993–94 to 7.3% in 1999–2000, and further to 8.3% in 2004–05.

- Unemployment among agricultural labour households has risen from 9.5% in 1993–94 to 15.3% in 2004–05.

- Under-employment appears to be on the rise, as evident from a widening of the gap between the Usual Status (US) and the current daily status measures of creation of incremental employment opportunities between the periods 1994 to 2000 and 2000 to 2005.

- While non-agricultural employment expanded at a robust annual rate of 4.7% during the period 1999– 2000 to 2004–05, this growth was largely in the unorganized sector.

- Despite fairly healthy GDP growth, employment in the organized sector actually declined, leading to frustration among the educated youth who have rising expectations.

It is clearly evident that the rate of unemployment has increased since the advent of globalization in India. This has resulted despite the assurance given at the time of liberalization in 1991 that it will promote job growth. But Indian economy has *witnessed jobless growth* which is a great cause of concern.

It is only through a massive effort at employment creation, of the right quality, and decent conditions of work for all sections of population and at all locations that a fair redistribution of benefits from growth can be achieved. This indeed is a stupendous task. Alternative policy measures focusing on different sectors and occupations, and the specific requirements of different target groups are needed to create employment on a sustainable basis.

Interventions made by civil society

Since the late 1970's civil society has emerged as a dominant sphere of collective mobilization in India. It has been home to some significant forms of collective mobilization including the environment movement, the movement for land rights, the feminist movement, the movement for dalit rights, and the movement against displacement of people. The focus of these movements has been on challenging inequitable power relations and securing the rights of communities that have been traditionally exploited. More recently, the civil society landscape in India has witnessed

the proliferation of professional organizations or Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) that provide services to the poor and marginalized be they micro credit, primary education, drinking water and sanitation. Civil society activism has also begun to focus on social policy issues such as health, education, work and food. Activism on these issues draws on the language of rights and seeks to strengthen the provisions of fundamental rights provided by the constitution.

Civil society also contests the view that foreign investment promotes economic growth. Advocates of globalization argue that foreign businesses bring with them technical know-how, finance and markets that can create new employment opportunities in developing countries. Civil society in India challenges this view to argue that global corporations (or TNCs) destroy local competition and home grown businesses and do not offer enough employment to replace these losses. According to some interpretations, TNCs are a form of neo-imperialism- a new avatar of western colonisation on the developing world that must be opposed.

Against this background, the focus of civil society's responses to globalization are framed within the perspective of its impact on the poor and marginalized. The most critical issue that it engages with is the nation states ability to respond to the needs of the poor and marginalized in the context of the institutional changes brought about by the forces of globalization. It concerns itself largely with the question of the extent to which the nation state has been captured by interests of global capital. Through its advocacy, it aims to assess, question and challenge the legitimacy of global governance institutions by pressurizing the state to harden its stand against the IFIs and foreign investment. Moreover, civil society actors have constantly tried to push the state to respond to the needs of the poor and marginalized whose vulnerabilities have increased consequent to reform processes. Given the centrality that economic globalization has acquired in contemporary development paradigms, it is no surprise that it tends to dominate advocacy on globalization.

The phrase 'civil society', grounded as it is in western citizenship notions of individualism and private property rights, may not be well suited to the Indian context.

Here, the starkest conflicts involving corporations and people are being played out amidst communities that are seeking to retain community control over resources -- land, water, forests and minerals. Kashipur, Kalinganagar, Singur, Nandigram, Bhopal, Raigad, Mettur, Jadugoda, Plachimada, Narmada valley, Niyamagiri. Many people from each of these places have died violent deaths as a result of their conflicts with the state or the corporate sector, or both.

When a corporation or the government makes a bid for the land used by indigenous peoples, peasants, landless agricultural labourers, forest-dwellers or cattle-herders, the latter are not given a chance to reject the proposal. Indeed, in the instance of Tata's Singur car factory, the Calcutta High Court ruled that the peasants could not refuse to yield their land because the land was being acquired for a "public purpose". Tata Motors' Nano factory had been transformed into a national project.

There are organisations like NAVDANYA and National centre for advocacy studies that are involved in undertaking action research on global policies, creating awareness both amongst citizens and government on globalization. An important role played by these organizations is to support through trainings and information generation smaller grassroots based organizations and movements working on globalization. Most crucially, they work to try and link local struggles on land, water and displacement with macro politics of globalization. Networking both at the local and global level is also an important area of work for these organizations. Through their work, these organizations help to strengthen the conceptual understandings of local movements and to present the voices of these movements in the global arena.

Based on strategic necessity, number of NGOs trade unionists, social movements and other actors that form the galaxy of civil society in India come together from time to time to form networks and coalitions to struggle against globalization. As has already been mentioned, the first and most vocal campaign to understand globalization and search for alternatives to touch the Indian civil society landscape was the World Social Forum in 2004. FDI watch, a national coalition of NGOs, academics, trade unionists and others has been formed to coordinate the campaign. Other significant campaigns on

globalization and its institutions of governance include the Indian People's Campaign against the WTO, the India Climate Justice Forum and the Chottanagpur Adivasi Sewa Samiti.

Along with issue based coalitions, the civil society landscape is also dotted with long standing coalitions and networks of organizations working on the theme of 'resisting globalization' more generally. Implicit is the role of IFIs in promoting globalization. Hence challenging the position and policies of the WTO, IMF, World Bank and the ADB are an important part of their struggles. The National Alliance of People's Movements and the Indian Social Action Forum are two important examples of networks that fall in this category. For many civil society organizations, the move to privatization of services is a direct result of globalization and market led development policies promoted through IFIs. The most successful campaign on privatization of essential services was launched in 2005 by *Parivartan* against the World Bank's proposed loan to the Delhi Jal Board. This campaign brought the debate on privatization of essential services to the national conscience and stalled the loan negotiation process. Privatization of health care is another area of concern and organization such as the Jan Swasthya Abhiyaan are leading a campaign to struggle against the trend towards privatization in the health sector.

Conclusion

Civil society offers one of the most profound critiques of globalization. It enters the debate by critiquing globalizations' asymmetric power relations and the adverse impact this has on the poor. In the era of globalisation government of India's expenditure on defence expenditure has gone up substantially but its budgetary allocation on critical social sector is negligible compared to European and North-American countries. Govt. cannot abdicate its primary responsibility of providing welfare services to its citizens by increasing the pace of privatisation in all spheres. This brings forth the limitation of civil society in bringing about policy changes of the govt. in favour of poor people. Efforts should be accelerated to protect precious resources like land, water ,seeds from multinational vested interests. Studies done over the years have confirmed that the way

globalisation has occurred in India ,it has increased the gulf between India and Bharat. Civil society has to engage more vehemently with the state and corporates to make them accountable and empower the common people by pushing people-centric development.

I think Stiglitz is right when he says that globalisation has a lot of potential and that the failure of globalisation is a consequence of the current distribution of political power that has shaped its evolution. The problem therefore is not with globalization *per se* but with the politics that has shaped it. For globalization to work, one needs to shape a new global politics- one that is fairer and democratic.

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Globalization and Marginalisation: Reflections on HIV/ AIDS

Tarun Bikash Sukai

AIDS is now considered not only as a health problem, but also a developmental and security threat. AIDS in developed countries is now a chronic disease and a manageable health problem. The disease is, therefore, widening the gap between rich and poor nations, thereby presenting a new ethical and human rights dilemma. The new millennium has brought a state of new funding initiatives. However, despite increasingly large amounts of funding being made available to poorer regions of the world, AIDS epidemic is expanding and intensifying globally. Worst affected are undoubtedly the poorer regions of the world as combinations poverty, disease, political and economic instability and weak health infrastructure exacerbate the far reaching impacts of the epidemic. The poor and weak health systems contribute to bottlenecks in the distribution and utilization of fund. Strengthening these health system, must however be accompanied by mitigation of other determinants as well. These are intrinsically complex and include social and environmental factors, sexual behaviour, issue of human rights and biological factors, all of which contribute to HIV transmission, progression and mortality. An equally important factor is ensuring an equitable balance between prevention and treatment programmes in order to holistically address the challenges presented by the epidemic.

Key words: AIDS, Globalization, Epidemic

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INTRODUCTION

Globalization affects all facets of life, including health and well-being. Two years after its first appearance in 1981, the AIDS virus had spread to 60 countries and it rapidly became a global epidemic. Given the scale of epidemic, AIDS is now considered not only as health problem, but also a development and security threat. The HIV / AIDS

epidemic has highlighted the global nature of human health and welfare, and clearly required a global response. Organizing such a response, however, has proved to be difficult. Globalization is both midwives to the spread of AIDS, as modern travel facilitates rapid dissemination of HIV infection across national borders and through concerted global actions, triumphant, conqueror over its devastating impact and expansion. The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), causing acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) is an unprecedented public health emergency and already caused enormous ill health and mortality worldwide (Larson and Narain 2001; UNAIDS/WHO 2002). Although the epidemic began in USA more than 30 years ago, over 95% of new infections now occur in low and middle income countries, which are unfortunately least equipped to respond effectively to the challenge (UNAIDS 2008). It is now well recognized that AIDS is affecting developed and developing countries differently. In developed countries, AIDS is now a chronic disease and a manageable health problem largely due to the availability of anti-retroviral medication. However, in developing countries, AIDS is now destroying societies, nations and communities. Even now less than 25% of those at risk of HIV infection have access to basic prevention services (Jha et al. 2002). The antiretroviral treatments (ART) that have increased the longevity of patients in the industrialized countries are unfortunately beyond the reach of those in the developing world. The new millennium has brought a state of new funding initiatives increasing the manifold the resources available to expand AIDS treatment and prevention programmes. However, despite increasingly large amounts of funding being made available to poorer regions of the world, HIV, infection rates and prevalence continue to increase worldwide. Because there are combination of factors like poverty, disease, famine, political and economic instability and weak health infrastructure which exacerbate severe and far- reaching impacts of the epidemic. The disease is therefore, widening the gap between the haves and have-nots, between rich and poor nations, thereby presenting a new ethical and human rights dilemma (Narain 2004).

The paper briefly discusses about the trends in the Global AIDS epidemic along with global response to meet the challenges. This paper also examines the impact of globalization on health sector in general and on AIDS in particular. Lastly, it examines how bottlenecks in health systems of developing countries reduce the effectiveness of

such aid and suggest ways to overcome these through systematic strengthening of health systems.

Global HIV/AIDS Scenario

At the end of 2007, UNAIDS estimated 33.2 million (30.6 – 36.1 million) people living with HIV/AIDS worldwide. While 30.8 million (28.2 – 33.6 million) of these were adults, 15.4 million (13.9 – 16.6 million) were women and 2.1 million (1.9 – 2.4 million) were children under the age of 15 years. Total number of people newly infected with HIV in 2007 was 2.5 million (1.8 – 4.1 million). Total AIDS deaths in 2007 was 2.1 million (1.9 – 2.4 million), out of which adults 1.7 million (1.6 – 2.1 million), children under 15 years were 290,000 (270 000 – 320,000). More than 25 million already died since the beginning of the epidemic, bringing the number of infected more than 65 million worldwide (UNAIDS 2008). Over 6800 new HIV infections a day in 2007 and over 5700 persons die from AIDS, mostly because of inadequate access to HIV prevention and treatment services. More than 95% of new infections are occurring in low and middle-income countries. Out of these new infections, about 1200 are in children under 15 years of age and about 5800 are in adults aged 15 years and older of whom: — almost 50% are among women. Young people aged 15–24 account for an estimated 45% of new HIV infections worldwide (UNAIDS 2008).

Today, AIDS is the leading cause of death in Sub-Saharan Africa which has highest number of HIV positive people (22.5 million), followed by South and South-East Asia with 4.0 million infected individuals. In seven Sub-Saharan African nations, more than 22% of the population aged 15 to 49 is infected with HIV. Africa accounts for 83% of all AIDS deaths worldwide. The epidemic has an adverse effect on life expectancy in Sub-Saharan Africa. Gains made in life expectancy before 1980 have been lost and it is estimated that life expectancies affected by HIV infection and AIDS may be less than 40 years (UN Population Division 2001). The epidemic is growing fastest in South Africa where it is estimated that over 1500 new infections occur daily (UNAIDS 2002). In South Africa, AIDS deaths are widespread that small children now play a new game called "Funerals". In Zimbabwe, the AIDS epidemic has shortened life

expectancy by 22 years. Two out of every three Zimbabweans aged 15 to 39 are HIV positive. Sub-Saharan Africa remains the region most heavily affected by HIV, accounting for 67% of all people living with HIV and for 75% of AIDS deaths in 2007. More than 90% HIV infected children are living in Sub-Saharan Africa. In sub-Saharan Africa alone, the epidemic has orphaned nearly 12 million children aged less than 18 years (UNAIDS 2008). However, some of the most worrisome increases in new infections are now occurring in populous countries in other regions, such as Indonesia, the Russian Federation, and various high-income countries.

Different Trends that shape the AIDS epidemiological curve

An increasingly mobile global population exacerbates the risk of HIV transmission. The UNHCR (2004) estimated refugee populations arising from areas of conflict is 9.7 million worldwide, are at higher risk, as are internal migrants within countries. According to ILO (2002), at the beginning of 21st country, 120 million workers worldwide were migrants. Women are more vulnerable to HIV infection due to their low social status, risky sexual practice, endemic poverty, etc. In 1997, women accounted for 41% of people living with HIV, which has risen to almost 50% in 2002.

The impact of HIV mortality is greatest on people in their 20s and 30s which severely distorts the shape of the population pyramid in affected societies. The UNAIDS predicts that in 7 selected countries in Sub- Saharan Africa, 14 million AIDS related deaths will occur between 1995 and 2005. In Sub-Saharan Africa, it is estimated that 12 million children have lost their one or both parents to AIDS, on figure which is expected to increase to 18 million by 2010. Even in other less affected countries, the nos. of orphans continues to rise due to the time lapse between infection and death of parents.

In agrarian economics, the agricultural output is decreasing as a result of increased motility in the workforce presenting in what has been termed as 'new variant famine'. Studies predict that in few most severely affected African countries, the agricultural workforce will decline by 10% -26% by 2020. The combination of lost production and resulting malnutrition will increase susceptibility of disease. The macroeconomic repercussion of the epidemic varies, depending on the industries

underpinning the economy and degree of HIV prevalence. UNAIDS opines that any deceleration in economic growth (as measured by GDP) will be offset by similar reduction in population numbers due to increased mortality and therefore resource consumption. The qualitative effects of higher mortality are also considerable: the erosion of social and intellectual capital and decreased investment in populations of the future, have far-reaching consequences for society as a whole. Impact on the workplace is also considerable, translating into productivity losses and increased costs to employer due to staff illnesses and deaths, higher health insurance premiums and low morale. In addition, household demand for good and services may decline due to lower income and levels of consumption, resulting in the contraction of resource production. The major economic impact is microeconomic. Individual households are primarily responsible for coping with the repercussions of AIDS and as such bear the brunt of the epidemic. In areas where stigma prevails, the psychological impacts of the disease increase the burden. The ramifications of as epidemic of this nature and scale will be felt long after incidence of the disease has peaked, predicted in case of AIDS to be in 2040.

Global Response

There are numbers of global initiatives and collaborations that are addressing the global HIV/AIDS challenge. For example, the Millennium Development Declaration, signed by 189 nations in 2000, encompasses eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), three of which are health related reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, and combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, by 2015. Many international organizations have been set up to assist in funding and implementing HIV prevention and care programmes worldwide. These include Presidents Emergency Plan For AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), Global Fund to fight AIDS, T.B. and Malaria (GFATM), The Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunization, the Global Health Council, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, the World Bank Multi country HIV/AIDS Programme (MAP), the William J. Clinton Presidential Foundation, etc. According to UNAIDS (2002) report, approximately US $ 300 million was available in 1996 for HIV/AIDS worldwide which had risen to US $ 4.7 billion by 2003. Although it was a huge increase

in funding, but still it was less then half of the required amount and this exigency is expected to rise to US$ 20 billion by 2007.

However, despite the large amount of fund made available in addressing the AIDS epidemic, shortfalls in both money and numbers of people being reached, are apparent. Of the estimated 6 million people in developing countries who are in need of ART, only 400,000 currently receive it (of these, 208,000 are in Brazil alone). Even if the WHO's '3 by 5' effort which aims at providing ART to 3 million people by 2005, was successful, it has addressed only 50% of the demand for treatment. The MDGs are unlikely to be met at the current rates of progress, with the worst affected countries likely to make the best headway (Travis,P et al, 2001). Another issue of concern is that the focus of many of these programmes is on treatment rather than prevention of HIV. Current date suggests that approximately 33% of funding for AIDS initiatives be allocated for treatment and care, with approximately 51% for prevention programmes, Schwartlander et al. (2001) advocate a similar split in fund allocation. Marseille et al (2002) studied and found that the ratio between the cost-effectiveness of HAART and Prevention is 28:1. In human terms, for every life- year gained through HAART, 28 life-years could have been gained through prevention. The initial cost of HAART was over US $ 10,000 per patient per year – a price affordable to few in developing countries. Later on, agitation by human rights organizations led to generic production of ART drugs at greatly reduced price. However, there is a long way to go as only 15% of the estimated treatment need has been met in developing countries. The WHO's '3 by 5' goal will be far from achieved without strengthening the national health system to provide these drugs.

How does Globalization affect Health?

There is a debate as to the meaning and effects of 'globalization' as well as about whether it is 'new' and if so, in what ways. Globalization is narrowly defined as the removal of barriers to free trade and the closer integration of national economics (Stiglitz, 2003). It has a much wider sweep and also affects the political, cultural and social life of population across the globe. The health sector is no exception. As Barnett

and Whiteside point out, health and well being are international concerns and global goods, and inherent in the epidemic are lessons to be learned regarding collective responsibility for universal human health.

There are two broad views on the effect of globalization on health. The optimistic view that sees the health benefit of globalization to poor countries and to poor communities in rich countries. These benefits include increased trade, easier diffusion of new technologies and at a cultural – political level acceptance and application of common human rights throughout the world. This view argues that the increased pace of cross-national exchanges should facilitate diffusion of technological innovations.

In contrast, the pessimistic view sees globalization as a phenomenon, which because of the increasing loss of sovereignty by nation states means that states are less willing to pool resources. It may result into less cooperation and more protectionism increased competition, and insistence in maintaining those spheres of influences that still seem intact. Beside it, the increasing concentration of international pharmaceutical industry has been an important factor. It has been argued that pursuit of an HIV/ AIDS Vaccine has been of less interest to big pharmaceutical companies, they stand to profit more from the development of treatment than vaccines. The debate about the TRIPS agreement and generic version of antiretroviral drugs before, during and most significantly after the XIII international AIDS conference in Durban, 2000, is indicative of kind of challenge we confront in trying to ensure access to drugs through market mechanism. The fate of the global fund to fight AIDS, T.B. and Malaria, which was out come of the UNGASS meeting in 2001 still hangs in the balance as the rate of commitment from the main donor countries remain disappointing.

The neo-liberal economic ideologies and the World Bank though have not always been identical, but certainly have been close to each other during last 20 years. The World Bank has a profound influence on health provision in poor countries as the largest external financier of health activities. Over the past 20 years, the World Bank (2000) addressed the following three main health policy issues: (1) system reform; (2) targeting public sector investment and (3) encouraging donors and governments to

operate within the framework of the first two. The thrust of these strategies was to emphasize the role of the market in health care provision. Government's role was to be mainly regulatory, by supervising the marketplace, insurance legislations and ensuring 'acceptable' levels of access. But the World Bank's policy ignores the social ethics of health care and defines health services as commodities to be delegated to the market sector of economy. It also ignores the provision of public goods, such as immunization, etc. This policy seeks to shift the larger burden of curative services to the private sector, which makes it available to foreign market. But is this really what health, well-being and ill-being are about? These questions confront us with the necessity to consider how we relate to each other in an era of globalization.

Reforming the Health System

The reduced absorptive capacity of recipient countries for donor funds often result in bottlenecks preventing aid packages being used where they are most needed. As a result, despite higher levels of acceptance of aids by certain governments, a global climate of increased political stability and economic growth and the greater public access to information and advocacy, inequitable access to treatment and prevention persists. Besides it, an over dependence of donor fund can reduce the long-term sustainability of programmes. Constraints relating to supply within health systems, including finance, information systems, human resources, drugs and logistics as well as those on the demand side, such as increased numbers of patients, stigma and discrimination among communities, hinder progress. The examples of introducing prevention of mother to child transmission (PMTCT) programmes, which are the most cost-effective anti-HIV programmes available into the national health systems, is illustrative of the challenges faced by developing countries. Single dose Nevirapine each to mother during delivery and to her new born is the most widely used regimen of PMTCT having the advantages of simplicity, affordability, and effectiveness. Most agencies including UNICEF have found that in developing countries, only a minority of eligible women receive the ART drugs. Even fewer infants are given their prophylactic dose of Nevirapine. In general, less than 20% of the HIV positive women attending antenatal clinics receive the ARVs globally. It is estimated that out of 2.1 million HIV positive pregnant women in any

given year globally (excluding high-income countries), only 20,000 receive PMTCT interventions. The WHO Report (2004) states that the "3 by 5" initiative cannot be implemented in isolation from a regeneration of health system. Several studies support this statement, reflecting the unfavourable conditions in the health care systems of developing countries.

In order to build capacity, UNAIDS suggests an approach which incorporates training, technical assistance and access to improved guidelines and tools should be adopted by funding agencies. The recipient countries need to undertake thorough planning processes whereby goals relevant to that country are set and allocation of funds is made according to the need in order to utilize the resources effectively. However, constraints may have multiple causes both within and external to the health system itself, which may themselves be interdependent. It follows that the health system, rather than the specific disease, should be tackled in order to achieve the effective and holistic delivery of interventions. Such restructuring tends to be effective only in the long term, so immediate interventions may have to be introduced into health system to deal with the pressing needs of prevention and HIV/AIDS patients. Robust health systems play a fundamental role in channeling globally recognized best prevention and treatment programmes for the mitigation of HIV/AIDS. However, certain social and biological complexities profoundly affect the transmission, progression and mortality of the disease, lie beyond the scope of health services. Therefore, addressing health system constraints alone will not constitute a comprehensive solution to the management of epidemic. Mitigation of risk factors needs to be an integral part of the response to HIV/AIDS in order for real progress to be made in the propitiation of the disease.

Globalization brings with it many benefit in addressing the spread of HIV throughout the world. However these benefits can only be realized if appropriate programmes are available in areas of need. As a part of the generous supply of aid, attention needs to be paid to building capacity in recipient countries so that such funds may be effectively disseminated and the AIDS epidemic effectively curbed.

It is ironic that at a time when the importance of past epidemics is increasingly recognized and discussed by historians, there is very little appreciation of how AIDS impact in already affecting many societies now and into the future. HIV/AIDS is harbinger of the global public health crisis. Epidemics such as HIV/ AIDS, and their impact don't take place in isolation. They need to be related to other events - changes in political regime, new ideas, global warming, the global distribution of power. We can't deal with these events in isolation from each other. We can no longer deal with issues piecemeal and sincerely claim that we have given them our full attention. We live in a world where perception of inter-related multiple long-wave events must be on the agenda of every politician and policy-maker. As social scientists, we must engage with the AIDS epidemic for many reasons: Because it is an interesting phenomenon because of a pressing desire to help those in distress now and in the future; because it makes a mockery of international development goals and prospects for progress in certain countries; because resulting poverty may be a threat to the national security of the USA, or yet again because of a fear that "AIDS refugees " may flood the countries of North in a search for treatment – "therapeutic pilgrimage", which is a small but significant component of the enormous body of migration which characterizes this period of globalization. Social scientists may also wish to explore further the links among pragmatism, self-interest, morality and public health.

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Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Development
S.Y. Swadi.

Corporate Social Responsibility is a development initiative adopted by the leading corporates and envisaged the programmes of education, health, livelihood creation, skill development and empowerment of the needed sections of society. Promotion of the social indicators of the society speaks of improvement of the social fabric of society. The incidence of poverty, unemployment, ignorance, diseases and destitution confronts people in a big way. Development initiatives indeed need apt human resources with adequate knowledge, skill, good health and education and right attitude and motivation. The corporate social responsibility is community-based approach towards improving its relationship with community. The focus of this paper is however to gain better acquaintance with this new approach and further outline the feasible avenues to make this attempt as ever enduring for the overall integrated development of the communities in all perspectives.

Key Words: Development, Livelihood Creation, Corporations, Positive Attitude, Public Health Care, Eco Friendly, Empowerment

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of social responsibility of business – popularly termed 'Corporate Social Responsibility' (CSR)- is by no means a recent phenomenon, but many observers and agree that the globalization has spurred its growth and prominence. The notion of CSR is now dominates thinking about corporate behavior among a section of academician and practitioners. Corporate philanthropy – regarded, as the earliest manifestation of CSR- is no longer considered as an adequate response to demands for social responsibility. The term CSR includes environmental, social and human rights based impacts and initiatives of companies and many countries both in industrialized and the third world take the concept and practices very seriously (Bimal Arora and Ravi Puranik 2004).

All leading corporates in India are involved in corporate social responsibility programmes in the areas like education, health, livelihood creation, skill development

and empowerment of the weaker section of the society. And paying more attention to the overall integrated development of the society that is a desperate need. In India and in other third world countries with a predominately agrarian economy, a huge population characterized by poverty, and illiteracy an extremely traditional social world- view the community development programme seen as a major strategy of brining about overall development through a government and voluntary initiatives. India for instance, liberated by the alien rule in the middle of the twentieth century inherent an economy characterized by the socio economic problems, such as poverty, agricultural backwardness, low income, lack of industrial development, unemployment, illiteracy, population pressure, poor health standard and prevalence of age old customs. Our nation thus resorted to the planning process to achieve the development and further has even sorted the role of community to play an important role voluntarily in the development pursuits. It is in this context that the community development programmes was conceived as a grand ideology to mobilize local effort for local development. It is still continuous to be major philosophy underling the practice of community work (Siddiqui 1997).

Community Development

The term community development is often used in the wider context referred to as development of vast geographical area and the population such human resources that includes women, children, youth, aged etc and even installation of such measures that contributes to the community welfare. Community is a broader term that envisages further within the places such as the urban, rural and tribal. The task of contributing development is major responsibilities shouldered by the government machinery percolate from apex to the Grass root level and even it is the responsibility of the private and corporate sectors. Corporate sectors are prominent firms and business enterprises that depend upon the community for both inputs needed in the manufacturing of their products and market for selling the product produced. The survival and the growth of the business depend upon the responses and acceptance of the community. Corporate sectors besides economic but also a social institutions. It is however imperative them to take

into account the problems, issues and needs of the community and serve the community in the best interest of its own.

Concept of Corporate Social Responsibility

The concept of social responsibility is based on the premises that business is an integral part of the society and it has an obligation to make positive contributions to the societal need and aspirations. Social responsibility is basically a philosophy or a vision about the relationship of business and society. It is a process of continuous improvement, not a fad (Vijaya B 2006). And this is being done for the betterment of the community.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR), also known as corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, responsible business, sustainable responsible business (SRB) and corporate social performance is a form of corporate self- regulation integrated into a business model. Ideally, CSR policy would function as a built –in, self-regulating mechanism whereby business would monitor and ensure their adherence to law, ethical standard, and international norms. Business would embrace responsibility for the impact of their activities on the environment, customers, employees, communities, stakeholders and all other members of the public sphere. Furthermore, business would proactively promote the public interest by encouraging community growth and development, and voluntary eliminating practices that harm the public sphere, regardless of legality. Essentially, CSR is the deliberate inclusion of public interest into corporate decision-making and the honoring of a triple bottom line like people, planet and profit.

Big corporations have several advantageous at their disposal. They have apt resources to their side, personnel of their own, and vibrant spirit of doing work without yielding to the clutches whims and fancies, and corruption. The prevailing defects inherent in the bureaucratic system have weakened the spirit and people have lost faith in the developmental strides. Therefore the development of concept of corporate social responsibility stood as good step marching ahead to fulfill the community expectations.

In India, it has also been noticed that when it comes to individual CSR activities, the 'anonymous' donor mentality prevails. That most people tend to keep a low profile it conducted a straw poll and talked to several professionals involved in the field and NGO circuit to get an idea about lending lights. Of course, with the intense spotlight on the

subject, the interest in corporate social responsibility is spreading in India as well. The corporate social responsibility survey 2002 – India jointly conducted by the United Nations Development Programme, British council, Confederations of Indian Industry and Pricewaterhousecoopers, covering 19 industry sectors reveals that this interest is growing as more and more companies in India are keen to project themselves as good corporate citizens. This was the most important factor driving CSR in India, according to the survey, good corporate citizenship and CSR initiatives are inextricably linked with improved brand reputation, which is one of the most important drives of CSR identified by the respondent companies. The other key drivers of corporate social responsibility in India were diverse ranging from stated philosophy of funding fathers to improving relationship with local communities to enhanced shareholder value.

Objectives of Corporate Social Responsibility

CSR display the following objectives such as

- ❖ Provision of effective source of gainful employment for local communities to combat effects of poverty and unemployment.
- ❖ Imparting vocational training for the youth and enable them to obtain the skills of the employable skills and positive attitude with determination.
- ❖ Extension of financial assistance for community activities, financial and other relief to affected communities, compensation to local people affected by the calamities.
- ❖ Organizing and sponsoring of cultural and sports events, especially for the children and youths to help them to have right perspectives of recreation and leisure time activities.
- ❖ Concentrating on first generation learners, academic and financial assistance and educational support through distribution of books and other required educational materials, improvement of school infrastructure and provision of school building.
- ❖ Extension of health care and medical facilities to community people.

Approaches of Corporate Social Responsibility

An approach for CSR that is becoming more widely accepted is community based development projects, many firms in allover India endeavoring for the development of the community by initiating the leadership qualities among the emerging leaders. Further, development has very effective suppose concentration is laid upon first generation learner. Here setting up of an early learning center that help to educate the community's children, as well as developing a new skill in them in future, other approaches must also concentrate on promoting social economic and cultural indicators. A more common approach of CSR is through giving the aid to local organizations and improvised communities. Some organizations do not like this approach as it does not help build on the skills of the local people; whereas community based development generally leads to more sustainable development.

The practice of CSR is subject to much debate and criticism. Proponents argue that there is a strong business case for CSR, in that corporations benefit in multiple way by operating with a prospective broader and longer than their own immediate, short-term profits. Critics argue that CSR distracts from the fundamental economic role of the business; others argue that it is nothing more than superficial window dressing others argue that it is an attempt to pre-empt the role of the governments as a watchdog over powerful Multinational corporation. But the trend in the in the contemporary period mentions that government and corporate sectors are displaying lot of interest and work in the area of CSR. The drives behind the more CSR initiatives is for the reason of improved relationship with local communities and to be a good corporate citizen.

Corporate Social Responsibility and Areas of Community Development

Social welfare and community development is apt necessary placed at the core area of corporate social responsibility. CSR philosophy continues to be a top priority for the community development. It revolves around the organizations deeply – held belief in the principle of symbiotic relationship with the local communities, recognizing that business ultimately has a purpose to serve human needs. Close and continuous interaction with the people and the communities in and around the manufacturing divisions has been the key focus while striving to bring around qualitative changes and supporting the

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underprivileged. CSR contributes to the community in the areas of health, education, infrastructure development i.e., improvement of community infrastructure such as approach and link roads, provision of drinking water, construction of schools and other school infrastructure etc, on the front of environmental issue the need for undertaking work of effluent treatment, tree plantation, treatment of hazardous waste, relief and assistance in the event of natural disasters, and new and renewable energy sources would be able to contribute to resolve the problem of environmental pollution to the greater extent and other miscellaneous activities such as employment generation, skill development, and empowerment programmes. CSR teams interact with the community in this regard they have good autonomy and freedom in the formation and implementation of programme on a regular basis. A close look at the work of CSR initiatives in the arena of development is most feasible this happens in the following areas such as;

Education

Education is a desperate need of every community, it dispel the darkness and bring light to life. It is bedrock of growth and progress. Concentration on first generation learners is a top priority of every community. CSR believes that the quality of inputs received by a person at an early age thus contributes immensely to the apt personality development and make him as capable human being. To ensure high quality of teaching and learning process in the schools CSR has to make significant efforts towards value enhancement of teachers through professional and institutionalized training. As a concrete step to enhance learning capability at the gross root level apart from curricular programme, co-curricular programme such as conduct of educational and excursion tours of students and teachers from the primary schools of neighboring villages, and also organizing camps for children's about science and mathematics exhibitions. Further to provide training in the field of effective techniques and modern methods of teaching to high school teachers in organizing the training programmes for teachers in various subjects. Along with this it is imperative for CSR to concentrate on those children who have problem of school dropouts in the local community and help the children to have an access to formal system of schooling.

CSR also provides opportunities to engineering and management students to undergo in-plant training/ project work as a part of their academic curriculum, thus enabling them to apply their theoretical knowledge and get an exposure to the area of technical, human resource management and industrial practices. Youths who are in search of gainful employment, efforts should be made to enhance their employability / skill development of local youths by giving them opportunities to work in the organizations and improve their job prospects. Further students who are working at different level of their education can be supported through measures such as;

❖ Facilitating meritorious students form neighboring villages and tribal hamlets and provide them a school or their study related materials that help them a great deal.

❖ With an objective to encourage the community children especially children belong to urban slums, rural and remote area and tribal community their special education needs are require to be taken care.

Health

Health is wealth this is an apt proverb in the vogue, like education similarly the health care and services is very important for the development of healthy nation. Health standard of the people need to be improved. People confronted by the various aliments such as chronic and communicable, problem of malnutrition, and mortality issues. CSR in this regard can concentrate on the issues such as conducting Health Awareness programmes, covering diverse topics such as noise pollution, hazardous substance abuse, and prevention of HIV infections, Tuberculosis, Malaria, and other various diseases. Even facilities of first aid care should be made available in case of emergencies. Further it is necessary to provide medical service and awareness programs on health, hygiene, cleanliness and sanitation in villages.

Prevention is better than cure an early detection of illness at early stage can prevent major complications that an individual as a patient has to face with, therefore a conduct of monthly checkup camps at community level and distributions of medicines with other essentially needed equipments. Round the clock free ambulance service needed to provide to assist the community in case of emergencies. It is also feasible for organizations to open a Rehabilitation Center that helps in the vital aspect of

community-based rehabilitation of capacity building of differently abled and weaker sections of the community. Because this measures is suitable on account of fact that India mainly comprises of more rural communities and people of rural community find this facility as useful. Besides this a medical center formulated would help to cater the government health care programmes like maternal and child health, TB, Malaria, HIV/AIDS, etc., besides providing curative treatment indeed as quite useful. These centers obviously well receive and appreciates by people on account of close proximity of the center and even availability of quality services. Thus these programmes go a long way in providing the medical facility to the community. Further CSR need to offer priority to implement health care programmes such as HIV/AIDS programmes, DOTS therapy in view continuous rise in the incidence of infection of tuberculosis and other diseases. Project " cancer – Aid" for cancer patients, mobile dispensaries, Blood Donation Drives, Public Heath Care. Working in this area as public private partnership between the government, NGO's and corporations is essentially required.

Even adoption of primary health centers is also feasibly good idea, as PHC's have been established as a part of public health care programmes, these centers are intended to offer health care services to the people at the gross root level. However a critical look at the functioning of them is far from satisfaction. The idea of PHC adaptation is a good for better care and treatment of the people.

Medical care services at SEZ

CSR has even vital and immense role to play in newly emerging concept such as special economic zone (SEZ). Corporations have capability to provide employment to people from different parts of the community. CSR as a part of its responsibility to offer shelter facilities to the employees who live in the colonies, each such labour colony has a separate medical center. And it is manned round the clock by doctors, nurses and besides an ambulance facility is very essential.

Community Development Initiatives

CSR continuous to extend a helping hand to surrounding villages and the community at large, activities in the entire period has to focus on improving village infrastructure,

supply of drinking water, agricultural development, promotion of ecology, waste management etc., A unique approach is essential to improve rural housekeeping and sanitation, a totally fresh approach is needed to adopt to beautify the environment of the community. Cleaning and sanitation drive at community has to be taken up as an ongoing project. Construction of a public lavatory, water tank and check dams for common drinking water facility for villagers are among some other most important need. The other needs such as concrete roads, Anganwadis, drinking water facilities, panchayat office, community halls, check- dams and other amenities in rural areas is further important to concentrate on.

CSR has a responsibility to promote the skills and earning capabilities of community people. The feasible attempt in this regard to give emphasis to development of agriculture and allied occupations, setting up of rural industries, improvement of handicrafts, and animal husbandry the activities of animal husbandry – cattle rearing (cow, Buffalo, Pig, and Sheep), Poultry, fishery. These occupations done on scientific manner would help in sustaining regular income and earning to people and combat the problem of migration to other places in search of employment and livelihood opportunities and problems of poverty and unemployment.

Empowerment of Women and Youth

CSR is an apt intervention in the area of conducting many training programmes that would help the women and youth to self – sustaining and generate income for themselves and support their families. The training programmes conducted for the women and youths of the surrounding places the conduct of different such as women empowerment, Dress making and Designing, Beauty Culture and Health care, hospital attendant (helpers for hospital and Nursing Homes), plumbing and Hand pump repairing training, computer hardware, motor vehicle driving, mobile repairing and doormat making. These would help to procure them the hard and soft skills to them and this certainly benefit a great deal. Supporting several self help groups in income generating activities such as phenyl making, agarbathi making, candle making, papad making, and hand- carry- bag making, thus supplying it to industrial canteens. And even tailoring and other programme aptly a need in this regard. Skill up-gradation a special training

programs to equip young people of community with life and work skills necessary for sustaining livelihood. Regular conduct of training in fashion designing courses for the ladies and to upgrade the skills of those women who have already trained in the basic tailoring, CSR also conduct computer education courses and nursing assistant training courses. The trainees also receive hands on training at the local hospitals and primary health centers. It is also necessary to train the youth in the vehicle driving courses and help them in getting driving license so that they may earn a livelihood by starting their own business.

Eco Friendly Initiatives

In addition to the above initiatives, the CSR also focuses attention on the development of the eco-system and improvement of the green belt across its manufacturing and in the nearby surrounding. Care for providing clean and green environment on a sustainable basis. It recycles used bottles to produce value added products. When most of the environmental concerns are subsidized, efforts are required to sustain on harnessing and effective use of the renewable energy sources, this is more aptly required now. CSR are required to work in the area of empowerment of people on the front of promoting them to the significance of producing clean and alternate renewable energy for cocking and lighting, enriched organic manure for agricultural usage, improving sanitation and hygiene and reducing drudgery of women.

Conclusion

It is aptly true that India wish to form herself a formidable economic force in the globe and rapid progress in every sphere of life. Every citizen therefore expects that to get fulfill his personal and collective needs. All the agencies of development need to shoulder this responsibility in a meaningful way and restore the confidence of people in development strides.

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Socio-Economic Conditions and Development of Migrant Rickshaw-Pullers in Delhi-An Empirical Study

Sanjoy Roy

A large section of the working population in the country is engaged in the unorganised sector. Many among them are rural labourers who migrate to distant places in search of jobs. They are either self-employed or are engaged as labourers. The rickshaw pullers found in towns & metropolitan cities constitute a significant proportion of such migrant workers. As a result they develop unhygienic conditions in their living places and develop as slum.

This article is based on a research study conducted in Delhi by the author where great portion of migrant population comes in search of jobs and they find rickshaw pulling as an easy mode of earning. The article highlights on the socio-economic conditions of migrant rickshaw pullers.

Key Words: Rickshaw Puller, Socio-economic Condition, Background Information, Migration, Income and Expenditure, Social Work Intervention

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INTRODUCTION

Over 90 percent of India's work force is in the informal sector. The massive exodus of population from the rural to the urban areas and from the smaller towns to the larger metropolis has been driven by a combination of factors in India. The central element has been the opportunity of employment in urban informal sector, which has grown rapidly in a two way process - on the one hand, the relative impoverishment of urban economy has offered a large space for the informal sector, on the other, cheap labour market has encouraged the growth of processing and service industry in the household sector. It has left the poor with virtually no alternative except to seek informal solutions to their housing needs in mushrooming slums without access to basic minimum facilities of drinking water and sanitation. Thus a complex patter of urban form has emerged, in which the 'informal and the illegal' have developed an intricate and organic relationship with the 'formal and the legal' system. Rickshaw operators are among the most visible groups of self employed people of our country.

Most of the cities and towns in India are highly polluted. The main reason is the air and noise pollution caused by transport vehicles, especially petrol and diesel-powered two and three-wheelers. In India there are presently close to 18 million petrol-powered two wheelers and about 1.5 million petrol and diesel-powered three-wheelers and their population is growing at rate of about 15% per annum. There is therefore an urgent need to introduce in cities and towns of India an environmentally sound transport system which is cost effective and which provides large scale employment for urban and rural poor. An electric cycle rickshaw can provide a non-polluting, point-to-point and a very silent transport system for urban and rural areas of India. Besides it is a very energy efficient and cost effective vehicle. Work done at our Institute has shown that improved cycle rickshaw powered by an electric motor and batteries has a potential to provide an attractive alternative to petrol and diesel-powered three-wheelers. They can also provide large-scale employment and extra income to the rickshaw puller (Rajvanshi, A. K, 2000).

Concept of Migration

Migration is a universal phenomenon and it has been present in all stages of human history. However, the processes and forms of migration among human beings have been changing over years. Early migration tended to be the movement of tribes, races & groups. In modern times it is the movement of families and, still more of individuals seeking economic settlement and transient work in other lands. Migration is a shift in the place of residence for varying period of time while it excludes short visits and tours; it includes both voluntary and involuntary movements. However, mobility of India's population gained momentum only in the post independence period. This phenomenon may be attributed to a number of factors, such as the partition of the country in 1947, the implementation of five year plans after the independence, diversification of economy, reclamation of cultivable waste land in certain areas, rapidly improving means of transport, gradual progress in education, increasing pressure of population on agricultural land, emergence of a new zeal for improving of living etc. Migration is a routine livelihood strategy adopted in India and not simply a response to shocks (Deshingkar and Anderson, 2004).

In addition to this, the imbalanced growth of villages and cities and the open occupational structure of modern cities are also responsible for the movement of the people from rural to urban areas. In the past, cities provided limited chances of spatial and social mobility, since those were primarily centers of political, religious, educational and commercial activities with limited employment potentials, and had a static and archaic character. Cities of such closed structure did not provide to the rural masses with opportunities to have access to them.

According to *Theodore Caplow* "Migration is strictly speaking a chance of residence and need not necessarily involve any change of occupation, but it is closely associated with occupational shifts of one kind or another".

New Webster's dictionary defined migration as - "The act or an instance of moving from one country, region or place to settle in another the act or an instance of moving from one area to another in search of work".

India's population has generally been characterized as non-mobile. However, recently internal migration has recorded phenomenal increase. In fact at the process of the rural to urban migration in India was initiated. Even scholars, artists, warriors and unskilled workers always aspired to move to these cities for royal patronage, wider acclaim and better life. These cities provide rural migrants with better living conditions, employment opportunities, educational facilities, chances of upward mobility and an escape from the poverty and hardships of rural life. Consequently, in India rural-urban migration has increased considerably during the past ten decades. However, the rate of migration is not uniform for all over the country; it varies from regions to region depending upon the nature and type of the cultivable soil, economic potentials, socio-cultural peculiarities and development planning of the regions (Kamble, 1982).

Causes of Migration

A number of specific reasons of cataclysm like floods, famines, epidemics, wards, conquests & invasions, economic, political and religious oppressions at home and love for adventure, aspiration for more wealth etc. were the causes of migration in the early stages of history. However, the factors of migration in recent times are more explicitly specified than ever before. For example Saxena (1977), Upreti (1980) and many other scholars have classified the causes of rural emigration into two categories, viz. economic and socio-demographic. In economic factors they include a high man/land ratio, agricultural poverty, unequal distribution of resources, average per capita income of cultivators, land holding system, fragmentation of land, heavy taxation, job opportunities outside the village etc. While the socio-demographic factors include age, sex, family size, family type, family conflict, Kinship structure, caste, education, oppressive law, distance and social surroundings.

The factors associated with the process of migration may be broadly classified as place of origin, place of destination, intervening obstacles and personal factors. The Phenomenon of migration tends to encourage in terms of the 'push' and 'pull' factors. Factors (particularly economic) related to the place of origin are called the '***push***' factors and the factors related to the destination as the '***pull***' factors. According to 'push' factor impinging rural environment cause migration, while according the 'pull' factor, urban attractions 'pull' the persons.

Otherwise the main reasons of migration are:

i)   unemployment / underemployment,
ii)   Financial problem
iii) Lack of agricultural land or very little land in native place,
iv)   Family dispute,
v)   Peer influences etc.

Migration in Delhi and Pattern of Migration

Population of Delhi has grown 221.57% during the course of last twenty years. No other city in the world has witnessed similar kind of growth which is unprecedented both in its scale and magnitude. Much of this growth has been influenced by poverty-induced migration, from different parts of the country particularly from the neighbouring states in search of livelihood.

TABLE-1

VOLUME OF NET MIGRATION TO DELHI (IN, 000)

Year	Net Migration to Delhi
1961-71	633
1971-81	952
1981-91	1306
1991-2001	1600

Source: Census of India, Registrar General of India

Table1 has clearly shows the net migration to Delhi from different neighbouring states in an increasing rate since 1961 to 2001.

It is important to understand the structure and pattern of the migration, which has had a significant bearing on the economy and settlement system of the city. It is estimated that 83.9% of the population who migrated to the city belonged to the rural areas, 15.8% to the small and medium towns (with population of less than a million) and 0.3% to the metropolis (million plus cities), but almost every individual who migrated to the city, irrespective of the level of education, income and social status, did so with a dream of a better future. Delhi is perceived as a land of opportunities to the poor and the non-poor alike.

Historical Understanding of Rickshaw

The rickshaws were introduced in India as early as 1930s. In the early days most of the rickshaws were land-pulled. Subsequently they gave way to cycle rickshaws. In the late

1970s a motorized version of the rickshaw introduced which never really caught on, as the rickshaw puller became worried about getting a license as well as maintaining the motor.

Rickshaw-pulling even though an outdated mode of transport, it is still popular in India. Not only in small towns but even in fast developing industrial and commercial cities and metropolis of the country, it is a common scene to see a rickshaw puller carrying a huge load or passengers. Delhi being the national capital of India affords much better employment opportunities not only skilled workers but also for unskilled workers. A small covered passenger vehicle with two wheels which is usually pulled by one person. And cycle-rickshaw is made by three wheels and usually driven by one person.

Existing cycle rickshaw scene

It is estimated that close to 2 million cycle rickshaws ply on the Indian roads carrying about 6-8 billion passenger-kms/year. The exact number could be even greater since there are no reliable records available. In some cities and small towns they are the major means of transport. They provide employment to more than 2 million rickshaw pullers, are very maneuverable, completely non-polluting and hence environmentally friendly means of transport. In the narrow lanes of towns and cities probably they are the only transport system to provide point to point travel. It is however very unfortunate that deliberate policies in most of the urban towns of developing countries have been made by the concerned authorities to phase out these rickshaws. These non-polluting vehicles are being replaced by polluting (both air and noise wise) petrol and diesel-powered three-wheelers (Rajvanshi, A. K, 2000).

Reforms in the sector

There has been a spate of articles in the media about the operation of the licensing regime for hawkers and rickshaw pullers in Delhi (e.g. article titled: ″Poor Excuses″ by Tavleen Singh in *India Today*, 9 July 2001, ″Regulate street hawkers″ in *Times of India* 16 July 2001). [Both these articles are based on Manushi study and facts that emerged through the *Lok Sunwayi* of street vendors and rickshaw operators]. A study by a high profile NGO, Manushi, titled: ″How the License Quota Raj Impacts the Urban Poor″ was also released. N. Vittal, Central Vigilance Commissioner, had written to the Delhi Chief Minister, Shiela Dikshit, drawing her attention to the problems.

The broad points made in these articles, the Manushi study, and Vittal's letter is as follows:

(i)   The policy of restrictive issue of licenses for hawkers and rickshaw pullers is a perversion of the SC judgment in Saudam Singh vs. NDMC and others, 1987, which ruled that hawking, etc. represented a fundamental right to

livelihood, and was subject only to reasonable regulations to avoid potential social costs of these activities (e.g. street/pavement obstruction).

(ii) The restrictive licensing system enables rents to be collected by the officials, who process, issue, and enforce licenses. These rents are estimated in the Manushi study to be approx. Rs 500 million a month. (While the study followed a rather informal methodology/approach, the figure is not beyond credibility, coming to Rs 1000 per month per hawker. The number of unlicensed hawkers is estimated at 500,000, while those licensed are just 20,000).

(iii) Hawkers and rickshaw pullers are also subject to atrocities by these functionaries, e.g. destruction or misappropriation of the hawkers' wares or impounding/destruction of rickshaws, by these functionaries.

(iv) That it is time that the licensing system is reformed so that the hawkers and rickshaw pullers, belonging to the poorest sections of urban society, are enabled to pursue their modest livelihoods without extortion. This would convey the message that policy reforms benefit the poor, and not only the middle class or well-to-do.

Though under the Ministry of Labour, Government of India has provided many welfare schemes for the rickshaw pullers and the Secretary, Ministry of Labour, Government of India on January, 1998 provided for a few measures that are:

1) Issuance of Registration and Identity Card.

2) Construction of rest house and rickshaw shed with drinking water and lavatory.

3) Provision of dispensary, medical facilities etc.

4) Giving social security scheme and

5) Sanction of loans on easy instalments and purchase/repair of rickshaw.

However, most of the State Governments failed to act on these measures.

METHODOLOGY

Present Study

As Delhi is the capital city of India, people from rural areas migrate to Delhi for job opportunities. As a result, the density of population of Delhi is increasing day by day. They try to find jobs in both organized and unorganized sector. Failing to get jobs in organized sector, these people find it little more convenient to get jobs in unorganized

sectors as construction worker or rickshaw pullers. Now, a days it is more commonly opted occupation. They stay in Jhuggi, resettlement colonies or even as street without having proper sanitation and other basic facilities in Delhi. As a result of that their health and socio-economic conditions becomes hazardous.

The present study is focused on the background of the 'migrant population', the problems they are facing in Delhi, their socio-economic conditions and also try to explore the different mechanisms to improve the conditions of this marginalized people.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the research was to study the socio-economic conditions of the rickshaw pullers.

The specific objectives of the study were:

i. To study the background and causes of migration of rickshaw puller to Delhi.
ii. To study the socio-economic conditions of rickshaw pullers.
iii. To suggest the social work intervention strategies to improve the conditions and obstacles of rickshaw-pullers in Delhi.

Universe

Universe of this study will be migrant rickshaw-pullers who are basically working in and around the North Campus of the Delhi University.

Sampling and Sampling Techniques

The total sample size is 150 from Delhi University North Campus and its adjacent areas. Since the universe was infinite the researcher had used non-probability sampling for selecting the respondents. Therefore, simple random sampling was used. The respondents in the sample comprised of only male from age group of 15 and above.

Tools of Data Collection

The researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative data. The primary tool used for collection of qualitative data was a pre-tested semi-structured interview schedule. The qualitative data were collected using case study & observation as the tools of data collection. The information collected by this method was in-depth in nature. A semi structured interview schedule was prepared keeping the objectives in mind. The interview schedule was pre-tested by interviewing 10 rickshaw-pullers before the actual work was started. The whole exercise was carried in on open and friendly manner. The timing of the researcher to take interview varied from morning, evening and most of the time in the night. Observation is a strong tool as well as source of information. The researcher selected 10 cases for in-depth case study. They represented specific problems faced by them. All these case studies above have been discussed in the light of background, migration, socio-economic background and possible social work interventions.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF RICKSHAW PULLERS

The researcher interacted with 150 rickshaw pullers. Out of total rickshaw pullers, 120 lived without family and remaining (30) with family in Delhi. It was very difficult to find out rickshaw pullers with family because most of them in Delhi are seasonal migrants. The researcher came to know that those rickshaw pullers with families who have been staying in Delhi since long time seldom visit their native places. In Delhi most of the rickshaw pullers are staying in jhuggi wherever the remaining have rented houses.

As per as social interaction and community relations of the rickshaw pullers within their own occupational groups are concerned, these are mostly restricted to their own caste groups and states of origin. This way they feel a sense of social sensitivity in a micro-group far away from their native places. The feeling of security and belongingness is especially felt during festivals which they celebrate together. Many of the rickshaw pullers above the twenty five years are married and have many children. A positive factor is that quite a number of rickshaw pullers are sending their children to school. It is also evident that literary rates are encouraging due to more urban influence & awareness.

This part has divided into four sections to get complete information about their socio-economic conditions. These sections are

a)   Background information
b)   Family background
c)   Migration (from village), its seasons and
d)   Income & Expenditure

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

AGE

Table -2

Distribution of the respondents by their age groups

Age	Frequency	Percentage
15-25	75	50
25-45	59	39.3
45 and more	16	10.7
Total	150	100

From the above table, it is clear that 50 percent of the respondents were younger in age. Nearly 40 percent belonged to middle age and remaining 10.7 percent were older than 45 years.

This indicates that some rickshaw pullers are even older than 45 years. They are involved in this job because they have no alternative mode of earning their livelihood.

Marital Status

Table-3

Distribution of the Respondents by their Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	85	56.6
Un-married	65	43.4
Total	150	100

From the table 3 it was found that 56.6 percent of respondents were married and remaining were unmarried. None of the respondents among them was found to be legally separated or divorced from their first marriage but many of them have been found re-married. Thus, it appears that getting separated / divorced is very easy to them since after separation they immediately get remarried.

State
Table-4
State Wise Distribution of the Rickshaw-Pullers

State	Frequency	Percentage
Bihar	50	33.3
U.P.	31	20.8
M.P.	15	10
Jharkhand	19	12.6
West Bengal	18	12
Rajasthan	5	3.3
Uttaranchal	12	8
Total	150	100

From the above table it reflects that the rickshaw puller hailed from number of states such as Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Uttaranchal, West Bengal, Rajasthan, and Jharkhand. However, a majority of them were from Bihar (33.3%) & U.P (20.8%).

Religion

Table-5

Distribution of the Respondents by Religion

Religion	Frequency	Percentage
Hindu	99	66
Muslims	39	26
Christian	12	8
Total	150	100

Table 5 indicates the distribution of despondences in terms of religion where nearly two-third (66%) of the respondents was Hindu. The Muslims comprised of 39 percent and remaining were Christian.

FAMILY BACKGROUND
TYPES OF FAMILY

Table-6

Distribution of the respondents by Type of the Family

Family Type	Frequency	Percentage
Nuclear	61	40.8
Joint	79	52.6
Extended	10	6.6
Total	150	100

From the above table it indicate that more than half (52.6%) of the respondents lived in joint family, where as 40.8 percent of the total respondents belonged to nuclear family. Only 6.6 percent of the respondents belonged to extended family. It shows that the joint family system in rural India still prevailing, but in the advent of modernization, joint family has been converting into nuclear family as it has shown in the table also.

Family Size

Table-7

Distribution of the Respondents by the Family Size

Total No. of Family Members	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 5	15	10
5-10	69	46
10-15	59	39.4
15-20	4	2.6
More than 20	3	2
Total	150	100

Average size family is = x (Average size of Family is 9.53)

From the above table relating to family members, it is found that 46 percent of the respondents had the family members in the range of 5-10 and nearly 40 percent were in the ranged 10-15. Rest of the respondents family members ranged in the groups of 15-20, more than 20 and below 5.

During the interaction with the respondents, the researcher found that Muslims were having more family members in the native places as compared to Hindu.

Migration from Village & Its Reasons

Dependents in Village

Table-8

Total No. of dependents in Village

	No. of Dependents	1-5	5-10	10-15	Frequency
Married	25	45	8	7	85
Unmarried	46	14	3	2	65
Total	71	59	11	9	50

Table 8 indicates that there was no variation in the average no of dependent in the village of married/unmarried Rickshaw pullers. Both of them had on an average fair dependent in the village.

Average no of dependents of married Rickshaw pullers in the village $XI = 43$ (4)

Average no. of dependents of unmarried rickshaw pullers in the village $X2 = 43(4)$

Table-9

Total no of dependents in city

Range of Dependents	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	18	60
5-10	7	23.34
10 & above	5	16.66

Table 9 shows that the range of dependence is more in the range of 1-5 rather 5-10 which means that in every family of rickshaw pullers staying in Delhi with family have dependent members of 1-5 who are Hindu in religion. On the other hand, it has found that in the rickshaw pullers who are Muslims by religion, have the more dependent members in terms of range.

Average number of dependent in the list of married male - 5.33.

Year of Migration

Table-10

Distribution of Respondents by Year of Migration

Year	Frequency	Percentage
Less than one	21	14
1-5	66	44
5-10	57	38
10-15	2	1.3
15-20	4	2.7

Average year of migration = x = 4.65

Above table shows that around 50 percent of the respondents migrated to Delhi 1 to 5 year back, whereas 14 percent came just one year back. On the other hand 38 percent of the total respondents came to Delhi. 5 to 10 years back & only negligible percent (1.3%) of respondents migrated before 10 years.

Reason of Migration

Table-11

Reason of Migration of the Rickshaw Pullers in Delhi

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Unemployment/Underemployment	75	50
Financial Problems	25	16.6
Lack of Agricultural Land	18	12
Family Dispute	18	12
Peer Influences	14	9.4
Total	150	100

From the above table it highlights that nearly two third of the total respondents migrated to Delhi for the sake of unemployment/ underemployment or financial constraints. Rest of the respondents migrated because of lack of agricultural land, family dispute and peer influences. Thus it is quite apparent amongst the rickshaw pullers do not migrate to Delhi become of peer influence or fascinates of visiting Delhi instead, it in the unemployment/underemployment became which they decide to core to Delhi.

Reason for opting Rickshaw pulling as a Mean of Livelihood

Table-12

Distribution of the Respondents by Season for opting Rickshaw Pulling

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
Does not require any technical knowledge	83	55.3
No need to invest money	25	16.7
Others	42	26
Total	150	100

The above table shows that most of the respondents opined that they opted Rickshaw pulling because it does not require any technical knowledge, where 16.7 percent of the respondents said that for rickshaw pulling there has no need to invest money. 26 percent of the respondents responded for other reasons i.e. no need to listen other command, freedom of work & interest about it.

Income & Expenditure

Rent of Rickshaw per day:

Table-13

Rent of the Rickshaw Pullers Per day for his rickshaw

Rent Per Day	Respondents	Percentage
20	52	34.66%
22	64	42.66%
25	34	22.66%
Total	150	100%

The rickshaw pullers hires the rickshaw on a per day rental basis, usually ranging between 20-25. The rent would depend on various factors: 1) conditions of the rickshaw

old or new, 2) living standard of the place in question. For big places and small places, rent is more & less respectively.

From the above test is shows that 52 respondents (34.66%) pays Rs. 20/- to the owner per day, 64 respondents (42.66%) pays Rs. 22/- per day. It states that only 34 respondents (22.66%) pay Rs. 25/- for hiring rickshaw in a day.

Daily Earning:

The rickshaw pullers were not very much free to talk about the exact income of the day. Some of them would start of relating sad tales about the hardships they face before coming up with the amount they earn in a day.

According to rickshaw pullers, they earn Rs. 100/- to Rs. 120/- per day approximately.

Expenditure and Saving:

During the discussion time, the researcher came to know that the rickshaw puller spends their money for food, housing, clothing, health & recreation. Besides these they need to spend some part of money for repairing of their rickshaw. Many of them spends a major portion of their income on addition or visiting prostitutes.

Majority of the rickshaw pullers without family keep their savings with themselves and regularly send it to their native places. Due to security seasons they sometimes keep their money to known shopkeepers who stay in their locality and whenever they needs they can get it. According to them it is the secure place to keep money rather keeping in the Bank or post office. They think it is lengthy process to keep money in the Bank or Post Office. Therefore none of them were found to keep money in the Bank / Post Office.

Rickshaw pullers with family have some story that they spends on housing & family members. They were able to save little parts of earned money.

Based on this study, a case study has produced here to understand the reality of this community.
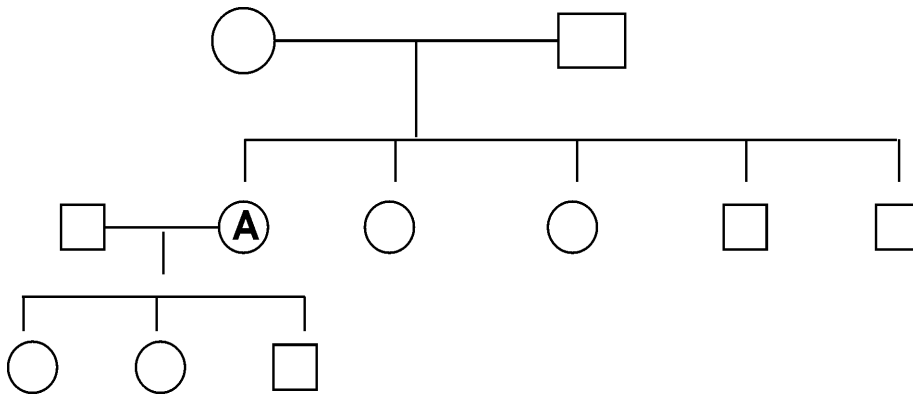
CASE STUDY 1

Name   :   Mr. A

Age   :   42 yrs.

Marital Status :   Married

Educational Qualification   :   Primary Level.

State Belongs :   U.P.

Family Composition :

Family Background

Mr. A is staying in Delhi with his family for the last 10 years. He is from a small village of Uttar Pradesh. He has a joint family in the village. The family comprises of old parents, three brothers, & two sisters. All of them are staying together. One of his sister got married two years back. He is the eldest son of his parents. His brothers are working in their small cultivated land. They also run small business in their native village. Both the brothers are married. The family at the village is a close knit family. Mr. A has to sons and one daughter. But in Delhi he is staying with his wife along with one son and one daughter. The other son is staying back in the native village with his parents. He is attending school at the village. He shifted to Delhi because his wife was suffering from some disease related to chest and abdomen. At the native place, he visited a number of doctors but the disease could neither be diagnosed nor did she get any relief from it. He was advised by friends to get her treated in government hospital in Delhi. He visited Delhi quite a number of times to keep appointments in hospital in Delhi. Sometimes he visited Delhi two times a week.

So it was not economical and possible for them coming to commute so often. So, being influenced by friends who were opting rickshaw pulling in Delhi, he decided to stay in Delhi. He took rickshaw pulling as a means/source of livelihood. While opting rickshaw pulling, he was in a state of confusion. Initially he stayed at Majnu Ka Tila (near by North Delhi University Campus) with his wife & children.

Living Arrangement

At present Mr. A is staying in a rented room near Kingsway Camp. As a rent he is paying Rs. 800/- p.m. for his one room. This is one room accommodation with kitchen arrangement in the same room. However there is a separate private bathroom and toilet. The surroundings are not too hygienic but seemed better as compared to this situation of other rickshaw puller in Delhi. Mr. A owns a rickshaw which he has registered with MCD. He starts his work early in the morning from 8 am – 12 pm. Then he takes a

break. He goes back home & spends for sometime & takes his launch. Then he again works from 2p.m. to 8 p.m. He is earning approximately Rs. 120/- per day and running his family in a satisfactory manner though he has to spend a major sum of his hard earned money for his wife who is undergoing medical treatment in a government hospital. Mr. A is also spending on one child who is going to primary school in Delhi. His daughter is only 4 years old.

Family Relationship in Delhi / Native Place

So far as family relationship is concerned Mr. A has been maintaining a balanced relationship with his family and native place. He used to go to his native place with his family during the occasion. Regularly he can't go because he can not stop pulling rickshaw for long time.

Income / Expenditure

Mr. A earns Rs. 140/- per day approximately and the expenditure per month is nearly 3000/- which includes the monthly rent as well. The savings are almost nil. In fact he is not able to send any money to the village although one of his sons is being brought up in the village.

Addition / Personal Health

He has no other addition except that he is something 'Bidi'. The frequency of smoking varies from 5-7 per day. He has tried his best to stop it but failed since he considers it as the only solace of relief in his life. He does not have serious health problem so far. Sometimes he has stomach infection or headache for which he does not take allopathic medicine. Instead he prefers local ayurvedic.

Exploitation by Police

According to Mr. A he never faced any problem from police. Sometimes Police blocks their road to pull their rickshaw. But he told that most of the times police has negative attitude towards them.

Social Life

Mr. A does not have any social life except the fact that sometimes he takes his daughter out in the park early in the morning or in the afternoon. He visits his friends/relatives rarely in Delhi.

Psychological Problem

When the researcher was talking to Mr. A he felt that for him every day was a sacrifice. This was nothing new in it. He did not look forward to next day. He was depressed and pessimistic as far his outlook towards life has concerned.

Case Analysis

Mr. A is lending a monotonous type of life in which there is no excitement. At the time of distress, he seemed to have managed his stand properly with his family & took the right stand to stay in Delhi along with his family. He does not have any specific plan near future.

SOME RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THEIR UPLIFTMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

In the course of the research the following recommendation are suggested which are very important for the development of their social and economic conditions.

- Poverty alleviation programmes of any kind should give preference to this working community.

- Rickshaw cooperative societies should be formed and facilities such as housing, sanitation, proper civic amenities etc. should be provided to them.

- Evening and night classes should be organized to raise literacy levels among rickshaw pullers so that their literacy level could be high.

- Rickshaw pullers should be motivated to adopt family planning methods so as to further the small family norm and counseling them for restraining from unprotected sex.

- All their health needs should be catered to by the government hospitals. Moreover, a separate unit / counter should be made for them so that they do not have to stand in long queues and miss out on their day' earnings. Awareness about various diseases especially STDs and AIDS should be generated by organizing health camps, workshops and gatherings.

- Recreation centers meant for them should be opened by the government so that their leisure time may be constructively utilized.

- They should be provided legal aids so that the violation of human rights could be protected.

- They could be provided short term loans to do small business along with the rickshaw pulling so that their economic upliftment could be possible.

- Licensing system of rickshaw for this community should be made easy and available.

SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION

Advocacy

- NGOs and other socially sensitive groups working the weaker sections should apprise the authorities about the plight of rickshaw pullers so. The necessary steps should be taken to improve their conditions.

- Campaigning for the cause of rickshaw pullers should be under taken by using print and electronic media.

Counseling

- Social work professionals can use case work and group work techniques to identify persons with problems. They can study and diagnose the problem correctly and prescribe suggestive treatment for the same. For all the above, counseling forms an integral part. Through proper counseling, rickshaw pullers can be helped in building their capacities to counter any and all kinds of adverse situations.

Awareness generation

- Awareness regarding the rights, duties and responsibilities of rickshaw pullers also needs to be generated through various training programmes especially about following traffic rules, parking rules and driving rules etc.

- Police and other authorities also should be made sensitive about the plight of the rickshaw pullers through various training and awareness generation camps. A carefully planned approach in implementing all kinds of awareness generation programmes would go a long way in achieving the desired goals.

Education

- Professional social workers can motivate rickshaw pullers to increase their literacy levels. They can intervene by making them realize the need and importance of education.

- NGOs, support groups and even literate peer groups can facilitate this process by adding more neo - literates to the society.

Health related issues

- Posters and other mass awareness materials should be circulated depicting the adverse impact of alcoholism, smoking etc.

- Health camps to assess their general physical health should also be conducted from time to time by various NGOs working in the field of health.

- Medicines and other medical facilities can be made available to the rickshaw pullers by collaborating with various charitable trusts and hospitals.

Networking

- Networking forms the crux of successful interventions at all levels. Liasioning / networking with appropriate authorities, health officials, education providers, other para-professionals etc. would make all attempts made at improving the socio-economic conditions of rickshaw pullers successful.

CONCLUSION

The area of concern for the migrant rickshaw pullers is their extremely low level of pay that is making their lives more miserable so they could be provided some sort of an additional income source in the form of temporary employment where relatively low level of skill sets is required so that at least they are able to meet the daily needs in a more peaceful manner. Also the government and the other social welfare organizations who claim to look after their plight needs to gain their confidence by providing some kinds of benefits for their socio-economic development and uplift their status. However, new policies must be implemented to secure the status of the migrant workers, especially for rickshaw pullers and ensure benefits are distributed evenly. Priorities should be given to basic needs and proper housing facilities to improve their standard of living with dignity and also ensure the accountability and transparency in labour markets and raising awareness of their rights.

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New Perspectives on Consumer Awareness in Media

Onkargouda Kakade

Mass Media – print as well as electronic – has a very crucial role in consumer awareness. The print media, especially the language press which has a very wide readership base among the masses, can effectively connect with the people by highlighting their grievances and redressal measures vis-à-vis their consumer rights. But it has been observed that consumer protection has been accorded low priority by the press. Unproductive and electoral motivated politics still dominates news columns of daily newspapers. Productive activities like consumer rights are given short shrift. The growing market and its darker side of manipulation and exploitations which impairs the consumers' interests and rights need to be appropriately addressed by the media. As such there is a need to build a new India where the consumer protection and business go hand in hand. The universal emphasis of consumer protection needs to be promoted to bring discipline in the market in the interest of consumers' satisfaction. To educate the consumers about their rights, in general, and laws, standards, rules and codes in particular sector through newspapers is the need of the hour.

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INTRODUCTION

With increasing globalization, liberalization and harmonization of economies of various nations coming together, the issues concerning consumer protection are now being accorded the topmost priority. The growing size and complexity of production and distribution systems, the high level of sophistication in marketing and newer methods of advertising, mass marketing methods and emergence of e-commerce result in reduction of personal interaction between buyers and sellers has contributed to the increased need of consumer protection.

The consumers are the largest group in our country but they are not well organized and have to suffer because of lack of awareness. It is, therefore, necessary that awareness should be generated among the consumers about their rights especially among such consumers living in the rural and semi-urban areas. The present paper provides various policies, strategies and effective methods to create awareness on the

one hand and other hand the paper analyzes the future challenges and new opportunities too in the global age.

High prices, duplicate articles, underweight and under– measurements, rough behaviour, undue conditions, artificial scarcity are some of the ways by which consumers are exploited by manufacturers and traders. Limited information, limited supplies are factors causing exploitation of consumers. The Consumer movement in India is as old as trade and commerce. The concept of consumer protection is not new. References to the protection of consumer's interest against exploitation by trade and industry, underweight and measurement, adulteration and punishment for these offences, were made in Kautilya's 'Arthashastra'. However, an organized and systematic movement to safeguard the interest of consumers is a recent phenomenon.[1]

History

After Independence, our country has taken commendable steps in protecting the interests of consumers by way of various policies and legislations, in which our Parliament has been a guiding force. The Consumer Protection Act of 1986 represented an important milestone in the history of consumer movement in the country. To supplement these efforts, a pioneering step was taken in 1997 by creating a separate Department of Consumer Affairs in the Central Government to exclusively focus on protecting the rights of the consumers.[2] But the question is that, how many people are aware of the existence of these safeguards and legal initiatives and how many are able to actually take advantage of them? This is where an effective awareness campaign assumes importance.

In a big country like India, given the scenario of economic disparity and level of education and ignorance, educating the consumers remains a challenging task. Government has taken up number of activities and schemes in creating consumer awareness and to strengthen the consumer movement in the country. The Government alone could not do in the required qualitative change in people's attitude and just by passing enactments or by making laws no change could be brought in society. However, making of a law in itself is not the end. Education and awareness is the most powerful tool for the progress of the country and an educated individual is able to make rationale choice as a consumer. An aware consumer protects himself from trade and business exploitation.

1 Gupta M. and Ogale, N: Educational needs of consumers regarding consumer protection laws. Journal of Research. H.A.U. Hissar, 18 (3) : 236-241 (1988).

2 Anonymous: A MULTI MEDIA CAMPAIGN FOR CONSUMER AWARENESS; Annual Report, Ministry of Information and broadcasting, Govt. of India; 2007; P- 87.

Role of Media

More than anything else, a vigorous campaign to increase awareness and to enhance the effectiveness of the consumer protection measures is the key to the consumer movement. In this task, the media – print as well as electronic – has a very crucial role in disseminating the policies and programmes of the Government and NGO's with regard to the consumer rights and, more specially, consumer awareness. The print media, especially the language press which has a very wide readership base among the masses, can effectively connect with the people by highlighting their grievances and redressal measures vis-à-vis their consumer rights.

Since, the enactment of the Consumer Protection Act and even before that, newspapers and magazines have been responding to the needs of consumers. Apart from publishing articles, columns etc, and newspapers have also tried to come to the rescue of harassed consumers. A vigilant press would go a long way in making the movement a thundering success. Though the press is playing a key role, there is still enough room for a sustained campaign.[3]

To make the consumers aware on various issues concerning consumer protection, Kannada newspapers like PRAJAVANI, KANNADA PRABHA, VIJAY KARNATAKA, SAMYUKTA KARNATAKA, UDAYVANI[*] and Kannada magazines are publishing weekly columns regularly and news items occasionally. Though Prajavani, Kannada Prabha and Samyukta Karnataka publishing regular columns like GRAHAKARA VEDIKE, GRAHAKA, and GRAHAKAR GARADI[**], the coverage of news related to consumer awareness activities are rather inadequate. On consumer rights very few Kannada writers are regularly writing. It has been observed that consumer protection has been accorded low priority by Kannada press.

Less Importance

Unproductive and electoral motivated politics still dominates news columns of Kannada press. Productive activities like consumer rights are given short shrift. While Chief Minister B.S.Yedyurappa's remarks on former Prime Minister H D Devegouda will get more and prominent space in the newspaper, but a story related to consumer protection will go into the inside pages or some times it will not get the space at all. The injustice done to the welfare issue of thousands of consumers was not lost on thoughtful newspaper readers. But they had consumed what the newspaper dished out. Such things

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[3] **Prasad M and Johan Devid:** Creating Awareness on Consumer Protection through Mass Media; HRDP JOURNAL Vol. no. 9; page no. 34-38; 2008.

[*] Leading Kannada daily Newspapers.
[**] Regular columns published by Kannada daily Newspapers regarding to Consumer Awareness.

happen daily with disturbing regularity. Most of the time sensationalism obscures constructive news in Kannada newspapers. The same prevails in English newspapers also.

Government and NGOs are organizing special campaigns, press conferences, public exhibitions, workshops, street events, *etc.* in order to give voice to the concerns of the consumers. These organized institutional efforts have certainly gone a long way in drawing attention to a range of issues like adulterated food-manufacturing, spurious drugs, unethical marketing practices, consumer awareness campaigns, and many more. But very unfortunately newspapers are giving least attention to these activities.

The scheme for setting up of consumer clubs in schools and colleges have been introduced to make the youngsters aware of their rights as a consumer. These clubs are being facilitated to develop into resource groups. School consumer clubs are encouraged to take student-members to go for outreach camps to local neighbourhoods to conduct consumer education shows, demonstrations on adulteration, frauds, etc,. Apart from this there are hundreds of consumer associations, which are working in the field of consumer protection. They deal with various aspects of consumer exploitation.[4] But there is no sufficient publicity for these activities in the newspapers.

Misleading Advertisements

Due to the new trend that has emerged with globalization, the corporate sector is trying to conquer the rural India. They are spending crores of rupees to bag the rural consumers. The victims of the consumerism are invariably the children and teen aged category. For example a rural girl 'knows' that a cream like "Fair and Lovely" can change her complex from black to white. This is a greatest fraud which was never checked by the media. There are several such products which are entering the rural Indian market. In this context the role of media in consumer protection is very vital. When compared to the number of consumers and the space devoted for consumer productions by the Kannada papers is very inadequate. Even the columns published by Kannada press which I already mentioned the coverage is restricted to few court judgments or sensational issues like appearance of cockroaches in 'Thums-up' or Coco-Cola. Interestingly every newspaper and magazine introduces new products colourfully through news columns and special features to attract the consumers as well as to widen its reader base. The write ups and advertisements on modern electronic gadgets like Television, Refrigerator, Micro Oven and Automobiles (two wheelers, four wheelers)

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4 Anonymous: A MULTI MEDIA CAMPAIGN FOR CONSUMER AWARENESS; Annual Report, Ministry of Information and broadcasting, Govt. of India; 2007; P- 27.

can be cited as best examples for this phenomenon. This can be linked to a perfectly tuned nexus between the private sector and newspapers for their mutual benefits. Unfortunately consumers are taken for granted.

If vigilant press were active the public would not have been duped by companies like Vini Vink*** and the like. Unless Kannada press does not make it a point to treat the consumer rights on par with news on political affairs, cricket, fashion, stock market etc such events will repeat at regular intervals of time. And also there is a greater need on the Kannada press to reflect the opinion of the civil society and other organizations which are involved themselves in exposing the methods of tactics and other fraudulent activities of various companies.

Need of the hour

The growing market and its darker side of manipulation and exploitations which impairs the consumers' interests and rights need to be appropriately addressed by the media. As such there is a need to build a new India where the consumer protection and business go hand in hand. The universal emphasis of consumer protection needs to be promoted to bring discipline in the market in the interest of consumers' satisfaction. Every citizen has to be made aware of consumer rights. Ignorance of their rights is mainly responsible for exploitation of consumers' particularly rural consumers. To educate the consumers about their rights, in general, and laws, standards, rules and codes in particular sector through newspapers is the need of the hour.

Democracy is incomplete unless the local Government and the individual consumers are empowered. There was a time when consumer came last and was least important in the economy but now the consumer is the pillar of empowerment. But one of the major lacunae of the present Consumer movement is that it is restricted to the urban areas. The need of the hour is that consumer awareness and education should be taken to the rural masses as 70 percent of the population still resides in rural India. India's dream of achieving success in socio-economic front will remain unfulfilled unless the rural masses are brought to the forefront. In this task, local newspapers can take the consumer movement to the rural masses in a more effective manner.

The consumers have to be aware not only of the commercial aspects of sale and purchase of goods, but also of the health and security aspects. Food safety has become an important element of consumer awareness these days. On these issues should tackle by the press. Special features and stories on the consumer movement and special columns by experts on the consumer rights protection subject should publish regularly.

*** The Company cheated people through publishing advertisement in Newspapers.

Such efforts would pave way for greater awareness and despite its limitations the media could render yeoman service to the consumer movement and society.

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A Comparative Study of Stress and Proneness to Various Psycho-Medical Illnesses among the Institutional and Non-Institutional Senior Citizens

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The present study aims to analyze stress and proneness to major Medical and Psychiatric illnesses among institutionalized and non-institutionalized senior citizens. A total of 194 (94 Institutionalized + 100 non-institutionalized) respondents completed the Short Interpersonal Reactions Inventory (SIRI), (Grossarth-Maticek & Eysenck, 1990 and Presumptive stressful life events scale (PSLE) (Singh, Kaur & Kaur, 1981). The results revealed that, Senior citizens were found to have high level of stress, less healthy personality and maximum proneness to depression. Institutionalized senior citizens found have significantly higher proneness to depression and lesser healthy personality compared to non-institutionalized senior citizens. Proneness to depression was the major predictor variable for both types of groups. Various remedial measures based on social work intervention have been suggested for better rehabilitation.

Key Words: Proneness, Personality, Stress, Institutionalization, Prognosis, Medical and Psychiatric illnesses, Elderly.

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INTRODUCTION

Today, the elderly population is the fastest growing group in the world; more people are living longer now than in the past. The diagnosis and treatment of both physical and mental disorders in the elderly require special knowledge because of possible differences in clinical manifestations, pathogenesis and patho-physiology of illnesses between young adults and elderly. Complicating factors in elderly also need to be considered, like frequent presence of co-existing chronic medical diseases and disabilities, the use of many medications and the increase susceptibility to cognitive impairment.

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The National Institute of Mental Health's Epidemiological Catchments Area program has found that the most common mental disorders of old age are depressive disorders, cognitive disorders, phobias, and substance abuse. The elderly also have a high risk for suicide and drug induced psychiatric symptoms. A number of psycho-social risk factors also predispose the elderly to mental disorders, thus making them vulnerable to other medical illnesses.

The concept that a majority of medical and psychiatric illnesses are related to stress and a, spectrum of emotional factors is probably as old as the history of recorded medicine itself (Rosch, 1979). Traditional Indian medicine Ayurveda, which is more than 2000 years old, stated that certain types of people based on personality and somatotype, had a greater proneness to certain diseases (Solomon, 1984). Galen, early in the 2nd century observed that women who manifest depression seemed more inclined to develop breast cancer than those with less melancholic dispositions. Recent studies have focused on two psychosocial variables that appear to have § significant impact on the induction and growth of Cancer cells. These two factors are Stress an4 Life events and Personality.

Life events research has shown that it is not merely the stress itself, but also the way individual perceives and appraises it that potentates its effects, (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). It was seen that those individuals who expressed a sense of loss and hopelessness and an inability to cope with the stress had a higher incidence of Cancer and Depression (Le Shan, 1959), Personality characteristics and stress combine and interact to produce feelings of helplessness, hopelessness and depression. Research has shown that this can produce hormonal imbalances, and immune deficiencies, which allow the illness to grow and proliferate. Study by Tew *et al* (2000), on senior citizens (above 75 years of age) revealed that, these people had significantly greater burdens from physical illness and global cognitive impairment at baseline than the adult subjects. Reynolds and Kupfer, (2001) in their study on elderly revealed that, geriatric depression is widespread, affecting at least one of six patients treated in general medical practice and an even higher percentage in hospitals and nursing homes. Gallo and Lebowitz, (2000) indicated that up to 15 to 20 percent of older adults have significant depressive

symptoms, and it is estimated that as many as 45 percent of persons age 85 years and older have significant cognitive impairment and dementia. Other mental-health-related conditions, such as anxiety disorders, alcohol abuse, and prescription medicine misuse, are also important considerations but have not been as well studied as depression and dementia. Lyness *et al* (2000) reports that vascular depression has received increasing prominence as a putative etiology of depression in later life.

India's picture as a third world and developing country with very little resources, especially for the elderly cannot make up for the deficits in the care for these people. Still, age old customs, traditions, ideas and ideologies associated with urbanization, modernization, nuclear families and women's liberation have literally thrown the senior citizen to be institutionalized or rehabilitated (on to the streets); unless that person is economically-socially-occupationally-financially-medically fit to take care of self.

The present study aims to assess the level of stress and proneness to various psycho-medical illnesses of the senior institutionalized and non-institutionalized citizens and suggest possible social work interventions to the senior citizens.

METHODOLOGY

Sample:

A total of 194 subjects from institutionalized and non-institutionalized back ground were selected for the study. Of 194 senior citizens, 94 (62 Men and 32Women) were institutionalized (inmates of a Home for the Aged, of Mysore city) and remaining 100 (50 men and 50 women) were non-institutionalized. Random sampling technique was employed to select the sample for the study.

Tools and Procedure:

Socio-demographic Data Sheet:

A detailed proforma was prepared by the researcher for collecting the primary data of the patient. The details included the name, age, sex, educational background, occupation, family details, domicile and other aspects.

Short Interpersonal Reactions Inventory:

This scale was constructed on the premise that personality and stress are casually related Jo various medical and psychiatric illnesses. This tool developed by Grossarth-Maticek & Eyseijek (1990) consists of 70 questions. These are divided into six groups, which define six different types of personality prone to different diseases. Type I is Cancer Prone, Type II is Corona/y Heart Disease prone, Type III is Psychopathic behavior prone but is unlikely to die of cancer pr coronary heart disease, Type IV is a healthy type characterized by autonomous behavior, Type V is prone to Depression and Cancer, Type VI is prone to Addiction. The scale has adequate predictive validity & reliability (test-retest correlation in excess of 0.80).

Presumptive Stressful Life Events Scale:

This scale was constructed to examine the stressful life events, which an individual undergoes in life. This tool developed by Singh, Kaur & Kaur (1981) consists of 27 questions. These questions pertain to life events, which a ordinary individual faces in his life. Each question is followed by two answers – yes / no. Yes gets one and No gets zero, based on this scoring, the total is calculated and the low, medium and high stress levels are calculated. The scale has adequate predictive validity & reliability (test-retest correlation in excess of 0.80).

Statistics Applied

Two-Way Analysis of Variance was applied to find out the differences in stress and proneness parameters of senior citizens belonging to different groups of institutions and gender along with interaction effect between groups and gender studied using SPSS Windows Package (Version 10.0). Also, stepwise multiple regression technique was applied to find out the major predictor/s for stress variables considering all the scores together and scores of institutional and non-institutional senior citizens separately.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics of the sample selected on various parameters selected like and various parameters of proneness to psycho-medical illnesses. From the

table it is evident that entire sample of 174 senior citizens had high stress with the mean and S.D values of 56.11 and 11.21 respectively. In proneness, the sample had more proneness or high tendency towards depression and low proneness towards addiction. However, in other classes of proneness like cancer, CHD, psychopathic and healthy personality the sample had moderate proneness values.

Table 2 presents mean Scores of male and female respondents belonging to various groups on stress scores and various parameters of Proneness. Table 3 shows results of Two-Way ANOVA for Mean Scores of male and female respondents belonging to various groups on stress and various parameters of Proneness.

a. Stress

Senior citizens belonging to two groups differed significantly in their mean stress scores (F=51.45; p<0.000). The respective mean scores for senior citizens with institutional and non-institutional background were 57.42 and 54.33. However, males and females found to have equal level of stress. The interaction effect between groups and gender was found to be non-significant (F=1.251; p<0.265) indicating that pattern of stress is same for male and female senior citizens irrespective of the group they belong to.

b. Cancer Proneness:

Senior citizens belonging to two groups did not differ in their mean cancer proneness scores (F=0.355; p<0.612). The mean cancer proneness scores for senior citizens from different institution types are 5.05 and 5.79 which are almost same statistically contributed for the non-significant difference. Male and female senior citizens found to have equal level of stress. The interaction effect between groups and gender was found to be non-significant (F=1.056; p<0.312) indicating that pattern of proneness to cancer is same for male and female senior citizens irrespective of the group they belong to.

c. Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) Prone

As far the CHD is considered neither the groups (F=0.377; p<0.540) nor the gender (F=0.999; p<0.319) differed significantly in their mean CHD proneness scores. The interaction effect between groups and gender was also found to be non-significant

(F=3.306; p<0.083) indicating a similarity in the pattern of proneness to CHD of male and female senior citizens is same irrespective of the group they belong to.

d. Psychopathic Personality

Senior citizens belonging to two groups did not differ significantly in their mean psychopathic personality scores (F=0.401 p<.527). Male and female senior citizens found to have equal level of psychopathic personality scores. The interaction effect between groups and gender was found to be non-significant (F=1.003; p<0.318) indicating that pattern of psychopathic personality is same for male and female senior citizens irrespective of the group they belong to.

e. Healthy Personality

Senior citizens of institutional and non-institutional groups differed significantly in their mean healthy personality scores (F=155.827; p<0.000). The respective mean healthy personality scores for senior citizens with institutional and non-institutional back ground were 5.41 and 6.24, where non-institutionalized senior citizens had higher healthy personality scores. However, males and females found to have equal level of healthy personality scores. The interaction effect between groups and gender was found to be non-significant (F=2.511; p<0.115) indicating that pattern of healthy personality is same for male and female senior citizens irrespective of the group they belong to.

f. Depression Prone

Senior citizens belonging to two groups differed significantly in their mean depression proneness scores (F=21.516; p<0.000). The respective mean depression proneness scores for senior citizens with institutional and non-institutional back ground were 7.13 and 6.83. However, males and females found to have equal level of proneness to depression. The interaction effect between groups and gender was found to be non-significant (F=1.372; p<0.243) indicating that pattern of proneness to depression is same for male and female senior citizens irrespective of the group they belong to.

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g. Addiction Prone

As far as the addiction proneness is considered neither the groups (F=0.309; p<0.579) nor the gender (F=3.187; p<0.076) differed significantly in their mean addiction proneness scores. The interaction effect between groups and gender was also found to be non-significant (F=3.714; p<0.065) indicating a similarity in the pattern of proneness to addiction proneness of male and female senior citizens is same irrespective of the group they belong to.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Table 4 presents summary results of stepwise multiple regression taking stress as major dependent variable and other subscales of proneness to psycho medical illnesses as independent variables. For the overall sample it was found that only proneness to depression was emerged as a single major predictor variable with a correlation coefficient of 0.56 with the overall of contribution of 32%. Group wise analysis revealed that for non-institutional group, 2 factors emerged as major predictors-depression and healthy personality-with the correlation coefficients of 0.52 & 0.59 and contributions of 27% & 35%. For the institutionalized group only depression was emerged as a single major predictor variable with a correlation coefficient of 0.62 with the overall of contribution of 38%.

DISCUSSION

The main findings of the study are:

➢ Senior citizens of both the groups were found to have high level of stress, maximum proneness to depression and less healthy personality

➢ Institutionalized senior citizens found to have significantly higher proneness to depression compared to non-institutionalized senior citizens.

➢ Institutionalized senior citizens found to have significantly lesser healthy personality compared to non-institutionalized senior citizens.

➢ Proneness to depression was the major predictor variable for both groups.

Senior citizens were found to be more prone to depression because they do not have any confiding relations, along with day to day family interaction and environment being stressful, that they are forced to become victims of depression. This is however prevalent in both males and female senior citizens. In men, testosterone secretion affects neurobehavioral functions such as sexual arousal, aggression, emotional tone, and cognition (Seidman, & Walsh, 1999). Beginning at approximately the age of 50, men secrete progressively lower amounts of testosterone; about 20% of men over the age of 60 have lower-than-normal levels. The data suggest that some depressed older men may have state-dependent low testosterone levels and that some depressed men may improve with androgen treatment. The institutionalized senior citizens had less of healthy personality and more of depression proneness, purely as a result of different environment and living away from family members and relatives.

Vaillant, & Mukamal (1999) in their longitudinal study on adolescent boys for 60 years or until death, revealed that depression was the only uncontrollable predictor variable that affected the quality of subjective and objective aging. Sinclair, *et al* (1999) examined whether depression is associated with over reporting of functional disability. Depression was not independently associated with poorer self-reported physical functioning. Devanand *et al* (1999) evaluated personality disorders in elderly patients with DSM-IV Dysthymic Disorder to identify prevalent personality disorders and their clinical correlates and found that personality disorders were associated with an earlier age at onset of depressive illness, greater lifetime history of comorbid Axis 1 disorders, greater severity of depressive symptoms, and lower socioeconomic status. Beekman *et al* (1999) examined the comorbidity of and communality of risk factors associated with major depressive disorder and anxiety disorders in later life and revealed that the only variables associated with pure major depressive disorder were younger age and external locus of control, risk factors representing a wide range of both vulnerability and stress were associated with pure anxiety disorders. External locus of control was the only common factor. The group with anxiety disorders plus major depressive disorder had a distinct risk factor profile and may represent those with a more severe disorder. Many physical and mental disorders of old age can be prevented and ameliorated. If not

diagnosed accurately and treated in a timely fashion, these conditions can progress to an irreversible state requiring institutionalization of the elderly (Kaplan & Sadock, 1998).

To conclude, as the population ages, dementia, depression, and other mental conditions of the senior citizens will demand more attention from clinicians and investigators to minimize their effects on disability, the use of health care services, and the quality of life for older adults and caregivers (Gallo and Lebowitz, 2000). Because an increasing proportion of older adults are members of minority groups, clinicians need to increase their awareness of how cultural factors relate to risk for mental disorders in late life. Attention to the following three themes may help clinicians and investigators meet the challenge of treating the common mental disorders of later life. The effect of these disorders on functioning, prevention of the consequences of mental disorders and integration of mental health care and primary health care services and the applications of social case work skills, techniques in the light of curative, preventive, rehabilitative and developmental aspects of both institutional and non-institutional senior citizens. Further, the group work skills, techniques and the process can be employed especially for institutionalized senior citizens, which will make them 'feel stress free' in the absence of significant one's. If clinical and social work interventions are a thought of carefully that help to add 'life to years' in the life of the institutionalized senior citizens in particular and senior citizens in general.

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Table 1

Description of the sample in stress and subscales of proneness to psycho-medical disorders

Description	Mean	S.D	Interpretation
Stress	56.11	11.21	High
Cancer Proneness	5.29	1.26	Moderate
CHD proneness	4.25	1.21	Moderate
Psychopathic proneness	5.34	0.98	Moderate
Healthy personality	4.53	1.01	Low
Depression proneness	6.59	1.23	High
Addiction proneness	1.70	0.62	Low

Table 2

Mean scores of male and female institutional and non-institutional senior citizens in stress and proneness to various psycho medical illnesses

Variables	Groups	Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Stress	Insti	61.39	52.5	57.42
	Non-Inst	61.75	49.58	54.33
	Overall	61.51	51.04	56.11
Cancer Prone	Insti	5.61	3.86	5.05
	Non-Inst	4.64	6.00	5.79
	Overall	5.29	4.85	5.37
CHD Prone	Insti	4.2	4.42	4.3
	Non-Inst	4.34	3.88	4.06
	Overall	4.25	4.15	4.2
Psychopathic Prone	Insti	5.34	5.42	5.38
	Non-Inst	5.34	5.00	5.13
	Overall	5.34	5.21	5.27
Healthy Personality	Insti	4.17	7.34	5.41
	Non-Inst	4.88	7.34	6.24
	Overall	4.53	7.34	5.89
Depression Prone	Insti	6.78	7.42	7.13
	Non-Inst	6.40	7.49	6.83
	Overall	6.59	7.44	7.00
Addiction Prone	Insti	1.69	1.84	1.76
	Non-Inst	1.71	1.43	1.54
	Overall	1.70	1.64	1.66

Table 3

Results of Two-Way ANOVA for Mean scores of male and female institutional and non-institutional senior citizens in stress and proneness to various psycho medical illnesses

Proneness	Source of variation	Dfs	F value	P Value
Stress	Between Groups (A)	1,190	51.45	**.000**
	Between gender (B)	1, 190	0.759	.385
	Interaction (Ax B)	1, 190	1.251	.265
Cancer Prone	Between Groups (A)	1,190	0.355	.612
	Between gender (B)	1, 190	1.286	.451
	Interaction (Ax B)	1, 190	1.056	.312
CHD Prone	Between Groups (A)	1,190	0.377	.540
	Between gender (B)	1, 190	0.999	.319
	Interaction (Ax B)	1, 190	3.036	.083
Psychopathic Prone	Between Groups (A)	1,190	.401	.527
	Between gender (B)	1, 190	1.003	.318
	Interaction (Ax B)	1, 190	1.052	.306
Healthy Personality	Between Groups (A)	1,190	155.827	**.000**
	Between gender (B)	1, 190	2.441	.120
	Interaction (Ax B)	1, 190	2.511	.115
Depression Prone	Between Groups (A)	1,190	21.516	**.000**
	Between gender (B)	1, 190	.678	.411
	Interaction (Ax B)	1, 190	1.372	.243
Addiction Prone	Between Groups (A)	1,190	0.309	.579
	Between gender (B)	1, 190	3.187	.076
	Interaction (Ax B)	1, 190	3.714	.065

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Table 4

Results of stepwise multiple regression for various subscales of proneness to varipus psycho medical disorders with stress scores as major dependent variable

REGRESSION STEP	Variable entered	R	R^2
For both the groups			
1	Depression	0.56	0.32
For Non-institutional citizens only			
1	Depression	0.52	0.27
2	Healthy personality	0.59	0.35
For Non-institutional citizens only			
1	Depression	0.62	0.38

Coping With Old Age: A Review

Gangadhar B. Sonar

The paper is an attempt to review on the situations of elderly in India with reference to coping and adjustment. The socio-psychological, economic, health, policy and programme aspects are discussed critically to evolve comprehensive understanding on coping and adjustment in old age.

Key Words: Old Age, Coping, Adjustment, Successful Aging.

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INTRODUCTION

The Indian aged population ranks second in the world. The absolute number of population over 60 years was 76 million in 2001, and is expected to raise to 137 million by 2021 (Jaiprakash, 1993). HelpAge India, a voluntary organization points out that, presently, most of the older persons (90%) are from the unorganized sector and with no social security. A significant proportion (30%) of them live below the poverty line, and a slightly higher proportion (33%) live just marginally over it. A majority of the aged (80%) lives in rural areas and most of them (73%) are illiterate. When we look at the aged women, more than half of them are widows (55%) and many of them have no support, whatsoever.

In order to ameliorate the conditions of the aged both the Government and NGOs are taking steps by way of organizing old age homes, day care centres, etc. However, the efforts made by the State and Central Governments are far and few compared to the needs of the elderly. Similarly, the efforts being made by Voluntary Organizations for the aged even do not match with the felt needs of the aged. When we compare the population of the aged, who are in need, and the effort made by the Government and Voluntary organizations, through welfare programmes, are not enough to meet even the

basic needs of a section of the aged. The facilities mostly benefit the aged living in urban areas, which are in the organized sector and above the poverty line.

The socio-cultural, psychological, economic, occupational, physical and health, interpersonal and environmental problems make their life most miserable. The elderly who are in vulnerable conditions face myriad of problems, especially, when they are unable to cope up with the challenges they encounter under different situations and conditions. As a result, they maladjust with old age, feel unhappy and dissatisfied with life.

Definition of Aging:

There is no single widely accepted definition on the old age. Generally, people say their age by counting number of years completed. The cut off point to define old age varies from developed countries to developing countries. With wide socio-economic difference, that some persons are active even at the age of 70 where as some are not active and withdrawn themselves from active life at the age of 50 (Kohli, 1996).

Different criteria to determinate old age make it complex to generalize and deal with their problems. Old age is socially defined as a state of life that begins in the sixties (Uhlenberg, 1992). Tibbitts defined aging as "the survival of a growing number of people who have completed the traditional adult roles of making a living and child rearing and the years following the completion of these tasks represent an extension of life" (Ara, 1994:3).

Developed countries define old age as 65 years and above. In India, this age is 60 years for the Central and State Government employees. Census of India has also defined the aged as 60 years and above (Kohli, 1996 and Arora, 1993). Studying the aged under one category will not be appropriate to understand their problems. Well known gerontologist Bernice Neugerten (Chadha, 1997) has made the categorization of the aged in a western context as, 65 to 75 years as young old, 75 to 85 years as old old and 85 years and above as very old.

Coping:

Better coping and adjustment have a bearing on life satisfaction and successful aging. Generally, to cope means "to deal successfully with a difficult situation or bad luck". Coping in old age refers, specifically, to the ability to face and deal successfully with the various hardships one is confronted with in old age. Basically, one is confronted with several radical changes at this movement of life. Coping is to do with the way people manage life conditions that are stressful. To some extent, stress and coping could be said to be reciprocals of each other. When coping is ineffective, the level of stress could be high; however, when coping is effective, the level of stress would apt to be low (Lazarus, 1999; and Pathan and others, 2003).

Social Dimensions:

The social competence of the elderly is measured in terms of role and status of the elderly in family and society. The social status of the aged depends on many factors. For instance, once the elderly are labelled as senile, the treatment they receive from the society would be different. In this regard, the aged women are more vulnerable than men. Irrespective of gender, the old in upper age cohort are more neglected than the old in the other age cohorts. The education background also has a bearing on the status enjoyed by the aged. The status tends to be good in case of the affluent elderly in contrast to the illiterate and rural aged (Birren, 1978; and Suparnachandra et. al, 1993).

The attitude of the aged to live separately or to live along with their sons, etc., depends on many factors. Some studies have found that the elderly couple prefer to live separately, either as a matter of choice, or to encourage children to live independently, or to avoid economic burden (Hussain, 1998; Khan, 1994; and Muttayya and Aneesuddin, 1998). This may be true in case of the aged who are affluent and have good position in the society, more so in the urban areas.

The low status of the aged has bearing on problems of the aged (Gurumurthy, 1998; Sinha, 1999). Kin network and relatives play an important role to support the aged. The aged may get the support from the kin members, relatives and others, if they

have a good position, or some regular income sources, or if they owned some property, or if they look after their grand children, or help in household works, etc. The aged who are associated with social institutions and are in leading position are also respected. If the aged are not useful in any way, they get ill-treated. Such treatment may suppress them psychologically and may result in depression or psychological disorders. The elderly who are neglected by all have no way to survive and their life becomes very pitiable.

Social status of the elderly basically depends on the family support they receive and the position they enjoy in the society. Relatively speaking, socio-cultural values, sentiments, affection, morals, etc., continue to have a bearing on the well being of the aged in rural areas as compared to the urban. However, social status of the rural elderly is on the decline. Even here, a gender divide is clearly visible. Elderly men participate more in socio-cultural activities than their counterparts. The level of participation is observed to be high among those whose spouses are alive.

The adaptability of the aged has something to do with their positive attitude towards change, engaging in productive work, and good interaction with family members, relatives and friends, etc. In case of employed, the above factors have a bearing on the post-retirement coping. It is observed that the elderly from the lower and middle age cohort in order to cope up with their problems indulge in worshiping regularly (Mahantha, 1993; Suparna Chandra, 1993; Mishra, 1979).

Economic Dimensions:

Economic contribution of an individual is related to relative age and health. Those older aged have less chance of participation in work, irrespective of general background. Well-educated aged has better economic status than the illiterate. The general pension scheme for retirees, and spousal benefits for the widows are helpful to meet their economic needs. It is also essential to note that the low economic status has bearing on the problems of the aged (Audinarayana, 2001; and Dancan and Smith, 1989).

Generally, the aged are regarded as less productive and their economic contribution to the family will also be not significant. However, the entire aged section is not useless. The elderly under lower and middle age cohorts can still be productive and can contribute to the family income. The participation in economic activities by the elderly is related to their economic status. This, of course, may not be applicable to the women, especially of rural. For instance, the aged men in affluent families do not engage in gainful activities, whereas the elderly women do household works. The aged in poor families help in business and agricultural work. Helping in kitchen is more common for the aged women in poor families. The activities such as, home management, gardening, teaching small children and telling stories appeared to be very less performed by the rural aged (Mukharjee, 1998; Dandekar, 1998; Mahanta, 1993; Nayar, 1998; and Messkoud, 1999).

While economic problems play a significant role in the well being of the aged, it alone does not result in the problems for the aged. Even in case of affluent elders, if they do not get family support, or kin members, or suffering from severe diseases, they may not cope up better with the old age. Hence, looking at problems of the aged with only economic perspective may not give us proper understanding. Such an understanding of economic aspects alone would not help to tackle problems of the aged in all spheres.

Psychological Dimensions:

The good psychological status and level of life satisfaction have a bearing on the problems of the aged. The psychological condition of the aged is dependent on a number of factors. It is related to their familial background, support of the family members and kinsmen, economic well being, state of health, ability to participate in economic and familial activities, etc. Psychological status is found to be good in the elderly belonging to lower age cohort than the middle and upper age cohorts. It is found that elderly who owned property and looked after their family are satisfied with their life. Similarly, the aged living separately from their children were also found to be most satisfied than those who were living with their children. Depression is found most

common among the elderly and this is related to many aspects. For instance, those who do not get recreation and do not involve in leisure time activities are not happy with life. Some studies found that the aged suffer from adjustment problems with families in rural areas, irrespective of gender. It was also observed that the aged who are not affluent and are not involved in any work are psychologically more depressed, more so in rural areas. The urban elderly feel loneliness because they lack company to share their feelings. However, in case of those whose spouse is alive feel comparatively satisfied with life (Kohli and Verma, 1999; Jaiprakash, 2000; Singh, 1999; Revati, 1993; Birren, 1978; and Sonar, 2001).

Health Dimensions:

Low health status has a bearing on problems of the aged. As the age increases, in many cases, health condition decreases and thus making the condition of the aged more vulnerable. The aged suffering from severe health problems, if they get proper treatment with moral support from the family members, relatives and friends, it is enough for them to overcome from any kinds of diseases. Even if they do not recover from diseases in such cases, they take last breath happily. If the elderly are not given proper treatment or no one cares for them, or no one is ready to take care of their expenses, in such cases the condition of the aged may become vulnerable.

Diseases like chronic cough, blood pressure, cardiovascular diseases, cataract and deterioration in eyesight, rheumatic pains, skin disorders and sugar are more common in old age. These diseases are observed more in urban than in rural areas. Similarly, it was found that the rural elderly are healthier than those who live in old age homes (Gurumurthy, 1998; Vijaykumar, 1993; Sati, 1998; Nayar, 1998; Dandekar, 1998; Jaiprakash, 1999; and Hussain, 1998).

Institutional Dimensions:

Old age home and day care centres are the only institutional services available for the aged in India. These are mostly managed by voluntary organisations / charitable trusts and only few are managed by Government. Government gives financial assistance to

some old age homes and the admission for most of the deserving is free. Some of the old age homes are both free as well as pay homes, while some others are only pay homes. Very few old age homes are meant for the aged women. In most of the old age homes and day care centres, the male inmates are more than the females. The inmates admitted under pay system are affluent and from the urban background. The inmates freely admitted to old age homes are destitute, orphans and neglected by the family members, who have no financial means. Also, most of them are illiterate and from rural and semi urban background. The reasons for the aged to join institution are: neglected by family members, poor economic conditions, in search of mental peace, to escape from / unable to bear social responsibilities, etc.

Old age homes need to have proper shelter with adequate bathrooms, good hygienic condition, provide nutrient food, healthcare facilities, recreation, proper ventilation, electricity, ceiling fans, reading room, etc. Most of the government-supported homes are not able to provide many of these facilities. The major stated problem is financial problem and this is due to inadequate grants from the government. Besides, most of these homes are built in isolated places away from families and community. Many studies point out that most of the inmates are not satisfied with the maintenance of old age homes (Sati, 1998; Mukharjee, 1998; Muthayya, 1998; Mishra, 1998; Hussain, 1998; and Sonar, 2001).

The nature of organisation and the persons behind have a bearing on proper functioning and quality of services offered by the old age homes. The quality of services depends upon the nature of institutions and dedication of the persons looked after them. If the personnel of the organisation are dedicated and committed, they may look after the aged well. Where as the government supported old age homes, in most of the cases, may not look after the aged properly, as its personnel lack dedication, motivation and commitment. Sometimes, they may even indulge in exploiting the inmates.

Policy Dimensions:

National Policy on Older Persons (1999) emphasises on the areas to be strengthened. They are financial security, health care, shelter, welfare, protection against abuse and

exploitation. The State extends support in all these areas. State also provides opportunities for the development of older persons' potential. In this regard, special attention is given to the elderly persons of rural areas and older women (Tyagi, 2000).

Making policy is one thing, but how far it is implemented and reaches the needy is much more important. For instance, the concessions made under Senior Citizens' Scheme to travel over train and air mostly benefit the aged belonging to upper middle and upper class, as the poor lack financial resources to avail these benefits. Providing relaxation on income tax and telephone facility also benefit the upper middle and upper class aged. By practice, these programmes/schemes exclude the vast majority of the elderly living below poverty line (30%) and slightly more elderly living marginally over it (33%).

The Old Age Pension Scheme is aimed at giving financial assistance to the destitute persons. The assistance given to the elderly is Rs.400/- per month in Karnataka State. First of all, compared to the need this amount is very meager. Further, all the deserving destitute are not benefited from this scheme. Helping the elderly this way may not provide a permanent solution. What is needed is to help the elderly to help themselves. Any programmes which does not fill the gap between need and the resources, will be a wasted effort and wastage of precious and scarce resources. Hence, policy needs to be reviewed based on the felt needs of the different categories of the aged. It should not take a uniform approach both for targeting and implementation.

Theories on the Successful Aging:

The problems of the elderly may be viewed from the perspective of individual satisfaction by adopting micro approach (Dandekar, 1996:26). To understand successful aging, some scientists have suggested two kinds of theories to view individual cases, the disengagement theory and activity theory. The disengagement theory, originally formulated by Cumming and Henry (1961), emphasizes on the withdrawal from social interaction, which occurs in old age, as a natural universal and inevitable process. Disengagement, therefore, implies a triple loss for the individual: a loss of role, a restriction on social contact and relationships, and a reduced commitment to social

values. Thus, successful aging implies a reduction in activity levels and a decrease in involvement. This theory does not take into consideration of the fact that aging is a gradual process and traditional societies like that of India have evolved their socio-cultural responses to the problems of the aged, irrespective of the status of the aged. Since this theory takes a sectional view of the problems of the aged, it either ignores or cannot explain successful aging in developing countries like India.

According to Chadha (1997) ashrama theory represents the Indian version of disengagement theory. It is pertinent to note that individual roles and responsibilities are specified in each ashrama. As one moves from one ashrama to another the roles and responsibilities change. The theory of ashramas considers social change as a natural phenomenon. The adoption of vanaprasthashrama is voluntary as the couple has fulfilled all their obligations to their family members. Thus there is a difference between voluntary option and withdrawal due to natural factors. Hence, it may be erroneous to treat ashrama theory as a version of disengagement theory.

The drawback of the disengagement theory is that it may be applicable to a small minority of the elderly, usually the very old. But for the vast bulk of the older people, the continuance of a moderately active life style will have a distinct perspective effect on their sense of well being. Thus, the activity theory, which is diametrically apposed to disengagement theory, was developed by Havighrust (1953). It is primarily an action theory of successful aging. According to this theory, happiness is associated with involvement and adjustment. The theory claims that, to be happy in old age, individuals need to keep active (Chadha, 1997). All activities do not provide sustenance for the self-concept. Hence, many older individuals may not be happy even when they are active. In fact, there is no retirement from working in unorganised sector and work/activity itself might become drudgery for the aged. Hence, many older individuals may not feel happy even though they are active.

Conclusion:

The problems of the aged are at rapid increase irrespective of urban and rural divide. Due to impact of Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation the supportive

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mechanisms got threatened. The values and contributions of elderly are largely neglected due to increased concentration on money and material. They face myriad of problems. If elderly are not able to cope up constructively and adjust positively, their experience and expertise is likely to waste which is very important in attaining development goals of the nation. There is a need to focus on active, productive and successful aging in the developing countries like India.

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Status of the socially excluded children in urban high schools: need for inclusive strategies for social justice

Channaveer R.M.

The paper intends to address a major research question as to comprehend if any disparity exists between the public and private urban high schools in their infrastructure, academic and social domains, and also know if it resuls in disparity in the representation of the socially excluded urban children in the public and private high schools. The SC, ST, OBC and minority children in the urban schools significantly enroll in the public high schools rather than in the private high schools. There appears to be a social divide and social exclusion in urban high schools. It indicates the social and economic deprivation of the urban children that, has put them at disadvantage to avail the quality education in schools of their choice. Therefore the study supports the need of extending the scope of Sarva Shiksh Abhiyan. as an inclusive public program, to secondary and higher secondary education, to sustain the quality of education and ensure social justice to the socially excluded children.

Key words: Social Exclusion, Inclusive Initiatives, Public Schools, Private Schools, Social Justice

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INTRODUCTION

The SSA program could certainly enable the public education system to include the socially excluded children in the rural elementary schools of India. The situation of elementary schools in the urban India is not satisfactory. The SSA program what it could achieve in rural India is not able to do the same in urban India. The introduction of SSA has further raised the issue of extending its scope to secondary and higher secondary education to sustain the growth of education in India. Presently, the situation

of high schools is very grim in both rural and urban India. In urban India the high school present not a satisfactory scenario as the schools are very much neglected, extremely unhealthy, show disparity, discrimination causing injustice and inequity to the socially excluded. The present study could able to comprehend the plight of high schools and the status of the SC, ST, OBC and minority children due to their social and economic disadvantages to have access to the high school education. In urban schools, the socially excluded children are prone to abject poverty, hunger, unsustainable livelihood, poor housing, crime, delinquency, riots, conflicts and polluted environment, which further put them at disadvantage to get into the mainstream society. The slum communities house the SC, ST, and minority families, struggling to maintain their day to day life (Mathew, A. et al, 2005, Kingdon, 2007).

It is commonly observed that the private high schools are at greater advantage as compared to the government schools, which are not able to produce the competent children and maintain the minimum standards in the schools both in qualitative and quantitative terms. This has caused greater disparity and discrimination between the private and government schools, which has further created a greater divide between the private and government schools. The issues of urban high schools are different from that of the rural high schools. The problems of the socially excluded are more alarming in the urban places rather than the rural places. On the other hand, the public high schools in urban places are far from the minimum standard to accommodate and address the learning and livelihood needs of the socially excluded children (Richard Buddin, 2009, Herbert, 1999, Ouimette M. Feldman, J. Tung, R., 2002, Dechenla Tsering et al 2008).

Context

In the wake of the growing demand all over the country for primary and high school education, there has been speedy growth of educational institutions in the Karnataka state also. High schools in particular, have also shown spurt in the number. Urban centers have become the hub of primary and high schools. In this scenario, Karnataka state is not lagging behind in assuring access to elementary and high school education

for the children of rural and urban areas. The spending is increasing from year to year. However, despite the increasing financial allocations, the ground realities are quite unfavorable contributing to the growth rate of the state in the field of school education. It is surprising to know some of the heartbreaking realities of high school education in Karnataka. In Karnataka, 53 per cent of children between the ages of 7 to 10 years attending schools (private and government) in villages cannot read even a simple small paragraph (level 1) and 72.5 per cent cannot read a story (level 2). Of the same age group, 60 per cent cannot solve numerical sums of subtraction and a whopping 91 per cent cannot do a division (3 digits divided by 1 digit) (Govt. of Karnataka Education Report, 2009).

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan - A critical view

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) national program gained momentum soon after the introduction of right to education act. The achievements that it could achieve are – improved infrastructure of the primary schools, laboratory support to schools, recruitment of teachers, 100 per cent enrolment of children, 0 % drop out of children and remedial teaching for the children who are lagging behind. A matter of achievement is that the Karnataka state also could reach enrolment and drop out targets. The only feeling of sigh is that the children of the state are enrolled and drop-out rate has come down significantly due to the effective implementation of Sarva Siksha Abhiyan – a National Mission towards universalizing the elementary education. Our country spends Rs. 60,000 crore towards this mission. Achievements in primary education can not be sustained unless there is support of SSA to high school education. The right to education needs to cover the universalization of high school education. Hence, there is a justice and equity-based demand that the national program (SSA) needs to be extended to support the high school education.

Origin of research

The challenges in high school education, is not mere providing infrastructure and teaching manpower. The quality education, child friendly environment, uniformity in the progress of children, culture, motivation and vision of the schools form the

significant place. The major questions having current relevance are- despite the national initiatives and private initiatives, where does the status of high school education stands? Are there any social disparities at any level of school education? To what extent the rising high schools are able to include the socially excluded children? What is the direction of high school education in the urban centers? Whether the schools have justice and inclusion motives? The present study intends to address these questions.

Aim and objectives of study

The principal aim of the study is to present the status of socially excluded children in the private, aided and public urban high schools of Karnataka, and suggest inclusive initiatives and strategies to ensure justice to the socially excluded children.

Specific objectives of the study are –

1)   study the comparative infrastructure status of high schools

2)   study the comparative status of the socially excluded in the high schools

3)   know the demand-supply status of high schools, and

4)   give a comparative disparity scenario of private, aided and public high schools

5)   suggest inclusive initiatives and strategies to ensure justice to   the socially excluded

Methods and material

The study was undertaken in Karnataka State. Five district places (Bellary East, Bellary West, Koppal, Gadag and Haveri) and three towns (Sandur, Kottur, Hospet) were covered in this study. There are 163 high schools in these districts, which form the universe of study. It was decided to give more representation to the schools to make the study more comprehensive in its scope. The schools were selected through multi state stratified random sampling method giving proportionate representation to the private,

public and aided schools. As a result 41 non-grant schools, 21 aided schools and 16 government schools represented in the sample of 81 high schools. A structured interview schedule was prepared. The schedule was self-administered to either head master or in-charge teacher of a school. Observation checklist was also prepared for verification of the physical infrastructure of school.

Major Findings

High School infrastructure in Karnataka

It is generally presumed that the aided schools have better facilities for their children as compared to their counterpart the government schools. This presumption is rather true in the context of the schools in Karnataka. The scenario infrastructure status justifies it. There are 2926 govt. schools and 2,682 aided schools having 14,474 and 17,053 classrooms respectively. General toilets are 1,624 (55.50%) in government schools and 2,263 (84.38%) in aided schools. Girls toilets are 1,350 (46.14%) in govt. schools and 2,183 (81.39%) in aided schools. Electricity facility is in 1,945 (66.47%) of govt. schools and in 2,337 (87.14%) schools of aided schools. Water facility is in 1,945 (66.47%) of the govt. schools and 2,337 (87.14%) of aided schools; where as 1,238 (42.31%) govt. schools and 1,945 (72.52%) aided schools have compound facility (Dept. of Education, 2009).

Infrastructure of schools under study

50 of the schools under study have 1 to 5 acres of land at their disposal. 27 schools have less then 10 rooms and 38 schools have 11 to 20 rooms. Non-granted schools have more number of rooms for the instruction. Most of the non-granted schools have good play ground for conducting sports activities.

As far as location of school is concerned, 66 schools are inside city and 15 schools are outside the city. Of them, only the private schools are located at the outskirts of the towns.

Profile of schools

The sample distribution covers 44 non-grant schools, 21 grant schools and 16 government schools.

Out of 81 schools, 31 schools are Kannada medium schools, 24 schools are English medium schools, 21 schools are both Kannada and English medium schools and 5 schools are Urdu schools.

Teacher – student ratio

The strength of teachers in the schools range 5 to 15. The strength of teachers is more in non-grant schools as compared to grant schools and government schools.

The ratio of teachers for number of students range from 10 to 26. The ratio is less in non-grant schools. This indicates efficiency in teaching and focus on performance and achievements. The number of non-teaching staff is 3 to 5 in most of the schools under study. Around 50 of the schools have student strength between 50 to 300 students for high school education.

Basic amenities in schools

Basic amenities like drinking water, electricity, toilet, ventilation and fan facilities are in good conditions in non-grant schools as compared to the granted and government schools. Number of toilets is more in non-granted schools as compared to grant and government schools.

Teaching aids

Most of the non-grant schools have library, laboratory and computer facilities. Especially the private school children have proper access to computer education.

LCD projector, OHP equipment and other use of teaching aids is more effectively used in the private schools run without grants. More frequently the teaching aids are used in instruction.

Student attendance

School attendance indicates that the children of non-grant schools have high attendance than the children of other schools. Absenteeism is more in the government schools as compared to the private schools under study.

School drop-out is prominently observed in the government schools as compared to the private schools. There is proper check on irregularity and absenteeism through admonition to children and their parents in the non-grant schools, which is a missing mechanism in the government schools.

School results

15 of the schools under study have 100 per cent result in high school. 10 schools have 60% to 70% result, 27 schools have 71% to 90% result, and 25 schools have 91% to 99% result. Private schools have strictly maintained consistency in achieving high results.

In 20 schools have 10% of the children maintained high distinction result. In 13 schools 11% to 30% children maintained high distinction result. In 8 schools 31% to 50% children achieved high distinction result.

In 14 schools, 10% of the children attained first class result. In 29 schools 11% to 40% children achieved first class result. The second and pass class result is very less in the private schools.

In SSLC, 20 schools have less than 70% result, 13 schools have 71% to 80% result, 22 schools have 81% to 90% result, 20 schools have 91% to 99% result and 9 schools have 100% results.

Socially disadvantaged children

The student result profile indicates that most of the SC and ST students are studying in the government schools. Private schools are not safe walk in, for the socially excluded children of society as only 20 schools accommodate socio-economically poor children.

Normally, middle and upper class children are studying in the private schools. It is a progressive sign that both male and female children of SC & ST categories in equal proportion are seeking high school education. OBC and minority students are in good number taking high school education. However, their number is more in the minority management schools rather than the private schools. Christian missionaries run schools have more number of deprived children and therefore ensuring good education for them.

School intake range from 50 to 100; whereas the number of children for seeking seat in schools ranges from 70 to 400. Competition to seek admission in private schools is phenomenal. Many children are deprived of any option to enter good schools of their choice.

Academic activities

Co-curricular activities like debating, essay writing, sports, drawing, dance and music competitions found to be the characteristics of private schools rather than the government and aided schools.

Regarding comprehensive, adequacy and integration characteristics of curriculum, 64 schools expressed good and very good opinion. 77 schools expressed confidence in the present curriculum as it rightly fulfills the goals of their school.

Almost all the private schools have computer aided instructional system. However there is disparity in the access to such instructional system. The government schools have difficulties in ensuring this facility as part of their curriculum. The private schools having commercial motive have rightly grabbed the computer aided educational system for the children.

In most of the schools, teachers prepare teaching plan and remain intact about teaching outcomes. Learning expectations are clearly defined. Participation of children

in teaching is highly encouraged. School environment is highly stimulating to children for their learning, and it is pro-child development oriented.

Teachers evaluate effectively the performance of children and properly report to their parents the progress and achievements of their wards. Healthy practices are maintained in keeping good contact with the parents of children to consider them as stakeholders in the educational system.

School environment

School environment is for equality of opportunities for all children. Children are protected from any kind of abuse, harassment and rights-violation. Schools irrespective of their category ensure safe environment for the children. especially for the girl children.

Teacher salaries

In 12 schools the Headmaster salary range Rs. 2000/- to 5000/-. In 18 schools, the salary range from Rs. 6000/- to 10,000/-. In 42 schools, the salary range from Rs.11000/- to Rs. 20000/-. In 8 schools, the salary of headmaster is from Rs. 21000/- to Rs. 37000/-.

The salary of teachers range from Rs. 1500/- to Rs. 28000/-. In 30 schools, the teachers receive salary of Rs. 1500 to Rs. 7000/-. In many private schools, the salary of teachers is low.

Fees and donations

In government schools the fee range from Rs. 50/- to 180/- for a year. In private schools the fee ranges from Rs. 150/- to Rs. 220/- per month.

The donation in private school range from Rs. 2000/- to Rs.10000/-. In some schools the donation is around Rs. 25000/-.

Parent stakeholders

Parents as stakeholder takes active part in the private schools as compared to the government schools.

Conclusion

Following conclusions are drawn based on the results of study –

➢ There is a sudden sprout of privileged class strata which seeks high school education of high caliber. Large scale rise of middle class, lower middle class and upper middle class and upper class has created greater demand for quality promised and consumerism protected schools. This urban trend is also causing greater social divide and social exclusion.

➢ There is growing rush of children to the private high schools. In the post-globalization, the middle class and upper middle class are able to rightly perceive the importance of education for their children to sustain their quality of life.

➢ There is a growing need to launch innovative initiatives to bring uniformity in the standards of school education to reduce the knowledge-bound disparity among the children irrespective of their sex, caste, religion and region.

➢ Sports field is neglected in the high schools, which need to contribute for the budding sportsmen and athletes at the state and national level

➢ Employing computer aided teaching shall be the major characteristics of the high schools in order to generate competent children with social, emotional, spiritual, environmental and technological skills. Public high schools need to fill this gap in their curriculum.

➢ The private high schools need to ensure good salaries on the lines of government schools to the teachers in order to enhance their effective teaching and job satisfaction. High salaries attract efficient and competent manpower, which keeps high the achievements and performance of the

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schools. The paradox is that the teachers in government schools get high salaries as compared to the private teachers. Despite that the teachers are not able to improve the standards of children to compete with the children of private schools.

➢ There bound to be academic stress and pressures on the children in high schools. In order to relieve them of such unpleasant and unfavorable academic experiences, the schools need to employ student counsellors, who will ensure effective adjustment and higher achievement of children and schools.

➢ Teacher – student ratio need to be maintained very strictly at an average 20 children for one teacher. This helps in instruction, supervision, monitoring and evaluation of study progress of children.

➢ Commitment, competence and competition need to be integrating in the public high schools as observed in the private high schools.

➢ Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan needs to look at social inclusion of the socially excluded urban children into the public schools at high school and higher secondary level.

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Activists' Understanding of Neo-Liberal Globalization:

Some Implications to Social Action in India

Ramesh B and **D'Souza Ashok Antony Jacob**

Neoliberal globalization has been pointed out by many scholars as responsible for many ills faced by the majority of the people today. It is argued that the countries have been destabilized as a consequence of the debt burden, of the collapse of national currencies, often resulting in the outbreak of social strife, ethnic conflict and civil war. Many NGOs too have been experiencing resource crunch and genuine social activists have been the targets of the repressive approach of the state. This process has negative impact on the nature and volume of social action in India. Consequently activism has taken a backseat and is struggling to revive itself with new models and strategies. Against this backdrop the paper attempts to present the views of a cross-section of the social activists in India

Key words: Social activists. Neo liberal Globalization. Social action.

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INTRODUCTION

It is commonly accepted today that the processes of globalization, actively embraced by India since 1991 in the form of New Economic Policy, have contributed in large measure to many of our recent successes and failures as a nation (Bhambhri, 1996). The states have been forced to redefine their role and create opportunities for the market, new technologies and hitherto unfamiliar interactions and exchanges or face the danger of being left out (Power, 1997). It is also argued by scholars that the traditional, domestic powers of domination have found a new lease of life due to the opportunities

provided to them by the forces of neoliberal globalization (Aloysius, 1998). Thus, the processes of the present day globalization are highly turbulent and lead to anti-globalization movements throughout the world. In this context, the present study attempts to assess the level of sensitivity on the part of social activists to the changing dynamics of globalization to find out if their 'experiences' and analyses are sufficient to understand and counter the oppressive forces of the neoliberal globalization.

Statement of the Problem

A well-known section of Indian and Western scholars including Amit Bhaduri and Deepak Nayyar (1996), Vandana Shiva (1997), Byres (1998), Jean Dreze (2000), Basu (2001), Buggi, Reddy & Gowda (2001), Nayar (2001 & 2003), Mukhopadhyay (2002), Jagadish Bhagwati (2004), Varshey, (2004), Bhambhri (2005), Bardhan (2005), Choubey, Pendse & Shukla (2005), Chandrasekhar & Ghosh (2009), and Prabhat Patnaik (2009) have argued that the processes of globalization have greatly impacted the political and economic policies of the country. The effects have been mainly felt in our country through New Economic Policy of 1991. The major argument of these scholars is that globalization, as practiced today, has been primarily spearheaded by advocates of the investor-rights style of integration that is built into the so-called "free trade agreements," with their complex mixture of liberalization, protectionism, and undermining of popular democratic control over policy. The basic feature of this form of globalization is the marginalization of the majority for the profit of a few.

They have also argued that the term "neo-liberal policies" is a misnomer. The policies are neither "new" nor "liberal", and liberalization itself is being shaped into an instrument of power. It is because liberalization is actually eating into the core of democracy by its anti-democratic practices (Chattopadhyay & Chaudhuri, 2001). One of the crucial aspects of this form of globalization is to undermine democratic functioning, to move decisions from the public democratic arena to private hands, to the unaccountable concentration of wealth and power. It has taken resources away from education and the public and transferred them into private hands which are unaccountable to the public (Chomsky, 1994).

As a result of the above, the poor in general and the rural poor in particular feel greatly impoverished. On the one hand they are forced to make a shift from subsistence economy to market economy and on the other the development process is getting centralized in the urban areas (Datt, 2001). In general the scope for employment, especially in the unskilled and semi-skilled areas has been drastically reduced. The *safety nets* for the poor and the *subsidies* in the agricultural sector have been reduced to the minimal despite the country facing grave agrarian crisis and hundreds of farmers committing suicide in despair. Thus we are in a dilemma as to whether we can still call ourselves a welfare state (Gosh, 2009).

This trend has not left out even the development sector. Today, even the NGOs and development workers are evaluated based on the market criteria (Prabhakar, 2009). Development work, which was heavily dependent on foreign aid, has suffered as funds are more and more getting channelized directly through the governments and not through NGOs. The purpose of all this is the control of the political and economic policies and programs of the beneficiary government by the funding government (Cohen & Arato, 1994). The state too has steadily withdrawn from the development responsibilities, leaving even the responsibility and the right of provision of welfare oriented services in the hands of the market (Tandon, 2002; Eade & Ligteringen, 2006).

It has been noted by some writers that the challenges and dilemmas of social activists have tremendously increased in the recent past. In the 1970s and 80s the social activists had very radical views regarding the system and policies of the government (Joseph, 1995). They were actively involved in protests and rallies. However, in a country like ours, that too in very challenging times like the present, social action should be the last thing to be given up.

At the heart of all these is the need for social activists to be critically aware of the actual dynamics of globalization. This alone would enable them to determine their values, priorities and response in the highly indoctrinated and misleading environment led by the market forces. It is with this conviction that the researchers took up the task of conducting an experience survey of a cross-section of the Indian social activists to learn

if their understanding of the dynamics of neoliberal globalization is in some way close to that of the analyses presented by the scholars discussed at the beginning of this paper to ascertain if they are genuinely aware of the larger processes shaping the reality as well as their own response in this highly globalized scenario.

Methodology

The research design used is 'exploratory' in nature. The universe of this study consists of all the social activists in India. However, as the number of social activists is too vast and spread out, the researchers decided to delimit the area with the help of inclusion and exclusion criteria.

It was decided to cover a cross-section of the population by multistage sampling techniques. This was done with the hope of getting representation of the population according to region and the area of involvement. As a first step of sampling, the total geographical area under study (i.e. whole of India) was divided into three regions: i) Southern region, ii) Northern region, and iii) North-eastern region. In order to enable a better focus and reduce the administrative constraints only two states were chosen from each of these three regional categories. The states randomly chosen for the study were Karnataka and Tamil Nadu from the southern region; Delhi and Gujarat from the northern region; and Assam and Nagaland from the north-eastern region.

Table No. 1: The Region-Wise List of the Social Activists Included in the Sampling Frame

Region	Male activists	Female activists	Total
Southern region	843	221	**1064** (165)
Northern region	641	215	**856** (50)
North-eastern region	96	32	**128** (25)
TOTAL	**1580**	**468**	**2048 (240)**

(The figures in the parentheses refer to the number of respondent considered for the study)

The respondents for the study were randomly selected from the sampling frame for collecting the data for the study. A mailed questionnaire method was used as the primary tool of data collection. The respondents to be included in the study were finalized based on the time taken to return the filled-in questionnaire.

The study included very few older (i.e. only 18.7%) and women respondents (i.e. 35.83%). The results of the study also suggest that the respondents, by and large, lack formal training in professional social work. It is also worth noting that the social work trained respondents were found to be either absent or lesser in number in very important but conflictual areas such as environment (only 2.5% social work trained respondents) and dalit movement (totally absent).

Results

In keeping with the objectives of the study, relevant data was gathered on the views of the social activists regarding the present form of globalization to see if their views support the perspectives of scholars. Presented below are the results pertaining to this aspect of the study.

Table No. 2: General Perception of the Respondents towards Globalization and Their Reasons for It

General Perception	Reasons	Frequency & Percentage	Chi square value and p value
All of globalization is bad **40(16.7)**	Rich become richer and poor become poorer	14(35.0)	$X^2_{(4)}$ =9.750, p=0.044, HS
	Increases the vulnerability of weaker sections	11(27.5)	
	Destroys our polity and economy	03(7.5)	
	Globalization is led by aggressive transnational capitalism	06(15.0)	
	It is nothing but imperialism in another form	06(15.0)	
	Total	**40(100.0)**	
Only certain aspects of globalization are bad **191(79.6)**	Only the rich grow richer	26(13.6)	$X^2_{(7)}$ =43.764, p=0.000, HS
	Harms the indigenous economic interests	25(13.1)	
	Displacement and environmental degradation	43(22.5)	
	Lack of protection to workers and environmental degradation	35(18.3)	
	Creates competition and stress	21(11.0)	
	Negative impact on agriculture and small-scale industries	23(12.0)	
	Wrong priorities and lack of preparedness	16(8.4)	
	No response	02(1.0)	
	Total	**191(100.0)**	
Nothing of globalization is bad **9(3.8)**	It offers opportunities for development	05(55.6)	**NA**
	It is a process which inevitable and hence needs to be effectively used to one's advantage	04(44.4)	
	Total	**09(100.0)**	

(Figures in parentheses are percentages)

N=240, $X^2_{(2)}$ =237.025, p=0.000, HS

Table no. 2 shows that there are significant differences in the general perceptions and the reasons relating to the phenomenon of globalization. Another notable finding is the acceptance of few of the respondents (3.8%) that nothing of globalization is bad. Many of these respondents have even justified their statement in support of globalization saying 'it offers opportunities for "development"' and that 'it is an "inevitable" process which needs to be effectively used to one's advantage'. Only 2.5 percent each (i.e. only 6 respondents each) of the total respondents have recognized that 'globalization is led by aggressive transnational capitalism' and that 'it is nothing but imperialism in another form'.

Majority of the respondents (79.6%) have corroborated scholars' observation that "free trade agreements" are really not free but are used as a trap. About 67.1 percent of the respondents corroborate scholars' view that the present form of globalization has been undermining popular democratic control over policy.

Table No. 3: Opinion on If Globalization Has Weakened Labour Movements in

India and the Reasons for the Opinion

Response	Reasons	Frequency & Percentage	Chi square value and p value
Yes **180(75)**	Dilution of labour laws	33 (18.3)	$X^2_{(7)}$ =101.244, p=0.000, HS
	Lack of protection by the state	59 (32.8)	
	Loss of jobs due to advanced technology	30 (16.7)	
	Division among the working class	22 (12.2)	
	Total control by the capitalists	14 (7.8)	
	Political ploy in collaboration with the capitalists	04 (2.2)	
	Weakening of bargaining power due to fear of unemployment	09 (5.0)	
	No response	09 (5.0)	
	Total	**180(100.0)**	
No **22(9.2)**	Greater awareness of their rights	06 (27.3)	**Binominal p=0.022, Sig**
	Insulation of Indian labour movements from the negative effect	16 (72.7)	
	Total	**22 (100.0)**	
Not Sure **38(15.8)**	NA	NA	**NA**

(Figures in parentheses are percentages)

N=240, $X^2_{(2)}$ =189.100, p=0.000, HS

Only 75 percent of the respondents have corroborated scholars' view that globalization has been attempting to break the unity and strength of the workers all over the world to ensure the free reign of finance capital. Some of the respondents (6.7%) have stated that the Indian labour movements are insulated from the ill-effects of globalization due to strong pro-worker labour legislation in the country. Only 68.3 percent of the respondents say that liberalization of Indian economy has not benefitted all sections of our society.

Table No. 4: Opinion on if the Government Has Been Withdrawing From Its Welfare Responsibilities

Response	Reasons	Frequency & Percentage	Chi square value and p value
Yes **158 (65.8)**	Structural Adjustment Programs	10 (6.3)	$X^2_{(7)}$ =155.722, p=.000 HS
	Need for Economic Efficiency	16 (10.1)	
	Capitalistic Agenda of the Indian Corporations	68 (43.0)	
	Vision of a Vibrant Economy	07 (4.4)	
	Structural Adjustment Programs and Need for Economic Efficiency	26 (16.5)	
	Structural Adjustment Programs and Capitalistic Agenda of Indian corporations	21 (13.3)	
	Need for economic efficiency and capitalistic agenda	05 (3.2)	
	Need for Economic Efficiency and Vision of a Vibrant Economy	05 (3.2)	
	Total	**158(100.0)**	
No **53 (22.1)**	NA	NA	**NA**
Not Sure **29 (12.1)**	NA	NA	**NA**

(Figures in parentheses are percentages)

N=240, $X^2_{(2)}$ =117.675, p=.000, HS

Table no. 4 shows that a large number of respondents (65.8%) have said that the government has been withdrawing from its welfare responsibilities. About 22.1 percent of the respondents have opined that the government has not been withdrawing from its welfare responsibilities. About 12.1% of the respondents have said that they have 'not sure' of the answer. Opinion of the respondents on the influence of globalization on the people they have been working with is also highly divided.

Discussion

Out of the results presented so far, most notable aspect is the acceptance of the few of the respondents (3.8%) that nothing of globalization is bad. Although the number of respondents who have taken this position is negligible the fact that such a view also is strongly adhered to by saying that 'it offers opportunities for "development"' and that 'it is an "inevitable" process which needs to be effectively used to one's advantage' in fact dislodges the common belief that all those who identify themselves as social activists are anti-capitalists or anti-globalizationists. Thus, the views held by only a minority of respondents comes close to the analysis of many eminent critics of who argue that the present day globalization is primarily spearheaded by the advocates of the investor-rights style of integration led by the capitalists.

Many scholars have held that the basic feature of the present form of globalization is the marginalization of the majority for the profit of a few (Barsky, 1997). There are a few respondents (6.7%) who believe that this is not true while an equal number of them say that they are unsure of the actual condition. Both these positions seem to be strange as empirical studies on the effect of globalization have clearly shown that even though the GDP of certain nations has risen under the globalization regime the gulf between the rich and the poor has only increased. This fact points towards lack of a minimal awareness regarding the effects of globalization on the part of some of the persons claiming to be social activists.

Another important aspect stressed by the scholars on globalization is that globalization has been undermining popular democratic control over policy. The analysis of the data shows that only 67.1 percent of the respondents corroborate this

view. 'Democracy' is a value held in high esteem by most of the social activists. Hence, it does not seem proper that many of them are not aware of the dynamics of the present day globalization which in reality has scant regard for people's opinions and concerns.

It has also been observed by scholars that globalization has been consistently attempting to break the unity and strength of the workers all over the world to ensure the free reign of finance capital. Only 75 percent of the respondents support this view. Some of them have even asserted that the Indian labour movements are insulated from the ill-effects of globalization due to strong pro-worker labour legislation in the country. This view seems to be in direct opposition to the research findings that show diluting and flouting of the labour laws after the onset of globalization in India (Nayyar, 1996; Chandrashekar & Gosh, 2009; and Sen & Himanshu, 2004).

The response of the activists to the question on 'if liberalization of economy has benefited all sections of Indian society' too is quite divided. Only 68.3 percent of the respondents say that it has not benefitted all sections of our society. Eminent scholars have found that Dalits, women and certain sections of children are either highly exploited or simply left behind by the various processes of globalization (Telumbde, 2003; Buggi, Reddy, & Gowda, 2001 & Byres, 1998). Hence, the opinions of some of the 'social activists' is diametrically opposed to such scholarly expositions.

Also, strange is the explanation of some of the respondents who believe that liberalization has benefited all sections of Indian society that globalization has made the Indian economy inclusive. This again is challenging the views of scholars that globalization has a homogenizing effect while in reality promoting divisive and individualistic attitudes. It is also quite striking that most of the other activists are neither able to recognize the role of the upper castes nor the capitalists in utilizing the designs of globalization to their advantage.

Opinion of the respondents on the influence of globalization on the people they have been working with is also highly divided. Many have opined that it is either highly (30.4%) or moderately (38.3%) negative while there are a few who opine that either there is no perceptible change (17.1%) or that the influence is moderately positive

(14.2%). This division of opinion of the people could be due to different categories of people the social activists have been working with. The people working with certain sections of the middle class would have found that there is no perceptible change or that there has been moderately positive impact on their lives due to the newer economic opportunities received by them as a result of privatization and liberalization in the country. However, this hypothesis requires further data to arrive at valid conclusions.

Conclusion

The study has revealed that social activists are highly divided in terms of their awareness and analysis of the present form of globalization. This could result in adverse effects on the overall effectiveness of social action in India. Hence, it is imperative for them to awaken to the urgent and serious challenges faced by them in this neoliberal context. For this, the social activists as a body need to take steps to read, discuss and understand the hidden patterns and dynamics of globalization to fortify their responses to social action requirements and also come up with newer strategies and approaches to effectively face the challenges of the present day globalization.

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The Socialism of Sarvodaya: M. K. Gandhi's approach to Collective Human Welfare

Adarshapally Nataraju

It is argued in this paper that of all the alternatives that are available in solving the eternal conflict between capital and labour, the one offered by Gandhi seems more viable. The non-violent social transformation or what is termed as 'Sarvodaya' aims at achieving collective human welfare wherein the rich would act as trustees of the wealth. Critical analysis of notions such as doctrinal basis of Sarvodaya, Sarvodaya and non-violence, trusteeship etc. are made in the paper.

Key Words: Sarvodaya, Trusteeship, Non-violence, Utility, Oneness-of-life.

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INTRODUCTION

M.K. Gandhi as a social scientist had shown remarkable greatness by adopting his methods to the culture, way of life, and feeling of the people and to their economic and technological resources. Abolishing the eternal conflict between capital and labour had drawn the attention of many a thinker over the last few centuries. The concentration of wealth in the hands of the few rich on the one hand and the semi-starved naked millions on the other throws greater challenge to any thinker who is concerned with the welfare of humanity on the whole and his own nation in particular. Gandhi, as we know, adhered to non-violent methods in solving social, political and economic problems. He did not seek to destroy the capitalist but he wanted to destroy capitalism. Ahimsa was always a

creed for Gandhi and never a policy[1]. He did not practice non-violence only to give it up in times of difficulty. Adherence to ahimsa as a creed implied that he had to find a method for social transformation where the capitalist considers himself as a trustee for the wealth generated by the millions of workers. If capital is power, so is work. Welfare of all or what he termed as 'Sarvodaya' was a result of his experiments in the field of truth, non-violence, and human welfare. The good of greatest number did not attract Gandhi much, since he believed in 'oneness of life', animate and inanimate, and felt that one must strive for the 'welfare of all'. In this paper I would try to situate the problem of human welfare within the context of the conflict between selfish interests and selfless service to society. I would also like to discuss, from writings of Gandhi, concept of man, welfare of individual, society and humanity at large, utilitarianism and Sarvodaya, trusteeship and its viability.

It is a challenging task to clearly express the subtle nuances of such a notion as Sarvodaya in one paper. However, the effort is to express, as precisely as possible, the doctrinal basis for Sarvodaya philosophy and its practicality in modern times. One of the remarkable features of Gandhi's writings is that they look simple and comprehensive, but the real challenge lies in grasping the essence of his thought process and the application of these ideas in real life situations. We know that he is not an arm-chair philosopher delivering lectures, constructing theoretical frameworks and impressing audience with intellectual prowess. He believed in experimenting his hypotheses. He always made a first test of his hypothesis on himself. The mark of greatness lies in working out the details and establishing organisations and systems to carry forward the ideas. He excelled in all that. History is a testimony to the fact that he created

institutions to materialise the necessary social transformations that he was intending to achieve. The widespread and difficult social problems on which he has specially worked are: 1.poverty 2.unemployment 3.violence between individuals, groups and nations 4.disunity and friction between social groups 5.education 6.to a lesser extent, sanitation and public health, nutrition and agricultural reforms.[2]

I would like to argue in this paper that Sarvodaya, and its offshoot trusteeship, is a viable option if at all humanity has to survive, live in peace, and make progress collectively. Ignoring Gandhi while trying to answer the perennial problem of poverty alleviation and equitable distribution of national wealth is only to invite disaster. To put this in right perspective, his success lies in inspiring generations of individuals to come out of slumber, and think and find answers to the social problems that exist around us. Generally we withdraw ourselves in to a shell, as it were, and confine ourselves to home, office and personal security. However, it requires positive energy to get out of 'Jellyfish life' and contemplate on the problems that plague the society. When there is a severe calamity, people do respond but in everyday life we tend to ignore the semi-starved millions, the poor, the downtrodden, and the less fortunate. Our indifference to create necessary energy levels in solving perennial socio-economic problems raises question mark on the equality of education that we receive. An individual's ability to meditate on these problems is of importance if only we were to make progress toward 'collective human welfare'. I have preferred always to use this phrase 'collective human welfare' to signify the fact that an individual's and a nation's 'good' is ensured only when the results of modern progress reach the entire humanity instead of selective individuals, or groups. Gandhi's usages of Sarvodaya also points to the same meaning as discussed

above. Gandhi used the phrase 'greatest-good-of-all principle' to translate Sarvodaya in to English. As it is clear from the above lines Sarvodaya differs significantly from the utilitarian's idea of greatest good of greatest number. Isaāvāsya Upanisad inspired Gandhi toward formulating the doctrine of 'non-possession'.

Doctrinal Basis: Oneness of Life and Non-Possession

I would like to discuss a philosophical theory by name 'Advaita' which provides doctrinal basis for Sarvodaya philosophy. Advaita of Śankara says , based on Vedic authority, that all that exists and has its being is Reality. This school believes that there is oneness of life and that the same energy principle appears in different forms (animate and inanimate). The Upanisadic statement such as 'tad ekam' or 'ekam sat', all point to the existence of one intelligent principle. Gandhi's philosophy is based on this idea of 'oneness of life' which gets expressed in his ideas on ahimsa, satyagraha, swaraj, swadeshi and Sarvodaya. 'The greatest good of all principle' is based on this Vedantic maxim. The other principle that inspired Gandhi from Isavasya Upanisad is 'non-possession'[3] which took the form of 'trusteeship' in the later part of Gandhi's life. 'Non-possession' is allied to non-stealing. A thing not originally stolen must nevertheless be classified as stolen property if we possess it without needing it.[4] Gandhi's faith in God drives him to believe that it is the work of God to give us our daily bread.[5] He goes on to say that the rich have superfluous store of things which they do not need, and which are therefore neglected and wasted; while millions starve to death for want of subsistence. If each retained possession only of what he needed, no one would be in want and all would live in contentment.[6] Only very few can think of and reach this ideal. For majority this is a distant dream.

This idea of non-possession helps Gandhi in formulating his doctrine of trusteeship. As it is clear from his life and works that he did not bother about the number of people who would follow this ideal. Once he is convinced of veracity of certain principle, he used to adhere to it, since he believed that in the end people would recognise its true value. He very well knew that these ideals would take longer time for the humanity to realise. But this did not deter him from pursuing what appeared to him as social truth at a given point of time. He wanted to be consistent with truth and not with his earlier ideas.

Sarvodaya and non-violence:

As it is pointed out in the earlier pages, Gandhi never compromised on the principle of ahimsa, though he fully recognised that absolute practice of non-violence is possible only to the disembodied soul and not for mortals. There can be no insistence on truth where there is no non-violence. Hence, the attainment of human welfare depends upon the attainment of non-violence[7]. It is here that Gandhi differed radically from Marx. The 'levelling up, down' of Marx had the provision for violence, destroying the landlords, the rulers, and the wealthy was to be achieved by mass revolution through violent means. Gandhi believed that violence breeds further violence and there can be never an end to it. On being reminded that in the annals of history, there never was a mass non-violent revolution, he was adamant enough to reject lessons from history and proclaim to the world the possibility of using non-violent means on a longer scale. Indian freedom struggle amply demonstrated to the world that non-violent means can be adopted in conflicts that involve participation of larger number of people. On being questioned that ahimsā was utterly unworkable in all circumstances and that non   -violence is possible

only for select individuals,[8] Gandhi answered, "The social structure is not based on a conscious acceptance of non-violence, all the world over mankind lives and men retain their possessions on the sufferance of one another. If they had not done so, only the fewest and the most ferocious would have survived. But such is not the case. Families are bound together by ties of love, and so are groups in the so –called civilised society called nations."[9] The concept of man in Gandhian philosophy becomes evident from the above lines.

Prof. J.N.Mohanty remarks that man, for Gandhi, is firmly rooted in truth, and though he seems to be alienated from it, there is never complete severance for it is truth as love which sustains human life.[10] It is this love that would make the humanity share their wealth with one another and create a co-operative commonwealth of nations.

Trusteeship:

Gandhi said of himself, 'I am not built for academic writings. Action is my domain'[11]. He was not systematic and did not write treaties on politics, economy, morals or religion. 'Hind Swaraj' was written by him in Gujarati; 'Satyagraha in South Africa' talks about the formative years of the movement in South Africa. The unfinished autobiography "My Experiments with Truth" are the few books that he wrote. However, his article in Harijan and Young India and his numerous correspondence letters to seekers after Truth runs into hundred volumes published as 'Collected Works of M. K. Gandhi'. In all his articles he formulated his concepts, entered into debate with those opposing them, defended them, and came out with application techniques. From this vast literature, we are to collect material from which we can understand his notion of

trusteeship and Sarvodaya. Raghavan Iyer, considered as an authority on Gandhi's writings, feels that there was undue concentration upon the image of the politician and reformer formed during his active phase of thirty years in India, from 1914 to 1948.[12] He considers the period spent in South Africa between 1903 and 1914 as the important one where Gandhi did his essential thinking on morals and politics[13]. His notions on satya, ahimsa, satyagraha, Sarvodaya and swaraj took shape in his mind during this time[14].

The core being of Gandhi is constituted with religiosity. His immovable faith in God, in Truth (God and Truth are synonyms for him) is to be kept in mind when we try to understand his socio-political and economic ideas. As I mentioned at the beginning of this paper ahimsa is the 'first principle' based on which he would develop his solutions to various problems. His mind was drawn to the idea that class war can be avoided. His experiments at various times proved that it was possible to destroy capitalism and not the capitalist[15]. The realization of the worker that if capital is power, so is work[16] is as important as the change of heart in a capitalist. Gandhi's invitation was to the capitalist to regard himself as a trustee for those on whom he depends for the making, the retention and the increase of the capital[17]. Each one is dependent on one another. This realization brings greater strength to the worker and he becomes co-sharer in the capital rather than a slave[18]. The basic idea of Gandhi in this regard is that the fundamental equality of the capitalist and the labourer needs to be recognized and this recognition makes one not aim at the destruction of the capitalist but for his conversion.

From the above discussion it is very clear the kind of contrast that exists between Gandhi and Marx in answering the conflict between classes. I do not venture to write in detail on the differences between Gandhism and Marxism, except to reiterate the point

that Gandhi had to find a means based on non-violence and this ultimately led him to the idea of trusteeship. How many people would act as trustees is beside the point. Is the principle sound or not was Gandhi's concern.

Conclusion

I have a firm belief that the good of humanity lies in the 'good of all' and not in the greatest number. Gandhi's model of achieving social transformation based on non-violence would survive the test of time. The inequalities stare us in the face but the essential equality (oneness of life and fundamental equality) cannot be missed[19]. Every man has equal right to the necessities of life even as birds and beasts have[20]. Gram-Swaraj is an offshoot of Sarvodaya where a village is self sufficient and can meet the basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, shelter and if need be can defend itself against the world. The example of Bill Gates comes to my mind when I contemplate on 'Corporate Social Responsibility'. 'Bill Gates Milinda Gates Foundation' is working for the welfare of the people across the continents and Warren Buffett donated his lifelong earned money which runs into billions of dollars to this foundation. Narayana Murti of Infosys does the same work. People like Bill Gates and Narayana Murti reaffirm our faith in Gandhi and his idea of conversion of a capitalist. Gandhi recognises the individual's capacity to create wealth. This is a very important observation from Gandhi. It is the individual who has the brilliance to create wealth, but the only necessary condition is that he has to act as a trustee as far as this wealth is concerned. This wealth, according to Gandhi, is created, retained and increased by the millions of labourers. The followers of Marx may not accept this proposition but the fact of the matter is that the way in which Gandhi recognises the individual's capacity to generate wealth is not done

by Marx. The Goose that lays golden eggs is destroyed by Marxism, the result is obvious. Conversion of the capitalist so that he takes up the responsibility of collective human welfare is very much a viable option. We cannot ignore Gandhi and invite peril. There is no denying the fact that there are not many who would buy this idea. However, it is the soundness of the 'first principle' that is more important than the number of followers.

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