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**Editorial.....**

You will be happy to know that we have entered the fifth year of publication of IJMER, since its inception in April 2012. Focusing on many interdisciplinary subjects, the published papers are spreading the knowledge with fervent hope of upholding the holistic approach. With all my heart, I reiterate to echo my sincere feelings and express my profound thanks to each and every valued contributor. This journal continues to nurture and enhance the capabilities of one and all associated with it.

We as a team with relentless efforts are committed to inspire the readers and achieve further progress. Aim is to sustain the tempo and improve. We acknowledge with pleasure that our readers are enjoying the publications of Sucharitha Publishers. We solicit to receive ideas and comments for future improvements in its content and quality. Editor –in-Chief explicitly conveys his gratitude to all the Editorial Board members. Your support is our motivation. Best wishes to everyone.

**Dr.K.Victor Babu**  
**Editor-in-Chief**

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## **WOMEN AS SOUVENIR VENDORS IN KINTAMANI, BALI: STRENGTHENING THE ECONOMIC BASE OF THE FAMILY**

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### **Abstract**

Street vendor is one of the jobs occupied by the minimal capital community in the areas of tourism in Bali, including the popular tourist area of Kintamani, Bangli Regency, Bali, Indonesia, especially in the Batur Tengah Village, better known as Penelokan. Their presence is not only considered bad by tourism businesses, but also considered as a major factor that hinders the development of tourism in Kintamani, even they get stigmatized as social pathologies. It is certainly interesting to be observed because being a street vendor is a decent job, which is one form of employment in the informal sector in the tourism industry in Bali. Understanding the phenomenon of street vendors in the Batur Tengah Village, the research aims to determine why the informal sector of street vendors are used as a basis of family's economy. This writing describes one of the efforts of the women in Bali who do jobs as souvenir vendors. In this type of job they sell any kinds of merchandises in order to fulfill the family necessity.

In Bali however, the number of women who involved in this job are numerous. In fact, there is an expectation of being equalized when a woman has the ability and opportunity to earn a living or as breadwinners. In her family this condition will bring prestige since the position of women is to follow the ideology of patriarchy (it is known as purusha in Hindu belief) and this makes the Balinese Hindu women are quite difficult to achieve gender equality. Nevertheless, the women in Bali (Balinese Hindu women) are able to achieve the position of being



equalized by strengthening the economic base of the family, including as souvenir vendors.

**Keywords:** Women, Souvenir Vendor, Kintamani, Strengthen, Economic.

## INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of street vendor in Bali have been studied by foreign researchers, the findings of Cukier and Wall (1994: 464) saw the emergence of street vendors in Bali, especially in the area of Kuta and Sanur that was caused not only because they have limited capital that they had to take easy and open job, but it also can be used as a preparation for seeking a better job. "*Many vendors view their current employment as means of acquiring the skills required to gain acces to employment in the formal sector* (Cukier and Wall, 1994: 464)". If a person is not accepted in the formal sector, causing him/her to choose jobs in the informal sector, including becoming a street vendor, with expectations by its economic capital it can improve the quality of education, so that it will be an opportunity for him to enter the formal sector. However, along with the increase in tourist arrivals, street vendors as one form of entrepreneurship has been fused society's view of jobs in the formal and informal sectors. Being an entrepreneur, any form of work has been seen as a form of creative and innovative society by Batur Tengah village on the opportunity provided by the development of tourism in Kintamani through the presence of tourists in the area. Utilization of informal sector of street vendor is considered to be able to provide benefits for the people, especially for the woman.

Balinese women, if they are compared to the majority of women, they have uniqueness and differences. Beside they are very friendly they also have strong spirit. Being friendly, unique, have strong spirit, etc they have to be able to deliver happiness and pleasure especially to their family on one side, and they have to do almost all of the domestic



work on the other side. This condition forces them to find excellent strategy in order to be able to manage and share the time, energy, mind to complete the various work. Moreover, those who are married and working, they should be able to carry out their profession as a wife, a mother and a worker at a place of business with a good, even without blemish. As if this condition reminds other people that as a woman who has got married and has children she has to be humble although in fact she has a good job. So even though they already earn a living to support the family necessity still they are considered the second person in the family. This phenomenon is in accordance with the idea of Bhasin (1996: v) as stated below:

“Nowadays the role and the position of women in the community are still as being pictured in the stories on television movies (soap operas and telenovelas). They stay at home just doing the three *M* such as *Masak* (cooking), *Macak* (preening), and *Manak* (delivering babies). They are often given a cultural designation ‘kanca wingking’ which has the meaning of ‘a friend who is in the rear and responsible for the housework’ although she is already a career woman (Bhasin, 1996: v).”

Women, wherever they are and especially the women in Bali are always difficult to have their right. There is a myth which is believed that women are the individuals who have the responsibility of giving attention to the family. It means wherever a woman is and even if she has a high position in a work place, the role of taking care of the family cannot be neglected from her. Actually, up to the recent time lots of defenses have been done against women, but still they are not right for men and even they are busy working for fulfilling the needs of their family.

The weak position of women, especially Balinese women cannot be separated from the patriarchal culture which is reinforced with the system of *purusha* that must be adhered to by the Balinese



Hindu community. The culture of patriarchal and *purusha* place the position of women under the control of men. Even a woman is married, she is considered to have been separated from her initial life (the previous life with her family) and then she is fully become the right of the man who became her husband. The concept of *nyuang* (to take) or *kajuang* (to be taken) and *makidihang* (to entrust sincerely) in the marriage tradition of Balinese Hindu community which has indeed normatively and legally broken the relationship between the woman and her birth parents. So no matter how the woman defends herself before her husband and her husband's family in the future time, will be still difficult because the woman had been entrusted consciously to her husband by her parents.

Vulnerability of the women and due to the strong patriarchal culture paternalistic authority (paternal) that exist in the patriarchal culture. Paternalistic power which is the main point or the main thing in a patriarchal culture directly makes the position of women always be at the mercy of men. No matter how great a woman is and even she could give everything to the family she loves, still she is under the control of the men (by her husband and the family of her husband). And the rules that apply to the new family (her family) are rules that must be obeyed, even as a child she was taught independently by her biological parents. Male power in a patriarchal culture can be described through an explanation given by Bhasin (2002) as cited in Atmadja (2010: 244) as follows:

"The right way to describe the control of men over women is through the paternalistic authority (paternal). There is power, but paternalistic because women are provided shelter, food, and security vis-à-vis outsiders. Paternalistic power has oppressive aspects, but it also involves a set of mutual obligations and is not often perceived as oppressive. This is what makes it difficult to be recognized and confronted (Bhasin, 2002: 30 as cited in Atmadja, 2010: 244)."



The understanding of legalized male power in patriarchal and purusha culture is interesting to be observed because it appears many implications especially on the lives of women. One of the implications is when a family only has a daughter; the family would otherwise lose their daughter because she is married. Since the daughter is married then she is no longer the right of her parents, but she becomes the right of the bridegroom. This kind of thinking is supposed to be corrected. Then it does not mean a frontal action to defense women but rather appreciate the good aspects of the male and the female. Sincerely, there has been a concept of love in the marital relationship in the Vedas, the Hindu religious scriptures. Even in Atharvaveda XIV.1.52 is explained that a man promised to give happiness to a woman who became his wife:

*"Mameyam astu posya,  
mahyam tvadad brhaspatih.  
maya patya prajavati,  
sam jiva saradah satam.*

(The bride should I support. Brhaspati God has given you to me. Oh bride, may you be happy with my life (husband) for a hundred years, along with the generation) (Titib 1996: 396)

Thus, it can be understood that in carrying out the paternalistic power, men should remain on compassion as appears previously in Atharvaveda XIV. 1:52, which means the harmonious relationship in family life between the male and female, could be established.

At the present time although Balinese women often get poor treatment from the men, but the persistence of Balinese women as a wife, a mother, and a worker is still performing well. Balinese women often do not even care about the type of job they are doing, as long as that kind of job is reasonable, then they will continue to work well in order to be able to meet the needs of themselves and their family.



Balinese women who choose a profession as souvenir vendors never at all feel embarrassed to run around selling merchandises only for the benefit which later will be used to fulfill the needs of everyday life. Balinese women, besides they are working as souvenir vendors not only for economic reasons but also for achieving gender equality. In their mind there is an expectation that through working they will be able to share the fulfillment of the family necessities and will achieve the position of equality in their family.

The phenomenon of Balinese women who work as souvenir vendors is interesting to be observed since there are many women who choose to do this job. Nowadays the opportunity of Balinese women to get a job becomes lesser or narrower since the number of men is getting higher to get the chance of having a job. This is one of the reasons the women sincerely do any kind of job as long as it is in accordance with the moral value in the community and it generates profits that can fulfill the needs of their necessities.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Street Vendor**

Street vendor lexically has the same meaning as peddler that means selling to offering anything to the buyer, with the intention that their merchandise sold (KBBI, 2012: 94). Meanwhile the word “acung” means pointing upwards, the hand pointing upwards (KBBI, 2012: 6). Based on the origin of the word and the lexical meaning found in the Indonesian Dictionary, it can be estimated that the beginning of the presence of street vendors were found at art shops widely grown in Bali, especially in the area of Gianyar, which sells its products by way of thrusting its goods to the bus windows, to guests who were on the bus. As noted by Mason (2015: 38) about the presence of lower capital of street vendors, having lower level of education as follows:



*“A large number of young males (aged 15-25) have traditionally worked as street and beach vendors in Bali. They mostly lack formal education, but have substantial language skills. In the mid-1990s, although they worked long hours, and believed they had few alternative job opportunities, most of these vendors were relatively happy with their lifestyle and were well remunerated by Indonesian standard (Cukier and Wall, 1994). Tourism grew so rapidly in Bali in the period after 1970 that by 1995, if the associated craft industries were included, then tourism contributed over 30 per cent of the gross provincial product (Wall, 1997)”.*

Mason described the findings of Cukier and Wall, about the presence of street vendor coming from the local community who are aged between 15 to 25 years, selling the handicraft products by selling directly to tourists (peddling). The tourist needs who sometimes beyond their plan, particularly on souvenirs and food products causing these two products to be potentially sold by street vendors in the tourist areas.

### **Economic Basis**

Marx explains that humans working in order to meet the diverse needs of life (Marx in Barker 2014: 160-161) and for Marx, working is the most fundamental human act that make themselves the real persons. Jobs of any kind will determine one's existence in society as proposed by Suseno-Magnis (2001: 91), that working means that humans take the natural shape of natural objects and give their own forms, in this case, humans make themselves an object into nature through their jobs. To understand the job in the thinking of Marx propounded by-Magnis Suseno (2001), it was understandable that people in the Batur Tengah village have professions as street vendors are the reflection that they were trying to make themselves objects in Kintamani since it is developed as a tourist destination.



## **Theory of Practice**

Human is the agent or actor who acts or conducts social practices in a social arena or in a space and time. Social practices always involve actors with different social status positions with each other. Social status is linked to the capital holdings of financial capital, intellectual capital, cultural capital or symbolic capital. People who own the biggest capital will be at the top of the structure, whereas those with the lowest capital structure are at the bottom. People who are on the top of the structure have the largest capital and also have the power of capital. Bourdieu's thinking is very important idea in the birth of social practice theory. Bourdieu formulated three important elements in order to give birth to a social practice that is habitus, capital, and domains. Bourdieu specifically gave more attention to the decisive force of social class as a structural barrier, and put habitus, in the context of a habit-oriented class into social construction (Barker, 2014: 24-25). In this case, the notion of capital in Bourdieu is a specific force in determining the position of each individual in an arena.

## **Theory of Feminism**

Feminism as a collection of a wide range of theoretical work as well as a political movement, seeks to revisit the position of women in society and realize their interests (Barker, 2014: 98). In the view of liberal feminism, the thinking is more focused on the differences between men and women as the construction of socio-economic and cultural comparison with the biological heritage, so the emphasis is their equal opportunity for women in all aspects of life (Barker, 2014: 99). Through liberal feminism, it is expected to create equality between men and women, especially in the economic sector. To be able to get equal rights, then women should be able to prepare himself for competition with men namely by improving education, expertise and skills.



## **METHODOLOGY**

The research was conducted at the Batur Tengah village, Kintamani, Bangli, Bali. Data used in this study is qualitative data and quantitative data. Qualitative data in the form of information or descriptive information regarding the quality of the meaning or nature of a phenomenon was obtained through interviews, observation, literature study, and examination of documents. While quantitative data in the form of description or information in the form of figures obtained through the examination of documents or statistical records. Sources of data in this study consist of primary and secondary data. The primary data obtained directly through observation and interviews, while secondary data obtained from relevant agencies such as the village office, chief of the village office, district tourism office and the provincial tourism department.

## **RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

### **The People's Meaningful Reason of Choosing Street Vendors as Family Economic Basis**

Borrowing the idea of Wirakartakusumah (1987: 33-47), there are several factors that cause a person to migrate jobs (1) economics, (2) social, (3) a state of nature, (4) cultural, (5) education and others. Based on the findings, it is economic factor that made people choosing to become street vendors. Their demands on economic needs caused the villagers in Batur Tengah to choose street vendor as the right job. Agricultural products are not able to be used in meeting the needs of their daily needs because the crop should be left largely as a capital, making the street vendor as a perfect solution to earn a living that can be used to feed and to pay for their children's school fees.

The phenomenon of street vendor in Bali have been studied by foreign researchers, the findings of Cukier and Wall (1994: 464) saw the



emergence of street vendors in Bali, especially in the area of Kuta and Sanur that was caused not only because they have limited capital that they had to take easy and open job, but it also can be used as a preparation for seeking a better job. *"Many vendors view their current employment as means of acquiring the skills required to gain access to employment in the formal sector (Cukier and Wall, 1994: 464)".* If a person is not accepted in the formal sector, causing him/her to choose jobs in the informal sector, including becoming a street vendor, with expectations by its economic capital it can improve the quality of education, so that it will be an opportunity for him to enter the formal sector. However, along with the increase in tourist arrivals, street vendors as one form of entrepreneurship has been fused society's view of jobs in the formal and informal sectors. Being an entrepreneur, any form of work has been seen as a form of creative and innovative society by Batur Tengah village on the opportunity provided by the development of tourism in Kintamani through the presence of tourists in the area. Utilization of informal sector of street vendor is considered to be able to provide benefits for the people.

### **Tourism as a Multi- opportunities industry and the Informal Sector Position of Street Vendors**

Tourism is a huge industry that is not only multi-products, but also multi-opportunities. The existence of multiple products needed by tourists, that it has implications for the availability of multi-opportunities, for anyone who wants to get a piece of the tourism opportunities. As the industry of multi-opportunity, then each individual must understand its competence to be able to take part in the development of tourism. Competence is the ability that possessed by someone to work on a particular line of work.

Understanding tourism as multi-opportunities is what has been the basis of considerations of the people in Batur Tengah Village



in taking a job as street vendors, where such work is a form of entrepreneurship for people of minimal capital. If tourism tends to be associated with those who have big capital, both those who have better economic capital, higher education, and special skills, but in fact the people who have limited capital (economy, education, and skills) can participate in the development of tourism namely as street vendors selling various souvenirs to tourists who visit a tourist attraction. Although the people of Batur Tengah have limited capital, but the habits and domains as the product of a field of forces that exist in the community (Takwin 2009: xx-xxi), made them persistent even though the profession as street vendors often get pressure from the government and other outside parties claiming to be professional tourism businesses. In this context, the capital they have is social capital, plus the habits and the domains that they have, then they can still survive.

### **Employment in the Informal Sector as the Lack of Capital-Jobs**

Choosing jobs in the informal sector, particularly as street vendors in Kintamani tourism area, for most people because the job does not require a large capital both material and educational background. Referring to the idea of Bourdieu who put habit in the context of a habit-oriented class into social construction (Barker, 2014: 24-25), then it is common that traders profession chosen by the Batur Tengah Village community as a reflection of the presence of tourists in the region. Profession of selling that has close relations with agriculture is the basis of their considerations for migrating from agriculture to peddling or make the profession of street vendor as a side job in order to improve the economy of the family. In addition, because they have limited capital, and lower educational capital, to be street vendors are considered as the right choices as a substitute and/or side job that can generate money to meet the family daily needs.



Informal sector employment by the Balinese people who practice selling in many different tourist destinations are in various forms, depending on the products being sold, including souvenir seller, seller of cold drinks, masseuse, hair tie artisan, artisan of temporary tattoos and more. The type of products being sold is also caused by the possession of economic capital, for those who have smaller economic capital they normally would take a job as a street vendor, whereas if they have enough economic capital, they will be able to rent a stall or small land used for a place to display their products. As stated by Alma (2006) and Hidayat (in Effendi, 1993) that employment in the informal sector does not require the amount of capital, and even tend to be smaller due to capital used is personal savings, so the scale of operations is also relatively small.

### **Being a Souvenir Vendor: to Achieve Gender Equality through Strengthening the Economic Base of Family**

The Balinese Hindu women can be stated quite different from the other women, especially those who live in the villages. The hegemony of patriarchal ideology through the implementation of *purusha* system which is intensely involved into the doctrines of Hindu religion, causing the Balinese Hindu women not only to be friendly, but also to be powerful and tough. Being powerful and tough are in the sense of being able to deal with life issues they face, both within the family and the social life in the community. The life issues of Balinese women are based on the patriarchal culture which is being experienced by those who live in the villages. However, the attitude of being more tolerate of villager women causing the gender conflict is barely audible in the village. This is in accordance with the idea of Suryakusuma (2012: 156) which describes the condition of villager women as follows:

"Poor villager women actually play a more important role in the survival of their families. But usually they are not aware of any regulations or laws that can improve their condition.



Consequently, where there should be a conflict there is no conflict (Suryakusuma, 2012: 156)".

The attitudes of villager women who tend to be tolerate and accept whatever the condition as a natural for women causing gender conflicts are very rare and almost never happen in the village. The attitudes of being tolerate are not only at home or in the family, but also on the aspects of work. On this condition villager women also choose to do the remaining work though it is difficult enough to be done in order to get the money for fulfilling their families' and their needs. The idea of Suryakusuma (2012: 142) concerning the attitude of acceptance of the villager women is interesting to be examined as follows:

"Poor villager woman would be willing to work in any condition with bad return, no matter how difficult the condition, because they do not have the bargaining power at all. Villager women face overlapping pressures. In addition to traditional roles in the family, they also have to work (Suryakusuma, 2012: 142)".

The idea proposed by Suryakusuma (2012: 142) also describes the condition of Balinese women who tend to accept a variety of work in order to earn money for their families. Suryakusuma (2012: 142) also states that in Bali, more and more women are working to lift the stone and cement to various construction works. The same thing is also stated by Astiti (2004: 187-189) that women tend to choose jobs in the informal sectors since it can be done not in their busy life as housewives. This phenomenon is a real picture of the Balinese women life, especially Hindus because they embrace two political systems patriarchal and *purusha*. No matter how the conditions they tend to accept as something natural so they work as souvenir vendors. Although this kind of job is a tiring one, the economic demands make them diligent to earn a fortune under the shadow of Kintamani tourism which will soon be transformed into Geopark international tourism resort.

A souvenir vendor as a capital minimal work becomes a major factor for Balinese women to be chosen as a job. They do not need to have a certificate of high education, special skills or expertise in something. They need small number of money to buy some products that they diligently sell later. Often they have to run around chasing the tourists in order to purchase the merchandise they sell. No matter how much they can get it will be very important for survival, because they are able to help fulfilling the needs of their family life. In this case, women, especially those who are married and have children, to earn a living for the family economy is not their primary obligation. This is in accordance with the idea of Suryakusuma (2012: 294) which confirms that the woman is not a secondary earner, because women have a responsibility for the welfare of all members of the family, both physically and psychologically. There is an expectation for women who work as souvenir vendors that when they are able to get any amount of economic resources, their work will be appreciated.



Figure 1. A woman tries to catch tourists to buy them souvenirs (left);  
a woman must work with her daughter (right)  
(Source: Documentation, 2015).



Some of the souvenir vendor women who were met by the writer said that the work they do is to help the economic needs of their families which is not completely fulfilled by their husbands. In fact, some of them also said that while they are working as souvenir vendors, often their husbands are in charge handling the children at home. However, the condition of mutual understanding between men and women is not fully applicable to souvenir vendors when the woman can help the man to make a living. Findings indicate there are also souvenir vendor women who should bring their children with them while working so there is a need to encourage her husband to work because they still think women should take care of everything including making a living. However, will Balinese retreat and leave the profession as souvenir vendors? The spirit owned by souvenir vendors' women is much beyond the spirit of other women especially for those who live in the city and become career women. They diligently do the profession as souvenir vendors; because this is the only work they are able to do in a condition filled with limitations, with an expectation that their income will place them equal to the husband's position in the family. Then it can be understood that a Balinese woman becomes a souvenir vendor is not just to help the family's economic needs that cannot be fulfilled optimally by the husband, but the aims also to achieve gender equality in the family. They will be rewarded if they are able to provide something more to their family.

## **CLOSING**

The use of informal sector of street vendors as family economic base in the Batur Tengah village is not only utilization without reason. The daily needs to be met through work that make the job of street vendor being chosen by the people in the Batur Tengah village that have limited capital, whether it's economic capital, skills, and education. Especially for women who have been married working time constraints caused by the task and responsibility against domestic



activities both in the family and in society, causing them to choose a job as a street vendor stick to the rule of working hours. Tourism is an industry of multi-opportunity that has fostered various forms of business, even anyone has the right to expand its business by taking opportunities offered by the development of tourism. Similarly, those in rural areas, although it has various limitations they still have the right to entrepreneurship in any form in order to obtain economic benefits. Working as a means of human beings to create a self-made job as a street vendor is a better job than being unemployed. Additionally, it is often found a person or group of people choose any job - although it is considered low but remains well occupied.

The phenomenon of women who are under the patriarchal ideology makes them not only difficult to move freely, but also places them in the second position after the males. The condition of Balinese Hindu women is rather complicated which is caused by the two powers over men who embraced the patriarchal culture and *purusha*. This makes the second position held by women in Bali especially Hindu is an unchangeable position. However, in the midst of the two strong male powers in Bali, especially the women in rural area are never tired of making themselves respected by men even in aligning their position with men. One strategy that the women in the village of Bali do is as souvenir vendors in order to strengthen the economic basis of their family. To help strengthening the family economy, they have an expectation to achieve gender equality in the family.

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## **IMPACT OF YOGA PRACTICE ON ACADEMIC STRESS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND THEIR EXPERIENCES**

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### **Abstract**

Today every individual face stress due to growing competition in every sphere of life and for reducing & managing stress everyone uses some techniques. In these, yoga & yogic practices play a vital role for managing & reducing stress & increases efficiency of life. The main objective of this study was to assess impact of yogic breathing practice on Academic Stress of University students.

The study started with eighty five university students studying in various departments of Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Marathwada University, Sub-Campus Osmanabad. Out of these, forty six students (32 Male & 14 Female) were selected on the basis of their high scores in Academic Stress Pre-test. A yoga module consisting of yoga breathing practice & mediation was administered daily for 10 minutes except Sundays for six weeks. The group was post-tested & the academic stress scores in pre & post tests were compared with the help of mean, standard deviation & t-test.

It is revealed that there is significant difference in academic stress level of university students after practicing yogic breathing and meditation. Apart from this, experience sharing session was taken on



last day, which was helpful to give suggestive measures for managing academic stress of all students.

**Key Words:-**Yoga, Academic Stress, University, Students etc.

### **Introduction:**

Sarve Bhavantu Sukhinah  
Sarve Santu Niramayah  
Sarve Bhadrani Pasyantu  
MaaKascit Dukha Bhagbhavet  
Om Shanti Shanti Shanti

-Shanti Patha from Yoga

The above shanti patha of yoga explained its aim for the betterment of human life. It means-

May all become happy,  
May all be free from illness,  
May all see what is auspicious,  
May all see what is auspicious,  
Om peace, peace, peace

According to yoga and its practices, it is very easy to live a healthy and good life. It is useful for Physical as well as Mental health. As we know now days we all suffer from various stressors in the form of diseases, social evil practices, cut throat competitions and departing relationships etc. These are leadings us towards unhealthy life style which makes us stressful. In this situation the young students also face so many stressors in their academic life due to different competitions in academic achievement. By observing all these situations and experiences of college students, the researcher has made this attempt to study impact of yogic practice on academic stress of university students so as to find out some easy & applicable solution for stress reduction in classroom.



## **Need & Significance:**

From Ancient time, every invention is shaped by taking into account the human life with the aim to make it easy to live. Yoga is such a life style which enhances the quality as well as quantity of human life. By considering the positive effects of yoga, it is merged into everybody's schedule as a compulsory part. The effects of yoga are still studying by Indian as well as foreign researchers in different viewpoints such as medicine, life style, psychology, education and cognitive science etc. On this background, as a university teacher the researcher wanted to find out the effect of yogic breathing on academic stress level of the university students, so as to guide them to reduce and manage their stress in general and academic stress in particular.

## **Review of Related Literature**

While reviewing the related literature on yoga and academic stress, the researcher found that there are numerous literature and research studies on various aspects of yoga in India & Abroad as well. These studies are related with yoga as alternative medicine practices. Yoga for mental health and yoga for academic achievement & stress reduction also. Therefore the researcher reported those studies in brief as follows-

### **Yoga as alternative Medicine Practices:**

A.W. Goldsmith & Amber W. Li (2012) reviewed various studies (35) conducted on effects of yoga on Anxiety and stress. They reported that out of 35 reviewed studies, 25 studies noted a significant decrease in stress and anxiety symptoms when a yoga regimen was implemented however many of the studies hindered by limitations like small study populations, lack of randomization and lack of a control group.



## **Yoga for Mental Health:**

The yoga practices like asanas and pranayama are useful for reducing depression in various age group people. It is also observed that yoga is an effective relaxation technique. [Lee & et.al(2004), unebelacker & et.al (2010) & woolery & et. al. (2004)]. Apart from this, yoga exercises helped school children to increase their attention and can be used as relaxation techniques. [Stueck, M. & et.al.(2005), Peck, H. I. & et.al.(2005)]. It is also observed that yoga practices are helpful to reduce anger and fatigue of secondary school children. [Khalsa, S. & et.al.(2012)].

## **Yoga as Healthy Lifestyle:**

While searching for benefits of yoga, it is revealed that regular yoga users felt that yoga was an important part of maintaining their health and well being. [Birdee, GS & et.al.2008]. The similar findings noted by Gupta, N. & et.al.in 2006 that yoga based life style was effective for stress management.

## **Yoga and Academic Achievement & Academic Stress:**

We know yoga is an ancient Indian practice and it was used in ancient education system. There are few studies related with application of yoga in education field. Desai, B. P. (1986) reported integration of yoga with modern education and its benefits for students at various stages.

It is revealed yoga is a positive addition to the secondary classroom and can be an effective way to help students cope with stress and focus on school work (Berlin, S. 2008). There is no significant change in participants' self-reported stress level but it showed



significant change in students perceptions of yoga as physical activity and relaxation (Smith-Vogtmann, H. 2009). It is also found that yoga practicing students have higher concentration level and exhibited better short term memory (Kauts& Sharma, 2012) & better in academic performance (Mane & et.al.2014).

All these studies showed positive result of yoga practices on various group. But those are not giving a single activity which can be easily assimilated in daily teaching classrooms in higher education. Therefore researcher made this attempt to find out such a solution.

### **Objectives:**

The objectives of the study were

1. To find out academic stress level of university students.
2. To study impact of yogic breathing practice on academic stress of University students.
3. To suggest measures in the form of yogic practice for reducing academic stress of University students.

### **Hypothesis:**

By considering the objectives of the present study following hypothesis was postulated-

1. There is no significant difference among academic stress levels of University students before and after yogic breathing practices.

### **Method & Materials:**

Considering the nature of the problem under study, the experimental method was used. The academic stress of University students was noted with help of Academic stress scale developed by the



researcher. The data was collected from eighty five students as pre- test group from those forty six students were selected as study sample. Thus single group design of experiment was used.

### Procedure:-

The academic stress scale administered on eighty-five university students from all departments in pre-test. On the basis of their academic stress Scores, High scored University students were selected as study sample group. A yoga module consisting of yogic breathing practices administered for 10 minutes daily except Sundays for six weeks. The group was post-tested and the academic stress scores in pre-test and post-test were compared with the help of mean, standard deviation and t-test.

### Analysis and interpretation:-

The academic stress scores of university students in pre-test and post-test were compared and presented in the following table –

**Table 1: Comparison of academic stress of university students**

| Compo<br>nents | N  | Mea<br>n | S.D. | t-table<br>value(0.0<br>1) | t-<br>calculate<br>d value | Signific<br>ance |
|----------------|----|----------|------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| Pre-test       | 46 | 90.8     | 2.34 | 2.69                       | 23.98                      | Significa<br>nt  |
| Post-<br>test  | 46 | 68.4     | 2.62 |                            |                            |                  |

The above table showed that the calculated t-value is greater than the table-t-value, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is significance difference among academic stress



levels of university students after practicing yogic breathing for ten minutes daily. It means the yogic breathing worked as stress relief aid for students and it helped them to feel relaxed. Many of them were ready to give extra time to practice it and incorporate it in their daily schedule.

After this experimentation, a session was conducted for sharing students' experiences about this experiment. They shared their views and expectations as shown in below table –

**Table 2: Experiences and expectations of University students**

| Sr. No. | Experiences/expectations                                              | Students | Percentage |
|---------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|------------|
| 1.      | Yogic practice makes me relieved and stress free.                     | 46       | 100 %      |
| 2.      | After yogic breathing I can concentrate on studies for longer period. | 42       | 91.3%      |
| 3.      | Yogic practice should be followed daily.                              | 38       | 82.6%      |
| 4.      | A break or start with yogic practice should be there.                 | 35       | 76.08%     |
| 5.      | Yoga practices should be part of academic time-table.                 | 30       | 65.21%     |

Thus many students felt that yogic practices are very useful as it reduced their stress levels, helped them to concentrate on academic activities and obviously it help them to manage their life effectively. Most of them expected that there should be some period to practice in educational campuses or it should be included as a schedule in daily time-table.



### **Finding:**

From analysis and interpretation, it is revealed that there is significant difference among academic stress scores of university students after practicing yogic breathing and meditation. It means yogic breathing and meditation helped students to feel stress free and helped them to complete their academic work with concentration and enthusiasm. The university students shared their experiences which also denoted the positive factors of practicing yogic breathing and meditation daily only for ten minutes. Therefore, students also expected that some of yogic practices should be inculcated in daily schedule of higher education in general and of university schedule in particular.

### **Conclusion:**

Yoga is a part of ancient Vedic system of India. It is a science which aims for healthy body with healthy mind. It focuses on physical well being of individual as well as psychological well being also. It helps to maintain a complete health of every individual. By following its practice for minimum ten to fifteen minutes daily one can preserve his physical and mental health.

Today's young generation has so many stressors. For them, there should be some compulsory yogic practices included in time-tables of higher education institutions. This would be helpful for students at higher education level to manage their academic stress and also to cope up with every ups and downs of life.



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## **FATIGUE - THE MOST DISASTROUS CAUSE OF TRAIN DISASTERS**

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### **Abstract**

Indian Railways is one of the world's largest network (under a single management), consisting of more than 100,000 Train Drivers/Assistant Drivers/Guards, which forms the basic functioning team, responsible for Train Operations. The present research work focuses on the fatigue effects the mood and mind set of driving person as it is the potential risk in terms of safety of the Railways. Indian Railways administration strictly following certain rules, practices and measures constrains to safety. trade unions are fighting for the revision of HOER .In this context this research paper intends to raise awareness about the risks of fatigue oriented driving and the associated causes of fatigue, to present countermeasures that are being used around the world to tackle this growing problem in general and for train drivers in particular.

**Key Words:** Train Drivers, Indian Railways, sustained attention, stress at work, facilities.

**Introduction:** Indian Railways is one of the world's largest railway networks comprising 115,000 km of track over a route of 65,000 km and 7,500 stations. It transports over 25 million passengers and 2.8 million tons of freight daily.



The Railways' Drivers / Loco-Pilots are the most important personnel executing this huge task of transportation. Accomplishing this task of transporting the passengers and goods, with great care and commitment, safe and punctual by overcoming all types of seasonal hazards can be compared with soldier at the war.

The operational challenges the train drivers face while doing their job lead to lot of stress and frustration. Further more night duties, irregular work shifts, unpredictable timings, longer hours working and time zone changes continue to be common in their working pattern. Operating on long distance routes, overnight stays in various locations will be necessary during their working. Delays and hazards on the track are quite common for them. The cab atmosphere too, will be quite cold or hot and noisy and with vibrations. Even having untimely food on run, spending hours without toilet facility makes their working miserable. All these accumulated factors put together lead to fatigue, which is considered a common cause for train disasters today.

In an inter divisional survey conducted by the railways, in Hyderabad, Madras, Bangalore and Vijayawada divisions nearly 62% of the train drivers accepted that 'A lot of accidents occur due to fatigue'

This study is to provide an insight into what actually fatigue is and how exactly it interferes with train drivers' performance and causes train disasters.

**Methods:** The scientific literature and numerous other resources like case studies were explored to study the impact of fatigue on train safety. In addition, the suitability of various methodological strategies for measuring the detrimental effects of fatigue on driver's performance is also studied.



## **Analysis:**

The fatigue is what most people understand as sleepiness, or lack of alertness. This is different from physical fatigue (physical exhaustion), or the medical fatigue of conditions such as chronic fatigue syndrome or Fibromyalgia. The fatigue that we are particularly interested in is primarily thought of as sleepiness.

## **Causes of fatigue:**

There are several causes of sleepiness, such as lack of sleep or excessive wakefulness. It can arise from:

- a. Reduced sleep efficiency associated with conditions such as sleep apnea.
- b. Type-2 diabetes or a neurological condition.
- c. Certain drugs also increase sleepiness.

But the main type of fatigue train drivers experience is due to **stress**.

Stress can indirectly contribute to sleepiness by interrupting sleep. Stressed people tend to sleep less well and therefore tend to be sleepier, but typically the direct experience of stress is to make you alert rather than sleepy.

## **The symptoms of fatigue:**

The effects are on three broad levels—physical, mental function and emotional.

- a. Of rest include - yawning, rubbing eyes, slumped posture and increased likelihood of falling asleep.
- b. The effect on mental function is - to slow responses. People take longer to do mental work and are more likely to make mistakes. They experience cognitive disengagement (engaging less with cognitive tasks) which increases the frequency of certain types of errors.



- c. Emotionally, people become grumpy and unaffectionate. They are typically irritable, short tempered, terse and uncommunicative.

### **Why drivers are more prone to fatigue?**

People who don't get enough sleep or whose sleep is disrupted will become fatigued. Due to the schedules train drivers experience sleep of reduced duration and quality of rest and this leads to increasing fatigue levels.

Train driving is a complex task, which relies heavily on numerous aspects of neuro-cognitive functioning including sustained attention, object detection and recognition, memory, planning, decision-making and work load management (Roth, 2000, in Reinach & Raslear, 2001).

Therefore, it is not surprising that fatigued train drivers display compromised driving performance. Crew fatigue is often cited as a safety issue in transport and logistics also due to scheduling factors, extended duty periods, and circadian factors.

Research has also indicated that sleep loss and fatigue can result in higher order cognitive deficits such as nonverbal planning (Horne, 1988) and memory (Harrison & Horne, 2000).

Fatigue and sleepiness are associated with night and early morning shifts among the train drivers (Akerstedt et al.1980; Dawson et al.1998; Hak and Kampman 1981; Ingre et al. 2000).

Apart from India Rail accident reports many countries like Australia, China, Japan and the US, have cited work related fatigue (Pearce, 1999; Zhou, 1991) and the inability of the driver to maintain wakefulness (Kogi and Ohta, 1975; Lauber and Kayten, 1988) as contributing agents for fatal accidents.



Fatigue is conceptualized as the result of inadequate restorative sleep and rest and excessive time awake, and is modulated by time of day.

### **Effects of fatigue:**

- a. The mental effect of fatigue is to impair people's thought processes. They are more inclined to make errors or use poor judgment, increasing the likelihood of mistakes, accidents and incidents.
- b. Tired people put themselves and others at risk. On a personal level, fatigue reduces libido.
- c. New literature suggests sleep disruption and sleep loss impair carbohydrate metabolism and exacerbate the weight gain associated with type-2 diabetes. This increases the likelihood of sleep apnea, which decreases sleep quality—a vicious cycle.
- d. There is some indication that sleep loss has long-term impacts on immune function, susceptibility to infections or illness and increased recovery time.
- e. Early research with animal models simulating shift work shows effects on the endocrine system.
- f. There is no doubt that sleep loss seriously stresses the human body. Most epidemiological studies associate sleep loss with circadian disruption especially in shift workers.
- g. Shift workers are more likely to drink, smoke, eat poorly and not exercise. They exhibit more lifestyle illness, which reduces longevity and increases mortality.
- h. Negative outcomes associated with fatigue include increased fuel use, missed alert signals and failures to sound the horn at level crossings (Thomas & Raslear, 1997).



- i. Fatigue lead to a reduction in planning (i.e. a failure to anticipate and prepare for upcoming track features) and, depending on the drivers\_ braking behavior, there would be one of two negative outcomes – braking error or speed violation. Braking errors primarily result in reduced efficiency, causing increases in fuel use and wheel, coupler and cargo damage. Speed violations, particularly at high levels are more likely to manifest in terms of safety, increasing derailment risk.
- j. Moreover, rail crash investigations have identified work-related fatigue (Pearce, 1999; Zhou, 1991), and the inability to maintain wakefulness (Kogi & Ohta, 1975; Lauber & Kayten, 1988) as contributing factors.
- k. Driver fatigue is an issue in all 24-hour operations and is a leading cause of transportation-related fatalities.
- l. It is generally accepted that drowsy driving and fatigue-related micro sleeps occur at a higher rate during specific times in the 24-hour period, and are related to the circadian phase of the driver.
- m. Crew fatigue is often cited as a safety issue in aviation too due to scheduling factors, extended duty periods, and circadian factors.

### **Measuring fatigue:**

A well established instrument called the Psychomotor Vigilance Task (PVT) is used for testing fatigue. This tests how tired a person is by measuring response time and vigilance: as they get more tired they miss more signals and take longer to respond.

Real World Task Performance is measured using simulators (eg: rail, jumbo jet, truck) while depriving subjects of sleep. The 'fatigue-o meter' indications are recorded and are linked to changes in performance of real world tasks.



## **How much sleep do you need to be safe?**

If you sleep for less than five hours in the 24 hours prior to starting work or driving, or for less than 12 hours in the 48 hours prior, you are probably at a significantly elevated risk for a fatigue-related incident or accident. It is very important that individuals are accountable for driving fatigue.

Road accident case reference: The interesting legal history includes the appeal of Jiminez against his culpable driving conviction in the Australian High Court in 1992. The defendant had a fatigue-related accident where he fell asleep, the car crashed and a passenger died. His defence argued that because he fell asleep, he was not responsible for his actions (they were involuntary) and so he could not be held criminally liable for the other person's death. We now see that driving tired or fatigued is comparable to using drugs or alcohol—it is a state of voluntary impairment. This is being reflected in legislation, particularly in Occupational Health and Safety. The voluntary and foreseeable aspects are critical criteria in criminal or civil liability. If I tell you to drive a truck to a destination, and I know it will take 18 hours, and I know you have been awake for 22 hours, then it's reasonably foreseeable that you will be tired, and that could lead to impairment. As your officer, I am responsible. The law is now saying "you should have known better". We believe governments should undertake a public Education initiative to raise awareness about the minimum acceptable level of sleep, with slogans like "Less than 5 and you should not drive" or "Less than 4 And drive no more". In my view the campaigns that focus on falling asleep are looking at the wrong end of the problem. If you are tired, it's too late. Effective intervention should occur much earlier. Knowing about the dangers of sleep-deprivation allows you to make an informed choice before you start driving and put yourself, and others, at risk.



## **Management of fatigue:**

In many Foreign Railways, Transportation System developed separate national commission to study fatigue management, micro sleep phenomena, sleep debt, sleep deprivation etc on Rail Road drivers and recommended various measures to combat fatigue encountered due to longer hours, irregular pattern of working, night duties etc.

Such a scientific approach is all the more necessary in the modern scientific era to decide working hours of train drivers based on sound level, vibration, temperature, electromagnetic induction which is having a direct bearing in the safe train operation. Presently, it has been observed in diesel/electric locomotives the permissible levels of above parameters are on a higher level, which increases stress and strain.

Apart from the above inadequately maintained and designed driving cab with louder noise, uncomfortable seating arrangement and mainly absence of facility to attend nature call, long hood working in Diesel locomotive which prevents continuous visibility (especially on WDP4 ), Dead man handle pressure on Motor man in EMU / MEMU / DEMU increases stress and strain.

In the present arrangement in Railways, fatigue level measuring system is not prevailed but Loco Pilots are complaining about these aspects to various committees and commissions. Hence it is necessary to evolve a system to gauge the fatigue level scientifically, and also to mitigate the fatigue caused by the above narrated facts which shall be scientifically analyzed and improvement be made on these aspects.

Further an aspect which is of great importance in ensuring a driver's well being and alertness on duty is the condition of Running Room. Though various high power committees had stressed on this matter, the improvement in Running Room has been inadequate at ground level.



## How do drivers perceive responsibility for fatigue?

It has been observed the process of undergoing a change in attitudes of train drivers similar to those with drunken driving and not wearing seat belts. Until recently people did not see fatigue as a risk factor. People don't often get the opportunity to learn because if you fall asleep while driving, results are devastating and fatal. However, awareness campaigns are helping to educate the community of train drivers. If someone stays awake continuously for 20 hours, they will exhibit performance impairment equal to a blood alcohol reading of 0.05, and after 24 hours it is equal to 0.1. The level of fatigue-related impairment is a function of both how long you have been awake and the time of day at which you are awake—it ebbs and flows like a sinusoidal wave. Community attitudes to fatigue are changing. We have been saying 'Don't Drink and Drive' for a long time—now we should also say '**Don't Drive Tired**'. Because **it is startling to realize that driving fatigued is like driving drunk!**

Sleepiness represents a significant risk to driving safety and may pose as great a risk as alcohol. Professional drivers involved in fatal accidents had average sleep duration of less than six hours in the 24 hours before the accident. Sleepiness at the wheel increases the risk of causing accident by 8.2 times. Researchers from the University of Helsinki found that over 20% of long-haul drivers reported dozing off at least twice while driving during the previous three months, and 17% of these drivers reported near misses due to dozing off.

If you go through the some of the relative research works globally; In a random sample of 3,268 Australian commercial vehicle drivers 59.6% had sleep disordered breathing (SDB) and 24% had excessive sleepiness. British figures indicate that 27% of drivers who lost consciousness while on drive had fallen asleep, as opposed to fainting, having a seizure, or having a heart attack—and they account for 83% of fatalities. Australian fatigue-related



accidents alone could be costing the driving community up to \$3 billion (AU) per year, with heavy-vehicle fatigue-related accidents costing around \$300M annually.

**Present changes:** Over a period of time, considerable efforts have been made by Indian railways to improve the working condition of Loco drivers. These are mainly in the form of -

- Ensuring limitation of continuous working hours
- Ensuring adequate rest in between two periods of duty
- Providing proper accommodation away from home where they break off
- Providing ergonomic design of loco cabs

It is also important to improve the mental state of the drivers since their lapses due to mental stress could be most disastrous. One step in this direction is to provide training in “Yoga” and “Meditation” to the drivers. These techniques are known to have not only helped many in remaining stress-free but also to improve their physical health. Facilities are also provided for them to practice the same at the “Running rooms”, which are the places where the crew on duty take rest away from home.

While on one hand, the working environment of the loco drivers is getting enhanced, on the other hand it is also ensured that they do not over-indulge themselves. There is an established system for checking whether they are sober before signing on and signing off, as also during the duty hours.

**Conclusion:** Human element continues to be the major contributing factor for train accidents. In spite of several new initiatives and efforts, scope exists in many areas of train operation on Indian Railways where new technology and automation could reduce dependence on Human element. While introducing such technologies, adequate stress is also required to be laid on the reliability of the equipments, since the equipment failures would



re-introduce the dependence on Human element multi-fold. Nevertheless, training will be the main area of concentration for reducing accidents due to Human failure.

Although there is consistent evidence of fatigue-related problems associated with train driving operations there is no clear consensus on the best methodological strategy or strategies to mitigate drivers' fatigue or to assess drivers' operational performance in actual driving contexts on an on-going basis. Such a consensus will be required before the driver being taken to task for being responsible for near misses or SPADs. Avoiding the crew for longer hours working as per HOER rules is instant conclusion, keeping revision of HOER rules for driving personnel should be the future optimistic conclusion.

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## **A CASE STUDY ON ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN THROUGH SELF HELP GROUPS AND MICRO- ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT**

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### **Abstract:**

Empowerment of women has emerged as an important issue in today. **Women Empowerment** refers to the creation of an environment for women where they can make decisions of their own for their personal benefits as well as for the society. The economic empowerment of rural women is being regarded these days as a very popular sign of progress for a country. Self Help Groups (SHGs) have smoothened the way for economic independence for rural women. The members of Self Help Groups are involved in Micro Entrepreneurship. Basically, this article deals with empowerment of rural women through self help groups and entrepreneurship. Economic empowerment of rural women led to development of family, community, society, state and nation therefore it is very necessary to give keen of our attention over empowerment of women in the rural area for the real development of our country in all spheres. Special programmes have been designed for training and capacity building of women beneficiaries of the SHGs

**Keywords:** Economic Empowerment, Poverty, Entrepreneurship, Rural Women and Self Help Groups.



## I. INTRODUCTION

“You can tell the condition of a nation by looking at the status of its women.” -By Jawaharlal Nehru. The empowerment of rural women generally refers to the process of improving the quality of life and the economic wellbeing of women living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. According to the census of India, 2011, the population of India is more than 1.21 billion and out of it 72.20% population belongs to the rural area. Women constitute nearly 50 per cent of population, perform two-thirds of the work and produce 50 per cent of food commodities consumed by the country. They earn one third of remuneration and own 10 per cent of the property or wealth of the country. Within the framework of democratic policy, our laws, development policies, plans and programmes have aimed at women’s advancement in different spheres. The objective of this paper is to analyze the role of empowerment of women in rural India. It is giving lawful power or authority to act.

If women were empowered they would be able to participate in the planning, execution and implementation of developmental schemes in rural development. Empowerment leads to development, which further leads to greater empowerment. The various programmes for women empowerment such as Swashakti, Swayamsidha, Stree Shakti, Balikasamrudhiyojana and another two thousand projects reveal that little has been done or achieved through these programmes for development of rural people in the country. The discrepancy in the ideology and practice of the empowerment policy of women in India constitutes its continued social, economic and social backwardness. The purpose of this paper is to strengthen Women in our nation by increasing their participation in Micro Entrepreneurship through self help groups by enhancing economic empowerment.



According to United Nation's Definition of Women Empowerment have five components.

- Women's sense of self-worth;
- Their right to have and to determine choices;
- Their right to have access to opportunities and resources;
- Their right to have the power to control their own lives, both within and outside the home;
- Their ability to influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order, nationally and internationally.

## **2. ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN**

### **Poverty Eradication**

Since women comprise the majority of the population below the poverty line and are very often in situations of extreme poverty, given the harsh realities of intra-household and social discrimination, macroeconomic policies and poverty eradication programmes will specifically address the needs and problems of such women.

### **Micro Credit**

In order to enhance women's access to credit for consumption and production, the establishment of new and strengthening of existing micro-credit mechanisms and micro-finance institution will be undertaken so that the outreach of credit is enhanced.

### **Globalization**

Globalization has presented new challenges for the realization of the goal of women's equality, the gender impact of which has not been systematically evaluated fully. However, from the micro-level studies



that were commissioned by the Department of Women & Child Development, it is evident that there is a need for re-framing policies for access to employment and quality of employment.

## **Women and Agriculture**

In view of the critical role of women in the agriculture and allied sectors, as producers, concentrated efforts will be made to ensure that benefits of training, extension and various programmes will reach them in proportion to their numbers. The programmes for training women in soil conservation, social forestry, dairy development and other occupations allied to agriculture like horticulture, livestock including small animal husbandry, poultry, fisheries etc. will be expanded to benefit women workers in the agriculture sector.

## **Women and Industry**

The important role played by women in electronics, information technology and food processing and agro industry and textiles has been crucial to the development of these sectors. They would be given comprehensive support in terms of labour legislation, social security and other support services to participate in various industrial sectors.

## **Support Services**

The provision of support services for women, like child care facilities, including crèches at work places and educational institutions, homes for the aged and the disabled will be expanded and improved to create an enabling environment and to ensure their full cooperation in social, political and economic life.

### 3. SELF-HELP GROUP MODEL:

The self-help group model was presented in fig.1. The self-help groups go through various stages of group information. Initially a bench mark survey is undertaken and problems are identified followed by other stages conscientization, selection of groups, identifying roles of members.

The next stage is group action. At this stage , the members of the self-help groups will be given training related to technologies/production units and are linked with financial institutions like banks, credit unions etc. The other stage is facilitations which include the change-agent intervention and implementation of corrective measures and the final stage is evaluation.

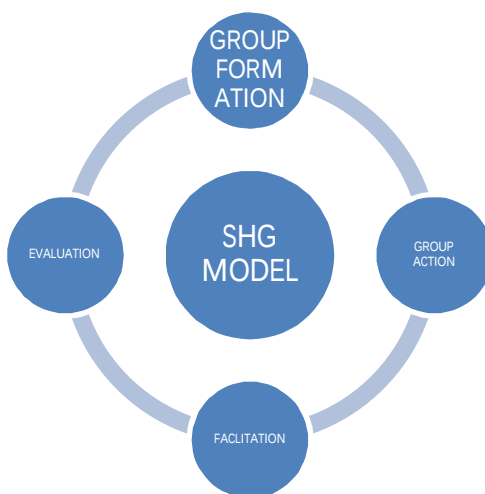


Fig.1. Self-Help Group Model

In this stage, problems identified during implementation of the scheme will be monitored and workable solutions will be identified and



implemented. If problem arises in the course of any of these stages, it may be corrected adopting corrective measures.

The reverse arrow in fig.1. Indicate that after group formation, monitoring and evaluation can be undertaken at each stage while selecting the groups, identifying leaders, registrations of groups etc. As a part of general awareness/conscientization programme, these meetings emphasize the important of groups, group formation and their importance in starting income generating activities. The members are made aware of the possibilities of income generating vocations and also about the credit facilities given by various financial institutions in starting such enterprise.

### **FORMATION OF SELF HELP GROUPS:**

The SHG is group of rural poor who have volunteered to organize themselves into a group for eradication of poverty of the members. They agree to save regularly and convert their savings into a common fund known as the “group corpus”. The members of the group agree to use this common find and such other funds that they may receive as a group through a common management.

A large number of DWCRA (DRDA –IKP-VELUGU) groups have been formed and assisted by DRDAs in the past. Likewise, there are number of SHG formed by NABARD, other banks ,Rastriya Mahila Kosh, non-government organizations (NGOs), women and child development under the swa-sakthi and swayamsidha the DRDA may facilitate in planning of network of SHGs by federating them at appropriate level, once SHGs have reached the stage of maturity and have stabilized. This would felicities regular interaction, poring of surplus with the groups, exchange of experiences including flow of information from DRDAs and other departments, bulk access to credit



from various micro-finance institutions and help them to plan for desired backward and forward and linkages including marketing of their products etc.

#### **4. WOMEN EMPOWERMENT THROUGH SHGS IN ANDHRA PRADESH**

The government of Andhra Pradesh has taken up the theme of women's empowerment as one of the strategies to tackle the socio-economic poverty. Self help groups through savings have been taken up as a mass movement by women a path chosen by them to shape their density for better. Development agenda of the state in the last few years placing the people, especially women in the fore-front has enabled formation of a large number of SHGs throughout the state and majority of women are saving one rupee a day. The state government is consciously making an effort to assist SHGs by providing revolving fund/matching grant under various programmes.

##### **SHGS - A MOVEMENT IN ANDHRA PRADESH:**

There are about 4.65 lakhs women SHGs in Andhra Pradesh covering nearly 61.70 lakhs poor women. Andhra Pradesh alone has about half of SHGs organized in the country. The SHGs are also popularly called DWCRA groups, and this name became popular after the DWCRA programme (development of women and children in rural and tribal areas) through which women's groups were assisted initially. The SHG are not resorting to thrift but also are taking small loans out of the corpus available with the group. The group corpus consists of savings, government assistance and also bank loan. Members use loan out of group corpus for their personal needs initially. However in the long run such loans are utilized for income generation activities. Since



inception an amount of rs.155.90 corers is mobilized as corpus by these groups.

### **MICRO CREDIT TO SHGS:**

Microcredit samithi conducted in 1997 in Washington resolved reach 100 million poor women by 2005 all over the world. In Andhra Pradesh alone, 61.70 lakhs women were covered under micro credit with a saving of a rupee per day and the financial institutions extending loans up to 4 times to the amount of group savings. From the year 1997 to January 2003, bank extended a loan of rs.1345 cores to SHG and the recovery of loans is more than 95%.recentlt commercial banks have reduced interest relate on the loans extended to SHGs from 12% to 9%.

### **BUILDING INSTITUTIONS FOR SHGS:**

Women's savings movement started in 1193 as enough shoot of total literacy campaigns successfully conducte4d by the pro-active government initiatives in the southern part of Andhra Pradesh, poor women admitted against sale3s for arrack. Organized them self's into, thrift and cre3dit groups 'with one rupee saving in a day had now turned into mass movement in which 61.70 lakhs numbers saved more than Rs.887.47 crores which is rotated internally and lent amongst the members twice in a year as for the interest rates fixed by the groups, such amounts are used for their daily consumption needs and also for production of goods for sales to earn incomes.

### **ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT OF SHGS:**

60% of the women take up economic activities related to agriculture and allied activities. And lease for growing agricultural crop



is a common practice in the 9 Telengana districts. Vegetables and flower cultivation, food crops and pulses, oil seeds cultivation are taken up open leased lands. Similarly rearing of calves, ram lamp, chicks, piggery, dairy, value addition to milk and milk products are preferred by women agricultural labourers. Lettered and unskilled women unengaged in small business activities. Nearly 20% of the SHG members are artisans and engaged in making handicrafts and handloom products.

Public private partnership method is adopted in promoting economic opportunities to by SHG members by appointing them as dealers for the sale of products manufactured by companies like Hindustan levers limited, TVV,TTK-prestige, Colgate-Palmolive, Philips etc. Companies in return train SHGs in finance management, enterprise development, packaging, branding and pricing of products. This partnership is a win models.

Andhra Pradesh is now engaged in intense pursuit of development programmes utilizing information technology and to strategize as to how the benefits of it could be taken to rural areas.SHGs are encouraged to get PCs and software for accessing information and developing their business. Their products are photographed, scanned and displayed on websites. These are put on the portals of e-commerce companies. Handicrafts, herbal medicines and cosmetics, hand woven and embroidered curtains, toys, paintings etc., are thus finding national and international markets. This would not have been possible, but for the internet. The members are enabled to take a mobile telephone and used it not only for the sales but as a public telephone.

SHG members learning from the past experience are walking through the present are marching ahead for a bright future.



Government of Andhra Pradesh has rightly realized that the involvement of the rural poor women in development will speed up attainment of Swarnandhra Pradesh and realizing the vision indeed.

## **5. ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN THROUGH SELF HELP GROUPS (SHGS)**

The contribution of women and their role in the family as well as in the economic development and social transformation are essential. Women constitute 90% of total marginal workers of the country. Rural women who are engaged in agriculture form 78% of all women in regular work. Micro credit is promoting the small scale business enterprises and its major aim is to alleviate poverty by income generating activities among rural women. Therefore they could achieve self-sufficiency. Role of Self Help Group's is to improve the social and economic development of women and give the better status to women in households and communities at large. Self Help Group's micro credit mechanism makes the members to involve in other community development activities. The rural women are engaged in small scale entrepreneurship programs with the help of Self Help Groups. Through that they were economically empowered and attaining very good status in family and community. Because development of society is directly related with the income generation capacity of its members with agriculture, as the key income generation activity the entrepreneurship on farm and home can directly affect the income of a major mass of Indian population. Entrepreneurship on small scale is the only solution to the problems of unemployment. The delivery of micro finance to the poor is smooth, effective and less expensive if they are organized into Self Help Groups. All Self Help Groups are promoting micro enterprise through micro-credit intervention.



## **ROLE OF MICRO-ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

Empowering women especially in rural area is a great challenge and micro enterprises in rural area can help to meet these all challenges. They play major role in

- Economic empowerment
- Improves standard of living
- Self confidence
- Increases social interaction
- Engagement in political activities
- Increases participation in different meetings and seminars
- Enhance awareness
- Sense of achievement
- Improves the leadership qualities
- Improves decision making capacity in family and community
- Expertness in problem solving matters related to women and community
- Participation in seminars and conferences

## **6. CONCLUSIONS**

Empowering women to participate in economic development is not only a daunting and challenging task but also paving path for future sustainable development. Increased participation of women in micro enterprises and labour force is a prerequisite for improving the position of women in society self-employed women. Micro enterprise is an effective instrument of social and economic development and is only perfect solution to the growing employment among rural youth. Widespread establishment of women enterprises run on micro and small scale basis in rural areas of the state, has been the outcome of the micro



Finance programme through the formation of Self Help Groups (SHGs) which has been marked as the system for emancipating women from the traditional set up to the forefront of Development process. Financing the poor through group approach was experimented in the State with the initiative of NABARD as a means for poverty alleviation and women empowerment Since 90's. The tremendous growth revealed in the formation and functioning of SHGs in the State is a clear indication of the benefit of group formation over the years.

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## **FLUCTUATIONS OF GROUNDWATER LEVELS IN PALEOCHANNEL REGIMES IN THE CENTRAL GODAVARI DELTA, A.P., INDIA**

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### **Abstract**

The variations and fluctuations in water levels are may be attributed to several factors such as irregular monsoon, excessive draw down of water for agriculture purposes and Human consumption. The groundwater resources being finite in nature due to the above mentioned factores significance depletion in the ground water table takes place in such conditions. The ground water recharge could not take place due to scanty rain fall and as a result the water balance gets disturbed. In some places where in the strata permeable and near to see shore the ingress of sea water may likely to flow in the down ward trend along the micro faults and fracture zones.

Seasonal water table fluctuation is a natural phenomenon. The changes in the water column indicate a change in the storage column of groundwater. It is mainly controlled by rain fall and groundwater draft in the study area. Generally, the water table starts to rise during monsoon period as a result of recharge from the rain fall. It starts declining steadily from December onwards reaching maximum depth during summer period. Water table fluctuation graph of the study area was prepared based on the reported water levels in the pre and post



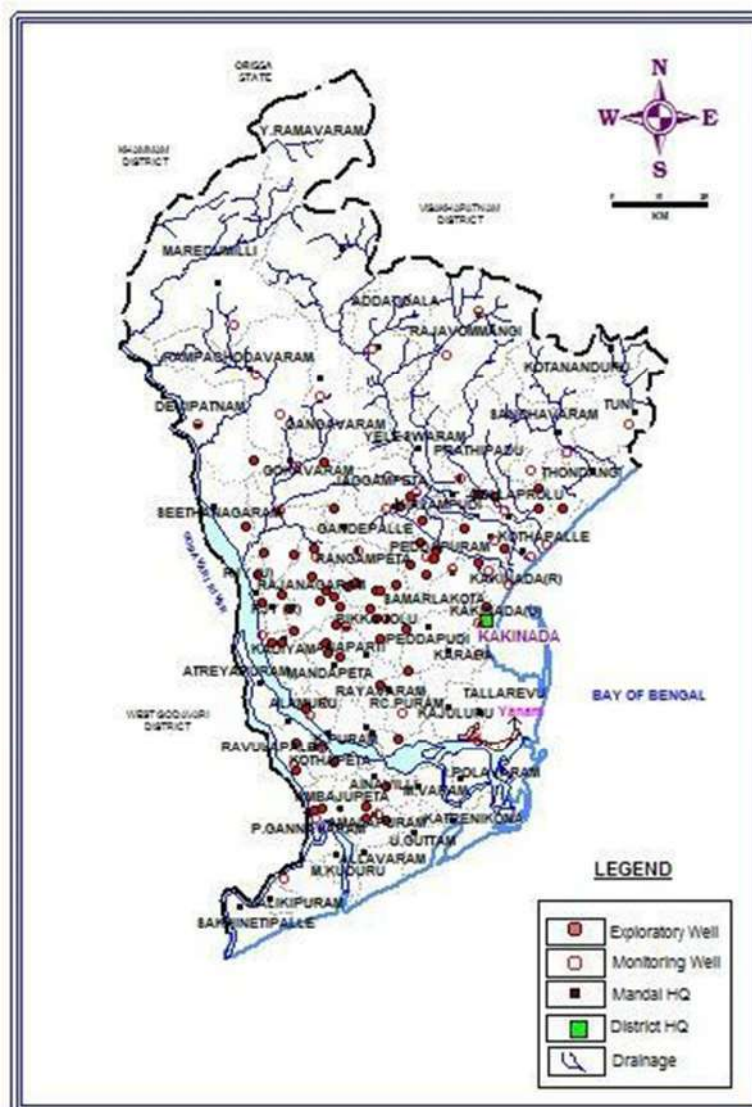
monsoon seasons since last 10 years. This paper reveals that the groundwater fluctuation mainly follows the topography of the study area. Lithology of the study area appears to have little influence on seasonal fluctuation of the water table.

## Introduction

The Godavari delta in southern India is a major wave dominated delta of a tropical monsoon-fed river with one of the largest sediment deliveries into the Bay of Bengal. The chief sources of surface irrigation in Godavari delta are through canals and tanks, and irrigation schemes. The area is having good groundwater potential, which is also developed by means of dug wells, bore wells, tube wells and filter point wells at some locations in the Godavari delta.

East Godavari district, of Andhra Pradesh is one of the nine coastal districts. The soil of the district is fertile and produces a variety of seasonal and commercial crops. The district forms part of the Godavari delta region and is endowed with vast potential of surface water resources. Fig.1. Shows the administrative divisions of East Godavari District.

**Fig.1: Administrative Divisions of East Godavari District, A.P.**



(Source: CGWB Report)



## **Location and Accessibility**

The district is bounded by north latitude 16°30' and 18°00' and east longitude spreading over an area of 10,807Sq.km. Toward the East and South by Bay of Bengal and west by West Godavari district. Yanam, one of the regions in the Union Territory in the south eastern part of the district. The district is well connected by network of road and rail facilities.

## **Drainage Network**

The Godavari river is the major river which is perennial and flows along the western boundary of the district. Near Rajahmundry, the river bifurcates into two viz., Gautami Godavari in the East and Vasista Godavari in the West. The Godavari River further splits into smaller rivulets before it drains into the Bay of Bengal.. The general drainage pattern is dendritic to sub-dendritic. The drainage density varies from less than 0.4 km/sq.km in poorly drained alluvial areas which covers the entire southern parts of the district to 0.6 km/sq.km in the Northern parts occupied by crystalline rocks.

## **Irrigation**

The East Godavari district is having both surface and ground water irrigation sources. The chief sources of surface irrigation are through canals & tanks, and are harnessed by major, medium and minor irrigation schemes. Ground water is developed by means of dug wells, bore wells, tube wells and filter point wells in the district. The total net area irrigated is 280412 ha. by means of all sources of irrigation available in the district.



## **Geomorphology & Soil Types**

The deltaic region in the south comprises low-lying deltaic and coastal plains having a gentle easterly slope and are characterised by landforms of both fluvial and marine origin. The marine landforms include palaeo beach ridges, palaeotidal flats, active beach and spit. The deltaic plain shows a relief between 15 m at its apex to 2 m near the coast.

The predominant soils in the district are alluvial soil, coastal sandy soil. The deltaic alluvium which is grey brown to black in color with fine to medium texture, moderate to poorly permeable and are prevalent in the canal irrigated areas as seen around Kothapeta, P.Gannavaram, amapuram, Razole. The coastal sandy soils occur all along the coast with a width of about 6 to 10 kms and is highly porous and lack of binding material.

## **Hydrogeology of the study area**

The district is underlain by different geological formations comprising oldest Archaeans to Recent Alluvium. The rock types are classified as consolidated, semi-consolidated and unconsolidated formations. The consolidated formations include khondalites, charnockites & granitic gneisses of Archaean group, deccan traps of Tertiary period. The semi consolidated formations are represented by tertiary and upper gondwana formations like Rajahmundry & Tirupati sandstones and unconsolidated formations comprise deltaic and river alluvial deposits of Quaternary period. Prominent lineament are trending in NE-SW, NW-SE and NNW-SSE. Ground water occurs in all most all geological formations and its potential depends upon the nature of geological formations, geographical setup, incidence of rainfall, recharge and other hydrogeological characters of the aquifer.



## Identification of Paleochannel

Most of the upper Godavari delta area exhibits a number of abandoned/buried river courses. When river courses or channels cease to be part of an active river system, they become Paleochannels. These are the remnants of stream channels cut in older formations and filled by the sediments of younger formations. Identification of these Paleo river channels has an important bearing in understanding the past fluvial regimes and also in estimating the groundwater potential of the area. The orientation of these channels also indicates the location of Paleo river environment. The Godavari river changed its course several times in the past. As a result, numerous river channels were formed and later filled by the sediments brought by the river. Satellite image clearly shows such fluvial features in the delta plain. Most part of the upper fluvial plain is traversed by the Paleochannels. The identified paleochannels based on satellite data interpretation include the following:

- East and South of Tanuku
- West of Palakollu
- Near Valamarru in the Western part of the delta
- Amalapuram and Ambajipeta
- Razole in the central part
- Mandapeta surroundings on the Eastern part are some locations where such Paleochannels occur in the Godavari delta region.

The details of the study area considered in the central Godavari delta is shown in Fig.2.

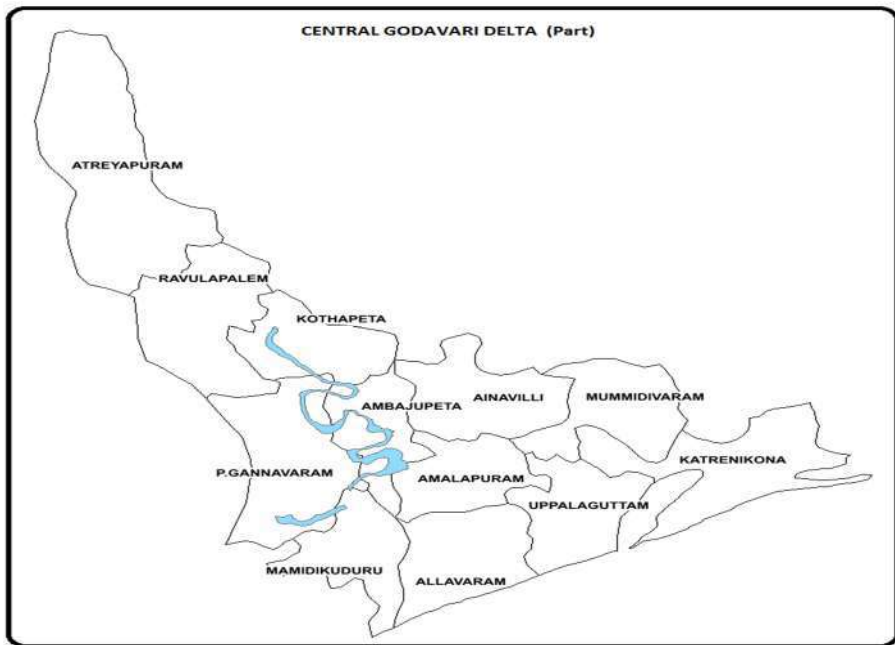


Fig. 2 : Study area and paleochannel map

### Research Methodology:

A total of 36 Static water levels (SWL) were collected from the observation wells of dug wells from study area, according to the Fig.2, study area revealed 12 mandals and among these particular a major paleochannel existed under subsurface of three mandals, those are Kundalapalli village, in P.Gannavaram Mandal, Machavaram village, in Ambajipeta Mandal and Mandapalli village in Kothhepta Mandal in East Godavari District, Andhra Pradesh, field work carried out to investigate the water level fluctuations of the groundwater during pre monsoon and post monsoon season in 2006 - 2015.



## Interpretation of the data (Ground water levels fluctuations): Mandapalli Village Data Interpretation

| Mandapalli Village, Kothapeta Mandal - Observation Bore well water levels depth in meters |          |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| S.No                                                                                      | Month    | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
| 1                                                                                         | May      | 7.71 | 8.4  | 7.67 | 8.96 | 9.64 | 8.19 | 9.61 | 8.98 | 8.36 | 9.62 |
| 2                                                                                         | November | 4.84 | 5.85 | 6.32 | 7.34 | 5.44 | 7.20 | 5.64 | 5.87 | 7.56 | 7.41 |

Table.1: Mandapalli village observation of Static water levels depths from last 10 years of Pre&Post monsoon seasons (2006 to 2010).

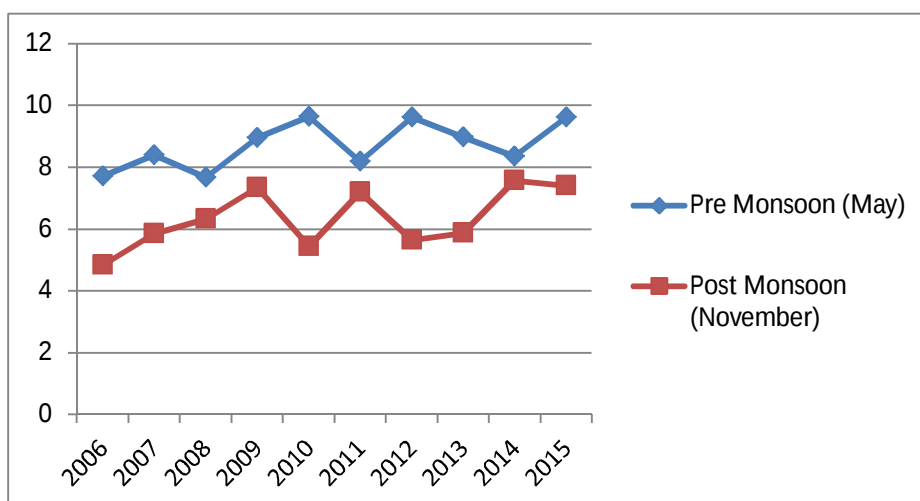


Fig.3: Static Water level variations with respect to Table.1

The depth to water level during pre monsoon season (May, 2006) 7.71 Meters BGL (Fig. 3) observed, As well as in the post monsoon season



(November, 2006) the depth of water level is 4.84 Meter BGL (Fig.3) observed, Rise in water levels from pre-monsoon to post-monsoon in Mandapalli Village observation well 2.87 Meters increasing observed in the study area.

Similarly in 2007, Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 2.65 Meters, in 2008, Rise in the water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.35 Meters, in 2009 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.62 Meters, in 2010 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 4.20 Meters, in 2011 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 0.99 Meters, in 2012 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 3.97 Meters, in 2013 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 3.11 Meters, in 2014 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 0.80 Meters, in 2015 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 2.21 Meters, increasing observed in the study area since 10 years.

Long-term trend of water level (2006 to 2015) indicates during pre-monsoon raise in the range of 0.62 to 1.45 Meters/year where as fall in the range of 0.68 to 1.42 Meters/year exist in the Mandapalli village. During post monsoon period overall raise exists in the observation well, it varies from 0.15 to 1.56 Meters/year, where fall recorded in the range of 0.23 to 1.76 Meter/year.

Ground water levels fluctuate considerably in response to the recharge and draft conditions of ground water reservoir. The water table contours are almost parallel to the topographic contours and general ground water flow direction is towards south and SE directing towards the sea.



## Machavaram Village Data Interpretation

| Machavaram Village, Ambagipeta Mandal - Observation Bore well water levels depth in meters |          |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| S.No                                                                                       | Month    | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
| 1                                                                                          | May      | 2.86 | 2.92 | 3.51 | 3.84 | 4.39 | 4.48 | 3.65 | 3.96 | 3.35 | 3.71 |
| 2                                                                                          | November | 0.94 | 2.17 | 1.49 | 1.90 | 1.99 | 3.26 | 2.24 | 2.18 | 2.66 | 1.63 |

Table.2: Machavaram village observation of Static water levels depths from last 10 years of Pre&Post monsoon seasons (2006 to 2015).

The depth to water level during pre monsoon season (May, 2006) 2.86 Meters BGL (Fig. 4) observed, As well as in the post monsoon season (November, 2006) the depth of water level is 0.94 Meter BGL (Fig.4) observed, Rise in water levels from pre-monsoon to post-monsoon in Machavaram Village observation well 1.92 Meters increasing observed in the study area.

Similarly in 2007, Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 0.75 Meters, in 2008, Rise in the water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 2.02 Meters, in 2009 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.94 Meters, in 2010 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 2.4 Meters.

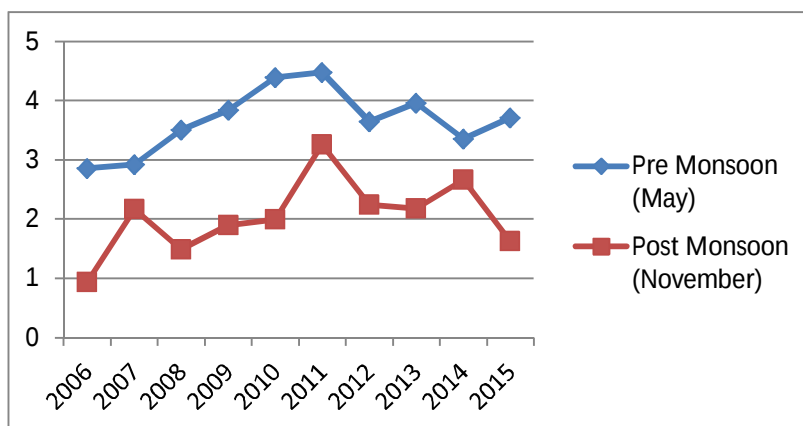


Fig.4: Static Water level variations with respect to Table.2

In 2011 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.22 Meters, in 2012 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.41 Meters, in 2013 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.78 Meters, in 2014 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 0.69 Meters, in 2015 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 2.08 Meters, increasing observed in the study area since 10 years.

Long-term trend of water level (2006 to 2015) indicates during pre-monsoon raise in the range of 0.61 to 0.83 Meters/year where as fall in the range of 0.06 to 0.59 Meters/year exist in the Machavaram village. During post monsoon period overall raise exists in the observation well, it varies from 0.06 to 1.03 Meters/year, where fall recorded in the range of 0.09 to 1.27 Meter/year.

Ground water levels fluctuate considerably in response to the recharge and draft conditions of ground water reservoir. The water table contours are almost parallel to the topographic contours and general



ground water flow direction is towards south and SE directing towards the sea.

### Kundalapalli Village Data Interpretation

| Kundalapalli Village, P.Gannavaram Mandal - Observation Bore well water levels depth in meters |          |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| S.No                                                                                           | Month    | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
| 1                                                                                              | May      | 3.29 | 3.4  | 3.03 | 2.81 | 2.06 | 3.60 | 3.73 | 3.94 | 2.38 | 3.38 |
| 2                                                                                              | November | 0.7  | 2.35 | 1.16 | 1.56 | 1.5  | 1.78 | 2.09 | 1.9  | 3.25 | 1.79 |

Table.3: Machavaram village observation of Static water levels depths from last 10 years of Pre&Post monsoon seasons (2006 to 2015).

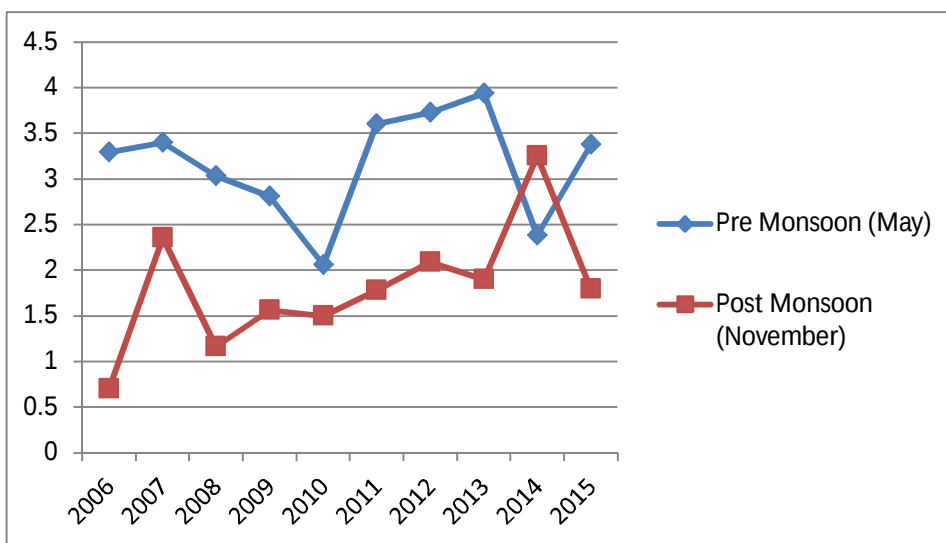


Fig.5: Static Water level variations with respect to Table.3.



The depth to water level during pre monsoon season (May, 2006) 3.29 Meters BGL (Fig. 5) observed, As well as in the post monsoon season (November, 2006) the depth of water level is 0.7 Meter BGL (Fig.5) observed, Rise in water levels from pre-monsoon to post-monsoon in Kundalapalli Village observation well 2.59 Meters increasing observed in the study area.

Similarly in 2007, Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.05 Meters, in 2008, Rise in the water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.87 Meters, in 2009 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.25 Meters, in 2010 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 0.56 Meters, in 2011 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.82 Meters, in 2012 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.64 Meters, in 2013 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 2.04 Meters, in 2014 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 0.87 Meters, in 2015 Rise in water level from pre monsoon to post monsoon is 1.59 Meters, increasing observed in the study area since 10 years.

Long-term trend of water level (2006 to 2015) indicates during pre-monsoon raise in the range of 0.22 to 1.56 Meters/year where as fall in the range of 0.11 to 1.54 Meters/year exist in the Kundalapalli village. During post monsoon period overall raise exists in the observation well, it varies from 0.06 to 1.46 Meters/year, where fall recorded in the range of 0.4 to 1.65 Meter/year.

Ground water levels fluctuate considerably in response to the recharge and draft conditions of ground water reservoir. The water table contours are almost parallel to the topographic contours and general ground water flow direction is towards south and SE directing towards the sea.



## **Ground Water Related Issues and Problems**

Water logging and salinity are the major problems in the delta and coastal area of east Godavari district. Due to intensive irrigation, there is an excess recharge over discharge of ground water leading to a rise in the water table. The most of the command area is either water logged or seasonally water logged. The intensive irrigation, near flat topography, low ground water development, poor drainage and clayey soils are the factors responsible for the water logging. In the deltaic area and coastal area the brackish/ saline ground water occurs in hydraulic contact with fresh ground water. The quality of ground water varies widely from place to place within short distances and the deeper aquifers are invariably saline. The salinity of ground water is caused due to geomorphic landform, water logging conditions, sluggish nature in ground water movement and excess use of chemical fertilizers.

### **Conclusion:**

The variations and fluctuations in water levels are may be attributed to several factors such as irregular monsoon, excessive draw down of water for agriculture purposes and Human consumption. The groundwater resources being finite in nature due to the above mentioned factors significance depletion in the ground water table takes place in such conditions. The ground water recharge could not take place due to scanty rain fall and as a result the water balance gets disturbed. In some places where in the strata permeable and near to sea shore the ingress of sea water may likely to flow in the down ward trend along the micro faults and fracture zones. In such cases the water quality will become saline in nature and there is a significance increasing the hardness due to addition of salts. Such as Na, Cl, K and carbonates. The observation wells in which the measurements were



taken shows such variations during pre and post monsoon seasons, since last 10 years in the study area.

### **Acknowledgement:**

The author would like to thank the Ground water Department, A.P., and Central Ground Water Department for providing the data on different bore holes and monitoring stations. The static water levels analysis of ground water samples has been provided partly by the state Ground water Department, A.P. and the major work of collection of samples and field measurements of wells and chemical analysis has been carried out by the author during pre and post monsoon season.

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## **SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF SAMPLE CHILDREN OF AND HOUSEHOLDS**

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### **INTRODUCTION**

The socio-economic profile of the sample children and households needs to be examined in order to understand the circumstances in which the school dropouts have grown up, the quality of their living standards, and the factors responsible for their dropping out from school. In this chapter, an attempt is made to analyse the socio-economic characteristics of the sample children and households in terms of religion, caste category, demographic characteristics, education status, schooling status of children, occupation status, working status of children, land owned, ownership of house, type of house, amenities in the house such as drinking water, electricity, and toilet facility, movable assets and indebtedness. The analysis is done on the basis of gender of the sample children with a view to understanding the differences between the households comprising male and female school dropouts.

### **COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE CHILDREN**

The sample children chosen for the study stood at 240, out of which 105 were males (44%) and 135 females (56%). Thus, there was greater proportion of females than males among the sample Children. All the sample children were in the school-going age group of 6-14 years.

### **RELIGION OF SAMPLE CHILDREN**

In Indian society, religion is one of main social considerations of an individual. The distribution of the sample children by religion is



presented in table 4.1. It may be noted from table 4.1 that a vast majority (89%) of the sample children were Hindus, while the remaining 11 per cent Muslims. The percentage of Hindus was higher among the male children (91%) when compared to that of females (87%). Thus, there is not much difference between the male and female sample children in regard to religion being pursued by them.

**Table 4.1**  
**Distribution of Sample Children by Religion**

| S. No. | Religion | No. of Children |        |        |
|--------|----------|-----------------|--------|--------|
|        |          | Male            | Female | Total  |
| 1      | Hindu    | 96              | 117    | 213    |
|        | %        | 91.4            | 86.6   | 88.7   |
| 2      | Muslim   | 9               | 18     | 27     |
|        | %        | 8.6             | 13.3   | 11.3   |
|        | Total    | 105             | 135    | 240    |
|        | %        | 100.00          | 100.00 | 100.00 |

Source: Field Data

## CASTE CATEGORY OF SAMPLE CHILDREN

In Indian society caste is an important parameter, which determines the social status and position of an individual, especially in rural areas. The political and economic empowerment of people largely depends on the caste to which they belong. The distribution of sample children by caste category is given in table 4.2. It could be seen from table 4.2 that a majority (51%) of the sample children belonged to Backward Classes (BCs), being higher in respect of female children (54%) when compared to males (48%). The Scheduled Castes (SCs) accounted for nearly 33 per cent of the sample children, being higher among males (37%) as compared to females (29%). After BCs and SCs, Muslim minorities take the next important place in the case of sample children; about 11 per cent of the sample children belonged to Muslims, being higher in respect of female children (13%) when compared to males (9%). About 3 per cent of the sample children belonged to Scheduled Tribes (STs), while the other castes (OCs) accounted for only 2 per cent of the sample children. Thus, a vast majority of the sample



children belonged to weaker sections of the society in terms of social status. It follows from the above a greater proportion of SCs are found among the school dropouts as compared to the proportion of SCs in total population at the district level.

**Table 4.2**  
**Caste Category of Sample Children**

| S. No | Caste Category         | No. of Children |        |       |
|-------|------------------------|-----------------|--------|-------|
|       |                        | Male            | Female | Total |
| 1     | Scheduled Castes (SCs) | 38              | 40     | 78    |
|       | %                      | 36.9            | 29.2   | 32.5  |
| 2     | Scheduled Tribes (STs) | 5               | 2      | 7     |
|       | %                      | 4.8             | 1.5    | 2.9   |
| 3     | Backward Classes (BCs) | 50              | 73     | 123   |
|       | %                      | 47.6            | 54.1   | 51.3  |
| 4     | Muslim Minorities      | 9               | 18     | 27    |
|       | %                      | 8.6             | 13.3   | 11.3  |
| 5     | Other Castes (OCs)     | 3               | 2      | 5     |
|       | %                      | 2.9             | 1.5    | 2.1   |
|       | Total                  | 105             | 135    | 240   |
|       | %                      | 100.0           | 100.0  | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data

## DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE CHILDREN HOUSEHOLDS

The households to which the sample children belonged were referred to as the sample children households. The demographic characteristics of the sample children households such as sex composition, household size, age group, marital status, etc., are examined here under.

### Sex Composition

The sample children households comprised 1207 persons, out of which there were 573 males (47.5%) and 634 females (52.5%). The sex



ratio (number of females per 1000 males) worked out to 1106, which is very high when compared to the district average of 988 according to 2011 Census.

### **Household Size**

The average household size of the sample children households worked out to 5.0, which is higher as compared to the district average of about 4.5. Thus, it may be inferred that the households comprising school dropouts had a higher sex ratio and household size, when compared to general population.

### **Distribution by Age Group**

The distribution of members in the sample children households by age group is presented in table 4.3. It may be noted that the children in the school-going age group (6-14 years) accounted for 45 per cent of the total members in the sample children households, comprising a greater proportion of females (47%) as compared to males (43%). The percentage of children aged 14 years and below comprised about 47 per cent of total members in the sample children households, which looks on the high side when compared to that of general population. Persons belonging to the age group of 25-44 years accounted for about 31 per cent of total members in sample children households, comprising more females (33%) than males (28%). About 13 per cent of members in the sample children households belonged to the age group of 15-24 years. The percentage of members aged 60 years and above formed 1.4 per cent of the total in the case of sample children households. On the whole, the percentage of members belonging to economically productive age group of 15 – 59 years stood at about 52 per cent of the total members in the sample children households.



**Table - 4.3**  
**Distribution of Members in the Sample Households by Age Group**

| S. No. | Age group (Years) | No. of members |              |              |
|--------|-------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|
|        |                   | Male           | Female       | Total        |
| 1      | 0 – 5             | 13             | 11           | 24           |
|        | %                 | 2.3            | 1.7          | 2.0          |
| 2      | 6 – 14            | 246            | 296          | 542          |
|        | %                 | 42.9           | 46.7         | 44.9         |
| 3      | 15 – 24           | 81             | 80           | 161          |
|        | %                 | 14.1           | 12.6         | 13.3         |
| 4      | 25 – 44           | 161            | 209          | 370          |
|        | %                 | 28.1           | 33.0         | 30.7         |
| 5      | 45 – 59           | 63             | 30           | 93           |
|        | %                 | 11.0           | 4.7          | 7.7          |
| 6      | 60 +              | 9              | 8            | 17           |
|        | %                 | 1.6            | 1.3          | 1.4          |
|        | <b>Total</b>      | <b>573</b>     | <b>634</b>   | <b>1207</b>  |
|        | <b>%</b>          | <b>100.0</b>   | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Source: Field Data

### Marital Status

In the Indian society the marital status of a man/woman decides his/ her social and economic role in the society. The family obligation drives the people to search for higher incomes or supplementary incomes. Table 4.4 presents the marital status of members in the sample children households. It is evident from table 4.4 that most of the members in sample children households were unmarried. About 59 per cent of females and 58 per cent of males in the sample households were not married. About 41 per cent of the members in sample households are married with a living partner. Among the married, the males slightly outnumbered females. Those who were widowed or



separated constituted less than 1 per cent of members in the sample households.

**Table 4. 4**  
**Marital Status of Members in the Sample Households**

| S. No. | Marital Status | No. of members |        |       |
|--------|----------------|----------------|--------|-------|
|        |                | Male           | Female | Total |
| 1      | Unmarried      | 334            | 374    | 708   |
|        | %              | 58.3           | 59.0   | 58.7  |
| 2      | Married        | 238            | 256    | 494   |
|        | %              | 41.5           | 40.4   | 40.9  |
| 3      | Widowed        | 0              | 4      | 4     |
|        | %              | 0.0            | 0.6    | 0.3   |
| 4      | Separated      | 1              | 0      | 1     |
|        | %              | 0.2            | 0.0    | 0.1   |
|        | Total          | 573            | 634    | 1207  |
|        | %              | 100.0          | 100.0  | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data

## EDUCATION STATUS

Generally, education plays crucial role in taking rational decisions on all social and economic issues. The educated parents and family members are expected to understand better the importance of education to the children as compared to the uneducated. The education status of members, aged 7 years and above, in the sample children households is presented in table 4.5.



**Table 4.5**  
**Education Status of Members in the Sample Households (7**  
**years and above)**

| S. No. | Education Status      | No. of Members |              |               |
|--------|-----------------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|
|        |                       | Male           | Female       | Total         |
| 1      | Illiterate            | 271            | 364          | 635           |
|        | %                     | 48.9           | 59.8         | 54.6          |
| 2      | Just Literate         | 6              | 2            | 8             |
|        | %                     | 1.1            | 0.3          | 0.7           |
| 2      | Primary (1-5)         | 213            | 212          | 425           |
|        | %                     | 38.4           | 34.8         | 36.5          |
| 3      | Upper Primary (6-8)   | 30             | 17           | 47            |
|        | %                     | 5.4            | 2.8          | 4.0           |
| 4      | High school (9-10)    | 22             | 10           | 32            |
|        | %                     | 4.0            | 1.6          | 2.8           |
| 5      | Technical and College | 12             | 4            | 16            |
|        | %                     | 2.2            | 0.7          | 1.4           |
|        | <b>Total</b>          | <b>554</b>     | <b>609</b>   | <b>1163</b>   |
|        | <b>%</b>              | <b>100.0</b>   | <b>100.0</b> | <b>100.00</b> |

Source: Field Data

It is clear from table 4.5 that the educational status of members in sample children households is at the lowest level. Illiteracy levels were very high among both males and females at 49 per cent and 60 per cent, respectively, the average for all the members being 55 per cent. Only about 4 per cent of members in the sample households had education at upper primary level. Only about 3 per cent of members in the sample households had High School education, and just 1.4 had technical/ college education. As such, the educational levels of members in the sample households could be considered poor.

The literacy rate of 45 per cent for all members in the sample households could be considered very low when viewed against the district average of 60 per cent as per 2011 Census. Likewise, the male and female literacy rates of 51 per cent and 40 per cent, respectively, could be considered very low as compared to the district averages of 70



per cent and 50 per cent, respectively, according to 2011 Census. Thus, it may be said that the literacy levels and educational status of members in the sample households were low compared to overall picture at the district and state level. It follows from the above that high levels of illiteracy and low levels of educational status among the members of the sample households could be one major factor responsible for the school dropout problem.

## OCCUPATION STATUS

The income of a household largely depends upon the nature of occupation pursued by its members. Occupation can be in any sector, organized or unorganized. Compared to unorganized sector, organized sector involves less physical strain and more leisure. The wage difference is also high between these two sectors. Hence, it is important to examine the occupation status of members in the sample households to ascertain the sustainability of income sources. The occupational status of members in the sample households is given table 4.6.

**Table 4.6**  
**Distribution of Members in the Sample Households by Primary Occupation**

| S. No. | Primary Occupation      | No. of Members |        |       |
|--------|-------------------------|----------------|--------|-------|
|        |                         | Male           | Female | Total |
| 1      | Agricultural Labour     | 166            | 242    | 408   |
|        | %                       | 29.0           | 38.2   | 33.8  |
| 2      | Non-Agricultural Labour | 129            | 173    | 302   |
|        | %                       | 22.5           | 27.2   | 25.0  |
| 3      | Cultivator              | 76             | 34     | 110   |
|        | %                       | 13.3           | 5.4    | 9.1   |
| 4      | Small Business          | 2              | 2      | 4     |
|        | %                       | 0.3            | 0.3    | 0.3   |
| 5      | Salaried                | 5              | 1      | 6     |



|   |             |       |       |       |
|---|-------------|-------|-------|-------|
|   | %           | 0.9   | 0.2   | 0.5   |
| 4 | Cannot Work | 20    | 24    | 31    |
|   | %           | 2.5   | 3.8   | 2.6   |
| 5 | Student     | 175   | 158   | 334   |
|   | %           | 30.5  | 24.9  | 27.7  |
|   | Total       | 573   | 634   | 1207  |
|   | %           | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data

Table 4.6 shows that about 34 per cent of members in the sample households were engaged in agricultural labour as their primary occupation. About 25 per cent of members in the sample households were dependent on non-agricultural labour as their primary occupation. The percentage of females was higher than that of males among those pursuing agricultural labour and non-agricultural labour as their main occupation. It means that in the study area female members contributing a lot for the economic wellbeing of the family. Only about 9 per cent of members in the sample households were dependent on cultivation as their main occupation. The percentage of members pursuing small business and salaried jobs together constituted just 1 per cent of the total members in the sample households. The students accounted for about 28 per cent of the total members in the sample households, being higher in the case of males when compared to females. The remaining members cannot work (2.6%).

Thus, it becomes clear that a large majority of the workers were dependent on wage labour – either agricultural labour or non-agricultural labour, and therefore are in a highly vulnerable situation because the availability of wage labour is uncertain. Thus, the sample households are deprived of sustainable sources of income, which could be one major reason for the existence of large number of out-of-school children on account of their inability to send them to school.



## SCHOOLING STATUS OF CHILDREN

It is important to examine the schooling status of children in the school-going age group of 6-14 years in order to assess whether all the children in this age group were going to school or not. The schooling status of children in the age group of 6-14 years in the sample children households is presented in table 4.7.

**Table -4. 7**  
**Schooling status of Children (6-14 years) in the Sample Households**

| S. No. | Schooling Status | No. of Children |        |       |
|--------|------------------|-----------------|--------|-------|
|        |                  | Male            | Female | Total |
| 1      | In School        | 167             | 150    | 317   |
|        | %                | 67.9            | 50.6   | 58.5  |
| 2      | Dropout          | 38              | 71     | 109   |
|        | %                | 15.4            | 24.0   | 20.1  |
| 3      | Never Enrolled   | 41              | 75     | 116   |
|        | %                | 16.6            | 25.3   | 21.4  |
|        | Total            | 246             | 296    | 542   |
|        | %                | 100.0           | 100.0  | 100.0 |

It may be noted from table 4.7 that only about 68 per cent male children and 51 per cent of female children aged 6-14 years in the sample households were going to school at the time of field survey, the average for all the children being 59 per cent. The dropout children accounted for 20 per cent of total children in the school-going age group, while the never enrolled children constituted 21 per cent. In the case of dropout children, females (24%) outnumbered males (15%). Similarly, the percentage of females (25%) was higher than that of males (17%) even among the never enrolled children. Thus, the situation with regard to the out-of-school children is very grim in respect of the sample households.

Despite the fact that 240 children from the sample households (240) were covered under NCLP, there were still 109 dropout children and 116 never enrolled children in these households. The large-scale presence of out-of-school (OOS) children in respect of the sample households is a clear indication of high potential for child labour in the



study area. It makes a mockery of the efforts made for mainstreaming the OOS children. Another cause of concern is the persisting gender inequalities in the schooling status of children in the sample households; in the study area, the parents seem to be giving priority to males when compared to females while sending children to school.

## WORKING STATUS OF CHILDREN

It is also important to examine the working status of children in the school-going age group of 6-14 years to understand whether the OOS children are doing some work, and, if yes whether it is on full-time or part-time basis. Table 4.8 shows the working status of children in the sample households. It may be seen that the children not taking up any work constituted about 46 per cent of total children in the age group of 6 – 14 years in the sample households; it is these children who were going to school. The percentage of males was on the high side (55%) when compared to that of females (39%) among those who were not doing any work and going to school.

On the other hand, a majority of children (54%) in the school-going age group were doing some work or the other. It was found that about 41 per cent of children were taking up work on full-time basis, while the remaining 13 per cent were undertaking part-time work, mostly in the agricultural sector. Those who were taking up full-time work were engaged in agricultural and non-agricultural labour and other stray jobs. The percentage of females was higher (49%) than that of males (32%) among those children taking up work on full-time basis. Thus, gender disparities are evident in the matter of taking up work by the school-going aged children in the sample households.

**Table -4. 8**  
**Working status of Children (6-14 years) in the Sample Households**

| S. No. | Working Status | No. of Children |        |       |
|--------|----------------|-----------------|--------|-------|
|        |                | Male            | Female | Total |
| 1      | Full-time      | 78              | 146    | 224   |
|        | %              | 31.7            | 49.3   | 41.3  |
| 2      | Part-time      | 32              | 36     | 68    |
|        | %              | 13.0            | 12.2   | 12.6  |



|   |             |       |       |       |
|---|-------------|-------|-------|-------|
| 3 | Not working | 136   | 114   | 250   |
|   | %           | 55.3  | 38.5  | 46.1  |
|   | Total       | 246   | 296   | 542   |
|   | %           | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data

## LAND OWNERSHIP

The economic status of a household depends on the land possessed, more so in rural areas. As such, it is important to examine the land ownership status of sample households. Table 4.9 shows the land possessed by the sample children households.

**Table 4. 9**  
**Land Possessed by the Sample Children Households**

| S. No. | Land owned (acres) | No. of Households |        |       |
|--------|--------------------|-------------------|--------|-------|
|        |                    | Male              | Female | Total |
| 1      | Nil                | 60                | 87     | 147   |
|        | %                  | 57.1              | 64.4   | 61.3  |
| 2      | 1.0                | 9                 | 13     | 22    |
|        | %                  | 8.6               | 9.6    | 9.2   |
| 3      | 2.0                | 2                 | 6      | 8     |
|        | %                  | 1.9               | 4.4    | 3.3   |
| 4      | 3.0                | 10                | 7      | 17    |
|        | %                  | 9.5               | 5.2    | 7.1   |
| 5      | 4.0                | 8                 | 7      | 15    |
|        | %                  | 7.6               | 5.2    | 6.3   |
| 6      | 5.0                | 16                | 15     | 31    |
|        | %                  | 15.2              | 11.1   | 12.9  |
|        | Total              | 105               | 135    | 240   |
|        | %                  | 100.0             | 100.0  | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data



It becomes clear from table 4.9 that a majority (61%) of the sample children households do not possess any agricultural land. Of those who possessed some agricultural land, most of them possessed agricultural land to the tune of 1-3 acres; about 20 per cent of the sample households belonged to this category. While 6 per cent of the sample households possessed 4 acres of land, those possessing 5 acres of land constituted 13 per cent of the total. None of the sample households possessed more than 5 acres of land. Thus, it may be inferred that over 60 per cent of the sample households were landless, and of the remaining, a majority of them possessed land to the tune of 3 acres or less. It is also important to note that although 39 per cent of the sample households possessed some land or the other, yet there were just 9 per cent members in the sample households pursuing cultivation as their main occupation. It follows from the above that the land owned by the sample households is rain-fed and unviable for cultivation, unable to generate income on a sustainable basis.

## **HOUSING SITUATION**

The housing situation of the sample households indicates the quality of life of household members. Table 4.10 presents the housing situation in respect of the sample children households in terms of ownership of house, type of house and access to amenities such as electricity, safe drinking water and sanitation.

### **Ownership of House**

It could be seen from table 4.10 that about 66 per cent of the sample households were residing in their own house, more so among the female children households (70%) when compared to male children households (60%). About 31 per cent of the sample households reported that they resided in government-given houses. Only about 3 per cent of the sample households lived in rented houses. Thus, as far as ownership of house is concerned, a majority of the sample households either lived in own houses or government-given houses.



**Table 4.10**  
**Housing Situation in respect of the Sample Children**  
**Households**

| S. No. | Particulars                    | No. of Households |                |               |
|--------|--------------------------------|-------------------|----------------|---------------|
|        |                                | Male (N=105)      | Female (N=135) | Total (N=240) |
| 1      | <b>Status of House</b>         |                   |                |               |
|        | Government-given               | 36                | 39             | 75            |
|        | %                              | 34.3              | 28.9           | 31.3          |
|        | Own house                      | 63                | 95             | 158           |
|        | %                              | 60.0              | 70.4           | 65.8          |
|        | Rented                         | 6                 | 1              | 7             |
|        | %                              | 5.8               | 0.7            | 2.9           |
| 2      | <b>Type of House</b>           |                   |                |               |
|        | Katcha                         | 31                | 31             | 62            |
|        | %                              | 29.5              | 23.0           | 25.8          |
|        | Pucca                          | 47                | 57             | 104           |
|        | %                              | 44.8              | 42.2           | 43.3          |
|        | Semi-Pucca                     | 27                | 47             | 74            |
|        | %                              | 25.7              | 34.8           | 30.8          |
| 3      | <b>Electricity Connection</b>  |                   |                |               |
|        | Yes                            | 88                | 123            | 211           |
|        | %                              | 83.8              | 91.1           | 87.9          |
|        | No                             | 17                | 12             | 29            |
|        | %                              | 16.2              | 8.9            | 12.1          |
| 4      | <b>Sanitation Facility</b>     |                   |                |               |
|        | Yes                            | 8                 | 6              | 14            |
|        | %                              | 7.6               | 4.4            | 5.8           |
|        | No                             | 97                | 129            | 226           |
|        | %                              | 92.4              | 95.6           | 94.2          |
| 5      | <b>Drinking Water Facility</b> |                   |                |               |
|        | Public Bore well               | 12                | 8              | 20            |
|        | %                              | 11.4              | 5.9            | 8.3           |



|  |            |       |       |       |
|--|------------|-------|-------|-------|
|  | Public Tap | 93    | 127   | 220   |
|  | %          | 88.6  | 94.1  | 91.7  |
|  | Total      | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data

## Type of House

The type of house in which a household lives denotes its economic status. If the sample children households are living in unsafe dwellings, their educational achievements may be adversely affected. The data in table 4.10 shows that about 43 per cent of sample children households lived in pucca houses and 31 per cent in semi-pucca houses. About 26 per cent of the sample households lived in Kachha houses or huts. Thus, only 43 per cent of the sample households resided in safe dwellings and the remaining 57 per cent either lived in semi-pucca or kachha houses.

## Electricity Connection

It becomes evident from table 4.10 that a vast majority (88%) of the sample children households had the electricity connection in the study area; the corresponding figures for male and female children households stood at 84 per cent and 91 per cent, respectively. However, about 12 per cent of the sample children households had no electricity connection, being higher in respect of males (16%) as compared to females (9%). Thus, a vast majority of the sample households had electricity connection.

## Sanitation Facility

A vast majority (94%) of the sample children households had no access to sanitation facility (individual toilet), as per the data presented in table 2.10. Only about 6 per cent of the sample children households had the individual toilet facility. Thus, the access to sanitation is very low among the sample households. This is despite the Total Sanitation Campaign launched in the country over a long time.



## Source of Drinking Water

Table 4.10 shows that as many as 92 per cent of the sample children households depended on public tap as the main source of drinking water. The percentage of sample households depending on public tap as the main source of drinking water was slightly higher in the case of female children households (94%) when compared to male children households (89%). Nearly 8 per cent of the sample children households depended on public bore well as the main source of drinking water. Thus, the sample children households were deprived of safe drinking water facility.

## POSSESSION OF MOVABLE ASSETS

Table 4.11 shows the possession of movable assets in the sample children households. It may be noted that the most of the households do not possess even the common assets such as electric fans and Television. Only 35 per cent of the sample households possessed the electric fans, while those possessing Television stood at just 24%; no substantial variations were found between the households comprising male and female sample children in this regard. Another important asset possessed by the sample households was gas stove, more so among households comprising female dropouts than those comprising male dropouts. About 28 per cent of the households had access to gas stove, obtained by them under Deepam scheme of the Government of Andhra Pradesh. Another important asset possessed by the sample children households include motorbike (24%). Further, about 35 per cent of the sample households reported possession of silver ornaments to some extent, while those possessing gold ornaments to a very limited extent stood at 15 per cent. Only one per cent of the sample households possessed bicycle. Thus, it is clear the asset position of the sample households in respect of movable assets is poor.



**Table 4.11**

| S. No | Name of the Assets | No. of Households Possessing |            |            |
|-------|--------------------|------------------------------|------------|------------|
|       |                    | Male                         | Female     | Total      |
| 1     | Television         | 26                           | 31         | 57         |
|       | %                  | 24.8                         | 23.0       | 23.7       |
| 2     | Motorbike          | 21                           | 30         | 51         |
|       | %                  | 20.0                         | 22.2       | 21.2       |
| 3     | Bicycle            | 3                            | 0          | 3          |
|       | %                  | 2.9                          | 0.0        | 1.2        |
| 4     | Gold               | 22                           | 15         | 37         |
|       | %                  | 21.0                         | 11.1       | 15.4       |
| 5     | Silver             | 25                           | 59         | 84         |
|       | %                  | 23.8                         | 43.7       | 35.0       |
| 6     | Gas Stove          | 21                           | 44         | 66         |
|       | %                  | 20.0                         | 32.6       | 27.5       |
| 7     | Electric Fans      | 31                           | 48         | 79         |
|       | %                  | 29.5                         | 35.5       | 32.9       |
|       | <b>Total (N)</b>   | <b>105</b>                   | <b>135</b> | <b>240</b> |

**Possession of Movable Assets by the Sample Children Households**

Source: Field Data

Table 4.12 shows distribution of sample households by the value of movable assets possessed. It may be seen from table 4.12 that about 17 per cent of the sample households did not possess any movable assets. The value of the household assets possessed by a majority (70%) of the sample households was only up to Rs.10000. Only about 11 per cent of the sample households possessed movable assets worth Rs.10000 – Rs.25000. Only about 1 per cent of the sample households possessed movable assets worth above Rs.25000. There were no substantial variations between the two categories of households comprising male and female sample children with regard to the value of movable assets possessed.



**Table 4.12**  
**Value of Movable Assets Possessed by the Sample Children Households**

| S. No. | Value of Movable Assets (Rs.) | No. of Households |        |       |
|--------|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------|-------|
|        |                               | Male              | Female | Total |
| 1      | Nil                           | 23                | 18     | 41    |
|        | %                             | 21.9              | 13.3   | 17.1  |
| 2      | Up to 10000                   | 65                | 104    | 169   |
|        | %                             | 61.9              | 77.6   | 70.4  |
| 3      | 10000 – 25000                 | 15                | 11     | 26    |
|        | %                             | 14.3              | 8.2    | 10.8  |
| 4      | 25000 – 50000                 | 2                 | 2      | 4     |
|        | %                             | 1.9               | 1.5    | 1.7   |
|        | Total                         | 105               | 135    | 240   |
|        | %                             | 100.0             | 100.0  | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data

## EXTENT OF INDEBTEDNESS

The educational opportunity of children in a particular household depends upon the economic position of that household. A household drowned in debts cannot afford to provide even the basic education of children. Instead of sending their children to school, the parents ask them to take up some work and earn something for the economic betterment of the family. Therefore, it becomes important to study the extent of indebtedness of the sample children households, as presented in table 4.13.



**Table 4.13**  
**Distribution of Sample Children Households by Outstanding Debt**

| S. No. | Outstanding debt (Rs.) | No. of Households |        |       |
|--------|------------------------|-------------------|--------|-------|
|        |                        | Male              | Female | Total |
| 1      | Up to 25000            | 90                | 121    | 211   |
|        | %                      | 85.7              | 89.6   | 87.9  |
| 2      | 25000-50000            | 14                | 12     | 26    |
|        | %                      | 13.3              | 8.9    | 10.8  |
| 3      | 50000-75000            | 1                 | 0      | 1     |
|        | %                      | 1.0               | 0.0    | 0.4   |
| 4      | 75000-100000           | 0                 | 2      | 2     |
|        | %                      | 0.0               | 1.5    | 0.8   |
|        | Total                  | 105               | 135    | 240   |
|        | %                      | 100.0             | 100.0  | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data

It may be noted from table 4.13 that all the sample households had some amount of indebt. But a preponderant majority, i.e., 88 per cent, of the sample households had an outstanding debt of less than Rs.25 000. About 11 per cent of the sample households had an outstanding debt ranging from Rs.25000 to Rs.50000. Only one household had an outstanding debt in the range of Rs.50000 to Rs.75000, while two households had an outstanding debt in the range of Rs.75000 to Rs.100000. Thus, even though all the sample households were in debt, the amount of outstanding debt is less than Rs.25000 in most cases. Perhaps, the low levels of indebtedness among the sample households could be due to low asset position of the households in terms of house, land and movable assets.

## SUMMING UP

To sum up, it may be said that most of the sample children pursued the Hindu religion and a majority of them belonged to weaker sections of the society in terms of both social and economic status. A



majority of the sample children hailed from BCs, followed by SCs and Minorities. The demographic characteristics of the sample children households revealed that the sex ratio and household size were higher when compared to general population at the district level. The literacy rates were very low both among the males and females in the case of the sample households when viewed against the averages at the district and state level. Most of the members in the sample households had low levels of education, mostly confining to primary or upper primary level. Very few members had High School and College education. Most of the members were engaged as agricultural or non-agricultural labour, and a few as cultivators. The occupational diversification is very poor in respect of the sample children households; only a negligible proportion of members were pursuing small business or salaried jobs. It is matter of serious concern that there were a sizeable section of OOS children (41%) among the school-going age group of 6-14 years, and most of them were engaged in work on full-time or part-time basis. Thus, a large-scale presence of child labour in the sample households, despite the fact that one child from each of these households was covered under NCLP, makes a mockery of the Constitutional provisions relating to child labour and RTE Act, 2009.

A majority of the sample households were landless, and most of those who were in possession of land had 1-3 acres. About two-thirds of the sample households had own houses, while the remaining lived in government-given houses. Not even half of the sample households lived in pucca houses. Even though a vast majority of the households had access to electricity, their access to sanitation and safe drinking water was very much limited. The position of the sample households could be considered very poor in terms of amenities and movable assets. All the sample households were in debt, although the amount of outstanding debt was less than Rs.10000 per household. Thus, the socio-economic profile of the sample children and their households indicate that they hailed from a very poor social and economic background.



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## **SCHOOL STATUS, QUALITY ISSUES IN GOVERNMENT RUN SCHOOLS: CASE STUDY OF THE DISTRICT OF DEHRADUN AND SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE THE QUALITY**

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### **Abstract:**

Education expands social opportunities available to people. Literacy is a basic tool of growth and self development (Jean Dreze and Sen 1996). Education and social change are closely linked (Ramachandran 1997). Spread of education helps to overcome social and economic inequalities leading to a developed society. Since the birth of new state of Uttarakhand the government has implemented many programs to achieve the universalization of education including the programs to achieve gender equality in social and economic scenarios. As per the census report of 2011 there are 15,331 primary schools with 1,040,139 students and 22,118 working teachers. Literacy rate of the state is 79.63% with 88.33% literacy for males and 70.70% literacy for females.

The language of instruction in the schools is either English or Hindi<sup>i</sup>. There are mainly governments and private schools and institutions including primary schools, high schools, inter college, degree colleges and technical institutions. The main school affiliations are CBSE, CISCE or the State Government syllabus defined by the Department of Education of the Government of Uttarakhand. Uttarakhand holds 14 positions in the country from the literacy point of view. 12 years of schooling in Uttarakhand is provided in four stages; primary level, upper primary level, secondary and the higher



secondary level. Schooling up to class VIII is generally called the elementary stage. Class IX – X is called as secondary education and XI-XII is termed as higher secondary education. In the state 72% schools are primary schools, 9.5% are higher secondary and 18% are upper primary schools. On an average there is one primary school for the population of 611 persons and one higher secondary school for the population of 8000 persons. In Uttarakhand the population covered per school is higher in all categories except in upper primary schools. Despite the efforts being made by the state government to increase accessibility to schools in all regions of the state, the Quality of education provided by government schools has been a major cause of concern.

Dehradun , being the capital city of Uttarakhand state has higher level of economic development. Since more than a century the district has been home to internationally renowned educational institutes and is generally termed as school educational hub of India, it would be of great academic importance to study the status of the government run schools in this district.

The present paper undertakes to study the school status in the district of Dehradun , issues of quality in government schools under the case study of the government schools in Dehradun district and suggest measure to improve the quality of these schools.

**Keywords:** Dehradun, universalization of education, learning outcomes, demographic profile , Dehradun blocks,literacy, DIET,

**Introduction:** As per the census report of 2011, Dehradun has population of 1,696,694 of which male 892,199 were male and 804,495 were females. According to the census report of 2002 Dehradun had



population of 1,282,143 of which males were 679,583 and remaining 602,560 were females. Dehradun District population constitutes 16.82% of total Maharashtra population. In 2001 census, this figure for Dehradun District was at 15.10 % of Maharashtra population<sup>ii</sup>. There has been change of 32.33% in the population compared to population as per 2001. In the previous census of India 2001, Dehradun District recorded increase of 25.00 % to its population compared to 1991.

From the convenience of administration Dehradun district is divided into six blocks, namely Shaspur , Raipur, Doiwala, Vikas Nagar, Chakrata and Kalsi and Dehradun city.

### Demographic Profile of Dehradun District

|                                         |           |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------|
| Actual Population                       | 1,696,694 |
| Male                                    | 892,199   |
| Female                                  | 804,495   |
| Sex Ratio (Per 1000)                    | 889       |
| Average Literacy                        | 84.25     |
| Male Literacy                           | 89.40     |
| Female Literacy                         | 78.54     |
| Percentage of Urban population          | 55.52     |
| Percentage of population in rural areas | 48.48     |
| Average literacy in rural areas         | 79.08%    |
| Average literacy in urban areas         | 88.27%    |
| Male literacy in rural area             | 85.82%    |
| Male literacy in urban areas            | 92.15%    |
| Female literacy in rural areas          | 71.78%    |
| Female literacy in Urban area           | 83.91%    |

Census report 2011



## DISTRICT- WISE LITERACY RATE IN THE STATE OF UTTARAKHNAD

| Districts        | Literate Population |                  |                  | Literacy Rate (%) |       |         |
|------------------|---------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------|---------|
|                  | Persons             | Males            | Females          | Total             | Males | Females |
| Uttarkashi       | 216,322             | 129,289          | 87,033           | 75.98             | 89.26 | 62.23   |
| Chamoli          | 284,118             | 157,013          | 127,105          | 83.48             | 94.18 | 73.20   |
| Rudraprayag      | 169,626             | 91,016           | 78,610           | 82.09             | 94.97 | 70.94   |
| Tehri Garhwal    | 401,040             | 227,423          | 173,617          | 75.10             | 89.91 | 61.77   |
| Dehradun         | 1,280,462           | 712,934          | 567,528          | 85.24             | 90.32 | 79.61   |
| Pauri            | 499,212             | 263,853          | 235,359          | 82.59             | 93.18 | 73.26   |
| Pithoragarh      | 350,844             | 192,237          | 158,607          | 82.93             | 93.45 | 72.97   |
| Champawat        | 179,844             | 103,170          | 76,674           | 80.73             | 92.65 | 68.81   |
| Almora           | 440,918             | 233,748          | 207,170          | 81.06             | 93.57 | 70.44   |
| Bageshwar        | 181,713             | 98,693           | 83,020           | 80.69             | 93.20 | 69.59   |
| Nainital         | 706,750             | 391,234          | 315,516          | 84.85             | 91.09 | 78.21   |
| Udhamsingh Nagar | 1,060,739           | 611,229          | 449,510          | 74.44             | 82.48 | 65.73   |
| Hardwar          | 1,225,845           | 718,335          | 507,510          | 74.62             | 82.26 | 65.96   |
| <b>Total</b>     | <b>6,997,433</b>    | <b>3,930,174</b> | <b>3,067,259</b> |                   |       |         |

Source: <http://censusindia.gov.in>



The district wise figures of literacy rates in Uttarakhand reveal that the Dehrdaun has highest literacy rate as compared to other districts of the state; 79.61%, the male literacy rate is 90.32% and female literacy rate is 85.24%. This is an encouraging trend

In the district of Dehradun there are about 54 primary school schools within the village and 17 schools beyond 1 kilometer distance of the village. This is the second highest in the state as far as the percentage of village with primary schools is concerned<sup>iii</sup>. The state has elementary school in 96% localities. There has been a considerable increase in the enrolment rate at the elementary education level and the percentage of school dropouts has also decreased. The percentage of villages by distance of upper primary schools as per 2002 - 2003 survey conducted by NCERT it was found that the Dehradun had 20 schools within the village, 60 schools, within the distance of 3 kilometers and 21 schools beyond 3 kilometers of the village.

### **1.1 SCHOOL STATUS IN THE DISTRICT OF DEHRADUN:**

The quality of education system in any state is evaluated on the basis of access to the schools, the school quality and the learning outcomes of the students. As far as access to schooling system is concern Dehradun district demonstrates an encouraging trend. According to the data collected by the Department of Economics and Statistics Dehradun district; the number of primary schools set up in Dehradun as per the distance of 1-3 kms and 3-5 kms and 5 above kms distance there are adequate number of schools in the govt. sector. In Chakrata block which is entirely a hilly area, there are 154 schools in the elementary education and in the higher secondary school level at the distance 1-3 kms there are 4 schools and at the distance of 3-5 there are 8 schools. In the higher secondary sector there are around 23 schools situated at

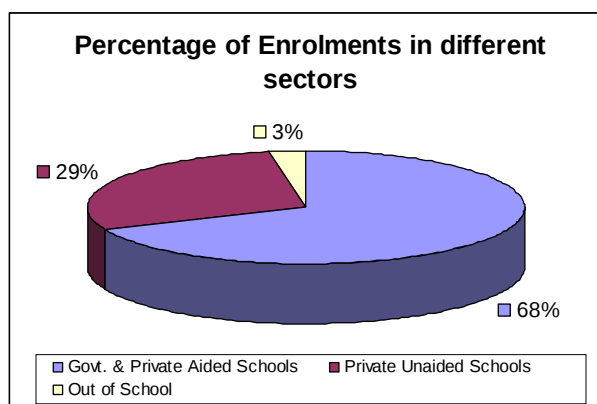


the distance of 1-3 kms and 3-5 kms. This shows a great accessibility to the schools even in economically underdeveloped area of Chakrata and Kalsi. Chakrata has total 28% Literacy, male literacy is 27.8% and female literacy is 12.36% and female literacy. There is a gender gap of 14.71%. Kalsi has total literacy of 39.20%, male literacy of 53.32% and female literacy of 20.12%. The gender gap is 33.10%.

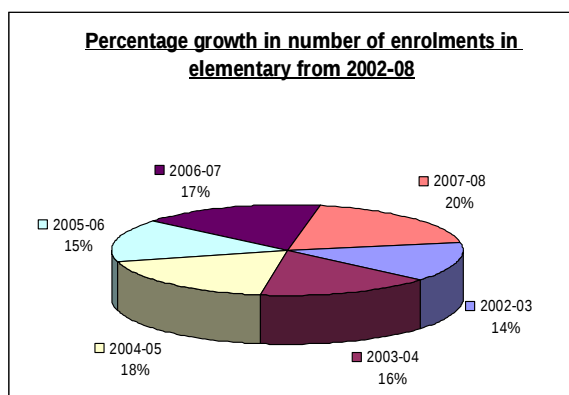
At the basic school level there are about 160 schools and in the higher secondary level 44 schools. Although in terms of enrolment the number is not significant, it nevertheless indicates that the govt. has setup a school in every habitation within the accessible reach. In Vikasnagar there are about 68 schools in the elementary as well as higher secondary school. Sahaspur block has around 108 schools in both the elementary and the higher secondary followed by Raipur block 108, Doiwala block 79. This is an indication that the schools are being set in different areas of the district to increase accessibility.

In the private school sector Sahaspur block has 37 private unaided schools and 07 aided schools. Vikasnagar block has 35 schools. Raipur block has 75 private unaided schools and 21 aided schools. Doiwala block accounts for 23 private unaided schools and 06 aided schools. Kalsi with a population of does not have any recognized private schools. Chakrata has schools in the govt. sector and no private recognized schools. In Urban Dehradun has a large number of private unaided schools amounting to 150 schools and about 45 private aided schools.<sup>iv</sup>

The total percentage of children enrolled in govt. schools and private aided schools account for 67.81% and 28.26% are enrolled in put unaided schools. 2.75% children of the school going age are out of the school.<sup>v</sup>



The elementary education data collected by DISE from 2004 to 2011 gives an encouraging picture of school enrolments in the district. It reveals that 93.4% of the children between the age of 6-14 years are enrolled in schools. If we compare the gross enrolment rate (GER) of the last five years (2004-08) we will find a steady growth rate per year.



In the Elementary education sector in the Government schools in all school categories that is Primary, Primary with Upper Primary, or Primary with Upper Primary & Secondary/Higher Secondary, Upper Primary only and Upper Primary with Secondary – Higher Secondary



there are about 1113 schools with total enrolment of 89,362 out of which 988 schools were recorded in the rural areas of Dehradun district with the total enrolment of 74,979. This indicates that 88.76% schools in the elementary education are located in rural areas, whereas 11.24% schools of the govt. sector are located in urban areas. In the rural areas the student enrolments in Govt. schools was recorded as 83.90%. This is an indication that in the rural areas of Dehradun the households have preference for govt. schools. This factor is proved by the large scale enrolments in the govt. schools as compared to the 17% enrolments in the private sector. Overall the private sector enrolments both in the rural and the urban areas were about 42,294. 32.10% children were enrolled put unaided sector and 67.87% children in govt. and aided sector. The high fee structure of the private schools, long distance from habitation and the requirement of certain percentage of attendance discourages the children of the lower middle class from attending the private schools. Another factor responsible for the high percentage of enrolments in the govt. sector schools the lure of mid day meals.

The 28.13% students attending the private schools in the rural areas belonged to the middle class households whose family income was high due to large agricultural holdings or the parents working in city/outside the Dehradun district and sending a large percentage of their income to his families. It must be added here that certain areas of Uttarakhand which constitute the hilly region and the rural areas are still dependent upon the “Money orders” they receive from their family member who are mostly working outside the state. These families receive a regular income and therefore they prefer the private schools for English medium education which the parents see as an opportunity for future higher incomes for their children. Another reason associated with the growth of private schools in the rural areas of Dehradun has been the



teaching activity that these schools have maintained and which has had positive impact on the learning outcomes of the children. Most of the private schools in rural areas can be called as “Budget schools” charging nominally fee of Rs. 150 – 200/.

The researcher while interviewing the number of parents of the children studying in government schools (Sample size 200), was informed that the preference for govt. schools was due to the fact that there was no fees charged, the children could have their lunch in the school under the mid-day meal scheme, remain absent for as many as days as the child wanted, the admission was open throughout the year. The children absenteeism was high during the agricultural season when the children in the age group of 10 - 14 years helped in the fields. The admission policy of the private unaided schools, based on the parental ability to pay and the entrance test discouraged the people from the lower income groups to seek admission in private schools. Another reason reported mostly by the parents for their preference for govt. schools was that the private schools use English as a medium of instruction which the parents find difficult to cope with as they are unable to help their children with their lessons and homework. This is a feather in the cape of govt. sector that despite the sub standard quality of these schools the enrolments are increasing.

Number of schools located in hilly areas of Dehradun such as Chakrata, Tyuni and Mussoorie are around 76 schools with total enrolment of 4477 for boys and 4018 enrolment of girls. The total enrolments in the school situated in the upper reaches of Dehradun are around 8095. The teacher deployed in this 76 schools are 407 male teachers and 309 female teachers working as full time teaching faculty and 19 teachers working as part time teachers. Out of the total number of 735 teachers 638 are trained teachers. The rest of the schools in the



secondary education are distributed between the urban areas and the rural areas of Dehradun. In the urban areas there are larger numbers of schools in the private sector than the govt. sector in secondary level.

## **2.1. QUALITY ISSUES IN GOVERNMENT RUN SCHOOLS IN THE DISTRICT OF DEHRADUN**

The term “government school” refers to government-funded schools that are run by the government but does not include the government-aided schools that are privately managed.

In 1987-88 government started the Operation Black board to provide infrastructure for all Govt. schools which included a building with at least two large rooms having suitability for all weather conditions, separate toilets for boys and girls, at least two toilets for teachers for male and female separately, teaching, learning equipments such as black board, maps, charts, toys and equipment for work experiences.

**2.1.1 Lack of adequate Infrastructure:** In Dehradun the condition of government school buildings surveyed ( as per the SEMIS report 2010-11) : there are 91.3% Pucca buildings, 4.8% Partly Pucca buildings, 1.2% Kaccha buildings, 0.1% schools are operating in tents, Open space 2.7% at the primary level out of schools 916. In the Upper Primary level out of 387 schools, 90.6 %Pucca buildings, 2.6% partly Pucca buildings, 93.3% with Pucca and partly Pucca together, 0.55 %Kaccha buildings, 6.3% schools are run in open space<sup>vi</sup>.

At Secondary school level there are 93% schools run in Pucca buildings and 7% schools run in open space in make- believe structures out of 73 schools. The percentage of schools with single classrooms is about 5% at Primary level and 1.60 % at the Upper Primary level in Dehradun. At



higher Secondary level 99% schools are run in Pucca buildings, 1% in partly Pucca buildings. Pucca and partly Pucca together account for 100%<sup>vii</sup>.

This researcher while collecting the data of all the sample govt. schools from (class I – V, VI – VIII, IX – XII) observed that all schools had blackboards, but few classrooms. Only 3% schools had library for use of children from class I – VIII. In the secondary school sector a part of the office in the accounts section or in the teachers' staff room or in the classroom has been used as the library having around 200 books. In the private unaided schools 100% schools (all 40 schools visited) have library in a well demarcated area with adequate number of print material .

In Sahaspur block 7 govt. schools visited under the rural areas have a single computer in each school which the researcher was informed were donated by the University of Petroleum and Energy, who have adopted these 7 schools for equipping them with resources ranging from chairs and desks, mats and computers. In Raipur block only High Secondary schools (out of which the researcher visited 10 schools) have computers for the use of students ranging from 3 – 5. In the primary schools none of the schools in the Doiwala block (visited by the researcher had any computers). In the private sector schools whether the high fees charging schools or “the budget private schools” there is a separate computer centre in each school and the students have 2 computer classes per week. 87% schools at the primary level in govt. sector have desks and benches for the children and 13% schools use mats for sitting purposes of the students. All private unaided schools have benches or chairs and desks for children. 75% sample govt. schools have electricity connection and fans as compared to 98% of private schools have electricity, fans and proper ventilations.



**2.1.2 Availability of Teachers :** Pupil- teacher ratio in Uttarakhand is quite similar to that of All India teacher –pupil Average. The teacher – pupil ratio in 2001-2002 was 35:1 at the primary level; in 2003 it improved to 29:1. At present it is about 27: 1. The percentage of schools with single teacher by level of education in Primary level is 15.1 schools and upper primary level it is 4.01 schools. It has been seen that there is inadequate representation of female teachers in most schools, which act as a deterrent in the expansion of girls' education especially in the rural areas. In Dehradun there are about 7% schools at primary level which have no female teachers, 1% schools at upper primary level without female teachers. At Upper Primary and Secondary school level 9% schools without female teachers. There are 56.90% schools at secondary and higher secondary level without female teachers.<sup>viii</sup>. In the whole state more than 1,600 schools have just one teacher. As many as 39,000 students in 1,689 primary schools across the state see only one teacher each day at school. On days when that teacher is absent, the school shuts. In at least 1,500 of these schools, only one teacher has been appointed. In the rest, the problem is because of teacher absenteeism. . Dehradun district has 53 such schools. The issue is not that of staff crunch, many teachers posted in the interiors and hilly regions do not report on duty. Surprise inspections done by the state education department have revealed interesting facts, like in some cases teachers posted in interiors of the region appoint their substitutes in the village to take their classes by proxy, and they are paid some part of the salary

**2.1.3 Absence of girl toilets :** In the entire state of Uttarakhand only 30% of primary schools have separate toilets for girls. 67% of schools at the Upper primary level have toilets; overall 58.40% of the schools have toilets for girls. In Dehradun 29% schools at primary level have separate girls' toilet, 84% schools at upper primary level have girls'

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toilet. At the secondary and higher secondary level 74.50% schools have separate toilets. We can say that a large number of Government schools in Dehradun have separate toilets for boys and girls<sup>ix</sup>. This fact was verified by the researcher during her visits to the randomly selected government school. It was observed that the schools set up after 2003 under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan have pucca buildings, adequate teaching equipment, toilets for boys and girls and drinking water facility. The schools established before 2000, (40 such schools were visited by the researcher during her study) are in need of repair, there is only one toilet available for the students of both genders as well as for teachers.. In the private aided and unaided school sectors all the schools have separate toilets for boys and girls.

**2.1.4.Teaching Equipment in Government Schools:** There are some schools in the district which do not possess the basic teaching equipment like black boards. The proportion of such schools is less at the secondary and higher secondary level, however at the primary level the schools without black boards are 1.2% at the upper primary level 0.7% Upper primary and secondary and higher secondary together accounted for 5.9% schools which had no black boards<sup>x</sup>

**2.1.5.Drinking water facility :** Across the state in 70% primary schools, 65% upper primary schools and 87% secondary and higher secondary schools drinking water facility is available. In Dehradun 79% of schools at the primary level, 98% schools at the upper primary level; this accounts to 98.00% along with the secondary and higher secondary schools; which have drinking water facility in schools<sup>xi</sup>. 80% govt. sample schools have a tap or an overhead water storage facility. The purity of the water cannot be guaranteed because the head teachers of 7 schools informed the researcher that the tanks have not been cleaned for a year or so. In case of private unaided schools all the sample



schools have clean water for drinking purposes and in majority of the schools there is water filter system installed to supply clean water.

**2.1.6. Teaching Standard :** The standard of teaching in all government schools across the state is lamentable. The elementary teachers are teaching under the multi- grading system. One teacher is teaching 4 different standards simultaneously. In a school consisting of two classrooms and the classes varying from 1-V111 have two teachers, engaged in teaching. One teacher is teaching classes 1 –V and another is teaching (or supervising over the students of V1 –V111. In fact due to a high rate of teacher absenteeism the burden of teaching (supervising) falls on single teacher. This is a fact which has been proved by empirical evidence also<sup>xii</sup>

**2.1.7. Low Learning outcomes of students of government run schools:** The learning levels as reported by National Achievement Survey (NAS), the state's own independent studies show that the learning levels in the state are very low. It is also found to be homogenously for all children. The Joint Review Mission team of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in 2014, interacted extensively with the students of government schools and also carried out simple tests in Mathematics and Language in classes 2-4 to get a first-hand experience of the learning levels. These showed that while the most basic learning is evident, students were seen to have difficulty in basic reading (in print reading as well as comprehension). In Mathematics, there is rote learning and students do not understand basic concepts of number sense, operations of whole numbers. For example, class 2-3 students could recognize a 2 digit number correctly, but were unable to identify numbers that were between 6 and 10 in a sequence of 5 single digit numbers. Class 4 students were unable to answer questions such as “ $3+3+3+3= 3 \times \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ ” or identify the correct figure that was half



shaded. On interactions it was found that students explained half as one upon two, but did not understand fractions as parts of a whole and that the parts have to be equal<sup>xiii</sup>.

The study done by Azim Premji Foundation in Dehradun in the govt. and the private sector schools at the elementary school level indicated satisfactory learning outcomes of the private school students as compared to the students of the govt. schools. This researcher undertook a survey of the learning outcomes of the students of both govt. schools and private schools randomly selected in some areas of Dehradun district. In the private sector 50% school selected were more than 15 years old while the rest were setup 10 years back. The government schools randomly, selected were more than 20 years old. The researcher administered a carefully prepared test to the students of both the schools, separately, at separate occasions in the classes 3, 5 and 6. The private students demonstrated a higher general awareness, higher reading ability and were able to do subtraction, multiplication and division sums of 3 – 5 digits numbers with ease. Some of the children from the same households, where, one sibling was in the private school and another in the govt. school the disparity was evident even in their performance. The sibling studying in private school in the lower class was able to do the test more successfully while the older sibling studying in 2 classes senior was not able to complete the test, and 50% answers were wrong. Ten such children were tested at different occasions and it was found the child studying in the private school outperformed the other sibling, in government schools, in mathematics E.V.E and general awareness. The research finding is that controlling the variables such as the household environment, parental income and the same kind of motivational level the children studying in the private schools had higher scores than children studying in government schools.



The researcher used carefully prepared test papers (The question papers were prepared in consultation with the teachers teaching the subjects to the children in the classroom, and the questions framed were on the course content already done by the students in the classroom). The test consisted of the comprehension ability of the students, the reading and analytical ability of the students, mathematics like subtraction, division and multiplication. The 100 students were selected from 12 private schools in all and 100 students were selected from four govt. primary schools in Sahaspur Block, three govt. primary schools in Raipur Block, five govt. Upper primary schools in Dehradun city.

Students of class III, V and VI were tested in both types of schools in language (Hindi) Science (E.V.E) and Mathematics. The tests were developed in Hindi for govt. school students and in English for private students. Three types of test were used:

1. The written test in which the students had to read the question paper and write their answers.
2. Oral test in which the teacher supervising the class read to the children the passages and the students had to write answers on the sheets given to them.
3. The reading test where students had to read the passages from the text book and give the meanings of the words.

Before administering the test the background information of the students such as their family background, education background of their parents, scores in the continuous assessment test etc. were secured from the teachers. The reason was to identify the factors which influence the learning outcomes. The researcher used an intensive analysis of Item Response Theory (IRT) technique to identify what

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students know and what they are able to do at different ability levels. The analysis of the performance of the students was done to find out the difference between the learning outcomes of the students from govt. schools and students from private schools.

**Findings of the test :** The students of the govt. schools secure 60% less marks in mathematics than the students of private schools. In Hindi the difference between the performance of the govt. school students and private school students was 25% - 35%. In E.V.E. the scores of private school students was 82% while that of the govt. schools vary between 35% - 45%. In five govt. schools, 20% - 25% of class III could give the correct answer to the sum  $5 \times 5 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$  whereas 85% - 90% students of the sample schools of class III gave the correct answer. In class V in six govt. primary schools only 28% students could answer the sum  $12 \times 5 + 5 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ . In class VI 20% students in the govt. schools could solve the sum  $8 + 9 \times 10 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$  whereas the 70% - 75% students of class VI in the sample private schools could successfully complete the test.

The researcher observed that the 70% students in class III of the govt. schools were not able to understand the meaning of multiplication, even when the language used was in Hindi which is the medium of instruction in govt. schools. As against this only 8% - 10% students in the private schools did not have clear concept of mathematical symbols. The conceptual understanding whatever the students of govt. schools learn appears to be low as the researcher was able to observe.

It was observed during an unannounced visit to 10 govt. upper primary and primary schools that the teachers were using black board to write the sums and solving one or two sums and the rest had to be done by the students themselves. The method of explaining was not clear even



the concept was not explained by the teachers. In four govt. schools the researcher observed during mathematics classes in class V and VI the teachers just solve one or two sums on the board and leave the rest of the exercise to the students to do. The follow up corrections were seldom done. In one of the schools a relatively better informed student of the same class was teaching the rest of the class the sums of division while the teacher was occupy in filing the routine information about the students attendance and the mid-day meal attendance.

In the private schools the teaching activity was underway at all times during the researcher visit. The teachers used teaching aids like black board, blocks to make the concepts clear. Although the teaching in these schools is also based on the traditional method of instructions, the concepts are made clear. 50% students that the researcher tested were first generation learners implying that they did not get much support in learning from their parents at home; their performance in the test was higher than the performance of the students from the private schools. It is not only the societal background of the students that influences the level of their learning but also the competence of their teachers.

In E.V.E. 70% students of govt. schools answered that sun revolves around the earth, plant were non living beings and heavy objects fall faster upon the earth. Whereas their E.V.E knowledge displayed by the students of private schools was high.

**2.1.8. Bulging Administrative Staff** The government school system is notorious for having antiquated work rules and bloated bureaucracies. Bureaucrats appear to have become a political constituency of formidable power in the context of education. It includes all the personnel including teachers employed in public school



system. Bureaucracy problem is inherent in the public sector schools. Apart from socio-economic status, domination of bureaucracy absence of autonomy is the main cause of inferior performance of the govt. schools.

In Uttarakhand there is burgeoning number of persons employed in school education departments, yet there is no coordination in the working. There is one post for director, one post for finance controller, five posts for additional director, eleven posts for joint director, one post for secretary education council, thirteen posts for district education officer, twenty six post for additional district officer, thirteen posts for principals DIET, ten posts for the vice principal DIET, 95 post for block education officer and eleven posts for deputy education directors. In this category considered as class B Gazetted officers the total sanctioned posts are 965. These posts are treated as the head of the intermediate colleges. The class B Gazetted posts is 1887 sanctioned posts. In the category of Non Gazetted officers are Lecturers, junior professionals, Head masters of Junior high schools and primary school, the L.T. teachers, technical associates, Librarians, Store Keepers, Accountants, Siksha Mitra etc. Thus the grand total of the employees in the education department works out to be 84853 sanctioned posts, out of which 67633 have been filled up and 17220 vacancies still exists. The empirical study shows that by cutting down the number of administrator government, school system would be able to produce students who would perform better.<sup>xiv</sup> It is the tested proposition that the size of educational bureaucracy has a adverse effect on the efficiency of school system <sup>xv</sup>

**Recommendations:** In the nascent state of Uttarakhand with its difficult hilly terrain and hugely diverse demographic structure, divided among the SC, ST and OBC groups each displaying different socio-

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economic traits, the task of making education accessible to all has got delayed, but it is not too late. The state policy makers have realized the significance of education at different levels. In last ten years the the state Government has been laying emphasis on bringing increasingly the inaccessible areas under the ambit of education.

The district of Dehradun, with its hard working human resource, comparatively more advantages position in terms of development indicators like per capita income, literacy rate, rate of participation of women and labour force and rich natural resources, have created a favorable ground for sustainable economic development. Therefore it has to be seen that the children of the district as well as of the state, both in the rural and urban areas are offered a quality education at the school level and the higher education level. In order to offer affordable and quality education, the state has to introduce some concerted step :

### **3.1.1. Institutional Reforms**

- Institutional reforms in educational administration including modernization/e-governance and delegation/decentralization is necessary for the effective, efficient and better programme implementation. Decentralization of school education with adequate delegation of powers to local bodies, school management committees is instrumental in achieving universalization of education. This will require involvement of Panchayat Raj and Municipal Bodies.
- Teachers, Parents and the other stakeholders in the management of education through bodies like School Management Committee and Parent-Teachers Association are required in planning process, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. There is also a need for reform of prevailing examination system to reduce the stress on children and also to enhance the quality.



- There should be a rational policy of teacher recruitment, deployment, training, remuneration and career advancement. For the teachers, capacity building programs like in-service training and professional advancement may be necessary. Teachers should be given better facilities and perks when they take up work in hard-to-access areas.
- Provision of necessary professional and academic inputs in the education system at all levels, i.e., from the school level upwards and streamlining financial procedures for speedy flow of funds and their optimal utilization is needed.
- Schools could be compared against one another on how they deliver these outcomes. School could potentially improve its overall learning outcomes by creating a positive learning environment. This includes commitment and involvement of all teachers and parents. A sense of ownership and responsibility is required with respect to both their children and school environment

### **3.1.2. Strengthening Resources:**

Government school system needs the strengthening of resource institutions at various levels, SCERTs, State Open Schools, SIEMATs, etc., at the State level; and University Departments of Education, Reputed Institutions of Science / Social Science / Humanities Education, and Colleges of Teacher Education (CTEs) / Institutions of Advanced Study in Education (IASes) funded under the Centrally-sponsored Scheme of Teacher Education.

### **3.1.3. Student – Centric Curriculum:**

There is need to have good schools with skill generating curriculum and emphasis on vocational training, rather than having rote learning. The state has to be both a facilitator and provider to a large extent. The



UNDPs Human Development Report along with the World Bank Report on poverty alleviation published in 1990, stresses the need for human centric development with equity at the core of development process. In human resource planning the policy makers of the state have to follow student - centric education, gender sensitive approach and quality education. Girls have to be viewed as socio-economic inputs in the process of development and any human resource planning must ascribe an equal importance to girls' education.

### **3.1.4 For quality improvement in school education system we can also follow the following work being done by the Azim Premji Foundation in the 7 backward districts of Karnataka:**

The Azim Premji Foundation<sup>xvi</sup>, in cooperation with the Karnataka government, has undertaken extensive research in 7 backward districts of Karnataka. On the basis of its study on the learning outcomes of the students of the schools, the Foundation has developed School Leadership Development Program (SLDP) to assist the school leader to achieve their vision for the school. SLDP focuses on generating the resources required for school development and the role of school leaders in quality improvement of the school. The program ensures:

- Presence of a committed head teacher and their active involvement
  - Active involvement of parents
  - Good school practices (cleanliness, neatness and orderliness)
  - Extra classes on holidays or after school and special classes for weak
- Another program initiated by Azim Premji Foundation is the Principal Leadership Development Program (PLDP) run through Kaivalya and the Gandhi Fellowship. The objective of Kaivalya is to train the school administrators for assuming the role of leaders, who will inculcate in themselves the moral purpose to help improve the lives of children in a community, be the change agent in schools and communities and



develop skills to support quality improvement for current school leaders.

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- <sup>iii</sup> 7 all India school survey NCERT 2003
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- <sup>xiv</sup> According to Anderson et al. 1991
- <sup>xv</sup> According to Anderson et al. 1991
- <sup>xvi</sup> Azim Prem ji Report 2012

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## **A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF READING SKILLS AMONG THE EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN OF SPECIAL SCHOOL AND INTEGRATED SCHOOL**

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### **Abstract**

In the present time Reading is second only to the spoken word as major means of communication. The growing number of books and magazines bears testimony to fact that we are reading today inspite of varied diversions such as radio and television. Reading has several unique qualities that neither of them provides. Reading involves further though and analysis of the content. Even the most intelligent individual finds that reading is an activity full of unexpected challenges and rewards. Hence care should be taken that reading, for the mentally retarded children becomes more of a reward taking sill, which further motivates them and also encourages them.

Unfortunately, in the regular classroom, much is done that may have the development of negative attitude towards reading. The emphasis on mastery of specific story content and vocabulary rather than the total enjoyment of the whole has tended to narrow the reading development of children. In many cases, Comprehension exercise of the formal type have been development of children. In many cases, Comprehension exercise of the formal type have been overemphasized to the extent where each page of the text is followed by large number of questions and exercise which has turned the reading lesson into a complex and pointless quiz. It does not imply that these should be abolished, but not every story should be followed by such exercises. The reading programmes for mentally retarded children should place a great



emphasis on freedom to browse and read widely, rather than confining reading to a single text or a few selected books. The children should be free to select and read the material, which they personally enjoy. Every opportunity should be provided to create a favorable attitude towards books and reading. One of the aims of educating mentally retarded children is to make them socially and economically independent. In this present study, It has been compared to reading skills of educable mentally retarded children in Special school and integrated School.

## Introduction

Mental retardation is not a disease or a single entity. It is rather a term applied to a condition of retarded mental development present at birth or in early childhood and is characterized mainly by limited intelligence combined with difficulty in adaptation. Mental retardation is educational, psychological, social, cultural and medical problem.

“Mental retardation is a disability characterized by significant limitations both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behavior as expressed in conceptual, social and practical adaptive skill. This disability originates before the age of 18 years (AAMR, 2002).

Reading involves the whole personality, promising countless personal and social values. It is essential for full personal development and enrichment of life. Reading feeds the creative mind. It is common experience of every school teacher that poor readers usually repeat the grades and many a time they develop antisocial behavior.

“Reading is a thinking process. No doubt, thinking is an important aspect of reading process, but not the whole of it. The purpose of reading is the reconstruction of meaning. Meaning is not in print, but it is the meaning that the author begins with, when he



writes. Some how the reader strives to reconstruct this meaning as he reads" (BETTS, 1966).

Researches have show that ITA (Initial Teaching Aphabetes) 18 effective in stimulating reading ability apparently because it helps to develop ward skills and the use of PLDK (Pleabody language Development kit) stimulates mot aspects of language skills. These findings appear to indicate that these measures are effective in combination. It indicates what educators have long suspected that there is an intimate relation between language and learning to read and that learning to read should be enhanced by language stimulation. For teaching reading and language, functional approach is quite useful.

### **Need of the study**

The basic skills contained in reading constitute the most significant common denominator for adequate achievement in other important areas. Without reading ability, retarded children will be adversely affected in arithmetic, social and personal development, communication and vocational performance. Although the influence of reading disability may not be severe enough to make an impact in the early school years but when the child is old enough to function in a self sufficient manner, his inability to read will become obvious and register a detritus influence. Reading must be emphasized to provide the retarded with a means for gathering general information. This additional information will allow for the generation of alternative solution to problems. Skill in reading lessons the possibility of the occurrence ofr physical harm and provides insulation against severe social and emotional difficulties. The primary task of the present study is related with rehabilitation problems. A number of mentally retarded children suffer from various social psychological handicaps. Various societal and environmental factors and pattern of interaction operative



in day to day life. The information that is gathered of the reading skills of mentally retarded children is likely to be valuable, both theoretically and practically.

### **Statement of Problems**

A comparatively study of Reading Skills among the Educable Mentally Retarded children of special school and integrated school.

### **Objective of the Study**

1. To study the reading skills of Educable Mentally retarded children in special school.
2. To study the reading skills of Educable Mentally retarded children in Integrated School.
3. To compare the reading skills of Educable Mentally retarded children in special and integrated schools in deferent areas as.
  - ❖ To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school or letter recognition skill.
  - ❖ To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on word recognition skill.
  - ❖ To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on copying word skill.
  - ❖ To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on sentences completion skill.
  - ❖ To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on paragraph reading skill.
  - ❖ To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on matching word with picture skill.
  - ❖ To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on story reading with picture skill.

### **Hypotheses of the study**

There is no difference between the reading skills of Educable mentally retarded children studying in special school and integrated schools.



- ❖ There is no difference between in the reading skill of Educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated school on letter recognition skill.
- ❖ There is no difference between in the reading skill of Educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated school on word recognition skill.
- ❖ There is no difference between in the reading skill of Educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated school on copying word skill.
- ❖ There is no difference between in the reading skill of Educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated school on sentence completion skill.
- ❖ There is no difference between in the reading skill of Educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated school on paragraph reading skill.
- ❖ There is no difference between in the reading skill of Educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated school on matching word with picture skill.
- ❖ There is no difference between in the reading skill of Educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated school on story reading with picture skill.

## Sample

The sample constituted 50 educable mentally retarded children. 25 Children were selected randomly from special school, namely Ankur Disability school situated at Urban Estate and 25 were selected randomly from integrated school in Jind City.



## Tools used

Following tools were selected in the present investigation by the investigator

- ❖ Seguin Form Board Test
- ❖ Test of Reading skill developed by the investigator himself. For the present research, the investigator measure reading skills on the following aspects.
- ❖ Letter Recognition Skill.
- ❖ Word Recognition Skill.
- ❖ Copying word Skill.
- ❖ Sentence Completion Skill.
- ❖ Paragraph Reading Skill.
- ❖ Matching Words with Pictures Skill.
- ❖ Story Reading with Pictures Skill.

## Statistical Techniques Used:

Mean, Standard Deviation and 't' test were used to analyses the data.

## Analysis and Interpretation of Data

To study the reading skills of educable mentally retarded children in special school.

- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in letter recognition skill is 8.1.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in letter recognition skill is 6.9.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in copying words skill is 5.1.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in sentence completion skill is 7.5.



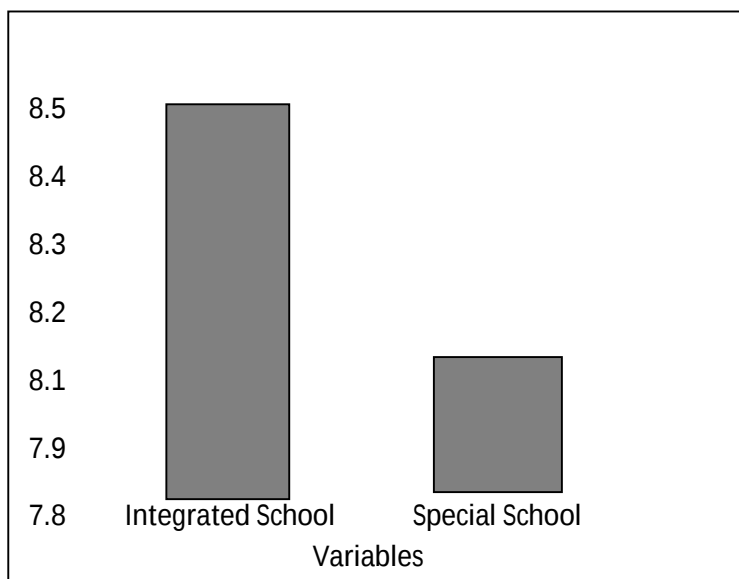
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in paragraph reading skill is 6.5.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in matching word with picture skill is 6.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in story reading with picture skill is 6.3.
- To study the reading skill of educable mentally retarded children in integrated school.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in letter recognition skill is 8.5.
- The mean of educable mentally retracted children in word recognition skill is 7.3.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in copying word skill is 5.7.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children sentence completion skill is 7.8.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in paragraph reading skill is 6.9.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in matching word with picture skill is 6.6.
- The mean of educable mentally retarded children in story reading with picture skill is 6.8.

To compare the reading skill of educable mentally retarded children in special and integrated schools.

### **To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on letter recognition skill.**

**Table-1**

| Group Data        | No. of Stds | Mean | Std. Div | Paring diff. | t-value |
|-------------------|-------------|------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Integrated School | 25          | 8.5  |          | 0.4          | 8.92    |
| Special schools   | 25          | 8.1  | 0.132    |              |         |



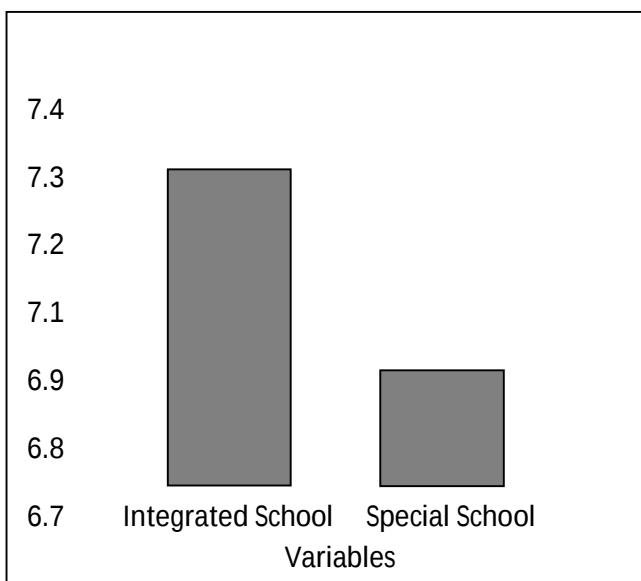
### Interpretation of Data

Calculated  $t$ -value=8.92, critical  $t$ -value at 5% level of significance 2.05 and critical  $t$ -value at 1% level is 2.76. Our calculated  $t$ -value is greater than the tabled value of both the level of significance so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis at both the levels of significance and concluded that the educable mentally retarded children in Integrated and Special schools differ on letter recognition skill.

**To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on word Recognition Skill.**

**Table-2**

| Group Data        | No. of Stds | Mean | Std. Div | Paring diff. | t-value |
|-------------------|-------------|------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Integrated School | 25          | 7.3  |          | 0.4          | 5.72    |
| Special schools   | 25          | 6.9  | 0.187    |              |         |

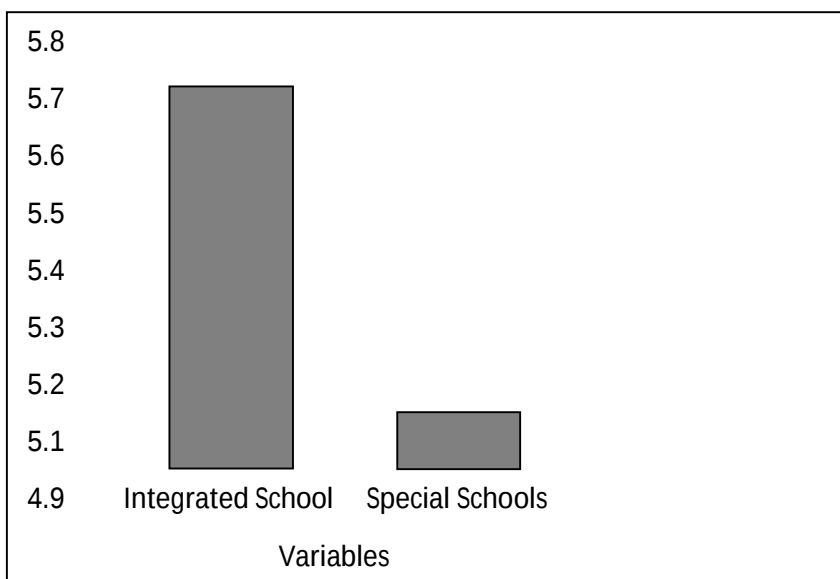


Calculated  $t$ -value=5.72, critical  $t$ -value at 5% level of significant 2.05 and critical  $t$ -value at 1% level is 2.76 Our calculated  $t$ -value is greater than the tabled value of both the level of significance so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis at both the levels of significance and concluded that the educable mentally retarded children in Integrated and Special schools differ on Word Recognition skill.

### To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on Copying Word skill.

**Table-3**

| Group Data        | No. of Stds | Mean | Std. Div | Paring diff. | t-value |
|-------------------|-------------|------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Integrated School | 25          | 5.7  |          | 0.6          | 6.24    |
| Special schools   | 25          | 5.1  | 0.28     |              |         |



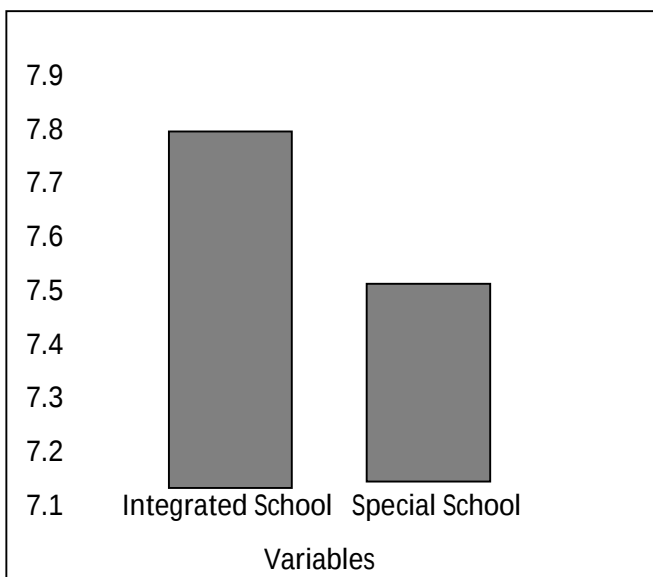
### Interpretation of Data

Calculated  $t$ -value=6.24, critical  $t$ -value at 5% level of significance 2.05 and critical  $t$ -value at 1% level is 2.76 Our calculated  $t$ -value is greater than the tabled value is both the level of significance so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis at both the levels of significance and concluded that the educable mentally retarded children in integrated and Special school differ on copying Word skill.

**To compare the educable mental retracted children in special and integrated school on Paragraph Reading Skill.**

**Table-4**

| Group Data        | No. of Stds | Mean | Std. Div | Paring diff. | t-value |
|-------------------|-------------|------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Integrated School | 25          | 7.8  |          | 0.3          | 2.04    |
| Special schools   | 25          | 7.5  | 0.40     |              |         |



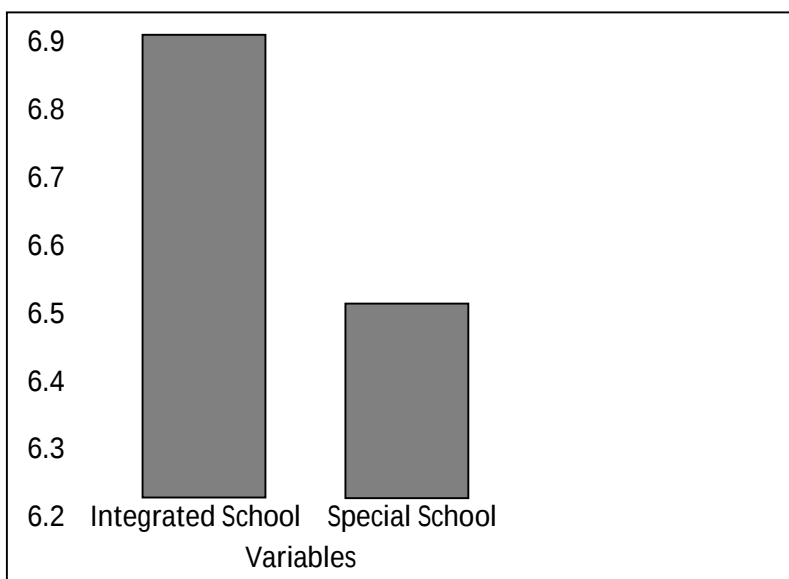
### Interpretation of Data

Calculated  $t$ -value=2.04, critical  $t$ -value at 5% level of significance 2.05 and the  $t$ -value at 1% level is 2.76 i.e. is not significant. Our  $t$ -value is greater on 1% level of significance so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis at this levels of significance and concluded that the educable mentally retracted children in Integrated and Speical schools differ on paragraph reading skill.

**To compare the educable mental retarded children in special an integrated school on Matching Word with picture skill.**

**Table-5**

| Group Data        | No. of Stds | Mean | Std. Div | Paring diff. | t-value |
|-------------------|-------------|------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Integrated School | 25          | 6.9  |          | 0.4          | 4.34    |
| Special schools   | 25          | 6.5  | 0.28     |              |         |



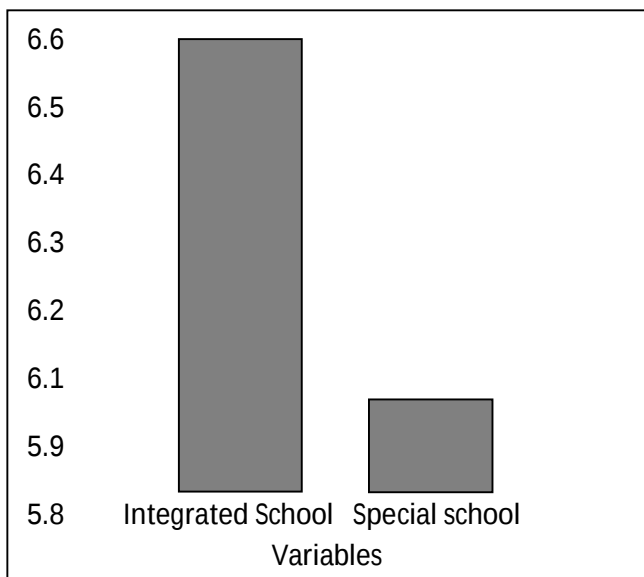
### Interpretation of Data

Calculated t-value= 4.34, critical t-value at 5% level of significance 2.05 and critical t-value at 1% level of significance 2.76. Our calculated t-value is greater than the tabled value of both the level of significance so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis at both the levels of significance and concluded that the educable mentally retarded children in Integrated and Special schools differ on matching word with picture skill.

### To compare the educable mental retarded children in special and integrated school on Story Reading with picture skill.

**Table-6**

| Group Data        | No. of Stds | Mean | Std. Div | Paring diff. | t-value |
|-------------------|-------------|------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Integrated School | 25          | 6.6. |          | 0.6          | 9.19    |
| Special schools   | 25          | 6    | 0.20     |              |         |



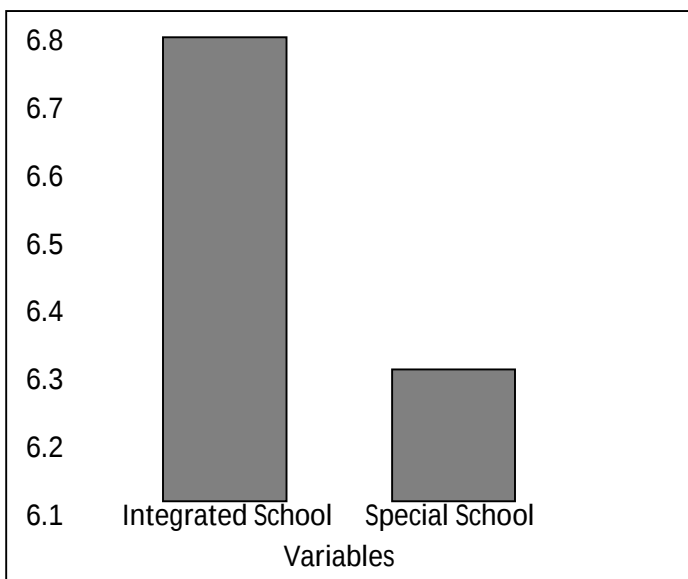
### Interpretation of Data

Calculated  $t$ -value=9.19, critical  $t$ -value at 5% level of significance 2.05 and critical  $t$ -value at 1% level is 2.76 Our calculated  $t$ -value is greater than the tabled value of both the level of significance so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis at both the levels of significance and concluded that the educable mentally retarded children in Integrated and Special schools differ on story reading with picture skill.

### To Comparison the Reading Skills of Educable Mentally Retarded Children in Integrated and Special Schools

Table-7

| Group Data        | No. of Item | Mean | Std. Div | Paring diff. | t-value |
|-------------------|-------------|------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Integrated School | 7           | 6.8  |          | 0.5          | 4.5     |
| Special schools   | 7           | 6.3  | 0.22     |              |         |



### Interpretation of Data

Calculated  $t$ -value=4.5 critical  $t$ -value at 5% level of significance 2.05 and critical  $t$ -value at 1% level is 2.76 Our calculated  $t$ -value is greater the tabled value of both the level of significance so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis at both the levels of significance and concluded that the educable mentally retarded children in Integrated and Special schools differ on all the reading skills.

### Findings

From the above analysis, it can be seen that educable mentally retarded children show better reading skills in integrated schools when compared with EMR children in special schools.



1. Educable mentally retarded children in integrated schools have better letter recognition skill than EMR children in special school.
2. Educable mentally retarded children in integrated schools show better performance on word recognition skill than EMR children in special school.
3. Educable mentally retarded children in integrated schools show better performance on copying word skill than EMR children in special school.
4. Educable mentally retarded children in integrated schools show better performance on sentence completion skill than EMR children in special school.
5. Educable mentally retarded children in integrated schools show better performance on paragraph reading skill than EMR children in special school.
6. Educable mentally retarded children in integrated schools show better performance on matching word with picture skill than EMR children in special school.
7. Educable mentally retarded children in integrated schools show better performance on story reading skill than EMR children in special school.

## **Conclusion**

From the above study, it has been found in all reading skills like letter recognition, word recognition, copying word, sentence completion, paragraph reading, and matching word with picture and story reading with picture skills. The educable mentally retarded children in the case of all reading skills studying in integrated school are better than the educable mentally retarded children in special school.

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## **A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON INTELLIGENCE OF STUDENTS OF JAWAHAR NAVODAYA VIDYALAYA AND KENDRIYA VIDYALAYA IN DHEMAJI DISTRICT OF ASSAM**

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### **Abstract:**

The present study dealt with the intelligence of class X students of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya and Kendriya Vidyalaya in Dhemaji district of Assam. The sample consisted of 100 students (50 JNV and 50 KV). Group Test of Mental Ability (GTMA) by Dr. S. Jalota (1976) was used to find out intelligence of students. The main finding of the study was that the students of JNV were found better in intelligence than KV students.

### **Introduction**

Education has continued to evolve, diversify and extend its reach and coverage since the dawn of human history. Every country develops its system of education to express and promote its unique socio-cultural identity and also to meet the challenges of time. In our national perception education is essentially for all, which is fundamental to our all-round development, material and spiritual.

Education being the sub system of society plays a key role in moulding, shaping, reforming and reconstructing it from time to time. One of the major features of contemporary educational thinking has



been a growing concern about the development of effective personality and efficiency of teaching learning outcomes that can be assessed in terms of students' achievement. Intelligence is considered to be a significant factor affecting the achievement of students. It is a component of successful living. One indicator of the difficulty involved in understanding intelligence is the variety of the definitions used in its measurement. Intelligence refers to ease or difficulty with which people are able to learn various things. On the basis of this working definitions, people of high in a particular function learn new behaviour in that area with comparative ease, while people with low intelligence find it difficult to learn the same things. Intelligence is the necessary condition for achievement. It is impossible to achieve without corresponding intelligence which is comprised of mental abilities. Ability is about the quality of being that enables one to do something which serves as the foundation of achievement.

Intelligence is the power or faculty which helps us in understanding thinking and reasoning about things or people. Intelligence is the only word which makes the human being different from animal. David Wechsler said (1958) intelligence is the aggregates of global capacity of an individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment. Our learning and thinking are possible through intelligence only. It is an organization comprising the abilities of readiness, correctness and of understanding complicated and abstract things and with its help a person shows necessary mental control and action in solving problems. Intelligence is a term describing one or more capacities of the mind. In different context, the term intelligence can be defined in different ways, including the capacities for abstract thinking, understanding, communication, reasoning, learning, planning, emotional intelligence and problems solving. Intelligence is most widely studied in human



being, but it is also observed in animals and plants as well. According to Anastasi (1951), “Intelligence is not a single, unitary ability, but rather a composite of several functions. The term denotes that combination of abilities required for survival and advancement within a particular culture.” H. Gardner (1993) said that intelligence is the ability to solve problems, or to create products, that are valued within one or more cultural settings. According to L. Thurstone (1924), “Intelligence, considered as a mental trait, is the capacity to make impulses focal at their early, unfinished stage of formation. Intelligence is, therefore, the capacity for abstraction, which is an inhibitory process.”

From the above discussion, a viable definition of intelligence is understood as a sort of mental energy, in the form of mental or cognitive abilities, available with an individual which enables him to handle his environment in terms of adaptation to face novel situations as effectively as possible. In terms of this definition, we can assess a person's intelligence in proportion to his/her ability to use his/his mental energy to handle energy to handle his problems and lead a happy and well-contented life.

## **Review of Related Studies**

Many studies have revealed that intelligence relates strongly to students achievement than any other characteristics.

Balasubramanian (1993) studied how far intelligence was related to pupil's academic achievement in English. The study found that (i) intelligence of pupils positively influenced their academic achievement in English. (ii) pupils having higher level intelligence preferred English medium classes and urban schools.



Allik and Realo (1997) studied intelligence, academic abilities and personality. From the study it was found that low intelligent persons used their intellectual abilities for seeking excitement and elaborating fantasies while high intelligent persons used their intellect for regulating and controlling their affective lives.

Panigrahi, (2005) studied academic achievement in relation to intelligence and socio-economic status of high school students with the objective of examining the influence of intelligence and socio-economic status on academic achievement of high school students by taking a sample of 100 students from Bhubaneswar city of Odisha and found that there was significant and positive correlation between academic achievement and intelligence.

Habibolla and Abdullah, (2010) in their study entitled “intelligence and academic achievement: an investigation of gender differences” found that there existed a significant relationship between intelligence and academic achievement for both male and female separately and in total sample.

Chandra, R. and Azimmudin (2013) in thier study entitled “influence of intelligence and gender on academic achievement of secondary school students of Lucknow city” found that there was no influence of gender on academic achievement but intelligence influenced the academic achievement of the students.

Saikia, Pallabi and Choudhury (2014) made a study on effect of intelligence on academic achievement of secondary school students-a study in Lakhimpur district of Assam. The objective of this study was to study the academic achievement of secondary school students according to gender and place of residence; to determine the level of intelligence to gender and place of residence. This study was conducted



on a sample of 100 class X students from government and provincialised schools of Lakhimpur district of Assam.

Dutta. J. Chetia, P. & Soni, J.C (2015) conducted a study on a comparative study on intelligence of secondary school students in Lakhimpur district of Assam. The findings of the study that there is no difference on intelligence in respect of male and females of private and rural male/female private secondary school students. But it revealed real difference in overall between government and urban private secondary school students.

Gogoi, N., Dutta. J. & Soni, J.C (2016) conducted a comparative study on academic achievement and intelligence of class X students of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya and Kendriya Vidyalaya in Lakhimpur district, Assam and found that the students of JNV and KV differ significantly on both intelligence and academic achievement.

### **Need of the Study**

The present study has been designed to compare intelligence of students between JNV and KV of Dhemaji district of Assam. Intelligence is a vital factor in academic achievement. It may be explained as the capacity for knowledge and understanding especially as applied to the handling of new situation. In this study the investigator tries to find out the difference in intelligence of students belonging to JNV and KV. Both the institutions are managed by two autonomous bodies under the Ministry of Human Resource Development Government of India. The mission and philosophy of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas are to provide quality education to the girls, children of SC and ST communities and rural talented children in a residential system. However, the main objective of Kendriya Vidyalayas are to cater to the educational needs of children of transferable Central Government



employees including defence and paramilitary personnel by providing a common programme of education in non-residential system.

## **Statement of the Problem**

The problem of the present study has been stated as follows:

*“A Comparative Study on Intelligence of Students of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya and Kendriya Vidyalaya in Dhemaji District of Assam”*

## **Objectives of the Study**

The study was designed with the following objectives:

1. To test the significance of the mean difference in intelligence between JNV and KV students.
2. To test the significance of the mean difference in intelligence between (a) male and female (b) rural and urban students.
3. To compare the intelligence of (a) male (b) female (c) rural (d) urban students between Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas and Kendriya Vidyalayas.

## **Hypotheses**

- There is no significant difference in the mean scores of intelligence between JNV and KV students.
- There is no significant difference in the mean scores of intelligence (a) male and female (b) rural and urban students.
- There is no significant difference in the mean scores of intelligence of (a) male (b) female (c) rural (d) urban students between JNV and KV.



## **Delimitation of the study**

The study was delimited to:

- The study was covered only the class X students of Navodaya and Kendriya Vidyalaya.
- The study has covered only Dhemaji district of Assam.

## **Methods and Materials**

The descriptive survey method was used in the study.

## **Sample of the Study**

The sample is of small number of representative individuals from the populations. This study was conducted on a sample of 100 students (50 each) from JNV and KV of Lakhimpur district of Assam. The final sample was selected randomly.

## **Tools Used**

The group test of mental ability was constructed and standardized by Dr. S. Jalota which was employed by the researcher for the purpose of data collection.

## **Statistical Techniques Used**

In this study statistical measures such as Mean, Standard Deviation and t-test were used.



## Results and Discussion

The results have been presented in the following table.

**Hypothesis: 1** There is no significant mean difference in intelligence of JNV and KV students of Dhemaji district of Assam.

**Table: 1 Mean, SD and t-value of Intelligence between JNV and KV students**

| Variable     | Group | N  | Mean  | SD    | t-value | Remarks     |
|--------------|-------|----|-------|-------|---------|-------------|
| Intelligence | JNV   | 50 | 76.04 | 10.99 | 2.05    | Significant |
|              | KV    | 50 | 69.68 | 14.23 |         |             |

It was found from the **Table: 1** that the mean scores of both JNV and KV students are 76.04 and 69.68 respectively. When the t-test was applied to test the significance of the mean difference between these groups, it was found that the calculated t-value (2.05) is greater than the table value 1.98 at 0.05% level of significance. This means that the mean difference is significant. Hence hypothesis is rejected. This further means that JNV and KV students have real difference in intelligence.

**Findings:** The JNV and KV students of Dhemaji district of Assam have shown real significant difference in intelligence. This means JNV students have more intelligence than KV students.

**Hypothesis: 2** There is no significant mean difference between (a) male and female (b) rural and urban students in relation to intelligence of Dhemaji district of Assam.



**Table: 2 Mean, SD and t-value of Intelligence between JNV and KV students**

| Variable     | Group  | N  | Mean  | SD    | t-value | Remarks         |
|--------------|--------|----|-------|-------|---------|-----------------|
| Intelligence | Male   | 50 | 73.3  | 14.08 | 0.51    | Not Significant |
|              | Female | 50 | 71.94 | 12.58 |         |                 |
|              | Rural  | 50 | 69.88 | 15.19 | 0.99    | Not Significant |
|              | Urban  | 50 | 72.58 | 11.75 |         |                 |

From the **Table: 2**, it was found that the mean scores in intelligence of male and female are 73.3 and 71.94 respectively. When the t-test was applied to compare the mean scores of both the groups, it was found that the calculated t-value (0.51) is less than the table value 1.98 at 0.05% level of significance. This means that the mean difference is not significant. Hence the hypothesis is accepted. This further means that male and female students have similar level of intelligence.

It was found that the computed t-value between the scores of rural and urban students of JNV and KV in intelligence is 0.99 which is not significant at 0.05 level. Hence, the hypothesis “There is no significant mean difference between rural and urban students in relation to intelligence of Dhemaji district of Assam” is accepted. Thus, the result revealed that there is no significant difference between rural and urban students of JNV and KV in intelligence.

**Findings:** The male and female as well as rural and urban students have no differences were found between JNV and KV students.

**Hypothesis: 3** There is no significant mean difference in relation to intelligence of (a) male (b) female (c) rural (d) urban students between JNV and KV.



**Table: 3 Mean, SD and t-value of Intelligence of difference group between JNV and KV students**

| Variable     | Group                  | N  | Mean  | SD    | t-value | Remarks         |
|--------------|------------------------|----|-------|-------|---------|-----------------|
| Intelligence | Male Students of JNV   | 30 | 77.67 | 8.88  | 2.42    | Significant     |
|              | Male Students of KV    | 30 | 69.67 | 15.8  |         |                 |
|              | Female Students of JNV | 20 | 71.4  | 15.35 | 0.59    | Not Significant |
|              | Female Students of KV  | 20 | 68.85 | 11.75 |         |                 |
|              | Rural Students of JNV  | 25 | 73.72 | 14.45 | 2.05    | Significant     |
|              | Rural Students of KV   | 25 | 65.2  | 14.81 |         |                 |
|              | Urban Students of JNV  | 30 | 72.33 | 10.42 | 0.26    | Not Significant |
|              | Urban Students of KV   | 30 | 73.07 | 11.52 |         |                 |

From the **Table: 3**, it was found that the mean intelligence score of male students of JNV is 77.67 with SD 8.88 and that of male students of KV is 69.67 with SD 15.8 and calculated t-value is 2.42 which is higher than the table value 2.00 at 0.05 level. Hence it is significant and the hypothesis “There is no significant mean difference in intelligence of male students between JNV and KV” is rejected. From the t-value it can be said that there is a significant difference in intelligence among the male students of JNV and KV. From the mean score it is cleared that male students of JNV are better in intelligence than KV students.

The table value showed that means scores of female students of JNV in intelligence is 71.4, whereas female students of KV is 68.85. The computed t-value is 0.59, which is not significant. So, the hypothesis is accepted. It revealed that there is no significant mean difference in intelligence of female students between JNV and KV.

In **Table: 3**, it was found that the mean scores of rural students of JNV and KV are 73.72 and 65.2 respectively. When the t-test was applied to test the significance of the mean difference between these groups, it was found that the calculated t-value (2.05) is higher than the table value 2.01 at 0.05% level of significance. Hence the null



hypothesis is rejected. This means that the difference between the two mean is significant as there is a difference in intelligence of rural students between JNV and KV.

It was found that the computed t-value between the scores of urban students of JNV and KV in intelligence is 0.26 which is not significant. Hence, the hypothesis is accepted. Thus, the result revealed that there is no significant mean difference between urban students of JNV and KV in intelligence.

**Findings:** The male students of JNV and KV as well as rural students have shown real significant difference in intelligence but no such difference were found in female and urban students of the same district.

## Conclusions

The study revealed that JNV students were found better in intelligence than KV students. It may be concluded that JNV is a residential school with a good infrastructure facilities. So they can interact with their friends, teachers and authority constantly and can develop right kind of intellect, attitude and aspiration when they live in home-like residential school. The findings of the study have some significant messages for the policy makers, board members, administrators, teachers, employees who have significant role and responsibility in improving education of KV students.

## Suggestions for Further Research

- Similar studies can be carried out at senior secondary level.
- A comparative study of intelligence and academic achievement of students of SEBA and CBSE Board schools.



- A comparative study of intelligence and academic achievement of students of JNVs, KVs and other Independent schools.
- A comparative study of values, intelligence and academic achievement of students of SEBA, CBSE and ICSE Board schools.

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## DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN INDIA

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“If it were between countries we’d call it a war  
If it were a disease, we’d call it an epidemic  
If it were an oil spill, we’d call it a disaster  
But it is happening to women, and its just an everyday affair  
It is violence against women”.

**Kofi Annan**

Ours is the largest democracy in the world. Where the women constitute nearly half of the population. Though the constitution guaranteed equal rights to women along with men. But starting from Vedic age to twenty first century ,women in India perhaps have never experienced equal rights and freedom compared to the male counter parts. The concept of ‘Ardhangini’ (half of the body) seems to be restricted only in literatures and have never implemented in practical life. In addition to this extracts from Ramacharitamanas of Tulasidas like ‘Dhol,Gauwnwar.Shudra,Pashu aur Nari, Sakal Tadan Ka Adhikari’ besides other indicators like Pardaha system , Sati system that are subject to women only,is a reflection of the History of women ‘s subordinate status.

It is always women have to be in the tight rope, subject to inequality to and looked down as an inferior sex. . The subordinate status of women combined with socio cultural norms that are inclined towards patriarchy and masculinity can be considered as an important factor determining the domestic violence. They are facing several problems like physical, social, economic, psychological, etc.Especially in recent times violence against women in several parts of India could be seen due to various reasons. The aim of this paper is to explain about



domestic violence against women in India and suggest measures to overcome this problem.

Violence against women means any act of gender based violence that results in ,or is likely to result in physical sexual or psychological norms or suffering to women ,including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life .

The definition of violence in the oxford English Dictionary(O.E.D 1956,2359)goes far beyond pain and the shedding of blood. It is firstly the exercise of physical force so as to damage persons or property. But more importantly for our purposes the forcible interference with personal freedom, violent or passionate conduct or language, finally, passion or fury.

Violence affects the lives of millions of women world wide, in all socio –economic and educational classes. It cuts across cultural and religious barriers impeding the right of women to participate fully in society. Violence against women takes a dismaying variety of forms , from domestic abuse and rape to child marriages and female circumcision. All are violations of the most fundamental women rights . In a statement to the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in September 1995, the United Nations Secretary-General, Boutros Boutros Ghali, said that violence against women is a Universal problem that must be universally condemned. But he said that the problem continues to grow. The Secretary-General noted that domestic violence alone is on the increase. Studies in 10countries, he said, have found that between 17 per cent and 38 per cent of women have suffered physical assaults by a partner.



Domestic Violence is an extremely complex and vicious form of abuse, committed most often within the four walls of the family house and/or within a particular deep-rooted power dynamic and socio-economic structure, which do not allow even the acknowledgement or recognition of this abuse. Meaning and detection of domestic violence itself is the most demanding task.

The impact of domestic violence depends upon its severity. Domestic Violence could result in anything from death to minor scars. There could be a situation where this violence results in neither but causes devastating psychological impairment.

“According to Black’s Law Dictionary, “Domestic Violence means Violence between members of a household, usually spouses an assault or other violent act committed by one member of a household against another. There are number of policies made by Government in order to protect women from the problems that are coming from various dimensions. There are The Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961, The Commission of Sati Prevention Act, 1987, The pre-conception and pre-natal Diagnose Techniques (Prohibition of Sex Selection) Act, The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955(HMA), The Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005. In spite of all these acts the evils against women carried out continuously.

Now we will explained about the various forms of domestic violence like Psychological Abuse, Social Abuse, Financial Abuse, Physical Assault or Sexual Assault. Common Forms of violence against Indian Women are Female feticide, Domestic Violence, Dowry death or harassment, Mental and physical torture, Sexual trafficking, and Public humiliation. The causes of above said categories of violence are at the identifying the sex of the child deaths. Children can get affected by domestic violence in the following manner. Children in homes where



there is domestic violence are also abused or neglected. Although the women is usually the primary target, violence is sometimes directed towards children, and sometimes toward family members and friends.

- 1) Children can themselves get physically abused or hurt.
- 2) Witnessing violence actions can be mentally damaging.

Children often try to intervene to protect the adult victim, which puts them in a dangerous situation. Children can copy the violent behavior they witness, both as children and as adults. They may develop stress-related problems in health. They can lose self-confidence, be afraid/angry, and blame. If the women are abused, by men, they should not feel guilty of it. They are not alone, it is not their fault. They can take help from their parents, relatives women organization, Government and other Quarters. Measures to overcome the domestic violence. Confidence should be developed in the minds of the women.

In view of the prevalence as well as the pervasiveness of domestic violence, many researchers in the past have attempted to assess the situation besides exploring its possible cause and subsequent consequences for society in general and women in particular. INCLEN (2000), found it as a problem that cuts across age, education, social class and religion in India. The same study is of the view that 40 percent women had experienced at least one form of physical violence in their married life. While many researchers come out with findings that lifestyle of men such as smoking, alcoholism and drugs promote men to commit domestic violence, some are of the view that masculinity and domestic violence are closely interlinked. Persons with lower socialization and responsibility are found to be the enhancers of the problem. Studies have also revealed that sons of violent parents, men raised in patriarchal family structure that encourages traditional gender role are more likely to abuse their intimate partners. Gendered



socialization process is what mainly responsible for domestic violence. Another study among Uttar Pradesh men by Gerstein (2000) is of the view that low educational level and poverty are important reasons for domestic violence. Further, marriage at a younger age makes women vulnerable to domestic violence. Besides this, the role of inter spousal relationship, sex of the children, ownership of property, dowry, working status, autonomy, religion and caste of the person can't be ignored .

Many studies are of the view that violence by intimate partner most likely undermines the sexual and reproductive health of the women. This extensive violence has significant harmful effects like unwanted pregnancy, gynecological disorders and physical injuries to private parts besides large-scale mental health impacts. Again, many of the commonly associated disorders/problems are found to be inadequately addressed. Further, as Freedman has written, violence by husbands against wife should not be seen as a break down in the social order rather than an affirmation to patriarchal social order. Similarly, the view that not only wife beating is deeply entrenched, but also people justify it. Thus, domestic violence is simply not a personal abnormality but rather it roots in the cultural norms of the family and the society. Again, looking from another angle, it is found that many of the victims of domestic violence has either refused to name the perpetrator of the assault or attributed the injuries to other reasons .

### **Domestic Violence in different States**

The percentage of women who agree with specific reasons for justifying a husband beating his wife by states. Surprisingly, about three out of every five Indian women agrees with at least one reason of wife beating as justified, the main reason for wife beating usually are that come out is wife neglects house or children (40 percent) followed by wife goes out without telling husband (37 percent), wife shows

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disrespect for in-laws (34 percent) and husband suspects wife is unfaithful (33 percent). Only 7 percent women agree with natal family does not give money or other items as a reason justified for wife beating.

Regional variation shows that 'husband suspects wife is unfaithful' is the reason varies from 55 percent in Andhra Pradesh to 10 percent in Arunachal Pradesh and West Bengal. Natal family does not give money or other items is a main reason in Andhra Pradesh while such problem is very marginal in most northern states like Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh and Delhi. In Nagaland (80 percent) and Manipur (77 percent), wife shows disrespect for in-laws is seems to be the main cause for wife beating while such reason is very low in Haryana (10 percent), Himachal Pradesh (9 percent) and Punjab (4 percent). Wife goes out without telling husband as the reason varies from 69 percent in Manipur to five percent in Punjab. Similarly north-eastern states like Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland wife neglects house or children is the main reason for wife beating while such variation is very low in the northern states like Punjab (5 percent), Himachal Pradesh (8 percent), Haryana (10 percent), New Delhi (12 percent). Wife does not cook food properly is the main reason in Maharashtra (47 percent), Madhya Pradesh (43 percent) and Jammu and Kashmir (43 percent) while such reason is negligible in northern states like Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and Haryana. The women who agree with at least one reason are highest in Nagaland (97 percent) followed by Manipur (91 percent) and lowest in New Delhi (21 percent).

### **Regional variations in the prevalence of domestic violence –**

Domestic Violence since age 15 as well as in the last one-year preceding. It is evident from one out of every five Indian women has reportedly experienced beating or physical mistreatment since they have turned 15. There is substantial state wise variation in the



proportion of ever-married women who have been beaten or physically mistreated since age 15. Two-fifth of ever-married women in Tamil Nadu and at least one-quarter of ever-married women in Meghalaya, Orissa, Arunachal Pradesh and Bihar have been physically mistreated since age 15. Himachal Pradesh with only 6 percent women reporting it reflects a possible better position women cherished.

About one-fifth of ever-married women in India are beaten or physically mistreated by their husbands and there are interstate variations too in the same. More than one-third of women in Tamil Nadu have reported their husbands as the perpetrator. Again, the more than 20 percent of the women in the states like Bihar, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh have reportedly been assaulted by their husbands as against of Meghalaya where a majority (29 percent) blame other persons for the mistreatment. Beating by persons other than the husband or in-laws constitutes a substantial proportion in most of the northeastern states as well as in Delhi, Jammu and Kashmir and Punjab. The percentages of women beaten in the 12 months preceding the survey varies from less than 5 percent in Himachal Pradesh and Kerala to more than 15 percent in Bihar, Arunachal Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Nagaland.

**Determinants of women's view about wife beating as justified and also the determinants of domestic violence -**

The odds ratios of women's view in justifying a husband beating his wife and women's experience with beatings or physical mistreatment. After controlling the effect of other variables women in the older age group (40-49) are 9 percent less likely to agree with at least one reason for justifying a husband beating his wife compared to the youngest age group of 15-19 years. Higher the educational level leads to lower the probability for justifying at least one reason. This is amply clear from the result that women with higher secondary and



above educational level are 45 percent less likely for justifying at least one reason compared to illiterate women. Therefore, educational level of women is one of the main determinants of justifying at least one reason for husband beating his wife. Women engaged in agricultural activities are more likely for justifying one or more reason of wife beating. Lower the age at first marriage, higher is the probability of justifying at least one reason.

Women with lower autonomy are more likely of being beaten compared to women of higher autonomy. Those who are not exposed to mass media are 18 percent more likely of being beaten than those who have exposed. Households headed by female members are about 15 percent less likely of being beaten since age 15 compared to those household headed by male members. Workingwomen have a greater likelihood of being mistreated than the non-working women. Women from medium and high standard of living are about 34 percent and 60 percent respectively less likely of being beaten or physically mistreated compared to low standard of living. The similar trend also follows in case of women being beaten or physically mistreated in the last 12 months preceding the survey.

The foregoing analysis reveals not only widespread prevalence of domestic violence (21 percent, since age 15) in India but also the acceptance of majority of ever-married women (57 percent) to at least one reason for justifying a husband beating his wife. There are again large-scale interstate differences in the prevalence as well as acceptance of violence among women. In addition to this, it is noteworthy to mention that a lot of variables like age, education of women, age at first marriage, ethnic and religious categories, women's autonomy, exposure to mass media, work status of women and standard of living besides place of residence contribute significantly to the prevalence of domestic



violence. Nevertheless, it is the husbands who are reportedly the perpetrators of violence showing one reason or another.

The experience of violence undermines the empowerment women and certainly is a barrier to the socio-economic and demographic development of the country. In view of the prevalence of the problem, it is suggested to have programmes that take into account involvement of the community and especially the males for effective as well as fruitful amelioration of the issue. It can again be suggested that education of the girls should be encouraged, which will undoubtedly work as deterrent to domestic violence. Again, though the present findings are silent about the legal side of the issue, stringent laws against the perpetrators of the violence, laws giving more rights to the women will always be beneficial to curb the issue. As it is found to be deep rooted in the socio cultural practices and both the perpetrator as well as victim takes it granted, there is need of major transformation in the socio cultural milieu. In order to address the problem, social norms and values towards gender roles should be transformed to facilitate the implementation of appropriate and meaningful responses to domestic violence and ultimately to prevent it from happening altogether.

### **For this purpose certain remedial actions are required**

1. There should be a change in the Socialization Process. Family is the cradle of violence. It is the 'gender liable' which is attached to a child at birth. Which brings a whole range of social apparas with it viz; names, cloths, toys deliefs, behaviour and valu es? The male and female should be brought up in a similar manner only then the attitude of men will change towards women in future.
2. Women should improve their status educationally and economically, when they are self-sufficient . Finally, they can resist the domestic violence to some extent.



3. Men are not the only one who is violent against women. Women are also violent against women. Attitude on women towards women needs to be changed.
4. Media can also play an active part in eradicating the violence against women.
5. Moral Values should inculcated by parents and teachers since the childhood that's itself and create hormonal relationship between the male and female students.

It is assumed in the light of modern legal nations that base socio-cultural and religious patterns that have been the major inspiration for the high degree of domestic violence in our society, would become a thing of past in the new millennium because

“The stark reality is that the future of development and society lies in the future of women equally with men. Never has it been more apparent that women's issue can not be compartmentalized and isolated as secondary issues in development”.



## **GIRL CHILD EDUCATION-SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF RURAL AND URBAN AREA IN RANGA REDDY DISTRICT**

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### **Abstract**

This study examined the effects of Rural and Urban and socio-economic status on girls education in Ranga Reddy district. The sample consists of 229 Rural and 251 Urban male and females in age range 18 and above. Socio economic status scale developed by Radhey shyam and Kumar (2007) was used for data collection.. Mean(M), Standard Deviation(S.D), Chi-Square test were used for statistical analysis. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between socioeconomic status and Rural and Urban males and females. The results of analysis showed that there was a difference in socioeconomic status and Rural and Urban male and female in Ranga Reddy District. The results of the analysis showed that the parental education is not positively Effects on the socioeconomic status on girls education. The family size of the members also one of the factors not spending much interest on their girl children.

**Key words:** Socioeconomic Status, Girls Education

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

India Promoting girls' education has been a priority in India for over a century, but discrepancies still persist in learning opportunities. Education in public schools for rural poor girls and women is largely limited to acquiring literacy and numeracy. The second category of 'superior' schools, mostly in urban areas, is not within the reach of the poor. Only limited learning opportunities in rural public schools are left



for girls from poor and deprived families. The focus on access has brought many girls into school, but assuring quality remains an ever-debated issue. Deprived children, including large numbers of girls, are offered this quality-compromised free education through what is formally known as 'transitional school'. Competing and consecutive political ideologies have all resulted in more education and progress towards EFA, but of low quality, where the poor and deprived, particularly girls, suffer the most. Deprived women and girls themselves need to have their voices heard and their concerns reflected in the policies. In this context, it will be crucial for them to be mobilized and organized and to intensify their own movement for social justice and equality in education to bring about much-needed transformative education of girls.

The girl-child problem around the world has many dimensions but the root of all kinds of discriminations and bias against the girl child lies in the customs, traditions and typical mindset of the society which considers the girl child and women as inferior beings. Women and girls have been treated in the most inhuman ways from the inception of human civilisation (Marx 1848; Fiso-Orideji 2001; Igube 2004).. Female feticide, female infanticide, sexual abuse, marginalization in terms of nutrition, health care and education, violence against women and bias against women in all spheres of life including social, political, economic and religious spheres is a common norms in today's world. Generally, girls as well as women do not have decision making power of their own; it is always somebody else who makes decisions for them. An adolescent girl is married without her consent and becomes pregnant long before her body and emotional/psychological feelings are mature or ready for it. Half of the total sexual assaults in the world are committed against girl children (Bass 2004; Guttman 2009; Alabi & Alabi 2012). One of the leading



causes of death among girl children is the complications from pregnancy and child bearing (Fisho-Orideji 2001). The issue of discrimination against the girl-child has remained an unresolved issue in the society and a major concern in the academic discourse. In every civilized society children are regarded as the pride of the parents and the greatest value the society possess. This is why children are mostly cherished and consciously protected from all forms of hazards and abuse. However, girl-children have not been so lucky to be cherished, protected and loved in our society due to certain traditional practices, stereotyping, cultural and religious beliefs which put them at the risk of abuse and neglect.

### **1.1 Emphasis on Girls' Education**

Added to the gender discourse since the mid-1990s is the acknowledgment, especially by the classical liberal economists led by the World Bank, that investment in girls' education contributes to achieving several socio-economic development goals. Hence, arguments in favour of gender, education and development gained momentum. Therefore, dialogues and arguments promoted by the gender, education and development discourse have rightly brought the education agenda in the forefront. Herz (2006) has argued the case for educating South Asian girls in that 'a drive to educate girls through the secondary level could pay off tremendously in South Asia – perhaps more than in most other regions, because South Asia has lagged in female education and so has forgone its benefits for longer'.

With the global acknowledgement of the high value of education, national governments, donors, international lenders and aid agencies started investing in education of girls. Promoting girls' education has been a top international development policy priority of the multilateral agencies and donor community – as is evident in 'almost every critical



international conference or rights document relating to development, gender and human rights (Subrahmanian, 2006, ) The global commitments to achieving both the EFA and MDG goals have particularly focused on meeting specific targets related to girls' education in developing countries.

What factors have kept girls from attending primary schools; and in the case of most of those who have attended why has it been so difficult to retain them in school and for them to pursue secondary and higher education? It is in this context that this study attempts to generate a well founded and evidence based knowledge base on barriers to as well as good practices of education of girls.

## **1. 2. Barriers to Girls' Education**

Factors responsible for barriers to girls' education can be categorized according to how one perceives and defines barriers. Barriers take different forms – e.g. barriers to access, barriers to quality services and barriers to relevant curricula and/or pedagogy. Barriers due to historically embedded chauvinistic stigma attached to the public psyche can be very powerful and subtle social norms. Barriers to girls' education can take differential forms across nations/societies depending upon the socio-economic, religious and cultural contexts. Furthermore, barriers can be perceived as either intrinsic or extrinsic to girls in relation to how they experience educational participation. As well, some barriers can be obvious while others are subtle and tacit. What needs to be acknowledged is that the concept of barriers to girls' education is highly complex, hence for the analysis to be comprehensive, the lived experiential meanings will have to be unpacked through qualitative, phenomenological and hermeneutic inquiry processes. The UNICEF outlines the following generic barriers to educating girls:



Family poverty

Weak legal frameworks around education

Uneven playing field from the start

Issues of safety and security around school and home affecting girls

Lack of relevance of school to the lives of children.

These are all very important factors but are mostly external and obvious ones. Radical feminists and critical social theorists probe much more deeply into the social contexts of girls and boys – ranging from the closer contexts of household, school or community to more macro and policy contexts of parliament, ministry of education or district education office – and examine the root causes of the barriers to girls' education (Grundy, 1987; Stromquist, 1995). In her effort to address the issue of racism in the class she had taught, Grundy was confronted with many subtle racial relations due to students' historically embedded socio-psychological contexts that made her wonder why her conscious efforts could not in still empowering experiences among the learners.

Stromquist, on the other hand, offers a critical social perspective for analysing gender power relations in different social contexts of girls and women at household, community, school, district education or ministry of education levels. In studying barriers to girls' schooling, the critical perspective seeks an analysis framework to accommodate, among others, questions related to power relations and underlying assumptions of institutional operating processes, as well as of programme or state interventions, use of languages and metaphors. Interventions intended for gender equality, according to Stromquist (1995), often tend to be superficial and illusive.



## 2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

**Faisal Ibrahim Mohammad Al-Mataalka (2014) “The Influence of Parental Socioeconomic Status on Their Involvement at Home”** The present study focuses on the relationship between parent's socioeconomic status and parental involvement strategies in their child's education among Jordanian parents who have enrolled their children in governmental schools. The total sample of the present study was 150 Jordanian students who completed their (Tawjeehi) education at governmental schools. The sampling design is based on purposive convenient method. A questionnaire technique was used to obtain quantitative data related to parental socioeconomic background and their involvement strategies in their children education from the selected parents. The results revealed that regardless of parental socioeconomic status the found to be involved in their children education. However, the educational level of the parents has greater impact on parental involvement strategies than parental occupation and income.

**Ripon Kumar Sarkar , Md. Mohoshin Reza and Md. Elias Hossain(2014) “Socio Cultural Barriers of Girls’ Educational Attainment Experiences From Rural Bangladesh”** This research paper was aimed at exploring socio-cultural barriers of girls’ education in northern rural Bangladesh. Using a qualitative research methodology and guideline, total forty five participants including five key informants were interviewed singly. Findings revealed that traditional gendered norms hinder girls’ educational attainment. Specifically, it was found that girls were less emphasized in their families while it comes to educational attainment because of patriarchal norm. It was also found that economic insolvency, religious misinterpretation, child marriage and gender insensitive education system limit girls’ education in rural Bangladesh. Program addressing



men attitudes toward women is needed to be launched. For ensuring girls education of marginal households, effective awareness program is also suggested.

**Shahid Iqbal, Anwaar Mohyuddin, Qasim Ali and Mazhar Saeed(2013) "Female Education and Traditional Attitude of Parents in Rural Areas of Hafizabad-Pakistan"** The objectives of the study was, To analyze the socio-economic characteristics of respondents. To analyze the level of education among women in rural area of Hafizabad and To find out the impact of traditional attitude on female education. The present study was conducted in the rural areas of the district Hafizabad. A sample of size 700 female children was selected using multistage random sampling technique. The analysis reveals that the girls, who belonged to households where the minds of the heads of the households were entrenched in the local cultural values, had lower levels of educational attainment as compared to the girls of households where the heads of the households were liberal. The study realizes the need to encourage the male heads of the households for schooling of their daughters as a short-run policy.

**Faheemahmad S. and Nishat Parveen (2012) "Influence of socio economic status on achievement in science of secondary school students"**. The major objective of the study is to measure the science achievement of secondary school students in relation to their socio economic status in the society. The sample comprised 300 randomly selected school students and random sampling technique was used. In this standardized questionnaire was used. Data was collected the students of class xi. Results of the study were no significance difference between the mean achievement science score of secondary school students of middle & lower SES.



**Chandrakala Singh and Bimla Dhanda (2008) conducted “A study on gender discrimination of girl child”.** The sample of study consists of 125 parents from the rural area bhojraj of hisar district of Haryana state. In this study purposive sampling technique was used for the selection of the sample. Interview schedule used to collect the data. The findings of the paper reflected the gender discrimination among the parents.

**Adetunde and Akampae Peter Akensina (2008) “Factors Affecting the Standard of Female Education: A Case Study of Senior Secondary Schools in the Kassena-Nankana District”.**

The purpose of this study is to investigate, examine the factors affecting the standard of female education in senior secondary school in the Kassena-Nankana District and the study specially focused on identifying and understanding the practices likely to promote female school participation in a significant way. Sample was Five senior secondary schools out of the Six secondary schools. The descriptive analysis of the questionnaire used in the process of the research. The study revealed that, distance of students' home from school, residential status, parents' attitude/concern towards female students, parents' level of education, parents occupation status, poverty, lack of qualified teachers, lack of scholarship for female students, lack of parental care and the activities of the girl-child education in the district are the main factors threatening the education of females in the district. Many of the secondary schools in the district are day schools, thus most students stay with their parents or rent rooms in town while attending school. This does not create a good atmosphere for them to learn effectively and hence the poor performance in examinations. And Scholarship for female students will also put them in good mood to study effectively.



## OBJECTIVES:

The study was conducted to achieve the following objectives:

1. To know the significant difference of rural of male and female with regard to girls education on the basis of socioeconomic status
2. To know the significant difference of Urban male and female with regard to girls education on the basis of socioeconomic status.

## HYPOTHESIS:

1. There is no significant difference between rural socioeconomic status of male and female with regard to girls' education on the basis of socioeconomic status .
2. There is no significant difference between urban socioeconomic status of male and female with regard to girls' education on the basis socioeconomic status.

## 3.0 METHODOLOGY

**Sample:** The sample of the study consists of 480 rural and urban male and female was drawn for the study by using random sampling technique. The population of the study constituted in Ranga Reddy district

**Tools:** The questionnaire method was used to measure the comparative of SES of rural and urban male and female. The questionnaire was Socio Economic Status Scale (SESS) by Singh, Radheyshyam and Kumar (2007): The SES scale was adopted in its English version for both the rural and urban respondents. biographical details like name, gender, qualification, caste, occupation and monthly income of rural and urban Ranga Reddy district.

**Data collection procedure:** A questionnaire with 25



statements on SES was administered to the sample of 480 rural and urban male and female in Ranga Reddy District. The information is presented regarding socioeconomic status of Rural and Urban in Ranga Reddy District. The investigator explained about the importance of the study and necessary instructions were given to the rural and urban male and female to fill up the questionnaire.

**Procedure of data analysis:** The collected data were analyzed by using mean, standard deviation and t-test and chi-square test. To know the significant difference between the variables on socioeconomic status of rural and urban male and female, mean and standard deviation has been calculated. Based on mean and standard deviation, t-Test was calculated whenever two groups are involved in a variable t-test was applied. The analysis was done by using the software package SPSS-20.0.

#### 4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Hypothesis-I:** The following hypothesis has been formulated with regard to girls education on the basis of socioeconomic status. “There is no significant difference between socioeconomic status of male and female towards girls’ education”. The results pertaining to the above hypothesis are furnished in the following table.



**Table :**

| Habitat                                 | N   | Mean  | SD     | df | Calculated<br>"F" value | Table value<br>of "F" value | P.value |
|-----------------------------------------|-----|-------|--------|----|-------------------------|-----------------------------|---------|
| Rural and urban<br>Socioeconomic Status | 229 | 46.00 | 10.406 |    |                         |                             |         |
| Pearson chi-square                      | 251 | 51.73 | 12.344 | 1  | 13.923                  | 6.63                        | .000    |

Table 4.1.0 shows the mean, standard deviation, degrees of freedom, f-value and significance between the socioeconomic status of male and female of Rural and Urban towards girls' education in Ranga Reddy District. The mean value of Rural and Urban socioeconomic status towards girls' education was 46.00 and 51.73, standard deviation was 10.406 and 12.344. The calculated F value (13.923) is higher than the tabulated t value (6.63) at ( $p=0.05$ ) at 1 degrees of freedom and on the basis of this evidence it is concluded that there is a significant difference in the socioeconomic status of two groups (Rural and Urban). Therefore, the study reveals that the socioeconomic status of Rural and urban of male and female towards girls' education in Ranga Reddy District is not similar. Hence, **Hypotheses-I was Rejected.**

## 5.0 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

### Findings:

1. It was found that there is a significant difference in the Socioeconomic status of Rural male female regard to girls' education.
2. It was found that there is a significant difference in the socioeconomic status of urban male female regard to girls' education



## Conclusion:

1. Though there is a significant difference between the socioeconomic status of Rural male and female regard to girls' education, the mean scores of urban SES of male and female slightly higher than the Rural SES. From these results it can be said that the Urban SES of male and females are higher than Rural SES of male and female regard to girls education. This is mainly due to urban SES of male and female towards interest on spending on education irrespective gender.
2. Though there is a significant difference between rural SES of male and female thinking is low regard to girl's education, the results of the present study reveals that Rural SES of male and females have lower thinking levels towards girls education. This is due to the adequate facilities of girl's education in Rural areas.
3. Though there is a difference in increasing of family members, Parents are not give Interest on girls to educating their girl child.

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## **PSYCHOLOGICAL CORRELATES OF HOSPITALIZED HIV/AIDS PATIENTS: A STUDY**

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### **INTRODUCTION**

Health is a major indicator which leads to the development of the any nation. Indian government was stepping a head with a slogan. “Health for all by 2001”, under its Five year plan. But at present we are in living in globalization Indian government was in front of big challenge to treatment of HIV/AIDS and welfare of the Hospitalized patients. HIV/AIDS disease is one of the most burning problems in India. The rate of HIV prevalence is increasing day by day without any solution. In Andhra Pradesh TamilNadu, Karnataka, Maharastra, Manipur, Mizoram and Nagaland states HIV prevalence has reached to 1% among the adult population. This international devil has entered every village without any fear. Having an observation in my knowledge once when disease was detected in individuals her / him the person start thinking that the death is nearing. The condition of the person may also develop anxiety, stress and depressive feelings due to lack of awareness about the illness and treatment process who have been hospitalized by the persistent illness is really pathetic patient and family members suffering has been increasing day by day.

There are multiple factors responsible to make the people to fall sick of persons hospitalized. It is very difficult to understand how lives are affected and often changed forever because of hospitalization. Chronic conditions can go beyond many different phases over the course of the disease (Roland 1987). There can be stable and unstable periods, each phase brings it own set of physical, psychological, social,



barriers and each phase requires different types of management (Corbin & Strauss 1988). In this connection the present study was taken up by the researcher. Chronic conditions affect the lives of many people in many ways, either directly or indirectly.

It is very difficult to understand how lives are affected and often changed forever because of hospitalization. People can be taught how to manage their sick condition, because the medical, social and psychological problems associated with chronic problems tend to be so complex and interrelated especially, in long term of stay in the hospital. The collaborative efforts of many different health care professionals are required to provide the full range of services and help that are often needed by the patients in the hospital..

At the same time various programmes have been planned and implemented on Care and Support programmes for people living with HIV/AIDS. But in reality the achievement is not up to the expected level and not reaching the targeted population still there is need to work in different areas. As per the statement of AIDS Prevention Society March 2003, "In India 89% of the reported cases is in the sexually active and economically productive age group at 18-40 years. Over 50% all new infections take place among young adults below 25 years. 21% of new infections are among women. The some of the women who do not have any other risk factors other than being married to their husbands thus the Women married to the HIV infected persons and Women are the victims of the situations, which is very clear from the above statement. This area has not been adequately concentrated in the present AIDS awareness campaign and needs immediate look at it.

Problems the situation of Women Living with HIV/AIDS (WLWHA) is very critical and it is different from other HIV infected persons. Age group, education status, occupation, family situation,



socio-economic conditions, psychological, social needs and problem of acceptance are key factors which affect on the everyday life of the Women Living with HIV/AIDS. The average age group of Women is 25-40age group, which is very productive and significant part of their life time.

These days the joint families are becoming the nuclear families, where the husband and wife are the key persons in the family and husband is the earning person in most of the cases. Now the question comes after the death of the husband who should take care of the women and children living with HIV/AIDS problem.

Why they should become victims in the views of the society for which they are not responsible? What is the future of these people? And who will be supporting for their psycho-social needs? These are some of the questions coming to our mind while thinking of the persons living with HIV/AIDS. In our present system of treatment for the HIV/AIDS people, we don't have specific programmes for the community oriented care and support programmes, rather than our concentration is more on awareness creating, IEC activities and counseling services. So the present need of the hour for the people living with HIV/AIDS is not only creating awareness but also help them to lead a life with the suitable psycho-socioeconomic support and gives self respect to build their confidence levels. The researcher has made an attempt through this study to find out the psychological correlates of hospitalized patients.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

- According to the UN, close to 40 million adults between the age group of 15- 49 age group people Worldwide live with HIV/AIDS.
- Eller (2001), while investigating the effects of selected variables on quality of life among 81HIVpositiv adults noticed that work status, depression and fatigue predicted 50% of variance in QOL in person with HIV/AIDS.



- Gielen et al. (2000) found that the average age of PLHAs was 33years. About 39%had been hospitalized at least once due to their HIV and 19%of them had a main sex partner who was also HIV positive. The findings also showed that women who practiced more self care behaviors reported better physical & mental health and overall quality of life.
- Kemppainen J.K (2001). Based on a study among 162 inpatients male & female patients with AIDS, came to the conclusion that the strongest predictor of decreased QOL.
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- World health report. (2003). three million people died of HIV/AIDS. It has killed more than 20 million people; as estimated 34-46 million others are living with the disease

## **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The following objectives have been proposed in the present study.

- To gather the Socio- Demographic profile of the respondent in the study.
- To study whether gender has any significance effect on anxiety, stress and depression among hospitalized patients.
- To study whether marital status has any significant effect on anxiety, stress and depression among hospitalized patients.
- To study whether number of days hospitalized has any significant effect on anxiety, stress and depression among hospitalized patients.

## **RESEARCH DESIGN**

- In the present research study, the sample of 43 hospitalized patients in SVRRG Hospital, Tirupati has been selected by using simple random Sampling technique.

## **RESEARCH SETTING**

The SVRR government general hospital Tirupati, Chittoor District of A.P by the government was taken up all type of services satisfying



their needs, which varies from one hospital to another hospital. The services rendered by the government hospitals are comparatively cheap with the best facilities. It is in a positive environment with kindness.

The services rendered by the government general hospitals must be made available for all segments of population to fulfill the national health policy 2002 requirements up to date services. Whatever may be the condition of the patient, hospital must focus only on the physical elements find solutions and remedies for the people who are approaching hospital with full hope the hospital must play an important role, as go-between patients and other hospitals for further treatment by promoting preventive and curative health care for all the injured people. Sample was Such as chest disease & HIV/AIDS hospitalized patients.

## **TOOLS OF DATA COLLECTION**

Socio-demographic profile sheet: The schedule elicited information of the respondents on age, sex, family type, occupation, income, education, and reason for hospitalization. Self prepared interview-schedule for collecting the patient's personal data and 1.Taylor has developed anxiety scale in (1959).02.Stress scale developed by Latha (1988) and 03. Becks Depression Inventory scale (1988). Standardized tools to be used to find out psychological factors within the frame work of the study.



## DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

**Table 1**  
**SOCIO DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE RESPONDS**

| VARIABLES                        | PERCENT |
|----------------------------------|---------|
| <b>Gender</b>                    |         |
| Female                           | 37.2    |
| Male                             | 62.8    |
| <b>Age</b>                       |         |
| Between 20-35 Years              | 41.9    |
| Between 36-50 Years              | 18.6    |
| 51 Years and above               | 39.5    |
| <b>Locality</b>                  |         |
| Urban                            | 46.5    |
| Rural                            | 53.5    |
| <b>Marital Status</b>            |         |
| Married                          | 88.4    |
| Unmarried                        | 11.6    |
| <b>Educational Qualification</b> |         |
| Primary                          | 39.5    |
| Secondary                        | 23.3    |
| Graduation and above             | 7.0     |
| Illiterate                       | 30.2    |
| <b>Occupation</b>                |         |
| Employee                         | 27.9    |
| Business                         | 32.6    |
| Agriculture                      | 18.6    |
| Daily wage seeker                | 20.9    |
| <b>Monthly family income</b>     |         |
| Less than Rs5000                 | 37.2    |
| Rs 5001 and Rs 10000             | 32.6    |
| Rs10001 and Rs 15000             | 30.2    |
| <b>No of day hospitalized</b>    |         |
| Between 5-10 Days                | 34.9    |
| Between 11-15 Days               | 48.8    |
| 16 Days and above                | 16.3    |



Table 1 shows that 63 percent of the women are hospitalized HIV/AIDS patients compared to men patients. With regard to age 42 percent of the patients are between 20-35 years. 54 percent rural dwellers are hospitalized HIV/AIDS patients compared to urban dwellers. It is seen that 84 percent of the patient are married. With regard to educational qualification 40 percent had studied only up to school level. With regard to occupation 33 percent of the patients were business and daily wage. With regard to income percent of the patients earn below Rs.5000 per month and income plays important role in human life. 49 percent are the hospitalized HIV/AIDS patients were admitted and stayed for 11-15 days.

**TABLE 2**  
**MEAN SCORE COMPARISON BETWEEN SEX OF THE**  
**HOSPITALIZED PATIENTS WITH ANXIETY, STRESS AND**  
**DEPRESSION.**

| VARIBLES          | Sex   | N  | Mean  | S.D.   | t-value |
|-------------------|-------|----|-------|--------|---------|
| <b>Anxiety</b>    | Women | 16 | 15.62 | 2.604  | 0.347@  |
|                   | Men   | 27 | 15.30 | 3.208  |         |
| <b>Stress</b>     | Women | 16 | 51.06 | 13.168 | 0.612@  |
|                   | Men   | 27 | 54.33 | 18.788 |         |
| <b>Depression</b> | Women | 16 | 29.62 | 6.850  | 2.471@  |
|                   | Men   | 27 | 35.48 | 7.871  |         |

**Statistical Interpretation:** \*\* = Significant at 0.01 level,  
 \* = Significant at 0.05 level, @ = Not Significant at 0.05 level

Table 2 Show that there is no significant difference between the sex of the hospitalized patients with regard to anxiety, stress and depression. Mean score shows high for men compared to women in stress and depression. Mean score shows high for women compared to men in anxiety.



**TABLE 3**  
**MEAN SCORE COMPARISON BETWEEN LOCALITY OF THE PATIENTS, ANXIETY, STRESSES AND DEPRESSION.**

| VARIABLES  | Locality | N  | Mean  | S.D.   | t-value |
|------------|----------|----|-------|--------|---------|
| Anxiety    | Urban    | 20 | 16.10 | 2.918  | 1.420@  |
|            | Rural    | 23 | 14.83 | 2.949  |         |
| Stress     | Urban    | 20 | 51.50 | 12.701 | 0.583@  |
|            | Rural    | 23 | 54.52 | 19.913 |         |
| Depression | Urban    | 20 | 31.95 | 5.186  | 1.040@  |
|            | Rural    | 23 | 34.48 | 9.723  |         |

**Statistical Interpretation:** \*\*=Significant at 0.01 level,  
 \*=Significant at 0.05 level, @ = Not Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 3 Show that there is no significant difference between the locality of the hospitalized patients with regard to anxiety, stress and depression. Mean score shows high for rural patients compared to urban in anxiety, stress and depression. Urban slum dwellers are experience more stress and depression.

**TABLE 4**  
**MEAN SCORE COMPARISON BETWEEN MARITAL STATUS OF THE PATIENTS, ANXIETY, STRESSES AND DEPRESSION.**

| VARIABLES  | Marital Status | N  | Mean  | S.D.   | t-value |
|------------|----------------|----|-------|--------|---------|
| Anxiety.   | Married        | 38 | 15.76 | 2.870  | 2.190 @ |
|            | Unmarried      | 5  | 12.80 | 2.588  |         |
| Stress     | Married        | 38 | 54.05 | 17.309 | 1.006@  |
|            | Unmarried      | 5  | 46.00 | 11.336 |         |
| Depression | Married        | 38 | 33.50 | 7.424  | 0.445@  |
|            | Unmarried      | 5  | 31.80 | 12.317 |         |

**Statistical Interpretation:** \*\*=Significant at 0.01 level,  
 \*=Significant at 0.05 level, @ = Not Significant at 0.05 level.



Table 04 show that is no significant difference between the marital status of the hospitalized patients with regard to anxiety, stress and depression. Mean score shows high for married hospitalized patients compared to unmarried hospitalized patients in anxiety, stress and depression.

**TABLE 5**  
**ONEWAYANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BASED ON NUMBER OF**  
**DAYS STAYED IN HOSPITAL, ANXIETY, STRESS, AND**  
**DEPRESSION.**

| VARIABLES  | No. of days stayed in the Hospital |                    | N  | Mean  | S.D.   | F-value |
|------------|------------------------------------|--------------------|----|-------|--------|---------|
| Anxiety    | 1                                  | Between 5-10 Days  | 15 | 15.13 | 3.114  | 2.025@  |
|            | 2                                  | Between 11-15 Days | 21 | 16.19 | 2.892  |         |
|            | 3                                  | 16 Days and above  | 7  | 13.71 | 2.360  |         |
|            | Total                              |                    | 43 | 15.42 | 2.970  |         |
| Stress     | 1                                  | Between 5-10 Days  | 15 | 48.80 | 11.540 | 2.706@  |
|            | 2                                  | Between 11-15 Days | 21 | 58.86 | 19.673 |         |
|            | 3                                  | 16 Days and above  | 7  | 45.14 | 12.006 |         |
|            | Total                              |                    | 43 | 53.12 | 16.823 |         |
| Depression | 1                                  | Between 5-10 Days  | 15 | 31.33 | 8.558  | 2.338@  |
|            | 2                                  | Between 11-15 Days | 21 | 35.86 | 5.686  |         |
|            | 3                                  | 16 Days and above  | 7  | 29.86 | 10.869 |         |

**Statistical Interpretation:** \*\* = Significant at 0.01 level, \* = Significant at 0.05 level,

@ = Not Significant at 0.05 level

The table 5 reveals that there is no statistically significant difference among the respondents based on their duration for the hospitalization and their level of anxiety, stress and depression. Mean score shows high among the 11-15days hospitalized HIV/AIDS patients.



**TABLE 6**

**INTRATER CORRELATIONS MATRIX MAJOR DIMENSIONS**

| VARIBLES   | Anxiety | Stress | Depression |
|------------|---------|--------|------------|
| Anxiety    | 1       | 0.366* | 0.135      |
| Stress     |         | 1      | 0.000      |
| Depression |         |        | 1          |

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The table 6 describes and signifies that there is a significant positive relationship among all the major factors like anxiety, stress and depression. The levels of anxiety will fluctuate according to an amount of stress and depression.

**CONCLUSION AND SUGGESIONS**

Support provided by the family is at the same time an important to a patient's sense of physical, psychological, economic and spiritual well-being. Being admitted to hospital can be very traumatic, especially if it is the patient's first experience of hospitalization. Patients of family members who learns what is considered required for patients concern promote the patients self care and prevent future hospitalization

At Present hospitals are overcrowded and very congested, hospitalized patients are more influencing psychological factors. Every patient is unique and family would need varied approach towards problem solving and psychosocial well being. The impact of illness is not only restricted to the patient but also extends at the family level. Providing essential psychosocial support toward patients and family is much more important to prevent at the personal and family level.

Appointment of Medical social workers in the government hospitals in medical settings is essential to promote psychological wellbeing in good health among the hospitalized patients they can also



assist Healthcare professionals in preventive, curative, rehabilitative and social reconstruction aspects and support during the hospitalization by providing information on managing psychological problems at family. The collaborative efforts of different health care professionals are required to provide the full range of services and psychosocial support that are often needed by the patients in the hospital setting.

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## **A STUDY TO ASSESS THE JOB SATISFACTION OF NURSING STAFF IN MGMC&RI, PUDUCHERRY**

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### **Abstract**

Job satisfaction is defined as the worker's appraisal of the degree to which the work environment fulfils the individual's need. In any organization the concept of job satisfaction is given more importance. This is due to the fact that if job satisfaction is good then there will not be much dislocation of work and also the attrition (or) leaving of the personnel from the organization will be less. This concept is equally applicable to the nursing staff working in Health care institutions. Hence this study is carried out to assess the job satisfaction and a number of factors which contribute to the level of job satisfaction. The nurses were selected through simple random sampling technique. The data was collected by administering the questionnaire to the sample. The result of the study showed that Age, Marital status, Number of hours and emoluments received by the staff nurse has influence over the job satisfaction. On the basis of this study it is suggested that suitable strategies or steps may be taken to increase the job satisfaction by carrying out the influencing variables.

**Key Words:** Job satisfaction, Staff nurse, Health care sector



## Introduction

The shortage of nurses nationwide and locally has been well documented and extended to the long term care industry (Fletcher, 2001; Mark, 2002; Mitchell, 2003). As a growing segment of the population ages and strains the capacity of these institutions, most are having difficulties in finding and retaining qualified nursing staff (Gohen & Van Nostrand, 1995; Kassner & Bertel, 1998).

Employees' job satisfaction and their commitments are always important issues for health care administrators. After all, high levels of absenteeism and staff turnover can affect the administrators. Satisfied employees tend to be more productive, creative, and committed to their employers. Certain hospitals possess organizational characteristics that allow nurses to use their expertise, knowledge and skills to provide quality patient care. These organizations have been able to manage national nursing shortages because of their favourable reputation for attracting and retaining nurses.

Identifying factors related to nurse satisfaction, and a number of different factors have been identified, mostly in the hospital setting. These include:

- Overall environment of the hospital
- Job autonomy, that is, the ability to make independent decisions
- Relationship with immediate supervisor and/or relationship with coworkers
- Ability to provide quality care to patients
- Relationships with physicians.

In any organization the concept of job satisfaction is given more importance. This is due to the fact that if job satisfaction is good then



there will not be much dislocation of work and also the attrition (or) leaving of the personnel from the organization will be less. This concept is equally applicable to the nursing staff working in Health care institutions. Hence this study is carried out to assess the level of job satisfaction and a number of factors which contribute to the level of job satisfaction.

## **Statement of the problem**

A Study to Assess the Job Satisfaction of Nursing Staff in  
MGMC&RI Puducherry

## **Objectives**

To assess the level of job satisfaction among the staff nurse

## **Materials and Methods**

Research design and approach used in this study was Non experimental descriptive design. the population of this study were staff nurses working in MGMC&RI. Samples were selected using simple random sampling technique and sample size was 70. A survey study has been carried out using the appropriate questionnaire for data collection. The data was collected and tabulated by using the multiple regression equation. This equation can be used to assess the level of job satisfaction when the values of variables are known . To form the regression equation scores of Job Satisfaction was taken as the dependent variable and age, marital status, no.of hours of work, emoluments, month of services as independent variables. This model also help in the processes of identifying the important factors which contribute to job satisfaction. Using this information suitable



strategies, to improve the level of job satisfaction of nursing staff can be attempted.

## Result and Discussion

From the analysis of the data collected in this study the following tables were obtained

| Variable            | Beta in | t      | Significance |
|---------------------|---------|--------|--------------|
| Age                 | 2.11    | 1.647  | 0.043        |
| Marital Status      | -2.014  | -0.794 | 0.047        |
| No.of hours of work | 0.068   | .573   | 0.568        |
| Emoluments          | 2.071   | 2.034  | 0.046        |
| Month of services   | 0.125   | 0.761  | 0.449        |

|            | R square       | Adjusted R square | Std.Error of the estimate |       |         |
|------------|----------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-------|---------|
|            | 0.640          | 0.4096            | 0.384                     |       |         |
|            | Sum of squares | Mean square       | df                        | F     | P value |
| Regression | 267.174        | 267.174           | 1                         | 9.149 | 0.021   |
| Residual   | 4387.411       | 64.521            | 68                        |       |         |
| Total      | 4654.586       |                   |                           |       |         |

The value of  $R^2$  which is called the coefficient of determination is 0.4096. With a corresponding F value is 9.149. Hence the F statistics value is significant because the p value is 0.021. Therefore, the model is a good fit for the data.

It is further observed that the variable namely, age, marital status, no.of hours of work, emoluments, month of services etc.,



- ✿ Age has a significant regression coefficient because  $t=1.647$  and the corresponding  $p$  value is 0.043. Hence age has significant influence over the job satisfaction.
- ✿ The marital status has a negative regression coefficient -2.014 and  $t$  statistic value is 0.794 and the corresponding  $p$  value is 0.047. This implies that, the marital status has negative influence over the job satisfaction. That is the married staff have less job satisfaction than those who are not married.
- ✿ The number of hours of work schedule per day and duration of past experience have ' $t$ ' value as 0.573 and 0.761 which is not significant. Hence these factors do not influence over job satisfaction.
- ✿ The emoluments received by the staff nurse has a regression coefficient which is significant because the  $t$  value is 2.034 and the  $p$  value is 0.046. Hence, the salary received by the staff nurse has influence over the job satisfaction.

## Suggestion

On the basis of this study it is suggested that suitable strategies or steps may be taken to increase the job satisfaction by considering into influencing variables.

## Recommendations:

1. A similar study can be replicated on a large sample to generalize the findings.



2. A similar study can be conducted by private and government sectors.

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## EFFECTIVENESS AND JOB SATISFACTION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN VISAKHAPATNAM DISTRICT- A STUDY

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### **Abstract:**

This study was aimed to teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction among the secondary school teachers. The objectives were to study and compare teacher effectiveness of Secondary School Teachers in Visakhapatnam district and to ascertain relationship between Teacher effectiveness of Secondary School teachers and the job satisfaction. The Descriptive serve method type of research was employed for this study. The sampling random technique was used to select 120 teachers from Secondary schools in Visakhapatnam district,. The researcher made tool was used to collect data for this study. Findings of this research indicate Teacher effectiveness of teachers having high job satisfaction is thus more as compared to teachers having low job satisfaction. The study also revealed that Teacher effectiveness also varied in male teachers and female teachers despite the fact that both were equally placed in terms of salary and workload.

**Keywords :**Teacher Effectiveness, Secondary School Teachers, and Job satisfaction.

### **INTRODUCTION**

The absence of a high dropout rate and job turnover among Indian teachers does not necessarily mean that they do not experience



lack of job satisfaction. This may be due to entirely different reasons like non –availability of alternative job opportunities and fear of taking risks. It is hard to believe that they do not experience not frustrated and disillusioned with their professional life under the situations. Experiencing constant dissatisfaction with the job has many repercussions for the individual's adjustment to work as well as in personal and social life and may have magnetic impact on individual's total personality and resulting sub standard performance. Job satisfaction is a part of life satisfaction (Jennets and Others, 1978). Since Job is an important part of job satisfaction influence once personal life satisfaction in terms of life satisfaction prepares individual for better thinking and divergent problem solving abilities. The Indian Education Commission (1964-66) has also emphasized that 'nothing is more important than providing teachers best professional preparations and creating satisfactory condition of work in which there can fully be effective.' Problem solving abilities can be improved by teaching problem solving strategies (Stern, 1967).

Generally Job satisfaction is related with number of employee's variables such as turnover, absence, age, occupation and size of organization in which he works. The degree of satisfaction of job largely depends on satisfaction employee variables. According to Garton (1976), employees satisfaction and morale are attitudinal variables the reflect positive or negative feelings about particular persons or situations, satisfaction when applied to work context of teaching seems to refer to the extent to which a teacher can meet individual, personal and professional needs as employees (Strauss, 1974), Maslow (1970), Herzberg (1959), Hay and Miskel (1978) and others proposed the theories on job satisfaction. According to Maslow 'a person's satisfaction is determined by the fulfillment of his five levels of need.'



Herberg's motivation hygiene theory assumes that two variables determine a person's satisfaction.

Internal factors like achievement, recognition etc., and external factors such as salary and interpersonal relation.

## **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

1. To study the level of job satisfaction among the selected sample of secondary school teachers.
2. To find out differences in possession of job satisfaction among the selected sample.
3. To identify the aspects influences the job satisfaction among the secondary school teachers?
4. To ascertain the significance of each aspect among all the aspects influences job satisfaction?
5. To pursue the research study aspects of job satisfaction taking the variables like Sex , Age, Qualification, subject of Teaching, Experience , Marital status , category of Institution, Locality and Type of management into consideration.

## **HYPOTHESIS OF RESEARCH PROBLEM**

1. There is no significant relationship between dimensions of the job satisfaction among the secondary school Teachers.
2. There is no significant difference between various demographic variables of job satisfaction among the secondary school Teachers.
3. There is no significant difference between low and high job satisfaction among the secondary school Teachers.



## **METHOD OF INVESTIGATION**

The purpose of the study is to know the teacher effectiveness and job satisfaction

Among the secondary school teachers in visakhapatnam district, Type of research undertaken is exploratory in nature and Descriptive Survey research.

## **SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS**

This study is confined to secondary school Teachers in visakhapatnam district. To measure the job satisfaction among the secondary school teachers, the investigator has opted to administer the questionnaires duly standardized by the earlier researchers. Even there are so many dimensions of job satisfaction; I restricted my study to Professional, Teaching Learning, Innovations, and Inter-personal relations aspects only

## **SAMPLE**

The present study is to probe into the job satisfaction among the selected sample of secondary school teachers in visakhapatnam district, and this sample study was confined to 12 secondary schools and from them 120 secondary school teachers

The research study is conducted on the sample of secondary school teachers taking the Gender into consideration as mentioned in Table1.



**Table: 1**  
**Sample Distribution.**

| S.NO | Category        | No of teachers selected | Percentage |
|------|-----------------|-------------------------|------------|
| 1    | Male Teachers   | 64                      | 53.33%     |
| 2    | Female Teachers | 56                      | 46.67%     |
|      | Total           | 120                     | 100%       |

The tool was administered among the selected sample of teachers working in secondary schools in Visakhapatnam district taking the subject of teaching into consideration as mentioned in

**Table: 2**  
**Subject wise Distribution of sample**

| S.NO | Category           | No. of Teachers selected | Percentage |
|------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|
| 1    | Mathematics        | 24                       | 20%        |
| 2    | Biological science | 17                       | 14.17%     |
| 3    | Physical science   | 15                       | 12.50%     |
| 4    | Social science     | 19                       | 15.83%     |
| 5    | English            | 19                       | 15.83%     |
| 6    | Telugu             | 14                       | 11.67%     |
| 7    | Hindi              | 10                       | 8.33%      |
| 8    | Sanskrit           | 2                        | 1.67%      |
|      | Total              | 120                      | 100%       |

**Table: 3**  
**Management wise Sample Distribution**

| S.NO | Category                         | No of teachers selected | Percentage |
|------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|
| 1    | Residential School Teachers      | 20                      | 16.67%     |
| 2    | Zillah parish ad School Teachers | 20                      | 16.67%     |
| 3    | Municipal School Teachers        | 20                      | 16.67%     |
| 4    | Missionary School Teachers       | 20                      | 16.67%     |
| 5    | Private School Teachers          | 20                      | 16.66%     |
| 6    | Aided School Teachers            | 20                      | 16.66%     |
|      | Total                            | 120                     | 100.00%    |



## INSTRUMENTATION

### Teacher Job satisfaction tool:

Job satisfaction tool constructed and standardized by Dr.U Nageswara Rao, I adopted this tool for my study. In this tool 25 items were included with four dimensions as mentioned in below

1. Professional aspect
2. Teaching Learning aspect
3. Innovations aspect
4. Inter-Personal relations aspect

### SCHEME OF ANALYSIS

were framed with The hypotheses an intention to pressure the professional competency keep the variables like sex, qualification, experience, type of management and locality were taken into consideration. The collected data will be analyzed, the results were interpreted and the statistical figure like Mean, Standard deviation, Critical ration, fist will be make use of to study the varied variable and relation among the different aspects of the present research problem. The technique of the significant of difference between means was adapted to find standard deviation and critical ratio.

**Table: 4**  
**Showing the difference of Mean between the teachers taking the Gender into consideration in their Teacher Job satisfaction.**

| Variable category | Mean  | S.D   | N  | DF  | 't'   | Level of significance        |
|-------------------|-------|-------|----|-----|-------|------------------------------|
| Male Teachers     | 95.04 | 13.64 | 64 |     |       | Not significant at any level |
| Female Teachers   | 95.09 | 22.64 | 56 | 118 | 0.014 |                              |



The above table examine that the difference of mean between the Teacher taking the Gender into consideration in their Teacher Job satisfaction .The Mean value 95.04 obtained by the Female Teachers is higher than the value 95.04 obtained by the Male Teachers. The obtained value of 't' 0.014 is not significant at any level. Hence, the hypothesis is accepted

**Table: 5**

**Showing the significance of mean between the Teachers taking the Locality into consideration in their Teacher Job satisfaction.**

| Variable category   | Mean  | S.D   | N   | D.F | t'    | Level of Significance        |
|---------------------|-------|-------|-----|-----|-------|------------------------------|
| Rural area teachers | 95.37 | 6.54  | 20  | 118 | 0.046 | Not significant at any level |
| Urban area teachers | 95.09 | 59.08 | 100 |     |       |                              |

The above table examine that the difference of Mean between the Teachers of Rural and Urban schools do not differ significantly. The Mean value obtained by rural area school Teachers possessed higher than the urban area school Teachers. The obtained value of 't' 0.046 is Less than 1.96 and 2.58, which is not significant at any levels respectively. Hence, the hypothesis is accepted.

## MAJOR FINDINGS

- Majority of the teachers were found highly effective.
- Nearly half of the teachers in the sample had high job satisfaction.
- Majority of the teachers had less emotional stability, masculinity, friendliness, ego-strength, curiosity, dominance and self concept personality.
- Teacher effectiveness of female school teacher is thus significantly more as compared to male teachers.



- Teacher effectiveness of urban school teacher is thus significantly more as compared to rural school teachers.
- Teacher effectiveness of teachers having high job satisfaction is thus more as compared to teachers having low job satisfaction.
- Job satisfaction and personality dimensions were found positively correlated.

## CONCLUSION

Job satisfaction of teacher is the most important factor for the growth and development of educational system. It is highly depends on personal factors like salary, fringe benefit, promotion etc but the influence of environmental factors cannot be ruled out. When teachers' needs are satisfied, it promotes their psychological well-being and enables optimal functioning and performance .From this study it is observed that the secondary school teachers are averagely satisfied with their teaching Job. They are less satisfied with advancement, compensation and lack of administrative support. It becomes more important for head of the institute to be aware of the importance of their supervisory styles in relation to teachers' job satisfaction and should adopt the democratic behavior such as criticism should be handled constructively, praise should be given genuinely, and should listen and accept teachers' suggestions. An atmosphere of trust, confidence and cooperation should be fostered, where teachers can interact with each other than disengage behavior. A large amount in annual budget should be reserved especially to improve the working conditions in the schools. So that lack of facilities and necessities like boundary wall, sanitation system, fresh water, building, furniture, electricity, gas, fans, heaters, science laboratories, libraries, play grounds etc should be given more attention. The government should make all possible efforts to satisfy the teachers as recommended by various Commissions on Education and the provisions of National



Education Policies promulgated from time to time in the past. The government should also review the current salary scheme and mode of promotion for a teacher which commensurate with their responsibilities and teaching loads. If the element of dissatisfaction is mitigated, then the talented persons are likely to be attracted by this profession in comparatively large numbers.

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## **LOK ADALAT SYSTEM IN INDIA**

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### **INTRODUCTION**

Lok Adalat, as the name suggest means People's Court. 'Lok' stands for People and the word 'Adalat' means Court. Lok Adalat is a special kind of people's court in which disputes solved by direct talks between the litigants. The members of legal profession, college students, social organisations, charitable and philanthropic institutions and other similar organisations may be associated with Lok Adalat. Salient features of this dispute resolutions are participation, accommodation , fairness, expectations, voluntariness, neighbourliness, transparency and lack of animosity. Lok Adalat after studying the case, try to solve the simple differences which otherwise are likely to leave for reaching consequences through mutual understanding and compromise.

### **EVOLUTION**

Summarily without too much emphasis on legal technicalities. Alternate Dispute Resolution (ADR), has been an integral part of our historical past. The concept of Lok Adalat is an innovative Indian contribution to the world jurisprudence. Lok Adalat means peoples' court. India as a long tradition and history of such methods practiced in the society at grass root level. These are called Panchayat and legally it's called arbitration. In Lok Adalat justice is dispensed. Ancient concept of settlement of dispute through mediation, negotiation or



through arbitral process known as 'People's court verdict' or decision of 'Nyaya-Panch' is conceptualised institutionalised in the philosophy of Lok Adalat. The concept of Lok Adalat was pushed back into oblivion in last few centuries before independence and particularly during British regime.

Now this concept has been rejuvenated and became more popular amongst litigants. Camps of Lok Adalat were initially started in Gujarat in March 1982, and now it has been extended throughout the country. The evolution of this movement was a part of the strategy to relieve heavy burden on the Courts with pending cases and to give relief to the litigants who were in the queue to get justice. And the Legal Services Authorities Act 1987 gave a statutory status to Lok Adalats pursuant to the Constitutional mandate in Art. 39-A of the Constitution of India, contains various provisions for settlements of dispute through Lok Adalat.

## **LOK ADALAT**

The expression 'Lok Adalat' refers to a summary procedure for disposal of cases pending in various courts through the process of arbitration and settlement between the parties at the instance of the institution called Lok Adalat. Thus the expression Lok Adalat can be used in the following two senses:

1. The process by which the cases pending in various courts are settled with the consent of the parties in a summary way.
2. The institution which take initiative for arriving at a settlement of the case.

By virtue of Sec.19 of the Legal Services Authorities Act, 1987, every state authority, district authority, Supreme Court Legal Services Committee or High Court Legal Services Committee or the Thaluk



Legal Service Committee may organise Lok Adalats for settlement of cases pending in courts.

The Lok Adalat is presided over by a sitting or retired judicial officer as a chairman, with two other members, usually a lawyer and a social worker. There is no Court Fee. If the case is already filed in the regular court the fee paid will be refunded if the dispute is settled at the Lok Adalat. The procedural laws, and the Evidence Act are not strictly followed while assessing the merits of the claim by the Lok Adalat.

Main condition of the Lok Adalat is that both parties in dispute should agree for settlement. The decision of Lok Adalat is binding on the parties to the disputes and its order is capable of execution through legal process. No appeal lies against the order of the Lok Adalat.

### **WHY LOK ADALAT?**

The Constitution of India is the fundamental law of the land. Part IV of the Constitution deals with Directive Principles of State Policy. By virtue of Art.39-A the State is under a positive duty to secure that the operation of the legal system promotes justice on the basis of equal opportunity. The State shall also provide free legal aid to ensure that opportunities for securing justice are not denied to any citizen by reason of economic or other disabilities.

By virtue of Article: 21, “no person shall be deprived of his life or personal liberty except according to procedure established by law”.

In *HUSSAINARA KHATOON v. HOME SECRETARY, STATE OF BIHAR*, (AIR 1979 SC 1360), the Supreme Court held that “right to speedy trial” is a fundamental right guaranteed under Art: 21 of the



Constitution. Justice delayed is justice denied. Speedy trial was held to be the essence of criminal justice.

In *SUK DAS v. UNION TERRITORY OF ARUNACHAL PRADESH* (1986 5 SCC 401), the Supreme Court held that failure to provide free legal aid to an accused at the cost of the State unless refused by the accused would vitiate the trial. He need not apply for the same. Free legal aid is at the State cost is a fundamental right of an accused person under Art.21 of the Constitution.

A combined reading of Art.21 as interpreted by the Supreme Court of India and Art.39-A of the Constitution establish beyond doubt that speedy trial, free legal aid and equal opportunities for securing justice are fundamental rights of citizen of India and a Constitutional mandate which state has to follow in governance of this country. In order to ensure these rights more effectively, the Parliament enacted the Legal Services Authorities Act, 1987 to organise Lok Adalat to secure that the operation of the legal system promotes justice on a basis of equal opportunity.

### **COMPOSITION**

The secretary of the high court legal services committee organising the Lok Adalat shall constitute benches of the Lok Adalat. Each bench shall comprise of two or three of the following:-

1. A sitting or retired judge of the high court
2. A serving or retired judicial officer
3. A member of the legal profession
4. A social worker.

The secretary of the district authority organising the Lok Adalat shall constitute benches of the Lok Adalat. Each bench shall comprise of two or three of the following:-



1. A sitting or retired judicial officer
2. A member of the legal profession
3. A social worker

The chairman of the taluk legal services committee organising the Lok Adalat shall constitute benches of the Lok Adalat. Each bench shall comprise of two or three of the following:-

1. A sitting or retired judicial officer
2. A member of the legal profession
3. A social worker

### **Jurisdiction**

Both civil and criminal cases which are pending before the courts can be brought before the Lok Adalat for settlement and award. However the Lok Adalat shall have no jurisdiction in respect of any case or matter relating to an offence not compoundable under any law.

A case pending in a court may be referred to Lok Adalat on an agreement between parties or on an application made by one of the parties to the court for referring the case to Lok Adalat for settlement. So also the court can suo moto refer a pending case to Lok Adalat.

When cases are referred to a Lok Adalat, it shall make sincere efforts to bring about a conciliatory settlement in every case put before it without bringing about any kind of coercion, threat or undue influence, allurement or misrepresentation. Every Lok Adalat shall, while determining any reference before it, act with at most expedition to arrive at a compromise of settlement between the parties and shall be guided by the principles of justice, equity, fair play and other legal principles.



## Procedure at Lok Adalat

The procedure followed at a Lok Adalat is very simple and shorn of almost all legal formalism and rituals. The Lok Adalat is presided over by a sitting or retired judicial officer as the chairman, with two other members, usually a lawyer and a social worker. It is revealed by experience that in Lok Adalat it is easier to settle money claims since in most such cases the quantum alone may be in dispute. Thus the motor accident compensation claim cases are brought before the Lok Adalat and a number of cases were disposed of in each Lok Adalat. One important condition is that both parties in dispute should agree for settlement through Lok Adalat and abide by its decision. A Lok Adalat has the jurisdiction to settle, by way of effecting compromise between the parties, any matter which may be pending before any court, as well as matters at pre-litigative stage i.e. disputes which have not yet been formally instituted in any court of law. Such matters may be civil or criminal in nature, but any matter relating to an offence not compoundable under any law cannot be decided by the Lok Adalat even if the parties involved therein agree to settle the same. Lok Adalat can take cognizance of matters involving not only those persons who are entitled to avail free legal services but of all other persons also, be they women, men, or children and even institutions. Anyone, or more of the parties to a dispute can move an application to the court where their matter may be pending, or even at pre-litigative stage, for such matter being taken up in the Lok Adalat bench constituted for the purpose shall attempt to resolve the dispute by helping the parties to arrive at an amicable solution and once it is successful in doing so, the award passed by it shall be final which has as much force as a decree of a civil court obtained after due contest.

Finality of Lok Adalat award: One issue which raises head often is the finality of the award of the Lok Adalat. During the Lok Adalat, the

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parties agree to abide by the decision of the judge at the Lok Adalat. However, it is often seen that later, the same order is challenged on several grounds. In one of the recent decisions, the supreme court of India has once again laid to rest all such doubts. In unequivocal terms, the court has held that award of the Lok Adalat is as good as the decree of a court. The award of the Lok Adalat is fictionally deemed to be decrees of court and therefore the courts have all the powers in relation thereto as it has in relation to a decree passed by itself. This includes the powers to extend time in appropriate cases. The award passed by the Lok Adalat is the decision of the court itself though arrived at by the simpler method of conciliation instead of the process of arguments in court.

**Consent of parties:** The most important factor to be considered while deciding the cases at the Lok Adalat is the consent of both the parties. It can not be forced on any party that the matter has to be decided by the Lok Adalat. However, once the parties agree that the matter has to be decided by the Lok Adalat, then any party cannot walk away from the decision of the Lok Adalat. In several instances, the supreme court has held that if there was no consent the award of the Lok Adalat is not executable and also if the parties fail to agree to get the dispute resolved through Lok Adalat, the regular litigation process remains open for all contesting parties. The Supreme Court has also held that compromise implies some element of accommodation on each side; it is not apt to describe it as total surrender. A compromise is always bilateral and means mutual adjustment. Settlement is termination of legal proceedings by mutual consent. If no compromise or settlement is or could be arrived at, no order can be passed by the Lok Adalat. **Powers of Lok Adalat** Lok Adalat has the same powers as those vested in a civil court under the code of civil procedure, 1908 while trying a suit in respect of the following matters, namely-



- a) The summoning and enforcing the attendance of any witness and examining him on oath,
- b) The discovery and production of any document,
- c) The reception of evidence on affidavits,
- d) The requisitioning of any public record or document or copy of such record or document from any court or office and
- e) Such other matters as may be prescribed.

Every Lok Adalat shall have the requisite powers to specify its own procedures for the determination of any dispute coming before it.

## **CURRENT STATUS**

In recent time the concept of Lok Adalat has gained popularity. Prison Lok Adalat, Provident Fund Lok Adalat, Labour Law Adalat, etc., are organised to settle disputes, and naturally many may be curious to know that what is Lok Adalat. Lok Adalat means Peoples' court, in contrast to the regular law courts established by the government. Despite the fact that the judicial system in India is well organised with high level of integrity, the law courts are confronted with four main problems:

1. The number of courts and judges in all grades are alarmingly inadequate;
2. Increase in flow of cases in recent years due to multifarious Acts enacted by the Central and State government;
3. The high cost involved in prosecuting or defending a case in a court of law, due to heavy court fee, lawyer's fee and incidental charges and
4. Delay in disposal of cases resulting in huge pendency in all courts.

Some statistics may give us a feeling of tremendous satisfaction and encouragement. Up to the middle of the year 2004, more than 200,000 Lok Adalats have been held and therein more than 16 million cases have been settled, half of which were motor accident claim cases. More



than One Billion US dollars were distributed by way of compensation to those who had suffered accidents. 6.7 million Persons have benefited through legal aid and advice.

About 90% of the cases filed in the developed countries are settled mutually by conciliation, mediation etc. and as such, only 10% of the cases are decided by the Courts there. In our country, which is developing, has unlike the developed countries, number of Judges disproportionate to the cases filed and, hence, to alleviate the accumulation of cases, the Lok Adalat is the need of the day.

### **ADVANTAGES OF LOK ADALAT**

The benefits that litigants derive through Lok Adalat are many,  
1. There is no court fee and even if the case is already filed in the regular court, the fee paid will be refunded if the dispute is settled at the Lok Adalat.

2. There is no strict application of the procedural laws and the Evidence Act while assessing the merits of the claim by the Lok Adalat. The parties to the disputes though represented by their Advocate can interact with the Lok Adalat judge directly and explain their stands in the dispute and the reasons therefore, which is not possible in a regular court of law.

3. Disputes can be brought before the Lok Adalat directly instead of going to a regular court first and then to the Lok Adalat.

4. The decision of Lok Adalat is binding on the parties to the dispute and its order is capable of execution through legal process. No appeal lies against the order of the Lok Adalat whereas in regular courts of law there is always a scope to appeal to the higher forum on the decision of



the trial court, which cause delay in the settlement of dispute finally. The reason being that in a regular court, decision is that of the court but in Lok Adalat it is mutual settlement and hence no case for appeal will arise. In every respect the scheme of Lok Adalat is a boon to the litigant public, where they can get their disputes settled fast and free of cost.

5. Last but not the least, faster and inexpensive remedy with legal status.

The scheme also helped the overburdened court to alleviate the burden of arrears of cases and as the award becomes final and binding upon both the parties, no appeal is filed in the Appellate Court and, as such, the burden of the Appellate Court in hierarchy is also reduced. The scheme is not only helpful to the parties but also to the overburdened courts to achieve the constitutional goal of speedy disposal of the cases.

## **PERMENENT LOK ADALAT**

The Legal Service Authorities Act, 1987 provides for the conduct of Lok Adalats. Lok Adalats can deal with pending cases which are referred to it for determination. Lok Adalats are organised at regular intervals. The Legal Services Authorities Act has been amended in 2002 with the object of establishing Permanent Lok Adalats.

Sec. 22 B of the Act provides for the establishment of the Permanent Lok Adalats. The Central Authority or every State Authority shall, by notification, establish Permanent Lok Adalats.

Every Lok Adalat established for an area shall consist of the following persons:

1. A person who is, or has been a District Judge or Additional District



Judge or has been held judicial office higher in rank than that of a District Judge. He shall be the Chairman of the Permanent Lok Adalat.

2. Two persons having adequate experience in public utility service. They are to be nominated by the Central or State government on the recommendation of the Central or the State authority.

Any party to a dispute may, before the dispute is brought before any court, make an application to the Permanent Lok Adalat for the settlement of the dispute. The Permanent Lok Adalat shall not have jurisdiction in respect of any matter relating to an offence not compoundable under any law. It shall not have jurisdiction in the matter where the value of the property in dispute which exceeds rupees ten lacks.

After an application is made to the Permanent Lok Adalat a party to that application shall not invoke jurisdiction of any court in the same dispute.

When an application is made to the Permanent Lok Adalat, it shall direct each party to file written statement stating the facts and nature of dispute. After filing of written statement the Permanent Lok Adalat shall conduct conciliation proceedings. The Permanent Lok Adalat shall assist the parties to reach an amicable settlement of dispute. If a settlement is arrived at, in the conciliation proceedings, the Permanent Lok Adalat shall formulate a settlement agreement and obtain signature on the settlement agreement and pass an award in terms of that agreement. A copy of the award shall furnish to each of the parties to the dispute. If the parties failed to reach an agreement, the Permanent Lok Adalat shall decide the dispute. The award of the Permanent Lok Adalat shall be final and binding on all the parties thereon and on persons claiming under them. Every award shall be deemed to be a decree of a Civil Court. The Permanent Lok Adalat shall



transmit any award made by it to a civil court having local jurisdiction to execute the same.

## CONCLUSION

We must remember that the Lok Adalats are not substitutes for existing courts. Lok Adalat lends itself to easy settlement of money claims; there is scope for other disputes as well. Partition suits damages and matrimonial cases can be easily settled before Lok Adalat as the scope for compromise through an approach of give and take is high in these cases. In Lok Adalat justice is dispensed summarily without too much emphasis on legal technicalities. It has to be a very effective alternative to litigation. Lok Adalat is a boon to the litigant public, where they can get their dispute settled faster and at free of cost. Experience has shown that it's one of the efficient and important ADR and most suited to the Indian environment, culture and social interests. Objective of Lok Adalat is to settle the disputes which are pending before the courts, by negotiations, conciliation and by adopting persuasive common sense and human approach to the problems of the disputants. The large population of India and the illiterate masses have found the regular dispensation of justice through regular courts very cumbersome and ineffective. The special condition prevailing in the Indian society and due to economic structure, highly sensitized legal service is required which is efficacious for the poor and the ignorant masses. The Lok Adalat movement is no more an experiment in India. It's now a success and needs to be replicated in certain matters. It properly, thoughtfully, and wisely constituted, Lok Adalats can become an additional arm of existing judicial institution, and moreover, if the process of accumulation of arrears is reversed and there is less burdening, its qualitative performance can improve.



## **LEARNING DIFFICULTIES IN MATHEMATICS AT SECONDARY LEVEL AND THEIR SUGGESTIVE MEASURES**

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### **Abstract:**

Mathematics, the only subject, which is used in every sphere of our lives. However, it can't be learnt overnight. Though it is a fascinating subject, but a very large number of students find the subject creepy. Such problems may crop up as a result of lack of interest, lack of attention and due to improper guidance in their initial stages. This paper is an attempt to study the difficulty areas occurred while learning mathematics. It is also aspired to give some suggestive measures for the development of meaningful learning mathematics at the secondary level.

### **Introduction**

Mastery of mathematics is a key literacy component that influences children's success in education and in future society (Engle, Grantham-McGregor, Black, Walker, & Wachs, 2007). Despite such importance now-a-days it is unfortunate that many students have erroneous impressions about Mathematics and dislike Mathematical activities; many seem to fear, even hate Mathematics ( Lutfuzzaman, A.A.K.M.et.al )

Research indicates that there are a number of reasons these students experience difficulty in learning mathematics (Mercer, Jordan, & Miller, 1996; Mercer, Lane, Jordan, Allsopp, & Eisele, 1996; Mercer & Mercer, 1998; Miller & Mercer, 1997) e.g., lack of interest, an



inadequacy of effort or a lack of attention. Mathematics is more challenging for some students than others and a student with problems in that subject finds ways to continue to do poorly. Bad study habits, low confidence on days of mathematics tests and poor self-esteem inhibit academic potential and can snowball into a lifelong phobia for mathematics, which can spread to other areas of life. (Xin, 1999). One perceives only what he or she wants to pay attention to and that which the person is interested in. His or her needs, motives and social situation all affect the manner by which reality is filtered.

V. Sumangala (1995) opined that Achievement in mathematics is related not only to cognitive variables like intelligence, aptitude etc., but also to the affective variables like attitude towards mathematics and self-concept in mathematics.

Attitudes can be seen as more or less positive. A positive attitude towards mathematics reflects a positive emotional disposition in relation to the subject and, in a similar way, a negative attitude towards mathematics relates to a negative emotional disposition. These emotional dispositions have an impact on an individual's behavior, as one is likely to achieve better in a subject that one enjoys, has confidence in or finds useful. For this reason positive attitudes towards mathematics are desirable since they may influence one's willingness to learn and also the benefits one can derive from mathematics instruction.

Sam, L.C. (1999) stated that Negative attitude of mathematics means having an aversion towards learning mathematics and using it in their daily life and discouraging students from choosing mathematics as their major subjects. Gezahegn, Y. B. (2007) opined that Hostile feelings and negative attitudes toward Mathematics and science, therefore, have a great influence on general behavior and values. These

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feelings and attitude that sustain a dislike of Mathematics or hamper any interest in mathematics and are great barriers to the development of Mathematical literacy than any lack of particular concepts, skills, or thinking abilities' Atweh,B.(2001).

### **What constitutes a learning difficulty in mathematics?**

There is no single mathematics difficulty. In fact, mathematics difficulties are as varied and complex as those associated with reading.

A learning difficulty may be said to exist in any situation where a student fails to grasp a concept or idea as the result of one or more of the following factors:

- i. The nature of the ideas/knowledge system already possessed by the student, or the inadequacy of such knowledge in relation to the concept to be acquired.
- ii. The demand and complexity of a learning task in terms of information processing, compared with the student's information-handling capacity.
- iii. Communication problems arising from language use, e.g., in relation to technical terms or to general terms with context-specific specialized meanings, or the complexity of sentence structure and syntax used by the teacher (compared with the student's own language capacity).
- iv. A mismatch between instructional approaches used by the teacher and the student's preferred learning mode (learning style)."

Furthermore, there are some arithmetic difficulties which can exist independent of a reading difficulty and others which do not. One type of learning difficulty affecting mathematics can stem from an individual's difficulty processing language, another might be related to visual spatial confusion, while yet another could include trouble retaining mathematical facts and keeping procedures in the proper

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order. While extremely rare, there are some learners who cannot successfully compare and estimate the lengths, distances, weights and ratios of two objects. Finally, some people experience emotional blocks so overwhelming as to preclude their ability to think responsibly and clearly when attempting mathematical situations, and these students are disabled, as well.

### **How is mathematics learning related to mathematics learning difficulties?**

There are some children who have a language impairment, who do not easily process and understand the words and sentences they hear. Sometimes these children also have difficulty grasping the connection and the organizing hierarchy of “little” ideas and “big” ones. These children are also likely to view math as an ocean full of meaningless facts and procedures to be memorized.

Visual processing difficulties play a different sort of role in reading than they do in mathematics. In math there are fewer symbols to recognize, produce, and decode, and children can “read” math successfully even when they cannot yet read words. Children with visual/spatial perceptual difficulties may exhibit two kinds of problems. In the less severe instance, some will understand math quite clearly but be unable to express this using paper and pencil. More severe is the case where children cannot translate what they see into ideas which make sense to them.

Number lies at the heart of much mathematics, and if a student is not confident with number then that can have an effect on many areas of mathematics. Students aged 11–14 may exhibit many errors in reading and writing numbers. For example, responses to being asked



to write down the number *six thousand, two hundred and fifty-one* included 600251, 620051, 600020051 and 60251 (Hewitt and Brown, 1998). It is worth being aware that such difficulties are not just an issue for primary school teachers. All the difficulties that are generally faced by the students are listed below under some Components:

### **Output Difficulties**

A student with problems in output may

- o Be unable to recall basic mathematical facts, procedures, rules or formulae
- o Be very slow to retrieve facts, assumptions or pursue procedures
- o Have difficulties with handwriting that slow down written work or make it hard to read later
- o Have difficulty in remembering previously encountered procedures
- o Forget what he or she is doing in the middle of a maths problem

### **Organizational Difficulties**

A student with problems in organization may

- o Have difficulties organising multiple steps
- o Become entangled in multiple steps or elements of a problem
- o Lose appreciation of the final goal and over emphasize individual elements of a problem
- o Not be able to identify salient aspects of a mathematical situation, particularly in word problems or other problem solving situations where some information is not relevant
- o Be unable to appreciate the appropriateness or reasonableness of solutions generated

### **Language Difficulties**

A student with language problems in math may

- o Have difficulty with the vocabulary of mathematics
- o Be confused by language in word problems
- o Not know when irrelevant information is included or when



information is given out of sequence

- o Have trouble learning or recalling abstract terms
- o Have difficulty understanding directions
- o Have difficulty explaining and communicating about math, including asking and answering questions
- o Have difficulty reading texts to direct their own learning
- o Have difficulty remembering assigned values or definitions in specific problems

### **Attention Difficulties**

A student with attention problems in mathematics may

- o Be distracted during maths tasks
- o Lose his or her place while working on a maths problem
- o Appear mentally fatigued or overly tired when doing mathematics

### **Visual Spatial or Ordering Difficulties**

A student with problems in visual, spatial, or sequential aspects of mathematics may

- o Be confused when learning multi-step procedures
- o Have trouble ordering the steps used to solve a problem
- o Feel overloaded when faced with a worksheet full of maths exercises
- o Not be able to copy problems correctly
- o May have difficulties reading the hands on an analog clock
- o May have difficulties interpreting and manipulating geometric configurations
- o May have difficulties appreciating changes in objects as they are moved in space

### **Difficulties with multiple tasks**

A student with problems managing and/or merging different tasks in maths may

- o Find it difficult to switch between multiple demands in a complex maths problems



- o Find it difficult to tell when tasks can be grouped or merged and when they must be separated in a multi-step maths problem
- o Cannot manage all the demands of a complex problem, such as a word problem, even though he or she may know component facts and procedures

### **How do you help a child who is having difficulty?**

The fundamental principle in helping a child with a disability in mathematics is to work with the child to define **his or her strengths**. As these strengths are acknowledged, one uses them to reconfigure what is difficult.

When learners have lost (or never had) the connection between mathematics and meaning, it is helpful to encourage them to estimate their answers before they begin computing. When children work together in **small groups** to solve problems, they often ask more questions, get more answers, and do more quality thinking than when they work quietly, alone.

When children have difficulty organizing their written work on a page, they often do better with **graph paper**. A less expensive solution is to turn lined paper sideways so that the lines serve as vertical columns. This is especially helpful for long division. The task of learning the facts can be transformed into one requiring verbal reasoning. Instead of being asked to memorize  $7 + 8$ , one boy was asked, "How do you remember that  $7 + 8 = 15$ ?" His strategies, in this case, that  $7 + 7 = 14$ , so  $7 + 8 = 15$ , were practiced and reinforced and he became able to retain his facts. A general principle is that through drill and practice children will get faster at whatever they're already doing. This technique of focusing on strategies is one which fosters a healthy sense of self reliance and diminishes the need for meaningless memorization.



**Play games.** Historically, games have been used as a reward when the real work has been finished. Booker (2000) reminds us that games can be powerful teaching and learning tools to develop conceptual understandings. It is engagement with interesting and fun activities that can keep a young person practicing a skill well beyond what they might tolerate if asked to do (another) worksheet. Simple and versatile, games such as those presented in Booker (2000) can provide important learning opportunities; student with student or student with adult. Card games are especially useful as they are cheap, portable, and socially acceptable for all ages.

**Use technology.** NCTM (2006) states that *technology is essential in teaching and learning mathematics; it influences the mathematics that is taught and enhances students' learning*. Far from being just electronic downtime, the internet offers educators a huge range of research-based practices, interactive websites, resources, and lesson plans. Again, it is the engagement of otherwise reluctant students that shows us the internet can be a valuable teaching resource. A computer is a patient teacher and it is interesting to observe some students who will stay with a game well beyond the time they might usually stay with a pen and paper exercise

It's interesting that some educators believe the use of **calculators** is making students lazy and yet employers expect their staff to have an effortless capacity to use them. Carnellor (2004, p 54) takes a more proactive view in relation to students with mathematical difficulties when she says *that calculators may provide these students with opportunities to investigate the necessary mathematical ideas, without the concern of accuracy in the recording process*. Swan (1996) has a very helpful book of teaching approaches for developing skills in using calculators.



Learning is maximized when students and teachers share a **strong rapport**, when students are safe, trusted and respected and when students believe in themselves. When, students get the opportunity to learn in a supportive environment like this, their test scores, self-esteem and confidence are built up. They experience a shift in learning from drudgery to joy.

## Conclusion

Majority of students discover mathematics as a daunting subject. And that fear keeps the students away from mathematics as they grown up. Since the subject needs a lot of practices and understandings, the students who don't remain in touch with it regularly, they don't seem to do well in examinations. As a result their fear remains for whole life. One perceives only what he or she wants to pay attention to and that which the person is interested in. The suggestive measures will bring positive attitude towards the subject.

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## **ECONOMICS OF RUBBER CULTIVATION IN INDIA: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES**

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### **Abstract**

The rubber plantation sector employs about eight lakh people directly with a good number of them being women and being a tree crop it has tremendous potential in eco-restoration. Rubber plantations also provide a variety of ancillary products like seed oil, seed oil cake and rubber wood. Though rubber is being cultivated in 16 states in India, it has been traditionally confined to the hinterlands of south west coast, mainly in Kerala and Kanyakumari district of Tamil Nadu. Rubber is a relatively new crop in the region, strong extension support is required by the farmers to help them adopt scientific agro-management practices. The Rubber Board has been providing training to farmers, distributing estate inputs and cover crops, giving financial assistance for boundary protection, establishing group processing centers, supplying rubber rollers, rubber sheeting rollers free of cost, etc.

**Keywords:** Rubber, Export, Import, Cost, Yield

### **Introduction**

Rubber is a prominent plantation crop of considerable significance to the Indian economy. A native to Brazil, rubber was introduced to India in 1873 and its commercial cultivation started in 1902. This industrial crop has since emerged as an icon of small

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holders' stake in the plantation sector of our country. Natural Rubber tapped from the bark of the tree *Hevea brasiliensis* is the raw material for an industry manufacturing about 50,000 products. The consumption pattern of rubber in our country is highly in favour of natural rubber (76 %), quite contrary to the synthetic rubber's global consumption of about 53%.

India is the fourth largest producer (fifth in terms of acreage) of natural rubber next only to Thailand, Indonesia and Malaysia, accounting for more than 9 % of the global output, however, is first in terms of productivity in the world. Cultivation and production is dominated by small holders with 98.4% of them having less than 2.0 ha and the average holding size in the rubber sector is 0.44 ha. Small holders account for 89% of the area and 93% of the production. There are about one million large holdings (more than 20 ha).

The rubber plantation sector employs about eight lakh people directly with a good number of them being women and being a tree crop it has tremendous potential in eco-restoration. Rubber plantations also provide a variety of ancillary products like seed oil, seed oil cake and rubber wood. Though rubber is being cultivated in 16 states in India, it has been traditionally confined to the hinterlands of south west coast, mainly in Kerala and Kanyakumari district of Tamil Nadu. The non-traditional regions cultivating rubber include Karnataka, Goa, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and some of the North Eastern states. The pace of industrial growth in the country has been a crucial factor determining the consumption growth of natural rubber. Prior to the QR- free regime, the Indian rubber plantation sector dominated by small holdings, had been inwardly oriented, catering mostly to the domestic market, which may now need a relook at its international competitiveness.

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## Literatures on Rubber Cultivation

This section brings the review of literature in the field of rubber cultivation in India. This part would bring some insights in the field of rubber cultivation and improve the same.

Majumder et al (2014) has studied the whether Extensive Rubber Plantation Influences Local Environment in Tripura, Northeast India. Tripura is the second largest Natural Rubber (NR) producing state of India. As most of the NR plantation in the state is rain dependent, it is observed that fluctuation in monsoon poses a serious threat to plantation growth of NR crops. The effect of such shift and fluctuation in climate ranges from surface and ground water level variation, air quality and soil preservation. At present no assessment is available to critically review the impact of large scale NR plantation on environment. In the present paper the effect and impact of annual rainfall deficit, depleted ground water level, average local atmospheric temperature variation and rainfall ground water recharge on NR plantation is studied for the state of Tripura. Considering the large scale accelerated NR plantation in the state, an attempt has been made to figure out the consequences related to water management. The multidirectional environmental threat to the state comprising annual rainfall deficit of 23.3 %, depleted ground water level and significant rise in average atmospheric temperature may severely hit the production of NR in the region. Moreover, the estimated requirement of water to produce ribbed smokes sheet (RSS) will may escalate to more than 152140 kiloliters in the next ten years. The predicted amount of wastewater generated (directly or indirectly) in RSS collection and industry processing effluents may cause large environmental issue due to their open disposal in many cases. Hence, also claims a threat to the rubber production and growth of the sector.

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George Joseph (2014) points out that as much as 45 per cent of the natural rubber plantations in India is in the low-yielding 'aged' category. Of this, one-fourth (11 per cent of the total) is over-aged, said an analysis of Rubber Board data on natural rubber (NR) plantations by the Automotive Tyre Manufacturers' Association (ATMA). ATMA has analysed age profile of NR plantations in India from 2000 for deriving the trends. The study has concluded that the age profile of the rubber trees has taken a turn for the worse over the years and long-term availability of NR for meeting rising demand is a subject of utmost concern. ATMA members are the largest consumers of NR in India accounting for 70 per cent of total consumption. According to the findings, the percentage of trees in the maximum-yielding stage (in the age group of 11 years to 20 years) has consistently fallen over the last one decade. From 45.5 per cent of the overall NR plantation in 2000, the percentage of trees in the maximum-yielding stage has more than halved to just 19.4 per cent in 2012. At the same time, the percentage of aged trees (21-30 years old) in the plantations' spectrum has grown from less than 15 per cent in 2000 to over 33 per cent in 2012. Aged and over-aged (above 30 years) trees have lower yields, both in terms of quantity and quality.

PTI (2015) points that sharp decline in rubber production in Kerala, output declines more than 15 per cent. Production of natural rubber in Kerala has declined by more than 15 per cent during last fiscal as against the yield for the corresponding previous year as unremunerative prices kept rubber growers away from tapping. Production of natural rubber during 2014-15 was 6,55,000 tonnes which is 15.4 per cent lower than 7,74,000 tonnes produced in 2013-14, according to the latest figures released by the Rubber Board. Kerala accounts for more than 90 per cent of the total rubber production in the country. The total area under rubber cultivation in the state is 5.45



lakh hectares. Besides, some 11.50 lakh farmers, most of whom are small-holders, are engaged in cultivation of the commodity. Total rubber consumption by various industries, including tyre manufacturers, was 10,18,185 tonnes during 2014-15 which was 3.7 per cent more than the previous year. Total rubber imports for 2014-15 were 4,14,606 tonnes, an increase of 54,000 tonnes over previous year. Natural rubber production was at a low ebb ever since the prices nosedived to as low as Rs. 120 a kg from as high as Rs. 250 a kg two years ago. Hiking import duty on rubber and bringing port restrictions would push up the domestic demand for the commodity, thereby providing provide relief to farmers.

Shanmugavadivu. N and K.R.Kavitha (2015) has studied the Problems of Small Rubber Growers with Special Reference to Kodanchery Panchayath, Kozhikode District. From the micro level study it can be concluded that, the state of Kerala with 90% of the total production of natural rubber in India, is the largest producer of natural rubber. These rubber producers of Kerala are dominated by small holdings therefore small rubber producers are main contributors of natural rubber to the Indian rubber industry. Hence the small holding producers actually facing with several problems like poor quality, low productivity, weak marketing system, lack of skilled labours etc. Problems of small growers are common but it may differ from different areas or regions. The govt. and Rubber Board take care and make more steps to boost and protect small rubber producers by considering their contributions to the country and society. The study suggests the government and Rubber Board should take measures to prevent the fluctuations in price. Government should make measures to reduce the import of natural rubber from other countries.

The New Indian Express (2015) has given news that there is bright future for natural rubber. Significance of natural rubber will

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continue for years and the rubber industry in India should take all steps to become globally competitive, said G Madhavan Nair, former ISRO chief and Chairman, Centre for Management Development. He was inaugurating the India Rubber Meet 2015 (IRM 2015) in Kochi. He added that productivity enhancement, value addition and mechanisation are the means for achieving competitiveness. Satellite imaging has tremendous potential in identifying suitable areas for rubber cultivation. It can be used to assess the intensity of disease and help in crop prediction. The vital strength of Indian rubber industry is the synergy obtained through the co-existence of a well-established rubber production sector and fast growing rubber manufacturing sector. The price may increase by 4.1 per cent. Based on a detailed analysis of the impact of reduction in oil prices on an array of commodities, he observed that its effect on natural rubber price is not very significant.

ANI (2016) has given news that Rubber Board of India plans to expand rubber cultivation in northeast. With Tripura emerging as the second largest rubber growing state in the country after Kerala, the Rubber Board of India is planning to make the region a hub of rubber production. Farmers in the northeast find rubber cultivation to be a lucrative venture. According to the Rubber Board of India around 4.5 lakh hectare of land is suitable for planting of rubber in the region. Tripura has around one lakh hectares of land under rubber cultivation. Now, the Board has identified two-lakh hectare land in Assam with potential for rubber cultivation. And, efforts are on to make it a hub for rubber production. "The Rubber Board has got an estimate of 4.5 lakh hector of land suitable for northeastern state. Assam has the maximum potential of 2 lakh hector then Meghalaya, Nagaland, Mizoram and Arunachal Pradesh all these states has potential. In all these states rubber has come up to some extend but of course the percentage of area



cover is less than comparing to Tripura. Now Assam is going in a big way to expand the rubber cultivation in the state. In Tripura, the state government has already taken measures to popularize rubber cultivation and has implemented a project called "Block Rubber planting" to supply rubber plant seeds to farmers. Over 3,200 families have already benefited from the scheme. To facilitate rubber cultivators, a rubber wood factory plant was set up in Anandanagar in west Tripura. It is the first in the Northeast, and the second largest in India. "We were very poor earlier and insurgency was an additional problem for us, but now after cultivating rubber we are better off. At present we earn between Rs. 3000-4,000 per month from tapping rubber.

Lydia Glory Jose (2016) says that families cut back on food as sinking rubber prices decimate Kerala. The nose-diving rubber prices have decimated the agricultural economy of Kerala and is having a ripple effect across the state as families cut back on spending and learn to adjust to tighter income. About 12 lakh small and medium rubber farmer in Kerala have been affected by the rubber price crash. Natural rubber production has fallen by more than a fifth in India, causing a loss of Rs 7,000 crore. Many have started to desert rubber farming itself and look at other income sources.

The above reviews examined the economics of rubber cultivation and the issues in rubber cultivation. The review would help the researcher in analyzing the economics of rubber cultivation.

## **Conclusion**

Rubber is a relatively new crop in the region, strong extension support is required by the farmers to help them adopt scientific agro-management practices. The Rubber Board has been providing training

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to farmers, distributing estate inputs and cover crops, giving financial assistance for boundary protection, establishing group processing centers, supplying rubber rollers, rubber sheeting rollers free of cost, etc.

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## THE LIFE HISTORY OF AKBAR

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### INTRODUCTION

**Akbar** (Hindustani: [əkbər]; 14 October 1542 – 27 October 1605), known as **Akbar the Great**, was Mughal Emperor from 1556 until his death. He was the third and greatest ruler of the Mughal Dynasty in India. Akbar succeeded his father, Humayun, under a regent, Bairam Khan, who helped the young emperor expand and consolidate Mughal domains in India. A strong personality and a successful general, Akbar gradually enlarged the Mughal Empire to include nearly all of the Indian Subcontinent north of the Godavari river. His power and influence, however, extended over the entire country because of Mughal military, political, cultural, and economic dominance. To unify the vast Mughal state, Akbar established a centralised system of administration throughout his empire and adopted a policy of conciliating conquered rulers through marriage and diplomacy. In order to preserve peace and order in a religiously and culturally diverse empire, he adopted policies that won him the support of his non-Muslim subjects. Eschewing tribal bonds and Islamic state identity, Akbar strived to unite far-flung lands of his realm through loyalty, expressed through a Persianised culture, to himself as an emperor who had near-divine status.

Mughal India developed a strong and stable economy, leading to commercial expansion and greater patronage of culture. Akbar himself was a great patron of art and culture. He was fond of literature, and created a library of over 24,000 volumes written in Sanskrit, Hindustani, Persian, Greek, Latin, Arabic and Kashmiri, staffed by many scholars, translators, artists, calligraphers, scribes, bookbinders and readers. Holy men of many faiths, poets, architects and artisans adorned his court from all over the world for study and discussion. Akbar's courts at Delhi, Agra, and Fatehpur Sikri became centers of the arts, letters, and learning. Perso-Islamic culture began to merge and blend with indigenous Indian elements, and a distinct Indo-Persian culture emerged characterised by Mughal style arts, painting, and architecture. Disillusioned with orthodox Islam and perhaps hoping to bring about religious unity within his empire, Akbar promulgated Din-i-Ilahi, a syncretic creed derived from Islam, Hinduism, Zoroastrianism, and Christianity. A simple, monotheistic cult, tolerant in outlook, it centered on



Akbar as a prophet, for which he drew the ire of the ulema and orthodox Muslims.

Akbar's reign significantly influenced the course of Indian history. During his rule, the Mughal empire tripled in size and wealth. He created a powerful military system and instituted effective political and social reforms. By abolishing the sectarian tax on non-Muslims and appointing them to high civil and military posts, he was the first Mughal ruler to win the trust and loyalty of the native subjects. He had Sanskrit literature translated, participated in native festivals, realizing that a stable empire depended on the co-operation and good-will of his subjects. Thus, the foundations for a multicultural empire under Mughal rule was laid during his reign. Akbar was succeeded as emperor by his son, Jahangir.

## EARLY YEARS AND NAME

Akbar was born on 14 October 1542 (the fourth day of Rajab, 949 AH), at the Rajput Fortress of Umerkot in Sindh (in modern day Pakistan), where Emperor Humayun and his recently wedded wife, Hamida Banu Begum, daughter of Shaikh Ali Akbar Jami, a Persian,<sup>[6]</sup> were taking refuge. After the capture of Kabul by Humayun, Badruddin's circumcision ceremony was held and his date of birth and name were changed to throw off evil sorcerers<sup>[7]</sup> and he was renamed Jalal-ud-din Muhammad by Humayun, a name which he had heard in his dream at Lahore.

Humayun had been driven into exile in Persia by the Pashtun leader Sher Shah Suri.<sup>[8]</sup> Akbar did not go to Persia with his parents, but was brought up in Kabul by the extended family of his paternal uncles, Kamran Mirza and Askari Mirza, and his aunts, in particular Kamran Mirza's wife. He spent his youth learning to hunt, run, and fight, made him a daring, powerful and a brave warrior, but he never learned to read or write. This, however, did not hinder his search for knowledge as it is said always when he retired in the evening he would have someone read.<sup>[9][better source needed]</sup> In November of 1551, Akbar married his first cousin, Ruqaiya Sultan Begum at Kabul.<sup>[10]</sup> Princess Ruqaiya was the only daughter of his paternal uncle, Hindal Mirza, and was his first wife and chief consort.<sup>[11]</sup> The marriage was arranged by Akbar's father and Ruqaiya's uncle, Emperor Humayun, and took place soon after the untimely death of Hindal Mirza, who died in a battle.<sup>[12]</sup>

Following the chaos over the succession of Sher Shah Suri's son Islam Shah, Humayun reconquered Delhi in 1555, leading an army partly provided by his Persian ally Tahmasp I. A few months later, Humayun died. Akbar's guardian,



Bairam Khan concealed the death in order to prepare for Akbar's succession. Akbar succeeded Humayun on 14 February 1556, while in the midst of a war against Sikandar Shah to reclaim the Mughal throne. In Kalanaur, Punjab, the 13-year-old Akbar was enthroned by Bairam Khan on a newly constructed platform, which still stands.<sup>[13][dead link][14]</sup> He was proclaimed *Shahanshah* (Persian for "King of Kings"). Bairam Khan ruled on his behalf until he came of age.<sup>[15]</sup>

## MILITARY CAMPAIGNS

Akbar was accorded the epithet "the Great" due to his many accomplishments,<sup>[16]</sup> among which was his record of unbeaten military campaigns that both established and consolidated Mughal rule in the Indian subcontinent. The basis of this military prowess and authority was Akbar's skillful structural and organisational calibration of the Mughal army.<sup>[17]</sup> The Mansabdari system in particular has been acclaimed for its role in upholding Mughal power in the time of Akbar. The system persisted with few changes down to the end of the Mughal Empire, but was progressively weakened under his successors.<sup>[17]</sup>

Organisational reforms were accompanied by innovations in cannons, fortifications, and the use of elephants.<sup>[16]</sup> Akbar also took an interest in matchlocks and effectively employed them during various conflicts. He sought the help of Ottomans, and also increasingly of Europeans, especially Portuguese and Italians, in procuring firearms and artillery.<sup>[18]</sup> Mughal firearms in the time of Akbar came to be far superior to anything that could be deployed by regional rulers, tributaries, or by zamindars.<sup>[19]</sup> Such was the impact of these weapons that Akbar's Vizier, Abul Fazl, once declared that "with the exception of Turkey, there is perhaps no country in which its guns has more means of securing the Government than [India]."<sup>[20]</sup> The term "Gunpower Empire" has thus often been used by scholars and historians in analysing the success of the Mughals in India. Mughal power has been seen as owing to their mastery of the techniques of warfare, especially the use of firearms encouraged by Akbar.<sup>[21]</sup>

## THE STRUGGLE FOR NORTH INDIA

Akbar, who had been born in 1542 while his father, Humayun, was in flight from the victorious Surs, was only thirteen when he was proclaimed emperor in 1556. His father had succeeded in regaining control of the Punjab, Delhi, and Agra with Persian support, but even in these areas Mughal rule was precarious, and when the Surs reconquered Agra and Delhi following the death



of Humayun, the fate of the boy emperor seemed uncertain. Akbar's minority and the lack of any possibility of military assistance from the Mughal stronghold of Kabul, that was at this time in the throes of an invasion by the ruler of Badakhshan, Prince Mirza Suleiman, aggravated the situation.<sup>[22]</sup> When his regent, Bairam Khan, called a council of war to marshal the Mughal forces, none of Akbar's chieftains approved of it. However, Bairam Khan was ultimately able to prevail over the nobles and it was decided that the Mughals would march against the strongest of the Sur rulers, Sikandar Shah Suri, in the Punjab. Delhi was left under the regency of Tardi Baig Khan.<sup>[22]</sup> Sikandar Shah Suri, however, presented no major concern for Akbar, and avoided giving battle as the Mughal army approached.<sup>[23]</sup> The gravest threat came from Hemu, a minister and general of one of the Sur rulers, who had proclaimed himself Hindu emperor and expelled the Mughals from the Indo-Gangetic plains.<sup>[22]</sup>

Urged by Bairam Khan, who re-marshalled the Mughal army before Hemu could consolidate his position, Akbar marched on Delhi to reclaim it.<sup>[24]</sup> Akbar's army, led by Bairam Khan, defeated Hemu and the Sur army on 5 November 1556 at the Second Battle of Panipat, 50 miles (80 km) north of Delhi.<sup>[25]</sup> Soon after the battle, Mughal forces occupied Delhi and then Agra. Akbar made a triumphant entry into Delhi, where he stayed for a month. Then he and Bairam Khan returned to Punjab, to deal with Sikandar Shah, who had become active again.<sup>[26]</sup> In the next six months, the Mughals won another major battle against Sikander Shah Suri, who then fled east to Bengal. Akbar and his forces occupied Lahore and then seized Multan in the Punjab. In 1558, Akbar took possession of Ajmer, the aperture to Rajputana, after the defeat and flight of its Muslim ruler.<sup>[26]</sup> Late in the same year, a Mughal commander defeated Ibrahim, the last Sur prince, and annexed Jaunpur, the capital of the former Sultanate of Jaunpur in the eastern Gangetic valley. The Mughals had also besieged and defeated the Sur forces in control of Gwalior Fort, the greatest stronghold north of the Narmada river.<sup>[26]</sup>

The flurry of victories put the vital cities and strongholds located between Lahore, Delhi, Agra, and Jaunpur under Akbar's control.<sup>[26]</sup> This was Hindustan, the old heartland of Muslim Turko-Afghan political and military power in India. The Mughals, like their predecessors, were now poised to tap the immense agricultural productivity and trade potential of the epicenter of the Indo-Gangetic plains.<sup>[26]</sup> Royal begums, along with the families of Mughal amirs, were finally brought over from Kabul to India at the time—according to Akbar's vizier, Abul Fazl, "so that men might become settled and be restrained in some measure from departing to a country to which they were accustomed."<sup>[22]</sup> Akbar had firmly declared his intentions that the Mughals were in India to stay. This was a far cry from the political settlements by his



grandfather, Babur, and by his father, Humayun, both of whom had done little to indicate that they were anything but transient rulers.<sup>[22][26]</sup>

## EXPANSION INTO CENTRAL INDIA

By 1559, the Mughals had launched a drive to the south into Rajputana and Malwa.<sup>[27]</sup> However, Akbar's disputes with his regent, Bairam Khan, temporarily put an end to the expansion.<sup>[27]</sup> The young emperor, at the age of eighteen, wanted to take a more active part in managing affairs. Urged on by his foster mother, Maham Anaga, and his relatives, Akbar decided to dispense with the services of Bairam Khan. After yet another dispute at court, Akbar finally dismissed Bairam Khan in the spring of 1560 and ordered him to leave on Hajj to Mecca.<sup>[28]</sup> Bairam Khan left for Mecca, but on his way was goaded by his opponents to rebel.<sup>[25]</sup> He was defeated by the Mughal army in the Punjab and forced to submit. Akbar, however forgave him and gave him the option of either continuing in his court or resuming his pilgrimage, of which Bairam chose the latter.<sup>[29]</sup> Bairam Khan was later assassinated on his way to Mecca, allegedly by an Afghan with a personal vendetta.<sup>[27]</sup> In 1560, Akbar resumed military operations.<sup>[27]</sup> A Mughal army under the command of his foster brother, Adham Khan, and a Mughal commander, Pir Muhammad Khan, invaded Malwa. The Afghan ruler, Baz Bahadur, was defeated at the Battle of Sarangpur, and fled to Khandesh for refuge leaving behind his harem, treasure, and war elephants.<sup>[27]</sup> Despite initial success, the campaign proved a disaster from Akbar's point of view. His foster brother retained all the spoils and followed through with the Central Asian practice of slaughtering the surrendered garrison, their wives and children, and many Muslim theologians and Sayyids, who were the descendants of the Prophet Muhammad.<sup>[27]</sup> Akbar personally rode to Malwa to confront Adham Khan and relieve him of command. Pir Muhammad Khan was then sent in pursuit of Baz Bahadur but was beaten back by the alliance of the rulers of Khandesh and Berar.<sup>[27]</sup> Baz Bahadur temporarily regained control of Malwa until, in the next year, Akbar sent another Mughal army to invade and annex the kingdom.<sup>[27]</sup> Malwa became a province of the nascent imperial administration of Akbar's regime. Baz Bahadur survived as a refugee at various courts until, eight years later, in 1570, he took service under Akbar.<sup>[27]</sup>

Despite ultimate success in Malwa, the conflict however, exposed cracks in Akbar's personal relationships with his relatives and Mughal nobles. When Adham Khan confronted Akbar following another dispute in 1562, he was struck down by the emperor and thrown from a terrace into the palace courtyard at Agra. Still alive, Adham Khan was dragged up and thrown to the courtyard once again by Akbar to ensure his death. Akbar now sought to



eliminate the threat of over-mighty subjects.<sup>[27]</sup> He created specialized ministerial posts relating to imperial governance. No member of the Mughal nobility was to have unnestioned pre-eminence.<sup>[27]</sup> When a powerful clan of Uzbek chiefs broke out in rebellion in 1564, Akbar decisively defeated and routed them in Malwa and then Bihar.<sup>[30]</sup> He pardoned the rebellious leaders, hoping to conciliate them. But they rebelled again, so Akbar had to quell their uprising a second time. Following a third revolt with the proclamation of Mirza Muhammad Hakim, Akbar's brother and the Mughal ruler of Kabul, as emperor, his patience was finally exhausted. Several Uzbek chieftains were subsequently slain and the rebel leaders trampled to death under elephants.<sup>[30]</sup> Simultaneously the Mirza's, a group of Akbar's distant cousins who held important fiefs near Agra, had also risen up in rebellion. They, too were slain and driven out of the empire.<sup>[30]</sup> In 1566, Akbar moved to meet the forces of his brother, Muhammad Hakim, who had marched into the Punjab with dreams of seizing the imperial throne. Following a brief confrontation, however, Muhammad Hakim accepted Akbar's supremacy and retreated back to Kabul.<sup>[30]</sup>

In 1564, Mughal forces conquered the Gondwana kingdom. Gondwana, a thinly populated hilly area in central India was of interest to the Mughals because of its herd of wild elephants.<sup>[31]</sup> The territory was ruled over by Raja Vir Narayan, a minor, and his mother, Durgavati, a Rajput warrior queen of the Gonds.<sup>[30]</sup> Akbar did not personally lead the campaign because he was preoccupied with the Uzbek rebellion, but left the expedition in the hands of Asaf Khan, the Mughal governor of Kara.<sup>[30][32]</sup> Durgavati committed suicide after her defeat at the Battle of Damoh while Raja Vir Narayan was slain at the Fall of Chauragarh, the mountain fortress of the Gonds.<sup>[32]</sup> The Mughals seized immense wealth, an uncalculated amount of gold and silver, jewels and 1000 elephants. Kamala Devi, a younger sister of Durgavati, was sent to the Mughal harem.<sup>[32]</sup> The brother of Durgavati's deceased husband was installed as the Mughal administrator of the region.<sup>[32]</sup> Like in Malwa, however, Akbar entered into a dispute with his vassals over the conquest of Gondwana.<sup>[32]</sup> Asaf Khan was accused of keeping most of the treasures, and sending back only 200 elephants to Akbar. When summoned to give accounts, he fled Gondwana. He went first to the Uzbeks, then returned to Gondwana where he was pursued by Mughal forces. Finally, he submitted and Akbar restored him to his previous position.<sup>[32]</sup>

## THE CONQUEST OF RAJPUTANA

Having established Mughal rule over northern India, Akbar turned his attention to the conquest of Rajputana. No imperial power in India based on



the Indo-Gangetic plains could be secure if a rival centre of power existed on its flank in Rajputana.<sup>[32]</sup> The Mughals had already established domination over parts of northern Rajputana in Mewar, Ajmer, and Nagor.<sup>[26][30]</sup> Now, however, Akbar was determined to drive into the heartlands of the Rajput kings that had never previously submitted to the Muslim rulers of the Delhi Sultanate. Beginning in 1561, the Mughals actively engaged the Rajputs in warfare and diplomacy.<sup>[31]</sup> Most Rajput states accepted Akbar's suzerainty; the ruler of Mewar, Udai Singh, however, remained outside the imperial fold.<sup>[30]</sup> Raja Udai Singh was descended from the Sisodia ruler, Rana Sanga, who had died fighting Babur at the Battle of Khanwa in 1527.<sup>[30]</sup> As the head of the Sisodia clan, he possessed the highest ritual status of all the Rajput kings and chieftains in India. Unless Udai Singh was reduced to submission, the imperial authority of the Mughals would be lessened in Rajput eyes.<sup>[30]</sup> Furthermore, Akbar, at this early period, was still enthusiastically devoted to the cause of Islam and sought to impress the superiority of his faith over the most prestigious warriors in Brahminical Hinduism.<sup>[30]</sup>

In 1567, Akbar moved to reduce the Chittorgarh Fort in Mewar. The fortress-capital of Mewar was of great strategic importance as it lay on the shortest route from Agra to Gujarat and was also considered a key to holding the interior parts of Rajputana. Udai Singh retired to the hills of Mewar, leaving two Rajput warriors, Jaimal and Patta, in charge of the defense of his capital.<sup>[33]</sup> Chittorgarh fell on February 1568 after a siege of four months. Akbar had the surviving defenders massacred and their heads displayed upon towers erected throughout the region, in order to demonstrate his authority.<sup>[34][35]</sup> The total loot that fell into the hands of the Mughals was distributed throughout the empire.<sup>[36]</sup> He remained in Chittorgarh for three days, then returned to Agra, where to commemorate the victory, he set up, at the gates of his fort, statues of Jaimal and Patta mounted on elephants.<sup>[37]</sup> Udai Singh's power and influence was broken. He never again ventured out his mountain refuge in Mewar and Akbar was content to let him be.<sup>[38]</sup>

The fall of Chittorgarh was followed up by a Mughal attack on the Ranthambore Fort in 1568. Ranthambore was held by the Hada Rajputs and reputed to be the most powerful fortress in India.<sup>[38]</sup> However, it fell only after a couple of months.<sup>[38]</sup> Akbar was now the master of almost the whole of Rajputana. Most of the Rajput kings had submitted to the Mughals.<sup>[38]</sup> Only the clans of Mewar continued to resist.<sup>[38]</sup> Udai Singh's son and successor, Pratap Singh, was later defeated by the Mughals at the Battle of Haldighati in 1576.<sup>[38]</sup> He spent the remainder of his life in exile in the Aravalli hills. Akbar would celebrate his conquest of Rajputana by laying the foundation of a new capital, 23 miles (37 km) W.S.W of Agra in 1569. It was called Fatehpur Sikri ("the city of victory").<sup>[39]</sup>



## CAMPAIGNS IN AFGHANISTAN AND CENTRAL ASIA

Following his conquests of Gujarat and Bengal, Akbar was preoccupied with domestic concerns. He did not leave Fatehpur Sikri on a military campaign until 1581, when the Punjab was again invaded by his brother, Mirza Muhammad Hakim.<sup>[42]</sup> Akbar expelled his brother to Kabul and this time pressed on, determined to end the threat from Muhammad Hakim once and for all.<sup>[42]</sup> In contrast to the problem that his predecessors once had in getting Mughal nobles to stay on in India, the problem now was to get them to leave India.<sup>[42]</sup> They were, according to Abul Fazl "afraid of the cold of Afghanistan."<sup>[42]</sup> The Hindu officers, in turn, were additionally inhibited by the traditional taboo against crossing the Indus. Akbar, however, spurred them on. The soldiers were provided with pay eight months in advance.<sup>[42]</sup> In August 1581, Akbar seized Kabul and took up residence at Babur's old citadel. He stayed there for three weeks, in the absence of his brother, who had fled into the mountains.<sup>[42]</sup> Akbar left Kabul in the hands of his sister, Bakht-un-Nisa Begum, and returned to India. He pardoned his brother, who took up de facto charge of the Mughal administration in Kabul; Bakht-un-Nis continued to be the official governor. A few years later, in 1585, Muhammad Hakim died and Kabul passed into the hands of Akbar once again. It was officially incorporated as a province of the Mughal Empire.<sup>[42]</sup>

The Kabul expedition was the beginning of a long period of activity over the northern frontiers of the empire.<sup>[44]</sup> For thirteen years, beginning in 1585, Akbar remained in the north, shifting his capital to Lahore in the Punjab while dealing with challenges from beyond the Khyber Pass.<sup>[44]</sup> The gravest threat came from the Uzbeks, the tribe that had driven his grandfather, Babur, out of Central Asia.<sup>[42]</sup> They had been organized under Abdullah Khan Shaybanid, a capable military chieftain who had seized Badakhshan and Balkh from Akbar's distant Timurid relatives, and whose Uzbek troops now posed a serious challenge to the northwestern frontiers of the Mughal Empire.<sup>[42][45]</sup> The Afghan tribes on the border were also restless, partly on account of the hostility of the Yusufzai of Bajaur and Swat, and partly owing to the activity of a new religious leader, Bayazid, the founder of the Roshaniyya sect.<sup>[44]</sup> The Uzbeks were also known to be subsidizing Afghans.<sup>[46]</sup>

In 1586, Akbar negotiated a pact with Abdullah Khan in which the Mughals agreed to remain neutral during the Uzbek invasion of Safavid held Khorasan.<sup>[46]</sup> In return, Abdullah Khan agreed to refrain from supporting, subsidizing, or offering refuge to the Afghan tribes hostile to the Mughals. Thus freed, Akbar began a series of campaigns to pacify the Yusufzais and other rebels.<sup>[46]</sup> Akbar ordered Zain Khan to lead an expedition against the



Afghan tribes. Raja Birbal, a renowned minister in Akbar's court, was also given military command. The expedition turned out to be a disaster, and on its retreat from the mountains, Birbal and his entourage were ambushed and killed by the Afghans at the Malandarai Pass in February 1586.<sup>[46]</sup> Akbar immediately fielded new armies to reinvade the Yusufzai lands under the command of Raja Todar Mal. Over the next six years, the Mughals contained the Yusufzai in the mountain valleys, and forced the submission of many chiefs in Swat and Bajaur.<sup>[46]</sup> Dozens of forts were built and occupied to secure the region. Akbar's response demonstrated his ability to clamp firm military control over the Afghan tribes.<sup>[46]</sup>

Despite his pact with the Uzbeks, Akbar nurtured a secret hope of reconquering Central Asia from Afghanistan.<sup>[47]</sup> However, Badakhshan and Balkh remained firmly part of the Uzbek dominions. There was only a transient occupation of the two provinces by the Mughals under his grandson, Shah Jahan, in the mid-17th century.<sup>[45]</sup> Nevertheless, Akbar's stay in the northern frontiers was highly fruitful. The last of the rebellious Afghan tribes were subdued by 1600.<sup>[45]</sup> The Roshaniyya movement was firmly suppressed. The Afridi and Orakzai tribes, which had risen up under the Roshaniyyas, had been subjugated.<sup>[45]</sup> The leaders of the movement were captured and driven into exile.<sup>[45]</sup> Jalaluddin, the son of the Roshaniyya movement's founder, Bayazid, was killed in 1601 in a fight with Mughal troops near Ghazni.<sup>[45]</sup> Mughal rule over Afghanistan was finally secure, particularly after the passing of the Uzbek threat with the death of Abdullah Khan in 1598.<sup>[46]</sup>

## CONQUESTS IN THE INDUS VALLEY

While in Lahore dealing with the Uzbeks, Akbar had sought to subjugate the Indus valley to secure the frontier provinces.<sup>[46]</sup> He sent an army to conquer Kashmir in the upper Indus basin when, in 1585, Ali Shah, the reigning king of the Shia Chak dynasty, refused to send his son as a hostage to the Mughal court. Ali Shah surrendered immediately to the Mughals, but another of his sons, Yaqub, crowned himself as king, and led a stubborn resistance to Mughal armies. Finally, in June, 1589, Akbar himself travelled from Lahore to Srinagar to receive the surrender of Yaqub and his rebel forces.<sup>[46]</sup> Baltistan and Ladakh, which were Tibetan provinces adjacent to Kashmir, pledged their allegiance to Akbar.<sup>[48]</sup> The Mughals also moved to conquer Sindh in the lower Indus valley. Since 1574, the northern fortress of Bhakkar had remained under imperial control. Now, in 1586, the Mughal governor of Multan tried and failed to secure the capitulation of Mirza Jani Beg, the independent ruler of Thatta in southern Sindh.<sup>[46]</sup> Akbar responded by sending a Mughal army to besiege Sehwan, the river capital of the region. Jani Beg mustered a large



army to meet the Mughals.<sup>[46]</sup> The outnumbered Mughal forces defeated the Sindhi forces at the Battle of Sehwan. After suffering further defeats, Jani Beg surrendered to the Mughals in 1591, and in 1593, paid homage to Akbar in Lahore.<sup>[48]</sup>

## SUBJUGATION OF BALUCHISTAN

As early as 1586, about half a dozen Baluchi chiefs had been persuaded to attend the imperial court and acknowledge the vassalage of Akbar. In preparations to take Kandahar from the Safavids, Akbar ordered the Mughal forces to conquer the rest of Baluchistan in 1595.<sup>[48][49]</sup> The Mughal general, Mir Masum, led an attack on the stronghold of Sibi, situated to the northwest of Quetta and defeated a coalition of local chieftains in a pitched battle.<sup>[49]</sup> They were made to acknowledge Mughal supremacy and attend Akbar's court. As a result, the whole of Baluchistan, including the strategic region of Makran, the coastal strip running from India to Iran, became a part of the Mughal Empire.<sup>[49]</sup> The Mughals now frontiered Persian ruled Kandahar from three sides.<sup>[49]</sup>

## ADMINISTRATION

Akbar's system of central government was based on the system that had evolved since the Delhi Sultanate, but the functions of various departments were carefully reorganised by laying down detailed regulations for their functioning

- The revenue department was headed by a *wazir*, responsible for all finances and management of *jagir* and *inam* lands.
- The head of the military was called the *mir bakshi*, appointed from among the leading nobles of the court. The *mir bakshi* was in charge of intelligence gathering, and also made recommendations to the emperor for military appointments and promotions.
- The *mir saman* was in charge of the imperial household, including the harems, and supervised the functioning of the court and royal bodyguard.
- The judiciary was a separate organization headed by a chief *qazi*, who was also responsible for religious beliefs and practices

## TAXATION

Akbar set about reforming the administration of his empire's land revenue by adopting a system that had been used by Sher Shah Suri. A cultivated area where crops grew well was measured and taxed through fixed rates based on



the area's crop and productivity. However, this placed hardship on the peasantry because tax rates were fixed on the basis of prices prevailing in the imperial court, which were often higher than those in the countryside.<sup>[52]</sup> Akbar changed to a decentralized system of annual assessment, but this resulted in corruption among local officials and was abandoned in 1580, to be replaced by a system called the *dahsala*.<sup>[53]</sup> Under the new system, revenue was calculated as one-third of the average produce of the previous ten years, to be paid to the state in cash. This system was later refined, taking into account local prices, and grouping areas with similar productivity into assessment circles. Remission was given to peasants when the harvest failed during times of flood or drought.<sup>[53]</sup> Akbar's *dahsala* system is credited to Raja Todar Mal, who also served as a revenue officer under Sher Shah Suri,<sup>[54]</sup> and the structure of the revenue administration was set out by the latter in a detailed memorandum submitted to the emperor in 1582-83.<sup>[55]</sup>

Other local methods of assessment continued in some areas. Land which was fallow or uncultivated was charged at concessional rates.<sup>[56]</sup> Akbar also actively encouraged the improvement and extension of agriculture. The village continued to remain the primary unit of revenue assessment.<sup>[57]</sup> Zamindars of every area were required to provide loans and agricultural implements in times of need, to encourage farmers to plough as much land as possible and to sow seeds of superior quality. In turn, the zamindars were given a hereditary right to collect a share of the produce. Peasants had a hereditary right to cultivate the land as long as they paid the land revenue.<sup>[56]</sup> While the revenue assessment system showed concern for the small peasantry, it also maintained a level of distrust towards the revenue officials. Revenue officials were guaranteed only three-quarters of their salary, with the remaining quarter dependent on their full realisation of the revenue assessed.<sup>[58]</sup>

## MILITARY ORGANIZATION

### JALAL-UD-DIN MUHAMMAD AKBAR,

Akbar organized his army as well as the nobility by means of a system called the *mansabdari*. Under this system, each officer in the army was assigned a rank (a *mansabdar*), and assigned a number of cavalry that he had to supply to the imperial army.<sup>[54]</sup> The *mansabdars* were divided into 33 classes. The top three commanding ranks, ranging from 7000 to 10000 troops, were normally reserved for princes. Other ranks between 10 and 5000 were assigned to other members of the nobility. The empire's permanent standing army was quite small and the imperial forces mostly consisted of contingents maintained by the *mansabdars*.<sup>[59]</sup> Persons were normally appointed to a low *mansab* and



then promoted, based on their merit as well as the favour of the emperor.<sup>[60]</sup> Each *mansabdar* was required to maintain a certain number of cavalymen and twice that number of horses. The number of horses was greater because they had to be rested and rapidly replaced in times of war. Akbar employed strict measures to ensure that the quality of the armed forces was maintained at a high level; horses were regularly inspected and only Arabian horses were normally employed.<sup>[61]</sup> The *mansabdars* were remunerated well for their services and constituted the highest paid military service in the world at the time.<sup>[60]</sup>

## CAPITAL

Akbar was a follower of Salim Chishti, a holy man who lived in the region of Sikri near Agra. Believing the area to be a lucky one for himself, he had a mosque constructed there for the use of the priest. Subsequently, he celebrated the victories over Chittor and Ranthambore by laying the foundation of a new walled capital, 23 miles (37 km) west of Agra in 1569, which was named Fatehpur ("town of victory") after the conquest of Gujarat in 1573 and subsequently came to be known as Fatehpur Sikri in order to distinguish it from other similarly named towns.<sup>[33]</sup> Palaces for each of Akbar's senior queens, a huge artificial lake, and sumptuous water-filled courtyards were built there. However, the city was soon abandoned and the capital was moved to Lahore in 1585. The reason may have been that the water supply in Fatehpur Sikri was insufficient or of poor quality. Or, as some historians believe, Akbar had to attend to the northwest areas of his empire and therefore moved his capital northwest. Other sources indicate Akbar simply lost interest in the city<sup>[62]</sup> or realised it was not militarily defensible. In 1599, Akbar shifted his capital back to Agra from where he reigned until his death.

## ECONOMY

### TRADE

The reign of Akbar was characterised by commercial expansion.<sup>[63]</sup> The Mughal government encouraged traders, provided protection and security for transactions, and levied a very low custom duty to stimulate foreign trade. Furthermore, it strived to foster a climate conducive to commerce by requiring local administrators to provide restitution to traders for goods stolen while in their territory. In order to minimize such incidents, bands of highway police called *rahdars* were enlisted to patrol roads and ensure safety of traders. Other active measures taken included the construction and protection of routes of commerce and communications.<sup>[64]</sup> Indeed, Akbar would make concerted



efforts to improve roads to facilitate the use of wheeled vehicles through the Khyber Pass, the most popular route frequented by traders and travellers in journeying from Kabul into Mughal India.<sup>[64]</sup> He also strategically occupied the northwestern cities of Multan and Lahore in the Punjab and constructed great forts, such as the one at Attock near the crossing of the Grand Trunk Road and the Indus river, as well as a network of smaller forts called *thanas* throughout the frontier to secure the overland trade with Persia and Central Asia.<sup>[64]</sup>

## COINS

Akbar was a great innovator as far as coinage is concerned. The coins of Akbar set a new chapter in India's numismatic history. The coins of Akbar's grandfather, Babur, and father, Humayun, are basic and devoid of any innovation as the former was busy establishing the foundations of the Mughal rule in India while the latter was ousted by the Afghan, Farid Khan Sher Shah Suri, and returned to the throne only to die a year later. While the reign of both Babur and Humayun represented turmoil, Akbar's relative long reign of 50 years allowed him to experiment with coinage.

Akbar introduced coins with decorative floral motifs, dotted borders, quatrefoil and other types. His coins were both round and square in shape with a unique 'mehrab' (lozenge) shape coin highlighting numismatic calligraphy at its best. Akbar's portrait type gold coin (Mohur) is generally attributed to his son, Prince Salim (later Emperor Jahangir), who had rebelled and then sought reconciliation thereafter by minting and presenting his father with gold Mohur's bearing Akbar's portrait. The tolerant view of Akbar is represented by the 'Ram-Siya' silver coin type while during the latter part of Akbar's reign, we see coins portraying the concept of Akbar's newly promoted religion 'Din-e-ilahi' with the Ilahi type and Jalla Jalal-Hu type coins.

Silver coin of Akbar with inscriptions of the Islamic declaration of faith, the declaration reads: "There is no god but God, and Muhammad is the messenger of Allah."

The coins, left, represent examples of these innovative concepts introduced by Akbar that set the precedent for Mughal coins which was refined and perfected by his son, Jahangir, and later by his grandson, Shah Jahan.



## DIPLOMACY

### MATRIMONIAL ALLIANCES

The practice of giving Hindu princesses to Muslim kings in marriage was known much before Akbar's time, but in most cases these marriages did not lead to any stable relations between the families involved, and the women were lost to their families and did not return after marriage.<sup>[65][66]</sup>

However, Akbar's policy of matrimonial alliances marked a departure in India from previous practice in that the marriage itself marked the beginning of a new order of relations, wherein the Hindu Rajputs who married their daughters or sisters to him would be treated on par with his Muslim fathers-in-law and brothers in-law in all respects except being able to dine and pray with him or take Muslim wives. These Rajputs were made members of his court and their daughters' or sisters' marriage to a Muslim ceased to be a sign of degradation, except for certain proud elements who still considered it a sign of humiliation.<sup>[66]</sup>

The Kacchwaha Rajput, Raja Bharmal, of Amber, who had come to Akbar's court shortly after the latter's accession, entered into an alliance by giving his daughter Harkha Bai in marriage to the emperor. There has been considerable discussion among historians whether Harka bai or Rajkumari Hira Kunwari, the wife of Akbar and the daughter of Raja Bharmal of Amber, is the Jodha bai or not. Tuzk-e-Jahangiri, the autobiography of Jahangir, doesn't mention Jodha Bai.<sup>[67]</sup> Therein, she is referred to as Mariam uz Zamani.<sup>[68]</sup> Neither the Akbarnama (a biography of Akbar commissioned by Akbar himself), nor any historical text from the period refer to her as Jodha Bai.<sup>[68][69][70]</sup> She died in 1623. A mosque was built in her honor by her son Jahangir in Lahore.<sup>[71]</sup> Bharmal was made a noble of high rank in the imperial court, and subsequently his son Bhagwant Das and grandson Man Singh also rose to high ranks in the nobility.<sup>[65]</sup>

Other Rajput kingdoms also established matrimonial alliances with Akbar, but matrimony was not insisted on as a precondition for forming alliances. Two major Rajput clans remained aloof – the Sisodiyas of Mewar and Hadas of Ranthambore. In another turning point of Akbar's reign, Raja Man Singh I of Amber went with Akbar to meet the Hada leader, Surjan Hada, to effect an alliance. Surjan accepted an alliance on the condition that Akbar did not marry any of his daughters. Consequently, no matrimonial alliance was entered into, yet Surjan was made a noble and placed in charge of Garh-Katanga.<sup>[65]</sup> Certain other Rajput nobles did not like the idea of their kings marrying their



daughters to Mughals. Rathore Kalyandas threatened to kill both Mota Raja Rao Udaisingh and Jahangir because Udai Singh had decided to marry his daughter to Jahangir. Akbar on hearing this ordered imperial forces to attack Kalyandas at Siwana. Kalyandas died fighting along with his men and the women of Siwana committed Jauhar.<sup>[72]</sup>

The political effect of these alliances was significant. While some Rajput women who entered Akbar's harem converted to Islam, they were generally provided full religious freedom, and their relatives, who continued to remain Hindu, formed a significant part of the nobility and served to articulate the opinions of the majority of the common populace in the imperial court.<sup>[65]</sup> The interaction between Hindu and Muslim nobles in the imperial court resulted in exchange of thoughts and blending of the two cultures. Further, newer generations of the Mughal line represented a merger of Mughal and Rajput blood, thereby strengthening ties between the two. As a result, the Rajputs became the strongest allies of the Mughals, and Rajput soldiers and generals fought for the Mughal army under Akbar, leading it in several campaigns including the conquest of Gujarat in 1572.<sup>[73]</sup> Akbar's policy of religious tolerance ensured that employment in the imperial administration was open to all on merit irrespective of creed, and this led to an increase in the strength of the administrative services of the empire.<sup>[74]</sup>

Another legend is that Akbar's daughter Meherunnissa was enamoured by Tansen and had a role in his coming to Akbar's court.<sup>[75]</sup> Tansen converted to Islam from Hinduism, apparently on the eve of his marriage with Akbar's daughter.<sup>[76][77]</sup>

## **FOREIGN RELATIONS**

### **RELATIONS WITH THE PORTUGUESE**

At the time of Akbar's ascension in 1556, the Portuguese had established several fortresses and factories on the western coast of the subcontinent, and largely controlled navigation and sea-trade in that region. As a consequence of this colonialism, all other trading entities were subject to the terms and conditions of the Portuguese, and this was resented by the rulers and traders of the time including Bahadur Shah of Gujarat.<sup>[79]</sup>

In the year 1572 the Mughal Empire annexed Gujarat and acquired its first access to the sea, the local officials informed Akbar that the Portuguese have begun to exert their control in the Indian Ocean. Hence Akbar was conscious of the threat posed by the presence of the Portuguese, remained content with



obtaining a *cartaz* (permit) from them for sailing in the Persian Gulf region.<sup>[80]</sup> At the initial meeting of the Mughals and the Portuguese during the Siege of Surat in 1572, the Portuguese, recognising the superior strength of the Mughal army, chose to adopt diplomacy instead of war, and the Portuguese Governor, upon the request of Akbar, sent him an ambassador to establish friendly relations.<sup>[81]</sup> Akbar's efforts to purchase and secure from the Portuguese some of their compact Artillery pieces were unsuccessful and that is the reason why Akbar could not establish the Mughal navy along the Gujarat coast.<sup>[82]</sup>

Akbar accepted the offer of diplomacy, but the Portuguese continually acknowledged their authority and power in the Indian Ocean, in fact Akbar was highly concerned when he had to request a permit from the Portuguese before any ships from the Mughal Empire were to depart for the Hajj pilgrimage to Mecca and Medina.<sup>[83]</sup> In 1573, he issued a *firman* directing Mughal administrative officials in Gujarat not to provoke the Portuguese in the territory they held in Daman. The Portuguese, in turn, issued passes for the members of Akbar's family to go on Hajj to Mecca. The Portuguese made mention of the extraordinary status of the vessel and the special status to be accorded to its occupants.<sup>[84]</sup>

In the year 1579 Jesuits from Goa were allowed to visit the court of Akbar, and he had his scribes translate the New Testament, and granted the Jesuits freedom to make converts and raise one of his sons.<sup>[85]</sup> The Jesuit did not confine themselves to the exposition of their own beliefs, but reviled Islam and the Prophet in unrestrained language. Their comments enraging the Imam's and Ulama, who objected to the remarks of the Jesuit, but Akbar however ordered their comments to be recorded and observed the Jesuits and their behavior carefully. This event was followed by a rebellion of Muslim clerics led by Mullah Muhammad Yazdi and Muiz-ul-Mulk, the chief Qadi of Bengal in the year 1581, when these rebels wanted to overthrow Akbar and insert his brother Mirza Muhammad Hakim ruler of Kabul on the Mughal throne. Akbar however successfully defeated the rebels and had grown more cautious about his guests and his proclamations, which he later checked with his advisers carefully.<sup>[86]</sup>

## DIN-I-ILAH

Akbar was deeply interested in religious and philosophical matters. An orthodox Muslim at the outset, he later came to be influenced by Sufi mysticism that was being preached in the country at that time, and moved away from orthodoxy, appointing to his court several talented people with



liberal ideas, including Abul Fazl, Faizi and Birbal. In 1575, he built a hall called the Ibadat Khana ("*House of Worship*") at Fatehpur Sikri, to which he invited theologians, mystics and selected courtiers renowned for their intellectual achievements and discussed matters of spirituality with them.<sup>[110]</sup> These discussions, initially restricted to Muslims, were acrimonious and resulted in the participants shouting at and abusing each other. Upset by this, Akbar opened the Ibadat Khana to people of all religions as well as atheists, resulting in the scope of the discussions broadening and extending even into areas such as the validity of the Quran and the nature of God. This shocked the orthodox theologians, who sought to discredit Akbar by circulating rumours of his desire to forsake Islam.<sup>[117]</sup> Akbar's choices, decisions, decrees, discussions and regulations on religious matters even caused some of his brilliant courtiers like Qutb-ud-din Khan Koka and Shahbaz Khan Kamboh to criticize the emperor in the court.

Akbar's effort to evolve a meeting point among the representatives of various religions was not very successful, as each of them attempted to assert the superiority of their respective religions by denouncing other religions. Meanwhile, the debates at the Ibadat Khana grew more acrimonious and, contrary to their purpose of leading to a better understanding among religions, instead led to greater bitterness among them, resulting to the discontinuance of the debates by Akbar in 1582.<sup>[122]</sup> However, his interaction with various religious theologians had convinced him that despite their differences, all religions had several good practices, which he sought to combine into a new religious movement known as Din-i-Ilahi.<sup>[123][124]</sup> However, some modern scholars claim that Akbar did not initiate a new religion and did not use the word *Din-i-Ilahi*.<sup>[125]</sup> According to the contemporary events in the Mughal court Akbar was indeed angered by the acts of embezzlement of wealth by many high level Muslim clerics.<sup>[126]</sup>

The purported Din-i-Ilahi was more of an ethical system and is said to have prohibited lust, sensuality, slander and pride, considering them sins. Piety, prudence, abstinence and kindness are the core virtues. The soul is encouraged to purify itself through yearning of God.<sup>[127]</sup> Celibacy was respected, chastity enforced, the slaughter of animals was forbidden and there were no sacred scriptures or a priestly hierarchy.<sup>[128]</sup> However, a leading Noble of Akbar's court, Aziz Koka, wrote a letter to him from Mecca in 1594 arguing that the discipleship promoted by Akbar amounted to nothing more than a desire on Akbar's part to portray his superiority regarding religious matters.<sup>[129]</sup> To commemorate Din-e-Ilahi, he changed the name of Prayag to Allahabad (pronounced as *ilahabad*) in 1583.<sup>[130][131]</sup>



It has been argued that the theory of Din-i-Ilahi being a new religion was a misconception which arose due to erroneous translations of Abul Fazl's work by later British historians.<sup>[132]</sup> However, it is also accepted that the policy of *sulh-e-kul*, which formed the essence of Din-i-Ilahi, was adopted by Akbar not merely for religious purposes, but as a part of general imperial administrative policy. This also formed the basis for Akbar's policy of religious toleration.<sup>[133]</sup> At the time of Akbar's death in 1605 there were no signs of discontent amongst his Muslim subjects and the impression of even a theologian like Abdu'l Haq was that close ties remained.<sup>[134]</sup>

## RELATION WITH HINDUS

Akbar decreed that Hindus who had been forced to convert to Islam could revert to Hinduism without facing the death penalty.<sup>[135]</sup>

Akbar in his days of tolerance was so well liked by Hindus that there are numerous references to him and his eulogies are sung in songs and religious hymns as well.<sup>[136]</sup>

Akbar practiced several Hindu customs. He celebrated Diwali. He allowed Brahman priests to tie jeweled strings round his wrists by way of blessing and, following his lead, many of the nobles took to wearing *rakhi* (protection charms).<sup>[137]</sup> He had renounced beef, and forbade the sale of all meats on certain days.<sup>[137]</sup>

Even his son Jahangir and grandson Shahjahan maintained many of Akbar's concessions, such as the ban on cow slaughter, having only vegetarian dishes on certain days of the week, and drink only Ganges water.<sup>[138]</sup> Even as he was in the Punjab, 200 miles away from the Ganges, the water was sealed in large jars and transported to him. He referred to the Ganges water as the "water of immortality."<sup>[138]</sup>

It was rumored that each night a Brahman priest, suspended on a string cot pulled up to the window of Akbar's bedchamber, would captivate the emperor with tales of Hindu gods.<sup>[137]</sup>

## RELATION WITH JAINS

Akbar regularly held discussions with Jain scholars and was also greatly impacted by some of their teachings. His first encounter with Jain rituals was when he saw a Jain shravika named Champa's procession after a six-month



long fast. Impressed by her power and devotion, he invited her guru or spiritual teacher Acharya Hiravijaya Suri to Fatehpur Sikri. Acharya accepted the invitation and began his march towards the Mughal capital from Gujarat.<sup>[139]</sup>

Akbar was impressed by the scholastic qualities and character of the Acharya. He held several debates and discussions on religion and philosophy in his courts. Arguing with Jains, Akbar remained sceptical of their atheistic views on God and creation, and yet became convinced by their philosophy of non-violence and vegetarianism and ended up deploring the eating of all flesh.<sup>[140]</sup> Akbar also issued many imperial orders that were favorable for Jain interests, such as banning animal slaughter.<sup>[141]</sup> Jain authors also wrote about their experience at the Mughal court in Sanskrit texts that are still largely unknown to Mughal historians.<sup>[142]</sup>

The Indian Supreme Court has cited examples of co-existence of Jain and Mughal architecture, calling Akbar "the architect of modern India" and that "he had great respect" for Jainism. In 1592, 1584 and 1598, Akbar had declared "Amari Ghosana", which prohibited animal slaughter during Paryushan and Mahavir Jayanti. He removed the Jazia tax from Jain pilgrim places like Palitana.<sup>[143]</sup> Santichandra, disciple of Suri, was sent to the Emperor, who in turn left his disciples Bhanuchandra and Siddhichandra in the court. Akbar again invited Hiravijaya Suri's successor Vijayasena Suri in his court who visited him between 1593 to 1595.

Akbar's religious tolerance was not followed by his son Jahangir, who even threatened Akbar's former friend Bhanuchandra.<sup>[144]</sup>

## **HISTORICAL ACCOUNTS**

### **PERSONALITY**

Akbar's reign was chronicled extensively by his court historian Abul Fazal in the books *Akbarnama* and *Ain-i-akbari*. Other contemporary sources of Akbar's reign include the works of Badayuni, Shaikhzada Rashidi and Shaikh Ahmed Sirhindi.

Akbar was an artisan, warrior, artist, armourer, blacksmith, carpenter, emperor, general, inventor, animal trainer (reputedly keeping thousands of hunting cheetahs during his reign and training many himself), lacemaker, technologist and theologian.<sup>[145]</sup>



Akbar was said to have been a wise emperor and a sound judge of character. His son and heir, Jahangir, wrote effusive praise of Akbar's character in his memoirs, and dozens of anecdotes to illustrate his virtues.<sup>[146]</sup> According to Jahangir, Akbar was "of the hue of wheat; his eyes and eyebrows were black and his complexion rather dark than fair". Antoni de Montserrat, the Catalan Jesuit who visited his court described him as follows:

"One could easily recognize even at first glance that he is King. He has broad shoulders, somewhat bandy legs well-suited for horsemanship, and a light brown complexion. He carries his head bent towards the right shoulder. His forehead is broad and open, his eyes so bright and flashing that they seem like a sea shimmering in the sunlight. His eyelashes are very long. His eyebrows are not strongly marked. His nose is straight and small though not insignificant. His nostrils are widely open as though in derision. Between the left nostril and the upper lip there is a mole. He shaves his beard but wears a moustache. He limps in his left leg though he has never received an injury there."<sup>[147]</sup>

Akbar was not tall but powerfully built and very agile. He was also noted for various acts of courage. One such incident occurred on his way back from Malwa to Agra when Akbar was 19 years of age. Akbar rode alone in advance of his escort and was confronted by a tigress who, along with her cubs, came out from the shrubbery across his path. When the tigress charged the emperor, he was alleged to have dispatched the animal with his sword in a solitary blow. His approaching attendants found the emperor standing quietly by the side of the dead animal.<sup>[148]</sup>

Abul Fazal, and even the hostile critic Badayuni, described him as having a commanding personality. He was notable for his command in battle, and, "like Alexander of Macedon, was always ready to risk his life, regardless of political consequences". He often plunged on his horse into the flooded river during the rainy seasons and safely crossed it. He rarely indulged in cruelty and is said to have been affectionate towards his relatives. He pardoned his brother Hakim, who was a repented rebel. But on rare occasions, he dealt cruelly with offenders, such as his maternal uncle Muazzam and his foster-brother Adham Khan, who was twice defenestrated for drawing Akbar's wrath.

He is said to have been extremely moderate in his diet. *Ain-e-Akbari* mentions that during his travels and also while at home, Akbar drank water from the Ganges river, which he called 'the water of immortality'. Special people were stationed at Sorun and later Haridwar to dispatch water, in sealed jars, to wherever he was stationed.<sup>[149]</sup> According to Jahangir's memoirs, he was fond



of fruits and had little liking for meat, which he stopped eating in his later years. Akbar also once visited Vrindavan, the birthplace of Lord Krishna in the year 1570, and gave permission for four temples to be built by the Gaudiya Vaisnavas, which were Madana-mohana, Govindaji, Gopinatha and Jugal Kisore.

To defend his stance that speech arose from hearing, he carried out a language deprivation experiment, and had children raised in isolation, not allowed to be spoken to, and pointed out that as they grew older, they remained mute.<sup>[150]</sup>

## HAGIOGRAPHY

During Akbar's reign, the ongoing process of inter-religious discourse and syncretism resulted in a series of religious attributions to him in terms of positions of assimilation, doubt or uncertainty, which he either assisted himself or left unchallenged.<sup>[151]</sup> Such hagiographical accounts of Akbar traversed a wide range of denominational and sectarian spaces, including several accounts by Parsis, Jains and Jesuit missionaries, apart from contemporary accounts by Brahminical and Muslim orthodoxy.<sup>[152]</sup> Existing sects and denominations, as well as various religious figures who represented popular worship felt they had a claim to him. The diversity of these accounts is attributed to the fact that his reign resulted in the formation of a flexible centralised state accompanied by personal authority and cultural heterogeneity.<sup>[151]</sup>

## AKBARNĀMA, THE *BOOK OF AKBAR*

The Akbarnāma , which literally means *Book of Akbar*, is an official biographical account of Akbar, the third Mughal Emperor (r. 1542–1605), written in Persian. It includes vivid and detailed descriptions of his life and times.<sup>[153]</sup>

The work was commissioned by Akbar, and written by Abul Fazl, one of the *Nine Jewels* (Hindi: Navaratnas) of Akbar's royal court. It is stated that the book took seven years to be completed and the original manuscripts contained a number of paintings supporting the texts, and all the paintings represented the Mughal school of painting, and work of masters of the imperial workshop, including Basawan, whose use of portraiture in its illustrations was an innovation in Indian art.<sup>[153]</sup>

## DEATH

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On 3 October 1605, Akbar fell ill with an attack of dysentery, from which he never recovered. He is believed to have died on or about 27 October 1605, after which his body was buried at a mausoleum in Sikandra, Agra.<sup>[154]</sup>

Seventy-six years later, in 1691, a group of austere Hindu rebels known as the Jats, rebelling against the Mughal Empire robbed the gold, silver and fine carpets within the tomb, desecrated Akbar's mausoleum.<sup>[155][156]</sup>

## LEGACY

Akbar left behind a rich legacy both for the Mughal Empire as well as the Indian subcontinent in general. He firmly entrenched the authority of the Mughal empire in India and beyond, after it had been threatened by the Afghans during his father's reign,<sup>[157]</sup> establishing its military and diplomatic superiority.<sup>[158]</sup> During his reign, the nature of the state changed to a secular and liberal one, with emphasis on cultural integration. He also introduced several far-sighted social reforms, including prohibiting *sati*, legalising widow remarriage and raising the age of marriage. Folk tales revolving around him and Birbal, one of his *navratnas* are popular in India.

In *Bhavishya Purana*, a minor *Purana* that depicts the various Hindu holy days, includes a section devoted to the various dynasties which ruled India, having its oldest portion dated to 500 CE and newest to the 18th century, contains a special story focusing on Akbar, compared to the other Mughal rulers. The section called "Akbar Bahshaha Varnan" written in Sanskrit describes his birth as a "reincarnation" of a sage who self immolated himself on seeing the first Mughal ruler Babur described as the "cruel king of Mlecchas (Muslims)" and also that Akbar "was a miraculous child" and would not follow the previous "violent ways" of the Mughals.<sup>[159][160]</sup>

Citing Akbar's melding of the disparate 'fiefdoms' of India into the Mughal Empire as well as the lasting legacy of "pluralism and tolerance" that "underlies the values of the modern republic of India", Time magazine included his name in its list of top 25 world leaders.<sup>[161]</sup>

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## DECLINING ETHICAL VALUES IN INDIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

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### **Abstract**

In the pre-independence era, when few people had access to formal education and it was known that educated persons would display civilized behavior, decency, good manners and ethical conduct, on the other hand, uneducated persons would display uncivilized behavior and mostly crimes were committed by them. However, with a huge expansion of the education system, there is a marked decline in the characters, moral values. Today most of the crimes are committed by students coming out of schools and colleges and well-educated people. In most of the educational institutions, there is lack of emphasis on the concept of human development and nation building process. Their emphasis instead is on moneymaking and materialism. This has resulted in the gradual decline of values among people. It is high time to identify the major causes of declining ethical values in Indian education system. In this paper we discuss on the probable causes of ethical deterioration i.e. corruption, privatization, absence of teacher, undue political interference etc. The only way to arrest this decline is in providing value-orientation in Indian educational system. In India, it is necessary to increase ethical values, philosophical thinking, study, research and moral development in education system.

**Keywords:** Indian Education System, Ethical deterioration, Corruption



## 1. Introduction

Education is not simply imparting knowledge in a particular faculty or subject or making one fit for securing jobs or fair well in exams, but at the same time is also a training in logical thinking which helps the coming generations adjust to the ever changing environment. It also means opening the doors of the mind, cleansing the soul and realization of the self (Pabla, 2011). Education should aim at making human life better not only through economic upliftment of individual but also through social, moral and spiritual strengthening. This will not only improve human life but also realize the “higher truth” i.e. “*Tamaso Ma Jyotirgamaya*” from darkness to light.

Thus education is not only a way of earning but it also helps to develop human personality with skills, values, morals and enhancement of different attributes of man. So education is a vital means for the potentialities of a human being to emerge in a positive direction so that a man can live in society with full of dignity (Bordoloi, 2011).

Ethics is a branch of philosophy that deals with the morality; the word ethic has been derived from the Greek word ‘ethos’ which means character (Pabla, 2011). Aristotle was one of the first great philosophers to define the ethics. To him, ethics was more than a moral, religious or legal concept. To determine what is ethically good for the individual and for the society, he said, it is necessary to possess three virtues of practical wisdom: temperance, courage and justice (Pabla, 2011).

Values are the guiding principles of life that contribute to the all round development of an individual. Values also add a good quality to the life and it should also contribute to the welfare of family, the community and the nation (Pathania, 2011). Education is a tool for total



development of human, if any one aspect of human personality is ignored, it can result very adversely. Without imparting values and morals in education, human development will be incomplete. Values and morals are inbuilt in human being and Education should help in the improvement of human character and recognition of their inner purity, so the essential part of education system should emphasize the values and morals with other development. If we look at ancient education system of India, we can realize that their education system was very prosperous, value-based, and skills were developed. In ancient time, the teachers were concerned about total improvement of students which includes their intellectual level, understand their abilities, be aware of responsibilities, regards for elders, appreciation for cultural heritage, responsibility towards their fellow classmates. However, these above qualities are not seen in the present education system. Due to various changes such as modernization, industrialization, urbanization, privatization, globalization as well as influence of western culture accompanied many problems and evils in Indian society that cause declining ethical values in Indian education system (Pathania, 2011). This system has definitely increase literacy rate but not helps in creating educated persons in the society and as a result it does not produce ideal citizens in the country. The main objective of Indian students has remained how to take degree, to earn money and to be careerist without consideration of ethical values and national spirit in their life. People always criticize Indian educational system alone because it is based on the British education system which has been adopted by them, however they are Journal of Education and Practice well developing the British given economy system, judicial system, administrative system and parliament system.

Today the Indian society is bound to encounter new and perpetual problems. We see rampant corruption and decrease in ethical values,



unlawful activities, inhuman behavior and immoral consumption, which is slowly breaking the structure of Indian society, nation and the world. It is high time to identify the major causes of declining ethical values in Indian education system.

In this paper we identify the major causes of declining ethical values in Indian education system. We discuss on the probable cause of ethical deteriorations in education system i.e. corruption, privatization, absence of teacher, undue political interference etc.

## **2. Causes of ethical deterioration in Indian education system**

### *2.1 Corruption*

The major cause of ethical deterioration in education system is rapidly spreading corruption. There was a time when corruption was only in Government offices, private institutions, police stations etc. But, now a day's corruption has spread its roots in education system also. Corruption in the education sector can be defined as “the systematic use of public office for private benefit, whose impact is significant on the availability and quality of educational goods and services as a consequence on access, quality or equity in education” (Hallak and Poisson, 2001). Corruption in education can include bribes and illegal fees for admission and examination; academic fraud; withholding teacher salaries; preferential promotion and placement; charging students for “tutoring” sessions to cover the curriculum needed to pass mandatory examinations which should have been taught in the classroom; teacher absenteeism; and illegal practices in textbook procurement, meal provision, and infrastructure (Patrinos and Ruthkagia, 2007). Corruption on the based on magnitude can be differentiating between ‘grand’ and ‘petty’ corruption: Grand corruption where high-level officials and politicians involved for



example, fraud in public tendering for school construction or textbook production. It usually has a high economic impact. Whereas Illegal fees paid by parents to school to get their children admission, or to pass their exams are some of the examples of Petty corruption. However, it is usually has a limited economic impact, but it can have a severe social impact (Hallak and Poisson, 2007). The economic impact is higher when corruption involves large government purchases, but the number of people affected is much greater when corruption involves education services (Rosea and Mishler, 2010). India have IITs, IIMs, AIIMS, BITS, CSIR, Space Research and Atomic

Energy Commission that rank among the best institutes in the world and on the contrary, most of the schools in the country do not even have the minimum basic infrastructure (Singh and Purohit, 2011). In the recent times, many Indian educational institutes are under the clutches of corruption cases. According to a recent government

report two-third of India's colleges and universities are below standard (Uttara Dukkupati, 2010). Recently MRD ministry has decided to derecognize as many as "44 deemed universities" (Gupta and Gupta, 2012). In this deemed university status swindle, the status was granted with a massive violation of the University Grant Commission rules. After the investigation of the 130 deemed universities status, 44 had abysmal academic and physical infrastructure and are example of nepotism type of corruption.

## ***2.2 Privatization of educational institutes***

Privatization of educational institutes is another major cause for the declining ethical values in education system. Privatization of education has emerged in several forms in the recent decade in India. Government allowed to opens self-financing private institutions with



recognition, which may be termed as commercial private education institutions (Singh and Purohit, 2011). With the mushrooming of these private institutes in the modern era, the education has acquired the status of a marketable commodity, where educational institutes are the traders and students are the customers (Garg and Kaur, 2012). These institutions started courses on any discipline without basic infrastructure and qualified teaching faculties. They are appointing those teachers that are low salaried and far away from the standards. In this environment, teachers do not have any Job security, so that they always do as management desire and they are morally down in the dumps. Most of these teachers do not teach properly and when the exams are near, question papers are arranged for students. Many times teachers help students in examinations through unlawful, unethical manners. Teachers who indulge in unethical practices are arguably unfit for teaching values such as civic education, moral values, honesty and integrity (Hallak and Poisson, 2005).

The uncontrolled growth of private education especially in engineering, medical, dental, nursing and management disciplines created a huge unwaged youth and the professional degrees are made into a commodity and are being sold (Singh and Purohit, 2011). Due to the mechanical and pragmatic process the private institutes are unable to produce a complete 'human capital' with ethical standards. In contrary every year they producing thousands of money minded machines and India have the world's largest number of unskilled, untrained and unpaid professionals (Garg and Kaur, 2012). This kind of ethical deterioration not only has economic impact but it also has a severe social impact on society.



### **2.3 Teachers' absenteeism**

Teachers are the role models of students and in most rural communities, they are the most educated and Journal of Education and Practice respected personality. Teachers are the spreader of knowledge who helps developing pupils' understanding, attitudes, skills, learning, and core values (Patrinos and Ruthkagia, 2007). While simultaneously those teachers are mostly absent from classes providing negative role models for students. Education is now in the grasp of corruption because of high rate of teacher absenteeism. The UNESCO's International Institute of Educational Planning study on corruption in education state that there is 25% teacher absenteeism in India which is among the highest in the world. In Bihar two of every five teachers were reported absent, the figure in UP was reported to be one-third of the total teachers. Ghost Teacher does not just affect quality of education but it is also a huge drain on resources resulting in the wastage of 22.5% of education funds of India (Hallak, and Poisson, 2005).

Teacher absenteeism is one of the most serious causes of ethical declining of education. It greatly reduces the overall effectiveness of the school, diminishes pupils' achievements, damages the school's reputation, and induces pupil absenteeism (Bray, 2003).

### **2.4 Political Interference**

There was a time when an entire generation of dedicated teachers was presents in India, who was motivated by ideals and principles that were embedded in the social value system. The number of such teachers has substantially declined. Political interference is considered one of the most important causes for the declining ethical values in education system of India. The policy relating to recruitment, promotion and



transfer of teachers in the education system are yet not formed in many states and thus the human resource management in education is not well organized in India. The political interference is largely responsible for misuse of human resource management in education. Political parties often use many teachers as their party workers and these teachers also participate willingly in politics. Those teachers who are very close to political leaders have records of misconduct and unethical behavior such as irregularity in class teaching, becoming absent from the school without taking leave. Political leaders, high-level bureaucrats and members of the teacher unions also attempt to influence decision-making regarding the recruitment and transfer of teachers. Favoritism, nepotism and bribes are major types of misconduct in teacher's appointment, posting and transfer. So the moral and ethical commitment of teachers has gradually decreased over the years due to political interference (Nuland and Khandelwal, 2001).

### ***2.5 Lack of value education in curriculum***

In ancient India, the Vedas, the Upanishads, the epics manifested and upheld the values of Indian society. Imparting value education was the main aim of the teachers of the ancient age (Pathania, 2011). The family system in India has a long tradition right from the ancient practice of the Gurukul system. In the ancient time people lived in compound families and elder taught stories to child at home that develops moral values and after that in Gurukul they also primarily taught value education. Therefore, ancient time value education begins at home and it has continued in schools. However, with modern developments and a fast changing role of the parents, it has not been very easy for the parents to impart relevant values in their wards. Today people mostly live in nuclear families and parents are involved in their jobs and they cannot sprout values at home. Present School curriculum lack emphasize on value education. At present value



education is not started at home nor taught at schools in India. Although value education is included in the primary education curriculum but at the adolescent or adult stage, which are the most sensitive stages to build the character of the youth, the curriculum finds no space to value education. However the present curriculum makes them perfect money makers, the best politicians, the well-known doctors, the skillful engineers, the greatest musicians, the marvelous actors but fails to make them realize a bit to their identity as human beings (Bala Harish, 2011).

### **3. Discussion**

The present education system seems like factories which is producing many literate persons but they are unsuccessful in the struggle of life. In present scenario, education means how to earn money or job and the aspect of values and morals is completely neglected. This attitude has increased many perpetual problems in Indian education system. Today most of the unsocial activities are being committed by well-educated new generation. The relationship between teacher and student lack confidence towards each other. Students lack humanitarian attitude towards other persons, family, society and the nation. Thus, there is greater urgency to think about ancient education system in India.

At present, almost all countries of the modern world are competing in almost every sector: political, economic, military and cultural. All countries well realize that one of the most important aids in this competition is education, so these countries have become more actively involved in organizing, supervising, encouraging and controlling education.(Wisadavet, 2003).

After independence many commission, committee, policies were setup to improve Indian education system, but the improvement is not



satisfactory because the curriculum is based on social and intellectual dimension of education and less weightage is given to values and morals. So the impact of Indian education is not fulfilling its desired needs and aspirations. Indian Students are self-centered and their prime target is job security at the first Journal of Education and Practice opportunity in the present time. They have scant respect to the sacrifice of Indian freedom fighters; disobey their teachers, never sensitive to social and cultural heritage etc. Students are not compromising in life's responsibility as they found themselves helpless in life's testing circumstances. The student's knowledge seems to be memorized and sharp but their skills, values, morals and spirituality developments are limited in present education system.

If the present education system is allowed to continue, it will fast result in suspicious teacher student relationship, increase violence in the society, corruption, crimes, disrespect of the parents, the fabric of joint family will be torn thereby result in nuclear families, the sacred institution of marriage is gradually diminishing and which will fast result in live in relationship. Everybody wants to be literate, but no one is thinking about excellence.

Our education system has currishly grown in areas like technology sector. In this sector, Indians have proved themselves but in real life, they lack some essential human character. Technical, scientific, astronomical, I.T. and other such education is essential to compete with other developed or developing nations but the element of values and moral based education is also essential so the citizens will be civilized and the country will get its past glory of rich heritage. School is the common platform for all children coming from various backgrounds.

Therefore, schools should have to conduct various value education activities that meet the rising needs of modern society (Sailaja B, 2001).



These activities should concentrate on the development of the children, young adults and teacher while focusing on areas like happiness, humanity, cooperation, honesty, simplicity, love, unity, peace etc.

#### 4. Conclusion

The declining of ethical values in education system will give rise to unskilled professionals, undisciplined students. This trend needs to be addressed if India has to survive as a nation and acquire its due place in the world. Corruption, privatization, absence of teacher, undue political interference is the probable causes of ethical deterioration of Indian education system. The only way to arrest this deterioration is to provide value-orientation in Indian educational system. Thus there is an urgent need to re-introduce value based education in the curriculum dealing specifically with human values, to redesign the fabric of Indian educational system. In India, it is necessary to increase ethical values, philosophical thinking, study, research and moral development in education system.

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## WOMEN AND SOCIAL CHANGE IN MODERN INDIA

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The most important analyses of women in Indian society have explored women's position in several ways. Indian women have been analyzed as symbols of status and prestige, whose seclusion and supervision are basic to the maintenance of family purity and reputation.<sup>1</sup> They have been analyzed as objects of exchange-the giving of a daughter in marriage is "the crucial ranked transaction in which girls lower in status were given to men higher in status."<sup>2</sup> They have been analyzed as economic goods, as productive capital assets, or as luxury goods, and this analysis has helped to explain different female mortality rates at various ages by the economic value of women at those ages.<sup>3</sup> Central to these analyses is the fact that the control of women at all stages of their life cycle was essential to the continuation of traditional family and caste patterns.

The Hindu caste system depended upon the maintenance of relationships between hierarchically ranked castes. Caste endogamy, or marriage within one's own caste, was enforced through the control of marriages by families and particularly through the control of women. Thus, while women in India have been shown to be highly idealized, they have been systematically subordinated. In the past, the reasons for their subordination were very explicit, strongly enforced by religious and secular authorities, and most strongly enforced by the social units of caste and family.



Changes in the social order in modern India, particularly with respect to women, are far more complex than nationalist historians suggest. Studies of women in the classical texts, or surveys of contemporary attitudes and behavior, have given no reliable guides to change over time. Most scholars have treated the changing position of Indian women as a matter of intellectual or political history. It is true that social reform debate in late nineteenth-century India centered upon improvements in the position of women. Accepting the contemporary British administrative and missionary evaluations of the progress of civilizations according to the position of women, Indian men confronted their dilemma, put thus by a Bengali social reformer: "Indian women are the fishbone sticking in our throat; we cannot swallow them and we cannot get them out."<sup>4</sup> Many reforms were instituted to benefit women: the eradication of the practice of *sati* (burning a widow with her husband's body); the raising of the legal age for marriage and sexual intercourse; the sanctioning of widow remarriage; the education of women. Western-educated social reformers helped develop the vernacular languages, using the spoken rather than the classical dialects, at least partly in an effort to reach female readers. Special vernacular literatures for women were developed in this way. But such literary and reform activities were led by men, and men principally engaged in them until the twentieth century. Nonetheless, though more radical reforms like widow remarriage made little headway, the growth of education for women, coupled with a rising age at marriage, had major and irreversible effects upon women and upon Indian social institutions.

Social and political reforms also brought women into new spheres of public life. The nationalist movement included political reforms such as the vote for women and involved women as participants, especially under Gandhi's leadership.<sup>5</sup> Women gained equal rights in the constitution of independent India. Thus the legal



system and the political and social goals of the new nation provided a context in which some women could take advantage of new opportunities, and Indian women have achieved higher rates of participation in several public and professional areas than women in the United states.

Sometimes the values sanctioning the increased participation of women in public life were traditional ones, as in the professions of medicine and higher education. In the first case, the treatment of Indian women by male physicians posed cultural problems, and female physicians filled a real need. Most women specialized in midwifery and gynaecology, and patients preferred married female physicians to unmarried ones. There was also family pressure for daughters to become doctors rather than nurses, for nursing was initially associated with polluting tasks and with Christian or Anglo-Indian practitioners, and, of course, a doctor's career was both prestigious and lucrative. Missionaries and the Indian government not only encouraged female medical students through the creation of separate schools and the provision of financial support, they also provided secure employment,<sup>6</sup> so that Indian female doctors avoided the entrepreneurial activities associated with private medical practice.<sup>7</sup> In the case of higher education, emphasis on the seclusion and purity of women necessitated the development of separate educational institutions and female faculties for female students and thus contributed to the high proportion of female academics in India today.<sup>8</sup>

Despite an improvement in the position of women in modern Indian society, evidenced by general patterns such as those above, it is hard to measure the extent to which women actually control their lives. That is the goal, however distant, against which any progress toward women's liberation must be measured, and that kind of change, in India, must be measured at the levels of family and caste. Social relations institutionalized at these levels most directly affect individual



women. Whether one should analyze women in India by caste or class may become as crucial as the question of ethnicity or race versus class for the analysis and mobilization of women in the United States. But although the present state of knowledge of women in either category in India is very superficial, the caste unit appears to be the most promising focus of investigation

Caste has been variously defined, sometimes quite broadly as a hierarchy of groups within a society, with group membership determined by birth. Even when defined this simply, caste contrasts with such social categories as class, kinship, and territorial community in the mode of recruitment of members (by birth ascription or acquired membership) and in its hierarchical aspects (castes ranked in necessary relation to others in a system). Many scholars of India prefer more detailed definitions, adding structural and cultural characteristics such as endogamy, regulations governing interdining and other social interaction, hereditary occupation, concepts of purity and pollution, and such caste-specific attributes as life cycle ceremonies, dress, and diet.<sup>9</sup>

Despite the work that has been done on family and caste in India, historical work on both institutions is far behind contemporary social science research. In addition, few scholars have focused on women. Work on the family and modernization in India has concentrated upon a possible transition from joint to nuclear family, household composition, and the life cycle of the family. The Indian family's strongly instrumental role in determining the marriages and occupations of children has led to studies of change in male occupational patterns. Studies of the transmission of property are few, and because until 1947 daughters could not inherit under most systems of Indian personal law, these studies, too, have chiefly concerned men.<sup>10</sup> But it is likely that a comparison of the characteristics of the women in those apparently similar castes would reveal sharp differences in such



variables as female age at marriage, extent and nature of education, and extent and mode of seclusion or movement outside the home. The merchant castes of Hyderabad city are a good example: the women of the Goswami, Komati, Jain, and Parsi communities contrast sharply in these and other variables, though the men share a similar class ranking and cluster of occupations. For comparative purposes, and for more accurate evaluation of a given caste's "modernity," consideration of the position of women will contribute a further and very significant set of measures.

Why family and caste history in India have remained relatively unexplored, when their potential contribution to an understanding of social change appears so obvious, is partly due to a problem of sources. It is true that the collection of basic genealogical materials is difficult. The lack of central civil or religious registration of Hindu births, marriages, and deaths does preclude family reconstitution and statistical analysis of the accuracy and on the scale of that by scholars working on family history in England, Europe, or the United States. But data can be collected on manageable caste populations from oral information and family records, and marriage networks can be reconstructed which go back to the eighteenth century. My own research data on the Kayasth caste of Hyderabad city in India includes almost four thousand individuals from the late eighteenth century to the present, divided into seven sub-castes and belonging to some three hundred patrilineages or extended families. Analyzing this mass of data, first by hand and then by computer,<sup>11</sup> the most striking changes concerned the position of women from the eighteenth to the twentieth century. The rapidly changing roles for women within the Kayasth caste have obvious implications with respect to social change for the caste as a whole and for the larger society.

In fact, the Kayasth caste has distinctive traditions and characteristics which make it a useful indicator of political and social

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change in India. An urban, literate, clerical caste, it became prominent with the establishment of the Mughal Empire in sixteenth century India. Kayasth men learned Persian and worked for the Muslim rulers, contributing numerous political, military, and literary figures to the historical record. They have been portrayed as a mediating group between Muslim rulers and Hindu subjects,<sup>12</sup> and they served the Mughals Delhi and throughout the empire. When the Mughal provincial governor of the Deccan in the early eighteenth century, Nizam-ul-Mulk, established his own independent dynasty there, some Kayasths were already in his service and more continued to migrate to the capital city of Hyderabad,<sup>13</sup> some became members of the Hyderabad nobility but most worked as record-keepers and administrators at lower levels of the bureaucracy.

These immigrant Kayasths from North India shared certain structural and cultural characteristics. Their hereditary occupation was government service and their mother tongue was Hindustani, then written in the Urdu script. In many ways, they were a typical high-ranking Hindu caste, following regulations governing marriages and social interaction patterned upon Brahminical models.<sup>14</sup> Those who settled in Hyderabad belonged to seven of the twelve sub-castes of North Indian Kayasths, and these sub-castes were themselves endogamous, with marriages traditionally arranged only within each sub-caste.

Yet the Kayasths' tradition of service with Muslim rulers earned them a reputation for adaptability and cultural eclecticism. The strong occupational and cultural identification with Muslims left its mark in both public and private etiquette and dress, even in such domestic matters as personal names and diet. And the Kayasths in Hyderabad state under the Nizam remained part of a Mughlai culture and bureaucracy well into the twentieth century, while British rule elsewhere in India changed the language and traditions of

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administration. Thus the rapid political changes in twentieth-century India-independence in 1947, the military takeover of Hyderabad state by India in 1948, and the reorganization of states in 1956 which made Hyderabad city the capital of a new Telugu-speaking state, **Andhra Pradesh**-had an unusually strong impact upon such a caste. The changes within the Kayasth caste will be of comparative interest to others working on change in Indian society and should help to pinpoint where and why significant breakdowns of social control within family and caste units occur.

The most useful in measuring change experienced and expressed by women of this caste were the following: (1) naming patterns; (2) age at marriage; **(3)** amount and kind of education; (4) employment outside the home, both before and after marriage and motherhood; (5) the ratio of never-married women to all women; (6) marriage across subcaste and caste lines; and (7) marriage in or out of birth order. While most of these variables were also significant for measuring changes experienced by men of the caste, they usually proved far more significant when applied to the women.

Naming patterns for women showed rapidly changing concepts of the place of women in the community from the late nineteenth century to the present. While men's names were recalled from the beginnings of the genealogies and were appropriate to the political context of their time, women's names could be recalled only as far back as the late nineteenth century and then they proved to be rather limited in number. Women's names were short, almost like nicknames, characteristic of the caste and often used in combination with the appropriate kinship term. All castes had normative ages for the marriages of both girls and boys, but that for girls was more uniformly enforced since family purity was threatened by delay. A boy's marriage could be delayed without such consequences, and he could also be remarried at a later age. Among the Hyderabad Kayasths, the average

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age of girls at marriage in the late nineteenth century was six, and it has moved steadily upward. The average is now about twenty and marriages of women as late as age thirty are not uncommon.<sup>15</sup> The next variable, amount and kind of education, is related to age at marriage, and shows a similarly dramatic rise. As the age at marriage rose, girls remained in their parental homes longer (though they had seldom joined their husbands before puberty in any case) and received more training there. Girls in this caste were very rarely literate in the late nineteenth century. The first to be educated were tutored at home by relatives, in their mother tongue or in the language of religious texts. The first girls' school for caste members was founded in 1931 and did not offer an academic curriculum until the 1940s; the second caste school for girls, a domestic science school, was founded in the late 1940s. By the 1950s, Hyderabad state had become part of India and the languages and system of education had changed considerably by the end of that decade, half of the Kayasth female children were in schools with regular academic curriculums, learning English and other languages useful for higher education and employment. (In contrast, Kayasth boys had been studying English in increasing numbers since the 1860s.) Since the 1970s, even the poorest families have sent their daughters through elementary school, while middle- and upper-class families send their daughters to college. And a significant percentage of the current generation of women is attaining higher academic and professional degrees.<sup>16</sup>

Employment is also closely aligned with the educational trends.<sup>25</sup> No Kayasth women worked outside the home in 1900. A very few vernacular-educated women taught in the caste schools for girls in the 1930s and 1940s. Now, of 102 teachers in the Mathur subcaste, 70 are women. In the same subcaste, there are now 6 female physicians, representing some 8 percent of all doctors in the caste. While Kayasth women work predominantly as teachers and as doctors or scientific



researchers, some are employed as radio technicians and in other miscellaneous jobs. Marriage and motherhood do not have a negative effect upon employment. In fact, the preference is for women to work after rather than before marriage, so that parental arrangement of marriages is not endangered by the association of single women with men in an occupational setting.

Although the changes outlined above demonstrate that quantifiable changes in the position of women are not necessarily related to the personal liberation of women, these and other functional and structural changes nevertheless conflict with traditional cultural concepts about women and are bringing about further changes in the position of women. Some of these changes are more directly concerned with such personal values as autonomy. Still another pattern, of "love marriages" across subcaste, caste, or community lines, can be discerned and analyzed over time. In these cases, parental control was and is defied, and such marriages have steadily increased since the nineteenth century. While a small percentage of Kayasth men always kept or married women from sub-castes other than their own, such liaisons or marriages were extremely rare for Kayasth women before the 1940s. But such marriages by Kayasth women now occur, and genealogies record husbands from Muslim, Sikh, and merchant castes. (The range of non-Kayasth wives is still wider, including also Brahmans, Australians, and Americans.)

Fertility in marriage is a potentially useful variable concerning the growth of female autonomy, because until then the records did not note children who did not survive to marriageable age, and because of inconsistent recording of children by sequential wives, correlated with measures of improved health conditions and medical services in Hyderabad city, could be used to show family limitation, and this trend might be more strongly correlated with the attributes and achievements of married women than with those of their husbands.

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One is the decline in the arrangement of multiple marriages between two families, such as the "exchange" marriage of a brother and sister to a sister and brother, perhaps even upon the same occasion.<sup>17</sup> Not only were dowries saved, but a joint marriage ceremony cut the expenses considerably. Multiple marriages also occurred between distant branches of the participating families and over several generations, and they were arranged for reasons of mutual convenience and proven congeniality between families as well as for economy. While such family-oriented reasons still hold today, such patterns have almost disappeared because of the consultation with prospective individual brides and grooms concerning their marriage arrangements now.

There have also been changes in the correlation between wealth and age at marriage. This is an interesting variable for Indian society, because it seems to show changing values regarding age at marriage and sub-caste endogamy. Earlier, the poorer Kayasth families chose to continue pre-puberty marriages for their daughters at the expense of maintaining sub-caste endogamy, while families with more resources married off their daughters at a later age and were more concerned with sub-caste or caste endogamy. Now, a daughter's increasing age is a less important consideration than a "proper" alliance at all income levels, but a "proper" alliance is defined less often by sub-caste and caste affiliation and more often by occupational and income. Very recently, scattered instances of divorce, remarriage, and inheritance by daughters within the caste indicate that these matters will be important measures of personal autonomy for women. These cases show women obtaining legal and economic support to assert their independence, in marked contrast to earlier cases of degradation or forced religious conversion that followed upon women's total dependence upon husbands and families.

The Hyderabad Kayasths demonstrates the usefulness of specific, largely structural, variables to measure change in the position

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of women within the caste and changes affecting the caste as a whole. Some of the conflicts produced cannot be resolved in traditional ways, and thus cultural assumptions concerning women in India are changing and will continue to change.<sup>18</sup> For example, the extension of kinship ties to individuals from outside one's own subcaste or caste does violence to the cultural model underlying the Bengali kinship system, which is probably the model for North Indian (and therefore Kayasth) kinship as well. The concepts of shared and exchanged physical and moral (substance and code) relationships which integrate kinsmen in that system obviously cannot persist when marriage partners are drawn from outside the circle of blood relationship or caste,<sup>19</sup> and the key position of the woman in that system, as "half-body" of her husband and the link between her family and his, must be conceived of differently. But cultural or cognitive analysis of changing family and caste patterns must build upon careful studies of structural change in these units. The variables concerning women appear to give the most promising index for the measurement of such change; they certainly enhance our understanding of the changing opportunities for women in modern India.

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## REFORMING EDUCATIONAL POLICIES, AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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### Abstract

To understand the extent to which the globalization of trade and finance is contribution to the wealth gap; be able to critically evaluate the role of science and technology in the resolution of environmental and sustainable development issues. To understand the variety of ways in which individuals and groups can actively participate in the promotion of sustainable development and the implications of this has for the social and economic operation of communities to able to justify their own views and positions on ethical issues related to sustainable development. To understand the range of causal factors involved in reduction of global biodiversity and recognise the principles underlying good practice in biodiversity maintenance or creation, be familiar with arguments for and trends in globalization and localization in economic activity in relation to the needs for a sustainable economy. This present research paper is endeavour to present the Reforming educational policies and it is sustainable development.

**Key Words:** Sustainable Development, Educational Policies, Dynamic factors, Professional Development, Educational environment.

### Statement Of The Problem

*"The great aim of Education is not knowledge but action."*

**Herbert Spencer**

A familiar English Philosopher & Educationist

In the present day is the single most important way for individuals to improve personal contribution, build capacity levels, and enlarge their available set of opportunities and choices for a sustainable development.



Education is important not merely as means to other ends, but it is an attribute that the valued in itself, by most individuals. It is a priority for countries seeking to develop and sustain their level and pace of development. The rationale for the effective inclusion and integration of educational policies and globalization for sustainable-development. Education has long been recognized as a key instrument for achieving participative citizenship for sustainable-development, policies that support practical educational change in this regard required. There is an emerging consensus amongst public, government and business on the need to move with some urgency towards more sustainable lifestyles in future generations are to enjoy quality of life. All people are directly affected by sustainable development issues.

In the present day is the single most important way for individuals to improve personal contribution, build capacity levels, and enlarge their available set of opportunities and choices for a sustainable development. Education is important not merely as means to other ends, but it is an attribute that the valued in itself, by most individuals. It is a priority for countries seeking to develop and sustain their level and pace of development. The rationale for the effective inclusion and integration of educational policies and globalization for sustainable-development. Education has long been recognized as a key instrument for achieving participative citizenship for sustainable-development, policies that support practical educational change in this regard required. There is an emerging consensus amongst public, government and business on the need to move with some urgency towards more sustainable lifestyles in future generations are to enjoy quality of life. All people are directly affected by sustainable development issues.

Sustainable development concerns a wide range of unified issues which is related to the following seven criterion.

To understand the extent to which the globalization of trade and finance is contribution to the wealth gap; be able to critically evaluate the role of science and technology in the resolution of environmental and sustainable development issues. To understand the variety of ways in which



individuals and groups can actively participate in the promotion of sustainable development and the implications of this has for the social and economic operation of communities to able to justify their own views and positions on ethical issues related to sustainable development. To understand the range of causal factors involved in reduction of global biodiversity and recognise the principles underlying good practice in biodiversity maintenance or creation, be familiar with arguments for and trends in globalization and localization in economic activity in relation to the needs for a sustainable economy.

### **Concepts of Sustainable Development**

Thus Sustainable Development can be defined as that which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations as meet their own needs.

In India educational policy is framed at three levels of education. The plans of monitoring of a special program introduced a few years back on providing primary education for those who missed the formal enrolment and continue supply of books to the students. For this following policies are adopted. To involve district officials school committees and the community at large to ensure an improved school environment that meets pupils' needs. To mobilize competent teachers for counseling in the selected districts.

The main focus on secondary school education is on expanding enrolment with improving the curricula as well as implementing projects in health education, prevention and awareness of HIV/AIDS and improving the school environment.

The universities as a institutions of higher learning have been some affirmative initiatives to address the gender inequity especially in students enrolment. In India University Grants Commission set up under UGC Act 1956 is responsible for coordination, determination, and maintenance of standards and release of grants to universities and research organisations. Professional councils those are responsible for recognition of courses, promotion of professional institutions and provision of grants to undergraduate programmes. As of today the universities of India can be

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classified in various categories like Central Universities. Private Universities, Agricultural Universities. Institutes of National Importance and Open Universities. Only the central or State Government can open a new university and that too by legislation in the Parliament or State. Universities are empowered to award their own degrees and take affiliate colleges. UGC is empowered under its Act to grant institutes of excellence 'Deemed University' status which they have done in some cases.

### **Challenges before Educational Policies for Sustainable Development**

Ideally and materially education for sustainable development revolves around the quality of basic and professional education that is essentially determined by curriculum relevance, liberation oriented pedagogy, teacher's development dynamism and the practice of wide participatory democratic school governance. Let us discuss these variables. Curriculum is one of the main input for quality education whereby emphasis is supposed to be given on local cultural environment. Education is linked to production in the sense that the activities of learning leads to preparation of products which have intrinsic values. As was the case in traditional informal education systems, one learnt as (he) grew up and again one learnt as one produced.

Teachers' quality both in terms of professional excellence and social behaviour greatly influence the education outcome. This makes the professional development of teachers. It is expected to give them induction courses on critical issues. so as to enable them adopt to changing students' characteristics, changing nature of teaching and social expectations of teaching in the light of fast pace of the growth of knowledge. The efforts have been taken to establish and develop teachers. The policy makers are hard to engage development partners in assisting in meeting such needs in schools.

In order to evaluate performance of an institution in the light of sustainable development and being about a measure of accountability a mechanism of accreditation has been developed by UGC. This is an autonomous council under UGC called National Accreditation and



Assessment Council with a purpose to carry out periodic assessment of universities and colleges. NAAC has evolved a methodology of assessment which involves self-appraisal by each university and college and an assessment of the performance by an expert committee. Similarly, for technical education AICTE has been established its own accreditation mechanism for its institutions through the National Board of Accreditation. NBA has also undertaken a detailed exercise for benchmarking the performance of reference for evaluation. Both NAAC and NBA are in the right direction and need to be encouraged and strengthened.

Educational institutions have been trying their best for providing education for sustainable development. Yet, there are Obstacles and problems that have to be tackled in this area. These include: Inadequate capacity to support and provide learning about sustainable development. This goes together with lack of competent teachers (quality of teachers); lack and shortage of teaching tools; low quality of instructional materials and inadequacy of infrastructures. The agenda of sustainable development needs skilled practitioners and professionals from all walks, of life. These roles place demands on human resources, and require, action by teaching institutions to improve the understanding and skills of educators. Sustainable development is all too classified sector-wise both by separating responsibility for its components, or by making it the sole concern of a specialized unit or person. There is a contention that establishing units as centers of expertise/excellence will help in capacity building and ensure efficiency and efficacy but unless used properly, they may lead others to feeling that they have no responsibilities for sustainable development in their organizations or communities.

### **A Way of Forward for the Future**

There should be deliberate efforts of encouraging private agencies to participate in the provision of education, to establish and manage schools and other education institution at all levels where curriculums are reoriented to address the need more-sustainable production and consumption patterns. The government needs to reexamine curriculum at all levels Emphasizing the provision of education that is locally relevant and culturally appropriate, reflecting the environmental, economic, and social conditions of the targeted community through improved teacher



management and. use of appropriate performance and assessment strategies.

Identification of critical priority areas for the purpose of creating and enabling environment for private agencies to participate in provision of quality education. Nations should share knowledge and innovative technologies to achieve the goal of sustainability in development. Broadening of the financial base for education and training, through more effective control of government spending, cost sharing and liberalization strategies. Reorganization of the management structure of education by placing more authority and responsibility on schools and local communities. Strengthening the integration of formal and non-formal education relationship by strengthening coordination.

Application of global practices needs comprehensive policy directions with strategies for sustainable development issue particularly of education and literacy with the prime objective of efficient management and implementation. Provision of well planned exercise for addressing to the issue of social learning, integrated with contextualized literacy is the need of today. In this context, there is a need to intervene the formulation of policy within a framework, keeping in view the following thrust issues.

- Understanding social deprived opportunities.
- Strengthening institutions.
- Strengthening organization for education
- Building managerial capacities
- Increasing finances for sustained learning opportunities

The policy has to be translated as per the situation and geographical demarcations of a particular village. Education of a remote area located in the plains has to be different from that placed in difficult terrains or near coastal areas. Organization of education has to be made specific to the local conditions. Contextualizing of education becomes more crucial since one will find difference in everything; local topography, demography, environment, climate, culture, occupation, migratory trends, society composition (children, age-group old people), the level of education of people and resources available.



The step towards identification of people interested in carrying out community development programmes to give a 'feel' of small communities as an integral part of a larger global community.

If cities, in the global age, are to address the twin tasks of urban regeneration and social inclusion, they will require a drastic change in learning. This calls for developing capabilities for people to become active participants in remaking the communities in which they live and work. It is now clear that 'a new education' is emerging for a new age. Now the new forms of governance are taking an active role in enhancing the awareness of communities. The government and non-governmental organisations alone with the international aid to education are forming new partnerships that can develop capabilities of communities. There have been several drives to help people to recognize each other as citizens who share a common status and equal rights and to express comprehensive themselves in the public spheres. It is the education sustainable development issue particularly of education system, which has a vital role to play in moving the society to such a culture of learning, which definitely is a viable instrument in renewing and development of sustainable development.

### **Summing up**

One could say that no individual, community and nation can survive in isolation from rest of the world. The contemporary era demands everyone to consider one umbrella "Globalization" with incorporate of a wide range of educational, social and welfare programmes as per the policies. The purpose of which is improvement of quality of life and sharpening life skills for sustainable development. Otherwise the entire race will recede into the darkness of ignorance. We need new processes, less oriented to instruction and more oriented to action for sustainability. This entails assurance for economic and social development for mankind, leading to improved quality of life, also benefiting the generation to come, thus making citizen to contribute for sustainable development of a nation and its future generation.

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***Related Web Sites and Internet Resources***

[http:// www.pdkintl.org/kappan/kbru9905.htm](http://www.pdkintl.org/kappan/kbru9905.htm)  
<http://www.ntlf.com/html/liblbib/92-2dig.htm>  
<https://www.educationalpolicies.in>  
<https://www.sustainabledevelopmentofeducation.co.in>



## CONTENT ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEXT BOOKS BY TEACHERS AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL IN UTTAR PRADESH

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### **Abstract:**

Senior secondary school teachers of social sciences were required to make content analysis of the text books they use by means of a questionnaire. The items in the questionnaire were related to Geography, History, Political Science and Economics textbooks and curriculum. It covered all aspects of curriculum. The results were found in terms of the percentage of frequency of responses. Findings of the study have been presented. The conclusion has been given based on the findings.

Key words: Social studies curriculum, senior secondary school education, text books, syllabus.

### **I. Introduction:**

Social Studies text books occupy an important place in the senior secondary school curriculum. At senior secondary school level, the subjects included in the social studies text books are Geography, History, Political Science and Economics. Students willingly choose subjects at this level. The study aims to analyze the contents of the text book in terms of the difficulty level, language used, level of standard when compared to other countries, its effectiveness in developing curiosity among students, strengthening democratic values among students and arousing interest in social work activities for XI and XII students of social studies. It is based on the information collected by means of questionnaires from the senior secondary school teachers regarding their social studies text books. In the end findings are presented.

### **II. Objectives of the study:**

- (i) To analyze the textbooks of Geography, History, Political Science and Economics for students of classes XI and XII in Uttar Pradesh
- (ii) To suggest measures for improvement in the syllabus and text books based on the findings of the study.

### **III. Methodology of the study:**

The study is based on the data collected from English medium schools following CBSE curriculum from Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Lucknow, and Bareilly. The



total respondents were 150 teachers each teaching History, Geography, Political Science and Economics. They were given questionnaires which contained items related to social science text books. The items covered different aspects of syllabus in the text books of Geography, History, Political Science and Economics. Analysis of data was done based on the percentage of responses. Then finally the findings regarding the social science text books are given.

#### IV. Given below are the responses of Social Science (History, Geography, Political Science and Economics) teachers of class XI-XII towards the statements given in Questionnaire about their respective curriculum.

(1) The curriculum is

| Teachers' response towards | Easy                  |                  | Difficult             |                  | Apt                   |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 37                    | 24.667           | 17                    | 11.333           | 96                    | 64.000           |
| Geography                  | 43                    | 28.667           | 20                    | 13.333           | 87                    | 58.000           |
| Political Science          | 17                    | 11.333           | 48                    | 32.000           | 85                    | 56.667           |
| Economics                  | 12                    | 08.000           | 64                    | 42.667           | 74                    | 49.333           |
| Total                      | 109                   | 18.166           | 149                   | 24.833           | 342                   | 57.000           |

(2) Subject matter in the textbooks is

| Teachers' response towards | Interesting           |                  | Not very interesting  |                  | Boring                |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 118                   | 78.667           | 21                    | 14.000           | 11                    | 7.333            |
| Geography                  | 128                   | 85.333           | 15                    | 10.000           | 07                    | 4.667            |
| Political Science          | 103                   | 68.667           | 40                    | 26.667           | 07                    | 4.667            |
| Economics                  | 103                   | 68.667           | 44                    | 29.333           | 03                    | 2.000            |
| Total                      | 452                   | 75.333           | 120                   | 20.000           | 28                    | 4.666            |

(3) New course when compared with the old course is:

| Teachers' response towards | Entirely different    |                  | Not much different    |                  | Not at all different  |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 63                    | 42.000           | 79                    | 52.667           | 08                    | 5.333            |
| Geography                  | 41                    | 27.333           | 101                   | 67.333           | 08                    | 5.333            |
| Political Science          | 39                    | 26.000           | 106                   | 70.667           | 05                    | 3.333            |
| Economics                  | 39                    | 26.000           | 105                   | 70.000           | 06                    | 4.000            |
| Total                      | 182                   | 30.333           | 391                   | 65.166           | 27                    | 4.500            |



(4) Your textbooks are:

| Teachers' response towards | Lengthy               |                  | Short                 |                  | Appropriate           |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 69                    | 46.000           | 03                    | 2.000            | 78                    | 52.000           |
| Geography                  | 72                    | 48.000           | 04                    | 2.667            | 74                    | 49.333           |
| Political Science          | 75                    | 50.000           | 04                    | 2.667            | 71                    | 47.333           |
| Economics                  | 41                    | 27.333           | 02                    | 1.333            | 107                   | 71.333           |
| Total                      | 257                   | 42.833           | 13                    | 2.166            | 330                   | 55.000           |

(5) The new curriculum is

| Teachers' response towards | Wide & comprehensive  |                  | Narrow & limited      |                  | Heavy & burdensome    |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| Geography                  | 103                   | 68.667           | 05                    | 3.333            | 42                    | 28.000           |
| History                    | 112                   | 74.667           | 03                    | 2.000            | 35                    | 23.333           |
| Political Science          | 126                   | 84.000           | 03                    | 2.000            | 21                    | 14.000           |
| Economics                  | 103                   | 68.667           | 07                    | 4.667            | 40                    | 26.667           |
| Total                      | 444                   | 74.000           | 18                    | 03.000           | 138                   | 23.000           |

(6) The new curriculum is

| Teachers' response towards | Flexible              |                  | Rigid                 |                  | Dynamic               |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 103                   | 68.667           | 38                    | 25.333           | 09                    | 6.000            |
| Geography                  | 115                   | 76.667           | 15                    | 10.000           | 20                    | 13.333           |
| Political Science          | 107                   | 71.333           | 34                    | 22.667           | 09                    | 6.000            |
| Economics                  | 121                   | 80.667           | 15                    | 10.000           | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Total                      | 446                   | 74.333           | 102                   | 17.000           | 52                    | 08.666           |

(7) New course when compared with old course is:

| Teachers' response towards | More difficult        |                  | Less difficult        |                  | Of the same difficulty level |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response        | %age of response |
| History                    | 20                    | 13.333           | 84                    | 56.000           | 46                           | 30.667           |
| Geography                  | 81                    | 54.000           | 06                    | 4.000            | 63                           | 42.000           |
| Political Science          | 91                    | 60.667           | 25                    | 16.667           | 34                           | 22.667           |
| Economics                  | 71                    | 47.333           | 48                    | 32.000           | 31                           | 20.667           |
| Total                      | 263                   | 43.833           | 163                   | 27.166           | 174                          | 29.000           |



(8) The curriculum is integrated with Information Technology

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 05                    | 3.333            | 117                   | 78.000           | 28                    | 18.667           |
| Geography                  | 19                    | 12.667           | 100                   | 66.667           | 31                    | 20.667           |
| Political Science          | 07                    | 4.667            | 108                   | 72.000           | 35                    | 23.333           |
| Economics                  | 08                    | 5.333            | 128                   | 85.333           | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Total                      | 39                    | 06.500           | 453                   | 75.500           | 108                   | 18.000           |

(9) The curriculum is mutually correlated with different disciplines of Social Sciences.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 61                    | 40.667           | 78                    | 52.000           | 11                    | 7.333            |
| Geography                  | 84                    | 56.000           | 63                    | 42.000           | 03                    | 2.000            |
| Political Science          | 75                    | 50.000           | 63                    | 42.000           | 12                    | 8.000            |
| Economics                  | 74                    | 49.333           | 55                    | 36.666           | 21                    | 14.000           |
| Total                      | 294                   | 49.000           | 259                   | 43.166           | 47                    | 07.833           |

(10) Textbooks provide you with sufficient material on the subject.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 65                    | 43.333           | 73                    | 48.667           | 12                    | 8.000            |
| Geography                  | 103                   | 68.667           | 38                    | 25.333           | 09                    | 6.000            |
| Political Science          | 84                    | 56.000           | 55                    | 36.667           | 11                    | 7.333            |
| Economics                  | 85                    | 56.667           | 32                    | 21.333           | 33                    | 22.000           |
| Total                      | 337                   | 56.166           | 198                   | 33.000           | 65                    | 10.833           |

(11) Time frame of the school/college is sufficient enough to cover the course content.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 71                    | 47.333           | 63                    | 42.000           | 16                    | 10.667           |
| Geography                  | 65                    | 43.333           | 64                    | 42.667           | 21                    | 14.000           |
| Political Science          | 76                    | 50.667           | 68                    | 45.333           | 06                    | 4.000            |
| Economics                  | 64                    | 42.667           | 70                    | 46.667           | 16                    | 10.667           |
| Total                      | 276                   | 46.000           | 265                   | 44.166           | 59                    | 09.833           |



- (12) The new curriculum is better than the previous curriculum in providing social competence in students.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 74                    | 49.333           | 39                    | 26.000           | 37                    | 24.667           |
| Geography                  | 40                    | 26.667           | 78                    | 52.000           | 32                    | 21.333           |
| Political Science          | 64                    | 42.667           | 72                    | 48.000           | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Economics                  | 73                    | 48.667           | 61                    | 40.667           | 16                    | 10.667           |
| Total                      | 251                   | 41.833           | 250                   | 41.666           | 99                    | 16.500           |

- (13) It is related to community living.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 94                    | 62.667           | 43                    | 28.667           | 13                    | 8.667            |
| Geography                  | 77                    | 51.333           | 55                    | 36.667           | 18                    | 12.000           |
| Political Science          | 69                    | 46.000           | 71                    | 47.333           | 10                    | 6.667            |
| Economics                  | 87                    | 58.000           | 39                    | 26.000           | 24                    | 16.000           |
| Total                      | 327                   | 54.5             | 208                   | 34.666           | 65                    | 10.833           |

- (14) The curriculum is sufficient enough to develop the necessary aptitude and skills required at senior secondary school level.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 68                    | 45.333           | 65                    | 43.333           | 17                    | 11.333           |
| Geography                  | 114                   | 76.000           | 17                    | 11.333           | 19                    | 12.667           |
| Political Science          | 113                   | 75.333           | 28                    | 18.667           | 09                    | 6.000            |
| Economics                  | 118                   | 78.667           | 11                    | 7.333            | 21                    | 14.000           |
| Total                      | 413                   | 68.833           | 121                   | 20.166           | 66                    | 11.000           |

- (15) Curriculum is complete in itself.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 73                    | 48.667           | 69                    | 46.000           | 08                    | 5.333            |
| Geography                  | 124                   | 82.667           | 11                    | 7.333            | 15                    | 10.000           |
| Political Science          | 107                   | 71.333           | 14                    | 9.333            | 29                    | 19.333           |
| Economics                  | 124                   | 82.667           | 17                    | 11.333           | 09                    | 6.000            |
| Total                      | 428                   | 71.333           | 111                   | 18.500           | 61                    | 10.166           |



(16) Textbooks are written in lucid, simple and precise language.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 89                    | 59.333           | 45                    | 30.000           | 16                    | 10.667           |
| Geography                  | 110                   | 73.333           | 32                    | 21.333           | 08                    | 5.333            |
| Political Science          | 74                    | 49.333           | 69                    | 46.000           | 07                    | 4.667            |
| Economics                  | 76                    | 50.667           | 64                    | 42.667           | 10                    | 6.667            |
| Total                      | 349                   | 58.166           | 210                   | 35.000           | 41                    | 06.833           |

(17) The textbooks contain necessary examples, figures, graphs, maps etc.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 95                    | 63.333           | 34                    | 22.667           | 21                    | 14.000           |
| Geography                  | 84                    | 56.000           | 51                    | 34.000           | 15                    | 10.000           |
| Political Science          | 85                    | 56.667           | 51                    | 34.000           | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Economics                  | 87                    | 58.000           | 52                    | 34.667           | 11                    | 7.333            |
| Total                      | 351                   | 58.500           | 188                   | 31.333           | 61                    | 10.166           |

(18) New curriculum is sensitive to changing needs and values of the society.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 61                    | 40.667           | 78                    | 52.000           | 11                    | 7.333            |
| Geography                  | 75                    | 50.000           | 64                    | 42.667           | 11                    | 7.333            |
| Political Science          | 94                    | 62.667           | 31                    | 20.667           | 25                    | 16.667           |
| Economics                  | 113                   | 75.333           | 19                    | 12.667           | 18                    | 12.000           |
| Total                      | 343                   | 57.166           | 192                   | 32.000           | 65                    | 10.833           |

(19) The curriculum provides students with sufficient knowledge and skills required at senior secondary school level.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 64                    | 42.667           | 81                    | 54.000           | 05                    | 3.333            |
| Geography                  | 117                   | 78.000           | 23                    | 15.333           | 10                    | 6.667            |
| Political Science          | 116                   | 77.333           | 26                    | 17.333           | 08                    | 5.333            |
| Economics                  | 121                   | 80.667           | 20                    | 13.333           | 09                    | 6.000            |
| Total                      | 418                   | 69.666           | 150                   | 25.000           | 32                    | 05.333           |



- (20) It acquaints the students with attitudes and values which are necessary for healthy civic and political life.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 65                    | 43.333           | 71                    | 47.333           | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Geography                  | 115                   | 76.667           | 14                    | 9.333            | 21                    | 14.000           |
| Pol. Science               | 117                   | 78.000           | 11                    | 7.333            | 22                    | 14.667           |
| Economics                  | 114                   | 76.000           | 03                    | 2.000            | 33                    | 22.000           |
| Total                      | 411                   | 68.500           | 99                    | 16.500           | 90                    | 15.000           |

- (21) The new curriculum provides functional relationships among different Social Sciences.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 69                    | 46.000           | 73                    | 48.667           | 08                    | 5.333            |
| Geography                  | 89                    | 59.333           | 35                    | 23.333           | 26                    | 17.333           |
| Political Science          | 85                    | 56.667           | 43                    | 28.667           | 22                    | 14.667           |
| Economics                  | 69                    | 46.000           | 46                    | 30.667           | 35                    | 23.333           |
| Total                      | 312                   | 52.000           | 197                   | 32.833           | 91                    | 15.166           |

- (22) The content of the subject will enable the pupils to rise above the narrow parochial, chauvinistic and obscurantist tendencies.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 33                    | 22.000           | 81                    | 54.000           | 36                    | 24.000           |
| Geography                  | 118                   | 78.667           | 12                    | 8.000            | 20                    | 13.333           |
| Political Science          | 118                   | 78.667           | 01                    | 0.667            | 31                    | 20.667           |
| Economics                  | 134                   | 89.333           | 02                    | 1.333            | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Total                      | 403                   | 67.166           | 96                    | 16.000           | 101                   | 16.833           |

- (23) It develops an insight into various democratic processes.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 69                    | 46.000           | 65                    | 43.333           | 16                    | 10.667           |
| Geography                  | 84                    | 56.000           | 47                    | 31.333           | 19                    | 12.667           |
| Political Science          | 107                   | 71.333           | 38                    | 25.333           | 05                    | 3.333            |
| Economics                  | 72                    | 48.000           | 65                    | 43.333           | 13                    | 8.667            |
| Total                      | 332                   | 55.333           | 215                   | 35.833           | 53                    | 8.833            |



(24) All the areas of the subject are given equal importance in the new curriculum.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 48                    | 32.000           | 84                    | 56.000           | 18                    | 12.000           |

(25) The History curriculum develops critical appreciation of the past so that pupils personality is free from prejudices, parochialism and communalism.

| Teachers response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                           | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                   | 72                    | 48.000           | 68                    | 45.333           | 10                    | 6.667            |

(26) Course content of new syllabus when compared with the old syllabus is

| Teachers' response towards | More                  |                  | Less                  |                  | The same              |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 103                   | 68.667           | 01                    | 0.667            | 46                    | 30.667           |
| Geography                  | 99                    | 66.000           | 03                    | 2.000            | 48                    | 32.000           |
| Political Science          | 98                    | 65.333           | 21                    | 14.000           | 31                    | 20.667           |
| Economics                  | 82                    | 54.667           | 13                    | 8.667            | 55                    | 36.667           |
| Total                      | 382                   | 63.666           | 38                    | 06.333           | 180                   | 30.000           |

(27) Division of course into semesters for students of classes XI and XII is:

| Teachers' response towards | Beneficial            |                  | Not very beneficial   |                  | Semester pattern and annual pattern are equally good |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------------------------------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response                                | %age of response |
| History                    | 34                    | 22.667           | 103                   | 68.667           | 13                                                   | 8.667            |
| Geography                  | 31                    | 20.667           | 108                   | 72.000           | 11                                                   | 7.333            |
| Political Science          | 65                    | 43.333           | 78                    | 52.000           | 07                                                   | 4.667            |
| Economics                  | 69                    | 46.000           | 72                    | 48.000           | 09                                                   | 6.000            |
| Total                      | 199                   | 33.166           | 361                   | 60.166           | 40                                                   | 06.666           |



(28) The new framework has reduced curriculum load.

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 113                   | 75.333           | 22                    | 14.667           | 15                    | 10.000           |
| Geography                  | 18                    | 12.000           | 118                   | 78.667           | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Political Science          | 30                    | 20.000           | 103                   | 68.667           | 17                    | 11.333           |
| Economics                  | 79                    | 52.667           | 65                    | 43.333           | 06                    | 4.000            |
| Total                      | 240                   | 40.000           | 308                   | 51.333           | 52                    | 08.666           |

(29) The curriculum is experience based (i.e. it contains a series of activities and skills)

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 94                    | 62.667           | 51                    | 34.000           | 05                    | 3.333            |
| Geography                  | 135                   | 90.000           | 05                    | 3.333            | 10                    | 6.667            |
| Political Science          | 94                    | 62.667           | 41                    | 27.333           | 15                    | 10.000           |
| Economics                  | 84                    | 56.000           | 43                    | 28.667           | 23                    | 15.333           |
| Total                      | 407                   | 67.833           | 140                   | 23.333           | 53                    | 08.833           |

(30) It helps develop among students national awareness and international understanding:

| Teachers' response towards | Yes                   |                  | No                    |                  | Can't say             |                  |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
|                            | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response | Frequency of response | %age of response |
| History                    | 71                    | 47.333           | 69                    | 46.000           | 10                    | 6.667            |
| Geography                  | 117                   | 78.000           | 16                    | 10.667           | 17                    | 11.333           |
| Political Science          | 106                   | 70.667           | 26                    | 17.333           | 18                    | 12.000           |
| Economics                  | 131                   | 87.333           | 05                    | 3.333            | 14                    | 9.333            |
| Total                      | 425                   | 70.833           | 116                   | 19.333           | 59                    | 09.833           |

## V. Findings of the majority of the teachers of History, Geography, Political Science and Economics about the class XI and XII curriculum in these subjects:

1. Majority of History, Geography, Political Science and Economics teachers teaching class XI and XII found the curriculum in these subjects to be neither difficult nor apt but understandable or apt for the students.
2. According to them the subject matter in these textbooks is also interesting.



3. They said that the new course when compared with the old course was not much different.
  4. History, Geography and Economics textbooks were neither lengthy nor short but appropriate according to the teachers, but political science teachers found the textbooks to be lengthy.
  5. Teachers of all the subjects found their respective curriculum to be wide and comprehensive.
  6. They also found the new curriculum to be flexible in nature.
  7. Teachers of Geography, Political Science and Economics said that the new course was more difficult than the old course while History teachers found it to be less difficult than the old course.
  8. Teachers of all these subjects said that the curriculum is not integrated with Information Technology.
  9. Geography, Political Science and Economics teachers found their curriculum correlated with different disciplines of social sciences while History teachers said it was not so.
  10. Geography, Political Science and Economics teachers said that their textbooks provided the students sufficient matter on the subject but History teachers said that History textbooks did not provide sufficient material on the subject.
  11. According to History, Geography and Political Science teachers their course content was sufficient enough to be covered within the timeframe of the college hours, but the Economics teachers felt that course was more and could not be covered properly during college hours.
  12. Geography and Economics teachers felt that new curriculum was better than the previous curriculum in providing social competence in students, whereas History and Political Science students did not feel so.
  13. History, Geography and Economics teachers felt that their curriculum was related to community living, whereas political science teachers did not feel so.
  14. The teachers said that the curriculum in these subjects was sufficient enough to develop the necessary aptitude and skills required at senior secondary school level.
  15. The teachers also said that the curriculum in these subjects was complete in itself.
-



16. The language used in these textbooks was also found to be lucid, simple and precise by the teachers.
  17. They also said that the textbooks contained necessary examples, figures, graphs, maps etc.
  18. Geography, Political Science and Economics teachers felt that the new curriculum is sensitive to changing needs and values of the society while History teachers did not agree with this viewpoint.
  19. Except History teachers, the remaining teachers agreed that the curriculum provides the students sufficient knowledge and skills required at senior secondary school level.
  20. Except History teachers, other teachers agreed that the curriculum helps the students to acquaint them with attitudes and values necessary for healthy civic and political life.
  21. Except History teachers, all the others agreed that the new curriculum provides functional relationships among different social sciences.
  22. Again, except History teachers the others agreed that the content of the subject will enable the pupils to rise above the narrow parochial, chauvinistic and obscurantist tendencies.
  23. Teachers of all the subjects agreed that their curriculum developed an insight into various democratic processes.
  24. The History teachers felt that all the areas of the subject were not given equal importance in the new curriculum.
  25. The History teachers also felt that History curriculum developed critical appreciation of the past so that pupils' personality is free from prejudices, parochialism and communalism.
  26. The teachers also felt that the course content of the new syllabus when compared with the old syllabus is more.
  27. The teachers felt that the division of course into semesters is not very beneficial for the students.
  28. History and Economics teachers felt that the new curriculum has reduced curriculum load while Geography and Political Science teachers felt that it was not so.
  29. Teachers of all these subjects agreed that the curriculum is experience based, that is it contains a series of activities and skills.
-



30. They also agreed that the new curriculum helped to develop national awareness and international understanding among students.

#### **V. Conclusion:**

Based on the findings of content analysis by the teachers of social sciences of senior secondary classes, some changes can be brought about in the social science textbooks and curriculum that is Geography, History, Political Science and Economics textbooks prescribed for senior secondary classes in Uttar Pradesh.

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## संसदीय समितियों का तुलनात्मक अध्ययन

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### ABSTRACT (शोध सारांश)

समिति एक ऐसी संस्था है जो कि बहुत से सदस्यों की संख्या में से एक विशेष कार्य के लिए जो आपस में किसी निष्कर्ष के सुझाव देने तथा जाँच करने के लिए नियुक्त की जाती है। इस प्रकार समितियाँ विधानमण्डल के कार्यों को विभाजित करने के लिए एक बहुत ही प्रमुख अंग होती हैं। प्राचीन भारत में जब 'सभा' और 'समिति' शब्दों का प्रयोग होता था तो वह दूसरे अर्थों में था। ऋग्वेद में, जहाँ सर्वप्रथम सभा से अर्थ वृद्धों की सभा, बुद्धिमानों का समूह आदि से था। 'समिति' शब्द का प्रयोग वहाँ लोगों की आम सभा से था। ऋग्वेद के बाद अथर्ववेद में, इन्हीं अर्थों में 'सभा' और 'समिति' शब्द प्रयुक्त हुए हैं। बौद्धकाल में आज की सभापति तालिका जैसी एक व्यवस्था थी जिसे उदवाटिका सभा कहा जाता था जिसमें विभिन्न दलों के नेतागण हुआ करते थे, व जिसका उद्देश्य सभा को किसी निश्चय पर आने में मदद करना हुआ करता था। शायद तभी— से समिति शब्द का आरम्भ हुआ परन्तु यह कह पाना मुश्किल है।

#### ➤ ब्रिटेन की समिति व्यवस्था

ब्रिटेन में सर्वप्रथम समितियाँ नियुक्त किये जाने का उल्लेख, सन् 1571 में तीसरी पार्लियामेन्ट के काल में मिलता है। इसके पूर्व, विधेयकों पर 2 विभिन्न देशों की संसदीय समितियाँ 9 विचार विमर्श का कार्य किसी एक व्यक्ति द्वारा किया जाता था, जो प्रायः कोई सचिव अथवा प्रिवी काउंसलर होता था, परन्तु तीसरी पार्लियामेन्ट की समितियाँ, आज की विशिष्ट समितियों में मिलती जुलती थी, पर इन समितियों की बैठक सभा भवन से बाहर ऐसे स्थानों पर होती थी, जहाँ पर वकीलों के लिये सुविधा हो। ये ही समितियाँ आगे चलकर स्थायी समितियों में परिणत हुईं। सन् 1688 की क्रांति के बाद संसद आवश्यक व्यय को पास करने लगी। सन् 1832 में संसद ने एक कानून पास किया, जिसके द्वारा जल-सेना के अध्यक्ष के ऊपर यह उत्तरदायित्व डाला गया कि वह अपने खर्च का ब्योरा भी संसद के सामने रखे। इसके 14 वर्ष बाद सन् 1846 में एक कानून और पास हुआ, जिसके द्वारा पूरा सैनिक खर्च संसद के सामने रखना आवश्यक हो गया। इन दो कानूनों ने सैनिक खर्च पर नियंत्रण की व्यवस्था तो स्थापित की, परन्तु संसद के सामने एक कठिनाई और आई और वह यह थी कि वह कब जांच करे। सन् 1828 से 1860 तक का युग एक दूसरा प्रयोग का युग है जिसमें संसद ने इस खर्च की जांच के लिये एक छोटी समिति का निर्माण किया। इस प्रकार सन् 1828 में पहली बार व्यय की जांच के लिये समिति का गठन हुआ। सन् 1848 ई. में फिर तीन समितियों का संगठन किया गया। एक समिति, सामान्य व्यय की जांच करने लगी। दूसरी समिति, जंगल की उपज और कृषि भूमि से होने वाली आय और व्यय की जांच करने लगी। इन दोनों समितियों पर यह उत्तरदायित्व डाला गया कि वे आय-व्यय से संबंधित इन क्षेत्रों में जो सुधार हो सकता था, उसे संसद को बताएँ। दूसरा कार्य यह सौंपा गया कि ये समितियाँ वन-विभाग और कृषि विभाग की कार्य पद्धतियों में सुधार की योजना भी बनायें। तीसरी समिति जो रक्षा मामले ही देखती थी, उसका यह उत्तरदायित्व भी था कि वह व्यय के ऊपर अपनी दृष्टि रखे। विभिन्न देशों की संसदीय समितियाँ क्रियान्वयन-युद्ध ने समिति प्रणाली को एक नया रूप दिया। इस युद्ध में जो व्यय हुआ उसकी जांच करना आवश्यक था। संसद को ऐसा प्रतीत हुआ कि इस युद्ध में जो व्यय हुआ है, उसका कोई औचित्य नहीं है, इसलिये इसकी जांच आवश्यक है। सन् 1855 में जो समिति का स्वरूप निर्धारित हुआ वह एक जांच समिति का था। इस समिति व्यवस्था ने यह सिद्ध किया कि युद्ध में किया हुआ खर्च भी



जांचा जा सकता है। इसके पहले यह धारणा बन गई थी कि युद्ध खर्च इतने जटिल होते हैं कि उन्हें जांचा नहीं जा सकता। ब्रिटेन में पिछले 50 वर्षों में भी 'समिति-पद्धति' का विकास होता रहा है। सन् 1912 में पहले-पहल एक 'प्राक्कलन-समिति' का गठन किया गया तथा सन् 1913 व 1914 में उसे पुनर्गठित किया गया। सन् 1921-22 में पुनः इसे गठित किया गया। यह समिति युद्धकाल में स्थगित कर दी गई थी, व इसका कार्य एक नई समिति को सौंप दिया गया था। जिसे 'नेशनल-एक्सपेन्डीचर कमेटी' अर्थात् स्थानीय व्यय की जांच करने वाली समिति कहते थे। युद्ध समाप्त होने पर सन् 1946 के बाद से प्रत्येक वर्ष इस समिति का गठन किया जाता है। ब्रिटेन की समिति पद्धति के विकास की यह एक विशेषता है कि वहां समितियां संसदीय कार्य-प्रणाली का एक अनिवार्य अंग बन कर उदित नहीं हुईं, बल्कि वहां 'समितियों' का उदय प्रधानतया एक सुविधा के रूप में हुआ है, यही कारण है कि ब्रिटेन की समितियां अत्यधिक व्यापक है। अधीनस्थ विधान समिति सन्दर्भ : राजस्थान विधानसभा 10 11 ब्रिटिश संसदीय- समितियां दो प्रकार की होती हैं- स्थायी-समितियां (स्टैंडिंग कमेटीज) एवं प्रवर-समितियां (सिलेक्ट-कमेटीज) स्थायी-समितियां विधेयकों पर विचार करती हैं प्रत्येक विधेयक के लिये अलग से स्थायी समिति नियुक्त की जाती है। इन स्थायी समितियों का वर्णमाला के आधार पर नाम दिये जाते हैं। इसी प्रकार यदि किसी 'गैर-सरकारी सदस्यों का विधेयक' किसी स्थायी-समिति को दिया जाता है तो समिति ऐसे विधेयकों को प्राथमिकता देती है, तथा इस समय इस समिति को गैर-सरकारी सदस्यों के विधेयक संबंधी कहा जाता है। प्रायः पांच स्थायी समितियां एक ही साथ काम करती हैं, इन समितियों की नियुक्ति एक 11 सदस्यों की छोटी समिति द्वारा की जाती है, तथा इनके सभापतियों की नियुक्ति सभापति तालिका के सदस्यों में से अध्यक्ष द्वारा की जाती है। दो अन्य स्थायी समितियां भी हैं, (1) जिन्हें स्काटलैण्ड संबंधी मामलों की समिति (2) तथा वेल्स समिति कहा जाता है। इन समितियों को स्काटलैण्ड तथा वेल्स से संबंधित मामलों पर विचार करने के लिये नियुक्त किया जाता है। दूसरे प्रकार की समितियां, प्रवर अथवा विशिष्ट समितियां होती हैं जो कि स्थायी आदेशों द्वारा गठित की जाती हैं तथा कुछ सत्रीय समितियां होती हैं, जो कि हर सत्र के प्रारम्भ पर गठित की जाती हैं।

#### ➤ अमेरिका की समिति व्यवस्था

अमेरिका की शासन पद्धति अध्यक्षात्मक है। वहां के संविधान में समितियों की कोई व्यवस्था नहीं की गई है परन्तु संविधान निर्माण के साथ-साथ ही कांग्रेस के नीति निर्माण में बहुत सी कठिनाईयों का सामना करना पड़ा, बहुत अधिक विधेयक पारित होने लगे समय की कमी व तकनीकी आवश्यकता के कारण संविधान लागू होने के साथ ही दोनों सदनों में समितियों के गठन को आवश्यक माना जाने लगा। विभिन्न देशों की संसदीय समितियाँ अतः सर्वप्रथम 'समिति-प्रथा' को प्रतिनिधि- सभा में तृतीय कांग्रेस ने (1793-1795) प्रारम्भ किया गया सीनेट में सर्वप्रथम सन् 1816 में, इसका चलन प्रारम्भ हुआ। प्रारम्भ में इन स्थायी समितियों की संख्या में काफी वृद्धि हुई, तथा इनकी संख्या सीनेट में 74, तथा प्रतिनिधि सभा में 60 तक पहुंच गयी। हर्बर्ट हूवर के काल में अर्थात् सन् 1930 में इसके विपरीत समितियों की संख्या कम हो गई थी। सन् 1946 के व्यवस्थापिका पुनर्गठन नियम में स्थायी समितियों की संख्या पुनः कम कर दी गई जिसके फलस्वरूप सीनेट में 15 तथा प्रतिनिधि सभा में 19 समितियां कर दी गई तथा दोनों सदनों को यह स्वतंत्रता प्रदान कर दी गई कि वे अपनी कार्यवाही को सुचारु रूप से चलाने तथा विशिष्ट कार्यों के लिये उपसमितियों तथा विशिष्ट समितियों की स्थापना कर सकते हैं 2 है। उपर्युक्त समितियों का गठन ब्रिटेन की समितियों के आधार पर ही किया गया था, इसलिये कहा जाता है कि इन समितियों के बीज ब्रिटेन से 3 ही लाये गये हैं। अमेरिका में समितियों का गठन विषयवार होता है। सन् 1946 के व्यवस्थापिका पुनर्गठन नियम में स्थायी समितियों की संख्या पुनः कम कर दी गई जिसके फलस्वरूप सीनेट में 15 तथा प्रतिनिधि सभा में 19 समितियां कर दी गई तथा दोनों सदनों को यह स्वतंत्रता प्रदान कर दी गई कि वे अपनी कार्यवाही को सुचारु रूप से चलाने तथा विशिष्ट कार्यों के लिये उपसमितियों तथा विशिष्ट समितियों की स्थापना कर सकते हैं 2 है। उपर्युक्त समितियों का गठन ब्रिटेन की समितियों के आधार पर ही किया गया था, इसलिये कहा जाता है कि इन समितियों के बीज ब्रिटेन से 3 ही लाये गये हैं। अमेरिका में समितियों का गठन विषयवार होता है। सन् 1946 के 'व्यवस्थापिका पुनर्गठन



अधिनियम” के अनुसार प्रतिनिधि सभा तथा सीनेट की स्थायी समितियों को विशेष रूप से गठित किया गया है। अमेरिका समिति प्रणाली की एक बहुत ही बड़ी विशेषता यह भी है कि इन समितियों के बीच दृढ़ सीमा होती है। प्रत्येक समिति अपने क्षेत्र की मालिक होती है तथा अपने निर्धारित क्षेत्र में स्वतंत्रता पूर्वक कार्य करती है।

### अमेरिका समिति प्रणाली व्यवस्था - प्रमुख दोष

- प्रथम एक समिति के कार्य और दूसरी समिति के कार्य के बीच प्रायः सामंजस्य नहीं होता है,
- समितियाँ इस बात का ध्यान नहीं रखती हैं कि उसी विषय से संबंधित विषय पर जिस पर वह कार्य कर रही है, अन्य समितियाँ क्या कर रही हैं। इससे समितियों द्वारा एक ही प्रकार के विषय पर परस्पर संघर्ष, भ्रम तथा विरोध फैलने की संभावना रहती है।
- प्रमुख दोष यह है कि समितियाँ, सदन के सभी मतों का प्रतिनिधित्व नहीं करती हैं।

### ➤ कनाडा की समिति प्रणाली

कनाडा में सम्पूर्ण सदन समितियाँ सर्वाधिक महत्वपूर्ण समितियाँ मानी जाती हैं। वहाँ हाउस ऑफ रिपजेंटेटिव के कार्य-संचालन सम्बन्धी नियमों के अनुसार प्रत्येक सरकारी विधेयक पर सम्पूर्ण सदन समिति में विचार होना आवश्यक होता है। इंग्लैण्ड का अनुकरण कर कनाडा में भी “कमेटी ऑफ सप्लाइ” तथा “कमेटी ऑफ वेज एण्ड मीन्स” नियुक्त करने की परम्परा रही है। सामान्यतः ये समितियाँ धन जुटाने और उसे खर्च करने सम्बन्धी विधेयकों पर खंडवार विचार करने के लिए बनाई जाती हैं। ये समितियाँ उस समय और अधिक सक्रिय हो जाती हैं जब किसी विधान को शीघ्र पारित करने की आवश्यकता है। कनाडा में भी समिति के सदस्यों का चुनाव एक ‘स्ट्राइकिंग कमेटी’ द्वारा किया जाता है। कनाडा में भी संसदीय समिति प्रणाली है। सन् 1867 में कनाडा के महासंघ बनने के समय से ही समिति प्रणाली मौजूद है और इस समितियों का वर्तमान स्वरूप सन् 1969 में तय हुआ जब प्रक्रिया सम्बन्धी विशेष समिति की सिफारिशों को क्रियान्वित किया गया था।

### कनाडा की हाउस ऑफ कामन्स में चार प्रकार की समितियाँ हैं:-

- पूर्ण सदन की समितियाँ
- विशेष समितियाँ
- सीनेट व हाउस ऑफ कामन्स की संयुक्त समितियाँ
- स्थायी तथा विशेष

सीनेट की समिति प्रणाली लगभग हाउस ऑफ कामन्स की प्रणाली जैसी है। दोनों प्रणालियों के बीच जो भी अन्तर है वह दोनों सदनों के बीच संवैधानिक भिन्नताओं और उनके आकार में भिन्नता के कारण है। स्थायी समितियों के अतिरिक्त कुछ विशेष समितियाँ सीनेट व हाउस ऑफ कामन्स द्वारा किसी सत्र (अधिवेशन के दौरान नियुक्त की जाती हैं) इसके अतिरिक्त विशेष संयुक्त समितियाँ दोनों सदनों के संकल्पों से बनाई जाती हैं जो सदन समिति के लिए पहल करता है वह दूसरे सदन से उसके सृजन और उद्देश्य में सम्मिलित होने के लिए निवेदन करता है। ऐसी एक समिति कनाडा के बारे में गठित की गयी है।

### ➤ फ्रांस की समिति प्रणाली :

फ्रांस तथा नीदरलैण्ड के संविधानों में ही यह उल्लिखित कर दिया गया है कि वहाँ विधेयकों पर समितियों द्वारा विचार किया जाएगा। फ्रांस में समिति प्रणाली का आरम्भ राष्ट्रीय क्रान्ति के दिनों में हुआ, लेकिन उसके पहले भी 100 वर्षों तक वहाँ किसी न किसी रूप में समितियाँ थीं। सन् 1789 में फ्रांस की विधान सभा ने, स्टैंडिंग आर्डर्स बनाने के पहले ही कई समितियों को जन्म दे दिया था, जो आज की स्थायी



5 समितियों की तरह थी। प्रत्येक समिति विशिष्ट आदेश के अनुसार विशिष्ट विषय के लिए बनती थी। बाद में विधान सभा ने अध्यादेश द्वारा एकसमेकित समिति व्यवस्था का निर्माण किया। शुरू में 21 समितियां नियुक्त की गयीं, जिनके सदस्य 12, 24 या 48 की संख्या में होते थे। इन समितियों के नाम आज की समितियों की तरह हुआ करते थे। अधीनस्थ विधानसभा 14 फ्रांस में अधिकांश विधायी कार्य संसदीय समितियों द्वारा किया जाता है जो सभी सरकारी और संसदीय विधेयकों की जांच करती है। फ्रांस के संविधान के अन्तर्गत प्रधानमंत्री और संसद-सदस्यों को समान विधि निर्माण को आरम्भ करने का अधिकार है। संसद सदस्यों द्वारा पुनः स्थापित किए गए विधेयकों और संशोधनों पर तब विचार नहीं किया गया है। जब उनके पारित किये जाने से या तो सार्वजनिक वित्तीय राजस्व का हास हो या सार्वजनिक व्यय की वृद्धि होती है। विधेयकों पर विचार करने के लिए प्रायः विशेष समितियां भी गठित की जाती हैं। इनका गठन सन् 1985 के बाद से बहुत अधिक सीमित रहा है। इस प्रकार अधिकांश वर्तमान कार्य छः स्थायी समितियों में से किसी एक समिति को भेजा जाता है।

#### **नेशनल एसेम्बली में ये समितियां हैं :-**

- विदेशी मामलों सम्बन्धी समिति
- वित्त, सामान्य आर्थिक मामलों और योजना सम्बन्धी समिति
- राष्ट्रीय प्रतिरक्षा और सशस्त्र बलों सम्बन्धी समिति
- सांविधानिक कानूनों, विधान कार्य और सामान्य प्रशासन सम्बन्धी
- सांस्कृतिक, पारिवारिक और सामाजिक मामलों सम्बन्धी समिति
- उत्पाद और व्यापार समिति

सीनेट में समितियां बिल्कुल वैसी नहीं होती जैसी नेशनल एसेम्बली में होती हैं। विदेशी मामलों, राष्ट्रीय प्रतिरक्षा और सशस्त्र बलों के लिए दो अलग-अलग समितियां हैं। बाकी सीनेट समितियों के नाम इस प्रकार हैं:- वित्त और बजट सम्बन्धी, नियंत्रण, राष्ट्रीय आर्थिक लेखा सम्बन्धी समिति, आर्थिक मामलों और योजना सम्बन्धी समिति। 15 विभिन्न देशों की संसदीय समितियों स्थायी समितियों की संरचना के सिद्धान्त को लागू करके निर्धारित की जाती हैं जहां तक विदेश समितियां का सम्बन्ध है, नेशनल एसेम्बली और सीनेट पर लागू होने वाले नियमों में एक जुटता है नेशनल एसेम्बली में प्रत्येक विशेष समिति के आरम्भिक गठन केलिए राजनीतिक ग्रुपों के आनुपातिक प्रतिनिधित्व का सिद्धान्त लागू होता है, जिसमें उन द्यूटियों में से जो किसी ग्रुप से सम्बन्धित नहीं हैं, दो तक और सदस्य बनाने की सुविधा भी है। सीनेट में जब किसी विशेष समिति का गठन होता है तो समिति के अध्यक्ष द्वारा उम्मीदवारों की एक सूची तैयार की जाती है और 7 उसे स्वयं सीनेट के अनुसमर्थन के लिए प्रस्तुत किया जाता है।

#### **➤ जापान की समिति प्रणाली**

जापान में इस समय संसद (डायट) का काफी काम स्थायी समितियों तथा अन्य विशेष समितियों द्वारा, जिनकी नियुक्ति आवश्यकतानुसार किया जाता है। विधेयकों, संधियों तथा अन्य मामलों पर, जिनको दोनों सदनों द्वारा पारित किया जाना आवश्यक होता है, सीधे पूरी सभा की बैठक में वाद-विवाद नहीं किया जाता है अपितु उन्हें अध्यक्षसभापति द्वारा सम्बन्धित समिति को सौंप देता है। समितियों के पास जो मामले भेजे जाते हैं समितियां उन पर विचार करती हैं, अपने प्राथमिक निर्णय लेती हैं (अर्थात् उनके पास जो मामले आते हैं उन्हें पारित या रद्द करती हैं अथवा उनका अनुमोदन या निरनुमोदन करती हैं। जिनके आधार पर सभा अन्तिम निर्णय लेती है और उनकी सूचना सभा को देती है।

#### **जापान संसद विधि के अन्तर्गत जापानी संसद (डायट) की प्रत्येक सभा की 16 स्थायी समितियां हैं:-**

1. कैबिनेट सम्बन्धी समिति,
2. स्थानीय प्रशासन सम्बन्धी समिति
3. न्याय सम्बन्धी समिति,
4. विदेशी मामलों सम्बन्धी समिति,
5. वित्त सम्बन्धी समिति,
6. शिक्षा सम्बन्धी समिति



7. सामाजिक और श्रम मामलों सम्बन्धी समिति,
8. कृषि, वन और मछलीपालन सम्बन्धी समिति,
9. वाणिज्य और उद्योग सम्बन्धी समिति,
10. परिवहन सम्बन्धी समिति,
11. संचार सम्बन्धी समिति,
12. बजट निर्माण सम्बन्धी समिति,
13. निर्माण सम्बन्धी समिति,
14. लेखा-परीक्षा सम्बन्धी समिति,
15. नियम और प्रशासन सम्बन्धी समिति,
16. अनुशासन सम्बन्धी समिति।

### ➤ भारत में समिति व्यवस्था

भारत में 'समिति' प्रथा का प्रारम्भ सन् 1854 से होता है। लेजिस्लेटिव काउंसिल (1854-61) ने अपनी 20 मई 1854 की बैठक में अपने "स्टैंडिंग आर्डिस" बनाने के लिए 4 सदस्यों की एक समिति नियुक्त की थी। सन् 1856 में एक प्रवर समिति भी नियुक्त की गई थी। इसी लेजिस्लेटिव-काउंसिल में एक सम्पूर्ण सदन समिति नियुक्त करने की भी 17 विभिन्न देशों की संसदीय समितियों प्रथा थी जो प्रवर समितियों द्वारा विचार किये जाने पर विधेयको पर विचार करती थी। इस प्रकार की सम्पूर्ण सदन समिति 1 जुलाई 1854 को गठित की गई थी। आधुनिक काल में भारत में समितियों की व्यवस्था मान्टेगोचेम्सफोर्ड सुधारों के परिणामस्वरूप शुरू हुई थी, लेकिन उन दिनों की समितियां, केन्द्रीय विधानसभा की तरह सरकार के निर्णय तथा उसके हस्तक्षेप से स्वतन्त्र नहीं थी। उन्हें कोई शक्तियां या विशेषाधिकार प्राप्त नहीं थे। वे अपनी प्रक्रिया स्वयं तय नहीं कर सकती थी, बल्कि वे तो अपने आन्तरिक कार्यों के लिए भी स्वयं अपने नियम नहीं बना सकती थी।

### केन्द्रीय विधान सभा के स्थायी आदेशों में तीन समितियों की व्यवस्था की

- विधेयकों के सम्बन्ध में याचिका समिति,
- स्थायी आदेशों के संशोधन के लिए प्रवर समिति और
- विधेयकों के सम्बन्ध में प्रवर समिति। इनमें से विधेयकों सम्बन्धी समिति को विधानसभा की स्थायी 10 समिति कहा जाता था। इसके अतिरिक्त सन् 1922 में लोक लेखा समिति और संयुक्त प्रवर समिति की स्थापना भारतीय विधानसभा नियम द्वारा की गयी थी। सन् 1922 में, केन्द्रीय विधानसभा में, विभिन्न विभागों के लिए स्थायी सलाहकार समितियां नियुक्त की गई थी। ये समितियां 1952 तक बनी रहीं। सन् 1950 में नियम समिति, प्राक्कलन समिति तथा विशेषाधिकार समिति की स्थापना हुई। सन् 1952 में कार्य-मंत्रणा समितिकी स्थापना की गई। पुनः सन् 1953 में संसद की बैठकों में सदस्यों के अनुपस्थित रहने के सम्बन्ध में एक समिति, अधीनस्थ विधान सम्बन्धी समिति की स्थापना हुई।

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## Synthesis of N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamides

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### Abstract

4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoic acids 4a-c on reaction with O-phenylenediamine in DMF in the presence of EDCI, HOBT gave N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamides 6a-c in good yields.

### Introduction:

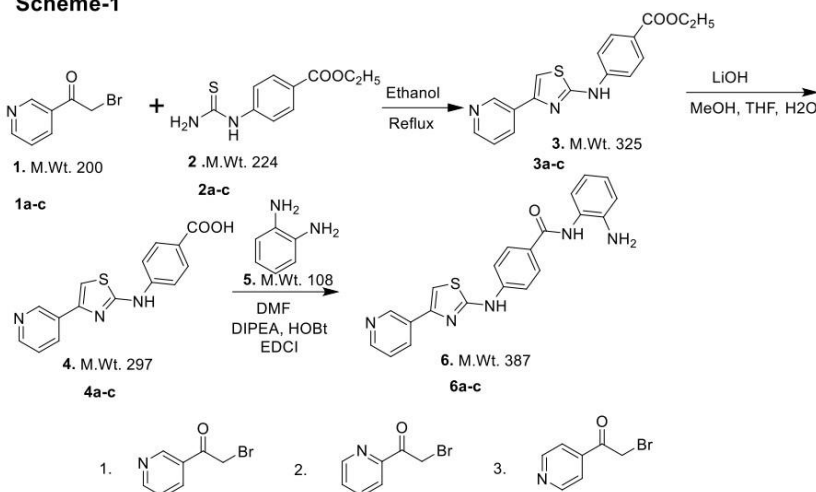
Several pyridine rings, substituted pyridins and thiazols show a variety of biological activities, such as dopamine agonist<sup>1</sup>, antihypertensive<sup>2</sup>, ATP sensitive potassium channel opener<sup>3</sup>, antitumor<sup>4</sup>, gastroprotective<sup>5</sup>, coronary vasodilator<sup>6</sup> and adrenergic receptor antagonist<sup>7</sup>. In the present study, new (4a-c)(6a-c).

2-bromo-1-(pyridin-3-yl)ethan-1-one (**1a-c**) and ethyl 4-thioureidobenzoate (**2a-c**) in presence of ethanol and reflux give ethyl 4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoate (**3a-c**), this was reacted with Lithium Hydroxide in presence of Methanol, THF and water to give 4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoic acid (**4a-c**), this was reacted with benzene-1,2-diamine (**5**) in presence of DMF, EDCI, HOBT which gives N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide (**6a-c**).



## Synthesis of N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide:-

**Scheme-1**



## Experimental Section

### General procedure for the synthesis ethyl 4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoate (3a-c) :-

To the 2-bromo-1-(pyridin-3-yl)ethan-1-one (**1**) (0.752 g, 2.67 mmol) and ethyl 4-thioureidobenzoate (**2**) (0.6 g, 2.67 mmol) in ethanol and refluxed to 80°C, for 6 hours monitored the reaction by TLC till both the starting material get disappeared cooled the reaction mixture to room temperature solid was separated and filter pure solid (**3**) was afford (0.6 g) yield (68.9%).

### General procedure for the synthesis 4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoic acid (4a-c) :-

To the suspension of ethyl 4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoate (**3**) (0.5 g, 1.53 mmol) and stirred at room temperature for overnight monitored the reaction by TLC till the starting material disappears. Evaporate the solvent and acidify the aqueous layer with 2N HCl precipitate was separated which was filtered and dried to afford compound (**4**) (0.3 g) yield (65.7%).



**General procedure for the synthesis N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide (6a-c):**- To the 4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoic acid (4) (0.5 g, 1.66 mmol), in DMF (5 mL), was added EDCI (0.705 g, 3.69 mmol), HOBt (0.226 g, 1.68 mmol), DIPEA (0.7 mL, 4.2 mmol) and benzene-1,2-diamine (5) (0.181 g, 1.68 mmol), at 0° C, and then warm to room temperature for overnight quenched the reaction mixture with ice cold water and stirred for 30 minutes precipitate was separated which solid was filtered and dried in vacuum the crude product was purified by column chromatography to afford compound (6) (0.150 g), yield (23%).

**N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide (6a). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (200 MHz, DMSO-D<sub>6</sub>):** - 10.64 (bs, 1H), 9.47 (bs, 1H), 9.15 (s, 1H), 8.52 (d, *j*=3.6 Hz, 1H), 8.27 (d, *J*=8.0 Hz, 1H), 8.00 (d, *J*=8.4 Hz, 2H), 7.82 (d, *J*=8.4 Hz, 2H), 7.59 (s, 1H), 7.50-7.43 (m, 1H), 7.18 (d, *J*=7.4 Hz, 1H), 6.95-6.92 (t, 1H), 6.77 (d, *J*=8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.63-6.59 (t, 1H) and 4.95 (bs, 2H).

**MS:** *m/z* 387 M<sup>+</sup>.

**N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-2-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide (6b) <sup>1</sup>H NMR (200 MHz, DMSO-D<sub>6</sub>):** - 10.65 (bs, 1H), 9.45 (bs, 1H), 9.10 (s, 1H), 8.46 (d, *j*=3.6 Hz, 1H), 8.27 (d, *J*=8.0 Hz, 1H), 7.90 (d, *J*=8.4 Hz, 2H), 7.80 (d, *J*=8.4 Hz, 2H), 7.50 (s, 1H), 7.50-7.43 (m, 1H), 7.18 (d, *J*=7.4 Hz, 1H), 6.90-6.88 (t, 1H), 6.70 (d, *J*=8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.60-6.57 (t, 1H) and 4.90 (bs, 2H).

**MS:** *m/z* 387 M<sup>+</sup>.

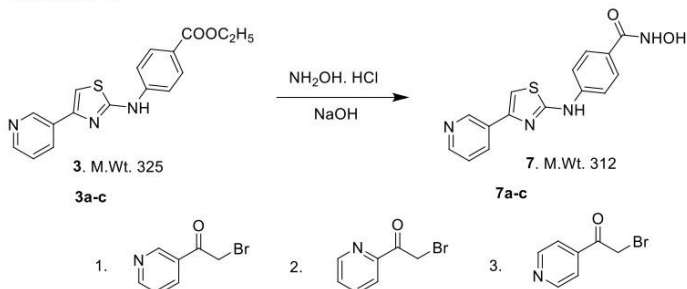
**N-(2-aminophenyl)-4-((4-(pyridin-4-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide (6c) <sup>1</sup>H NMR (200 MHz, DMSO-D<sub>6</sub>):** - 10.60 (bs, 1H), 9.40 (bs, 1H), 9.05 (s, 1H), 8.42 (d, *j*=3.6 Hz, 1H), 8.24 (d, *J*=8.0 Hz, 1H), 7.87 (d, *J*=8.4 Hz, 2H), 7.76 (d, *J*=8.4 Hz, 2H), 7.47 (s, 1H), 7.50-7.43 (m, 1H), 7.15 (d, *J*=7.4 Hz, 1H), 6.88-6.84 (t, 1H), 6.67 (d, *J*=8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.57-6.55 (t, 1H) and 4.86 (bs, 2H).

**MS:** *m/z* 387 M<sup>+</sup>.



**Synthesis of N-hydroxy-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide:-**

**Scheme-2**



**General procedure for the synthesis N-hydroxy-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide (7a-c):-** To the ethyl 4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzoate (3) (0.5 g, 1.67 mmoles) in Methanol (20 mL) in ethanol and DCM (15 mL), at 0° C, then added aqueous NH<sub>2</sub>OH.HCl (15 mL), then stirred for 20 minutes then added aqueous sodium hydroxide (0.430 g, in 2.5 mL of water), then worm up to room temperature for overnight monitored the reaction by TLC reaction was completed then evaporated the solvent under reduced pressure and added 10 mL, of water neutralized the aqueous up to PH 6-7 with 2N HCl at 0° C, precepted was separated which was filtered and dried in vacuum gave pure solid compound (7) was afford (0.3 g) yield (62.5%).

**N-hydroxy-4-((4-(pyridin-3-yl)thiazol-2-yl)amino)benzamide (7a). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (200 MHz, DMSO-D<sub>6</sub>):** - 11.01 (bs, 1H), 10.63 (bs, 1H), 9.15 (s, 1H), 8.54-8.51 (m, 1H), 8.29-8.25 (d, 1H), 7.76 (s, 3H), 7.60 (s, 1H), and 7.50-7.44 (m, 1H).

**MS:** m/z 312 M<sup>+</sup>.

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