

ISSN 0970-7247

THIRD CONCEPT

English Monthly

Annual Subscription Rs. 200

Vol. 32

No. 381

NOVEMBER 2018

Rs. 20.00

- ❖ **Global Warming**
- ❖ **Indonesia & South-South Cooperation**
- ❖ **Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan**
- ❖ **CSR & Community Development**
- ❖ **Law & Crime Against Women**
- ❖ **Christianity & the Meiteis in Manipur**

EDITORIAL BOARD

Y.C. Simhadri, Professor (Retd),	Vice-Chancellor, Banaras Hindu University, Andhra University, Nagarjuna University, Patna University (Two Terms), Member, University Grants Commission Consultant, United Nations University, Tokyo, UNESCO, Thailand Director, Institute of Constitutional and Parliamentary Studies ICPS.
Eddie J. Girdner,	Izmir University, Izmir, Turkey.
Dr. Kalim Siddiqui,	Teaches International Economy, Department of Accounting, Finance, and Economics, The Business School, University of Huddersfield, Queensgate, Huddersfield, UK.
Vikram Soni, Professor (Retd),	Jamia Millia Islamia, Centre for Theoretical Physics, New Delhi.
Dr. Sabahudin Hadzialic, Professor,	Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina.
Dr. Rajkumar Singh, Professor, & Head,	University Department of Political Science, B.N. Mandal University, West Campus, Post –Graduate Centre, Saharsa. Bihar.
Sudhanshu Tripathi, Professor,	Political Science, and Director (Inch) School of Social sciences, U.P. Rajarshi Tandon Open University, Allahabad, U.P.
Dr.Ritu Sapra, Associate Professor,	Department of Commerce, Delhi School of Economics, Delhi University, Delhi.
Dr. Alok Kumar Gupta,	Associate Professor, Center for Political Studies, Central University of South Bihar Gaya.
Dr. Pooran Koli, Associate Professor,	Department of Chemistry, J.N.V. University, Jodhpur.
Nisar Ahmed I Mulla, Professor,	Head, Department of Commerce, Maulana Azad National Urdu University, Hyderabad.



An International Journal of Ideas

Vol. 32 No. 381 NOVEMBER 2018 Rs. 20. 00

Third Concept aims at providing a platform where a meaningful exchange of ideas can take place among the people of the Third World. The attempt will be to communicate, debate and disseminate information, ideas and alternatives for the resolution of the common problems facing humankind. We welcome contributions from academics, journalists and even from those who may never have published anything before. The only requirement is a concern for and desire to understand and take the issue of our time. Contributions may be descriptive, analytical or theoretical. They may be in the form of original articles, reactions to previous contributions, or even a comment on a prevailing situation. All contributions, neatly typed in double space, may be addressed to:

<i>Editor</i> Babuddin Khan	<i>Consulting Editor</i> M. L. Sharma
<i>Deputy Editor</i> Manoj K. Narula	<i>Managing Editor</i> R. Prudhvi Raju
<i>Business Executive</i> R.S.Rawat	<i>Art Director</i> Purba Roy

While the Editor accepts responsibility for the selection of materials to be published, individual authors are responsible for the facts, figures, and views in their articles. However, the Editor reserves the right to edit the articles for reasons of space and clarity.

Published, Printed and Owned by

Babuddin Khan
Third Concept
LB - 39, Prakash Deep Building,
7, Tolstoy Marg, New Delhi-110 001.
Ph : 23711092, 23712249, Fax No: 23711092.
E-mail : third.concept@rediffmail.com
Website: www.thirdconceptjournal.co.in

THIRD CONCEPT NOW UGC APPROVED JOURNAL

Designed by: Pt. Tejpal

INSIDE

Editorial	
New Trade Order	5
<i>B.K.</i>	
Perils of Global Warming	7
<i>Prof. Anis H. Bajrektarevic</i>	
Indonesia & South-South Cooperation	10
<i>Poppy S. Winanti & Rizky A. Alfian</i>	
Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Major Challenges	12
<i>Dr. Afifa Aisha Rahmat</i>	
Corruption in Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Rural Assam	17
<i>Jayanta Kr. Dutta & Dr. Deba Kr. Datta</i>	
The Coming of Christianity in Manipur & the Meiteis	23
<i>Doulet Khongsai & Dr. Laishram K. Devi</i>	
Linking CSR and Community Development	26
<i>Dhavaleshwar C U & Dr. Swadi S Y.</i>	
Protective Legal Measures and Crime against Women	30
<i>Dr. D. Loganayaki</i>	
Evaluating Kathodi Katkari Tribal Economy	36
<i>Bhaskar Basapur & Dr Ravi S Dalawai</i>	
Business of Betel Leaves in Theni (Tamil Nadu)	39
<i>K. Babukannan & Dr. A. Bose</i>	
Health Status of Women Employees of Mannargudi Taluk	45
<i>Dr.T.Vijayalakshmi</i>	
Influence of Demographic Profiles on Stress of High School Teachers	50
<i>Sheeraz Ayoub Kuchy & Dr. T. Thilagavathy</i>	
Women Entrepreneurs' Problems in Aluva, Ernakulam	56
<i>Sr. Sindhu P.J</i>	

New Trade Order

In the wake of ongoing trade spat between the United States and China and President Trump's withdrawal from the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TPP) and Washington's repeated warnings to EU countries of imposing additional tariffs, there arises a question whether a new trade order is taking shape or not. Optimism for such a surmise gets engendered in the wake of the reported move by non-US members of the TPP to resurrect the erstwhile TPP as the Comprehensive and Progressive Agreement for Trans-Pacific Partnership (CPTPP). The proposed exit of the UK from the European Union (EU) on March 29, 2019 is also likely to impact the pattern of global trade. Increasing global investment in cleantech, which currently exceeds \$1 trillion and will reach \$2.5 trillion by 2020, is another emerging decisive factor impacting the pattern of global trade. Blockchain technology that permits multiple players to have access to a live, irreversible digital ledger, entails the potential of offering game-changing prospects for international trade finance. This fintech is gradually moving into the mainstream world of global financial institutions.

Leading international business consultancy firms have ranked Brazil, New Zealand and India as the rising players of emerging new trade order. Brazil, having seen a quick recession recovery, is growing at an expected rate of 3.1% and New Zealand has been ranked second by Forbes in its 2018 Best Countries for Doing Business rankings, citing its 3.6% economic growth in 2017, among other factors. India's case is recommended by Morgan Stanley on account of India's enhanced digitization, new tax laws and younger demographic dividend, which present a bright future for the country entailing the potential of emerging as the world's fastest growing economy over the ensuing decade. However, the World Trade Organization (WTO) has recently predicted that the growth of global merchandise trade would be moderated to 3.7% in 2019 from 3.9% in 2018, as a sequel to escalating trade tensions and tighter credit market conditions in important markets. As per WTO estimates, trade volume growth in 2019 should slow to 3.7% as global GDP growth dips to 2.9% during the same period. It is further reported by the WTO that North America had the fastest export growth and Asia had the strongest import growth in the first half of 2018 while resource-based economies still struggled.

While referring to volatility in exchange rates due to monetary policy tightening in developed economies, the WTO report says that such a situation is likely to continue for some time. According to the report, "Developing and emerging economies could experience capital outflows and financial contagion as developed countries raise interest rates, with negative consequences for trade." Identical pessimistic scenario is projected by UNCTAD's 2018 Trade and Development Report, especially when it says that while the global economy has picked up since early 2017, growth remains spasmodic with many countries operating below potential. The difficult phase through which global economy is passing does not bode well for Indian economy because India could be the worst sufferer of declining trade and slow global economic growth as its share in world trade is rising. Media reports indicate decline in India's exports for the first time in the current fiscal, with shipments contracting 2.15% in this September to \$27.95 billion. India's global trade increased by 16.32 per cent to USD 767.9 billion in 2017-18, and in 2016-17, the trade stood at USD 660.2 billion.

In order to keep pace with emerging global trade trends and maintain the momentum in its foreign trade, India needs to focus on structural reforms, such as rationalizing India's tariff structure, especially in accordance with the recommendations of the Chelliah Committee back in 1993. While plugging the gaps in the Foreign Trade Policy 2015-2020, it also needs to bring a sort of semblance of equilibrium in its overall trade balance by increasing and diversifying its exports. India's trade deficit that stood at \$108.5 billion in 2016-17 widened to \$156.8 billion in 2017-18 amid rising global trade tensions. Imports grew by 7.2% to \$42.8 billion in March this year, yielding a traded deficit of \$13.7 billion against \$10.7 billion in March last year. Trade deficit is a perennial problem haunting Indian economy for many years and it has to be narrowed down via appropriate policy measures and reducing dependence on unnecessary imports through innovation.

— BK

Perils of Global Warming

Prof. Anis H. Bajrektarevic*

[Echoing the warning signals sounded by the recently released IPCC report on global warming, the author dwells on the urgency for heeding these warnings and pleads for addressing the concerned issues on priority basis. While recounting his academic efforts in making the people aware about the adverse impact of the vagaries of climate change over the past decades, he laments at the non-responsiveness and casual attitudes that could prove disastrous if timely remedial measures are not adhered to. Ed.]

The major new report from the United Nation's Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), released in Korea on October 8 (2018), is nearly 800 pages long and includes more than 6,000 scientific references. However, it can be summarized in just few sentences with absolutely horrific implications:

The average global temperature is now 1.0°C above its pre-industrial levels. That increase is already causing more extreme weather, rising sea levels and diminishing Arctic sea ice, and is damaging untold number of land and sea ecosystems.

A 1.5°C increase, likely by 2040, would make things worse. A 2.0°C increase will be far worse than that. Only radical socio-economic and politico-diplomatic change can stop catastrophe. The world's leading climate scientists have warned that only a dozen years are left for global warming to be kept to a maximum increase of

1.5°C. Beyond that an irreversibility effect would be set in motion: even half a degree increase will significantly worsen the risks of drought, floods, extreme heat, hence poverty for hundreds of millions of people.

To avoid the most serious damage requires transforming the world economy within just a few years, said the authors, who estimate that the damage would come at a cost of a fantastic, and rather fracturing, \$54 trillion. This transformation goes – of course – beyond what we usually label as 'economy'. It will require a change of entire human dynamics; modes and preference of how we extract, manufacture, distribute, consume, spend, live, travel, power all that, think of and teach about it.

Reactions are unfolding: "Limiting global warming to 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels would be a herculean task, involving rapid, dramatic changes in the way that governments, industries and societies function" – says the *Nature* magazine. *Science Daily* predicts: "Limiting global warming to 1.5°C would require rapid, far-reaching and unprecedented changes in all aspects of society ... With clear benefits to people and natural ecosystems, limiting global warming to 1.5°C compared to 2°C could go hand in hand with ensuring a more sustainable and equitable society".

Unholy war against everything beautiful on this planet

* Author is chairperson and professor in international law and global political studies, Vienna, Austria. He has authored six books (for American and European publishers) and numerous articles mainly on geopolitics energy and technology. For the past decades, he has over 1,200 hours of teaching on the subject Sustainable Development (Institutions and Instruments). He is editor of the NY-based GHIR (Geopolitics, History and Intl. Relations) journal, and editorial board member of several similar specialized magazines on three continents.)

Nevertheless, for the informed and willing, all was clear already with the Rio summit. Back then, I was quick to react: it was me being among the very first in Europe to conceptualise and introduce (and set as obligatory) the subject of Sustainable Development (along with Environment Ethics) in the universities of Europe. Thus, for the past two decades I've been teaching my students that: "Currently, the amount of crops, animals and other biomatter we all extract from the earth each year exceeds what such a small planet can replace by an estimated 20% – meaning it takes almost 14,4 months to replenish what we use *per annum* – in consecutive 12 months – deficit spending of the worst kind."

Lecture after lecture, generation after generation, decade by decade, I have sought to educate my students that: "Through pollution and global warming are legacies of products, processes and systems designed without thought to the environmental consequences, cohesion of international community along with rapid introduction of new international policies and strategies in a form of clean practices and technologies holds the solutions (e.g. promoting greater coherence between energy, research and environmental policies). Since the environmental degradation (incl. the accelerated speed of extinction of living species – loss of biodiversity) knows no borders – the SD (Sustainable Development) is a matrix of truly global and timeless dimensions."

In the meantime, the Climate Change nihilists and prepaid lobbyists dominated media and our entire social narratives by accusing this sort of constructivism and predictive education as an environmental alarmism and scientific sensationalism. This is how we lost almost three decades from Rio over Johannesburg, Copenhagen, Kyoto and Paris to come to our current draw: an abyss of "only 12 years left" diagnosis.

How shall we here and now reconcile our past optimism about the possibilities and the current

pessimism about our probabilities? How to register our future claims rapidly and effectively on preservation of overall human vertical when we systematically ridiculed and dismissed every science short of quick profit (or defensive modernization), when we pauperized and disfranchised so many people on this planet in the past few decades like never before in history?

Hence, rapid and far-reaching changes to almost every facet of society are needed to avoid catastrophic climate change, reforms far beyond anything governments are currently either doing or planning to do. Additionally, it requires complete reversion of our life styles and socio-economic fashions, passions and drives – e.g. elimination of "here-us-now" over-consumerism of everything tangible and non-tangible.

Planet devastated by anti-intellectualism

Are we able to mobilise our socially fractured, and anti-intellectualised globe that fast and that solid?

The world must invest \$2.4 trillion in clean energy every year through 2035 and cut the use of coal-fired power to almost nothing by 2050 to avoid catastrophic damage from climate change, according to scientists convened by the United Nations. That of course includes elimination of oil and gas from our Primary Energy Mix (PEM) as well as total eradication of the ICE-powered cars (both diesel and petrol). All that is required within the following decade.

Which kind of existential stress this new "Cambrian explosion" will cause on adaptive and non-adaptive inorganic clusters and systems of our biota, and its group dynamics? What impact it will have on the traditionally automotive-industry leaning regions, and what on aviation industry – which, at least when comes to continental Europe, could have been grounded decades ago – since even at our current technological level, railroad transportation would be cheaper faster safer than using planes? What implication does it bring to the extremely

crude-export dependent Middle East, which is situated in a center of our planet but at the periphery of human progress?

Finally, who will invest to such a change? The insurance and RE (reinsurance) industries are on a brink of 'impossibility to perform' clauses – as the severity and frequency of (the so-called) 'natural occurrences' (such as flooding, hurricanes, wet monsoons, conveyor belt currents and temperature shifts, glacier retreat, etc.) makes the insured case incalculable and unpredictable. The link between Climate Change and global financial crisis triggered by the insolvency of major investors is thereby established. This is to name but few of numerous implications and unanswered dilemmas yet even unasked question¹.

No doubt, our crisis is real, but neither sudden nor recent. Our environmental, financial and politico-economic policies and practices have created the global stress for us and all life forms of this planet. Simply, our much-celebrated globalisation deprived from environmental and social concerns, as well as from a mutual and fair cooperation (instead of induced confrontation and perpetuated exclusion) caged us into the *ecological globalistan* and *political terroristan*. (Acidifying of oceans and brutalization of our human interactions are just two sides of a same coin. What is the social sphere for society that is

the biosphere for the very life on earth, since what we euphemistically call anthropogenic *Climate Change* is actually a brutal war against nature.)

The world based on agreed principles that – besides businesses and governments – involves all other societal stakeholders, re-captured global cohesion and commonly willing actions is not a better place. It is the only way for the human race to survive.

Deep and structural, this must be a crisis of our cognitivity. Thus, the latest Climate Change (CC) Report is only seemingly on Climate. It is actually a behavioristic study on (the developmental dead end of) our other 'CC' – competition and confrontation, instead of cooperation and (all-included) consensus.

Simply, it is the Report on our continued global *Jihad* against the cognitive mind.

Notes

1. Still today, sustainability is lacking an operational definition: There is a controversy whether to consider a human-made capital combined with a natural capital (weak sustainability) or separately (strong sustainability). The central to this question is to which extent a human capital or rather technology can substitute the loss of natural resources.



To our Contributors.....

& Original articles are welcome.

& Only Original copy of the manuscript, neatly typed in double-space should be sent. Please do not send carbon, cyclo-or photo-copies.

& Please check up grammatical & typographical mistakes before sending. Editor will not be responsible for these lapses.

& Editor reserves the right to reject/ modify / edit an article without assigning any reason.

Indonesia & South-South Cooperation

Poppy S. Winanti* & Rizky A. Alfian**

[The United Nations has declared September 12 the International Day for South-South Cooperation. This year's celebration marks the 40th anniversary of the adoption of the Buenos Aires Plan of Action for technical cooperation among developing countries. The adoption of this action plan highlights the importance of cooperation and solidarity among countries of the South.]

South-South Cooperation (SSC) in international development initially was shaped by the “global South” countries’ shared experience of colonialism, underdevelopment and oppression. Helping each other has been perceived as a way to convey solidarity among the countries in question and to alter asymmetrical relations dominated by the global North. Recent development shows a new direction of SSC that is not only driven by the aspect of solidarity but has become more pragmatic and strategic for emerging southern powers.

Through the SSC initiatives, southern donors desire to improve their regional and global reputation, to garner support from other South countries in international forums and to pursue their own broader economic agenda.

As a pioneer of South-South solidarity in the 1950s that has delivered overseas aid since 1967, Indonesia is also part of the Southern donors contributing to South-South Cooperation. Hosting the Bandung Conference of 1955, where representatives from 29 governments of Asian and African nations gathered to discuss the role of the developing countries in the Cold War,

Indonesia clearly played a crucial role in the emergence of SSC.

Decades later, in 2018, Indonesia allocated Rp 1 trillion (US\$67 million) in endowment funds for its overseas aid activities, according to 2017 data from the Foreign Ministry. This figure has grown significantly from \$15.8 million disbursed in 2016. For comparison, Indonesia spent only \$57.4 million for its SSC programs between 2000 and 2015. This shows that SSC plays an increasingly important role in Indonesia’s foreign policy under President Joko “Jokowi” Widodo.

As part of its efforts to advance its role in SSC, Indonesia introduced a significant reform of SSC policies in 2010 that restructured overseas aid institutions, aligned SSC with national development and foreign policy goals and increased funding for SSC initiatives. This includes the establishment of a National Coordination Team of South-South and Triangular Cooperation (NCT) involving the National Development Planning Ministry (Bappenas), the Foreign Ministry, the Finance Ministry and the State Secretariat.

Yet, NCT is only the first step for Jakarta in achieving its main objective to strengthen Indonesia’s global new role. To improve coordination and overcome fragmented authority

* Sr. Lecturer, Dept of International Relations, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia/Jogjakarta.

* Researcher, Dept of International Relations, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia/Jogjakarta.

in Indonesia's SSC policies, the government has begun to develop a single, specialized agency to plan, manage and monitor Indonesia's SSC. The centralized agency was expected to be established by last year, but consensus among the SSC key stakeholders regarding such coordination is still pending.

Furthermore, questions still remain even after several years of the establishment of the NCT. These include how to deal with domestic resistance despite growing international demand for Indonesia's new global role; and whose interests should be served to advance Indonesia's role under the SSC framework? How can programs be effectively carried out while securing domestic support at the same time?

To generate domestic support, it is urgent to design the SSC framework in line with domestic objectives. The ministries stress that SSC is crucial to enhancing Indonesia's profile, protecting its sovereignty and facilitating access to non-traditional markets.

Indonesia may also utilize its SSC framework in its efforts to cope with the rise of protectionism, as reflected in the United States' new tendency to focus on domestic issues and with stricter environmental and quality standards, which currently cannot be met by Indonesian producers in its traditional markets.

Improving its role through the SSC framework is an alternative way for Indonesia to expose itself for possible economic cooperation outside other means. Strengthening SSC can also be a way to divert Indonesia's exports away from its traditional export markets to developing countries.

Domestic support for Indonesia's global role through the SSC framework can be generated through the engagement of the private sector and

civil society, which is still minimal. The government also projects SSC as a platform to facilitate access of Indonesia's private sector to other developing countries' markets.

Jakarta needs to focus on what it does best in delivering programs under the SSC framework. Indonesia is regarded quite successful in dealing with some crucial issues faced by many developing countries, including curbing population growth through family planning, managing foreign aid and establishing democratic governance.

"Asia has no alternative but to become truly multilateral, pan-continently. This is impossible without its champions of multilateralism – India, Indonesia and Japan...", is a famous claim of professor Anis H. Bajrektarevic, restated in his 'Indonesia – Pivot to Asia' lectures. "South-south cooperation – as launched in Bandung 1955 – is an indispensable to this quest to 'Asian century'" – professor reminds us – "south-south is not a choice but necessity, more survival than a policy option".

Hence, let us conclude: Indonesia can also provide technical assistance and capacity-building on these critical issues. Indonesia's rich historical-political and socio-cultural experience in dealing with economic development and democratization are modalities that should be fully exploited in advancing South-South cooperation.

In short, discovering and achieving a consensus among the agencies responsible for the national coordination team of south-south and triangular cooperation can be an entry point in improving Indonesia's standing in global politics.



Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Major Challenges

Dr. Afifa Aisha Rahmat*

[The core of Human Resource Development is education, which plays a remarkable role in the socio-economic development of the country. Development of the citizens is dependent on the qualitative education and basic education leads to a better quality of life. Good quality education is the foundation of new discoveries, knowledge, innovation and entrepreneurship that triggers growth and prosperity of the individual as well as that of a nation. Government has started SSA in a mission mode program to provide elementary education to all children between the age of 6-14. Program succeeded to a large extent but could not achieve its objectives. Implementation has certain flaws which have to be identified and corrective measures should be taken. This paper highlights major challenges confronting sarva shiksha abhiyan.]

A strong education system is the cornerstone of any country's growth and development. Education, has a great social importance specially in the modern and complex societies. The primary aim of education is to maintain individual and societal improvement. Education plays a crucial role in the social and individual progress. Social progress clearly indicates a general development in the community in terms of economic, social, cultural aspects. education is among the basic foundations of socio-economic development. Development is the central purpose of any government, especially for the Third World and underdeveloped countries.

Education encourages democracy. democracy in any large and complex society depends on literacy. Literacy allows full participation of the people in democratic processes. Literacy is a product of education. Educational system has thus economic as well as political significance. Development is not possible without citizen's participation. Despite the second largest population in the world, India could not be able to convert its population liability into human capital in the absence of strong formal education system. India has so many problems with its

elementary education system that can be classified as structural and behavioural.

India's commitment to free and compulsory elementary education and literacy for all dates back to the drafting of the nation's constitution. Article 45 of the Constitution stipulates that the state shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution, free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years, and these goals were re-examined and reframed in 1986 when the National Policy on Education was inaugurated.

The National Policy on Education 1986 and Programme of Action 1992 also accorded top priority for achieving the goals of Universal Elementary Education with the world Declaration on Education for All (EPA) adopted in Jometin in 1990. This new policy led to the adoption of several new programmes, including "Operation Blackboard" (which sought to improve access to schools and infrastructure in schools) and the setting of minimum levels of learning for each grade in primary school. Due to these interventions, initiated by Government of India and the respective state Governments, there has been considerable progress in providing access, improving retention and the quality improvement in primary education sector.

* Guest Faculty, Pub. Admin. Program, Dept of Pol. Sc., BBAU, Lucknow (U.P.)

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is a flagship programme of Government of India to attain Universal Elementary Education (UEE), covering the whole country in a mission mode. SSA has been launched in 2001-2002 in partnership with the State Governments and Local-Self Governments. SSA aims to provide elementary education to all children in the 6 to 14 age group by 2010. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is an attempt to fill this vacuum and covers all the districts in the country unlike the earlier programmes on elementary education.

The programme covers the whole gamut of elementary education sector and is flexible enough to incorporate new interventions like specific interventions for girls, e.g., NPEGEL, Kasturba Gandhi Programme. The programme focuses on bridging gender and social category gaps at elementary education level with time bound objectives. SSA is an umbrella programme covering other programmes like District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), Lok Jumbish, Operational Blackboard, etc. The SSA became the most comprehensive among all efforts initiated by the Government of India before 2010 and was approved by the union cabinet in November 2000 as a centrally-sponsored scheme.

It is an initiative to universalize and improve quality of education through decentralized and context-specific planning and a process-based, time-bound implementation strategy. Foreign assistance was accepted for several projects which aimed at extending the coverage of primary education in India and improving its quality in innovative ways. SSA adopts, “the bottom-up” process of planning, wherein the felt needs of the served communities and educational needs of learners are well taken care of and the plan fits into the broad framework of SSA.

In view of the fact that the desired improvement and sustenance of the improved efficiency level cannot be achieved without the active involvement of the community in the schooling system, SSA has emphasized the involvement of

local people and stakeholders in planning. This also ensures reflection of local specificity, which is essential for achieving the goals of the programme.

The need to address inadequacies in retention, residual access, particularly of unreached children, and the questions of quality, are the most compelling reasons for the insertion of Article 21A in the Constitution of India. The 86th Constitutional Amendment of 2002 led to inclusion of a new Article 21-A in part III of the Constitution that made free and compulsory education to all children of 6 to 14 years of age. It is imperative to give good quality elementary education to all children in the age group of 6 to 14 years. With the launch of RTE, SSA became the main vehicle for the implementation of RTE Act. This is a fundamental shift, as the RTE Act is a legal framework, and its provisions for free and compulsory elementary education are legally enforceable matters of law.

This is a crucial and fundamental distinction between SSA as it was and SSA post- RTE, heralding important changes in the ways that education must be conceptualized and delivered. With the passing of the Act, the MHRD issued a new SSA framework, stating: “The changes are not merely confined to norms for providing teachers or classrooms, but encompass the vision and approach to elementary education as evidenced in the shift to child entitlements and quality elementary education.” The Implementation Framework of the SSA has, in fact, been revised to coordinate with the provisions of the RTE Act. A comprehensive monitoring mechanism has also been put in place to ensure smooth implementation of the SSA.

Objectives of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

- All children to be in schools, Education Guarantee Scheme centres, alternate schools, back-to-school camps by 2003;
- all children to complete five years of primary schooling by 2007;

- all children to complete eight years of schooling by 2010;
- focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life;
- bridge all gender and social disparities at the primary stage by 2007 and at the upper primary level by 2010;
- and universal retention by 2010..(planning commission)document for reference

The major characteristics of SSA are

- A programme with a clear time frame for universal elementary education.
- A response to the demand for quality basic education all over the country.
- An opportunity for promoting social justice through basic education.
- An effort at effectively involving the Panchayati Raj Institutions, School Management Committees, Village and Urban Slum Level Education Committees, Parents' Teachers' Associations, Mother Teacher Associations, Tribal Autonomous Councils and other grass roots level structures in the management of elementary schools.
- An expression of political will for universal elementary education across the country.
- A partnership between the Central, State and local government
- An opportunity for States to develop their own vision of elementary education.

Basic Features of SSA

- Institutional reforms in states.
- Sustainable financing in partnership with states (IX Plan 85:15, X Plan 75:25, After X plan 50:50).
- Community ownership of school based interventions through effective decentralization.

- Institutional capacity building for improvement in quality.
- Community based monitoring with full transparency in all aspects of implementation.
- Community based approach to planning with a habitation as a unit of planning.
- A mainstreaming gender approach.
- Focus on the educational participation of children from the SC/ST, religious and linguistic minorities, etc.
- Thrust on quality and making education relevant.
- Recognition of critical role of teacher and focus on the human resource development needs of teachers
- Preparation of District Elementary Education Plans reflecting all governmental and non-governmental investments.

The right to free and compulsory education Act 2009 provides a justiciable legal framework that entitles all children between the age of 6-14 years free and compulsory admission attendance and completion of elementary education. It provides for children's right to an education of equitable quality, based on principles of equity and non-discrimination. Most importantly, it provides for children's right to an education that is free from fear, stress and anxiety.

Education has an inherent value for the development of the society and helps in the realization of a better social order. Education and development are the two sides of same coin. Greater literacy and basic education help individuals to make better use of available economic opportunities. The Government has taken a major initiative by launching the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, which aims at universalisation of elementary education within a given time frame, in partnership with states. These initiatives led to significant spatial and numerical expansion of elementary schools in the country.

Today, access and enrolment at the primary stage of education have reached very close to universal levels. The number of out-of-school children at the elementary level has reduced significantly. The gender gap in elementary education has narrowed and the percentage of enrolled children belonging to scheduled castes and tribes has increased successively. Quality is the prime concern of education. Data and figures show that enrolment and retention rate in schools increases day by day but the quality remains a primary concern. Quality is the biggest challenge for the SSA despite the appointment of appropriate number of teachers the quality of their training is an important issue.

Himachal Pradesh's initiative for "learning standards" is worth notice which should inspire other states. The implementation of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan will result in a significant increase in the number of children completing elementary education. It is important that the Centre make adequate provision of funds for the fulfillment of the objectives of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan and this has to be backed by a complementary on the part of the states. Resource budgeted for education is not an expenditure but a crucial and profitable investment. The programme cannot succeed without proper utilisation of the available funds. SSA envisages cooperation between teachers, parents and PRIs, as well as accountability and transparency to the community. Community ownership of schools which was envisaged as the backbone for the successful implementation of the program at the grassroot level has met with partial success. The funds that are allocated for SSA are misused.

There is also a need for capacity building at all levels to make the programme self-sustainable. Improvement in quality requires a sustainable support system of resource persons and institutions. Infrastructural facilities are still far behind the expectations and need. Adequate structural arrangement is the basic requirement for any policy / program to be successful.

Ironically, even after 70 years of independence we are not able to provide the basic facilities to

the government school to draw the attention of local people. School must serve the purpose of education whether in public domain or private domain. Government schools should shift their focus from literacy to skill development which in a broader context is helpful in economic development as well. Education is a tool that helps in developing a perspective to understand and analyse any phenomenon. Government should focus on education in a wider perspective and the real goals of education.

Effective mechanisms have to be evolved to transfer responsibility for funds and personnel to PRIs so as to assign greater role to them as envisaged in the Constitution. Government has started so many schemes to attract the people towards the school but could not achieve the desired results. Objectives of the education cannot be achieved without the participation of all stakeholder— the central government, the states, local government bodies, teachers, parents, NGOs, academic institutions and the children themselves. The parents individually and community collectively has to play a positive role in elementary education. Parents should send their ward daily to school while the teacher should be made accountable for learning outcome of the student.

Administration must also be responsive to the needs of the elementary education system. Upliftment of primary education system is not a one-dimension activity, without active citizen participation it is not possible for the government to achieve the goals of education. The implementation of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan with the involvement of all the stakeholders must ultimately result in a transparent and broad-based system of education.

The need to impart value-based education to the children at the elementary stage can hardly be overemphasized. The essential elements of such education should be based on the development of concern towards the needs of society and the nation among the children. In this contemporary world, the value should also be based on the

functional utility of education and should highlight the dignity of labour. The idea of creation of wealth should be incorporated into the education system.

The most important contribution of education is not only to upgrade the living standards of citizens but also to enable them to become better citizens. In addition to being a human right, education today is a prerequisite for development and also an effective means for both taking knowledge-based decisions and improving democracy. Education improves and strengthens developmental capacities of individuals, communities, groups, institutions, and countries.

References

1. Ayyar, Vaidyanatha R.V. (January 2005), "What Lessons Can DPEP Offer?", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, Volume XIX, No. 1, pp. 49-65.
2. Beteille, Andre (July 2007), "The School and the Community", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, Volume XXI, No. 3, pp. 191-201.
3. Das, Amarendra (2007), "How Far Have We come in Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan?" *EPW*, January 6, 2007, pp. 21-23.
4. Department of Elementary Education and Literacy (year not known), *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Framework for Implementation*, MHRD, New Delhi.
5. Kainth, Gursharan Singh (2006), "A Mission Approach to Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan", *EPW*, July 29, 2006, pp. 3288-3291.
6. Kothari, Uma and Martin Minogue (2002), *Development Theory and Practice: Critical Perspectives*, Palgrave
7. Ministry of Human Resource Development. 2011. *SSA Framework Revised*. New Delhi, MHRD, GoI. http://ssa.nic.in/page_portletlinks?foldername=ssa-framework
8. J. Mitra, Sanjay and Shashi Kant Verma (June 1997), "Why Governments Devolve: A Study Using Data from Indian States", *Development Discussion Paper No. 586*, Harvard Institute for International Development.
9. National University of Educational Planning and Administration. 2008. *Education for All Mid-Decade Assessment: Reaching the Unreached*. New Delhi, NUEPA.
10. National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration. 2007. *Workshop on District Planning Under DPEP (Report)*. 22-23 December 1997. New Delhi, NIEPA.
11. Raina, Vinod (2002), "Decentralisation of Education", In R. Govinda (ed.) (2002), *India Education Report: A Profile of Basic Education*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, pp.111-120.
12. Raza, Moonis and et al. (1990), *School Education in India: The Regional Dimension*, NIEPA, New Delhi.
13. Ramachandran, V. 2001. *Community participation in primary education. Innovations in Rajasthan*, *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 36, No. 25, pp. 2244-2250.
14. Ramachandran, V. and Sharma, S. 2009. Introduction, in R. Sharma and V. Ramachandran (eds.) *the Elementary Education System in India: Exploring Institutional Structures, Processes and Dynamics*, New Delhi, Routledge.
15. UNESCO. 2014. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/4: Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all*. Paris, UNESCO.
16. Zajda, Joseph (2002), "Education and Policy: Changing Paradigms and Issues", *International Review of Education*, 48(1/2).
17. <http://ssa.nic.in/> <http://www.countercurrents.org/teltumbde130512.htm>
18. <http://www.indiasanitationportal.org/18618> <http://www.jagranjosh.com/current-affairs/education-development-index-edi-201213-releasedby-neupa-1386583112-1>
19. http://www.telegraphindia.com/1140130/j_s_p/o_p_i_n_i_o_n/story_17877155.jsp#.UwXnpGKSzfi



Corruption in Poverty Alleviation Programmes in Rural Assam

Jayanta Kr. Dutta* & Dr. Deba Kr. Datta**

[Corruption is a form of dishonesty or criminal activity undertaken by a person or a group of persons or any organisation vested with a position of authority and uses that authority to acquire illegal benefit. So far political corruption is concerned it occurs when an officer or other government employee act in an official capacity for personal benefit.]

World Bank defines corruption as the “abuse of public power for private benefit”. It further refers to it as one of the greatest obstacle to economic and social development. There are different types of corruption across the World and its magnitude and type of corruption vary across the World (Hooker, 2009). In India, the most popular types of corruption are bribery, kickbacks and nepotism. Bribery is defined as offering something desirable or something of value in exchange for getting something in return. For example, contributing money to a member of Gaon Panchayat to get a benefit of the government scheme is a case of bribery.

On the other hand, kickback is defined as a slang for a bribe or incentive paid to someone for their help. Another popular form of corruption is nepotism which is defined as favoritism granted to relatives or close friends without regard to their merit. Nepotism usually takes the form of employing relatives or appointing them to high office without merit.

Corruption can adversely affect the development programmes in the country. There is a close relationship between corruption and governance. It is true that corruption affects poverty by the channels reducing governance capacity such as decrease in the services that are provided by the government, hindering governance practices and many times it reduces the creditability of the rule

of law because where there is corruption there is violation of rules or laws.

According to United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) Report, 2010, in India 29.8 percent people live below poverty line. According to the latest Report of United Nations’ Millennium Goal Programme around 21.9 percent people are living below the poverty line in India. So far, the state of Assam is concerned, 40.5 percent people are living below poverty line in the rural area (HDR Survey, 2013).

Through in India the department of rural development and rural development ministers of all the states are implementing a number of programmes in rural areas for poverty alleviation, employment generation, rural infrastructure development and provision of basic minimum services, still we have not been able to eliminate poverty up to the expected level due to corruption at political and bureaucratic levels.

Review of Literature

The review of literature regarding poverty alleviation programmes and corruption is shortly stated below:

Olagbeji, O. (2003) in his paper ‘Hunger Allows Corruption to Thrive’ added that poverty alleviation programmes are another means of fighting against corruption. To remove corruption and poverty from Nigeria, the author gives importance to employment generation programmes and other social welfare activities

* Moridhal College, Dhemaji, Assam.

for the masses. This paper suggests that government should introduce poverty alleviation programmes and policies which will help in improving the living standard of the Nigerians.

Transparency International Secretariat's Global Programme on Poverty, in collaboration with the Policy and Research Department (2008) in their working paper 'Poverty and Corruption' analyzed the ways to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the target to end extreme global poverty by 2015. This work highlighted some of the linkages between poverty, inequality and corruption. By comparing Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) with their human development rankings, they stated that there is a strong correlation between corruption and development. This work also shows that low rate of corruption of the countries have the higher HDIs, and vice versa.

Aina Olu and Abuja (2014) in their paper 'How Corruption Contributes to Poverty', attempted to evaluate corruption and poverty in the grassroots level in Nigeria where large number of people are poor. The study shows that due to corruption in Nigeria huge public funds were misused for which proper infrastructural development, improvement of human capital and production capabilities, healthcare etc. had greatly affected. The study found that because of corruption, the poor people of Nigeria became poorer and Nigeria is still counted among the states of the world having highest number of poor people. However, several challenges have emerged through various anti-corruption measures which ultimately determine how far Nigeria can go in its efforts to eradicate poverty.

Ildirar Mustafa and Iscan Erhan (2015) in their paper 'Corruption, Poverty and Economic Performance: Eastern Europe and Central Asian (ECA) Countries' tried to examine the relation between corruption, poverty, and economic performance by using a panel data with estimating econometric model consisting of countries in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia countries. This study shows that corruption does not lead to

poverty directly rather it gives rise to poverty through indirect channels by affecting socio-economic, administrative and political conditions. They identified that corruption affects the quality of government services and the shape of public expenditures, employment levels and income distribution etc. Further they suggested some measures such as laws and control, good governance to check corruption and eradicate poverty for improving the condition.

India Corruption Study Report (2007), conducted jointly by Transparency International and Centre for Media Study, described that corruption level in Assam was "alarming" and Assam ranked as most corrupt state in India. The study conducted 11 basic services including housing service, education, NREGAs etc., which showed that corruption level was very high in all the sectors in Assam. This study also suggested some measures to control corruption in these sectors.

Centre for Media Study Report (2017) states that virus of corruption is present at the grassroots level of the local government system of Assam but it is decreasing slowly owing to the initiative of the Government, public awareness and Media's cooperation etc. According to this report, corruption in Assam has decreased to 18 percent during 2017 as against 34 percent in 2005.

Objectives

The main objectives of the present study are as follows:

1. To make a critical evaluation of the poverty alleviation programmes in the state of Assam.
2. To analyze how poverty alleviation programmes are affected by corruption.
3. To explain the factors which are mainly responsible for corruption in the execution of poverty alleviation programmes in the state of Assam.
4. To help in further studies regarding these problems.

Methodology

The present study is basically empirical in nature. The study is based on both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary data are collected directly from the respondents during field study through random sampling method. The secondary data are collected from the published government records, National and State Institute of Rural Development, National Sample Survey Organization, Offices of Rural Development, Office of the Block Development, books and journals, periodicals and websites etc.

Statement of the Problem

Assam is a rural based state. The total population of the state is 3,11,69,272, out of this total population 2,67,80,516 lives in villages. Again, among the total rural population of the state total rural male population is 1,36,89,739 and while the total rural female population is 1,30,9,077. The sex ratio of male and female of the state is 1000:954. In the state, 85.91 percent people live in rural areas. (Census Report, Govt. of India 2011). The Government of India and the State Government have taken various steps through different poverty alleviation programmes to reduce poverty. But unfortunately, the condition of rural people is not satisfactory because it is found that till now 40.5 percent of the rural people are living below the poverty line (HDR Survey, 2013).

The present BJP Government of Assam assured the people of the state that corruption will be eliminated from all levels of administration and there will be zero tolerance against corruption. During 2018, a large number of higher administrative officers have been arrested in Assam for allegations of corruption. There are many factors which are responsible for poverty in rural India and one of the important factors in this regard is corruption. In the state of Assam also corruption stands as barrier in the way of rural development.

Poverty is a socio-economic phenomenon in which a section of society is unable to fulfil its basic needs of life. It is one of the serious issues in most of the developing countries like India. In

India, despite a number of poverty alleviation programmes (PAPs) with a considerable budget support, the Government has not been able to reduce poverty significantly. One of the reasons for limited success of PAPs is the prevalence of corruption at grassroots level (Bardhan, 1997).

However, till today, very limited studies have been undertaken to understand the prevalence of corruption in rural areas of Assam in implementing poverty alleviation programmes. With this background, an attempt has been made to study and evaluate poverty alleviation programmes (PAPs) and to examine factors associated with corruption at the grassroots level in rural Assam.

Brief Outline of Some Poverty Alleviation Programmes:

Some important poverty alleviation programmes (PAPs) which are executing in Assam may be explained as follows:

- a. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA)** : National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGA) was launched by the Government of India in 2005 with the aim of enhancing livelihood security of rural households by providing 100 days of unskilled manual work every year to the rural poor in the country. According to the scheme, job cards are provided to all adult members of household who want to do unskilled manual work under the Gaon Panchayat after verification. During the year 2008-09, all the 27 districts of Assam were covered under this programme. During the period 2006-07 to 2009-10, total job cards holders in the State were 36.12 lakh (cumulative total) out of which Schedule Castes (SCs) and Schedule Tribes (STs) job card holders were 9.82 lakh (27 percent). The Government of Assam spent Rs.637.56 crore in 2015-16. (mnregaweb4.nic.in)
- b. Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme (IGNOAPS)** : The Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme

(IGNOAPS) is a social sector scheme and a part of the National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) which had come into effect from 15th August, 1995. It is a non-contributory old age pension scheme that covers Indians who live below poverty line and whose age is 60 years and above. The Government of India under IGNOAPS provides Rs. 200 per pensioner per month and Government of Assam provides Rs.50 per pensioner per month as Minimum Mandatory Provision (MMP). So, all the beneficiaries aged 60-79 receive a monthly pension of Rs.250. But when the beneficiaries reach 80 years and above they receive a monthly pension of Rs.500. According to a report of Government of Assam, during the financial year 2016-2017, total beneficiaries under IGNOAPS were 78,5,836.

- c. Pradhan Mantri Awaas Yojana (PMAY) :** Pradhan Mantri Awaas Yojana (PMAY), formerly known as Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY), a scheme of the Ministry of Rural Development, has been implemented for providing assistance to the BPL families who are either homeless or having inadequate housing facilities for constructing a safe and durable shelter. When scheme was called IAY, the beneficiaries were selected from the BPL list of the BPL census 2002. From 2016-17, beneficiaries are selected taking SECC (Socio-Economic and Caste Census), 2011 as the base data.

For providing housing facilities to the urban poor, Government of India has decided to provide 2 crore homes in urban area by the year 2022 which has already been launched in June 2015. In case of rural area, the Government of India has decided to build 1.65 lakh houses in 2017. In Assam, PMAY scheme began from February, 2017 and Government of Assam extended this scheme to all 97 towns in Assam. The selections of beneficiaries start from the Panchayat level and reach all the way to Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation. The Government of Assam has

already started to construct 1,64,245 pucca houses in the year 2016-17. (www.Sarkariyojana.co.in)

- d. Mukhya Mantri Anna Suraksha Yojana (MMASY) :** The Chief Minister of Assam launched the Mukhya Mantri Anna Suraksha Yojana (MMASY) on 2 October 2010. At the very beginning of the scheme, 10,000 families were selected under each Legislative Assembly (LA) Constituency by a notified selection committee under the supervision of Deputy Commissioner. Later on, the target was increased to 15, 000 families under each LA Constituency. In this scheme the beneficiaries were provided 20 kg of rice to each family per month at Rs.6 per kg against a special FIC (Family Identity Card).

The scheme has now been converted to the National Food Security Act (NFSA'13) where most of the families of MMASY have been included. In Assam NFSA,13 has been implemented since December 2015 and under this food security scheme, 84.17 percent of rural population and 60.35 percent of urban population (as per Census 2011) are covered to distribute rice at the rate of Rs.3.00 per kg. The total number of beneficiaries under NFSA,13 is 2.52 crore poorest families of the state. Under NFSA'13 in the state there are only two types of ration cards i.e.- Antodhaya Anna Yojana (AAY) card and Priority Household (PH) card.

Government of Assam has been implementing many rural development schemes for a long time and spends cores of rupees, but a large number of rural poor have not been able to get benefits from these Poverty Alleviation schemes. Corruption is one of the vital causes of failures of rural development programme in the State.

- e. Chief Minister's Assam Bikash Yojana :** Under the scheme of Chief Minister's Assam Bikash Yojana, interested families of below poverty line of the rural areas are provided with Rickshaw or Goods-Carrier. Target was

made to provide 2566 number of rickshaws and 3534 Goods-Carriers designed by IIT, Guwahati, Assam and for this purpose fund was released by the government. But the work could not be completed during the period 2009-2010 and had continued up to 2010-2011

f. Atal- Amrit Abhiyan : ‘Atal- Amrit Abhiyan’ health insurance scheme which provides coverage against several critical illnesses namely, cardiovascular, cancer, kidney, neo-natal, neurological conditions and burns. This Scheme is Launched in Assam by the BJP led Government to mark the 92nd birthday of former prime minister Atal Bihari Vajpayee. The scheme offers coverage against 437 illnesses in six disease groups. The BPL and APL families whose annual income is below 5 lakh are eligible to take the benefit of the scheme. Claiming that this scheme is the biggest healthcare initiative by any state government, financial outlay of the scheme is around 200 crores.

Credit goes to the Health Minister of Assam Dr. Himanta Biswa Sarma who took care not only for the proper execution of the scheme of Atal Amrit Abhiyan but also, he has been able to bring a positive change in the medical department wherefrom the poor families have got various facilities for healthcare.

Poverty alleviation Programmes and Corruption

In the present study the researcher has tried to find out how far corruption has stood as a barrier in the execution of poverty alleviation programmes and so some information has been collected relating to this matter from 200 respondents of different places of the state. It may be noted here that corruption is generally found in three levels such as corruption at individual level, corruption at administrative level and corruption at political level.

The researcher at first tried to know from the respondents which level of corruption was

mainly responsible for failure of some poverty alleviation programmes. The information collected from the respondents made it clear that the corruption at individual level is mainly responsible for not securing expected results of some poverty alleviation programmes. 80 % of the respondents supported this view. At the same time, the respondents also opined that during the time of the present BJP-led government in the state, corruption though not fully stopped still it is reduced to a large extent.

Hereafter, it was tried to know from the respondents as to why some rural people pay bribe to the officers or representatives at the grassroot level for securing the benefits of the poverty alleviation programmers. It is found from the collected opinion of the respondents that generally bribe is given for the following reasons.

1. To get selection as beneficiaries through he/she is not liable for securing the benefit of the scheme.
2. To get the benefits of a scheme not being a member of BPL family, though the scheme is restricted only for the members of BPL
3. To get the benefits of PMAY though conditions are not fulfilled by the beneficiaries.
4. To get double benefits by a single beneficiary in case of some schemes.
5. Due to indirect pressure of some officers for bribe.
6. To avoid the official red-tapism.
7. Due to illiteracy some beneficiaries are afraid of facing related officers and so provide bribe to the middleman to get the benefits. etc.

Regarding corruption at political level, the researcher placed a question before the respondents and the question was: ‘What is the main reason for involvement of the political person in corruption?’

In response to the above question more than 75% respondents said that the main reason for the involvement of political person in corruption is

that through corruption they try to manage the election expenses, though some politicians get involved in corruption for their personal benefits. The view of remaining 25% respondents is that politicians get involved in corruption to speed up the bureaucratic procedure by their political power.

It is found that, like other parts of India, in Assam also corruption at administrative level is responsible for not securing the expected goal of the poverty alleviation programmes. To find out the reasons and impact of corruption on the poverty alleviation programmes at administrative level, the researcher placed some questions before the respondents. The first question in this regard was: "What are the main reasons for corruption in administrative level?" In response to the question the respondents mentioned some reasons which may be stated as below.

1. At administrative level, some officers bring some procedural complexity in the execution of the programmes with the hope of bribe.
2. Some beneficiaries provide bribe to the officer for making his selection confirmed as beneficiary without fulfilling requisite conditions.
3. Some officers take the advantage of illiteracy and ignorance of the beneficiaries and involve in corruption.
4. Some officers are compelled to take bribe to satisfy their political bosses according to their direction.

Conclusion

We cannot hope proper development of rural areas if we cannot restrain corruption in the implementation of poverty alleviation programmes. The corrupt practices, whatever their extent may be, which are prevalent in the implementation of the rural development programmes have led to loss of public funds which could have been better utilized to embark on rural development programmes. It is not possible only for government to stop corruption, public should be conscious and keep watch on

the implementation of the rural development programmes for the greater interest of the nation.

References

1. Aina, Olu and Abuja (2014): 'How Corruption Contributes to Poverty', Paper presented at the *International Conference on Development of Social Enterprise and Social Business for Eradication of Extreme Poverty and Street Begging*, Bangladesh, December, 2014.
2. Bardhan, P. (1997): 'Corruption and Development: A Review of Issues', *Journal of Economic Literature*. pp.1320-1346
3. Centre for Media Studies (2008): *India Corruption Study-2008*, Published by the Transparency International India, New Delhi - 110 024
4. Gogoi, J. K. (ed.) (2004): 'Introduction', *Rural Indebtedness in NE India*, published by the Department of Economics, Dibrugarh University.
5. Government of India (2009): *Kurukshetra*, Journal of Rural Development, Ministry of Rural Development, New Delhi, November, 2009, p. 27
6. Government of Assam (2010-2011): *Economic Survey*, Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Assam, June 2011.
7. Ildirar, Mustafa and Iscan, Erhan (2015): 'Corruption, Poverty and Economic Performance: Eastern Europe and Central Asian (ECA) Countries', *International Conference on Eurasian Economics*, Session 4a: Growth and Development, 2015
8. Olagebeji, O (2003): 'Hunger Allows Corruption to Thrive', *This Day*, December 27
9. Transparency International- Secretariat's Global Programme on Poverty, in collaboration with the Policy and Research Department (2008): 'Poverty and Corruption', www.transparency.org, *TI Working Paper*, February, 2008



The Coming of Christianity in Manipur & the Meiteis

Doulet Khongsai* & Dr. Laishram K. Devi**

[Manipur is miniature of India with multi-religious people inhabiting harmoniously having different religious faith. The ancient or original faith of the Meitei and other people groups was animistic faith of religion. But later on, different religious faiths were brought in to Manipur and some of them were deeply rooted in the fertile hearts of the Meiteis and the land.]

Each religion has its own teachings which brings changes in the lives of the people, society and culture. Unlike any other religion, Undoubtedly, Christianity has made a tremendous impact in the lives of the people and the land; nonetheless, it has been considered as of foreign origin and a religion of the downtrodden people. Christianity aims at leading the people from darkness to light and bring equality among human beings and develop the society.

The coming of Christianity in Manipur

Compared to Hinduism, Christianity came to Manipur very late. Christianity came to Manipur in the late 19th century (1894). The pioneer Christian missionary to come to Manipur was William Pettigrew. He was born in Edinburgh in 1869 and educated at Livingstone College in London. He belonged to the Anglican Church and came to India as a missionary under the Arthington Aborigines Mission. He came to Bengal late in 1890 and went to Dacca and Silchar for some time.

Pettigrew heard about the Anglo-Manipuri War of 1891 and the massacre of the British officers by the Meiteis at Kangla. The tragedy moved him to apply permission to enter Manipur and preach the gospel to the Meiteis who tamed the head hunters of the land and mighty British. Because of the tragedy the British political agent denied permission to enter Manipur. While applying

permission he moved to Silchar in February 1892 and lived among the Meiteis in Cachar and learned Manipuri.

During those days the administration of Manipur was under chief Political Agent Major Maxwell because the King Churachand was a minor. But during Maxwell's furlough A. Porteous came in as Acting Political Agent of Manipur. Again, Pettigrew applied for permission and this time A Porteous granted him permission to enter Manipur in December 1893. After obtaining the permission he soon came to Imphal on the 6th February 1894 to begin his mission.

The permission given to William Pettigrew by Acting Political Agent was to start school not for the proclamation of the Good News of Jesus Christ. But for Pettigrew, his main objective was not school but proclamation of the Gospel of Jesus Christ to the Meiteis. By taking the advantage to start school, he began to speak about Christianity whenever he found the opportunity. As he continued his work by tutoring the children of the government officials, he did his mission work as well.

Unfortunately, he was ordered to discontinue the work by Major Maxwell on his return from the furlough. The reason for discontinuation of the work of Pettigrew could be because of preaching the Gospel among the Meitei Hindus and the conversion of Angom Porom Singh, a Meitei boy from an outcast Lois of Chakpa Phayeng Village.

In order to start the mission work, William Pettigrew moved out from Imphal to the hill areas to select mission centre. According to the first traditions or Southern tradition, he went to

* Principal of Kangui Christian College, Kangpokpi Manipur.

** Research Scholar, Dept of History, Manipur University.

Senvon, a Kuki village in the southern part of Manipur and asked Kamkholun Singson, chief of the village to sell plot of land to the missionary to establish his centre. The chief rejected the petition of Pettigrew. The second or the northern traditions said that he went to Mao Songsong, the northern part of Manipur, and asked Dobashi Sani Kapani, chief of the Village to sell plot of land to him for establishing his centre. The Chief rejected the petition of Pettigrew.

Then, he went to Ukhrul, east of Manipur which is the third tradition. He was permitted by Raihao, the chief of Ukhrul to establish the mission centre. William Pettigrew selected Ukhrul as the mission centre and began his mission by establishing schools. Later on, Christianity continued to spread in Manipur.

While William Pettigrew was concentrating his missionary work in the east, another foreign missionary came to Churachandpur, southern part of Manipur. It was on 5th February 1910 that a Welsh missionary named Watkin R. Robert arrived at Senvawn from Aizawl. He came to Senvawn at the invitation of Kamkholun Singson, the village chief who had denied permission to William Pettigrew.

The Meiteis and Christianity

Hinduism was at the peak of its popularity on the soil of Manipur, particularly among the Meiteis. The ancient Meitei religion was subdued by Hinduism as the King Garibniwaz declared Hinduism as State religion. The Vaishnavite Hindu Meitei even felt Meitei religion as lower than Hinduism. There was social barrier among the Meitei society as well as in the state. During this period, Christianity was brought into by Rev. William Pettigrew.

The Chakpas were one of the early settlers of the land. The Chakpas were Phayeng, Andro, Sekmai, Leimaram, Koutruk, Khurkhul and Chairen. The Chakpas were settled at the surrounding of Kangla, the heart of Manipur Valley. Later on, they were outcast from the Hindu society for not being accepting Hinduism.

Angom Porom Singh was handed over to William Pettigrew by his father Angom Thambou Singh of Phayeng Makha Leikai, an outcast Chakpa Loi Village. William Pettigrew accepted the boy from his father and adopted him while he was at Imphal. As he was with the missionary, he got his primary education and the teaching of Christianity. As a boy, Porom Singh accepted Jesus Christ and was baptized on 3rd January, 1896 at Moirangkhom River, Imphal. The news of Porom Singh's conversion into Christianity reached the ears of the authorities.

The then Political Agent withdrew permission from Pettigrew to work at Imphal but fortunately, he was given a provision to work among the tribals, as he wanted to work at his own risk. The mission of William Pettigrew was to spread the Good News of Jesus Christ to the Meiteis in the Valley of Manipur but in the reverse, he had to shift his mission to the tribals. Although he was not allowed to work among the Meiteis, he felt that he got an opportunity to work among the tribals. And he left his unfulfilled task to the tribal Christians of Manipur to fulfill his mission to the Meiteis.

William Pettigrew headed towards Ukhrul to begin the missionary work. At Ukhrul, Porom Singh continued his schooling and thereafter he became headmaster of the Mission School and in the wake of shifting of the Christian Mission Centre from Ukhrul to Kangpokpi, Porom Singh again became the headmaster of Kangpokpi Mission School.

The impact of Christianity on the Meiteis

Christianity came to wield a great impact in the life and society of the Meiteis as well as in the state. Although the majority of Meiteis and the Vaishnavite Hindu Meiteis considered Christianity as the religion of the tribals, still they considered the tribals as uncivilized and inferior to them. The spirit and the love of brotherhood between the peoples of the valley and the hills was separated by the teaching of Hinduism.

The teaching of caste system created touchable and untouchables among the peoples. The

teachings of class and caste systems that had been printed in the minds of the Meiteis brought inequality and hatred among themselves. Since then there has been a wide range of gulf between the Hills and Valley.

Christianity is the bridge of hope and reconciliation. It gives light to the people who are in the darkness and brings hope and reconciliation to the people who turned their backs to each other. Christianity gave education, the spirit of forgiveness, love, equality, justice, belongingness, oneness to transform and reconcile the broken relationship.

The Western education brought by Christian missionaries had tremendous impact upon the Meiteis as well as in the land. There had been restriction on the people about the light of education according to the religion of the land. But the education given by Christianity to the people of all castes and creeds was a great light to the people who were in the darkness. The people of the land, especially the Meiteis, realized that Shantadas Goshai had blinded their eyes, mind and heart to develop such an inhuman attitude towards themselves (Meitei and Meitei Hindus) and towards the brothers residing in the hills. As the light of education dawned upon the land, superstitious and ignorant of caste system were erasing and a sense of oneness felt.

As the darkness disappears and the light shines, a sense of disappointment and ill feeling towards one another seems gone. The great barrier of untouchability and uncleanness of caste and creed became almost wiped out. The message of love preached by Christian missionaries and Christian community brought love, oneness, belongingness and equality among the people of valley and the hills. The Meitei Christians here play an important role in breaking the barrier between the valley and the hills. They play the role of mediator between the two who had turned their backs on each other.

Another impact exerted by Christians among the society is encouraging inter-caste/tribes' marriage. This could be done because of the sense of love, oneness and equality taught by Christian missionaries and testified by Christians.

Conclusion

Generally, the coming of Christianity in Manipur is the landmark in modern education in Manipur and the turning point of all round development of modern era. The coming of Christianity in Manipur, especially among the Meiteis, is an important part to make the land flourish in peace and harmony. The Meitei Christians connect between the hills and the valley, once alienated because of the new-found-faith brought into Manipur by Shanta Das Goshai.

References

1. Lal Dena, History of Manipur, 1894-1949, (New Delhi); Orbit Publishers, 1991, pp.105-106, 109-111.
2. Lal Dena, Christian Missions and Colonialism, (Shillong); Vendrame Institute, 1988, pp.31-35, 49-53.
3. K.M. Singh, History of Christian Mission in Manipur, (New Delhi); Mittal Publication, 1991, pp.56-63.
4. F.S. Downs, The Mighty Works of God, (Guwahati, Christian Literature Centre, 1971), pp.75-78.
5. Tongkhojang Lunkim, Multiplying Pure Meitei Churches in Manipur Valley, (Imphal; Kuki Christian Church), 1988, pp.25-28.
6. T. Luikham, A Short History of the Manipur Baptist Christians, 1948, (Ukhrul; North East Christian Association, 1948), pp.10-15.
7. Th. Daneshwor, The Diary of Angom Porom Singh, (Kangchup; L. Tombi Devi, 2010), pp.1-7.
8. Elungkeibe Zeliang, A History of the Manipur Baptist Convention, (Imphal; Manipur Baptist Convention, 2005), pp.19-22, 28-29.
9. Meitei Baptist Association, Silver Jubilee Committee Souvenir MBA Silver Jubilee 1982-2007, (Wangjing; MBA, Souvenir Committee 2008), pp.62-71.
10. John Parratt; The Wounded Land, (New Delhi; Mittal Publication, 2005), pp.62-71.



Linking CSR and Community Development

Dhavaleshwar C U* & Dr. Swadi S Y**

[The present paper attempts to explore CSR practices in support of community development activities in Belgaum district of Karnataka state, India. Community development is generally considered to be a core component of social work practice and knowledge. Paper is designed with both the primary sources and secondary sources like academic articles, online journals, expert's expressions and self-observations to comprehend and analyse the new wave of community development. Researchers visited Hindalco Industries Limited Belgaum and Dalmia Cement (Bharat) Ltd, Cement Manufacturer, Yadawad, premises for this purpose and collected data from Benefiters of the CSR activities through self-prepared tools. Results of CSR activities in community development boosted by the inclusion of the CSR mandate under the Companies Act, 2013 is an attempt to supplement the government's efforts of equitably delivering the benefits of growth and to engage the Corporate World with the country's development agenda. Especially as a result of CSR activities implemented in these particular areas, the income of the benefiters increased and quality of life is improved considerably.]

The Ministry of Corporate Affairs has notified Section 135 and Schedule VII of the Companies Act 2013 as well as the provisions of the Companies (Corporate Social Responsibility Policy) Rules, 2014 to come into effect from April 1, 2014.

Every company, private limited or public limited, which either has a net worth of Rs 500 crore or a turnover of Rs 1,000 crore or net profit of Rs 5 crore, needs to spend at least 2% of its average net profit for the immediately preceding three financial years on corporate social responsibility activities. The CSR activities should not be undertaken in the normal course of business and must be with respect to any of the activities mentioned in Schedule VII of the 2013 Act.

Contribution to any political party is not considered to be a CSR activity and only activities in India would be considered for computing CSR expenditure. Looking at the conditions of Act, corporate sector implemented

many innovative programmes to promote community life. Undoubtedly, CSR activities are contributing towards increased income of benefiters and integrated community development.

Objectives of the Study

1. To develop an understanding of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Community Development (CD).
2. To examine the Contribution of HINDALCO and Dalmia - CSR activities for community development.

Methodology

Research Design

Descriptive method was taken into consideration to examine Community Development activities. Observations of programmes implemented in the community having been done and being described along with the opinion of the benefiters' regarding the community development efforts by the corporates have been collated for the purpose of this study.

* Research Scholar, Dept. of Social Work, Karnataka University, Dharwad, Karnataka.

**Prof., Dept. of Social Work, Karnataka University, Dharwad, Karnataka

Universe of the Study

The study was conducted in the villages where CSR activities were implemented by the HINDALCO and Dalmia cements Yadavad. The villages covered by HINDALCO are Yamanapur, Mutyanatti, Kakati, Basavanakolla, Kanabaragi, Kangralli BK, and Goundawad. Furthermore, villages covered by Dalmia Cement are: Yadawad, Koppadatti, Gulagonjikoppa, Mannomi, Kamanakatti, Kurbetti, Girisagar, Kunal, Chippalakatti, Budni (K), and Tondikati.

Methods of the data Collection

The study was conducted by researchers through collection of the primary data from beneficiaries of CSR activities implemented by the HINDALCO and Dalmia Cements Yadawad, Further, secondary sources of existing literature, books journals and other resources have also been used.

Sampling Technique and Size

Non-probability sample - A purposive sample is selected based on characteristics of a population and the objective of the study. The all 40 respondents, equally divided from HINDALCO and Dalmia Cements, of various socioeconomic backgrounds were interviewed.

Conceptual Framework

Corporate Social Responsibility

According to World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), corporate social responsibility is the continuing commitment by the business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large. (WBCSD Stakeholders Dialogue on CSR, The Netherlands, Sept 6-8, 1998)¹

Community Development

According to the United Nations Definition in 1948: "Community Development is a process

designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and fullest possible reliance upon the community's initiative."²

Review of Literature

The study by Sylvia Trendafiova, Vassilios Ziakas & Emily Sparvero (2016) investigates the attributes of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) programmes in sport and their potential for sustainable community development. Authors explain that the gap between sport-related CSR and community development needs to be filled by shifting attention to the capacity building of communities. While the neoliberal foundations of CSR are recognized, it is essential to understand the ideological varieties driving CSR that can enable inclusiveness and collaboration in fostering community benefits of CSR programmes.

Their paper contributes to the literature on CSR in sport advancing the discourse, and sets the stage for a community-based framework for research: (1) related to sport as a tool for social change; (2) exploring the relationship of organizational motives, stakeholder engagement and CSR programme design/implementation; and (3) evaluating the perceived benefits of CSR programmes, and the extent to which these can help achieve sustainable community development³.

The study undertaken by Veena Gautam, Alka Rani & Parveen Kumar (2017) explains that CSR as a concept states that organizations have a responsibility towards the society for their operations. CSR considered as a further step to improve the quality of life for their stakeholders as well as society at large. It means companies have to satisfy their shareholders and also managing the expectations of the stakeholders such as employees, consumers, suppliers, government and community at large.

Further, they explain that India has a long tradition in the field of CSR. In the last decade, CSR was

rapidly involved in India with some companies focusing on strategic CSR initiatives to contribute towards national building. Government has also made provisions related to CSR. According to New Company Act, 2013 Corporate must contribute 2 % of their net profits towards CSR which made Indian companies to consciously work towards CSR activities. The study has been an attempt to consider many key challenges along with various initiatives taken in the field of CSR⁴.

Acharya, J. * Patnaik, S.N. (2018) in their study have tried to explore and build knowledge on the corporate social responsibility (CSR) performances for community development and sustainability in the context of Rourkela Steel Plant of Steel Authority of India in Odisha, particularly in the wake of Companies Act, section 135, 2013. The paper looks at the conduct of CSR transitional strategy, if any, for delivering a range of activities while the amount of money spent on CSR is a common indicator of performance. The case is based on content analysis and narrative inquiry.

In-depth, open-ended personal interview and focus group discussion were conducted with project participants, women leaders, youth, community stakeholders, NGO partners and officials. This paper sets up an analytical framework that defines transitional strategies at different levels of communities in terms of production, organisations, governance, institutions and culture of relationships, noting how best to guide corporate towards sustainable community development through its CSR policy⁵.

Major Findings

1. Both the companies implemented many developmental activities for the development of the community members, 80% of activities are related to the income generation of the community.

2. Company has provided healthcare services directly through its hospital. Further, it is directly supporting the primary and community healthcare centers, among majority of 60% of the community members that make optimum use of primary health centre (PHC).
3. Company's contribution towards health sector, 60% of respondents opine that they have a good health. Hindalco is good in organising health checkup camps (90%), and Dalmia good in ambulance service (60%)
4. Literacy service as concern is taken care of. Anganawadi /Balawadi or similar institutions are maintained by the Hindalco and scholarship programs are utilized by 40% of the respondents. Whereas in case of Dalmia, 20% benefiterers opined that literacy is given less priority as compared to income generation.
5. Both the companies provided housing facility to employees and they are also provided with well-built road, water facility, electricity, drainage, gardens and parks in the public. Entire area of Hindalco is planted with the trees and green infrastructure. The ratio between these two companies in this regard is 100:80%.
6. Empowerment of various sections of the society is important part of the rural development, therefore, companies concentrate much on women empowerment. 80% respondents reported that they were provided with self-employment training. Further, employment opportunities are given to physically disabled and rehabilitation centre in collaboration with NGO is running. Overall, rural development ratio is 65:60
7. Welfare services as concern - 60% of respondents opine that single-parent's children are given care and protection. Also, orphans are being helped by the company. The ratio is 55:60

8. As a developmental concern - 80%:50% respondents opine that company provided playground facility for community members and 20:30% opine that community hall or club is also provided for social activities.
9. With the ratio of 100:90 % respondents accept that test and treatment of water is conducted regularly and pure drinking water is provided to community members. As environment as concerned, company has taken all the preventive measures.
10. Each 40% respondents opine that company concentrates more on infrastructure development, health services & increased literacy.
11. Public participation in relation with planning and implementation of CSR activities by both the firms it is came to know that company's involved 80% respondents as members of project formulation.
12. All the respondents opine that CSR activities of the both the firms are appropriate to overcome the difficulties faced by the community. CSR activities help in the sustainable development of community and by implementation of the CSR activities, quality of life of community members has improved.
13. Overall opinion by the community members of the Hindalco on community development through CSR activities reveals that 60% respondents opine they are highly satisfied and remaining 40% respondents feel satisfied with the rural development activities implemented through CSR. Whereas Dalmia benefiter's opinion shows that 95% respondents are highly satisfied and remaining 5% maintain neutrality in this regard.

Conclusion

Community development activities are very important in income generation, and increased

quality of life of the community members. Pertaining to this, corporate sector is investing huge resources. This study shows that Hindalco and Dalmia have felt serious responsibility about community development, hence their concentration on rural development, and they have set up both the soft and hard infrastructure, health services, literacy programme, technical education, housing facility, activities in relation to the income generation and quality of life. Collaboration with the NGOs and appointment of more social workers may boost the service vertically and horizontally.

References

1. Education tops corporate social responsibility spends community development next. http://articles.economictimes.indiatimes.com/2014-11-16/news/56137152_1_sustainability-activities-csr-activities-corporate-social-responsibility.09.11.2016 12.33pm.
2. <https://canadianglobalresponse.ca/portfolio/community-development/21.09.2018> 10.15am,
3. Sylvia Trendafiova, Vassilios Ziakas & Emily Sparvero, (2016), Linking corporate social responsibility in sport with community development: an added source of community value, Pages 938-956 | Published online: 24 Aug 2016, <https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2016.1221935>
4. Veena Gautam, Alka Rani & Parveen Kumar (2017), Corporate social responsibility: Challenges and Initiatives in India. *International Journal of Advanced Research and Development*, Volume 2; Issue 6; November 2017; pp. 364-367.
5. Acharya, J. & Patnaik, S.N. *Asian J Bus Ethics* (2018) 7: 53. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13520-017-0079-5>



Protective Legal Measures and Crime against Women

Dr. D. Loganayaki*

[The phrase ‘crime against women’ refers to crimes in which a woman becomes victim. The phrase contains two terms, viz., ‘crime and against women’. While the latter term refers only to those crimes in which the victim is female, the former term is meant by the acts which are legally forbidden, intentionally committed and punishable by courts. The definition of crime as “conduct which incurs the formal punitive pronouncements of the courts”, or that crime is “the violation of conduct norms of the normative groups”, the scope (of crime) becomes broader and more meaningful vis-à-vis violence against women.^{1]}

The Semantic meaning of ‘crime against women’ is direct or indirect physical or mental cruelty to women. Crimes which are directed specifically against women and in which ‘only women are victims’ are characterized as ‘Crime against Women’.²

Women in India face the most heinous crimes committed against them such as: rape, flesh trade, feticide, female infanticide, child abuse, wife battering, dowry-death, sati, financial exploitation, sexual exploitation of working women and female students etc. Undoubtedly, law is there to prevent all this; nonetheless, women are still oppressed, exploited, cheated, kept uneducated, financially dependent, mentally tortured morally run down and physically violated. A country’s socio-economic growth cannot reach its pinnacle if half of its population is cowed to be down and trodden.³

In recent years, there has been an alarming increase in atrocities and violence against women in the country, which implies that progressively a greater number of women are becoming victims of violence. The United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (UNCSW) defines violence against women to include “any act of gender-based violence that result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women.”

* Guest Lecturer, Dept of Pol. Sc., Thiruvalluvar Govt. Arts College, Rasipuram, Tamil Nadu.

Throughout history women in various continents of the world have been considered as the physically weaker sex. The gender differences and bias existing globally places the entire world at various disadvantageous positions. Crimes against women are assertion of dominance over them and come from the baser instincts of society.⁴

Although, women may be victims of all kinds of crime, be it cheating, murder, robbery, etc., yet the crimes in which ‘only women’ are victims and which are directed specifically against them are characterized as ‘crime against women’. Broadly, crimes against women are classified under two categories.

a. Crimes under the Indian Penal Code (IPC)

It includes seven crimes;

- i. Rape (Sec. 376 IPC)
- ii. Kidnapping and Abduction (Sec. 363-373 IPC),
- iii. Dowry deaths (Sec. 304-B IPC),
- iv. Torture – Physical and mental (Sec. 498IPC),
- v. Molestation (Sec 354 IPC),
- vi. Sexual harassment (Sec. 509IPC) and
- vii. Importation of girls (Sec.366-B IPC).

b. Crimes under Special and Local Laws (SLL)

Although all laws are not gender-specific, the provisions of law affecting women significantly have been reviewed periodically and amendments carried out accordingly to keep pace with the emerging requirements. Some Acts which have special provisions to safeguard women and their interests are:

- i. The employees state insurance Act, 1948
- ii. The plantation labor Act, 1951
- iii. The family courts, act, 1954
- iv. The special marriage Act, 1954
- v. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955
- vi. The succession Act, 1956
- vii. Immoral traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956
- viii. The maternity Benefit Act, 1961 (Amendment in 1995)
- ix. Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961
- x. The medical termination of pregnancy Act, 1971
- xi. The contract labor (Regulation and Abolition) Act, 1976
- xii. The equal Remuneration Act, 1976
- xiii. The child marriage Restraint (Amendment) Act, 1979
- xiv. The criminal law (Amendment) Act, 1983
- xv. The Factories (Amendment) Act, 1986
- xvi. Indecent Representation of women (Prohibition Act, 1986
- xvii. Commission of Sati (Prevention) Ac, 1987
- xviii. Domestic Violence Act, 2005.⁵

Constitutional and Legal Provision for Women

The principle of gender equality is enshrined in the Indian Constitution in its Preamble, Fundamental Rights, Fundamental Duties and Directive Principles. The Constitution not only grants equality to women, but also empowers

the State to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women for neutralizing the cumulative socio-economic, educational and political disadvantages faced by them. Within the framework of a democratic polity, our laws, development policies, Plans and programmes have aimed at women's advancement in different spheres.

India has also ratified various international conventions and human rights instruments committing to secure equal rights of women. Key among them is the ratification of the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1993.⁶

All-India laws get their sanction from the Indian Constitution which guarantees justice, liberty and equality to all citizens of India. The Preamble speaks of equality of status of opportunity for all citizens. Article 14 states that "The states shall not deny to any person equality before the law or the equal protection of the laws within the territory of India." It not only prohibits discrimination but makes various provisions for the protection of women.

Articles 14, 15 specially 15(3), 16, 39 and 51(A) (C) of the Indian constitution provides that it shall be the duty of every citizen of India to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women. Rights guaranteed under article 14, 15 and 16 are fundamental rights and if they are violated by the state, a citizen can move the high court or even Supreme Court.⁷

Legal Provisions

India has elaborate laws to protect the rights of women, including the Prevention of Immoral Traffic, the Sati (widow burning) Act, and the Dowry Prevention Act. Women and children have figured prominently in the government's agenda of social reforms and initiatives.

Legal Provisions for women are as under

- Factories Act 1948: Under this Act, a woman cannot be forced to work beyond 8 hours and

prohibits employment of women except between 6 A.M. and 7 P.M.

- Maternity Benefit Act 1961: A Woman is entitled 12 weeks maternity leave with full wages.
- The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961: Under the provisions of this Act, demand of dowry either before marriage, during marriage and or after the marriage is an offence.
- The Equal Remuneration Act of 1976: This act provides equal wages for equal work: It provides for the payment of equal wages to both men and women workers for the same work or work of similar nature. It also prohibits discrimination against women in the matter of recruitment.
- The Child Marriage Restrain Act of 1976: This act raises the age for marriage of a girl to 18 years from 15 years and that of a boy to 21 years.
- Indian Penal Code: Sections 354 and 509 safeguard the interests of women.
- The Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act of 1971: The Act safeguards women from unnecessary and compulsory abortions.
- Amendments to Criminal Law 1983, which provides for a punishment of 7 years in ordinary cases and 10 years for custodial rape cases.
- 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment Act reserved 1/3rd seats in Panchayat and Urban Local Bodies for women.
- The National Commission for Women Act, 1990: The Commission was set up in January, 1992 to review the constitutional and legal safeguards for women.
- The Protection of Human Rights Act, 1993:
- Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005: This Act protects women from any act/conduct/omission/commission that harms, injures or potential to harm is to be considered

as domestic violence. It protects the women from physical, sexual, emotional, verbal, psychological, economic abuse.⁸

- Protection of Women against Sexual Harassment at Workplace Bill, 2010: on November 4, 2010, the Government introduced protection of Women Against Sexual Harassment at Workplace Bill, 2010, which aims at protecting the women at workplace not only to women employee but also to female clients, customer, students, research scholars in colleges and universities as well as patients in hospitals. The Bill was passed in Lok Sabha on 3 September 2012.

International Initiatives to Curb Gender Violence

The advancement of women has been a focus of the work of the United Nations since its creation. The Preamble of UN Charter sets as a basic goal to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women. In 1946 the Commission on the Status of Women was established to deal with women's issues. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights had affirmed the principle of inadmissibility of discrimination and proclaimed that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and everyone is entitled to all rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, including distinction based on sex.

However, there has continued to exist considerable discrimination against women primarily because women and girls face a multitude of constraints imposed by society, not by law. It violates the principle of equality of rights and respect for human rights.

The General Assembly on November 7, 1967 adopted a Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, and in order to implement the principles set forth in the Declaration, a Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) was adopted. This Convention is often

described as an International Bill of Rights for Women. It has laid down a comprehensive set of rights to which all persons, including women are entitled to additional means for protecting the human rights of women.

In addition to the above Convention, three Conferences were held during the U.N. sponsored International Women's Decade (1976-1985) in Mexico City (1975), Copenhagen (1980) and Nairobi (1985). The fourth conference was held at Beijing in 1995. All these have greatly enhanced international awareness of the concerns of women. Beijing Conference stated that, "Women's rights are human rights" and it called for integration of Women's human rights in the work of different human rights bodies of the United Nations. It considered the issue of violence against women in public and private life as human rights' issues. The Conference called for the eradication of any conflict which may arise between the rights of women and harmful effects.

The UN General Assembly in 2000 convened a Special session on "Women: Gender Equality, Development and Peace for 21st Century" to assess the progress on women's issues. In February 2005, the Commission on the Status of Women at its 49th Session viewed the progress made on Women's Human Rights Agreement, known as Beijing Platform for Action. The Conference focused on many areas including poverty, environment, economy, education, human rights, power and decision-making and girl child.

In 2005, twenty-third Special Session of the General Assembly was reiterated as World Summit Outcome. The Summit resolved to promote gender equality and eliminate pervasive gender discrimination. The U.N. Commission on the Status of Women met on March 14, 2011 in the Economic and Social Council Chamber to discuss the present scenario of gender violence in the world.⁹

National Initiatives to Curb the Gender Violence

i. National Commission for Women

In January 1992, the Government set-up this statutory body with a specific mandate to study and monitor all matters relating to the constitutional and legal safeguards provided for women, review the existing legislation to suggest amendments wherever necessary, etc.

ii. Reservation for Women in Local Self – Government

The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act passed in 1992 by Parliament ensures one-third of the total seats for women in all elected offices in local bodies whether in rural areas or urban areas.

iii The National Plan of Action for the Girl Child (1991-2000)

The Plan of Action is to ensure survival, protection and development of the girl child with the ultimate objective of building up a better future for the girl child.

iv. National Policy for the Empowerment of Women, 2001

The Department of Women & Child Development in the Ministry of Human Resource Development has prepared a "National Policy for the Empowerment of Women" in the year 2001. The goal of this policy is to bring about the advancement, development and empowerment of women.¹⁰

v. National Mission for Empowerment of Women, 2010

The launch of the National Mission for Empowerment of Women in March 2010 is an important development that will provide the much required fillip to a coordinated assessment of current government interventions and aligning future programmes so as to translate the MPEW prescription into reality. The Mission was operationalized during 2011-12.¹¹

Verma Committee Report On Sexual Crimes

A three-member Commission, headed by former Chief Justice of India, Justice J.S. Verma which was assigned to review laws for sexual crimes, submitted its report to the Government during January 2013. The Commission has recommended comprehensive changes in criminal laws to deal with crimes and atrocities against women which are as under:

Punishment for Rape: The panel has not recommended the death penalty for rapists. It suggests that the punishment for rape should be rigorous imprisonment or RI for seven years to life. It recommends that punishment for causing death or a “persistent vegetative state” should be RI for a term not be less than 20 years, but may be for life also, which shall mean the rest of the person’s life. Gang-rape, it suggests, should entail punishment of not less than 20 years, which may also extend to life and gang-rape followed by death, should be punished with life imprisonment.

Punishment for other sexual offences: The panel recognised the need to curb all forms of sexual offences and recommended - Voyeurism be punished with up to seven years in jail; stalking or attempts to contact a person repeatedly through any means by up to three years. Acid attacks would be punished by up to seven years in imprisonment; trafficking will be punished with RI for seven to ten years.

Registering complaints and medical examination: Every complaint of rape must be registered by the police and civil society should perform its duty to report any case of rape coming to its knowledge. “Any officer, who fails to register a case of rape reported to him, or attempts to abort its investigation, commits an offence which shall be punishable as prescribed,” the report says. The protocols for medical examination of victims of sexual assault have also been suggested. The panel said, “Such protocol-based professional medical examination is imperative for uniform practice and implementation.”

Marriages to be registered: As a primary recommendation, all marriages in India (irrespective of the personal laws under which such marriages are solemnized) should mandatorily be registered in the presence of a magistrate. The magistrate will ensure that the marriage has been solemnized without any demand for dowry having been made and that it has taken place with the full and free consent of both partners.

Amendments to the Code of Criminal Procedure: The panel observed, “The manner in which the rights of women can be recognised can only be manifested when they have full access to justice and when the rule of law can be upheld in their favour.” The proposed Criminal Law Amendment Act, 2012, should be modified, suggests the panel. “Since the possibility of sexual assault on men, as well as homosexual, transgender and transsexual rape, is a reality the provisions have to be cognizant of the same,” it says. A special procedure for protecting persons with disabilities from rape, and requisite procedures for access to justice for such persons, the panel said was an “urgent need.”

Bill of Rights for women: A separate Bill of Rights for women that entitles a woman a life of dignity and security and will ensure that a woman shall have the right to have complete sexual autonomy including with respect to her relationships.

Review of the AFSPA

The panel has observed that the “impunity of systematic sexual violence is being legitimised by the Armed Forces Special Powers Act (AFSPA).” It has said there is an imminent need to review the continuance of AFSPA in areas as soon as possible. It has also recommended posting special commissioners for women’s safety in conflict areas.

Police reforms: To inspire public confidence, the panel said, “police officers with reputations of outstanding ability and character must be placed at the higher levels of the police force.”

All existing appointments need to be reviewed to ensure that the police force has the requisite moral vision. The panel strongly recommended that “law enforcement agencies do not become tools at the hands of political masters.” It said, “Every member of the police force must understand their accountability is only to the law and to none else in the discharge of their duty.”

Role of the judiciary: The judiciary has the primary responsibility of enforcing fundamental rights, through constitutional remedies. The judiciary can take *suo moto* cognizance of such issues being deeply concerned with them both in the Supreme Court and the High Court. An all India strategy to deal with this issue would be advisable. The Chief Justice of India could be approached to commence appropriate proceedings on the judicial side. The Chief Justice may consider making appropriate orders relating to the issue of missing children to curb the illegal trade of their trafficking etc.

Political Reforms: The Justice Verma committee observed that reforms are needed to deal with criminalization of politics. The panel has suggested that, in the event cognizance has been taken by a magistrate of a criminal offence, the candidate ought to be disqualified from participating in the electoral process. Any candidate who fails to disclose a charge should be disqualified subsequently. It suggested lawmakers facing criminal charges, who have already been elected to Parliament and state legislatures, should voluntarily vacate their seats.¹²

Conclusion

Only legislation and law enforcement agencies cannot prevent the incident of crime against women. There is need of social awakening and change in the attitude of the masses, so that due respect and equal status is given to women. It’s a time when the women need to be given their due. This awakening can be brought by education campaign among youth making them aware of existing social evils and the means to eradicate same. Mass media can play an active role here

as in the present days it has reached every corner of the nation. Various NGOs can hold a responsible position here by assigning them with the task of highlighting socio-economic causes leading to such crimes and by disseminating information about their catastrophic effect on the womanhood and the society at large.

Reference

1. Ram Ahuja, Violence against Women, Rawat Publications, New Delhi, 1998, p. 32.
2. Awadhesh Kumar Singh and Jayanta Choudhury, Violence against Women and Children-Issues and Concerns, New Delhi, Serials Publications, 2012, p.2.
3. Ram Kumar, Women Health Development and Administration, Deep & Deep Publications, New Delhi, 1990, p.11.
4. Bedabati Mohanty, Violence against Women (An Analysis of Contemporary Realities), Kanishka Publishers, Distributors, New Delhi, 2005, p.17.
5. Yudhishtar Kahol, Violence against Women, Reference Press, New Delhi, 2003, p.2.
6. India, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Women and Men in India 2012, 14th Issue, p. xiii.
7. Sunit Gupta, Crime against Women, Anmol Publications, New Delhi, 1995, p. 22.
8. Guruappa Naidu, Violence against Women in India, Serials Publications, New Delhi, 2011, pp.25-27.
9. Awadhesh Kumar Singh and Jayanta Choudhury, Violence against Women and Children-Issues and Concerns, Serials Publications, New Delhi, 2012, pp.184-185.
10. India, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Women and Men in India 2012, 14th Issue, p. xiii
11. India, Ministry of Women and Child Development, Annual Report 2011-12, p. 20
12. <http://www.ndtv.com/article/cheat-sheet/recommendations-of-the-justice-verma-committee-...2/1/2013>.



Evaluating Kathodi Katkari Tribal Economy

Bhaskar Basapur* & Dr Ravi S Dalawai**

[Members of the Kathodi, Katkari tribe do not avail any facilities from the government. Even today they are moving from place to place for their livelihood. These people are working in agricultural fields, charcoal units and in timber mills cutting trees to lead their life. They hunt the birds in the forest and catch fish and make their livelihood. They are facing various problems like illiteracy, child marriage, poverty etc.]

Every tribe and community possess its own culture, tradition, art, literature, beliefs and members of such tribes/communities live strictly according to their own specific culture. But as a result of globalization, modernizations and deforestation, these communities have lost their settlements and have become unsheltered and are migrating to various places to make their livelihood. These communities are struggling hard to lead their life.

Kathodi, Katkari Tribal community is one such exploited community. They are the inhabitants of Khanapur forest in Belagavi district. They migrated from Maharashtra and are presently residing in Belagavi district. They speak Marathi and their mother tongue Katkari and understand Kannada to little extent but unable to speak. They are engaged in charcoal making therefore they are known as Katkari. They hunt black monkey and eat them. Therefore, the local people of Karnataka call them as Mangyanmari community.

The people of these tribes work as coolies and keep migrating from one place to other seeking work to make their livelihood. The status of the people of this tribe is very miserable because they keep migrating from one place to another doing various kinds of work just to earn their meals. These people still live in thatched huts.

* Research Scholar, Dept. of Sociology, Rani Channamma University, Belagavi.

** Asst Prof., Dept. of sociology, Rani Channamma University, Belagavi.

● Fieldwork

It is a study of tribal economy of Kathodi Katkari tribe residing in the forest of Khanapur taluk of Belagavi district. are interviewed and the information about respondents' occupation for making livelihood and the problems faced by them has been collected with the help of interview-schedule, compiled, collated and then analyzed in this study.

● Research Methodology

Information is collected from primary and secondary sources for the present study:

● Objectives of the Study

1. To understand the various occupations of Kathodi Katkari tribe people for making their livelihood.
2. To understand the problems faced by Kathodi Katkari tribe people.

● Hypothesis

1. Kathodi tribes are residing in forest.
2. These tribes' community life is in isolation and they don't have contacts with civilized community.

● Occupations of Kathodi, Katkari tribe

Members of the Kathodi, Katkari tribe migrate from one place to another and are engaged in various occupations to make their livelihood.

Following are the various occupations carried out by Kathodi Katkari community.

- **Labour in Agricultural activities**

Kathodi Katkari tribe people are engaged in agricultural activities and are working as agriculture labourers. These people sow paddy plants, remove weeds and cut sugarcane in the fields. Both men and women of this tribe work as agricultural labourers. They are paid Rs. 100 per day as wages. The people of this community make a group amongst themselves and migrate from one place to another seeking labour work and some of them are engaged in cutting sugarcane. They construct temporary huts at the workplace and after the accomplishment of the work they go back to their native places. Kathodi Katkari tribe people indulge in agricultural activities during the rainy season and during the odd season they get occupied in other activities to make their livelihood.

- **Cutting of Eucalyptus Trees**

Residing in forests, the members of the Kathodi Katkari tribe are usually strong and hardworking. They are honest and sincere at work; therefore, wood-cutting contractors who hold the contract of cutting eucalyptus trees, deploy these people for cutting eucalyptus trees. Usually cutting of eucalyptus trees is carried out during summer because at that period of time there are no agricultural activities in the field. As Kathodi Katkari people do not have any other occupation, they indulge in cutting eucalyptus trees to manage their livelihood. They earn Rs. 400 –Rs 500 for cutting one tonne of wood and loading the wood to the lorry. Both men and women of this community indulge in wood cutting work.

- **Labourers in Charcoal industry**

During summer season when there is lack of agricultural activities, the Kathodi Katkari tribe people migrate to tropical region and cut the thorny trees in the forest and heap them at a place. Later they put soil over the heap of

the cut branches and set the wood on fire. They burn the wood for 3-4 days thus forming charcoal. They separate and collect the charcoal from the heap. Here the labourers are not paid wages, instead the labourers are paid Rs. 500 per manufacture of tonne of charcoal. Usually, 8 to 10 members of Kathodi Katkari together form a group and cut the trees and manufacture charcoal. After the charcoal is manufactured they share the amount within themselves. Kathodi Katkari people work hard to make their livelihood.

- **Household activities in Agriculture-Owner's House**

The people of this community do not have their own agricultural land. They built hut in the owner's field where they work and lead their life. When there are short of agricultural activities and during odd seasons the people of this community work in the house of the land owners. These people clean houses, cut wood and do every work directed by the owner. Sometimes these people work in the owner's house without payment just for quenching their hunger. Even today the people of this community do not have their own land or house. These people stay in the huts even today.

- **Labourers in Building construction**

Generally, the people of Kathodi Katkari community do not migrate to urban areas, rather they migrate to nearby surrounding villages and get engaged in labour activities. Entire family migrates to the workplace, constructs the hut and resides there until accomplishment of the work. In recent days, some of the youths of this community have migrated to Goa and Maharashtra states and are engaged in building construction work.

- **Primary Occupation**

Primarily originating from Maharashtra, the people of Kathodi Katkari community have migrated from Maharashtra and are residing in the forest area of Khanapur taluk of Belagavi

district. Burning wood and making charcoal is the primary occupation of this community. Therefore, this community is popular as charcoal community. Nowadays the people of this community have stopped their primary occupation and are engaged in various other activities to make their livelihood.

- **Problems of Kathodi, Katkari Tribe**

Undoubtedly, the people of Kathodi Katkari tribe are engaged in various occupations for making their livelihood; nonetheless, they are experiencing various problems. The following are some of the problems faced by Kathodi Katkari tribe:

- **Illiteracy**

The people of Kathodi, Katkari tribe are illiterates. None from this community has completed high school education. As these people are illiterate, they are not aware of the importance of education. People of this community work only for their livelihood and their children are betrayed from education. The people of this community take along with them their family from one place to another seeking work. Their children spend their childhood playing and are not provided education. Presently, only very few students of this community are observed going to school. 4 children are pursuing primary school education while 3 children are pursuing high school education. But it is unfortunate that these students are not availing scholarship even after applying for scholarship.

- **Child Marriage**

Another evil custom followed by the Kathodi Katkari tribe is child marriage. The girl of this tribe, when becomes 15 -16-year old and when the boy becomes 16 – 20-year old, both get married. This is the customary of Kathodi Katkari tribe. This custom is followed even today. Due to the marriage at young age, girls conceive at the early age and there is lot of health disorders. The children born are suffering from malnutrition and are underweight.

- **Problems of Infrastructure facilities**

Members of the Kathodi, Katkari tribe do not have any basic infrastructure facilities. They live in huts and collect drinking water from far-off distance. There are no roads and electricity supply in their settlement. They do not have any assistance from the government and are living in the forest by constructing huts. The people of this tribe are not aware that have a right to ask for providing infrastructure facilities. The people are engaged in various occupations to fulfil their daily needs.

- **Wandering for Livelihood**

The people of Kathodi Katkari community work as labourers in various occupations. They keep migrating from one place to other seeking work and wages. Many a times the people of this community work in the agriculture owner's house without any wages but just make a day's meal. These people wear the old clothes provided by the upper class people. They work only for their livelihood and they do all the work assigned to them very honestly.

Suggestions

1. Primarily this community has to be provided with the basic infrastructure facilities.
2. Awareness has to be brought about the demerits of child marriage.
3. Awareness has to be created about the importance of education for the children and encourage them to go to school.
4. The people who migrate from one place to other for work have to be provided with 2/3 acres of land to make their livelihood.

Conclusion

The people of Kathodi, Katkari community do not avail any facilities from the government. Even today the people of this community are migrating from place to other to lead their life. These people are working in agricultural fields, charcoal units and in timber mills cutting trees

to lead their life. They hunt the birds in the forest and catch fish and make their livelihood. The people of this community are facing various problems. Illiteracy, child marriage, lack of fundamental facilities etc., are some of the major problems observed in this community.

References

1. Ferreria Johan V., "The katakarits", *Journal of Social Research*, Vol no-2 Sept 1962 Ranchi.
2. Metry K M, (2002) *Budakattu Kulakasubugalu*, Prasaranga. Kannada University, Hampi.
3. Mohanthy P K., *Encyclopedia of Primitive Tribes in India*, Vol-2 Kalapaz publications Delhi.
4. Prakash Chandra Mehta., *Development of Indian Tribes*, Discovery publishing House New Delhi.
5. Sachchidananda Prasad R R., *Encyclopedia profile of Indian Tribes*, Discovery publishing House, New Delhi.
6. Singh K S., *People of India - Rajasthan*, Rajakamal Electric press, Delhi.
7. Singh K S., *The Scheduled Tribes*, Oxford University Press, Delhi, 1994.
8. Singh K S., *Indian Communities*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi
9. Vyas NN., "A story in planned social change in Indian tribe" *Bulletin of Tribal Research Institute*, Udaipur Vol-3, 1967, p.37.



Business of Betel Leaves in Theni (Tamil Nadu)

K. Babukannan* & Dr. A. Bose**

[Betel leaf is one of the major horticulture plantation crops grown in India for quite a long time and consumed by people in every part of the country. Betel leaf, a perennial disease creeper, is cultivated in India for chewing. Classified as a plantation crop, betel leaf occupies 2 per cent of net cultivated area in the state of Tamil Nadu. In total production of betel leaves in India, Tamil Nadu's share amounted to 46.5 per cent. Betel leaves are commonly known as Vetrilai in Tamil. Betel leaf is used as medicine for certain diseases and also used as an antiseptic. The leaves are the most valued plant part and in the past were routinely used as a chewing agent. During cultivation, betel leaves are very much affected by diseases and insects that result in great loss for the farmers. It occurs in a very virulent form and if not controlled, causes widespread damage and even total destruction of the entire betel vine plantations. Attempts have been made to study the betel leaves market constraints, factors limiting betel leaf cultivation and suggest measures for the promotion of betel leaf cultivation of economic importance.]

Betel leaves play a significant role in the social and cultural aspects of India. Betel leaf is cultivated on about 55000 hectare with an annual production worth about Rs.9000 million. These leaves are also in great demand

in several countries of the world. Consequently, leaves worth about Rs.30-40 million are exported to the other countries, thus it is most promising commercial leafy crop capable of attracting substantial amount of foreign exchange to the country. Some evidence suggests betel leaves have immune-boosting properties as well as anti-cancer properties.

Importance of the Study

* PhD Scholar, PG. Dept of Commerce, Govt. Arts College, Melur.

** Asst Prof., PG. Dept of Commerce, Govt. Arts College, Melur.

Betel leaf is used as medicine for certain diseases and also used as an antiseptic. The leaves are the most important plant part and are of medicinal, religious and ceremonial value in the South East Asia. In India, it is customary to serve betel leaf on various social, cultural and religious occasions and is also offered to guests as a mark of respect. The betel leaf plant is much more popular in India than in any other country of the world since the antiquity. This would be evident from the numerous citations laid down in the ancient literature, particularly the Indian Scriptures.

In these citations, significance of the leaves has been explained to every sphere of human life including social, cultural, religious and even day-to-day life, which is very much relevant even these days. Betel leaves are very nutritive and contain substantial amounts of vitamins and minerals and therefore, six leaves with a little bit of slaked lime is said to be comparable to about 300 ml of cow milk particularly for the vitamin and mineral nutrition. The different varieties of betel leaves grown across India are listed in Table-1.

Betel Leaf Varieties Grown Across India

Table.1

State	Varieties of betel leaf
Andhra Pradesh	Karapaku, Chennor, Tellaku, Bangla and Kalli Patti
Assam	Assam Patti, Awani Pan, Bangla and Khasi Pan
Bihar	Desi Pan, Calcutta, Paton, Meghai and Bangla
Karnataka	Kariyale, Mysoreale and Ambadiale
Kerala	Nadan, Kalkodi and Puthukodi
Madhya Pradesh	Desi Bangla, Calcutta and Deswari
Maharashtra	Kallipatti, Kapoori and Bangla (Ramtek)
Orissa	Godi Bangla, Nova Cuttak, Sanchi and Birkoli
Tamil Nadu	Pachai Kodi and Vellaikodi
Uttar Pradesh	Deswari, Kapoori, Maghai and Bangla
West Bengal	Bangla, Sanchi, Mitha, Kali Bangla and Simurali Bangla

Source: Betel Leaf: Nature's Green Medicine, FACTS FOR YOU, Journal of Market Survey, September 2012, pp. 8-10.

Production of Betel Leaf

The betel leaf needs a compatible tree or a long pole for support. Fertile soil is best for betel leaf cultivation. The farm yard is fenced with bamboo sticks and coconut leaves. The creeper cuttings are planted after proper dressing in the months of May and June, at the beginning of the monsoon season. The plants are neatly arranged

in parallel rows about two feet apart, and the saplings are twined around upright sticks of split bamboo and reeds. Proper shade and irrigation are essential for the successful cultivation of this crop. The plants are regularly watered in the hot months. The leaves of the plant become ready for plucking after one year of planting and the production lasts for several years from the date of planting. Betel needs constantly moist soil, but there should not be excessive moisture.

Statement of the Problem

Now-a-days customers' lifestyles and needs have gone through tremendous change. These changes are new challenges for the farmers whose produce has to meet the customers demand. For producers of betel leaf, the size and the color of leaf are important factors to categorize the product in the market. The crop is usually produced by the farmers' generation after generation following the traditional methods. Pest attack and unawareness of the different diseases which affect the betel leaves can incur loss to the producer. Betel leaf cultivation is a special type of agriculture in India. A major portion of the betel leaves cultivated in India is consumed in domestic market.

Scope of the Study

The study analyzes the problems of both production and marketing of betel leaves. Periyakulam Taluk ranks first in the area in the production of betel leaves in Theni district. Thamaraiikulam block in Periyakulam Taluk has been chosen for the present study, because this block occupies the first place in production and marketing of betel leaves. A preliminary survey of the area was undertaken with a view to gain an insight into the physical and economic environments of the production and marketing condition in the region.

Objectives of the Study

1. To study human labour requirements for various stages of betel leaf cultivation for Category I (farmers having less than 0.5 acres) and Category II (farmers having more than or equal to 0.5 acres)
2. To estimate and compare the costs and returns structure of betel leaf cultivation for Category I and Category II farmers.
3. To determine the resource productivity and to examine the resource-use efficiency of inputs used in betel leaf cultivation.
4. To identify the factor determining the marketable surplus of betel leaves.

Methodology

- **Research Design:** The study is a combination of both descriptive and analytical tools.
- **Sampling Design:** The present study is empirical and hence, field survey method and personal interview technique were adopted. Stratified multi-stage random sampling has been adopted for the present study with Theni District as the universe, the taluk as the stratum, the village as the primary unit of sampling and the betel leaf farmers as the ultimate unit.
- **Collection of Primary Data:** Primary data required for the study were collected from the 400 selected respondents of Theni District in order to analyze the process and activities involved in betel leaves production under actual farming conditions. The information regarding size of holdings, cropping pattern, cost and returns, marketing channels, quantity retained, quantity sold, marketing cost, problems in production and marketing were collected from the sample farmers through the direct personal interview method.
- **Period of the Study:** The field investigation work was carried out from September to December during the year 2014, which was the harvest season of betel leaves in study area. Data collection pertain to the agricultural year 2014 to 2015.

Problems in Production

The problems in production of betel leaves in the study area have been classified into (i) Agro-biological factors and (ii) Economic and Institutional factors. The agro-biological factors limiting production were listed as i) severity of disease, ii) severity of pests, iii) severity of winds, iv) soil conditions and v) severity of rains. The ranks assigned to the five identified factors are given in Tables 2 and 3 for Category I Farmers and Category II Farmers respectively.

Agro-Biological Factors Limiting Production Category I Farmers

Table. 2

S. No	Problems	Mean Score	Rank	% of Farmers Reported
1.	Severity of Disease	69.63	I	100.00
2.	Severity of Pests	58.64	II	95.12
3.	Severity of Winds	45.38	III	95.12
4.	Soil Conditions	29.85	IV	97.56
5.	Severity of Rains	27.00	V	12.20

Agro-Biological Factors Limiting Production Category II Farmers**Table .3**

S. No	Problems	Mean Score	Rank	% of Farmer Reported
1.	Severity of Disease	69.48	I	91.18
2.	Severity of Pests	59.67	II	88.24
3.	Severity of Winds	44.57	III	82.35
4.	Soil Conditions	35.19	IV	94.12
5.	Severity of Rains	34.40	V	44.12

It could be seen that the severity of diseases and pests was the foremost obstructing factor in the production of betel leaves. The betel leaf farmers were severely affected by wilt disease and once the crop was infected with wilt diseases the crop suffered heavy damage. The third rank was given to the severity of winds. Soil condition was the fourth major problem in the betel leaf cultivation. The fifth rank was given to the heavy rain. In rainy season the betel leaf become affected because of the loss of drainage facilities.

The economic and institutional factors limiting production were listed as i) high cost of labour, ii) high cost of fertilizer, iii) high cost of pesticide, iv) inadequacy of credit, v) unfavourable market and vi) inadequate market facilities. The respondents were asked to rank various factors are given separately for Category I farmers and Category II farmers in Table 4 and 5 respectively.

Economic and Institutional Factors Limiting Production Category I Farmers**Economic and Institutional Factors****Table .4**

S. No	Problems	Mean Score	Rank	% of Farmers Reported
1.	High Cost of Labour	66.24	I	82.93
2.	High Cost of Fertilizers	59.16	II	90.24
3.	High Cost of Pesticides	49.00	III	73.17
4.	Inadequacy of Credit	40.86	IV	85.37
5.	Unfavourable Market	32.14	V	68.29

Economic and Institutional Factors Limiting Production Category II Farmers

Table .5

S. No	Problems	Mean Score	Rank	% of Farmers Reported
1.	High Cost of Labour	68.20	I	88.24
2.	High Cost of Fertilizer	59.65	II	91.18
3.	High Cost of Pesticides	43.96	III	85.29
4.	Inadequacy of Credit	38.10	IV	85.29
5.	Unfavourable Market	32.53	V	50.00
6.	Inadequacy Market Facilities	-	-	-

As could be seen from the table, high cost of labour was ranked by the respondents as most important problem in economic and institutional factors. The betel leaf cultivation was highly labour intensive. The betel leaf crop required heavy doses of fertilizer, so even a meager rise in price affected the farmers severely. The third rank was given to high cost of pesticides. The farmers spent more on fertilizers than the pesticides. Fourth rank was given to inadequacy of credit. The betel leaf crop required heavy capital investment, so credit availability attracts the attention of the cultivators more. Unfavourable market was the fifth rank,

indicating that the farmers were more worried about conditions of production than about marketing condition.

Problems in Marketing

For the purpose of the study, the problems in marketing were listed as i) transport, ii) inadequacy of finance, iii) too many middlemen, iv) fluctuating price and v) absence of grading. The respondents were asked to rank the factors and the ranks given by them are given in Table 6 and Table 7 for Category I and Category II farmers respectively.

Problems in Marketing Category I Farmers

Table .6

S.No	Problems	Mean Score	Rank	% of Farmers Reported
1.	Fluctuating Price	71.82	I	95.12
2.	Too Many Middlemen	53.90	II	73.17
3.	Finance Inadequacy	48.17	III	82.93
4.	Transport	40.11	IV	65.85
5.	Absence of Grading	32.41	V	82.93

Problems in Marketing Category II Farmers

Table .7

S.No	Problems	Mean Score	Rank	% of Farmers Reported
1.	Fluctuating Price	71.59	I	94.12

2.	Too Many Middlemen	56.64	II	82.35
3.	Finance Inadequacy	46.70	III	88.24
4.	Absence of Grading	34.17	IV	85.29
5.	Transport	33.24	V	50.00

It could be seen from the table that the fluctuating price commanded the greatest attention in marketing. The farmers were affected profoundly by the price fluctuations. The second rank was given to too many middlemen. In betel leaf marketing large number of intermediaries was involved. Inadequacy of finance was given the third rank. Since betel leaf marketing required heavy capital so, the cultivators could not easily enter into the trade activities. The high cost of transport was considered as the fourth major problem. The fifth rank was given to absence of grading which reduces the quality of betel leaves.

Findings of the Study

- More than 50 per cent of the selected betel leaf farmers in both groups were educated.
- The human labour used per acre of betel leaves in Category I were 804 man-days per acre and it was 884 man-days per acre in Category II.
- The input-output ratio in terms of operational cost and total cost was found to be Rs.1.36 and Rs.1.21 per acre for Category I farmers and Rs.1.33 and Rs.1.17 per acre for Category II farmers.
- The intermediaries played a vital role in betel leaf marketing in Theni district.

Suggestions

- The farmers should realize that they have not utilized their resources at the fullest level and there is scope for expansion of betel leaves cultivation.
- The government should take effort through the Department of Horticulture and Tamil Nadu Agricultural University to accelerate the pace of research of betel leaves cultivation and the efficient use of resources.

- The government should take steps to provide adequate credit facilities, especially to the farmers of betel leaves, to relieve them of the debt-trap.

Conclusion

Betel leaf is one of the most promising commercial crops capable of attracting substantial amount of foreign exchange to the country. The present level of revenue generated by the betel leaves may be increased by many folds if appropriate post-harvest technologies are made available to the betel leaf growers and traders. Therefore, a well-coordinated effort by the farmers, traders, scientists, technologists, extension workers, physicians, administrators and policy makers is required to be initiated to boost up the national economy as well as the national employment generation through proper exploitation of this betel leaves.

References

1. Ramamurthi K., Usha Rani O., "Betel Leaf: Nature's Green Medicine", Facts For You, a Journal of Market Survey, September 2012, pp.8-10.
2. Palaniappan G., Sengottiyar A., Saravanan T., "Betel Leaf: The Green Gold of India", Kisan world, April 2012, Vol-39, No.4, pp.16-18.
3. Bose A., and Varadarajan R., "Production and Marketing of Betel Leaves in Madurai District of Tamil Nadu", Thesis for Doctor of Philosophy in Commerce, November 2001, p. 6.
4. Kaleeswari V., Sridhar T., "A study on Betel Vine Cultivation and Market Crisis in Karur District", Indian Journal of Applied Research, Vol.3, Issue-10, October 2013, pp.1-3.
5. Bhowmick, S.: Paan: AnadritaLaxmi (In Bengali). "Betel Leaf: The Neglected Goddess of Wealth", Moynaprakashani, Calcutta (1997).



Health Status of Women Employees of Mannargudi Taluk

Dr.T.Vijayalakshmi*

[The prosperity and happiness of any community is determined by the health of its people. The New Encyclopedia Britannica (Vol.5, 15th edition) defines health in human beings as 'the extent of an individual's continuing physical, emotional, mental, and social ability to cope with his environment'. In earlier times, women's lesser participation in employment found broad acceptance in society. But the pattern of the work force is now changing. The growing participation of women prompts the question of whether the quality of women's employment is improving.]

There remains broad segregation between women and men in the workforce, not only within sectors, but also within occupations and the positions occupied by men and women. Employees with specialized skills are the focal point on whose well-being and performance the productivity of a company rests. A healthy work force is one of the most important economic assets of a nation.

Women and Health

It is a fact that most women in less developed countries still shoulder extremely heavy physical workloads in the household and outside. Work affects women's bodies and minds in many ways. Women's lives at work and at home are strongly interconnected. In industrialized nations, employed women on an average work about 80 hours/week, compared to about 50 hours/week for their spouses.

Statement of the problem

Women usually suffer discrimination and sexual harassment more often than men, especially if they enter non-traditional occupations. Although not many psychological differences between women and men have been demonstrated scientifically, it has been suggested that men have higher self-esteem and confidence and that women are more emotionally expressive.

Although, women generally experience lower death rates than men, they suffer from higher rates of several chronic conditions, including arthritis, high blood pressure, cataracts, chronic sinusitis, hay fever, varicose veins, chronic bronchitis, asthma, hemorrhoids, frequent indigestion and migraines. There are so many factors like, poverty, geographical location, social exclusion based on caste, gender, sexuality, disability interact closely with factors like work, housing, environment, education etc which determines women's health.

Large group of illnesses, where women have a high morbidity, are not found in the lists of occupational diseases, since the latter are mainly based on mono-causal relations to work, such as asbestosis, hearing impairment etc. Women often have a mixture of illness and so-called vague symptoms, like fatigue, reduced vitality, feelings of insufficiency, feeling of pain and discomfort.

Therefore, women more often than men undergo the experience that their symptoms at work are not given a diagnosis or, if so, the diagnosis is associated with psychological causes. The consequence is that women's health problem at work are not as visible as those of men. The result is that the problems will be neglected both in research and in practice.

Objectives of the study

The main objectives of this study are to evaluate the health problems faced by the women employees in Mannargudi area.

* Asst Prof., Dept. of Economics, S.T.E.T. Women's College, Thiruvavur, Tamil Nadu.

- To analyze the status of health of women employees
- To find out the problems faced by the women employees at their work place
- To understand the factors influencing the health of the women employees
- To indicate the sources of stress management for the women employees
- To explain the role of the employees towards the health of women employees.

Methods and materials

The present study used primary data to arrive at the objectives of the study. The data were collected by the researcher through a well designed interview schedule. Fifty employed women were chosen as sample respondents. The materials were referred from books, journals, websites and other published and unpublished sources.

Results and Discussion

Socio-Economic Profile

A majority of 40% of the respondents belong to the age group of 40 to 50 years. 80% of sample women were Hindus. 66% of the respondents were from backward community. 36% of the respondents have studied up to higher secondary and 20% were Graduates. 66% of the sample women were married. 72% of them were living in joint family. 32% of the respondents have hut house. 24% live in thatched house. 26% of them live in tiled house. The size of the family is less than 5 for 21% of the sample women and more than 5 for the rest of 79% of sample women. 23% of sample women were teachers; 48% of them were in clerical cadre; 18% of the respondents were doing computer-based works and 11% of them were office assistants.

Table No: 1

Problems faced by the respondents at their work place

S.No	Problems	No. of Res -pondents	Percentage
1	Dust in work place	16	32
2	Dirty	10	20
3	Unhygienic	13	26
4	Smoke	08	16
5	Others	03	06

Source: Primary data

The table shows that 32% of the respondents are of the opinion that the dust from machinery in the working place is the main reason for affecting the health problems for women, 26% opined that unhygienic factors are the main reasons for the disease, 20% of the respondents are of the opinion that the dirty work place affects the health, 16% of the respondents are of the opinion that smoke is the main reason and remaining 6% of the respondents say that the any other problems affect their health.

Table No:2

Factors influencing the health of the respondents

S.No	Factors	No. of Res -pondents	Percentage
1	Tiredness	23	46
2	Sickness	10	20
3	Afraid of injury	06	12
4	Back pain	11	22
	Total	50	100

Source: Primary data

The table indicates the factors influencing the health of the employees in the work place. 46% of the respondents suffer from tiredness in working time, 22% of the respondents suffer from back pain, 20% of the respondents suffer from

sickness and remaining 12% of the respondents are afraid of injury.

Table No:3

Remedial action taken by the concerned

S.No	Sources	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1	ESI Scheme	15	30
2	Yearly medical camp	14	28
3	Cash allowance for medical treatment	18	36
4	None of the others	03	06
	Total	50	100

Source: Primary data

The table reveals that 36% of the respondents say that their concern provides cash allowances for medical treatment, 30% of the respondents have ESI scheme, 28% of the respondents say that the concern provides yearly medical camp and remaining 6% of the respondents do not receive any medical support from their employers.

Table No: 4

Safety norms of the concern

S.No	Level of satisfaction	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1	Highly Satisfied	24	48
2	Satisfied	04	8
3	Neutral	20	40
4	Dissatisfied	02	4
5	Highly Dissatisfied	—	—
	Total	50	100

Source: Primary Data

The table highlights the satisfaction level of the sample women about the safety norms of the concern. 48% of the respondents are highly satisfied, 40% of the respondents are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 8% of the respondents are satisfied and 4% of the respondents are dissatisfied and no respondents are highly dissatisfied.

Table No: 5

Sources of stress management

S.No	Sources	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1	Yoga	20	40
2	Tour programs	04	8
3	Leisure room	24	48
4	Others	02	4
	Total	50	100

Source: Primary Data

The above table explains that how the stress situation is managed by the sample women employees. 48% of the respondents are of the opinion that sharing the news with friends and relatives in leisure room which help to relieve the stress, 40% of the respondents are relaxed by meditation and Yoga, 8% of the respondents manage stress by tour program and only 4% of the respondents are of the opinion that other methods relieve the stress. Majority (48%) of the respondents get relief from friends and relatives.

Table No: 6

Health problems faced by the respondents during their work

S.No	Problems	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1	Back pain	10	20
2	Hand and leg pain	17	34
3	Itch	03	06
4	Body pain	20	40
	Total	50	100

Source: Primary data

The above table shows that 40% of the respondents are suffering from body pain, 34% of the respondents are affected by hand and leg pain, 20% of the respondents face back pain and 6% of the respondents are affected by itch.

Table No: 7

Place of treatment for their disease

S.No	Place of treatment	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1	Public health centre	27	54
2	Private Hospital	03	06
3	Govt. Hospital	17	34
4	Traditional practice	03	06
	Total	50	100

Source: Primary data

The above table shows that 54% of the respondents depend on the public health centre, 34% of the respondents depend on Government hospital, and 6% of the respondents depend on private hospital. The remaining 6% of the respondents depend on traditional practices. Even though most of the respondents are economically weak, they are under compulsion to get treatment in public health centre.

Table No: 8

Problems faced by the respondents

S.No	Problems	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1	More working hours	13	26
2	No job security	20	40
3	Low wages	10	20
4	Others	07	14
	Total	50	100

Source: Primary data

The above table indicates the problems faced by the respondents at the workplace. For 40% of respondents there is no job security, 26% of the respondents have more working hours, 14% of the respondents have low wages and 20% of the respondents have other problems.

Suggestions

- Socio-economic empowerment has been considered instrumental for holistic development. Women's empowerment is obviously essential for raising their socio-economic status in the society thereby improving the health.
- Employees in general and women employees in particular should be organized and endeavor to get their demands fulfilled. While pursuing their demands the trade unions should behave in an orderly manner.
- Present healthcare services should be reviewed and reassessed in order to make it more child and women friendly.
- Health education to females of all ages should be made compulsory by specific legislation to the effect. The curriculum should specifically provide for health education to adolescent girls.
- When fatal accidents occur, it should be made mandatory for the principal employer to inform authorities and deposit the compensation before the labour commissioner.
- The working hours of the women workers should be regulated and streamlined.

- Steps should be taken by the Government to ensure that no exploitation of labour takes place. This will go a long way in the upliftment of the standard of living of women workers in general.
- Maternity benefits should be given to women in case of delivery, miscarriage, or sickness arising out of pregnancy two weeks prior to delivery and two weeks after confinement. Maternity bonus should also be provided to such women, in case medical facilities are not provided by the employers.

Conclusion

The determinants of health vary with the change in circumstances. When we talk of providing comprehensive healthcare various classifications can be made on the basis of which health has to be ensured like age, sex, locality, culture etc. There are various determinants of health and all these variants affect different people in different ways. Hence considering health under the human rights realm involves a lot of issues. The fact is that the concept of right to health is so broad that it has become difficult for the government to focus on each and every aspect of ensuring healthcare.

References

1. Agarwal. V. (1990), Development of Psychology of women : ICSSR, New Delhi, p.141
2. Bailyn, L. (1970), "Career and Family Orientations of Husbands and Wives in Relation to Marital Happiness", Human Relations, 23, 97-113.
3. Bhatnagar, D (1987): 'A Study of Attitude towards Women Managers in Banks', *Pranjan*, 16(3): 263-71.
4. Char, Srijaya. (2000), *Indian Womanhood : Wrapped in contradictions*. Vikas publishing house, pp. 75-81.
5. Desai, N (1994): 'Research in Women's Studies in India: An Overview', *Indian Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(3 and 4), pp. 377-94.
6. Kaur, Inderjeet (1983); *Status of Hindu Women of India*; Chugh Publications; Allahabad, India.



THIRD CONCEPT *welcomes your valuable comments on articles published in each issue. Suggestion to further improve quality and get-up of your favourite magazine, which has a record of uninterrupted publication since 1987, are also solicited.*

Influence of Demographic Profiles on Stress of High School Teachers

Sheeraz Ayoub Kuchy* & Dr. T. Thilagavathy**

[In the present study the investigator attempted to measure the level of teacher stress experienced by high school teachers and to find out whether there is any significant association between various demographic variables (Gender, Marital Status, School Management and School Locality) and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers. Normative survey method was adopted by the investigator for the present study. The sample of the study includes 324 high school teachers selected through stratified random sampling technique from various high schools located in Kulgam district of Jammu and Kashmir state. Teacher stress scale (TSS) developed by the investigator (2016) was used to collect data from the respondents. For statistical treatment of the data, the investigator applied frequency, percentage and chi-square test by keeping in view the objectives of the study. Findings of the study revealed that the majority i.e. 143 (44.13%) of the high school teachers had average level of teacher stress, 109 (33.65 %) had low level of teacher stress and the remaining 72 (22.22 %) had high level of teacher stress. Further the findings revealed that there was significant association between the level of teacher stress and the various demographic variables selected for the present study.]

Stress is a common feature in our lives, especially as the pace of development increases. Stress is a feeling of tension, which is both physical and emotional. Stress could be caused by physiological, psychological and environmental demands. Stress is difficult to define precisely. The concept of stress was first introduced in the life sciences by Selye Hans in 1936. It was derived from the Latin word 'stringere'; it meant the experience of physical hardship, starvation, torture and pain. Selye Hans, 1936 defined stress as "the nonspecific response of the body to any demand placed upon it".

Further, stress was defined as "any external event or internal drive which threatens to upset the organismic equilibrium". Although the teaching profession has traditionally been regarded as low stress occupation (French et al.,1982) but during the past two decades the situation

is somersaulted (Olivier & Venter,2003). Teaching is becoming more challenging as a profession: a more paper work, more bureaucracy and more unruly classes. Worldwide surveys reveal widespread concern about the effects of stress on teachers' sense of well-being and their willingness to stay in the profession. Compared to the general population, teachers are at risk for higher levels of psychological distress and lower levels of job satisfaction (Schonfield, 1990). Borg (1990) reported that up to one third of the teachers perceive their occupation as highly stressful.

Teaching related stress, commonly termed as teacher stress is defined as a teacher's experience of "unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration, or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher" (Kyriacou,2001). It is beyond doubt that stress within teaching has far reaching consequences on the entire system of education and is considerable. Therefore, it becomes essential to study the teacher stress among high school teachers and the influence of some

* Research Scholar, Dept of Education, Annamalai University, Tamil Nadu.

**Associate Prof., Dept of Education, Annamalai University, Tamil Nadu.

demographic variables on level of stress experienced by teachers. Hence a need was felt to investigate the same.

Operational Definitions of The Key Terms

Teacher stress

In the words of Kyriacou (2001), Teacher stress is “the experience by a teacher of unpleasant negative emotions such as anger, frustration, anxiety, depression and nervousness, resulting from some aspects of their work as a teacher”. In the present study, teacher stress refers to the scores obtained by teachers on teacher stress scale (TSS) developed by the investigator (2016).

High school teachers

High school teachers refer to the teachers teaching 9th and 10th standard students in high schools located in Kulgam district of Jammu and Kashmir state.

Variables of The Study

Main Variable

Teacher stress is the main variable for the present study.

Background Variables

Gender, marital status, school management and school locality are the background variables for the present study.

Objectives

1. To measure the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
2. To find out whether there is any significant association between the gender and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
3. To find out whether there is any significant association between the marital status and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
4. To find out whether there is any significant association between the school management

and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

5. To find out whether there is any significant association between the school locality and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

Hypotheses

1. There is any significant association between the gender and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
2. There is any significant association between the marital status and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
3. There is any significant association between the school management and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
4. There is any significant association between the school locality and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

Methodology

Method

Normative survey method was used as a method of investigation for the present study. The normative survey method describes and interprets what exists at present.

Population of the study

The population for the present study consisted of all high school teachers working in high schools situated in Kulgam district of Jammu and Kashmir state.

Sample and Sampling technique

Stratified random sampling technique was employed by the investigator to select 324 high school teachers from the 32 high schools situated in Kulgam district of Jammu and Kashmir state.

Tools used for the study

Teacher Stress scale developed by the investigator (2016) was used for collecting data for the present study. The scale consists of 39

Likert type items, each item having five alternatives viz Always (5), Frequently (4), Undecided (3), Rarely (2) and Never (1). Therefore, one can get a minimum score of 39 and a maximum score of 195 on this scale. The scores below 122, 8122-134 and above 134 indicate low, average and high level of teacher stress respectively.

The investigator used frequency, percentage and Pearson's chi-square test for statistical analysis of the collected data.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Measurement of Teacher Stress among High School Teachers.

Statistical Techniques Used

Table 1.1

Classification of high school teachers on the basis of their level of Teacher Stress

S. No	Level of Teacher Stress	Number of Teachers	Percentage
1.	Low	109	33.65
2.	Average	143	44.13
3	High	72	22.22
	Total	324	100.00

From the Table 4.1 it is clear that the majority i.e. 143 (44.13%) of the high school teachers had average level of teacher stress, 109 (33.65 %) had low level of teacher stress and the

remaining 72 (22.22 %) had high level of teacher stress.

Gender and Level of Teacher Stress

Table 1.2

Classification of high school teachers on the basis of their Gender and level of Teacher Stress

Gender	Level of teacher stress			Total	Chi-square value	p-value
	Low	Moderate	High			
Male	51 (15.74)	119 (36.72)	16 (4.93)	186 (57.40)	30.138	.000**
Female	21 (6.48)	73 (22.53)	44 (13.59)	138 (42.60)		
Total	72 (22.22)	192 (59.25)	60 (18.51)	324 (100)		

P<0.01

** Significant at 0.01 level

Note: Figures in brackets represent percentage to total.

Table 4.1 reveals that out of 186 male high school teachers, 51(15.74%) had low level of teacher stress, 119(36.72%) had moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 16(4.93%) had high level of teacher stress. Among the 138 female high school teachers, 21 (6.49 %) had low level of teacher stress, 73 (22.53%) had

moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 44 (13.59%) had high level of teacher stress.

To test the hypothesis that the level of teacher stress among high school teachers is independent of Gender, chi-square test has been applied. Since the p value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1 % level of significance and hence it is concluded that there is significant association between gender and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

Marital Status and Level of Teacher Stress

Table 1.3

Classification of high school teachers on the basis of their Marital Status and level of Teacher Stress

Marital Status	Level of teacher stress			Total	Chi-square value	p-value
	Low	Moderate	High			
Married	60 (18.52)	124 (38.27)	22 (6.79)	206 (63.58)	30.984	.000**
Unmarried	12 (3.70)	68 (20.98)	38 (11.72)	118 (36.41)		
Total	72 (22.22)	192 (59.25)	60 (18.51)	324 (100)		

P<0.01

** Significant at 0.01 level

Note: Figures in brackets represent percentage to total.

Table 1.2 reveals that out of 206 married high school teachers, 60 (18.52) had low level of teacher stress, 124 (38.27) had moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 22 (6.79) had high level of teacher stress. Among the 118 unmarried high school teachers, 12 (3.70) had

low level of teacher stress, 73 (22.53) had moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 38 (11.72) had high level of teacher stress.

To test the hypothesis that the level of teacher stress among high school teachers is independent of Marital Status, chi-square test has been applied. Since the p value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1 % level of significance and hence it is concluded that there is significant association between marital status and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

School Management and Level of Teacher Stress

Table 1.4

Classification of high school teachers on the basis of their School Management and level of Teacher Stress

School Management	Level of teacher stress			Total	Chi-square value	p-value
	Low	Moderate	High			
Government	30 (9.25)	98 (30.24)	9 (2.77)	137 (42.28)	24.347	.000**
Private	42 (12.97)	94 (29.01)	51 (15.74)	187 (57.71)		
Total	72 (22.22)	192 (59.25)	60 (18.51)	324 (100)		

P<0.01

** Significant at 0.01 level

Note: Figures in brackets represent percentage to total.

Table 1.3 shows that out of 137 government high school teachers, 30 (9.25%) had low level of teacher stress, 98 (30.24%) had moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 9 (2.77%) had high level of teacher stress. Among the 187

private high school teachers, 42 (12.97%) had low level of teacher stress, 94 (29.01%) had moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 51 (15.74%) had high level of teacher stress.

To test the hypothesis that the level of teacher stress among high school teachers is independent of age, chi-square test has been applied. Since the p value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1 % level of significance and hence it is concluded that there is significant association

between school management and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers. **School Management and Level of Teacher Stress**

Table 1.5

Classification of high school teachers on the basis of their School Management and level of Teacher Stress

Gender	Level of teacher stress			Total	Chi-square value	p-value
	Low	Moderate	High			
Government	30 (9.25)	98 (30.24)	9 (2.77)	137 (42.28)	24.347	.000**
Private	42 (12.97)	94 (29.01)	51 (15.74)	187 (57.71)		
Total	72 (22.22)	192 (59.25)	60 (18.51)	324 (100)		

P<0.01

** Significant at 0.01 level

Note: Figures in brackets represent percentage to total.

Table 1.3 shows that out of 137 government high school teachers, 30 (9.25%) had low level of teacher stress, 98 (30.24%) had moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 9 (2.77%) had high level of teacher stress. Among the 187 private high school teachers, 42 (12.97%) had low level of teacher stress, 94 (29.01%) had

moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 51 (15.74%) had high level of teacher stress.

To test the hypothesis that the level of teacher stress among high school teachers is independent of School Management, chi-square test has been applied. Since the p value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1 % level of significance and hence it is concluded that there is significant association between school management and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

School Locality and Level of Teacher Stress

Table 1.6

Classification of high school teachers on the basis of their School Management and level of Teacher Stress

School locality	Level of teacher stress			Total	Chi-square value	p-value
	Low	Moderate	High			
Rural	41 (12.65)	150 (46.29)	18 (5.55)	209 (64.51)	48.554	.000**
Urban	31 (9.57)	42 (12.96)	42 (12.96)	115 (35.49)		
Total	72 (22.22)	192 (59.25)	60 (18.51)	324 (100)		

P<0.01

** Significant at 0.01 level

Note: Figures in brackets represent percentage to total.

It is clear from the Table 1.4 that out of 209 high school teachers working in rural areas, 41 (12.65

%) had low level of teacher stress, 150 (46.29 %) had moderate level of teacher stress and the remaining 18 (5.55 %) had high level of teacher stress. Among the 115 high school teachers working in urban areas, 31 (9.57 %) had low level of teacher stress, 42 (12.96 %) had moderate level of teacher stress and the

remaining 42 (12.96 %) had high level of teacher stress.

To test the hypothesis that the level of teacher stress among high school teachers is independent of School Locality, chi-square test has been applied. Since the p value is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1 % level of significance and hence it is concluded that there is significant association between school locality and the level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

Findings of the Study

1. Majority i.e. 143 (44.13%) of the high school teachers had average level of teacher stress, 109 (33.65 %) had low level of teacher stress and the remaining 72 (22.22 %) had high level of teacher stress.
2. There is significant association between gender and level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
3. There is significant association between marital status and level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
4. There is significant association between school management and level of teacher stress among high school teachers.
5. There is significant association between school locality and level of teacher stress among high school teachers.

Conclusion

The investigator attempted to study the teacher stress experienced by the high school teachers and the influence of some demographic factors on their stress levels. Majority of the high school teachers selected for the study exhibited average level of teacher stress. Further, demographic factors like gender, marital status. School management and school locality were found to have significant influence on the teacher stress among the high school teachers.

References

1. Abel, M.H., and Sewell, J. (1999). Stress and burnout in rural and urban secondary school teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, 92, 287-293.
2. Anbuchelvan, C. (2010). Occupational Stress of High School Teachers. *Edutracks*, 9(9), 31-33.
3. Borg, M.G. and Falzon, J.M. (1989). Stress and job satisfaction primary school teachers in Malta. *Educational Review*, 41, 271-279.
4. Kyriacou, C. (2001). Teacher stress: Directions for suture research. *Educational Review*, 53, 27-35
5. Kyriacou, C. and Sutcliffe, J. (1978). Teachers stress: Prevalence, sources and symptoms. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 48, 159-167.
6. Olivier, M.A.J. and Venter, D.J.L. (2003). The extent and causes of stress in Teachers in George region. *South African Journal of Education*, 23(3), 186-192.



PERSPECTIVES ON WOMEN

Edited by
Babuddin Khan

A compilation of Select Articles from 25 Years of THIRD CONCEPT

On Emancipation and Empowerment of Women across the world with special emphasis on Indian Women

Price: Rs 695

Special Discount of 25% for Third Concept subscribers

Women Entrepreneurs' Problems in Aluva, Ernakulam

Sr. Sindhu P.J*

[For women entrepreneurship is essentially a journey out of poverty and towards equality and equity. Empowerment through entrepreneurship leads to self-fulfillment and makes women aware about their status, existence, rights and their position in the society. The institutional and policy framework for developing entrepreneurial skills, providing vocational education and training has widened the horizon for development of women. It opens up new avenues for creating employment opportunities for women. Despite large numbers of schemes and programmes being implemented, the women entrepreneurs are still experiencing a plethora of problems. Then also, all over the world, entrepreneurship is regarded as the key factor in overcoming the barriers that women face and the basic tool for empowering women and bringing them on to the main path of development. The paper examines the problems faced by twenty-five women entrepreneurs in Aluva Municipality with the help of primary and secondary data.]

Women's emancipation and their participation in productive activities in economy plays important role in determining the level of development. One of the catalytic forces fostering initiative, promoting and maintaining economic activities and distribution of wealth among women is 'Entrepreneurship'. The economic development of a nation is sparked largely by its enterprising spirit. For effective economic development, new business in low-income areas must be started through local initiatives. Thus, entrepreneurship is crucial for maintenance of healthy economy.

Entrepreneurs have potential of utilizing resources and creating employment opportunities. They are key persons of any country for promoting economic growth and technological change. They act as an engine of economic growth, job creation and prosperity of the society. Hence, developing entrepreneurship in the country can help in solving the problems of regional imbalance, unemployment and optimum allocation of resources.

The key factors in determining the success of development is the position of women in the

society. The socioeconomic development of a nation cannot be fully realised as long as its women are confined to a subordinate position and their talents are unexplored. An important component of women empowerment is economic independence. Economic empowerment of women is possible through three dimensions viz. attainment of income security, ownership of productive assets and entrepreneurship skill. The government provides many incentives and support facilities for the promotion of entrepreneurs in India. The most significant aspect of women's participation in entrepreneurship process is that it will connect them in the development process of the economy.

Entrepreneurship enhances women's social and economic standing. The development of women entrepreneurship has also become an important aspect of our plan priorities. Several policies and programmes are being implemented for development of women entrepreneurship in India. Despite large number of schemes and programmes being in vogue in several states of our country, the women entrepreneurs are still experiencing a plethora of problems which are indeed highly vexatious.

* Asst Prof., Dept of Economics, St. Xavier's College for Women, Ernakulam, Kerala.

All over the world, entrepreneurship is regarded as the key factor in overcoming the barriers that women face and the basic tool for empowering women and bringing them on to the main path of development. In the words of former president A.P.J. Abdul Kalama, "Empowering women is a prerequisite for creating a good nation, when women are empowered, society with stability is assured". Empowerment of women is essential as their thoughts and their value system leads to the development of a good family good society and ultimately a good nation.

Women's development is considered as an important approach to raise the level of productivity and to break the vicious circle of poverty. These factors not only improve the physical well-being of the individuals directly, but also enhance their productivity and ability to contribute to the national income.

Women constitute around half of the population. They are regarded as the better half of the society. Empowerment gives power to women in various spheres to have control over the circumstances of their lives. It includes both control over resources and ideology, greater self-confidence that enables one to overcome any problems. Empowerment of women is critical not only for their own welfare but also for the development of their family and community at large.

India envisions a future in which Indian women are independent and self-reliant and this is evident in the present scenario where our honourable president herself enjoys enviable position compared to others in many other countries. A strong desire to do something positive is an inbuilt quality of entrepreneurial women, who is capable of contributing values in both family and social life. Several policies and programmes are being implemented for the development of women entrepreneurship in India.

Thus, in this study, an attempt has been made to find out the various factors that motivate women to enter into business, the various problems faced

by the women Entrepreneurs in establishing and running their business in terms of finance, marketing and suggestions to overcome the problems and empower women in their business.

Review of Literature

G. Henry James and Dr. K. Satyanarayana (2015) have conducted an empirical study on "Women Entrepreneurship in India –Problems and Prospects". The researcher focused on the status of women entrepreneurs, problems faced by them and also offered suggestions for overcoming the constraints. It has been recommended that, there should be efforts from all sectors to encourage the economic participation of women and the country should rise to the challenge and create more support systems for encouraging more entrepreneurship amongst women.

Syed Abdul Hameed (2015) has studied, "The Problems and Prospects of Women Entrepreneurs in India". The study focused on various factors influencing women entrepreneurship and recommended measures for removal of obstacles to women entrepreneurship from the Indian perspective. The study identified that it is the need of the hour to motivate women entrepreneurs to harness the unexplored areas of business venture and scale greater heights

Brijesh Patel, Kirit Chavda (2013) have conducted a study on, "Challenges and Problems of Rural Entrepreneurship in India". The study has stated that the major problems faced by rural women entrepreneurs are especially in the fields of marketing of products, financial amenities and other primary amenities, i.e. availability of electricity, water supply, transport facilities and required energy etc.,

Dr. Vijayshree and B. Hema (2011) have conducted a study on, "Problems and Prospects of Women Entrepreneurs in Informal Market in Chennai." The main objective of the study was to find out the hindrances of Women entrepreneurs in informal market and also to study the level of satisfaction of women entrepreneurs in

conducting their business. Non-probability convenience sampling technique was used and data were collected from 150 respondents using questionnaire. Statistical tools such as simple percentage and chi-square test were used and found out that the finance and cultural factors, especially on economic angle, were the major constraints that affected the growth of women. Further, all the respondents revealed that they had a very modest living.

Significance of the Study

Role of entrepreneurship has been highlighted significantly in the development literature. In the Indian context also role of entrepreneurship has been very crucial. More than 90 per cent of India's workforce is engaged in the unorganized sector and women workers constitute a significant component of the workforce engaged in unorganized sector. Large number of women workers in the unorganized sector is self-employed workers engaged in the diverse kinds of entrepreneurial activities.

It has been observed that women in the unorganized sector undertake entrepreneurial activities primarily as a source of livelihood and as means to contribute to the meagre household income. There is a need for a large number of micro studies to understand various organizational and the operational aspects of women entrepreneurs in the unorganized sector to be able to reach out to them in a more effective manner.

The present study is a significant exploratory study on "Problems faced by women entrepreneurs in Aluva Municipality of Ernakulam District". The pace of urbanization in this area is very fast. The source of agriculture as a dominant source of livelihood is decreasing. In this context self-employment or entrepreneurial activities play an important role. The study throws light on the socio-economic profile of the women entrepreneurs, the types of their business, the sources and the levels of their investment, viability of the business, constraints faced by

women and the move towards empowerment. The study makes significant contribution to the existing literature in terms of understanding various dimensions of women entrepreneurs in Aluva Municipality and the scope for policy intervention in the area.

Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study were as follow:

- To examine the economic viability of the enterprises owned by women entrepreneurs.
- To examine various problems faced by women entrepreneurs in establishing and running a business enterprise.
- To offer suggestions to overcome the problems faced by women entrepreneurs and improve their business units.

Methodology and Data Source

The main source of data is the primary and secondary data. The secondary data have been collected from various Websites, published books, journals, periodicals etc., In this study the total universe was 25 women entrepreneurs in Aluva Municipality, Ernakulum district. Simple random sampling method was used in the survey. In order to analyse the data subject to problems faced by women entrepreneurs, the percentage analysis has been used along with diagrammatic presentation such as multiple bar diagrams, column diagrams, and pie diagrams etc.,

Data Analysis and Interpretation

For studying the economic viability of the enterprises owned by women entrepreneurs and the problems faced by them in their business units, questions such as motivation behind the women entrepreneurs to start their enterprise, reasons for the selection of the present business, building of the business, major source of finance, profit of the business and major problems of enterprise have been asked. These were the following:

(.....Continued the Next Issue)

DELHI POSTAL REGN. NO. DL (ND) - 11/6026/2018-19-20

R.N.I. NO. 45898/87

POSTED AT N.D. PSO ON 7/8 EVERY MONTH

Date of Publication : 5 - 11 - 2018
