
Registration No. V-36244/2008-09

ISSN :- 2350-0611

The journal has been listed in 'UGC Approved List of Journals' with Journal No. – 48441 in previous list of UGC

JIFE Impact Factor – 5.23

Research Highlights

A Multidisciplinary Quarterly International Peer Reviewed Referred Research Journal

Editor

Dr. Kamlesh Kumar Singh

Assistant Professor

Department of Sociology

Pt. D.D.U. Govt. Girls P.G. College

Sevapuri, Varanasi

Volume - XII

No. - 2

(April – June 2025)

Published by
Future Fact Society
Varanasi (U.P.) India

Research Highlights - A Referred Journal, Published by : Quarterly

Correspondence Address :

C 4/270, Chetganj

Varanasi, (U.P.)

Pin. - 221 010

Mobile No. :- 09336924396

Email- researchhighlights1@gmail.com

Note :-

The views expressed in the journal "Research Highlights" are not necessarily the views of editorial board or publisher. Neither any member of the editorial board nor publisher can in anyway be held responsible for the views and authenticity of the articles, reports or research findings. All disputes are subject to Varanasi (Uttar Pradesh) Jurisdiction only.

Managing Editor
Avinash Kumar Gupta

©Publisher

ISSN : 2350-0611

Printed by

Interface Computer, B 31/13-6, Malviya Kunj, Lanka, Varanasi-221005 (U.P.)

ADVISORY BOARD

- **Prof. T. N. Singh**, United Nations Professor of Plant Physiology, Department of Plant Sciences, University of Gondar, Ethiopia (Africa)
- **Prof. S.K. Bhatnagar**, School for Legal Studies, BBAU, Lucknow
- **Prof. (Dr.) Munna Singh**, Head of Department, Physical Education and Sports Sciences Department, Handia P.G. College, Handia, Prayagraj, U.P.
- **Dr Achchhe Lal Yadav**, Assistant Professor, Physical Education, Pt. D. D. U. Government Degree College, Saidpur, Ghazipur
- **Dr. Pramod Rao**, Assistant Professor, Department of Hindi, VBS Purvanchal University, Jaunpur
- **Dr. Anil Pratap Giri**, Assistant Professor, Department of Sanskrit, Pondicherry Central University, Pondicherry.

EDITORIAL BOARD

- **Dr. Sanjay Singh**, Department of Plant Science, University of Gondar, Ethiopia (Africa)
- **Dr. Diwakar Pradhan**, Professor in Nepali, Head, Deptt. of Indian Languages Faculty of Arts, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi
- **Dr. Shailendra Singh**, Professor and Head, Department of Sociology, J.S. University, Sikohabad, U.P.
- **Dr. Manish Arora**, Associate Professor, Faculty of Visual Arts, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi
- **Dr. Surjoday Bhattacharya**, Assistant Professor, Government Degree College, Pratapgarh U P
- **Dr. Upasana Ray**, Associate Professor, National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi
- **Dr. Krishna Kant Tripathi**, Assistant Professor, Deptt. of Education, Central University of Mijoram, Mijoram
- **Dr. Urjaswita Singh**, Assistant Professor, Department of Economics, M.G. Kashi Vidyapith, Varanasi.
- **Dr. Satyapal Yadav**, Assistant Professor, Department of History, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi.
- **Dr. Brajesh Kumar Prasad**, Assistant Professor, Department of History, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi.
- **Dr. Dewendra Pratap Tiwari**, Assistant Professor, Department of Political Science, Shree Lakshmi Kishori Mahavidyalaya (A Constituent Unit of BRA Bihar University, Muzaffarpur), Bihar

- **Dr. Hena Hussain**, Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Oriental College, Patna City (A Constituent Unit of Patliputra University, Patna), Bihar
- **Dr. Santosh Kumar Singh**, Assistant Professor, P.G. Department of Psychology, J.P. University. Chapra
- **Dr. Ramkirti Singh**, Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Gorakhpur University, Gorakhpur
- **Dr. Girish Kumar Tiwari**, Assistant Professor, National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi
- **Dr. Vaibhav Kaithvas**, Assistant Professor, Department of Performing Art, Eklavya University, Sagar Road, Damoh, MP
- **Dr. Ranjeet Kumar Ranjan**, Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, J.P. College, Narayanpur, Bihar
- **Dr. Paromita Chaubey**, Faculty of Education, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi



EDITOR'S NOTE

It is a great honour to me to extend my warm greetings and welcome you all to the journal, **Research Highlights**, a refereed journal of multi disciplinary research. The journal, which is a peer-reviewed, will devote to the promotion of multi-disciplinary research and explorations to the South Asian and global community. It is our objective to provide a platform for the publication of new scholarly articles in the rapidly growing field of various disciplines. We are trying to encourage new research scholars and post graduate students by publishing their papers so that they may learn and participate in literary publishing through a professional internship. Scholarly and unpublished research articles, essays and interviews are invited from scholars, faculty researchers, writers, professors from all over the world.

Note: All outlook and perspectives articulated and revealed in our peer refereed journal are individual responsibility of the author concerned. Neither the editors nor publisher can be held responsible for them anyhow. Plagiarism will not be allowed at any level. All disputes are subject to Varanasi (Uttar Pradesh) Jurisdiction only.

Hoping all of you shall enjoy our endeavors and those of our contributors.

Editor



CONTENTS

"Research Highlights"

➤	Role of Teachers as an Agent of Social Transformation: A Study Based on Secondary Data <i>Dr. Shilpi Chaubey</i>	01-05
➤	An Effectiveness Analyses of MGNREGA during Covid -19: A Case Study of Rohtak Block (Haryana) <i>Jaishree</i>	06-12
➤	Assessment of Personal Hygiene and Sanitation Practices among Government School Children Studying in Rural Areas of Sonbhadra District, U.P. (India) <i>Manjusha Rai</i>	13-18
➤	A Comparative Study of Adjustment between Boys and Girls Living in Orphanages <i>Dr. Manorma Kumari</i>	19-21
➤	The ROC-PRC Economic Relationship since 1979 <i>Raja Babu</i> <i>Gyan Prakash Ghosh</i>	22-28
➤	The Role of Digital Libraries in Enhancing Information Access in Academic Institutions <i>Ankit Kumar</i>	29-30
➤	Psychological Well-Being as Correlates of Achievement Motivation among High School Students <i>Saba Noor</i>	31-34
➤	A Study of Suicidal Ideation among College Students <i>Muhammad Ali Imam</i>	35-38
➤	Indian Women in a Male Dominated Society <i>Neha Mehrotra</i> <i>Dr. Shashi Pandey</i>	39-42
➤	Role of Socio-Economic Disparities in Academic Achievement of Students in Government and Private Schools of Darbhanga <i>Neha Kumari</i>	43-50
➤	Do Gandhi's Non-violent Weapons still Relevant: Analysis with special reference to Environmental Movement <i>Vinay Kumar Hind</i>	51-53

➤	Impact of Ageing on Self Esteem, Well Being and Mental Health <i>Dr. Danish Ara</i>	54-56
➤	Taxonomical and Medicinal Importance of Some Grasses of Family (Poaceae) occurring in Supaul District (Bihar) <i>Gita Kumari</i> <i>Dr. Ramesh Kumar</i>	57-59
➤	The Role of Mediator Neutrality and Communication in Resolving Commercial Disputes: A Legal and Practical Analysis <i>Abhinav Garg</i> <i>Dr. Dal Chandra</i>	60-65
➤	Indian Society and Status of Women <i>Dr. Nirdoshita Bisht</i>	66-71
➤	Optimism in Students in Relation to their Gender and Residential Area <i>Ritu Shikha</i> <i>Dr. Ramdhyan Rai</i>	72-75
➤	Educational Anxiety among Professional Course Students <i>Priyanka Kumari</i>	76-80
➤	TPACK in Relation to Real Time Feedback and Adaptive Learning <i>Shweta Jha</i> <i>Dr. Somu Singh</i> <i>Rohit Kumar</i>	81-85
➤	Suicidal Ideation in Teenagers in Relation to their Inhabitation and Caste Level <i>Rani Kumari</i> <i>Dr. Ram Dhyan Rai</i>	86-90
➤	A Critical Study on the Concept and the Scope of “Special Measures” under the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination <i>Ms. Souma B Sarkar</i>	91-97
➤	Vegetables Marketing: A Case Study of Muzaffarpur District of Bihar in Post-APMC Period <i>Pritam Prabhat</i> <i>Dr. Sunil Kumar</i>	98-103
➤	The Role of Bengali Folk Music and Dance in Revealing Cultural Heritage of Bharat <i>Dr. Ranu Bhattacharya</i> <i>Dr. Surjoday Bhattacharya</i>	104-109
➤	Theoretical Analysis of Hydromagnetic Squeeze Film Lubrication with Longitudinal Roughness between Parallel Plates <i>Sudhir Kumar</i>	110-113

➤	The Disability Landscape and Employment Dynamics in North-Eastern India: An Empirical Analysis of Prevalence and Work Participation <i>Dr. Baikunth Roy</i>	114-125
➤	Valuation of Some Heavy Metal Estimation at 4-Sites of Saryu River, Bihar <i>Akhtar Parwez</i> <i>Dr. Md. Jamaluddin</i>	126-129
➤	Changing Dimensions of Caste and Electoral Politics in Bihar (From 1967 to 2020) <i>Jyoti Singh</i> <i>Dr. Pawan Kumar Singh</i>	130-135
➤	A Comparative Study of Metacognition among Male Female School Students <i>Firoj Ansari</i>	136-139
➤	A Strategic Analysis of the Iran–Israel Conflict and its Implications for Middle East Security and Global Diplomacy <i>Dr. Sunil Kumar Sahani</i>	140-147
➤	Invisible Wounds: A Feminist Critique of State Silence on the Plight of Half-Widows in Kashmir <i>Zubaida Bukhari</i> <i>Dr. Mahesh Shukla</i>	148-153
➤	The Expressive and Accommodative Role of the Directive Principles of State Policy in Constituent Assembly Debates: A Sociological Perspective <i>Dr. Ramesh Chandra Yadav</i>	154-162

Role of Teachers as an Agent of Social Transformation: A Study Based on Secondary Data

Dr. Shilpi Chaubey*

Abstract

Teachers play a crucial role in shaping societies by influencing the minds and values of their students and the broader community. This study explores the role of teachers as agents of social transformation, focusing on well-known Indian educators who have significantly impacted societal development, both positively and negatively. Using secondary data from magazines, newspapers, journals, and online resources, the study examines the contributions, motivations, and advocacy of 20 renowned Indian teachers. Stratified random and probability sampling were employed to select participants. The objectives of this research are to evaluate the contributions of teachers to societal welfare, analyse their awareness of social problems, understand their motivations to address societal rigidity, and examine their advocacy against adverse societal phenomena. The hypotheses posit that teachers significantly contribute to societal welfare, demonstrate high awareness of contemporary social issues, actively motivate societal change, and frequently advocate against negative societal phenomena. The findings highlight the pivotal role of teachers in addressing social challenges, fostering awareness, and inspiring transformation. The study concludes with insights into how educators' actions influence societal dynamics and recommendations for enhancing their roles as social change agents.

Keyword: Teachers, Responsibilities, Societies, Contributions, Transformation

Introduction

Education has long been recognized as a cornerstone of societal development. At the heart of this transformative process are teachers, who not only impart knowledge but also shape values, attitudes, and behaviours. In the Indian context, educators like Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan, Savitribai Phule, and A.P.J. Abdul Kalam have left indelible marks on society. This study seeks to explore the multifaceted roles of teachers as agents of social transformation, focusing on their contributions to societal welfare and their responses to social challenges.

Teachers occupy a unique position in society, serving as intermediaries between traditional values and modern aspirations. They have the potential to address societal rigidities, such as caste discrimination, gender inequality, and communalism, by fostering critical thinking and empathy among their students. For instance, Savitribai Phule's work in promoting education for women and marginalized communities was a groundbreaking effort against societal norms of her time. Similarly, the contributions of A.P.J. Abdul Kalam in inspiring youth through science and technology illustrate the diverse ways teachers influence societal change.

The study is grounded in secondary data collected from various sources, including magazines, newspapers, journals, and online observations. The universe of this study encompasses all teachers, while the area of focus is well-known Indian educators who have made significant contributions to societal transformation. Using stratified random and probability sampling, a sample of renowned Indian teachers was selected for analysis.

The research objectives include evaluating teachers' contributions to societal welfare, analysing their awareness of social problems, understanding their motivations, and examining their advocacy against negative societal phenomena. These objectives are underpinned by hypotheses that

* Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology, Dr. D.Y Patil Arts Commerce and Science College, Pimpri, Pune

2 Role of Teachers as an Agent of Social Transformation: A Study Based on Secondary Data

assert the critical role of teachers in fostering societal welfare, their high awareness of social issues, their active motivation of students and society, and their advocacy against adverse phenomena.

Review of Literature

1. **Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan:** As a philosopher and educator, Radhakrishnan emphasized the role of education in promoting universal values and harmony (Sharma, 2018).
2. **Savitribai Phule:** Known as India's first female teacher, she championed women's education and fought against caste-based discrimination (Deshpande, 2020).
3. **A.P.J. Abdul Kalam:** His emphasis on education in science and technology inspired a generation of students to contribute to nation-building (Raman, 2017).
4. **Rabindranath Tagore:** His educational philosophy at Shantiniketan emphasized holistic development and creativity (Sen, 2016).
5. **Dr. Zakir Hussain:** Advocated for vocational education and the importance of linking education with practical skills (Kumar, 2019).
6. **Swami Vivekananda:** Focused on character-building education and inspiring youth for societal service (Bhattacharya, 2021).
7. **Annie Besant:** Worked towards integrating Indian and Western educational philosophies (Ghosh, 2019).
8. **Jiddu Krishnamurti:** Advocated for education that fosters independent thinking and self-awareness (Menon, 2015).
9. **Sri Aurobindo:** His Integral Education model aimed to develop all aspects of an individual (Patel, 2018).
10. **Mahatma Gandhi:** Championed Nai Talim, an education system combining work and learning (Gupta, 2017).
11. **B.R. Ambedkar:** Advocated for education as a means of social emancipation, especially for marginalized communities (Chakraborty, 2018).
12. **Dr. Homi Bhabha:** Played a pivotal role in advancing science education in India (Mehta, 2021).
13. **Mother Teresa:** Used education as a tool for compassion and service (Fernandez, 2016).
14. **Kamala Das Gupta:** Focused on women's education and empowerment (Roy, 2020).
15. **Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya:** Founded Banaras Hindu University to promote higher education (Shukla, 2019).
16. **Sri Ramakrishna Paramahansa:** His teachings emphasized spiritual education (Das, 2018).
17. **Dr. Kiran Bedi:** Advocated for police reforms and social justice through education (Verma, 2021).
18. **Gijubhai Badheka:** Pioneer in child-centric education (Joshi, 2015).
19. **Aruna Asaf Ali:** Advocated for political education and awareness (Nair, 2020).
20. **Dr. Amartya Sen:** Promoted education as a key to economic and social development (Sen, 2019).

Here's a brief overview of how each of these individuals, transformed society, particularly with a focus on education.

Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan, as an educator and philosopher, transformed education in India by emphasizing the value of knowledge and the teacher-student relationship. As the second President of India, his birthday (September 5th) is celebrated as Teacher's Day. He advocated for educational reforms and was instrumental in the development of India's educational system. (*Radhakrishnan, S. (1956). The philosophy of education. George Allen & Unwin.*)

Rabindranath Tagore, a Nobel laureate in literature, revolutionized education with his establishment of Visva-Bharati University at Shantiniketan, promoting a holistic, artistic, and nature-centric approach to learning. He emphasized creativity, freedom, and individual growth, challenging the traditional rote learning methods of the time. (*Tagore, R. (1917). The religion of man. Macmillan.*)

Savitribai Phule pioneer in women's education, Savitribai Phule was one of the first to start a school for girls in India, advocating for the upliftment of women and the marginalized sections of society. Her work laid the foundation for women's access to education in a time of intense social oppression. (*Phule, S. (1854). Stir Purush Tulana.*)

Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam, known as the "Missile Man of India," had a significant impact on education, particularly in the areas of science and technology. He advocated for the development of a knowledge-based society and played a pivotal role in encouraging youth to pursue careers in research and innovation. (*Kalam, A.P.J. (2013). Wings of fire: An autobiography. Universities Press.*)

Swami Vivekananda's vision of education was deeply influenced by spiritual and humanistic values, focusing on the empowerment of youth. He emphasized the importance of character-building, self-reliance, and the role of education in shaping a strong and free India. (*Vivekananda, S. (1896). Complete works of Swami Vivekananda (Vol. 1). Advaita Ashrama.*)

Anand Kumar, the founder of the Super 30 program, transformed the lives of underprivileged students by providing free coaching to help them enter the prestigious Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs). His work bridges the gap between socioeconomic status and access to quality education. (*Kumar, A. (2016). Super 30: Changing lives, transforming futures. penguin India.*) **Malala Yousafzai's Influence in India.** Malala's advocacy for girls' education globally has had a profound impact on India, inspiring movements for female education and empowerment. Her story has highlighted the barriers that girls face in accessing education, prompting initiatives to ensure gender equality in education. (*Yousafzai, M. (2013). I am Malala: The girl who stood up for education and was shot by the Taliban. Little, Brown.*)

Arvind Gupta is known for promoting science education among children, particularly in rural areas. He revolutionized the way science is taught by using low-cost, simple materials to demonstrate scientific concepts, making it accessible to all. (*Gupta, A. (2006). Science is fun: A collection of simple and fun science experiments. National Book Trust India.*)

Kiran Bedi (as an educator), India's first woman officer in the Indian Police Service, used her role to educate and reform prisoners, particularly through her work in Tihar Jail. Her initiatives focused on rehabilitating prisoners through education, yoga, and social awareness. (*Bedi, K. (1998). I dare! Rupa & Co.*)

During colonial rule, teachers in India were tasked with promoting Western education, but many also sought to preserve indigenous knowledge. The British education system largely focused on producing clerks for colonial administration, but the resistance led by figures like Raja Ram Mohan Roy created the foundation for a more inclusive education system. (*Roy, R. (1818). The impact of colonial education on India. Modern History Journal.*)

Post-Independence Educators like Maulana Abul Kalam Azad and Dr. Zakir Husain focused on rebuilding India's education system, with an emphasis on scientific, technical, and universal education. They were instrumental in establishing institutions like IITs and the Planning Commission. (*Azad, M. (1947). India's education policy. Ministry of Education, Government of India.*)

In the era of Digital India, teachers have embraced technology to enhance teaching methods. The use of e-learning platforms, digital classrooms, and mobile education apps has transformed the accessibility and effectiveness of education, especially in rural and remote areas. (*Government of India. (2015). Digital India: A programme to transform India. Ministry of Electronics and Information Technology.*)

Rural Educators in India play a vital role in overcoming the barriers of illiteracy and poverty. Their commitment to reaching underserved populations through innovative teaching methods has had a lasting impact on rural development. (*Sharma, R. (2015). Rural education and development in India. National Institute of Rural Development.*)

Negative Contributions While education is generally a tool for empowerment, certain practices, such as caste-based discrimination or the commercialization of education, have had

4 Role of Teachers as an Agent of Social Transformation: A Study Based on Secondary Data

negative impacts on Indian society. These practices exacerbate inequalities and hinder social mobility. (Singh, A. (2010). *Caste-based discrimination in education*. Dalit Studies Journal.)

Corporate Teachers involvement in education has led to both positive and negative transformations. While some corporate-run schools have improved infrastructure and resources, they often prioritize profit over quality education, leading to elitism and inequality. (Nambisan, G. B. (2009). *Private schools and the privatization of education in India*. Education Policy Analysis Archives.)

Teacher unions in India have been influential in shaping policies, advocating for better working conditions, and ensuring teachers' rights. However, they have also been criticized for hindering reforms that could improve the quality of education. (Kumar, K. (2005). *Teachers' unions and education reform in India*. Journal of Education Policy.)

Educational Movements Educational movements like the Jyotiba Phule's movement for women's education and the Sarvodaya movement led by Gandhi have shaped the educational landscape of India, focusing on equity, social justice, and empowerment. (Phule, J. (1873). *The equality of education*. S. G. Deshmukh & Co.)

Women educators have played a crucial role in shaping India's education system. Figures like Savitribai Phule, Kamini Roy, and others fought for women's rights to education, laying the foundation for modern educational policies that advocate for gender equality. (Roy, K. (1901). *The rise of women educators in India*. National Women's Studies Journal.)

These educators, movements, and policies have collectively transformed Indian society by promoting the importance of education in shaping the future. Through their efforts, these individuals and movements have shaped society by making education more inclusive, accessible, and relevant to the needs of a rapidly changing world. They've encouraged individuals to strive for knowledge, challenged outdated systems, and worked towards a more just and equitable society.

Research Methodology

The study is based on **secondary data collected** from credible sources, with the **universe** comprising **all teachers** and the **area** of study focusing on **well-known teachers** who have significantly influenced society. The **sampling methods** employed—**stratified random and probability sampling**—ensure a representative and diverse selection.

By investigating these dimensions, this paper aims to illuminate the enduring importance of teachers as architects of social transformation in India.

Objectivity of the Research Paper:

This paper addresses the following objectives:

1. To assess the role of teachers in societal welfare
2. To examine teachers' awareness of societal problems
3. To explore the factors influencing teachers' motivation to address societal rigidity:
4. To evaluate teachers' advocacy against adverse societal phenomena

Here are potential hypotheses based on the objectives of my research paper:

1. **H1:** Teachers make significant contributions to societal welfare through their educational and community engagement activities.
2. **H2:** Teachers exhibit a high level of awareness regarding prevailing social problems and challenges.
3. **H3:** Teachers' motivation to address societal rigidity is influenced by their professional roles and personal values.
4. **H4:** Teachers actively advocate against adverse societal phenomena, leveraging their positions as educators to influence positive change.

Data Collection

Data for this study was gathered from **secondary sources**, including **magazines, newspapers, journals**, and online platforms. These sources provided insights into the lives, philosophies, and

contributions of the selected teachers. Observations and documented analyses further enriched the understanding of their societal impact.

Analysis and Discussion

The analysis reveals that teachers have a profound influence on societal values and transformation. For instance, educators like Savitribai Phule and B.R. Ambedkar directly addressed social inequalities, while others like A.P.J. Abdul Kalam and Dr. Homi Bhabha inspired societal advancement through science and education. The findings indicate that teachers' awareness of societal challenges, combined with their commitment to addressing them, has been instrumental in fostering progress.

Conclusion

Teachers in India have consistently acted as agents of social transformation, addressing societal rigidities, inspiring change, and advocating for welfare. Their contributions highlight the importance of education in shaping an equitable and progressive society. By analysing their lives and works, this study underscores the need to empower educators further to continue their pivotal role in societal development.

References

- Bhattacharya, R. (2021). *Swami Vivekananda's philosophy on youth and education*. Journal of Indian Philosophy.
- Chakraborty, A. (2018). *B.R. Ambedkar's vision for social emancipation through education*. Social Science Quarterly.
- Das, S. (2018). *Sri Ramakrishna's contributions to spiritual education*. Indian Educational Review.
- Deshpande, P. (2020). *Savitribai Phule: Pioneer of women's education in India*. Women's Studies Journal.
- Fernandez, L. (2016). *Mother Teresa's educational philosophy*. Compassion Quarterly.
- Ghosh, T. (2019). *Annie Besant and the integration of educational philosophies*. Educational Studies.
- Gupta, R. (2017). *Mahatma Gandhi's Nai Talim: Education through work*. Gandhi Studies.
- Joshi, V. (2015). *Gijubhai Badheka's child-centric approach to education*. Early Childhood Education Journal.
- Kumar, N. (2019). *Dr. Zakir Hussain's vocational education model*. Vocational Studies Review.
- Mehta, R. (2021). *Dr. Homi Bhabha's role in advancing science education*. Science and Education Journal.
- Menon, S. (2015). *Jiddu Krishnamurti's philosophy of independent thinking*. Philosophy of Education Quarterly.
- Nair, P. (2020). *Aruna Asaf Ali and political education*. Political Studies Review.
- Patel, K. (2018). *Sri Aurobindo's integral education model*. Integral Education Journal.
- Raman, P. (2017). *A.P.J. Abdul Kalam: Inspiring youth through science*. Science Educator.
- Roy, S. (2020). *Kamala Das Gupta and women's empowerment through education*. Women's Education Review.
- Sen, A. (2019). *Amartya Sen's perspective on education and development*. Development Studies Journal.
- Sen, R. (2016). *Rabindranath Tagore's holistic approach to education*. Shantiniketan Studies.
- Sharma, M. (2018). *Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan's educational contributions*. Indian Philosophy Review.
- Shukla, P. (2019). *Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya and the foundation of Banaras Hindu University*. Higher Education Studies.
- Verma, K. (2021). *Dr. Kiran Bedi's advocacy for education in social justice*. Social Justice Journal.



An Effectiveness Analyses of MGNREGA during Covid -19: A Case Study of Rohtak Block (Haryana)

Jaishree*

Abstract

The Indian government passed the historic Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) in 2005, creating new labor and social security regulations. (MGNREGA) was put into effect on February 2nd, 2006. It was a remarkable act that gave the world's two thirds of the people a right to work as a kind of financial security. The rural workforce with 100 days of assured employment. Some of the programmers are particularly goal-oriented and play a significant role in this field. MGNREGA (Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act) is one of the programmers that has gained substantial reputation among rural populations and significantly improved the standard of living by involving rural people and creating new jobs in several States. According to this report, there has been a noticeable increase in awareness. This study showed that there has been a significant increase in beneficiaries' awareness levels in rural regions, and that these programmes had positive benefits, particularly in villages, during COVID-19. Gram Panchayats and other rural local organizations were now actively taking part in rural development during COVID-19. This essay aims to assess the MGNREGA's financial advancements in the rohtak block in Haryana.

Keywords: - Covid -19, financial, program

Introduction :-

Indeed, direct paid work is a desirable tool for reducing poverty. Multiple goals have been pursued after by initiatives. They should not just offer job opportunities. as well as during times of floods, droughts, and other natural disasters, such as lean agricultural seasons. They produce infrastructure in rural areas that promotes further economic activity. Additionally, these schemes exert upward pressure by encouraging participation in public works initiatives, which reduces the amount of labour, on market wage rates and increasing the demand for workers. According to Dr. M. S. Swami Nathan, the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS), which focuses on water management and soil conservation, has the potential to grow into the world's largest environmental food security programme. any rural household with adults ready to perform unskilled manual labour is entitled to 100 days of employment per fiscal year under the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, 2005 (MGNREGA). The passage of this Act is a vital step in the achievement of the right to employment. By enhancing the economic and social infrastructure in rural areas, it is also anticipated to improve people's livelihoods over time. Every registered person will receive an employment card from gram Panchayat. The scheme's distinguishing features include equal pay for men and women and payment of the required minimum wage of Rs. 200.

Features of MGNREGA: -

The main objective of the program is to be strengthening local bodies or Panchayat raj institutions.

- MGNREGA provides one hundred days of the manual worker with guaranteed employment in the financial year to every household in villages as per demand and also creates productive assets of prescribed durability and quantity.
- The program has been creating durable and productive assets in rural areas.
- MGNREGA enhances the livelihood security of rural poor through the generation of wage employment opportunities in works leading to the creation of durable asset
- MGNREGA by guaranteeing wage employment opportunities to create social protection for poor rural people

* Research Scholar(Ph.D.), Dept. of Extension and Development studies, IGNOU, (New Delhi)
Email – jaishreebhardwaj111@gmail.com

- It is demand driven program where provision of work is triggered by demand for work by wage seekers.
- There is legal provision for allowances and compensation both in case of failure to provide work on demand and delays in payment of wage for work undertaken.
- The act incentives state to provide employment as 100 % of unskilled labour.
- MGNREGA has given rise to largest employment program in human history and is unlike any other wage employment program in its scale.

Review of Literature :-

Senguta p (2020), Analyze the new opportunities and performance analysis of MGNREGA during COVID-19 (Purulia district), this study revealed that there was a noteworthy improvement in awareness level among the beneficiaries in rural areas and positive effect of the program, especially in the village can be identified during COVID-19, MGNREGA play a vital role in the rural economy, it was significantly uplifting the livelihood by the creation of new jobs and involving rural people in some of the states . The aimed of study to evaluate financial end physical progress of MGNREGA. The study observed that awareness of rural people among the different government schemes like SGSY, TSC, NRHM, and MGNREGA, the result shows that gram Sabah members well address all these schemes, but a very high level of awareness was observed among the selected sample. All elected samples were aware of the MGNREGA (100percent) as compared to other rural development programs and the results show that MGNREGA considered a “Magic bullet” because it was made significant growth in terms of physical and financial performance .so this program directly affected the social life of the villages and also improved the standard of living due to effective work has been provided. Mehta S, Sharma S (2019), Role of MGNREGA on women empowerment in India. it was critically examined the government norm and implementation of MGNREGA and its significant role in empowering women, The study found that MGNREGA play an important role in economically empowering women, but it was several challenges that come under the scheme, like lack of proper childcare facilities, delay payments and illegal presence of contracts, etc. crucial factors That restrict women empowerment, the results show that participation rate of women under MGNREGA work rapidly increased, but on the worksite, they were facing several socio-economic challenges and wage payment in bank account one of the challenges faced by women under this scheme, because in rural backward areas women have no personal bank accounts, so their payment has been put in a male member of the house, as a result, women have no spent their wages according to her autonomy because they have depended upon men’s to withdraw money from the bank. The study also found that women were not aware of their rights under MGNREGA and other side social-cultural norms also play a vital role to restrict women's empowerment.

Mishra, Singh M (2018), Analysis the impact of MGNREGA on employment generation in India, it has been argued that providing job opportunities to the rural people is not only a single objective of the MGNREGA, but it has also brought multi-factored effect on the rural Indian economy, unemployment directly correlated with poverty, thus job creation with MGNREGA will reduce the number of poor people in a rural area, further the local saving boost the capital formation in villages. Besides that it creates positive effects on the physical and mental health of people improve on the other side MGNREGA absorbed the surplus labour force in other productive activities. In that way preserve on agriculture Decreased and increased the agricultural productivity. The main objective of the study was to take a comprehensive study on MGNREGA on job creation in rural India, to achieve that objective an in-depth analysis did the need for the MGNREGA and highlights the present status of MGNREGA in a rural area of India. The study used secondary data that have been gathered from different books and publications. the study was based on a descriptive argument related to MGNREGA activities in rural India, the result shows that it satisfies some aspects like 100-day job Environment Protection, social protection, rural infrastructure providing women empowerment and gender equality however, MGNREGA has faced many pitfalls like this program has been job created but the allotment of work was not found satisfactory.

Kumar, Deogharia(2017), Analysis the relationship between MGNREGA and rural-urban migration in Jharkhand, the study were observed that people who belong to STs communities have a higher chance of migration, the study was based on both qualitative and quantitative surveys, the study based on the impact of MGNREGA on rural-urban migration, under this sample of 180 households have been covered during the 2014-15 time frame, the result shows that MGNREGA would be failed to curb

migration as per study 81% respondent reported that their livelihood did not improve after joining MGNREGA, so it also concluded that main reason was not interested in doing work, because of irregular work, delay in wage payment, analysis shows that migrants choose to migrate from villages rather than MGNREGA work for better opportunities.

Pandi S, baladhany k (2016), Analysis the impact of MGNREGA on rural livelihood, the main objective of the study to find out the difference in the socio-economic status of rural livelihood who adopt MGNREGA and who do not adopt MGNREGA for employment. and the reasons for non - adoption of MGNREGA and also analysis the impact of MGNREGA on the rural household in term of employment, income and loan repayment, etc. the study was based on both primary and secondary data, authors selected primary data 3% of total population in selected area, who worked in MGNREGA and 2% who have not worked in MGNREGA.

Kharkwal S, Kumar,(2015), This article attempt to address the socio-economic impact of MGNREGA, the study would examine the impact of MGNREGA on several aspects like annual per capita, food and non-food, health and child education, debit expenditure, etc the study was concerned with asserting the impact of MGNREGA on the overall socio-economic condition of rural poor, the study found that according to the value of socio-economic indication that in the initial year of implementation of the program, about 36% of the beneficiary household were in poor socio-economic strata, which decreased to 12% in 2013 -13, while a beneficiary household in good socio-economic strata increases from 30% to 55%. The result shows that MGNREGA altered to social-economic steps of rural masses toward betterment.

Research Gap :-

The findings of the studies reveals the impact of MGNREGA program in village economy especially in pandemic time and impact of MGNREGA, and impact on women empowerment, awareness of the program etc., but no one work has done on impact of MGNREGA on COVID -19 with reference to Rohtak block.

The Objective of the Study :-

- To find out awareness about the MGNREGA program.
- To find pre Covid-19 and post Covid -19 effectiveness of MGNREGA in ROHTAK district (block).

Hypotheses of the Study :-

H0: - There is no effectiveness of MGNREGA in term of employment and financial distribution in ROHTAK district (block)

Research Methodology :-

The research is limited to the state of Haryana. The state of Haryana is the main focus of the investigation. The state of Haryana includes 22 districts altogether. To determine the level of awareness of the various programmes, one of the five blocks in district Rohtak and its four villages—two smaller and two strong been chosen. 96 people in total responded to the survey. The study was conducted among the elected officials. In order to determine awareness of the socio-economic programmes undertaken by the federal and state governments, it was attempted to choose women or earners from each household. Development was evaluated on the basis of the physical and financial progress made by MGNREGA in the Rohtak area. Only three years of data, from 2019 to 2021-22, were examined.

Source of Data :-

The responses from the respondents who were elected as representatives in these blocks served as the primary source of data for this study. For the secondary sources of data, the reports of various committees and commissions, as well as articles published in various newspapers, journals, and magazines, were consulted in order to increase the work's credibility and to supplement the information on the subject.

MGNREGA Implementation on Gram Sabha Level :-

MGNREGA scheme is implemented on various level center, state and local bodies like gram panchayat and gram Sabha village panchayat all has different responsibilities at every level, which is describe under the MGNREGA act, however some of the responsible of GS define under the below following,

Gram Sabha :-

- GS will propose projects to be undertaken under MGNREGA.
- GS will conduct Social Audits.
- GS will serve as a forum for sharing information about the Scheme

It is the primary forum for conducting social audits, gram Sabah provides to determine the order of priority in which work will be initiated under MGNREGA.

- Under MGNREGA act gram panchayat is working as an implementing Agency of this scheme.
- Gram panchayat is responsible for submitting the annual plans approved by gram Sabah to program officer.
- Gram panchayat is central area of planning implementation because constitution part ix doesn't apply on gram panchayat

Funding Processer under the Scheme

MGNREGA scheme funding comes under the "labour budget" which is approved by the government of India and prepared by state governments under this scheme, which distributes total expenditure between the center and state governments. On December 31, the budget for the following year is approved, and the labour budget estimate under MGNREGA is based on total costs in terms of administrative costs, wages, and material costs. The wage rate at per day decided in the form of cost of wage and material ratio in per portion of 60:40, and 6% of total budget should be used for administrative expenditures (such as ICT facility in GPs, worksite facilities, evaluation and research, and social audits), and one-third of 6% administrative expenditure used by gramme panchayat as gramme rozgar Sabah payment. However, because MGNREGA is a demand-driven approach, both the central and state governments effectively spend on it. According to Section 22, the central government's expenditure falls under the National Employment Guarantee Council for this scheme, with the government of India responsible for bearing the full cost of unskilled labour wages and 75% of material costs. The state government also bears the costs under this scheme, with the state government paying 25% of the costs of materials and wages for skilled and semi-skilled workers. In addition, the state government pays unemployment benefits if employees are unable to provide wages on time. This scheme covers all administrative and other state expenses, and it is overseen by the State Employment Guarantee Council (SEGF). The SEGF also monitors the relished funds.

Need of the Study :-

MGNREGA has become a lifeline for India's approximately 70% rural population, the majority among whom live in poverty. In addition to generating employment opportunities, it seeks to revitalize the rural economy by carrying out projects that might greatly increase the natural capital of the villages. These initiatives are anticipated to produce significant outcomes in the areas of water collection and conservation, drought resistance, small-scale irrigation projects, the resuscitation and refurbishment of traditional water bodies, improved rural connectivity, etc. The programme has been a successful tool for inclusive growth. Employment guarantee programme has never before been implemented in the nation. The programme promises to give any rural household with at least one adult who is willing to engage in manual work 100 days of employment over the course of a fiscal year. It was introduced on February 2nd, 2006, in 200 Districts, and in the fiscal year 2007–2008, it was expanded to an additional 130 Districts. NREGA thus covers the entire nation but with the exception of Districts having a 100% urban population. The scheme's principal goals were to create long-lasting assets in rural areas while also giving underprivileged villagers guaranteed employment and acting as a growth engine for the rural economy. The Gram Panchayat has been given a significant responsibility in carrying out the MGNREG, Gram Panchayat is responsible for all kinds of works and all activities are to be completed in consultation with gram sabha.

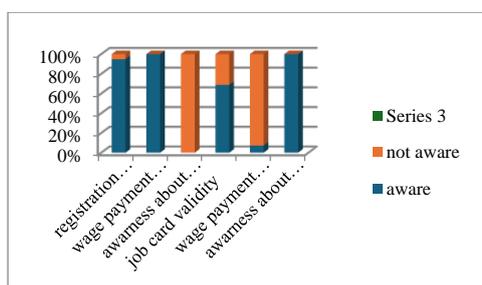
Findings of the Study :-

This study attempted to determine the level of awareness about MGNREGA among respondents, with awareness defined by responses to well-structured questions being asked form respondents.

Description	Aware	Not aware
Registration process	91	5
Wage rate of man equal women	96	0
Aware about unemployment allowance	0	93
Job card validity	66	30
About wages receive period	7	89
Entry on job card	96	0

Source: primary data

10 An Effectiveness Analyses of MGNREGA during Covid -19: A Case Study of Rohtak Block...



According to the findings of this study, the majority of respondents were aware of the job card. On average, 86% of respondents were fully aware of the submission card, and no payment for job cards. Respondents stated that they did not encounter any difficulties in the application and registration process because Mate assisted them throughout the process application, job in their village.

The majority of respondents, 91%, are aware that they have the opportunity to apply for jobs under the MGNREGA programme with this job card; the remaining 9.12% are unaware of this. They reported that, when jobs under the programme became available, their village neighbor would give them all the necessary information and jobs. Only 68.75 percent of respondents reported knowing that the job card was valid for five years, with the remaining 31.25% unaware. However, respondents should be not aware that they should not renew their job cards every five years.

Almost 85.41% of respondents learned about MGNREGA from friends, relatives, and community members. The majority of respondents were informed by their neighbors and friends, with 14.58% hearing from a mat.

In contrast, some respondents (about 5.2%) were aware that these respondents should be educated or close to the sarpanch or can be male respondents. Most female or illiterate women were not aware because in rural society females have less opportunity to get information. At the same time, most respondents said that, in the rural society, employment should be given to them within 15 days of starting work. The diagram shows that on average, all respondents are mostly aware of this scheme, but few important information such as renewing a job card within five years, job payment time regarding information or other important information, the majority of respondents are not aware of, so at the grass root level government should delegate this responsibility to local bodies or mat / sarpanch, to convey these information in their villages and areas, it should be helpful for MGNREGA banificeries, especially for women, because they have lass opportunity to known these information , it could be help to awareness about the scheme as well its effectively implementation in villages.

Table 1.2 show total labour budget expenditure and average wage rate (in lakh)

Year	Approved labour budget (in lake)	Average wage rate per person
2019-2020	100	286.37
2020-2021	185	308.29
2021-2022	141	312.75

Source:- Ministry of rural development government of India

Table 1.2 shows that the government approved a labour budget for the fiscal years 2019–20, 2020–21, and 2021–22 that was 100 (as the base year), 185, and 141 lacking respectively. Similarly, the average wage rate per day in Haryana (ROHTAK BLOCK) increased in comparison to the earlier year, rising from 286.37 to 308.29 in 2019–20 and from 2020–21 to 308.29 in 2021–22, respectively.

However, over time,

Table 1.3 show total person work and registered under MGNREGA (IN LAKH)

Year	Person days generation (in lake)	% of total labour	SC per day	Total number of household complete 100 days
2019-20	91.19	91.19	42.14	286.37
2020-21	179.62	97.09	36.54	308.29
2021-22	146.39	103.83	42.67	312.75

Source :- Ministry of rural development government of India

Table 1.3 shows the number of people registered under MGNREGA, which was 91.19 in the 2019–20 fiscal year and increased to 179.62 in the 2020–21 fiscal year. It also reveals that the registration number has decreased by 146.39 in the 2021–22 fiscal year, highlighting the significance of MGNREGA during the pandemic period due to reverse migration and unemployment engendered by lockdown in other sectors. Additionally, it was revealed that the percentage of total labour employed under the scheme in the years 2019–20, 2020–21, and 2021–22 was 91.19, 97.09, and 103.83, respectively. Additionally, it was revealed that the total number of 100 days that households worked under the scheme showed positive trends. This shows that this scheme is significantly helpful to remove poverty, because maximum number of beneficiaries under the scheme belong to weaker section specially (SC) category, table shows that more than 50 percentage of people work under the scheme belong to SC category, and table 1.3 also shows that performance of MGNREGA in terms of person days employment generation were increasing trend which is one of the good impacts of the scheme.

Table 1.4 financial allocation under MGNREGA (in lakh)

Year	Allocation by central government	Availability total	Utilize in (%)	Total expenditure in lakh
2019-20	34526.29	37582.34	103.02	38,716.43
2020-21	77666.71	83154.97	96.52	80262.25
2021-22	66003.58	72132.52	98.15	70,798.85

Source :- Ministry of rural development, government of India

Table 1.4 shows the financial allocation by the government under the scheme in different years, budget under the scheme increases year by year, table shows that budget allocation in year 2021-22 was maximum as compared to other years, but one disadvantage was budget utilization% was low in HARYANA (ROHTAK BLOCK), so there was a need for the state government to ensure maximum utilization of the MGNREG budget, however it was shown that expenditure under the scheme was significantly increased. It was in year 2019-20 allocated by central government approximately 34 lakh, which is increased year by year. It was in year 2020-21 approximately 77 lakh and some decrease in year 2021-22 as compared to last year which is nearly 67 lakh, due to pandemic situation in year 2020-21 maximum spending by government under this scheme, allocation utilization trends were not satisfactory, due to many government bodies and responsibilities funds not directly effectively spent fairly on the scheme.

HO: there is no effectiveness of MGNREGA in terms of employment and financial distribution in Rohtak block (HARYANA)

H1: there is significant effect of MGNREGA in terms of employment and financial distribution in Rohtak block (HARYANA)

Table 1.4 shows that the null hypothesis is not true, but actually the scheme has made progress in terms of financial allocation by the center government in Rohtak block and employment generation progress also shown by table 1.3, during Covid-19 under MGNREGA number of registrations increased rapidly, it shows that acceptance of alternative hypotheses there is significant effect of MGNREGA in ROHTAK block (Haryana).

The positive results of MGNREGA in Rohtak Block, Haryana, are shown in table 1.4. Financial performance of MGNREGA increased by 124.94% in 2020–21 compared to 2021–22, therefore we may infer that it has positively impacted villagers' living standards, which is favorable for rural communities. So it was rejected the null hypotheses.

Conclusion:-

By increasing spending for a productive labour force in villages, the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is seen as a "Magical Solution" for eliminating rural poverty and unemployment. We can therefore draw a conclusion from the debate above that the government is now more serious about eliminating poverty in India. The Indian government has also made a big effort to increase the involvement of grassroots organizations in the implementation of programmes to reduce poverty. The socioeconomic programmes are currently more targeted and directly attacking poverty. More consideration should be given to programmes like MGNREGA during the planning phase in order to significantly reduce poverty in rural areas.

We might infer from the discussion above that the government is now more committed to eliminating poverty in India. The Indian government has also made a big effort to increase the involvement of grassroots organizations in the implementation of programmes to reduce poverty. The social and economic initiative, The village community's continuous, deliberate, and active participation and participation during the COVID-19 pandemic crisis will be vital to the success and effectiveness of these programmes. There is always potential for improvement in every part of the implementation process, despite the fact that the efforts of the State and central governments cannot be underestimated.

Suggestions :-

- People in rural areas, especially women, are not aware of MGNREGA programme components including wage payments, knowledge of job cards and their validity, unemployment benefits, and other information about MGNREGA, so all information should be provided about the scheme at the village, gram me Sabah, or local level .
- Respondents suggested that there is no shade or designated area for lunch because under MGNREGA, working sites change as needed.
- Respondents claimed that sometimes they eat lunch in unpleasant locations, so the government should provide a tent on the jobsite that is portable and adaptable
- The MNREGA aims to improve the livelihood security of people in rural areas by guaranteeing 100 days of employment during the COVID-19 pandemic situation, but it is clear from the statistics that the state governments do not fulfill their commitments under this provision, and the average number of employment days is significantly lower than what is required by statute (100).to changing worksites.
- Based on critical evaluation MGNREGA play a vital role to development of countries as well rural area also, the program deemed to be encourage the women empowerment and rural communities

References :-

- Your articlelibrary (2010) Jawahar Gram Samridhi yojana by government of India <https://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/essay/jawahar-gram-samridhi-yojana-by-government-of-India/35005>
- Nrega.nic.in (2012) Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee ACT 2005 https://nrega.nic.in/Circular_Archive/archive/RTP2016_English.pdf
- NITI AYOJ (2015) study on Employment Assurance scheme <https://niti.gov.in/planningcommission.gov.in/docs/reports/peoreport/cmpdmpeo/volume1/178.pdf>
- Kumar, A... (2015). Socio-Economic impact of MGNREGA: Evidences from District of Udham Singh Nagar in Uttarakhand, India. *Indian Journal of Economics and Development*, 3, 1-10.
- Baladhandayutham, K. (2016). Impact of MGNREGA on Rural Livelihoods: A Study in Karur Districts of Tamil Nadu. *International Journal of Management and Development Studies*, 5(3), 40-48.
- Kumar, A., & Deogharia, P. C (2017). IMPACT OF MGNREGA ON RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION: A CASE STUDY OF JHARKHAND.
- Mishra, A. K., & Singh, M. (2018). Mgnrega and Employment Generation in India. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, 8(9), 146-154.
- Mehta, S., & Sharma, S. S. (2019). MGNREGA and Economic Empowerment of Women-Study of Indian Women. *Economic Affairs*, 64(1), 35-39.
- SENGUPTA, P. (2020). New Opportunity and Performance Analysis Of Mgnrega During Covid-19: A Case Study Of Purulia District. *Weblog (ISSN: 1735-188X)*, 17(2).

Assessment of Personal Hygiene and Sanitation Practices among Government School Children Studying in Rural Areas of Sonbhadra District, U.P. (India)

Manjusha Rai*

Abstract:

Malnutrition must be faced by people due to their irresponsible activities like garbage spreading randomly in the surroundings, poor drainage, poor cleanliness at home, personal hygiene, open defecation, poor hand wash or no handwash. The present study was a descriptive cross-sectional study for assessing the dietary status of primary school children (5-9 years) of Sonbhadra District, Uttar Pradesh (India). This study was done for determining dietary intake status among school going children. Survey work conducted for the study between March 2023 to May 2024 in the government schools of Sonbhadra District. 325 students were taken from different Government School of Sonbhadra District. Present study revealed that mostly children were found to be negligent in terms of hygiene and sanitation.

Key Words: Health, Hygiene and Sanitation, Children.

Introduction:

Good personal hygiene is essential to the health and academic performance of school-age children, especially in rural areas where access to sanitation resources and health education can be limited. The aim of this study is to evaluate the practice of personal hygiene among children attending government schools in rural areas. It focuses on key hygiene behaviors such as handwashing, mouth hygiene, bathing, nail trimming, and use of clean clothing, practice of hygiene, as well as the effects of socio-economic factors, parental awareness and intervention at school level. Nutritional status of children was negatively affected by physical elements. The quantity and type of food consumption both would be limited by poor oral hygiene and tooth decay. Mobility reduction may also hinder the child from taking food when leprosy related amputation and other obstruction occur (NFHS;2015). Every child is born with the right to a healthy life, education, safe childhood with all the basic possibilities that convert into adulthood with successful and prosperous life but millions of children around the world-wide are denied their rights and everything they need to grow up strong and healthy. Thus could be mainly because of their place of birth, gender, family origin, disability and poverty. Fundamental rights and resources are available to all equally but when these facilities are taken away from children, inequality arises. These factors lead to ultimately children's malnutrition and many other outcomes (UNICEF; 2016).

* Assistant Professor, Home Science, Km. Mayawati Govt. Girls P.G. College, Badalpur, Gautam Buddha Nagar UP, India.

Material and Method:

The present study was a descriptive cross-sectional study for assessing the dietary status of primary school children (5-9 years) of Sonebhadra District, Uttar Pradesh (India). This study was done for determining dietary intake status among school going children. Survey work conducted for the study between March 2023 to May 2024 in the government schools of Sonebhadra District. 325 students were taken from different Government School of Sonebhadra District.

Results:**Table 1: Distribution of Children According to Parent's Education:**

Govt. School (n=325) Variables	Father's Education	Mother's Education
Post- Graduate	0.0	0.0
Graduate	33 (10.1%)	3 (0.9%)
Intermediate	101 (31.1%)	50 (15.4%)
Highschool	85 (26.2%)	66 (20.3%)
Middle School	53 (16.3%)	89 (27.4%)
Primary School	44 (13.5%)	78 (24%)
Illiterate	9 (2.8%)	39 (12%)

Table-1 stated that in government school children mostly father's educational level was intermediate 31.1% and high school 26.2%, whereas mother's educational level was middle school 27.4% and primary school 24.0%.

Table 2: Distribution of Children According to Parent's Education:

Govt. School (n=325) Variables	Father's Occupation	Mother's Occupation
Government Job	9 (2.8%)	9 (2.8%)
Private Job	27 (8.3%)	9 (2.8%)
Skilled Worker	98 (30.2%)	36 (11.1%)
Unskilled Worker	94 (28.9%)	105(32.3%)
Business	40 (12.3%)	13 (4%)
Agriculture	57 (17.5%)	69 (21.2%)
Housewives	-	84 (25.8%)

Table-2 showed that in government school children father's occupational level was skilled worker 30.2% and unskilled worker 28.9%, whereas mother's occupational level was unskilled worker 32.3%, agriculture 21.2% and house-wife 25.8%.

Table 3. Distribution of Children According to Socio-Economic Status:

Socio-Economic Status	Govt. School (n=325)
I- Upper Class	0 (0.0%)
II- Upper Middle	7 (2.2%)
III- Lower Middle	23(7.0%)
IV- Upper Lower	156(48.0%)
V- Lower Class	139(42.8%)

Table-3 stated that in the government school children mostly parent's Socio-economic status was observed to be upper-lower 48.0%, and the lower class 42.8%.

Table 4. Distribution of Children According to Drinking Water:

Variables	Govt. School (n=325)
Source of Drinking Water:	
Hand Pump	185(56.92%)
Supply Water	140(43.08%)
Type of Drinking Water:	
Boiled	30 (9.2%)
Filtered	36 (11.1%)
Direct from Source	259 (79.7%)

Table-4 showed that in government school 56.92% children used hand pump water and 43.08% used supply water for drinking. 9.2% children used boiled water, 11.1% used filter water and majority of children 79.7% used direct water from source for drinking.

Table 5. Distribution of Children According to Personal Hygiene:

Variables	Govt. School (n=325)
Bath Daily:	
Yes	176 (54.2%)
No	149 (45.8%)

Brushing Teeth Daily:	
One Time	163 (50.2%)
Two Time	38 (11.6%)
No	124 (38.2%)
Comb Hair Daily:	
Yes	164 (50.5%)
No	161 (49.5%)
Clean Nails Regularly:	
Yes	76 (23.4%)
No	249 (76.6%)

Table-5 showed that in government school children only 54.2% bath daily, 50.2% children were brushing teeth one time/day, 11.6% two time/day & 38.2% children had irregular brushing pattern, 50.5% children combed hair regularly and 23.4% children were cleaning nails regularly.

Table 6. Distribution of Children According to Handwash Pattern:

Variables	Govt. School (n=325)
Wash Your Hand Before Taking Meal:	
Yes	42 (12.9%)
No	283 (87.1%)
Hand Wash Material:	
Soap	31 (9.5%)
Ash	149 (45.8%)
Soil/Mud	145 (44.7%)

Table- 6 stated about hand wash pattern before taking meal and hand wash materials among children of different government school. Only 12.9% of the children used to wash their hands before taking meal. 9.5% children were using soap, 45.8% were using ash and 44.7% were using soil/mud for cleaning hands.

Discussion:

In the present study the education of father belonged mostly Intermediate level (31.1%) and mother were middle school level (27.4%) and high school level (20.3%). Similar findings were also found in the Amruth et al (2015), Hasan et al. (2011). In the study literacy level of mother education were low as compared to father due to lack of awareness about education. The

study stated that mostly father was skilled (30.2%) whereas mostly mother (25.8%) were housewives and 32.3% mother were unskilled due to poor income level. In the study of Amruth et al. (2015) and Hasan et al. (2011) also reflected the same kind of occupational level. In the present study mostly, the children were belonging in class IV (Upper Lower) (48.0%) level income group which was very similar to Amruth et al. (2015) and Hasan et al (2011) study.

In the present study 56.92% of government school children used hand pump water and 43.08% used supply water for drinking. In the study it was observed that 79.7% of government school children use direct tap water for drinking and only 11.1% filtered and 9.2% boiled water. Similar finding also obtained by Korlakunta (2022), in this study 85% of children used direct tap water for drinking and this water may contaminate and that may a causative factor for infection and digestive system.

About 54.2% of government school children bathed regularly. 50.2% of government school children used to brush once a day and only 11.6% used to brush twice a day. 50.5% of government school children combed hair daily. Only 23.4% of government school children cleaned nails regularly. 87.1% of government school children did not wash their hands before taking meal. In the study 9.5%, 45.8% and 44.7% of government school children used soap, ash and soil/mud for cleaning their hands. Similar study conducted by Vijayalakshmi et al. (2023) in which 50.9% urban school children, 30% semi-urban school children and 19.9% rural children washed their hands before taking meal. As contrast a study conducted by Sarkar (2013) among 104 primary school children in slum area of Kolkata in which 84.62% children washed their hands before eating, 48.08% children combed their hair regularly, 42.3% children took bath daily, 50% children brushed their teeth regularly, 76.92% children trimmed their nails properly. Similar study conducted by Almiya et al. (2022) in which children had very low awareness regarding personal hygiene only 12% students washed hands with soap and water and 5% of the students brushed their teeth twice a day.

Conclusion:

Present study revealed that mostly children were found to be negligent in terms of hygiene and sanitation. The educational and occupational status of such children was seen very poor.

References:

1. National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3) (2015-16) <https://mohfw.nic.in/nfhfactsheet.html>.
2. UNICEF, India (2016). The children Nutrition available at mospi.nic.in.
3. Amurth M., Kumar S., Kulkarni A.G., Kamble S.V. and Ismail IM (2015). A study on nutritional status and morbidity pattern among primary school children in Sullia town, Karnataka, South India. *Indian Journal of Basic & Applied Medical Research*, 4(4): p.100-112.
4. Hasan I., Zulkifi M., Ansari A.H.(2011) A Study of Prevalence of Malnutrition in government school children in the field area of Azad Nagar Bangalore, India. *Arch. Appl. Sci. Res.*2011: 3(3): 167-176.

5. Korlakunta, S. (2022). Study on water consumption and health risks among children. *Journal of Public Health Studies*, 15(3), 45-52.
6. Vijayalakshmi Payala and Reddy M, Devi K and Padmaja Indugula (2023). Hygiene and Sanitation practises in school children: an evolution of wash conditions in Vishakhapatnam. *Journal of Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for development*. 19.301-311.
7. Sarkar M.(2013). Personal hygiene among primary school children living in a slum of Kolkata, India. *Journal of Preventive medicine & hygiene*.54. 153-158.



A Comparative Study of Adjustment between Boys and Girls Living in Orphanages

Dr. Manorma Kumari*

Abstract:

The present study aimed to compare the level of adjustment between boys and girls living in orphanages. A total of 100 adolescents (50 boys and 50 girls) aged 12 to 18 years, residing in orphanages in Chapra and Siwan districts of Bihar, were selected. The Bell Adjustment Inventory (adapted by Ojha) was used to assess the level of adjustment. The data were statistically analyzed using the t-test. The findings revealed a significant difference in adjustment levels between boys and girls living in orphanages. Girls exhibited a significantly higher level of adjustment than boys. These results suggest that gender plays an important role in the adjustment of adolescents in orphanages. The findings have implications for policymakers, psychologists, and social workers working with adolescents in orphanages.

Introduction:

Adolescence is a crucial phase in human life. In this transitional period, individuals encounter many biological, psychological, and social changes. For adolescents living in orphanages, this stage becomes even more critical. Being deprived of parental care, family support, and emotional security, such adolescents often face problems in adapting to society. Adjustment is an important aspect of human life that reflects how an individual harmonizes with their environment. Good adjustment signifies psychological health and social well-being.

The present study examines the level of adjustment among adolescents living in orphanages and compares the differences between boys and girls. In orphanages, children are often raised in a controlled and resource-constrained environment, which affects their personality development, social relationships, and emotional health. This study aims to explore these aspects and provide an analytical perspective.

Definition and Nature of Adjustment:

The concept of adjustment refers to the process by which an individual maintains balance with the internal and external environment. It is a dynamic and continuous process, involving adaptation to biological, psychological, and social situations. According to Shaffer (1961), "Adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs."

Adjustment involves both conformity and resistance. It can be considered a two-way process. While it includes acceptance of social norms, it also provides the freedom to respond according to one's values. The main areas of adjustment are:

1. Home Adjustment
2. Health Adjustment
3. Social Adjustment
4. Emotional Adjustment

Need and Significance of the Study:

Previous studies (e.g., Yendork & Somhlaba, 2017; Makame et al., 2002) have indicated that children living in orphanages have significantly lower adjustment levels than children living in families. The present study not only assesses the adjustment levels of orphanage children but also analyzes the differences between boys and girls. This study holds academic, psychological, and social significance.

* M A , Ph.D., Kashi Bazar Chapra

Objectives of the Study:

1. To measure the level of adjustment among boys living in orphanages.
2. To measure the level of adjustment among girls living in orphanages.
3. To compare the adjustment levels between boys and girls living in orphanages.

Hypothesis:**H₀ (Null Hypothesis):**

There is no significant difference in the level of adjustment between boys and girls living in orphanages.

Methodology:**(a) Sample:**

100 adolescents (50 boys and 50 girls) aged between 12 and 18 years from orphanages in Chapra and Siwan districts of Bihar.

(b) Tool Used:

Bell Adjustment Inventory (Hindi adaptation by Ojha)

This scale measures adjustment in four areas: home, health, social, and emotional.

(c) Statistical Technique:

The t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups.

Result / Findings:**Table 1: Comparison of Adjustment Scores Between Boys and Girls Living in Orphanages**

Variables	Group	N	Mean	SD	SED	t	P
Adjustment	Orphanage Living male children	50	53.98	2.591	.447	27.711	<.001
	Orphanage Living female Children	50	41.60	1.807			

Table no. 1: Means, SDs, and SED and results of t-ratio between mean adjustment score of male and female orphanage Living children.

The results show that the mean adjustment score of boys is significantly higher than that of girls, indicating that girls have better adjustment than boys. The difference is statistically significant.

Discussion:

This study clearly shows that girls have significantly better adjustment than boys in orphanages. These findings are supported by previous studies such as those by Gahlawat (2009), Pooja Bhagat (2016), and Mahmud & Iqbal (2010), which also reported that girls generally adjust better than boys. This may be due to girls being more emotionally expressive, socially cooperative, and behaviorally restrained, whereas boys may exhibit more externalizing behavior problems.

Conclusion:

There is a significant difference in the level of adjustment between boys and girls living in orphanages. Girls are better adjusted than boys in the areas of home, health, social, and emotional aspects. This indicates that gender plays an important role in the adjustment process. The findings are useful for mental health professionals, orphanage caretakers, educators, and policymakers.

References:

- Bradburn, N. M. (1969). The structure of psychological well-being.
- Bruce, N. D., & Tsotsos, J. K. (2009). Saliency, attention, and visual search: An information theoretic approach. *Journal of vision*, 9(3), 5-5.
- Crenshaw, D. A., & Garbarino, J. (2007). The hidden dimensions: Profound sorrow and buried potential in violent youth. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 47(2), 160-174.
- Dhir, A., Yossatorn, Y., Kaur, P., & Chen, S. (2018). Online social media fatigue and psychological wellbeing— A study of compulsive use, fear of missing out, fatigue, anxiety and depression. *International Journal of Information Management*, 40, 141-152.
- Evans, G. W., & English, K. (2002). The environment of poverty: Multiple stressor exposure, psychophysiological stress, and socioemotional adjustment. *Child development*, 73(4), 1238-1248.
- Hermenau, K., Hecker, T., Ruf, M., Schauer, E., Elbert, T., & Schauer, M. (2011). Childhood adversity, mental ill-health and aggressive behavior in an African orphanage: Changes in response to trauma-focused

- therapy and the implementation of a new instructional system. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health*, 5(1), 1-9.
- Jia, Z., Tian, W., Liu, W., Cao, Y., Yan, J., & Shun, Z. (2010). Are the elderly more vulnerable to psychological impact of natural disaster? A population-based survey of adult survivors of the 2008 Sichuan earthquake. *BMC public health*, 10(1), 1-11.
- Killian, B., & Durrheim, K. (2008). Psychological distress in orphan, vulnerable children and non-vulnerable children in high prevalence HIV/AIDS communities. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 18(3), 421-429.
- Lassi, Z. S., Mahmud, S., Syed, E. U., & Janjua, N. Z. (2011). Behavioral problems among children living in orphanage facilities of Karachi, Pakistan: comparison of children in an SOS Village with those in conventional orphanages. *Social psychiatry and psychiatric epidemiology*, 46, 787-796.
- Makame, M. O. (2007). Adoption of improved stoves and deforestation in Zanzibar. *Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal*, 18(3), 353-365.
- Ojha, R. K. (2006). Bell's Adjustment Inventory. Ankur Psychological Agency, Lucknow.
- Pollard, E. L., & Lee, P. D. (2003). Child well-being: A systematic review of the literature. *Social indicators research*, 61, 59-78.
- Sengendo, J., & Nambi, J. (1997). The psychological effect of orphanhood: a study of orphans in Rakai district. *Health transition review*, 105-124.
- Spithoven, A., & Teirlinck, P. (2015). Internal capabilities, network resources and appropriation mechanisms as determinants of R&D outsourcing. *Research policy*, 44(3), 711-725.
- Tadesse, S., Dereje, F., & Belay, M. (2014). Psychosocial wellbeing of orphan and vulnerable children at orphanages in Gondar Town, North West Ethiopia. *Journal of public Health and Epidemiology*, 6(10), 293-301.
- Yendork, J. S., & Somhlaba, N. Z. (2014). Stress, coping and quality of life: An exploratory study of the psychological well-being of Ghanaian orphans placed in orphanages. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 46, 28-37.



The ROC-PRC Economic Relationship since 1979

Raja Babu*
Gyan Prakash Ghosh**

Abstract

The paper elucidates an interplay of political transition and economic cooperation in ROC-PRC relations, with an emphasis on trade and investment. The objective of this research is to analyse in what manner does the political ruling in ROC affects the economic cooperation between ROC and PRC. In this research paper, we have utilised economic factors, such as bilateral trade and tourism between ROC and PRC. The paper underlines and examines relations between PRC and ROC, and it focuses on the administrative policies of the ROC from 1979 till 2019 examining its impact on trade relations. In this paper we have used the theoretical framework of international political economy and the findings elucidates that the change of administration in Taiwan has little to no impact on PRC-ROC trade relations. Meanwhile, the findings suggest that there is a notable effect on ROC-PRC tourism, mainly from PRC, since it regulates the number of visitors and tourist plans to visit ROC.

Keywords: Taiwan Strait, Taiwan, PRC-ROC, Kuomintang, Democratic progressive party

Introduction

Issue of Taiwan is long-standing and is one of the few remaining unsettled political and security concerns dated to Cold War period. Taiwan issue was challenged to the forefront as a question of international relations following the Chinese civil war between 1945-1949 which led to the withdrawal of general Chiang Kai-Shek and his party KMT to Taiwan, and there has since then declared itself as the sole legitimate government officially named as Republic of China (ROC) which was established in 1911(Lin, 2019) . Meanwhile, the victorious Chinese Communist Party claimed itself as the sole representator of the Chinese state and its people and thereby established mainland as the People's Republic of China (PRC). So long as the USA with backing from the world community and its partners form first world states i.e., western alliance upheld the ROC led China as the only recognised government of China and fought for it in international bodies including United nations and United Nations Security Council where initially the KMT represented China (Lin, 2019).

Soon, after rapprochement between PRC and U.S. in the 1970s the international relations scenarios of East Asia changed dramatically. After the rapprochement, not only Taiwan had to withdraw from the UN, the PRC gained the official recognition of China in 1979 and afterwards the western countries shifted their alliances to PRC, it started recognizing PRC under One China policy. Nevertheless, for PRC the existence of autonomous Taiwan has always underestimated the PRC legitimacy as it and goes against its One China policy where it considers Taiwan as inseparable of China.

It was not entirely the first, as military attempts from PRC to reintegrate the island nation of Taiwan are 1954, 1955, 1958 military conflicts. Eventually they became economic policies, the latter was facilitated by Cross-Strait relation institutionalization and PRC-ROC trade relations development in 1990s. As a result, major developments took place during 1990s majorly due to the PRC's trade reforms and ROC democratic changes in the early 1990's both ROC and PRC established channels of communication in such as the SEF and ARATS. These developments surely indicates that trade relations and economic engagement improved between both the states especially

* Ph.D. Candidate, Department of East Asian Studies, University of Delhi

** Assistant professor, College of vocational studies, Delhi university

after the establishment of Straits Exchange Foundation and Association for Relations Across the Taiwan Straits (Chiang, 2016).

People Republic of China (PRC) and Republic of China (ROC) Trade Relations

The major political parties in ROC upholds Taiwan’s claim of being the sole representor of Chinese people and state, the two major political parties the Kuomintang (KMT) and the Democratic progressive party (DPP) has meanwhile different attitudes towards PRC (Chiang, 2016). KMT policy agenda includes pro-unification stance by engaging in consultations with the Mainland China based on the talking principle of "1992 Consensus", to maintain ROC as the official title of Taiwan, to agree on “One China”, prioritise PRC-ROC over foreign relation, arguing by this way Taiwan can escape itself from an international exile and enhance any status is only if it is to work towards a better relation with Mainland. The DPP, in contrast, is a party with an independence perspective, and is sceptical about the “1992 Consensus,” refuses to accept “One China” and attaches priority to relations with foreign states rather than PRC-ROC relations, and focuses on an identity of Taiwanese. The outcome of our research indicates that Cross Taiwan Strait or PRC-ROC economic cooperation work well under the KMT and not under DPP.

As show in the Figure 1, PRC-ROC trade exchanges shows increment under KMT ruling and falling under the DPP tenure, as ROC witnesses three waves of ruling shifts.

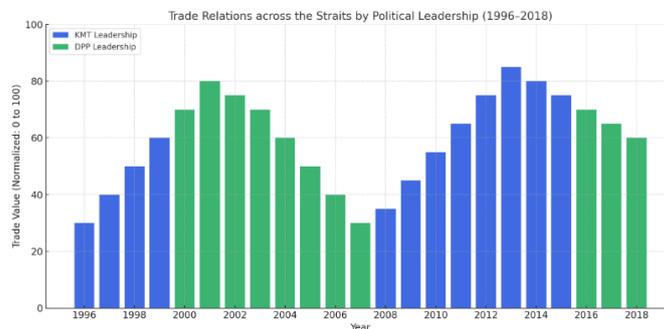


Figure 1. – The figure represents trade relations between ROC and PRC during different political leadership

However, the shift in Taiwan's ruling party has little effect on PRC-ROC economic cooperation, as seen under Figure 2. For example, despite the change of power, PRC-ROC commerce generally growing from 1991, under President Lee Teng-hui of ROC.

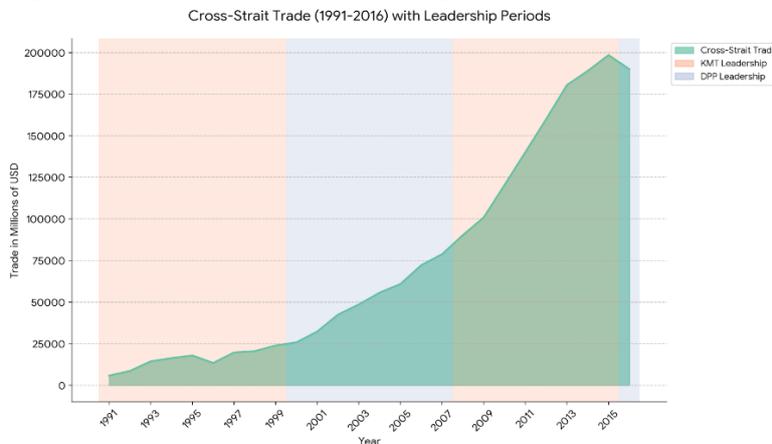


Figure 2

Evaluation of PRC-ROC cooperation focused Lee Teng-hui as how he led the government was different from Chiang Kai-shek (there was little to no relationship between PRC and ROC from 1949—1975). There was no trade or contact across the border in citizens between either side. It was until his son tenure, Chiang Ching-kuo (1978—1988), that Cross-Strait relations started to get better. Chiang Ching-kuo visit to United States, he adhered to his father's policy toward the Cross-Straits relations, and refused to accept Three Links (trade, transportation, mail) to the mainland proposed by the mainland, but "Three Noes" i.e., no negotiation, contact, or compromise with CPC.

Under Lee Teng-hui (1988-2000) reinvigorated period of PRC-ROC relations took place. Both mainstream parties approached to institutionalization of PRC-ROC relations and in the 1990s National Unification Council was launched. At the 3rd session of the conference on 23 February 1991 National Unification Guidelines (NUG) were agreed, where major unification markers for the future, were elucidated. It is this formative body that was also the most significant to emerge then, namely the MAC in Taiwan and its counterpart office, the TAO, in Mainland China. Straits Exchange Foundation was founded in ROC and Association for Relations across the Taiwan Straits (ARATS) was founded in PRC to channel discussion for both sides on an unofficial channel (Tsai, 2017).

In 1990s both nations opened official talks on the lines of SEF and ARATS addressing conflicting "One China" issue. In the next year i.e., 1992, both sides reached the Hong Kong Resolution through which both nations agreed that the conflict of one "China" can be resolved with both Mainland China and Taiwan fall within that category. Both PRC and ROC underlined the content "China" differently (while PRC believes this refers to the People's Republic of China with Taiwan as a "Special Administrative Region," Taipei believed it refers to the Republic of China, which is arguably original administrator of all of China (Chiang, 2016). This was first cross-strait political compromise in over 40 years. So, it is logically to take 1991, the year in which the Cross-Strait talk was initiated with both the states, as the starting point of the examination to the Cross-Strait composite economic and non-economic exchanges.

Origin and Prospects of Cross-Strait Trade Relations (1991–2016)

During 1991–95, two-way indirect trade (generally via Hong Kong) between ROC and PRC increased by average of 29% per year. However, by 1995, this progress had severely stalled, growth was decelerating precipitously, to an anaemic 5%. This change was driven by a number of factors. For one, President Lee Teng-hui initiated a "Go South" policy, aimed at broadening the island's economic footprint and deepening its engagement with Southeast Asian countries. Second, cross-Strait political friction flared up dramatically following Lee's provocative visit to the USA in defiance of strong Chinese condemnation. Also, that year, China carried out missile drills near Taiwan, further inflaming sentiment stalling momentum of ongoing negotiations.

The 1997 Asian Financial Crisis had created massive misery throughout the region, and it was coupled with Lee's increasingly pro-independence rhetoric and a strategic shift toward broader international engagement resulting in a 9.1% fall into trade growth by 1998. Though levels of trade nearly recovered to the pre-crisis level by 1999, hostilities grew. Beijing broke off dialogue with Taiwan's Straits Exchange Foundation (SEF) after Lee made the remarks in a 1999 interview with Deutsche Welle in which he referred to cross-Strait ties as "special state-to-state relations" (Edmonds & Goldstein, 2001).

The May 2000 elections of the DPP's Chen Shui-bian seemed to have heralded a new era. However, Beijing, with its deeply ingrained mistrust of the DPP and of Chen for their refusal to accept the 'One China' principle or the '1992 Consensus', saw economic exchanges between Taiwan and China exploding (Lobachevsky State University of Nizhny Novgorod, Nizhny Novgorod, Russia et al., 2017). While he never openly endorsed Beijing's political model, Chen adopted a pragmatic approach with an agenda that aimed at easing tension and promoting shared economic commonalities.

Between 2001 and 2007, indirect trade through Hong Kong expanded at a 17.3% average annual clip. The increase was first triggered by the three links policy of 2001, allowing direct transportation, trade and postal links between Taiwan's outlying islands (Kinmen, Matsu and

Penghu) and China's Fujian Province (Tsai, 2017). But Chen's 2002 switch from "political integration" to the advocacy of the "state to state" framework resulted in renewed political estrangement.

Stronger-armed in his second term, Chen has since had the same policy toward the Union. He inflamed cross-Strait tension in 2007 with his call for a new constitution and a separate Taiwan identity while addressing the Formosan Association for Public Affairs. Nevertheless, trade expanded with only a slight decrease in early 2008, the year in which Taiwan held presidential elections. Trade expanded to \$71.7 billion in 2008—more than twice its 2000 level of \$30.6 billion at the start of the decade.

In 2008, Ma Ying-jeou of KMT was elected president, and fresh era in ties began. His administration focused on making the cross-Strait relation stable, and strengthen data relationship with Mainland China. Ma's victory meant that the "1992 Consensus" was receiving a stamp of approval. In his inaugural speech, Ma embraced the "1992 Consensus" and the SEF-ARATS talks resumed. These talks took place every six months, and 23 agreements were signed under Ma's leadership, the majority of them with the focus on economic cooperation.

But the international financial crisis depressed trade in late 2008. The next year, trade rebounded robustly. A significant breakthrough was the signing of the Economic Cooperation Framework, or ECFA, in 2010, which was aimed at expanding market opening, lowering tariffs and strengthening investment guarantees (Yu et al., 2016). The growth in trade roared back to 7.5% in 2011, dropped to -4% in 2012 (an election year), and rebounded to 5.4% in 2013. Trade growth fell to 2.9 percent in 2014 as a result of additional agreements such as the Cross-Strait Customs Cooperation Agreement (2012).

An important fall took place in 2015, when trade contracted by 9.8%. This decline was due to growing worries about the overdependence of the island's economy on Mainland China and the backlash against Ma's policies. The 2013 Cross-Strait Agreement on Trade in Services gave rise to concerns of unfair competition as the service sector in Taiwan was dominated by small- and medium-sized enterprises which would have to compete with large state-owned enterprises in China. Critics warned it could cost jobs and hold down wages (Lobachevsky State University of Nizhny Novgorod, Nizhny Novgorod, Russia et al., 2017).

These anxieties came to a head in the 2014 Sunflower Movement, when students led protests that paralyzed the ratification of the trade services agreement and limited Ma's ability to bring about more cross-Strait integration. Although two more such agreements were signed in 2015, on tax cooperation and flight safety, they were largely procedural and made little difference to actual trade.

The cross-Strait trade had been strong despite political changes. Tsai Ing-wen, a DPP candidate, elected president in ROC 2016, trade growth recovered to 3.1%, indicating economic recovery from a decline in the previous year. All in all, the trend of 1991-2016 in trade does seem to indicate that as much as political relations sour, economic consideration has largely taken over in determining the patterns of ROC trade. Even in height of the panel pro-independence political posturing under Chen Shui-bian, trade actually increased markedly ParentsChinese3without ever accomplishing damning testament to the dominance of material over ideal interests in determining cross-Strait economic flows, an understanding which continues to inform informal trade relations up to the present day.

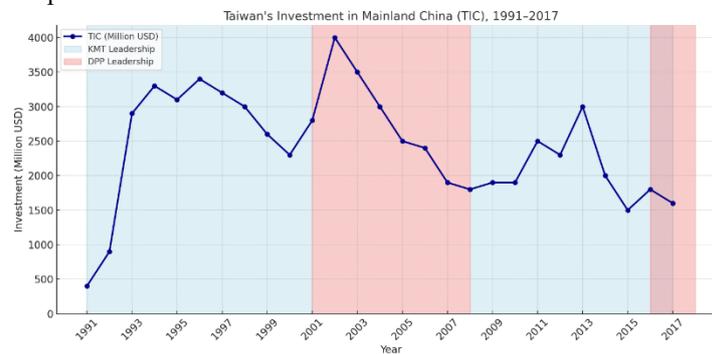
Trends in Taiwan Investment in China (TIC) and China Investment in Taiwan (1979–2017)

The engagement began when the Mainland Chinese government in 1979 extended an olive branch toward Taiwan for the first time by issuing the "Message to Compatriots in Taiwan" (告台湾同胞书), signaling a shift in policies toward economic integration across the Strait. This message was combined with a number of preferential measures to attract Taiwanese investment (Jacobs & Ben Liu, 2007). Among the earlier was the 1984 promulgation of the Special Preferential Regulations on Taiwanese Compatriots' Investment in the Special Economic Zones, to facilitate their investments in

zones like Shenzhen, Zhuhai, Shantou and Xiamen and all sorts of experimental sites to develop markets and the economy as a component to China's economic reform and open policies (Chiang, 2016).

Later, in 1988, the Mainland put into practice the Regulations on Encouraging the Investments of Taiwan Compatriots, covering all Legitimate rights and interests involved in Taiwanese businessmen in one law (Fell, 2018). On top of this, the establishment of Law on Protection of Investment by Taiwan compatriots in 1994 has also offered multiple formal legal protection and institutional backing for Taiwanese investors (Fell, 2018).

However, TIC in the 1980s was relatively low, for investment to China was heavily regulated by the Taiwanese government by its imposition of tight currency control and by its limit on cross-strait interaction (Cheng 1995). A major moment arrived in 1987 when Taipei ended a ban on exchange transactions and loosened restrictions on outflows of capital. This liberalisation led to an explosion of TIC. Under the measures, in 1990, the administration of Lee Teng-hui adopted these MoUs into the Measures on Indirect Investment and Technical Cooperation with the Mainland which serve as concrete basis of these investments from Taiwan to enter Mainland China legally (Jacobs & Ben Liu, 2007). Thus, Taiwanese enterprises were forced to migrate their production to the mainland for the lower cost of production.



The effects were immediate. TIC rose to \$1.05 billion in 1992 vs. \$466 million in 1991. With China's policy of developing a socialist market economy increasingly taking hold, investment flows accelerated in 1993, surging to \$3.14 billion. And by 1995, 50% of all ROC outward foreign investments flowed to PRC, reflecting the dramatic structural change of Taiwan's international economic interaction (Chao, 2003).

Ironically, the expected upward trend in TIC during the pro-closer integration tenure of Ma Ying-jeou, a KMT president, did not materialize. After the 2008 worldwide financial crisis, investment pursuit was still modest. TIC briefly rebounded in 2011 after the ECFA was signed in 2010, and experienced a small uptick in 2013 after the PRC-ROC Investment Protection and Promotion Agreement was signed in 2012, but never returned to the levels of the previous decades. This stagnation has probably been due to rising labor costs along with escalating competition in China as multinational firms continued to flood in.

With President Tsai Ing-wen in office, TIC has fallen even further, to just \$1.77 billion in 2017 (Cabestan & DeLisle, 2014). Tsai's refusal to accept the "one China" principle and the "1992 Consensus" has caused political unrest for Taiwanese businessmen who worry they will be the victims of economic reprisals by Beijing (Lin, 2019). In addition, her administration's New Southbound Policy has pushed for investment to be relocated to Southeast Asia, especially to countries such as Vietnam and Cambodia, where the cost of doing business is cheap.

For the extended period 1991–2017, TIC increased markedly on account of a small number of important contributors:

Sympathetic business investment environment in Mainland China in the early 1990s by the Chinese government in this period.

The country's 2001 entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO), which improved legal protections, lowered trade restrictions and boosted investor sentiment.

Decision driven by profit motives of Taiwanese firms lured by low labour costs and a high market potential of China.

In contrast, there has been little investment from Communist China in Taiwan. It was only in 2009 that a ban, in place for six decades since the time of Chiang Kai-shek, lifted under Ma Ying-jeou (Muyard, 2010). As of 2017, 1,404 Mainland-led investment projects received approval, worth \$2.4 billion. But the number is still very small compared to the 3,464 Taiwanese-invested projects in the mainland in the same year.

This imbalance can be attributed to both structural and strategic reasons. Wiped out by Japan in the 1890s and abandoned to fight for itself by the terrified KMT government during the cold war, Taiwan does not even boast the large, strong market that would appeal to any Mainland concern (especially those regimented, state-owned giants). Rather, investment by Chinese firms in Taiwan often serves more general political goals, such as creating economic links between the two sides, and furthering the eventual aim of unification across the Strait.

Conclusion

The examination on Cross-Strait relations shows that the policy cycle in Taiwan has not directly affected the Cross-Strait trade path. Trade grew most rapidly during the Chen Shui-Bian administration, which had a clear pro-independence policy and was marked by extremely high tension with the mainland. Trade expanded at a much steadier rate, however, under the presidency of Ma Ying-jeou, who had campaigned for office on a platform of improving political relations and increasing economic cooperation. This would seem to indicate that trade relations across the Strait have been chiefly propelled by economic calculation, not political ties or *détente*.

Taiwanese investment in Mainland China (TIC) has likewise been more responsive to economic considerations rather than politics. TIC has witnessed amazing growth since 1987 when Taiwan began freeing up limits on outbound investment, especially since 1988, when Beijing launched preferred policies for Taiwan investors. Take the volume of investment for example much of this rise and fall is less driven by political posturing from Taiwanese leadership and more by economic realities on the Mainland – wages going up; competition increasing; industrial policies changing. So far, Taiwanese companies have adopted TIC mostly out of commercial considerations such as cost cutting and market entry.

Mainland China's investment in Taiwan, for its part, has increased modestly since it started in 2009, when Taiwan ended a six-decade prohibition. While the number and size of projects are not as large as those governed by TIC, numerous large Chinese investments in Taiwan seem to be politically driven. These initiatives are typically in-line with Beijing's strategic objectives around reinforcing Cross-Strait economic integration and cultivating mutual long-term dependencies. Chinese investors, especially state-owned enterprise (SOE) investors, also do not approach the Taiwanese market with mere commercial considerations, unlike their Taiwanese counterparts.

References

- Cabestan, J.-P., & DeLisle, J. (Eds.). (2014). Political changes in Taiwan under Ma Ying-Jeou: Partisan conflict, policy choices, external constraints and security challenges. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315797953>
- Chao, C.-M. (2003). One Step Forward, One Step Backward: Chen Shui-bian's mainland policy. *Journal of Contemporary China*, 12(34), 125–143. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10670560305460>
- Chiang, M. (2016). China-Taiwan rapprochement: The political economy of cross-straits relations. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315690711>
- Edmonds, R. L., & Goldstein, S. M. (2001). Taiwan in the Twentieth Century: An Introduction. *The China Quarterly*, 165. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0009443901000006>

- Fell, D. (2018). *Government and politics in Taiwan* (Second edition). Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Fuller, D.B. (2014). ECFA's Empty Promise and Hollow Threat. In J.-P. Cabestan & J. deLisle (Eds.), *Political Changes in Taiwan under Ma Ying-jeou: Partisan Conflict, Policy Choices, External Constraints and Security Challenges*. New York: Routledge
- Jacobs, J. B., & Ben Liu, I.-H. (2007). Lee Teng-hui and the Idea of "Taiwan". *The China Quarterly*, 190, 375–393. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0305741007001245>
- Lin, G. (2019). *Taiwan's Party Politics and Cross-Strait Relations in Evolution (2008–2018)*. Springer Singapore. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-5814-2>
- Lobachevsky State University of Nizhny Novgorod, Nizhny Novgorod, Russia, Lychagin, A. I., Komarov, I. D., & Lobachevsky State University of Nizhny Novgorod, Nizhny Novgorod, Russia. (2017). THE TAIWAN QUESTION: EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL DETERMINANTS. *Vestnik RUDN International Relations*, 17(3), 530–538. <https://doi.org/10.22363/2313-0660-2017-17-3-530-538>
- Lychagin, A.I., & Komarov, I.D. (2017). The Taiwan Question: External and Internal Determinants. *Vestnik RUDN. International Relations*, 17(3), 530–538. (In Russian). DOI: 10.22363/2313-0660-2017-17-3-530-538
- Matsuda, Y. (2015). Cross-Strait Relations under the Ma Ying-jeou Administration: From Economic to Political Dependence? *Journal of Contemporary East Asia Studies*, 4(2), 3–35. DOI: 10.1080/24761028.2015.11869083
- Min-hua, C. (2015). *China-Taiwan Rapprochement: The Political Economy of Cross-Straits Relations*. Routledge.
- Muyard, F. (2010). Mid-Term Analysis of the Ma Ying-jeou Administration: The Difficulty of Delivering the (Right) Goods. *China Perspectives*, 2010(3). <https://doi.org/10.4000/chin perspectives.5299>
- Shaocheng, T. (2009). Relations across the Taiwan Strait: A New Era. *Institute of International Relations*, (21), 248–262. URL: <https://www.ucm.es/data/cont/media/www/pag-72507/UNISCI%20DP%2021%20-%20TANG.pdf> (accessed: 28.04.2025).
- Tsai, C. (2017). 8. The Nature and Trend of Taiwanese Investment in China (1991–2014): Business Orientation, Profit Seeking, and Depoliticization. In L. Dittmer (Ed.), *Fitful Embrace* (pp. 133–150). University of California Press. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1515/9780520968707-009>
- Yu, Y.-W., Yu, K.-C., & Lin, T.-C. (2016). Political Economy of Cross-Strait Relations: Is Beijing's patronage policy on Taiwanese business sustainable? *Journal of Contemporary China*, 25(99), 372–388. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10670564.2015.1104871>



The Role of Digital Libraries in Enhancing Information Access in Academic Institutions

Ankit Kumar*

Abstract:

This paper explores the role of Digital Libraries in improving access to information resources in Academic Institutions. With the rapid growth of Digital Content and the need for remote access, Digital Libraries have become essential tools for students, faculty and researchers. This study reviews recent literature, analyses user behaviour and access patterns, and discusses the challenges and opportunities presented by Digital library systems. The findings suggest that while Digital Libraries have significantly improved information dissemination and access, challenges related to user training, system usability, and Digital preservation persist.

1. Introduction

The transformation of traditional Libraries into Digital repositories has redefined how users interact with information. Academic Institutions increasingly rely on Digital Libraries to support research, teaching, and learning. This paper examines how Digital Libraries contribute to enhanced access to scholarly materials and investigates key issues in their implementation and use.

2. Literature Review:

Scholars such as Hoffman (2000) and Chowdhury (2010) have highlighted the strategic importance of Digital Libraries in higher education. Research indicates that Digital Libraries increase accessibility, support distance education, and improve resource sharing. However, challenges such as Digital literacy, infrastructure disparities, and copyright concerns remain.

3. Methodology

This study uses a mixed-methods approach:

- (I) Quantitative Data : Analysis of usage statistics from three academic Digital Libraries.
- (II) Qualitative Data : Interviews with librarians and surveys of 100 university students and faculty members regarding their Digital library usage.
- (III) Documents analysis: document analysis involved extracting patterns and trends related to Digital library usage over the past five years.

4. Findings:

- (I) 82% of users reported increased efficiency in finding Academic resources through Digital Libraries.
- (II) Commonly used features included full-text search, e-journals, and interlibrary loan services.
- (III) Users expressed the need for better training in advanced search techniques.
- (IV) Librarians cited budget constraints and licensing issues as significant barriers.
- (V) They can be more cost effectiveness than traditional Libraries by reducing the need for physical storage and staffing.
- (VI) Ensure that the Digital Libraries collection aligns with the curriculum and research needs of the institution.
- (VII) Digital Libraries rely on internet access and appropriate technology, which may not be available to all users.

* Net Qualified - Library and Information Science

5. Discussions

Digital Libraries have democratized access to Academic resources, especially in developing regions. Their success, however depends on user education, sustainable funding, and robust Digital infrastructure. Institutions must invest in Digital literacy programs and user centered interface design to maximize impact. Ensure robust and reliable internet connections on campus and in student housing. Provide affordable or loaner devices for students who lack personal technology. Use scalable cloud platforms to host large and diverse collections. Digitise institutional research, theses, dissertation, and local knowledge resources. Partners with publishers and database providers to ensure access to global Academic journals and e-books. Offer materials in regional languages and in formats like video, audio, infographic, etc. Design user friendly, mobile-responsive library portals. Incorporate AI-driven search engines that support keyword, full-text, and semantic search. Use algorithms to suggest relevant content based on user behaviour and Academic field. Regularly conduct sessions on how to use the Digital library effectively, evaluate sources, and avoid plagiarism. Provide chatbots or live support to assist students with searches and troubleshooting. Create open repositories for faculty publications, student research, and conference proceedings. Join national and international Digital library consortia for resource sharing and joint development. Integrate screen readers, voice commands, and adjustable text features for differently-abled users. Enable download features or low-bandwidth versions of content for students in remote areas. Collect feedback and usage data to identify gaps and continuously improve services. Work closely with faculty to align the Digital library's offerings with course curricula and research needs.

Conclusion

Digital Libraries are vital in Academic settings, offering expanded access to knowledge and supporting scholarly productivity, continuous improvement in technology, policy, and user training is necessary to address ongoing challenges and fully realise their potential. Providing 24/7 access to resources, enabling simultaneous access from multiple locations, and offering a wider range of materials compared to physical Libraries. Digital Libraries have emerged as vital tools in Academic Institutions significantly Enhancing Information Access for students, researchers and faculty. They offer a wide range of scholarly resources, including e-books, Journals, theses, and multimedia materials, which are accessible anytime and from anywhere. This has helped bridge the gap between information availability and Academic needs, specially in remote and under-resourced areas. Moreover, Digital Libraries promote efficiency, inclusivity, and collaboration by supporting advanced search capabilities, inter library connectivity, and personalized learning experiences. As Academic demands evolve, the role of Digital Libraries continues to expand-making them indispensable in fostering knowledge dissemination, research, and lifelong learning. To fully realise their potential, Institutions must invest in Digital infrastructure, training, and content curation, ensuring equitable access and Digital literacy among all users. In conclusion, Digital Libraries are not just repositories of information but dynamic platforms that transform education and research in the Digital age.

References:

- i. Bergman, C.L. (2000). From Gutenberg to the Global Information infrastructure: Access to Information in the Networked World. MIT Press.
- ii. Chowdhury, G. (2010). Introduction to Modern information Retrieval. Facet Publishing.
- iii. Tenpir, c., & King, D.W. (2004). Communication Patterns of Engineers. Wiley.
- iv. Lynch, C. (2005). "where Do we go from here? The next decade for Digital Libraries." D-Lib Magazine, 11(7/8).



Psychological Well-Being as Correlates of Achievement Motivation among High School Students

Saba Noor*

Abstract

In today's competitive world, school students are expected to perform multiple roles with both efficiency and effectiveness. It is essential to develop their attitudes toward the unseen complexities of life and to provide a quality education. However, the current educational system in India and worldwide often emphasizes a race for shortcuts to achieve excellence, endangering the future of education. This study was conducted with these challenges in mind, focusing on the relationship between well-being and achievement motivation among male and female school students. For this purpose, 80 male and 80 female students from Bihar were selected, and they were administered a psychological well-being scale and an achievement motivation scale. Pearson's product-moment correlation was applied to analyze the data. The results indicated a significant positive relationship between well-being and achievement motivation among male students. Similarly, a significant positive relationship between achievement motivation and well-being was found among female students. The study aims to raise awareness among school students about various well-being management strategies and different self-efficacy techniques that can help them better navigate challenges and maintain their psychological health. The review concludes with a summary of the major findings and considerations for future directions, as well as implications for practice and policy.

Key words:- Psychological Well-being, Achievement motivation , Male & Female school students.

Introduction:

Achievement Motivation:

The achievement motivation is conceived as a latent disposition which is manifested in over striving only when the individual perceives performance as instrument to a sense of personal accomplishment. It is important both for parents and educators to understand why promoting and encouraging achievement motivation from an early age is imperative. It is a consistent striving force of an individual to achieve success to certain standard of excellence in the competing situation. The development of early academic achievement motivation has significant implications for later academic careers. A great deal of research has found that students with high achievement motivation are more likely to have increased levels of academic achievement and have lower dropout rates.

Today Academic Achievement Motivation is considered as a key criterion to judge one's total potentials and capacities. Academic Achievement Motivation occupies a very important place in education as well as learning process. Crow and Crow (1969) defined Academic Achievement "as the extent to which a learner is profiting from instruction in a given area of learning i.e., achievement is reflected by the extent to which skill and knowledge has been imparted to him". Academic Achievement Motivation also denotes the knowledge attained and skill developed in school subject, usually designated by test scores. Academic achievement is influenced by personality, motivation, opportunities, education and training. There are several factors influence the student's academic Achievement Motivation like their study habit, well-being, self concept, self esteem, personality, socio economic, status, Intelligence etc.

Psychological well-being:

Having a happy life is essential to a person's mental health. Combination of feeling well and working well is what it's all about. Emotional pain (e.g., disappointment, failure, sadness) is a natural

* Research Scholar, JPU

part of life, and the ability to handle these unpleasant or painful emotions (such as self-awareness) is crucial for long-term happiness. A person's psychological well-being is jeopardized, on the other hand, if their negative feelings are very intense or persistent, making it difficult for them to go about their regular activities.

Feeling good encompasses more than just happiness and contentment; it also encompasses a wide range of positive feelings including curiosity, involvement, trust, and affection. Being able to function well (from a psychological standpoint) means realizing one's potential, gaining a sense of agency in one's life, pursuing meaningful endeavors, and cultivating meaningful connections.

In recent years, the research literature has witnessed an exciting transition from an emphasis on illness and dysfunction to an emphasis on well-being and good mental health. Recent psychological studies have shown that this paradigm shift is particularly pronounced. Epidemiologists, social scientists, economists, and policymakers have all taken notice. "A condition of total physical, mental and social well-being and not only the absence of sickness or disability" is defined in the World Health Organization's constitution. "A condition of well-being in which the individual realizes his or her strengths, can cope with the usual pressures of life, can work successfully and fruitfully and is able to make a contribution to his or her community" is how the WHO defines good mental health.

Significant of the study:

The present study would be helpful to the society, educational institutions and students at large the data of research should be widely useful to different sections of society. The findings of the study will be very useful to the students, elder and teachers. This is the main focus of the study. So, the investigator feels that raising of achievement motivation and psychological well-being of the school students may go a long way in enhancing the academic achievement. That is why, the present study endeavors to examine the achievement motivation and psychological well-being of male and female school students. The definitions and review of literature on achievement motivation and psychological well-being reveal that they are importantly influenced by dispositional and environmental factors. Both of them are different in male and female students. Hence, present students is undertaken to assess relationship between achievement motivation and psychological well-being of male and female school students will be judged separately and also as a whole

Hypotheses:

The following hypotheses were formulated to empirically validate the above objectives:

1. There would be significant relationship between achievement motivation and psychological well-being of male school students.
2. There would be significant relationship between achievement motivation and psychological well-being of female school students

Sample:

Data was collected on a total of 160 school students studying in IX and X classes. Out of 160 students there were 80 boys and 80 girls. Further the age range of the students was 12 to 14 years of age. Only normal students were included in the study. A random sampling technique was used to select the respondents of the study. The students were taken from govt. schools of Bihar.

Research Design

In the present study a correlational research design was used. Present study was to examine the relationship between academic achievement and psychological well-being of male and female college students measure separately.

Tools:

Achievement Motivation Scale (ACMT)

Achievement Motivation Scale (ACMT) developed by Bhargava (1994). The test consists of 50 items of incomplete sentences / items which are to be completed by the subjects by putting a check mark on any one of the three alternative responses given against each item. **Reliability:** The Test-Retest reliability after an interval of one month was found to be 0.87. For English version, the values

of validity indices were 0.85 with educational achievement test. Scoring procedure for test is very simple. Scoring can be done with the help of scoring key provided. Each item indicating achievement motivation (Nach) is given a score of and the total earned on all item is the N-ach score. Higher score on the scale shows higher achievement of the students.

Psychological well-being Scale:

Psychological well-being was measured by using (Verma & Verma,1989). PGI General Well Being Measure consists of 20 items. The respondents were asked to tick the statement with which they agreed. Counting the number of ticks gave the total score of respondent. The score range from 0 to 20. The scale is in English but its Hindi version is also available by Moudgil, Verma, Kaur and Pal(1986).

Reliability: The split-half coefficient of reliability was measured by Kuder- Richardson(20) formula and was found to be 0.98 (p<0.01) (Verma. Dubey and Gupta, 1983), test-retest reliability was 0.91 (p<0.01) for the Hindi version.

Validity: It was found to have satisfactory validity and high significant reliability i.e. K.R. 98 and discriminative value. The test was correlated with a number of tests in different studies. The scale showed relative independence of other variables as expected but showed significant relations with another well-being scale, with quality of life scale and to some extent with learned helplessness (Verma, et al., 1983)

Results and Discussion:

Hypothesis-3: There would be significant relationship between achievement motivation and psychological well-being of male school students

Hypothesis-4: There would be significant relationship between achievement motivation and psychological well-being of female school students

Table no. 1: Results of Correlation between achievement motivation and self-esteem of male school students

Variables	Correlation	Significance level
Achievement Motivation	.659	< .01
Psychological well-being		

If we look table- 1 we will find that coefficient of correlation between achievement motivation and **psychological well-being** scores of male students was found as .659 which was significant at p>0.01 level of significance. And, the value of coefficient of correlation was positive meaning thereby that the two variables are positively related. So, the hypothesis-1 that says that “there would be significant relationship between achievement motivation and **psychological well-being** of male school students” was accepted.

Table no. 2: Results of Correlation between achievement motivation and psychological well-being of female school students

Variables	Correlation	Significance level
Achievement Motivation	.657	< .01
Psychological well-being		

If we look table- 2 we will find that coefficient of correlation between achievement motivation and **psychological well-being** scores of female students was found as .657 which was significant at p>0.01 level of significance. And, the value of coefficient of correlation was positive meaning thereby that the two variables are positively related. So, the hypothesis-2 that says that “there would be significant relationship between achievement motivation and **psychological well-being** of female school students” was accepted.

The results of this showed that there is a significant relationship between achievement motivation and psychological well-being. It is consistent with numerous studies conducted in this field and has also been confirmed in studies performed by Li, LAN, & Ju (2015) and Kaur (2013).

The achievement motivation can be considered as the main introduction to the success. It predicts performance outcomes directly (Caldwell, 2005). In general, those who are motivated to be successful are more interested in moving toward the future and paying attention to innovative activities and they are more involved in future plans. Such people understand the situations in which their abilities are tested motivation as a prerequisite for success and superiority.

Conclusion:

Finding of the study revealed that a positive correlation between achievement motivation and psychological well-being of male and female college students. It means higher in psychological well-being will be higher in achievement motivation vice-versa. The present study would be helpful to the society, educational institutions and students at large the data of research should be widely useful to different sections of society. The findings of the study will be very useful to the students, elder and teachers.

References:

- Bhargava, V.P., (1994). Manual for Achievement Motive Test, Agra: National Psychological Corporation
- Caldwell, T. L. (2007). *Considering achievement motives: Exploring educational success in african American students*. Southern Illinois University at Carbondale.
- Crow, J. (1969). Genetic theories and influences: Comments on the value of diversity. *Harvard Educational Review*, 39(2), 301-309.
- Kaur, J. (2013). Role of psychological well being and its impact on the motivational level of the employees in IT sector. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences*, 2(6), 43-51.
- Li, Y., Lan, J., & Ju, C. (2015). Self-esteem, gender, and the relationship between extraversion and subjective well-being. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 43(8), 1243-1254.
- Verma, S. K., & Verma, A. (1989). P G I General Well Being Measure. Ankur psychological agency.
- Verma, S. K., Dubey, B. L., & Gupta, D. (1983). PGI General Well Being Scale: Some correlates. *Indian Journal of Clinical Psychology*.



A Study of Suicidal Ideation among College Students

Muhammad Ali Imam*

Introduction:

Suicidal ideation is a first threatening sign of serious suicidal behavior. It is particularly defined as the realm of ideas and thoughts about suicide or death and serious self-injurious behavior. It consists of thoughts which are closely related to the conduct, planning, and outcome of suicidal ideation, particularly as the last relates to thoughts about the response of others. Researcher has focused on suicidal behavior as a distinct form of psychological disturbance and a domain of suicidal behaviour. Even though, not all persons who have suicidal ideation will finally attempt suicide, for many individuals such thoughts may be a predecessor to more serious suicidal behaviors. There are lots of factors may contribute to suicidal ideation of an Adolescent, including daily hassle, personal and societal factor as well as the interaction amongst these variables. Furthermore, suicide or purposeful self-harm, an event considered as more of a cultural or social fact is recently recognized as a community health problem in most of the nations.

Suicidal Ideation:

Suicides appear after pressure; intellectual irresponsibility and emotionless attachment act to gether and overcome capability of individuals to manage as well as to reason undoubtedly. Extra pressure associated to parents was reported significantly in adolescents who had committed suicide. Generally in adolescents, complaints related to mood disturbance are found (Archer and Slesinger, 1999).

Families of several adolescents have more expectations that are coupled with confusion of identity, inferiority in mind-set; genetic variations as well as lower self-respect that is frequently extreme to hold. School professionals might create young people more susceptible to suicide. In one study, four hundred and fifty responses, half paying attention to family shock; need of parents care and isolation within family remained measured in put hreat aspects. According to literature, lack of parents/no availability, bad contact among members of family, family clashes, more expectation of parents regarding success as well as obvious family pathology are usually measured important hazardous aspects for suicide. Suicide ideation relates with psychosocial suffering, drugs consumption, pressure of family and unclear school objectives (Thompson, 1994).

A lot of young people become concerned with drugs and alcohol in an effort to decrease anxiety. Furthermore, several youngsters who attempt suicide are serious drugs or alcohol users (Turner and Laws, 1993). It suggests two-way procedure. Primary, drug possibly be offer little initial respite from agony, though chemically disguising the stress, intellectual maturity of individuals diluted very soon as they might start the complex change to proper operation. Drug in addition has a propensity to push away people from their social hold up of sources.

Objective of the Study:

The main objectives of present study are given below:

1. To see the difference among suicidal ideation of science and social science college students
2. To see the gender difference in suicidal ideation of college students.

Hypotheses:

The following hypotheses were formulated to empirically validate the above objectives:

1. There would be significant difference between suicidal ideation of science and social science college students.
2. There would be significant difference in suicidal ideation between male and female college students.

* Research Scholar, JPU

Sample:

A total of 200 college students from different colleges in Delhi and NCR were surveyed. The sample consisted of 100 science students (50 male and 50 female) and 100 social science students (50 male and 50 female). The age range of all participants was between 20 and 25 years old. The respondents were selected using an availability sampling technique.

Research Design:

In the present study a two groups design ('science students and social science students' and male and female) was used. Present study was to examine the difference between suicidal ideation of science and social science college students and also to find out gender difference between suicidal ideation of college students. Therefore, two group design is best suitable in this research.

Tools:**Suicidal Ideation Scale**

This is a self-report measure developed by Devendra Singh Sisodia & Vibhuti Bhatnagar, 2011. In this scale there are 25 questions. Respondents have to answer the questions by choosing from the given option. Usually there is no time limit for the test, but a respondent takes around 10 minutes to complete the test. In this 'scale' there are four negative and twenty-one positive statements. The four negative statements are 13, 28, 11, 18 and twenty one positive statements are 2, 17, 3, 19, 1, 20, 4, 21, 5, 22, 6, 23, 7, 25, 8, 16, 9, 15, 10, 14, and 12. The scale can be used for screening individuals who suffer from an alarmingly high degree of suicidal ideation. This is a self-administering test and eminently suitable for groups as well as individual testing. The test has "internal consistency (0.81) and test-retest reliability (0.78)", appropriate for all age groups. And the scale has face validity as well as high content validity. In fact "this scale has been validated in opposition to the external criteria and the obtained coefficient was .74". For positive statements, the score of five, four, three, two and one are allocated for the responses ranging from "strongly agree to strongly disagree" and for negative statements, the score of one, two, three, four and five are allocated for the response ranging from "strongly agree to strongly disagree". The higher the score, the more is the suicidal ideation. The higher the score more is the suicidal ideation. Norms for the scale are available for all the age group. An individual with score of 121-125 may be considered to have a very high level of suicidal ideation. Score ranging from 106-120 represent high level of suicidal ideation. The score from 46-105 represent average suicidal ideation. The low score i.e. 31-45, would indicate people with low level of suicidal ideation. Where as a score of 25-30 represents normal individual with very low level of suicidal ideation.

Results & Discussion

Obtained data were analyzed with the help of SPSS 20 using different statistical technique and the results were given in the table along with their interpretation and discussion in this chapter. The data were analyzed and tabled in the light of objectives.

Table no. 1: Means, SDs, and SED and results of t-ratio of science and social science college students on suicidal ideation.

Variables	Group	N	Mean	SD	SED	t	P
Suicidal ideation	Science college students	100	47.30	2.751	.974	6.525	<.01
	Social science college students	100	41.20	1.317			

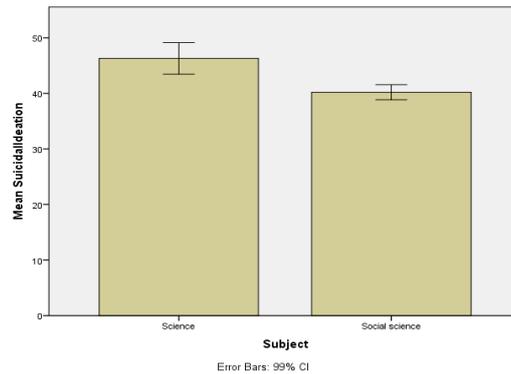


Figure 1: Graphic representation of mean suicidal ideation of science and social science college students.

Table- 1 and figure 1 shows that mean suicidal ideation score of science and social science college students were 47.30 and 41.20 respectively. The SDs of suicidal ideation score of science and social science college students were found 2.751 and 1.317 respectively. The t- ratios between means suicidal ideation scores of the two groups was found to be 6.525 which was found significant at .01 level of significance. It means that there is statistical difference on the scores of suicidal ideation between science and social science college students . The findings of the present study did confirm the hypothesis -1 which states that ‘there would be significant difference between suicidal ideation of science and social science college students’ was accepted.

Both science and social science students gave these reasons for their suicidal thinking, in the following order: (1) wanting relief from emotional or physical pain; (2) problems with romantic relationships; (3) the desire to end their life; and (4) problems with school or academics. Fourteen percent of social science students and 8 percent of social science students who seriously considered attempting suicide in the previous 12 months made a suicide attempt. Nineteen percent of social science attempters and 28 percent of science student attempters required medical attention.

Table no. 2: Means, SDs, and SED and results of t-ratio of male and female of college students on suicidal ideation

Variables	Group	N	Mean	SD	SED	t	P
Suicidal ideation	Male	100	41.50	1.354	.893	6.759	<.001
	Female	100	47.20	2.440			

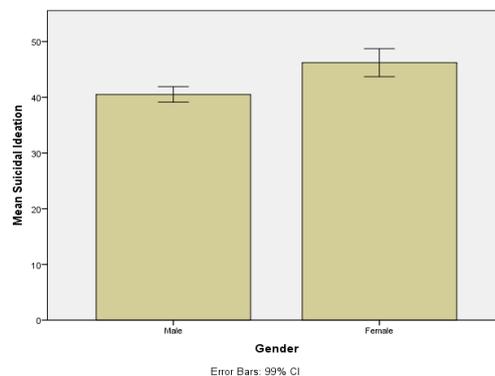


Figure 2: Graphic representation of mean suicidal ideation of male and female of college students.

Table- 2 and figure 2 shows that mean suicidal ideation score of male and female college students were 41.50 and 47.20 respectively. The SDs of suicidal ideation score of male and female college students were found 1.354 and 2.440 respectively. The t- ratios between means suicidal ideation scores of the two groups was found to be 6.759 which was found significant at .01 level of significance. It means that there is statistical difference on the scores of suicidal ideation between male and female college students. The findings of the present study did confirm the hypothesis -2 which states that ‘there would be significant gender difference between suicidal ideation of science and social science college students.’ was accepted.

The present study looked to gender difference, in terms of suicidal ideation. The results of t test indicated that there was a significant gender difference on stress among male and female students with significantly higher suicidal ideation among females than males. This was consistent with findings of Teresa & Robert (2000) conducted on university students in Australia. They found that female students had more suicidal ideation than males. Similarly Pereira & Cardoso (2015) conducted a study on suicidal ideation in university students and found that females’ students had more suicidal ideation than males. The higher level of suicidal ideation in female students could be due to societal rules and the situation of the society. Generally, in India society, females are perceived as weaker than males and males are not expected to admit their weakness and especially they are not expected to express their emotions and seek help. In addition, since India is patriarchal society, females are expected to do all house chores. So beside the academic tasks the burdens of work at home puts more pressure on them and make them vulnerable.

Conclusion:

The present study was conducted with the objectives to investigate difference in suicidal ideation between science and social science college students and also find out difference between male and female of science and social science college students separately. t-test was used to find out the difference between male and female college students on suicidal ideation and also find difference between science and social science college students on suicidal ideation. The following results were obtained:

1. Science college students had significantly greater suicidal ideation than social science college students.
2. Female college students obtained significantly greater mean score on suicidal ideation than male college students.

References:

- Archer, R. P., & Slesinger, D. (1999). MMPI-A patterns related to the endorsement of suicidal ideation. *Assessment*, 6(1), 51-59.
- Hamilton, T. K., & Schweitzer, R. D. (2000). The cost of being perfect: perfectionism and suicide ideation in university students. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 34(5), 829-835.
- Pereira, A., & Cardoso, F. (2015). Suicidal ideation in university students: prevalence and association with school and gender. *Paidéia (Ribeirão Preto)*, 25(62), 299-306. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1982-43272562201503>
- Sisidia, D. S., & Bhatnagar, V. (2011). Manual for the Suicidal Ideation Scale. National Psychological Corporation.
- Thompson, J. M. (1994). Silencing the self: Depressive symptomatology and close relationships. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 19(3), 337-353.
- Turner, K. (1993). War, punishment, and the law of nature in early Chinese concepts of the state. *Harvard Journal of Asiatic Studies*, 53(2), 285-324.

Indian Women in a Male Dominated Society

Neha Mehrotra*
Dr. Shashi Pandey**

Abstract

The secondary status of women is due to the faulty socialization process. It is the process of learning that converts a biological human into a social human being. In the case of women, this very socialization process is at fault. They are inspired to become a successful homemaker, whereas boys are inspired to become soldiers, pilots, etc. This very faulty male-dominated socialization process lowers the self confidence levels among women. This research paper tries to make a deep dive into analyzing the patriarchal nature of Indian society and the identity of Indian women in this traditional patriarchal setting.

This defective socialization begins from early youth, where unsexed places are substantiated through toys, apparel, geste prospects, and indeed language. Girls are given dolls and kitchen sets, which subconsciously train them for domestic places, while boys are given buses, construction sets, and toy munitions that represent power, control, and disquisition. As a result, girls are encouraged to be nurturing, unresistant, and compliant, while boys are mingled to be assertive, competitive, and independent. These early assignments come deeply internalized and shape the unborn bournes, choices, and tone- worth of both genders, especially lowering the ambition and tone- confidence situations of girls.

This exploration, thus, critically examines how the patriarchal system, sustained through a defective socialization process, continues to undermine women's status in Indian society. It explores how these deeply internalized places circumscribe women's identity, agency, and participation in public life. By discharging the layers of artistic prospects, unsexed morals, and social control mechanisms, the paper aims to punctuate the critical need for gender-sensitive socialization, policy reform, and mindfulness programs. Without addressing the root causes, simply legal or educational interventions may not lead to genuine gender equivalency.

Introduction

Numerous studies in the past easily indicate that the main root cause of women submission in Indian society, is the age long prevailing patriarchal structure of Indian society. In this setup women are tutored from the very launch of the nonage that there are certain workshop that should n't be done by women. For illustration they've got different toys, they've different ways of geste in the society and these all get invested into their mindset from the veritably nonage. In sociological terms this is known as the defective socialization process which eventually creates an print for women having the inferior or the inferior status in society, and that's the reason they're allotted the alternate class status in similar patriarchal societies. Once these traditional morals get invested and inculcated within their mindsets and stations towards life, it not only creates and develops a sense of inferiority among them in unborn course of time, but also hampers their action taking and decision making capabilities. In the words of Sylvia Walby, "Theorising Patriarchy" is "a system of social structures and practices, in which men dominate, oppress and exploit women". It's also observed that the gender relations have changed overtime significantly due to the colorful factors and the relations simply dependent upon patriarchy have also changed significantly due to colorful other factors. The degree of

* Research Scholar, Department of Sociology, S.S. Khanna Girls' Degree College, Prayagraj (A Constituent College of University of Allahabad)

** Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology, S.S. Khanna Girls' Degree College, Prayagraj (A Constituent College of University of Allahabad)

patriarchal influence is also different for different families, classes, gentries, religious groups, etc. It'll not be wrong to say that the patriarchal influence has drop overtime due to the impact of colorful factors Like education, income, mindfulness, earning openings, technology, internet, social media, etc but it still prevails.

Furthermore, social institutions like family, religion, media, and education play a strong part in legitimizing and immortalizing this unstable structure. Families frequently place restrictions on girls' mobility, dress, and career choices under the rationale of safety or tradition. Religious narratives, frequently interpreted in patriarchal ways, assign women places that are secondary to men. The media also presents stereotypical images of women as ideal daughters, maters, or women buttressing the belief that a woman's primary duty lies within the ménage. Indeed the academy class frequently lacks critical engagement with gender issues, therefore failing to question these impulses.

Marriage and fatherhood are presented as the ultimate pretensions for women, and any divagation from these places is seen as rebellion. In discrepancy, men are given further freedom to shape their individualities around career, ambition, and public life. The anticipation that women will ultimately leave their careers for family liabilities leads numerous employers to see women as "less stable" workers. This structural demarcation reduces women's visibility and participation in decision-making processes, leadership places, and positions of authority in both private and public disciplines.

Despite educational achievements and participation in the pool, Indian women still struggle to gain equal footing in society. The burden of ménage liabilities largely falls on them, indeed when they work outside the home. This double burden results in physical prostration, emotional stress, and suppressed career growth. numerous women are forced to leave their jobs after marriage or parturition due to the lack of support systems similar as childcare or flexible work hours. This institutional neglect of women's requirements reflects the patriarchal mindset bedded indeed in ultramodern professional settings.

Objectives

The motive of this paper is to check the impact of patriarchy and the traditionally prevailing orthodox male dominated mindset of the people on the status and identity of women in the Indian society.

Literature Review

Nilu Dutta (2014), in her study on 150 educated, married, working Bengali women working as 'teachers' & 'office workers', in Shillong (Meghalaya), found that, In a bengali family a women becomes a vehicle through which the husband's son is born & lineage is established. The women from childhood are taught to be mild, less talkative & patient. Women are taught to perform various 'brathas' & 'vows' to make her life purer & peaceful. More preference was given to the boy child by the parents in the first generation of education. Majority of respondents said that it is not only their economic insufficiency but also other socio - psychological motivations that impelled them to take employment. Those respondents who are living in their own houses (not rented one) (although only a meagre portion of them) said that houses are either in their husband's or father in-law's name. About 82.7% of respondents said that they have no share in their parent's property. In the traditional Bengali family the entire family authority rested in the hands of the eldest male member.

Prerona Bura Gohain (2016), in her study found that Gender inequality is a major problem in India and it acts as a hindrance in the pace of development. Gender inequality against women exists everywhere. Violence in the form of wife battering, dowry, rape, sexual harassment can be widely seen in India. Biasness can be seen in the field of employment both in the organized and unorganized sector. Women lack the power of decision making in the country.

It varies from time to time and place to place in type, frequency, intensity and control. Women, who constitute one half of the nation in the present India, are still in the social bondage and have suffered a lot. The girl child is facing discrimination right from their birth. According to respondents, violence supportive attitudes are highly determinant factors of negligence towards women. Girl has not got any freedom for the selection of her life partner; in this regard her ambitions

and willingness are neglected.' In the family , girls are neglected in decision making even to select her life partner. Women's opinions are not taken into consideration in the decision making process. Men expect a "Good woman" still now upholds the honor of the family and maintains the "Culture of Silence" prevailing in the private domain and is obedient and sacrificing'. Caste system is pressurized by patriarchal power which does not allow women to make inter-caste marriage. It expects that a girl has to marry within the caste otherwise face to violence. As compared to men, women are unable to do the business freely due to the high patriarchal expectations about family responsibility was ranked third. This result indicates that women felt they could not do the job frankly and freely because of overburdening of the family responsibility and housekeeping work. Women are powerless in decision making due to lack of resources and was ranked three. Women have understood the

Krishnan N.V.H, Sivramkrishna S., Warriar. U (September 2017), in their study of the Kanakpura Taluk, Ramnagar District, Karnataka found out that In 2010, 61.4% of the household decisions were taken solely by wives or jointly by husbands and wives. This increased to 62.9% in 2016. But in case of major decisions like matters related to opening up of a new business, buying consumer durables, education /marriage of children, etc, the husbands were the sole decision makers. Patel and Parmentier (2005), in their study found that, the paradigm of development and modernization asserts that as the logical processes and functions that are bureaucratic in general overpower the traditional forms of social organization, the inequalities of gender will vanish.

Kamla Bhasin, a famed Indian positivist and social activist, devoted her life to challenging the deeply settled patriarchal structures in South Asian societies. In her important book "Understanding Gender", she explains how patriarchy is n't a natural or natural system but a man- made structure that assigns unstable places to men and women. She emphasized that patriarchy is maintained through social institutions like family, religion, and media, and starts affecting individualities from early nonage. According to her, this system not only suppresses women but also limits men by forcing them into rigid places. Bhasin passionately believed that since patriarchy is created by society, it can also be disassembled by collaborative action and mindfulness.

In their 2005 article "The Persistence of Traditional Gender Roles in the Information Technology Sector: A Study of Female Engineers in India", R. Patel and Parmentier explore the deep- confirmed gender inequalities that continue to live within the ultramodern Indian IT sector. Despite the perception of the IT assiduity as progressive and meritocratic, the study reveals that traditional gender places continue to impact women's participation and gests in this field. womanish masterminds are frequently anticipated to conform to societal prospects related to marriage, family liabilities, and" applicable" womanlike geste , indeed as they work in global, fast- paced technological surroundings.

The authors punctuate how artistic and domestic morals significantly impact the career opinions and growth of women masterminds. numerous women face a" double burden" managing both professional places and domestic prospects. Plant impulses further complicate the issue, as women are constantly viewed as lower committed to their careers, especially after marriage or fatherhood. This frequently leads to women being sidelined from grueling places or leadership positions, buttressing a unsexed division of labor within the sector.

Patel and Parmentier also point out the actuality of a" glass ceiling" in the IT assiduity, where women's career growth is stalled not due to lack of gift or ambition, but because of subtle systemic walls and manly- dominated work societies. While some women essay to acclimatize and navigate these constraints by modifying their geste to fit into the manly- centric terrain, others repel and strive to assert their professional identity. The authors argue that adding women's participation in IT must go beyond furnishing access — it must include transubstantiating the social and organizational morals that sustain gender difference. In conclusion, their study calls for comprehensive policy interventions at both the organizational and societal situations. These include enforcing gender-sensitive plant programs, creating mentorship openings for women, and icing work- life balance through probative structures. Patel and Parmentier emphasize that genuine gender equivalency in the

IT sector can only be achieved when structural changes address both professional and artistic confines of gender places.

Conclusion

The literature review easily highlights a patient reality — women in Indian society have long been treated as inferior and inferior to men. They've endured colorful forms of demarcation, similar as unstable pay, poor access to profitable openings, and continued manly dominance both in private and public spheres. One of the most significant contributors to this inequality is the defective process of socialization, which conditions girls from early nonage to accept limited places and lower prospects. This internalized mindset, passed down through generations, reinforces a deeply patriarchal culture.

Although it's inarguable that ultramodern Indian women moment enjoy further freedom, better education, and lesser participation in the pool compared to the history, this progress is uneven. Pockets of advancement live, but the overall status of women across the country remains far from equal. Indeed now, they continue to face demarcation in subtle and overt forms — be it at home, in workplaces, or in public life.

In substance, while there are signs of commission and enhancement, they attend with patient inequalities. The trip towards true gender equivalency is far from complete, and understanding the deep- confirmed social structures that uphold patriarchy is pivotal for real change.

References

1. Bhasin, K. 2003. 'Understanding Gender', Women Unlimited: New Delhi
2. Dutta, N. 2014. 'Working Women in the Decision-Making Process :A sociological study of the educated Bengali Women', Department of Sociology, North Eastern Hill University, Shillong. (PhD Thesis)
3. Gohain, P. 2016. 'Gender Inequality and Development in Indian Scenario:Consequences, Causes, Challenges and Cures', IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS) Volume 21, Issue 6, Ver. 5 PP 01-10, e-ISSN: 2279-0837, p-ISSN: 2279-0845.
4. Krishnan N.V.H.,Sivramkrishna S., Warriar. U. 2017. 'WOMEN EMPOWERMENT THROUGH ENHANCEMENT OF INCOME GENERATION And DECISION MAKING ABILITIES', Indian Journal of Commerce & Management Studies ISSN: 2249-0310 EISSN: 2229-5674 Volume VIII, Special Issue.
5. Patel, R. and Parmentier 2005. 'The Persistence of Traditional Gender Roles in the Information Technology sector: A Study of Female Engineers in India', 'The Massachusetts Institute of Technology'. "Information Technologies and International Development". Volume 2, Number 3, Spring, 29–46.



Role of Socio-Economic Disparities in Academic Achievement of Students in Government and Private Schools of Darbhanga

Neha Kumari*

Abstract

The present study examines the state of educational resources, teaching practices, and stakeholder participation in the urban areas of Darbhanga district, Bihar. Employing a descriptive research design, data were collected from 198 students, 72 teachers, and 67 parents using a stratified random sampling method across eight secondary (grades 9–10) and middle (grades 5–8) schools. In this research, data were collected through interview schedules, supported by secondary data from policy documents and school records. Findings reveal that although infrastructure such as laboratories and libraries exists, their use is inconsistent. Parental involvement and teacher support outside the classroom remain limited, and digital technology is rarely integrated into teaching. The study concludes with recommendations to enhance resource utilization, teacher engagement, parental awareness, and the adoption of digital tools to improve educational outcomes in urban Darbhanga.

Keywords: Urban education, Darbhanga schools, stakeholder involvement, educational infrastructure, digital learning.

Introduction

Education is important for the growth of individuals and society. Yet, the students do not arrive at school with the same amount of resources or support. Socio-economic status—such as family income, parents' education, and availability of study materials—influences the success of students in school (Coleman et al., 1966). In India, particularly in small cities such as Darbhanga, this divide can be seen even more sharply in contrasts between government school students and private school students.

Private schools tend to have better facilities, more qualified teachers, and access to online resources. In contrast, most government school students lack books, infrastructure, and parental care (Tilak, 2002). Such differences are not merely financial but also related to the kind of social and educational care one receives at home.

Darbhanga, a North Bihar city, has a large difference between government and private school students when it comes to academic performance. This study aims to determine the impact of socio-economic differences on student performance and engagement in both government and private schools. The study will also investigate the effects of these determinants on students' confidence levels, attendance rates, and continuation of higher studies. Grasping these differences may assist education planners, instructors, and policymakers in making equitable and efficient strategies to enhance education for everybody, particularly for the economically or socially disadvantaged (UNESCO, 2017).

Review of Literature

Musheer, Z. (2019) in this research, the correlation between SES and academic performance was explored among 490 secondary school students in Aligarh. Based on the Socio-Economic Status Scale (SESS) and on the basis of prior academic records of the students, the study established a strong correlation between SES and academic performance. Students belonging to higher SES groups were found to be performing well consistently compared to their lower SES counterparts, highlighting how economic and social determinants shape educational outcomes.

* Research Scholar, Department of Sociology, Lalit Narayan Mithila University, Darbhanga
nehamepl18@gmail.com

Bhat, M. A., Joshi, J., & Wani, I. A. (2016) this research centered on secondary school students in Jammu and Kashmir and examined how SES influences academic achievement. The researchers learned that students from higher SES groups had higher academic achievement than students who belonged to lower SES groups. The research pointed out that parental education and income levels significantly influence the academic achievement of students.

Singh, P., & Choudhary, G. (2013) in this study, the effect of SES on the academic performance of secondary school students in Delhi was investigated. From a sample of 450 students from 15 schools, the research ascertained that higher SES students attained superior academic performance. The study concludes that economic security and exposure to educational resources are factors that enhance students' academic performance.

Kalia, A. K., & Kumar, V. (2015) Based on this study academic dishonesty in teenagers in Haryana, in this study the connection between SES and academic dishonesty was evaluated. Through the results, it was evident that those from higher SES were more prone to engage in academic dishonesty. It has been suggested by the study that increased competitive stress and pressure from parents within higher SES families are liable for such practices.

Duari, B. (2017) in this study, the research was conducted among higher secondary students from West Bengal with respect to the relationship between SES and academic performance. The study concluded that students belonging to greater SES achieved higher academic scores. The research also did not show any major gender differences in academic performance, highlighting the overarching influence of SES vis-à-vis gender in educational performance.

Rajendran, P., & Selvaganapathy, R. (2023) The current study examined the link between SES and the academic achievement of high school students, in this study it was found that high SES students scored higher in academic performance. According to research, academic success or failure depended not only on student SES but also on family SES and location, showing how education is impacted in various dimensions by socio-economic considerations.

Sharma, R. R., & Kumar, M. (2018) in this study, academic achievement was compared among students with varying SES backgrounds and schooling types in Jammu. The results showed that students with higher SES backgrounds and private schooling performed better than their counterparts with lower SES backgrounds and government schooling. The research highlights the dual impact of SES and school type on academic achievement.

Suryanarayana, N. V. S., et al. (2024) this research focused on students from the tribal population of Andhra Pradesh, this research investigated the impact of SES on academic performance. The findings were that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between SES and academic achievement with students belonging to higher SES achieving higher academic performance. The study also indicated the influence of parental education and income on students' academic achievement.

Kumari, D. N., & Kumari, Y. S. (2024) Conducting research on tribal students in Visakhapatnam, this research examined the effects of SES on educational performance. The results indicated that academically, students from higher SES were more successful. The study highlighted the need to address socio-economic inequalities to enhance education among tribal groups.

Endow, T. (2018) in this study, learning achievements in low-cost English-medium private schools in Delhi and the National Capital Region was examined. According to the study, despite a rise in such schools, academic achievement among students, especially in English, continued to be poor. Economic limitation and poor pedagogical methods, according to the study, are the factors responsible for low academic achievements in such schools.

Sinha, C. (2023) Looking into the involvement of family and school in learning achievement, the research brought to light how the SES affects students' learning experiences. The study established that lower SES students are likely to experience cultural mismatches between home and school contexts, which results in discrimination and poor academic achievement. The research urges the adoption of culturally responsive pedagogy.

Das, S. (2023) this study examined urban-rural differences in education levels among Indian states, this study discovered that rural students, who are frequently from lower SES families, fall behind their urban peers in educational achievement. The study indicates that maternal education and postponed marriage in rural areas can contribute to decreasing educational inequalities.

Singh, A. (2021) this research focused on income inequality and intergenerational mobility in India and established that low-income mobility and high inequality are common across social classes. The study shows that socio-economic inequalities are strongly rooted and still influence educational achievements, calling for targeted interventions to ensure equity.

Vaidehi, R., Reddy, A. B., & Banerjee, S. (2021) Based on this study the digital divide in India, this research discovered that lower caste groups experience severe hindrances in accessing and utilizing digital technologies. The study points out that academic and income disparities are the cause of this divide, which hampers students' access to digital learning materials and their academic performance.

Venumuddala, V. R. (2020) in this research, social mobility trends among various social groups in India were examined. The results showed that educational mobility has increased among certain marginalized groups, but occupational mobility is restricted. The research highlights the complex interplay among SES, education, and enduring socio-economic results.

While many studies in India have linked academic achievement to socio-economic status (SES), limited attention has been given to this relationship in Darbhanga, a major educational hub in North Bihar. Its large concentration of government and private schools and appeal to rural families who desire improved schooling notwithstanding, the relationship between SES and students' outcomes is yet to be thoroughly analyzed. A large economic divide exists among students, and government schools suffer from weak policy enforcement and poor infrastructure. Family migration for education, digital divide, and parental background are usually neglected local factors, as is how SES not only influences performance but also student confidence, engagement, and aspirations in the distinctive Darbhanga context.

Research Methodology

The present study focuses on selecting the urban areas of Darbhanga district in Bihar as the study area. This research follows the descriptive type of research methodology. Upper and middle schools were selected through a stratified random sampling method for selecting the three stakeholder groups: 198 students, 72 teachers, and 67 parents. Thus, out of the 573 students from 8 schools, a total number of 337 students were chosen. For the collection of data, an interview schedule approach was employed to collect data from primary sources in a standardized manner. Where required, data also collected from secondary sources, such as government budgets and papers, policy reports, and school audits.

Research Objective

1. To compare the academic performance of students from different socio-economic backgrounds in government and private schools.
2. To examine how access to educational resources differs between students in government and private schools.
3. To analyze the impact of family income and parental education on students' academic success.

Hypothesis

1. Students from higher socio-economic backgrounds perform better academically than those from lower backgrounds.
2. Private school students have better access to learning resources than government school students.
3. Students whose parents are educated and have stable income show higher academic achievement.

Data Analysis**Type of School****Table: 1**

Types of School		
	Frequency	Percent
Private School	154	77.8
Government School	44	22.2
Total	198	100.0

The statistics in table 1 reveal the students' distribution according to the kind of school they are in. Of the 198 students questioned, 154 students, or approximately 77.8%, are in private schools. Meanwhile, 44 students, or 22.2%, are in government schools. This means that far more students from the survey are in private schools than in government schools.

Economic Background of Students**Table: 2**

Economic Background of Students		
	Frequency	Percent
Upper Class	11	5.5
Middle Class	128	64.7
Lower Class	59	29.8
Total	198	100.0

The economic profile of 198 urban Darbhanga students reveals that nearly 65% are from middle-class families, 30% from lower-class families, and just 5.5% from upper-class families. It implies that students belong to average or weaker economic backgrounds, which can restrict their access to quality education. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is rejected. Kumar (2019) also discovered in his study that socio-economic status had a huge impact on educational prospects in this region, verifying that it is economic factors that determine students' academic achievement and access to learning materials.

Daily Study Dedication Outside School**Table 3**

Daily Study Dedication Outside School		
	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 hour	27	40.3
1-2 hour	21	31.3
2-3 hour	19	28.4
Total	67	100.0

The findings reveal that out of 67 students in Darbhanga's urban area surveyed, nearly 40% of them spend less than an hour a day on study outside school, while 31% of them spend 1 to 2 hours and just 28% spend 2 to 3 hours. This reflects that numerous students do not get adequate time or support for self-study, perhaps because of domestic responsibilities, poor study facilities, or poor motivation. These are factors that discourage academic achievement and call for heightened awareness and support for conducive study habits. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is rejected. Singh (2020) also came up with the same findings, noting the importance of home study time and parental assistance in student performance in urban Bihar.

Parents Involvement in Child Education**Table: 4**

Level of Parental Involvement in Child Education		
	Frequency	Percent
Very involved (e.g., volunteering, attending meetings)	08	11.9
Moderately involved (e.g., occasional visits, supporting at home)	41	61.2
Minimally involved (e.g., attending essential events)	07	10.4
Not involved	11	16.4
Total	67	100.0

The data in table 4 highlights that out of 67 parents covered in the survey in Darbhanga urban, approximately 61% are moderately engaged in their children's education, offering sporadic aid at home or school. 12% are extensively involved, playing an active role in school activities, while 10% are least involved, and 16% are not involved. This means while most parents are concerned to some extent, it is not deep involvement, perhaps because it is short of time, education, or awareness. While such low involvement may restrict academic development, it indicates the necessity to strengthen school-parent partnerships. On this evidence, Hypothesis 3 is rejected. The same was reported by Verma (2018), along with the impact of parental involvement on urban Bihar students' success.

Practical Lab Session Frequency in a Week

Table: 5

Practical Lab Session Frequency in a Week		
	Frequency	Percent
One Day	93	47.0
Two Days	08	4.0
More than 2 days	11	5.6
Never	86	43.4
Total	198	100.0

The data shows that in Darbhanga city, 47% of 198 students go for practical lab sessions just once a week, 4% twice a week, and 6% more than twice. Shockingly, 43% never get practical sessions. This reflects that there are few opportunities for hands-on learning in science and technology subjects, probably because of substandard lab infrastructure, scarcity of resources, or unavailability of trained personnel. These gaps undermine the practical skills and concept realization of students, putting them at a disadvantage in competitive and technical areas. As such, Hypothesis 2 is rejected. This is consistent with Singh (2020), who highlighted the importance of enhancing practical learning infrastructure within urban schools to advance educational performance.

Teacher-Provided Extra Learning Materials

Table: 6

Teacher-Provided Extra Learning Materials		
	Frequency	Percent
Always	05	2.5
Often	06	3.0
Sometimes	13	6.6
Rarely	04	2.0
Never	170	85.9
Total	198	100.0

The data reveals that in Darbhanga's urban zone, nearly 86% of 198 students never get supplemental learning material beyond the standard textbooks. Slightly more than 7% get such materials occasionally, and roughly 5% frequently or always get the extra resources. This huge absence of supplemental academic aid compels students to do their best on the basis of textbooks alone, which hampers the potentiality of their learning. In an urban zone where there is greater academic competition, the deficit can harm student performance. Enhancing the delivery of extra study materials by instructors may have the potential to improve student participation and academic performance. Sharma (2018) also reported similar findings where he emphasized the necessity for supplementary resources to facilitate learning among students in urban schools.

Frequency of Technology Use in the Classroom**Table: 7**

Frequency of Technology Use in the Classroom		
	Frequency	Percent
Every day	24	12.1
A few times in a week	16	8.1
A few times in a month	19	9.6
Rarely	12	6.1
Never	127	64.1
Total	198	100.0

This table indicates that in the urban part of Darbhanga, 64% of 198 students indicated that technology is never implemented in their classes. It is used by only 12% on a daily basis, 8% occasionally a week, and almost 10% occasionally a month, with 6% indicating that it is used rarely. Although urban, most of the schools use traditional methods with very few digital tools such as projectors or smart boards. This absence of technology inhibits the quality of education and student participation, particularly in the present digital age where interactive mediums are used to advance knowledge. Better student outcomes require enhanced digital infrastructure and training teachers. Verma (2020) similarly reported findings, stressing the need for immediacy in technological incorporation in schools.

Quality of Education Delivered in School**Table: 8**

Quality of Education Delivered in School		
	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	31	15.7
Good	96	48.5
Average	62	31.3
Poor	09	4.5
Total	198	100.0

The statistics regarding the quality of education provided in schools in Darbhanga's urban region indicate that only 15.7% of students have given it an excellent rating, while 48.5% have said it was good. Approximately 31.3% found it average, and 4.5% have given it a poor rating. This indicates that although close to half rate it as good, a significant percentage feels that it can be improved. The few superior ratings are an indication of issues with teaching approaches, buildings, or ancillary services. This trend is congruent with Sharma's (2021) results, which indicate inequalities in the quality of education as a result of irregular resources and training of teachers.

Student Access to Laboratory Facilities**Table: 9**

Student Access to Laboratory Facilities		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	183	92.4
No	15	7.6
Total	198	100.0

According to data 92% of urban area students in Darbhanga claim to have access to laboratory facilities at school, which implies that a majority of institutions are well-facilitated for practice science education. Yet, previous studies show that numerous students rarely visit practical classes, which points to a disparity between facility provision and use. This could be attributed to some of the following factors: a lack of adequate equipment, overcrowding, or untrained personnel. Pareek (2019)

stresses that availability of labs alone will not ensure successful science teaching; active usage is important for bettering students' practical skills and concepts.

Library Access Frequency in School

Table: 10

Library Access Frequency in School		
	Frequency	Percent
One Days	134	67.7
Two Days	05	2.5
More than 2 Days	28	14.1
No Days	31	15.7
Total	198	100.0

This data indicates that although 68% of students in urban Darbhanga schools use the library once a week, a mere 16% report having no access to libraries at all. This restricted access indicates underutilization of school libraries, which are important for developing reading habits and facilitating self-directed learning. Enhanced library involvement can greatly help develop students' academic accomplishments and critical thinking. As Sharma (2020) points out, active and regular utilization of library services is an important factor in enhancing the learning results of students and promoting autonomous study in school environments.

Conclusion

According to the above data gathered from 198 students in urban Darbhanga schools, a number of important observations regarding the local educational climate are made. Most students are middle-class (65%) and lower-class (30%), suggesting economic limits which can affect learning possibilities. Most students only study for less than two hours per day at home, and few parents are engaged actively with their education. A total of 43% of the students indicated never attending practical lab classes, while 86% indicated teachers are not providing extra study materials. Technology is hardly utilized in classrooms (64% said "never"), and although 92% have access to labs, they are poorly utilized. Similarly, 68% of the students use the library only once every week, while 16% have no library access. These results indicate significant shortcomings in infrastructure availability and their actual use in everyday teaching and learning.

While urban schools in Darbhanga have the basic educational facilities like libraries and laboratories, their sporadic and limited use undermines their potential value. The absence of regular self-study, low level of parental involvement, lack of supplementary academic resources, and inadequate integration of technology indicate the necessity for systemic changes. Unless systematic efforts are undertaken, students might still be troubled by difficulties in attaining academic excellence and preparing to meet future educational requirements.

Suggestions

Strengthen Practical Learning: Science labs should be utilized regularly through weekly timetabled practical sessions with sufficient staff and resources.

Improve Teacher Support: Teachers should be motivated and trained to offer additional materials like worksheets, notes, and online sites to enhance student learning.

Encourage Parental Involvement: Conduct regular parent-teacher meetings, workshops, and awareness programs to encourage parents to actively engage in their child's schooling.

Enhance Digital Integration: Invest in digital devices like smart boards and school software and equip educators with training on implementing technology-enabled teaching strategies to enhance student engagement.

Increase Library Access: Schools must enhance library access hours and encourage reading programs to develop students' reading habits, analytical thinking, and self-learning capacity.

References

- Musheer, Z. (2019). Effect of Socio Economic Status on the Academic Achievement of Secondary School Students. *Think India Journal*, 22(14), 9706.
- Bhat, M. A., Joshi, J., & Wani, I. A. (2016). Effect of Socio Economic Status on Academic Performance of Secondary School Students. *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 3(4), 4.
- Singh, P., & Choudhary, G. (2013). Impact of Socioeconomic Status on Academic Achievement of School Students: An Investigation. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 1(4), 28.1.
- Kalia, A. K., & Kumar, V. (2015). Academic Cheating among Adolescents in relation to Socio-Economic Status. *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 2(3), 87.
- Duari, B. (2017). Socio Economic Status and its Relation to Academic Achievement of Higher Secondary School Students in Egra-II of Purba Medinipur, West Bengal. *International Journal of Research*, 4(6), 9105.
- Rajendran, P., & Selvaganapathy, R. (2023). A Study on Socio Economic Status in Relation to Their Academic Achievement Among High School Students. *EPRA International Journal of Research and Development*, 8(3), 12535.
- Sharma, R. R., & Kumar, M. (2018). Academic Performance in Relation to Socio Economic Status and Types of the Schooling of the Students. *International Journal of Research*, 5(3), 12966.
- Suryanarayana, N. V. S., et al. (2024). A Study of Socio-Economic Status and Its Impact on Academic Achievement of Senior Secondary Tribal Students Studied in the Parvathi Puram-Manyam District of Andhra Pradesh. *African Journal of Biomedical Research*, 27(1S), 1262.
- Kumari, D. N., & Kumari, Y. S. (2024). A Study of Socio-Economic Status and Academic Achievement of Tribal Students in Visakhapatnam District. *Elementary Education Online*, 22(4), 7962.
- Endow, T. (2018). Inferior Outcomes: Learning in Low-cost English-medium Private Schools—A Survey in Delhi and National Capital Region. *Indian Journal of Human Development*, 12(2), 187–202.
- Sinha, C. (2023). Knowledge About Family and School Contribution in Academic Achievement: The Context of Schooling and Social Representations in India. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 116(3), 259–277.
- Das, S. (2023). Inequality in Educational Attainment: Urban-Rural Comparison in the Indian Context. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.16238*.
- Singh, A. (2021). Income Inequality and Intergenerational Mobility in India. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.12702*.
- Coleman, J. S., et al. (1966). *Equality of Educational Opportunity*. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. pp. 22-35.
- Tilak, J. B. G. (2002). *Education and Poverty in India*. National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration. pp. 10-19.
- UNESCO. (2017). *Global Education Monitoring Report: Accountability in Education*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. pp. 45-60.
- Dreze, J., & Sen, A. (2013). *An Uncertain Glory: India and its Contradictions*. Penguin Books. pp. 118-135.
- Desai, S., & Kulkarni, V. (2008). Changing Educational Inequalities in India in the Context of Affirmative Action. *Demography India*, 37(2), 253–273.
- Kumar, S. (2019). Socio-economic status and education access in Bihar urban areas. *Journal of Social Research*, 12(3), 45–52.
- Singh, R. (2020). *Parental involvement and student academic performance in urban Bihar*. Journal of Educational Research, 15(2), 45-58.
- Verma, S. (2018). *Parental involvement and student academic outcomes in urban Bihar*. Educational Studies Journal, 12(3), 102-115. Sharma, A. (2018). *Role of supplementary learning materials in enhancing student performance*. Indian Journal of Educational Research, 12(3), 45-53.
- Verma, R. (2020). *Digital divide in urban education: Challenges and solutions*. Journal of Educational Technology, 15(2), 78-85.

Do Gandhi's Non-violent Weapons still Relevant: Analysis with special reference to Environmental Movement

Vinay Kumar Hind*

Abstract:-

Can it be said that Gandhi was relevant yesterday and is relevant today as well? The values that the freedom movements gathered and strengthened through various efforts are still present in society? With these all questions, this paper is an attempt to examine the continued relevance of Mahatma Gandhi's philosophy of non-violence in the context of modern environmental movements. Through a critical analysis of Gandhi's ideas on non-violent resistance, Satyagraha, and Ahimsa, this research explores how these concepts can be applied to contemporary environmental struggles. Recent environmental movements, such as the anti-coal protests in Singrauli, India, and the global climate strikes led by Fridays For Future, demonstrate the effectiveness of non-violent tactics in challenging environmentally destructive policies and practices. For instance, the successful campaign against the Vedanta bauxite mine in Odisha's Niyamgiri hills, led by the Dongria Kondh tribe, showcases the power of non-violent resistance in protecting indigenous rights and the environment (The Hindu, 2013). Similarly, the peaceful protests against the construction of the Dakota Access Pipeline in the United States, led by the Standing Rock Sioux Tribe, highlight the importance of non-violent activism in defending environmental justice (The New York Times, 2016). By drawing parallels between His's methods and modern environmental activism, this research demonstrates the enduring relevance of His's non-violent approach in addressing the complex environmental challenges of the 21st century.

Mr. Gandhi's ideas on innovation emphasize the importance of simplicity, self-sufficiency, and community-driven development. His philosophy focuses on utilizing local resources and empowering individuals through education and skill-building (Gandhi, 1909). His emphasis on village industries and self-reliance reflects his commitment to community-centric development (Parekh, 2001). This approach is particularly relevant in the context of sustainable development, where innovations in renewable energy, sustainable agriculture, and ethical production can contribute to a more sustainable future. Furthermore Parekh wrote that modern civilization involved an egregious amount of violence against nature which was largely seen as man's property. This undermined man's unity with his environment and fellowmen and destroyed stable and long established communities¹. The relentless exploitation of natural resources disrupted their delicate balance, while animals suffered for human gain. Gandhi foresaw the decline of villages due to urbanization, a by-product of modern civilization that also fuels environmental degradation. While western environmentalists advocated for "going back to nature," whereas Gandhi's message was "going back to the villages." He emphasized the vital connection between villages and cities, noting that "the blood of the village is the cement with which the edifice of the cities is built²."

His's vision for sustainable development aligns with current efforts to promote eco-friendly technologies and practices. As noted by Parekh (2001), His's approach to development emphasizes the importance of balancing technological progress with social responsibility. Furthermore, Gandhi's advocacy for making science and technology accessible to all, particularly rural communities, is an idea that resonates with contemporary efforts to democratize science (Nandy, 1988).

* Research Scholar, Department of Medieval History, CMP Degree College, University of Allahabad

Contact: vinayrajhindau@gmail.com

¹ Parekh, 1989, p. 72.

² CWMG, Vol.XCI, p. 57.

His perspective viewed the Earth as an interconnected, living entity governed by two core principles: the Cosmic Law and the Law of Species. The Cosmic Law sees the universe as a unified whole, where everything functions within inherent limits, ensuring balance between living and non-living elements³. He wrote: "I believe in the advaita (non-duality), I believe in the" essential unity of man and for that matter, of all that lives. Therefore, I believe that if one man gains spiritually, the world gains with him and if one man fails, the whole world fails to that extent⁴. His environmental philosophy is rooted in his principles of simplicity, non-violence, and self-sufficiency. He advocated for a minimalist lifestyle, emphasizing the importance of consuming only what's necessary and avoiding materialism and overconsumption. His concept of non-violence extends to all living beings, highlighting the need to preserve nature and promote ecological balance. He envisioned the universe as interconnected, guided by a universal spirit, where all life forms are inherently unified. Reflecting this belief, he emphasized the concept of non-duality, suggesting that humanity and all living beings share a fundamental oneness. Consequently, the spiritual growth or decline of one individual has a ripple effect, impacting the world collectively.

His ideas on decentralized economies and village industries have inspired initiatives promoting sustainable living and ecological conservation. His philosophy has influenced various environmental movements, including the Chipko Movement and the Narmada Bachao Andolan, which emphasize the importance of sustainable development and community-led conservation.

India has been a hub for numerous environmental movements that resonate with Gandhi's philosophy of peace and sustainability. A paradigmatic instance as mentioned above was Chipko Movement (1973), which unfolded in the Himalayan region of Uttarakhand. According to Ramachandra Guha (2000), this movement witnessed villagers, particularly women, embracing trees to prevent their felling by contractors, thereby exemplifying a profound commitment to environmental conservation. The movement's peaceful resistance culminated in a 15-year moratorium on green felling in the Alaknanda basin, underscoring the efficacy of non-violent activism in achieving environmental objectives⁵.

Another notable instance is the *Silent Valley Movement (1978-1985)* in Kerala, which successfully thwarted a hydroelectric project that would have compromised the biodiversity of the Silent Valley. The movement's strategic deployment of scientific research and peaceful protests reflects His emphasis on sustainability and non-violence, highlighting the importance of integrating scientific knowledge with grassroots activism.

The *Narmada Bachao Andolan (1985 onwards)*, led by Medha Patkar & Baba Amte protested the construction of large dams on the Narmada River, citing concerns about displacement and environmental degradation⁶. The movement's efforts led to the World Bank's withdrawal of funding and the introduction of more stringent resettlement and rehabilitation policies in India.

While Mr. Gandhi wasn't an environmentalist in the classical sense, his philosophy and actions embodied principles of sustainability and harmony with nature, earning him the description of an "apostle of applied human ecology"⁷. Gandhi's peace approach, which underscores the principles of non-violence, sustainability, and community participation, is palpably reflected in these environmental movements. As His (1909) aptly noted in his writing's that "Nature has enough for everyone's need, but not enough for everyone's greed." This philosophical stance is mirrored in the movements' focus on sustainable development. He was of the believe that environmental injustice, and marginalization are considered as instances of structural violence. As Gandhi believed violence

³ Mishra, 2009, p. 9.

⁴ Gandhi, Young India, December 4, 1924.

⁵ Guha, 2000, p.153.

⁶ Nepal. P, (2009).

⁷ Khoshoo, 1995, p. 9.

and counter violence will never help to resolve conflicts, he considered Satyagraha as the “only force of universal application be that of Ahimsa or love” to fight these kinds of problems⁸.

Some key aspects of Gandhi’s environmental thoughts includes:-

Sustainable living : He promoted simple living and self-sufficiency, emphasizing the importance of reducing one’s ecological footprint.

Non-violent conservation: His’s philosophy of non-violence extends to all living beings, highlighting the need to preserve nature and promote ecological balance.

Community-led development: Gandhi’s ideas on decentralized economies and village industries emphasize the importance of community-led development and sustainable livelihoods.

His’s approach to Satyagraha serves as a method for resolving conflicts through non-violent resistance. He strongly criticized colonial rule, highlighting its arrogance and the devastating impact it had on India. Additionally, Mr. Gandhi voiced concerns about the detrimental effects of western modernization and industrialization on society in general and Asiatic society in general, questioning their true benefits. He believed that “the economic imperialism of a single tiny island kingdom (England) is today keeping the world in chains. If an entire nation of 300 million took to similar economic exploitation, it would strip the world bare like locusts⁹.

Conclusion:- The findings suggest that his philosophy remains a powerful tool for environmental movements, offering a framework for peaceful, inclusive, and sustainable activism. Albeit India’s environmental movements have effectively employed a range of protest methods, including non-violent resistance, community involvement, and scientific analysis, aligning with Gandhi’s peace approach. By examining these movements through a Gandhian lens, we can gain a deeper understanding of the significance of sustainability, community participation, and non-violence in achieving environmental conservation and social justice.

References:

- i. Nandy, A. (1988). *Science, Hegemony and Violence: A Requiem for Modernity*. Oxford University Press.
- ii. Parekh, B. (2001). *Gandhi: A Very Short Introduction*. Oxford University Press
- iii. Nepal, P. (2009). *Environmental movements in India: Politics of dynamism and transformations*. Authors press.
- iv. Gandhi, M. K. (1909). *Hind Swaraj*. Navajivan Publishing House.
- v. Guha, R. (2000). *The Unquiet Woods: Ecological Change and Peasant Resistance in the Himalaya*. University of California Press.
- vi. Khoshoo, T. N. (1995). *Mahatma Gandhi: An apostle of applied human ecology*. The Energy and Resources Institute (TERI).
- vii. Mishra, R. P. (2009). *Facing environmental challenges: The Gandhian way*. *Anasakti Darshan*, 5(2), 9.
- viii. Gandhi, M. K. (1924). *Young India*, December 4.
- ix. *Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi*. (1965). Vol. XLIII. Publication Division, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India & Navajivan Trust
- x. Parekh, B. (1989). *Gandhi’s political philosophy: A critical examination*. Macmillan.
- xi. Sasikala, A. S., *Environmental thoughts of Gandhi for a green future*.



⁸ CWMG, Vol. XLVIII, p.341.

⁹ Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi, 1965, Vol. XLIII, p. 413.

Impact of Ageing on Self Esteem, Well Being and Mental Health

Dr. Danish Ara*

Abstract:

A person develops a sense of self-esteem from positive and negative experience in life. The most significant increase in self-esteem occurs during childhood and adulthood, reaching its peak at approximately 60-70 years of life. Ageing has several effects on wellbeing, self-esteem and mental health.

The present study intends to examine the effect of ageing on self-esteem, well-being and mental health among elderly male and female persons in rural and urban areas. The study under reference has been conducted on an incidental cum-purposive sample consisting of 20 males and 20 female elderly persons of Patna district. Their ages ranged from 60 to 75 years.

Rosenberg self-esteem was used to measure the self-esteem of the elderly person. The obtained data was analyzed using a parametric statistical test, a t-test. The results obtained by the present researchers showed a significant effect of ageing on the self-esteem of elderly persons. It showed that elderly people from rural areas have lower self-esteem than older people from urban areas.

The results showed that males have higher levels of self-esteem than their female counterparts

Introduction: -

Self-esteem refers to a Person's overall sense of his or her Value or worth. It can be considered a sort of a measure of how much a person "values, approves of, appreciates, Prizes, or likes him or herself" (Allen& Stewart, 2004).

According to self-esteem expert Morris Rosenberg, self-esteem is quite simply one's attitude toward Oneself (1965). He described it as " favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the self."

Various factors are believed to influence our self-esteem include genetics, personality, life experiences, age, health, thoughts, social circumstances etc.

Having high self-esteem can lead to a more positive outlook on life, better relationships and improved mental health while low self-esteem is associated with depression, anxiety, eating disorders, anti-social behavior" suicidal thoughts etc.

Ageing can impact self-esteem and well-being in several ways including physical changes, health issues, loneliness, body image etc.

In the present empirical study self-esteem well-being, mental health has been used as dependent variable.

Purpose of the study: -

The present study has following objectives: -

1. The study under reference intends to examine the significance of difference between older male and older female respondents in respect of self-esteem,
2. The study under reference intends to examine the self-esteem of older people of rural and urban area.

Hypotheses: -

Keeping in view the objective of the present study the following hypotheses have been formulated for empirical verification.

1. Older male respondents will have higher level of self-esteem as compared to their female counterparts.

* Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, BRM College, Munger, Munger University (danishara70@gmail.com)

- Older people from rural areas will have Lower level of self-esteem as compared to older people of urban areas.

Sample: -

A purposive sample consisting 20 old males and 20 old females from rural areas of Patna district was used for examining the impact of ageing on self-esteem, well-being and mental health.

Tools used: -

The following tools were used in the present study:

- Personal data sheet: A Personal data sheet was used to obtain the necessary information about the subjects.
- Rosenberg self esteem scale (1965) RSES: It is a 10 item Survey that measures self-esteem. RSES is a Likert scale with a four-point scale of each item. RSES has high reliability and high validity across studies. It has a Guttman scale coefficient of reproducibility of 0.92, indicating excellent internal consistency.

Procedure: -

The study under reference was conducted in two phases. In the first phase data were collected from 20 older male from urban areas in Patna. In Second Phase data were collected from 20 female from rural areas. During collecting data, the cooperation of the senior citizens was obtained.

Analysis of data: -

The obtained data have been analyzed using a Parametric Statistical test namely 't' test. It is appropriate for data analysis in the context of determining the significance of difference between two independent Variables.

Result: -

The result obtained by the present researcher have been displayed in the table given below.

Table-1

Showing the differential effect of sex difference on self-esteem of the respondent

Respondents	N	Mean	SD	t	df	P
Male	20	15.85	5.50	3.50	38	<0.01
Female	20	13.75	4.70			

The above table showed significant effect of gender on self-esteem. The result showed that older males have high level of self-esteem as compared to their female counterparts and the difference between the two groups in terms of self-esteem is highly significant ($t=3.50$, $df=38$, $P<0.01$). Hence the first hypothesis is significantly confirmed.

Table-2

Showing the significance of difference between older people from rural areas and older people from urban areas in terms of self-esteem

Respondents	N	Mean	SD	t	df	P
Urban older	20	18.24	6.45	4.32	38	<0.01
Rural older	20	14.74	3.38			

The above table showed very clearly that older people of urban areas have high level of self-esteem as compared to older people from rural areas irrespective of other factors, hence the second hypothesis is significantly confirmed ($t=4.32$, $df=38$, $P<0.01$). The finding can be interpreted on the rationale that as compared to older people of rural areas, older people of urban areas are more independent and strong both physically and mentally due to income, education, health and employment status. All having positive effect on self-esteem.

Conclusion:

Following are the conclusions obtained in light of present study:

- 1) Older male have higher level of self-esteem as compared to their female counterparts.
- 2) Older people of urban areas have higher level of self-esteem as compared to older people from rural areas.

References:-

1. Chaplin, JP (1975) Dictionary of Psychology, New York
2. Robins., Trzesniewski, K.H., Tracy, J.L., Gosling (2002) Global self-esteem across the life span
3. Siegel, (1959) non-parametric statistics for the behavioral sciences.
4. Orth et al. (2012) life-span development of self esteem and its effect on important life outcomes. Journal Vol.102(6) :1271-1288.



Taxonomical and Medicinal Importance of Some Grasses of Family (Poaceae) occurring in Supaul District (Bihar)

Gita Kumari*
Dr. Ramesh Kumar**

Abstract

Supaul forms the district of Bihar State which is a prime part of Koshi Division. It becomes a district on 14 March, 1991 separated from Saharsa District, it occupies an area of 2425 Km² and surrounded by Araria, Saharsa, Madhubani and Madhepura District. Poaceae is commonly known as the Grass Family. They are Monocotyledonous flowering plants coming under Poales order. The abundance and importances make them the world's main Food source. India is blessed with numerous grass species forms ancient times and their excellent medicinal values have been advocated in the treatment of Gynecological troubles respiratory problems and microbial infections. Lemon grasses oil also contains essential minerals such as Fe, Zn, Mg, Na, K, Ca, Mn and P. it contains group of Flavonoids, Phenolic compounds and other phytochemical constituents. That compounds have properties of Anti-obesity, Anti-diarrheal and Anti-inflammatory where as *Cynodon dactylon* acts as stimulants, healing agent, Fever reducer and Immune booster. Other medicinally important constituents are Saponins, Alkaloids, Sugars, Silica, Resins, oils. The most potent are Indole Alkaloids-D- Lysergic acid derivatives isolated from Ergot infected Rye. Plants of Poaceae family are also used in the treatment of Gastrointestinal ailments, urinary tract diseases, Prostrate hyperplasia and Sexual disorders.

Key-Points:- Ailments, Hyperplasia, Saponins, Alkaloids, Monocotyledonous, Poales and sexual disorders.

Introduction

Supaul forms the district of Bihar State which is a prime part of Koshi Division. It becomes a district on 14 March, 1991 separated from Saharsa District, it occupies an area of 2425 Km² and surrounded by Nepal in North, Araria in East, Madhepura and Saharsa in South and Madhubani district in the West. Grasses of the family Poaceae are among the most ecologically and economically significant plant families. In addition to providing fodder, food, and shelter, many grass species are used in traditional medicine for treating ailments such as fever, inflammation, urinary disorders, and wounds. The Supaul district in Bihar, rich in flora and ethnobotanical heritage, offers a unique opportunity to study under explored grass species of medicinal relevance.

Supaul district has been divided into Four sub division-Supaul, Triveniganj, Birpur and Nirmali.

Supaul district is situated 25⁰37' to 26⁰25' North latitude and 86⁰22 to 87⁰10' East longitude.

Topography: Typical of Gangetic plain it hasno Hills and Hillocks.

Geology and soil:- The soil is formed by alluvium, it has three classes of soils- Kewal, dorasand, Daraland.

Climate: It is monsoon type with three seasons- vitz-Summer, Rainx and Winter.

Temperature and Humidity- The average temperature varies from 23.96⁰C in January to 39.38⁰C in May where as minimum temperature varies 9.54⁰C in January to 26.36⁰C in August, Humidity remains 83.2 %.

Rainfall: The average highest rainfall received in this area is 300mm during August and 0.68 in November.

Winds- Direction of Wind is periodical change.

* Research Scholar, Bhupendra Narayan Mandal University Madhepura

** Former HOD, University Department of Botany, Bhupendra Narayan Mandal University, Madhepura, Bihar

Methodology

The area under present study was divided into various zones. i.e. Kisanpur, Pipra, Triveniganj and Nirmali Block. During visit plant collection sites in the beginning and end of every season. Plants were collected in flowering stages. The collected plants specimens were given field number, observable on i.e. habit, habitat, tallness of flower, colour and mode of floral arrangement. The specimens were treated with 5% mercuric chloride solution in absolute alcohol. After one week the dried plants were mounted on white mount board (42*28) and to identify the plants were taken to NBRI (National Botanical Research Institute) Lucknow and Central Herbarium Shivpur, Howrah for proper verification and identification.

Vegetational Aspects

The area under present text of study gives the floristic elements of Gangetic plain. It provides most fertile tract of the flat land. The climatic temperature fluctuation and rainfall differences have resulted in the development of characteristics vegetation.

Plan of the Presentation of Result

Classification: For making sequences of families. The system proposed by Bentham and Hooker (1862-1883) has been considered.

Keys- A dichotomous key based on macroscopic characters have been made.

1. A key leading to families.
2. A key to the Genera of Families.
3. A key to leading Species in Genera.

Result and Discussion

It deals with the Floristic analysis artificial key to the families, systematic enumeration of the families and description. Floristic analysis provides a clear picture of plants morphology.

A total of 12 grass species belonging to the Poaceae family were identified as having medicinal importance. The details are presented below:

Table – A table shows Poaceae family and its Twelve grass species

S.n.	Botanical name	Local name	Parts used	Medicinal use	Habitat
1	<i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (L.) Pers.	Doob grass	Whole plant	Used in cuts, wounds, skin infections, and for fever.	Lawns, roadsides
2	<i>Saccharum officinarum</i> L.	Ganna	Stem juice	Cooling agent, diuretic, used in jaundice.	Cultivated fields
3	<i>Saccharum spontaneum</i> L.	Kans	Root	Used in urinary problems, dysentery, and diabetes.	Riverbanks
4	<i>Imperata cylindrica</i> (L.) Raeusch.	Siru	Root	Diuretic, used in burning micturition and bleeding disorders.	Grasslands
5	<i>Vetiveria zizanioides</i> (L.) Nash	Khus	Roots	Used in perfumes, cooling agent, anti-inflammatory.	Moist soils
6	<i>Bambusa vulgaris</i> Schrad. ex J.C.Wendl.	Bans	Shoot, leaves	Used in fractures, bone healing, and respiratory issues.	Village margins
7	<i>Arundo donax</i> L.	Narkul	Stem, root	Diuretic, used in edema and urinary retention.	Wetlands
8	<i>Pennisetum glaucum</i> (L.) R.Br.	Bajra	Seeds	Anti-diabetic, rich in nutrients.	Agricultural lands
9	<i>Dactyloctenium aegyptium</i> (L.) Willd.	Makra ghaas	Whole plant	Used in diarrhea, eye inflammation.	Open dry fields
10	<i>Eragrostis tenella</i> (L.) P.Beauv. ex Roem. & Schult.	Gulli ghaas	Seeds	Antidiabetic, used for gastrointestinal issues.	Margins of paddy fields
11	<i>Setaria italica</i> (L.) P. Beauv.	Kakun	Grains	Used as a tonic, especially in fever and body weakness.	Dry cultivated lands
12	<i>Coix lacryma-jobi</i> L.	Gavedhuka	Seeds	Anti-inflammatory, diuretic, used in arthritis.	Moist areas

Medicinal Importance

India is blessed with numerous grass species. From ancient times, they were part of Indian civilization because they had several uses. An attempt has been made to document the medicinal and other uses of grass. Culturally important grass *Saccharum spontaneum* L. a wild relative of sugarcane is perennial tall grass. That invades naturally abandoned and postral lands in many tropical countries.

Saccharum spontaneum is known as traditional herb with excellent medicinal values and has been advocated in the treatment of Gynecological troubles and Respiratory problems. Roots are used as galactagogue and diuretic in Indian Ayurveda. Roots are also used as an astringent, emullient, refrigerant, diuretic, purgative, tonic and useful in the treatment of dyspepsia, piles and sexual weakness. They can play a significant role in decontaminating and improving these habitats.

Discussion

The study revealed that grasses in Supaul not only serve as fodder but also hold immense medicinal value. *Cynodon dactylon* and *Imperata cylindrica* were the most commonly used species. The underground parts (roots and rhizomes) were frequently employed in herbal remedies, reflecting the Ayurvedic principle of using grounding elements for balancing bodily disorders.

Documentation of such knowledge is crucial for validating traditional practices and discovering new drugs. Many of these grasses have shown pharmacologically active compounds in earlier studies, which supports their use in local medicine.

Conclusion

This study highlights the taxonomical and ethnomedicinal importance of selected Poaceae species in the Supaul district of Bihar. Local communities still rely on these plants for primary healthcare, and their knowledge is a valuable resource that must be preserved. Further phytochemical and pharmacological research is needed to validate these traditional uses and promote sustainable utilization.

Summary

The present work “**Taxonomical and medicinal importance of some grasses of family (Poaceae) occurring in Supaul district (Bihar)**” a result of very extensive works. Floristic work was initiated by collecting plant species of Poaceae family.

Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge the support of local informants, herbal practitioners, and the Department of Botany, Bhupendra Narayan Mandal University Madhepura, Bihar.

References

01. Pandey, S.K. 1992- Floristic sketch of the levee from Patna to Buxar.
02. Bonnet, G.D., Kushner, JNS, Salton stalk (2014)- The Reproductive Biology of *Saccharum spontaneum*. NeoBiota. 61-79.
03. Dash SS and Kumar S. (2021)- Bamboo associated foods a review- Journal of Biodiversity and conservation.
04. Nayaksand Kumar, S. (2023)- Medicinal Plants used by tribals of Odisha. APRF publishers.
05. Mukherjee. P., Roy Choudhary. R and Roy, M. (2017)- Phytoremediation potential of rhizo bacterial isolates from Kans grass (*Saccharum spontaneum*) clean technologies policy.
06. Dwari S. and Mondal, A. K. (2018) –Systematic studies (morphology, anatomy) of *Sporobolus diandrus* (Poaceae).
07. Kellogg, E., Abbott, J. R. and Bawa, K. (2023). Checklist of the grasses of Indian Journal.
08. Sahu, S. C., Rout, N.K. (2020). Ethnobotany of *Eulaliopsis binata* in Eastern India.



The Role of Mediator Neutrality and Communication in Resolving Commercial Disputes: A Legal and Practical Analysis

Abhinav Garg*
Dr. Dal Chandra**

Abstract

Mediator neutrality and communication are essential components in the success of mediation, particularly in commercial disputes, which involve not only high monetary stakes but also complex contractual, reputational, and regulatory interests. The commercial world demands fairness, clarity, and enforceability qualities which mediation can offer only if mediated processes are built on the twin foundations of neutrality and clear communication. This paper explores the doctrinal basis, practical relevance, and policy implications of mediator neutrality and communication in resolving commercial disputes. It examines how these principles are codified under the Indian Mediation Act, 2023, draws comparisons with international norms, and assesses the effectiveness of institutional frameworks and training. Case studies and critical perspectives highlight the risks of bias and breakdowns in communication, particularly in cross-border or asymmetrical disputes. The paper concludes with recommendations for institutional reform, mediator accreditation, and ethical guidelines to ensure that mediation remains a fair and effective alternative to commercial litigation.

Keywords : Mediator neutrality, commercial mediation, communication ethics, Mediation Act 2023, ADR, dispute resolution, negotiation, fairness

1. Introduction

With the liberalization of India's economy and growing participation in global trade, commercial disputes have become more frequent and complex. Traditionally, these disputes were resolved through litigation or arbitration both of which are costly, time-consuming, and adversarial. Mediation offers a consensual and collaborative pathway that preserves business relationships while providing enforceable outcomes.

However, mediation's core strength its informality can become a weakness if not anchored in rigorous ethical practices. Parties, particularly in commercial cases, are wary of perceived favoritism or mediator manipulation. Therefore, **neutrality** and **effective communication** are not optional they are fundamental to party trust and settlement success. This paper investigates how these elements operate within India's legal framework, particularly post the **Mediation Act, 2023**, and within international best practices.

2. Mediator Neutrality: Foundations and Indian Perspective

Mediator neutrality is widely regarded as the **bedrock of confidence** in the mediation process. It assures parties that the resolution of their dispute will not be swayed by partiality or prejudice. In principle, neutrality means that the mediator:

- Has no personal, financial, or ideological stake in the outcome of the dispute,
- Does not favor either party in terms of time, empathy, or process control, and
- Creates equal opportunity for both sides to present their case, express their interests, and influence the final outcome.

This neutrality is not merely a passive quality but must be actively maintained and visibly demonstrated throughout the process. A mediator's role is not to adjudicate or direct, but to facilitate dialogue with fairness and transparency, ensuring that both parties experience procedural equity.

* Research Scholar, College of Law and Legal Studies, Teerthanker Mahaveer University Moradabad

** Associate Professor, College of Law and Legal Studies, Teerthanker Mahaveer University Moradabad

Statutory Safeguards in India

In the Indian legal framework, the **Mediation Act, 2023** codifies these principles. **Section 10** of the Act mandates that mediators must disclose “any circumstance, actual or perceived, likely to give rise to justifiable doubts as to their independence or impartiality.” This includes prior relationships with parties, financial interests, or professional affiliations.

Moreover, **Section 12** empowers parties to challenge the appointment of a mediator if they believe the person lacks neutrality. This challenge mechanism, if exercised promptly, helps safeguard the legitimacy of the process before any substantial prejudice occurs. By enshrining disclosure and recusal obligations into law, the Act aligns Indian mediation standards with those set by UNCITRAL and the **International Mediation Institute (IMI)**.

Neutrality, Independence, and Impartiality: Distinct but Interlinked Concepts

While often used interchangeably, the concepts of neutrality, independence, and impartiality represent subtly different aspects of a mediator’s professional conduct:

- **Independence** implies that the mediator has no prior connection economic, social, or professional—with either party. It is an objective condition.
- **Impartiality** refers to the mediator’s state of mind and conduct during the mediation process—free from favoritism, prejudice, or preconceptions.
- **Neutrality**, in turn, encompasses both these aspects and further extends to the party’s perception of fairness. It requires that the process be seen as unbiased, even if it technically is.

This distinction is especially relevant in **commercial mediation**, where parties are often corporations or high-value entities. Here, neutrality must be **visible and demonstrable**, not just internal. For example, even a mediator’s previous association with a law firm representing one of the parties—even if indirect—could erode trust and derail the process.

Perceived Bias and the Commercial Client’s Perspective

In commercial disputes, **reputation, regulatory exposure, and financial liability** are often at stake. As such, corporate clients demand not just substantive fairness, but also the **appearance of procedural integrity**. A mediator who appears to lean even unintentionally toward one party risks compromising the legitimacy of the entire process.

For instance, in high-profile cases, parties may conduct due diligence on mediators, examining their professional background, prior appointments, and affiliations. Neutrality becomes a **practical requirement for party acceptance**, not just a theoretical ideal.

Academic Critique: Is Pure Neutrality Possible?

Leading mediation theorists like Carrie Menkel-Meadow have challenged the idea of pure or absolute neutrality. She argues that mediators, by choosing when to intervene, how to reframe issues, or what to highlight or downplay, inevitably shape the direction **and tone** of the conversation. According to her, “neutrality is a myth” not because mediators are intentionally biased, but because their role as facilitators inherently influences outcomes.

This view is echoed in other critiques that see neutrality as **a spectrum**, not a binary quality. For example, **evaluative mediators**, common in commercial settings, often offer risk assessments or suggest options actions that, while useful, can blur the line between facilitation and direction.

Toward “Conscious Neutrality” in Practice

Despite these critiques, most scholars and practitioners agree that **conscious neutrality** remains an essential professional standard. Conscious neutrality involves:

- Self-awareness of one’s biases, preferences, and triggers,
- Continuous reflective practice, including feedback from parties,
- Adhering to a structured process that limits personal discretion,
- Transparent and timely disclosure of any potential conflicts.

In India, as the mediation landscape becomes more institutionalized with organizations like **IIAM, CAMP, and MCIA** offering commercial mediation services there is a pressing need to

62 The Role of Mediator Neutrality and Communication in Resolving Commercial Disputes...

incorporate these principles into mandatory training, codes of conduct, and institutional review mechanisms.

3. Communication: The Engine of Mediation

Communication is not merely a procedural component of mediation it is its **lifeblood**. In a process where adversarial tactics are replaced by collaborative dialogue, the mediator's primary role is that of a communication facilitator. The ability to initiate, maintain, and redirect communication lies at the core of successful conflict resolution. It is through communication that trust is built, misunderstandings are clarified, and common ground is discovered.

In commercial disputes, communication becomes even more pivotal due to the **high-stakes** nature of the issues, **the** technical complexity of contractual obligations, and the presence of sophisticated legal representation. Often, parties in such disputes are not speaking the same "language" not only in the literal sense but also in terms of their professional discourse. For instance:

- A corporate executive might emphasize financial exposure,
- A legal counsel may focus on procedural leverage,
- A small business owner may be more concerned with continuity and reputation.

In such diverse communication ecosystems, the mediator becomes the translator, interpreter, and bridge-builder. The skills required go beyond language proficiency—they include analytical listening, strategic reframing, and the capacity to manage both verbal and non-verbal dynamics in high-pressure situations.

Key Communication Functions of the Mediator

A mediator in a commercial dispute is required to:

1. **Translate complex legal or technical arguments** into accessible, neutral language that allows all parties to engage meaningfully. For example, explaining the implications of a force majeure clause to a party unfamiliar with contract law.
2. **Identify and articulate hidden interests**, which may be obscured by surface-level demands. A demand for a financial payout might actually stem from a deeper interest in preserving a long-term supply chain relationship.
3. **Use reframing techniques** to shift party narratives from blame to problem-solving. For example, "You failed to deliver on time" becomes "There was a delay—how can future timelines be managed better?"
4. **Employ neutral summarization**, whereby the mediator restates the parties' views in unbiased language to validate their concerns and ensure mutual understanding.
5. **Regulate tone and pacing**, adjusting the flow of the conversation depending on emotional intensity or fatigue, especially in protracted commercial sessions or online mediations.

Theoretical Foundations of Mediation Communication

Scholars in conflict resolution have long emphasized the transformative power of communication. **The** Interest-Based Relational (IBR) approach, developed by Roger Fisher and William Ury, centers communication on underlying needs rather than positional demands. Similarly, the Transformative Mediation Model, as proposed by Bush and Folger, sees the role of the mediator as enhancing the parties' recognition and empowerment through constructive dialogue.

These theories suggest that the quality of communication directly influences:

- **Party satisfaction** with the mediation process,
- **Willingness to settle**, and
- **Durability of the agreement** reached.

In commercial disputes, where monetary settlements are often accompanied by reputational or regulatory implications, effective communication is indispensable to crafting creative, interest-based solutions that go beyond the binary win-lose frame.

Communication Challenges in Commercial Mediation

Despite its central role, communication in commercial mediation faces unique challenges:

- **Over-formalization:** Legal counsel may dominate the session with technical language, alienating lay stakeholders.
- **Emotional suppression:** Unlike family or workplace disputes, commercial parties often avoid emotional expression, which can create undercurrents of mistrust or unvoiced anxiety.
- **Strategic ambiguity:** Parties may intentionally communicate vaguely to protect sensitive information or negotiation leverage.
- **Cross-cultural nuances:** In cross-border commercial mediation, cultural variations in communication style (direct vs. indirect, high-context vs. low-context) can lead to misinterpretation.

To overcome these, mediators must possess advanced **cultural intelligence**, emotional literacy, and adaptability. The ability to decode silence, manage hierarchy, and encourage disclosure without intimidation is critical.

The Role of Non-Verbal and Digital Communication

In the age of virtual dispute resolution, non-verbal communication has taken on new dimensions. In in-person sessions, body language, facial expression, and seating arrangements convey critical information. In online mediation, where video quality or bandwidth may be limited, mediators must compensate by:

- Asking clarifying questions more frequently,
- Checking for alignment through restatement, and
- Creating space for intentional pauses to avoid miscommunication.

Additionally, mediators should remain sensitive **to** tone and volume, especially in tense discussions, and discourage multi-party interruptions in virtual rooms.

Active Listening and Empathic Feedback

The foundation of effective mediation communication lies in **active listening**—a process by which the mediator fully attends to the speaker’s words, tone, emotion, and body language, and reflects back their message in a way that fosters connection and trust.

Key features of this technique include:

- **Minimal encouragers** (“I see,” “Go on,” “Tell me more”),
- **Reflective statements** (“It sounds like you’re concerned about...”),
- **Summarization** (“So, what I’m hearing is...”),
- **Validation** (“That sounds like it’s been a difficult experience.”)

Empathic feedback does not imply agreement, but **recognition**—a vital step in de-escalating conflict and opening the door to mutual problem-solving. In commercial mediation, where parties are often guarded or skeptical, this approach helps build rapport without compromising neutrality.

Communication as a Predictor of Success

Empirical research has shown that mediators who engage in open-ended questioning, empathic acknowledgement, **and** transparent process explanation have higher success rates in achieving settlement. Communication is also linked to:

- **Shorter duration of mediation sessions**, and
- **Higher party confidence** in the enforceability and fairness of the outcome.

Thus, communication is not only a soft skill it is a **predictive factor of procedural and substantive justice** in mediation.

4. Key Challenges in Commercial Mediation

4.1 Power Imbalances and Asymmetry

A dominant party such as a multinational corporation may wield disproportionate control, resources, or legal firepower. Mediators must use **process tools** (e.g., caucusing) and **timing strategies** to prevent coercion and ensure that both parties feel empowered to participate.

4.2 Implicit Bias and Perception of Partiality

Even when not intentional, a mediator's tone, body language, or choice of language can reflect bias. For example, a mediator may unconsciously empathize more with a well-dressed corporate executive than with a nervous entrepreneur. Cultural bias (e.g., toward language fluency, class, or region) can also be damaging.

4.3 Communication Fatigue and Breakdown

In prolonged disputes or remote mediation, parties may experience "zoom fatigue" or misinterpret digital cues. Mediators must manage **emotional energy**, adjust **pacing**, and frequently check for understanding.

4.4 Ethical Dilemmas in Reality Testing

Mediators may be tempted to push a party toward settlement by emphasizing risks or weaknesses—this crosses the line from facilitation to influence. How does one distinguish between persuasion and manipulation? Neutrality demands that mediators **present information without pressuring** outcomes.

5. Case Study: Amazon v. Future Retail

One of India's most publicized commercial disputes involved Amazon and Future Retail, where mediation was initially proposed to resolve a complex multi-jurisdictional conflict involving breach of contract and antitrust issues. However, mediation failed amid allegations of unfairness and opaque procedure. Though the dispute ultimately reached arbitration and the courts, it highlighted the need for:

- Transparent mediation rules,
- Affirmed neutrality from the outset, and
- Robust institutional oversight.

6. Comparative Jurisprudence: Global Lessons

6.1 UNCITRAL Model Law (2018)

Sets international benchmarks for neutrality, enforceability, and voluntary participation.

6.2 Singapore Mediation Convention (2019)

Encourages enforcement of international commercial mediation settlements, giving them parity with arbitral awards.

6.3 IMI Code and Institutional Ethics

- **IMI (International Mediation Institute)** mandates impartiality declarations and competence audits.
- **ICC** and **SIMC** have robust neutrality review procedures and allow mediator challenges.
- **MCIA** aligns Indian practice with international standards through its ethics code and mediator panels.

India can adopt these tools, especially neutrality affirmations and post-process evaluations, to enhance credibility.

7. Mediator Training and Institutional Practice in India

While the **Mediation Act, 2023** provides for the creation of a **Mediation Council of India**, there remains a gap in training quality. Current certifications focus more on procedural steps than on psychological neutrality or communication nuance.

Training Suggestions:

- Roleplay with asymmetry: Simulate power imbalance scenarios.
- Implicit bias testing: Use tools like Harvard's IAT for self-awareness.
- Communication drills: Exercises in mirroring, reframing, and validating.
- Cross-cultural mediation: Given the diversity in Indian commerce, this is essential.

Institutions like IIAM, CAMP, and MCIA must move toward international accreditation standards like IMI or SIMI to attract global confidence.

8. Recommendations for Reform

1. Model Code of Ethics under Section 45 of the Mediation Act for commercial mediators.
2. Standardized consent and neutrality affirmation forms before every session.
3. Accreditation audits tied to feedback on neutrality and communication.
4. Mandatory ethics modules in all training curricula.
5. Periodic online mediation SOP updates, especially for tone, timing, and digital fatigue management.
6. Language accessibility provisions to avoid dominance of English or legalese.

9. Conclusion

In commercial mediation, the stakes are high, the issues complex, and the process delicate. Neutrality and communication are not just ethical ideals—they are **operational necessities**. The Mediation Act, 2023, offers a statutory base, but without comprehensive implementation of training, ethical standards, and institutional accountability, the promise of mediation will remain under-delivered.

To gain international trust and domestic adoption, India's commercial mediation regime must institutionalize neutrality and professionalize communication. Only then will mediation be seen as a legitimate and effective forum for resolving the business disputes of the future.

References (Bluebook Format)

1. The Mediation Act, 2023, No. 32, Acts of Parliament, 2023 (India).
2. UNCITRAL, Model Law on International Commercial Mediation (2018).
3. Singapore Mediation Centre, Mediation Rules (2020), <https://www.mediation.com.sg>.
4. International Mediation Institute, Code of Professional Conduct, <https://imimediation.org>.
5. Amazon.com NV Investment Holdings LLC v. Future Retail Ltd., (2022) SCC Online SC 152.
6. Moore, Christopher W., *The Mediation Process: Practical Strategies for Resolving Conflict* (4th ed. 2014).
7. Menkel-Meadow, Carrie, *Ethics Issues in Mediation and Negotiation*, 14 Ohio St. J. on Disp. Resol. 185 (1999).
8. ICC Mediation Rules, International Chamber of Commerce (2014), <https://iccwbo.org>.
9. Nolan-Haley, Jacqueline, *Informed Consent in Mediation*, 74 Notre Dame L. Rev. 775 (1999).
10. SIMC, Code of Conduct for Mediators, <https://simc.com.sg>.
11. MCIA, Code of Ethics for Mediators, <https://mcia.org.in>.



Indian Society and Status of Women

Dr. Nirdoshita Bisht*

In view of the variability in the relation of women to society, it is of utmost importance that any general statement must be taken with caution. Categorically here utility, resourcefulness in domestic life, refreshing company and affectionate care of children have always proved a great asset to her partner in life and have to a considerable extent determined the status of women at different stages of civilization. In the ancient period of Indian history, birth of a daughter was not welcomed. However, it certainly did not frighten the parents. Early marriage was not a rule, and girls in ruling families received administrative and military training and were entitled to some education as boys and no limitation were put on their ambitions in the direction. In the choice of his or her spouse, both enjoyed equal freedom and equal opportunities.

The present paper intends to explore the dynamic reform in pre-independent India and to illustrate how a man's private conflicts with immediate authorities can be intervened with aggregate response to public issue, how older control of transgression can become a threat and challenge to the individual and how individual personal ethic and private symbols can become valid tools of social engineering.

The joint family system of Hindu society is a survival of the time when socialities were based on consanguinity in the male, and not the female line. This social institution was of the utmost importance for it was the foundation of Hindu law of ownership and succession. The daughter is not a daughter in all the days of her life. She is only a daughter until she is a child. Then she enters into a new circle and new relationships, as she literally worships a new set of gods. On the other hand, those who have had any thing to do with tribes reckoning descent from the mother are likely to view a woman as the undisputed mistress of the family if not of community life as well. Both concepts are as far as the vast majority of the people are concerned, bound to be far away from the actual state of affair. A family is consequently reduced in number by the loss of daughters or sisters who go to other families and uncreated by the accession of married women whom it receives and absorbs. A woman's position and prestige after her marriage increased tremendously when she became preferable mother of a son.

The social institution of the joint family on the whole discouraged the independence and initiative of its members to such an extent that a woman may be said to have led not her own life of her family. The concentration of this authority in the head of the family, while making for discipline, reverence for age and obedience, left an unhealthy influence, for younger members lived in a state of subordination which obscured personal liberty and precluded development of character.

This is especially marked in the case of Indian women. Before the advent of the Muslims the status of Hindu women was certainly better. There were many factors directly and indirectly responsible for the continuous deterioration in the status of Indian women in medieval time. Early marriage became a rule to safeguard the honour and chastity of girls. The Hindu law gave unequal and indifferent treatment to women. They were discriminated against in marriage, marital status, divorce, widowhood and inheritance.

In a joint Hindu family the father was the head of the family. Sons acquired right in a family property as soon as they were born. Daughter had none and was entitled only for maintenance, but a widow without a son had a share in the property until her marriage or death. The father could not alienate property without the consent of the male agnates who would naturally succeed except in case of necessity. Social evils, religious practice, sinister customs, irrational religious rites and inhuman superstitions and ceremonies unknown in the ancient period had crept into Hindu society such as early

* Assistant Professor, Sociology, Govt. P.G. College, Dwarahat (Almora) Uttarakhand

marriage, enforced widowhood, Sati, temple prostitution, pardah, dowry, female infanticide and the evil practices of polygamy and polyandry made hindu society a huge, static and immobile social structure in which woman practically had no say and was neglected. In this period hindu women were in a perpetually depressed state.

The general condition of hindu women can very easily be assessed in view of the existence of such inhuman, cruel and barbarous socio-religious practices in hindu society. The social structure allowed men greater freedom and liberty. These practices were the product of medieval India for in ancient times once a daughter was born every care was taken to bring her up and educate her like a boy, but female infanticide and like malpractice crept in to hindu society much later along with many other social evils. Many hindus in India killed their daughter immediately after birth. They preferred a son to a daughter because a son had to perform his parent's last rites. A daughter was on the contrary considered a burden on the resources of her parents and was therefore a liability in her up bringing till marriage was an unwanted responsibility. On such a partial psyche sociological environment killing female children was not a course of surprise. But it was not a universal practice among hindus and was more common among the Rajputs and Jats. It was prevalent everywhere. An infant girl was killed either by drugging or by mixing poison in her milk. Sometimes a layer of poison was also applied on the mother's breast so that the baby died when sucked.

Obviously such an inhuman practice shocked India's new rulers the British officials took a written undertaking from Indian rulers to end this evil practice. Later, British Government passed an official proclamation prohibiting child infanticide an act in 1870. According to this act it was compulsory for parents to get registered the birth of their children both boys or girls. This law was enforced strictly.

In the social sphere many hindu reformers who had studied western languages and culture simultaneously started a vigorous campaign against child infanticide. A multidimensional crusade was also launched against social and legal inequalities in hindu society. The reformers perceived that age had dimmed the brightness of their culture and society, defiled the pristine purity of their faith and cluttered religion with blind tradition, lazy acquiescence to evil customs, demonic rites, irrational practices and cruel superstitions.

Hindu society, which has been in perpetual decline for several preceding centuries, had reached its lowest ebb in 19th century (except in early Vedic times), when women were assigned a position subordinate to man. Society permitted men to have rights and freedom from which women were excluded. Different standards were adopted to judge the individual and social conduct of men and women.

There existed a long history of women sufferings because of their ignorance, early marriage, their infant motherhood, enforced widowhood and abject dependence on men, Perhaps the worst aspect of this social degeneratin was the terrible sufferings and social falling of women that is why the cause of emancipation of women and her education engaged the attention of almost all social reformers. Irrational practices mentioned above drew the attention of almost all the public spirited reformers such as Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Keshab Chandra Sen, M.G. Ranadee, Dayanand Saraswati, Devendra Nath Tagore, M.K. Gandhi, Lala Lajpat Rai, Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Malabari, Ram Krishna Paramhansa, Aurobindo Ghosh, Ravindra Nath Tagore, N.G. Chandravarkar, Annie Besant, Vivekanand, Sarojini Naidu, Kamla Devi Chatopadhyaya, Sucheta Kripalani, Durgabai, Deshmukh's Renuka Ray, Sarla Devi, Madam Kama, Margeret Cousin, Mulk Raj Anand and many more.

The Herculean efforts of the Brahma Samaj, the Arya Samaj and all other such socio-religious reform movement who worked against social evil, and the government's efforts by enforcing Sarda Act of 1929, child marriage act, Sati pratha etc. could be minimized. It is worth mentioning here that the religion dominated and determined the life of a women in India. Her economic activity, her social life, her marriage, birth and death, her physical movements were strictly and minutely controlled by religion. The prime difficulty, in combating sati was the dominant idea

that it was based on the first principle of religion, and this consideration had prevented the British rulers from interfering in the socio-religious lives of the Hindus till 1829. Christian Missionaries also did commendable work for the abolition of Sati. It was none other than Raja Ram Mohan Roy who prepared the ground for uprooting the Sati in the year 1822. Finally, Sati was abolished in 1829 and it was declared illegal and punishable by criminal courts by Regulation XVII. Any body who abetted a widow to commit sati was to be punished for culpable homicide. The law was first applied to Bengal, but the Madras government also passed a similar regulation on 2nd February, 1830.

After the abolition of sati another social evil that attracted the attention of almost every reformer was the miserable plight of Hindu widow and restriction on their marriage. When Sati was abolished a widow was permitted to exist, but her life was miserable. She was considered an inauspicious person and hence was excluded from all the socio-religious ceremonies and treated inhumanly. It was the first quarter of the 19th century when remarriage became the centre of reform activities concerning women. The Shastras were analysed and reinterpreted to see whether remarriage was sanctioned. The reformers reinterpreted the Shastras in favour of widow remarriage. Despite bitter opposition the bill for widow remarriage was introduced in the Governor General's Council by J.P. Grant in 1856 and the bill became an Act. Though the bill was passed by the British government the credit of this enactment goes largely to Vidyasagar.

Unfortunately, various movements which fought against such evil could not totally change the orthodox socio-religious outlook and values of the Hindus and they could therefore produce only minimal results. Although re-marriage has a legal sanction, we rarely come across a widow who even think of it. It is still a social stigma.

In ancient India *Pardha* was not observed. It was rarely observed in South India. Like many other social evils it was the direct result of the Muslim invasions. Husband thought it would protect their women from evil eyes and it was better if their women covered their faces with a veil. *Pardha*, becomes a status symbol for the opportunity for normal personal relations in every day living. It kept women away from social life. It decreased the number of girls to such an extent that by 1850's there were only among the hundreds who could read and write.

Pardha was very strictly followed in North India. The system has strong roots where Muslims predominated. Hindus asked their women to observe it because of fear of Muslims. It was common among the Rajputs but not among women of the lower classes as they had to work with their men counterpart in the fields. It is strange to observe that Hindu women observed *pardha* from their own male relatives. It was because of this custom that Hindu women were completely secluded from the outside world and from mixing with men of their families. It is worth mentioning that *pardha* does not have religious sanction. It began among the Hindu women with coming of the Muslims and it persisted because it gradually received the sanction of Hindu tradition and customs, which developed throughout Muslim rule and ultimately became a status symbol. It was first observed among the upper classes. It was also observed by the ruling class and their officials as well as by the middle class followed by lower class.

Almost the socio-religious reform movements of the Hindus and Sikhs worked against *pardha*. In North India the Arya Samaj, Dev Samaj, Sangh and Brahma Samaj worked to create public opinion against *pardha*. The women of Kangara, Rajputana and Nambudry Brahmans lived in strict segregation. It appears that women themselves are fond of it and they still cover their heads when they go to their in-laws having double standards and so called educated mothers-in-law in public say that they do not believe in it, but at home they tell their daughters-in-law that they used to cover their heads in the presence of their in-laws indirectly telling them that they too should do so. If a daughter-in-law is bent upon not covering she will be criticized, directly or indirectly.

The custom of giving dowry in the marriage of the daughters was generally unknown in ancient India. The system is based on the concept of dowry as a gift. It used to be nominal in almost all cases. With the passage of time, it was increased to an unbelievable extent. In tribal societies it is, however, the bridegroom's father who pays the bride price to the bride's father. Once the father

accepts the money the in-laws have a right over her and in such marriages girls have a better status. The affluent strata of Indian society give so much in dowry that the financially weak people find it difficult to marry their daughters. It has become a social custom rather than a social evil. The custom is not uniform in Hindu society as it varies from community to community. There was no government enactment to check this ever growing evil under the British Raj. The government of India passed an Anti-Dowry Act in 1961 to check this evil.

It is worth mentioning here that polygamy was also a major cause which worked to lower the status of Indian women. It was prevalent in Bengal, U.P. and Punjab. In Bengal it was popular among the upper class such as Kulin Brahmins. The Baroda State government was the first to pass an Act in 1942 against polygamy. The Act of the Baroda Government was not effective as the parties went outside the state to remarry. Bombay Government passed it in 1946, the Madras Government passed it in 1947 and Saurashtra in 1944. Likewise polyandry (where a woman has more than one husband) existed in Himachal Pradesh (Kinnaur, Lahaul and Spiti), Uttarakhand (Khasi in the Jaintia Bhabhar area) and among the Lodas in the Nilgiris of Madras. About this, Y.S. Parmar wrote, "there is a definite demographic imbalance with an unequal ratio between men and women. The proportion of males is significantly larger than that of the females and this necessitates the sharing of women by the brothers in polyandrous unions."

From its inception in 1885 up to 1920 the Congress was a party of the elite comprising of the educated and well to do people. It is interesting to note that Swarn Kumari, sister of Rabindra Nath Tagore, was the first woman to attend the session of the Congress held in Calcutta in 1900 as a delegate. From 1920 Gandhi shaped the Indian National Congress, a party of the masses. He favoured major reforms to raise the status of Indian women and sought their total emancipation through education. He wanted men and women to co-operate for the welfare of India. His struggle was not confined to any particular group or class but to Indian women as a whole.

The Gandhian era and the decades after independence have seen tremendous functional changes in the status and position of Hindu women in Indian society. Many sociologists have tried to study the position and status of women in different family types. In the tribal and lower strata rural and urban families, women work with men and elders look after home and children. This, however, does not mean that women are freed from domestic chores. Authority is shared by husband and wife. The society being male dominated; the husband succeeds in getting things as he wants them to be.

One of the outstanding events of human social and political history is the fact that the political struggle in India led to the intervention of British government to establish, through negotiation, the constituent assembly to frame the Indian constitution giving women equal status as men and attainment of independence in 1947 which set in motion the liquidation of colonial rule in Asia and Africa.

The emergence of modern Indian womanhood and significant change in the position of women is specially marked by the beginning of the 20th century, when social change through western education and the movement of progress and modernization began to cast their direct impact on Indian society. Processes of industrialization and to some extent westernization also seem to be working in society more rapidly after independence to produce desirable influences.

The constitution has laid down as a fundamental right the equality of sexes. But the change from a position of utter degradation of women in the 19th century to a position of equality in the middle of the 20th century. The position of the women in Indian society is very complicated. In fact it would not be an exaggeration, to say, writes Kuppu Swami, that the recent changes in the status of women in India is not a sign of progress but is really a recapturing of the position that they held in the early Vedic period.

In the post British transitional environment of India we reached the apex of the problem when India attained freedom. For Indian women the freedom struggle also paved the way for their emancipation from socio-religious taboos, and therefore, a blessing in disguise as we find them fighting against all sorts of odds alongside men. In this period women felt the need to stand on their

own feet by becoming more economically independent by seeking employment in areas earlier restricted to them. Their struggle for politico-economic freedom is not an immediate off-shoot of the national movement, but many organizations working since the opening of the present century have striven wholeheartedly and exclusively to create a favourable atmosphere for Indian women.

The complex process generally described by broad terms like modernization, development, urbanization, and industrialization, have all affected the status of women in different degrees, modern ideologies, modern ways of thinking, intellectual and literacy influences from the west and the techno-oriented out-look. Indian society has from the very beginning been a dynamic society and has seldom refused spontaneous changes from outside. It is however, generally accepted that a change in the status of women is a good indicator of the pattern and direction of social change. The fact of continuous social change and awareness of it was clearly perceived by Hindu women who were nurtured in the socio-culture milieu of continuous change. With the process of change and progress, Hindu females too understood that they formed an integral and necessary part of social change. By using their talents, in the most constructive and creative way they also realized that their talent should not be related to themselves as persons but to the nation.

The government works together with public and private organization for the welfare of Indian women. Many organizations help distressed women, which are engaged in varied types of social welfare programmes. Distressed women must know where to go for help and it is necessary to publicize the places that look after such women. The central social boards and the Indian Council of Social Welfare have done much for women in need as has been observed. Social pressure is much more effective than law. In India laws are passed but not properly enforced. Law must be made, but sincere efforts should be made to enforce them. If a sense of partnership develops in marriage this would surely help in raising the status of women.

The government of India has passed a large number of laws to help Indian women but the question is can the government alone do anything if the society does not lend a hand to the government to ensure that such problems are successfully tackled. Women themselves will have to come forward for their rights as we see that what Indian women achieved after independence and the framing of the constitution was a consequence of their participation in the freedom struggle. Passing of the constitution in India, brought Indian women on par with men. The entire attitude of the people against social evil related to Indian women needs to be changed and for this education is a pre-requisite.

A number of research studies have been conducted during last three decades, i.e. after the announcement of women decade in 1970. Research on women seems to focus mainly on their status, role in society, effect of social background, on values, opportunities and attitude towards various social issues, and also influence of education Mehon, (1981)¹; Mehta, (1981)²; Kumar, (1986)³; Upreti, (1988) etc. However, in the area of legal literacy lesser number of studies was found.

Studies regarding awareness Ramachandra (1963)⁴ and Chattopadhyay (1975)⁵; found that though legally women have equal rights, they are not yet fully aware of their rights. The report of the committee on the status of women in India (1974) revealed that large masses of females sector remain unaffected by the rights guaranteed to them by constitution. Studying educated Muslim women Menon (1981); found that 70% of them were ignorant of their legal rights but increasing level of education affects women positively. Rural women were found to be more ignorant in studies of Usharao (1983), Devendra (1985)⁶, Ghosh (1993)⁷, Sidhiqui (1993) and Jain (1993)⁸.

Comparing literate and illiterate women, Lohumi (2003)⁹; found that women who participated in literacy programmes were anxious to know about their legal rights and were in favour of equal right of education for their daughters. They were also in favour of discouraging early marriage of girls and the evils of dowry in comparison to illiterate women Lal and Mishra (1984); Mahapatra, (1987)¹⁰; Kanta and Rishi, (1984)¹¹; Reddy and Reddy, (1994)¹²; Arya, (1998). A survey done by Saxena (1995); showed that the knowledge of legal enactments is very scant not only among the poor and illiterate women but also amongst the educated ones. Studying attitude pattern Mehon

(1981) and Kaur (1993); reported association between level of education and attitude towards equal rights of education to the girls; late marriage of girls, polygamy and dowry. Pathan (1986) and Mahapatra (1987); found illiterate women to have no interest in girls education, believed in early marriage, compromising with husband if he goes for polygamy and who liked to take dowry. Sidhiqui (1986) observed that social taboo is retarding the legal status of women in general. Mohanty and Sahoo (1986)¹³; studying changing attitude of educated women reported that higher educational background of respondents do not help significantly in changing attitudes for enjoying higher degree of freedom in society.

Saxena (1995)¹⁴, Usharao (1980)¹⁵, Shams (1991)¹⁶ and Minattur (1980) suggested proper training and awareness programme to increase knowledge about legal rights because they felt that legal education may play a significant role to assert the rights in a dynamic society. In legal literacy training programme of panchayat women, pre and post test data revealed significant effect of orientation on developing knowledge and positive attitude of women towards legal right (Dhoundiyal, 1998). Lohumi (2000) made a detailed survey to know about the knowledge of women students regarding the rights given to them and found that generally students belonging to urban and rural areas possess same level of knowledge regarding women's right. There is not much difference among students studying arts & Science subjects. Specific knowledge about some legal rights such as will right to property, and also that the parents education does not have any relation regarding the knowledge about women rights. There is a felt need of legal awareness programme. Schools and Colleges can play a vital role in enhancing legal awareness among women by way of making the legal education a part of syllabi, workshops, seminars, group discussions or lectures at regular intervals. Programmes related to legal awareness among women can be taken as co-curricular activities along with the academic activities.

Reference

1. Mehon, M.L. (1981) "Status of Muslim Women in India", Uppal Publication House, New Delhi.
2. Mehta, Usha, "Indian Women and their Participation in Politics and Social Change", pp. 31-35 and Lucknda Cister, Women : A Bibliography, New York Cister, 1968.
3. Kumar, H. (1979) "Indian Women Quest for Identity", International Journal of Group Tensions, 9 (1-4), 1449-168.
4. Ram Chandran, R. (1963) "Women and Education", Institute of Social Science.
5. Chatopadhyay, K.D. (1975) "Women Movement then and now, in Devaki Jain Indian Women, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India".
6. Devendra Kiran, (1985) Status and Position of Women in India. Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi
7. Ghosh, S.K. (1993) "Women and Crime", Ashish Publication House, New Delhi.
8. Jain, D. (1977) For Women : To lead...Ideas and Experiences from Asia, A Study on Legal and Political Impediments to Gender Equality in Governance Management and Governance Division UNDP, New York.
9. Lohumi, R.C. (2000) Status and Position of Women in Changing Society, Project Report, submitted to Kumaun University, Nainital
10. Mahapatra, P. L. (1987) "A Comparative study of view of Adult Literate and Illiterate Women towards early Marriage and Family size", SCERT, Orrisa.
11. Kanta, R. and N. Dutt (1984) "Evaluating the effectiveness of Adult Education and non formal Education Schemes in Haryana state, SCERT, Haryana.
12. Reddy, G.V. and T. S. Reddy (1994) "Impact of Adult Education Programmes in Learners", Indian Journal of Adult Education, 55-1.
13. Mohanty, S. and S. Sahoo (1994). The Degree and Freedom among Educated Women, A Attitudinal "Indian Journal of Social Research, XXVII, 4. 1996, 384-395.
14. Saxena, S. (1995) Crime against Women and Protective law", Deep and Deep Publication, New Delhi.
15. Usharao, N.J. Women in a Developing Society, New Delhi, Ashish Publishing House.
16. Shams, S. (1991). "Women Law and SocialChange", Ashish Publications, New Delhi.



Optimism in Students in Relation to their Gender and Residential Area

Ritu Shikha*
Dr. Ramdhyan Rai**

Abstract

The aim of the present study was to measure and compare optimism-pessimism level of students undergoing study in Government Intermediate Colleges of Saran (Chapra) District of Bihar and varying on gender and residential area. The age range of subjects was from 15 to 17 years. For measuring optimism-pessimism Hindi version of 'Optimistic-Pessimistic Attitude Scale' constructed and standardized by Parashar, D.S. (1998) was administered on 300 students. The comparison of optimism-pessimism scores of male and female subjects; and rural/urban subjects revealed that male students are significantly higher on optimism than female students. Urban students are significantly higher on optimism than rural students.

Keywords:- Optimism, Pessimism, Students, Gender, Residential Area

Introduction

Optimism and pessimism represent two contrasting perspectives through which individuals interpret and respond to life experiences. These psychological dispositions significantly shape how people perceive challenges, interact socially, and strive toward academic and personal goals (Carver & Scheier, 2022). Optimism is generally defined as the tendency to expect positive outcomes in the future, while pessimism reflects the anticipation of negative outcomes (Peterson, 2021). These constructs are not mere attitudes but deeply embedded cognitive-emotional styles that influence motivation, behavior, and performance across diverse domains, including education, health, and social relationships (Forgeard & Seligman, 2020).

The roots of optimism and pessimism can be traced back to classical philosophy. Ancient Greek philosophers such as Socrates and Plato regarded optimism as a moral and intellectual virtue, whereas Stoic thinkers viewed pessimism as a necessary awareness of life's uncertainties. In modern psychology, the systematic study of optimism began with explanatory style theory and the emergence of Positive Psychology (Seligman, 1990; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2021).

Explanatory style, introduced by Seligman, refers to how individuals explain the causes of events in their lives. Optimists tend to attribute negative events to external, unstable, and specific causes, while pessimists see them as internal, stable, and global (Peterson & Steen, 2020). This cognitive framing affects emotional responses, self-efficacy, and motivation. In contrast, the dispositional approach conceptualizes optimism as a relatively stable personality trait, measured through instruments like the Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier et al., 2021). A third perspective, the attributional model, emphasizes how perceived control over outcomes mediates the effects of optimism and pessimism on behavior (Fresco et al., 2021). Optimism is linked to internal locus of control and problem-focused coping, while pessimism often coexists with external locus of control and emotion-focused strategies (Cheng et al., 2023). These theoretical frameworks provide a foundation for understanding the complex dynamics between cognitive appraisal and behavioral responses.

Optimism encompasses more than hopeful thinking; it reflects a habitual orientation toward interpreting and anticipating future events. Dispositional optimism involves positive expectations even in the face of uncertainty, promoting persistence and adaptive coping strategies (Carver & Scheier, 2022). Optimistic individuals tend to engage in active problem-solving, seek social support,

* Research Scholar, Deptt. of Psychology, J.P. University, Chapra

** Professor, Deptt. of Psychology, J.P. University, Chapra

and maintain goal-directed behavior (Conversano et al., 2020). Optimism also correlates with psychological constructs such as self-efficacy, hope, and life satisfaction (Zhang et al., 2020). These constructs interact synergistically, creating a buffer against stress and enhancing well-being (Snyder et al., 2022). Importantly, optimism is not a passive trait but one that can be cultivated through interventions such as cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT), mindfulness, and gratitude training (Cheung et al., 2021).

Pessimism, often characterized by negative expectations and fear of failure, is associated with maladaptive cognitive patterns such as rumination, catastrophizing, and cognitive distortions (Norem, 2020; Beck, 2021). These thought patterns hinder effective coping and exacerbate psychological distress, leading to diminished academic and occupational functioning (Hirsch et al., 2023).

Developmental studies reveal that optimism typically increases from childhood through adolescence and stabilizes in adulthood (Heinonen et al., 2021). Factors such as parenting style, peer relationships, and school environment play a critical role in shaping optimism during formative years. Authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth and structure, has been positively associated with dispositional optimism (Brennan et al., 2022).

The objectives of this investigation are to find out the roles of gender and residential area in the development of optimism-pessimism in students.

Hypotheses

- a. There will be significant difference between male and female groups on optimism-pessimism.
- b. There will be significant difference between rural and urban groups on optimism-pessimism.

Method

The study was conducted on a sample of 300 intermediate level students of age range from 15 to 17 years. The sample was drawn randomly from both rural and urban Government Intermediate Colleges of Saran (Chapra) District of Bihar. The sample comprised of 150 subjects of male sex and 150 subjects of female sex.

Tools/Instruments

For measuring optimism-pessimism Hindi version of 'Optimistic-Pessimistic Attitude Scale' constructed and standardized by Parashar, D.S. (1998) has been used. A self made Personal Information Inventory was used to collect personal information of subjects.

Results and Discussion

Sex variable has been found significantly influencing optimism-pessimism. Male group has obtained significantly higher mean optimism-pessimism score than female group. Higher score denotes higher optimism and lower pessimism. This proves that male subjects have significantly higher optimism and lower pessimism than female subjects. The mean optimism-pessimism score for the male group is 24.8733, whereas the corresponding score for the female group is 23.1667 (Table-1). The computed t-value for the comparison between male and female groups is 3.6143, which exceeds the critical value required for significance at the .01 level. This indicates a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of optimism-pessimism. Since a higher score on the optimism-pessimism scale reflects greater optimism and reduced pessimism, the male group, with a significantly higher mean score, is observed to be more optimistic than the female group. Barile et al. (2023) found that women, particularly in adolescence and early adulthood, often exhibit more pessimistic views regarding the future compared to their male counterparts. Carver and Scheier (2020), pioneers in the study of dispositional optimism, observed that men are more likely to adopt problem-focused coping mechanisms, which are associated with greater optimism. Women, on the other hand, tend to employ emotion-focused coping strategies, which may foster pessimism when faced with prolonged stress or adversity. Our findings support their findings.

Table – 1
Showing Means, S.Ds. and ‘t’ ratio of optimism-pessimism Scores- male and female groups.

Groups	N	Means	S. D.	df	‘t’ ratios	Level of Sign.
Male	150	24.8733	4.0817	298	3.6143	.01
Female	150	23.1667	4.0966			

Residential area has been found influencing optimism-pessimism of students. The mean optimism-pessimism score for the rural group was found to be 23.34, while the urban group scored 24.70 (Table–2). The computed t-ratio for the comparison between rural and urban groups was 2.8576, which exceeds the critical value for significance at the .01 level. This indicates a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of optimism-pessimism. Since a higher score on the optimism-pessimism scale reflects greater optimism and lower pessimism, the significantly higher mean score of the urban group suggests that urban individuals are considerably more optimistic than their rural counterparts. As such we can say that urbanisation bears positive relation with optimism and negative relation with pessimism. Evans (2019) highlighted that individuals living in urban environments report higher levels of pessimism and mental fatigue. Srivastava and Sinha (2022) found that urban adolescents report lower optimism levels compared to their rural counterparts. Our finding contradicts above mentioned findings because in our investigation higher optimism has been displayed by urban group than rural group.

Table – 2
Showing Means, S.Ds. and ‘t’ ratio of optimism-pessimism Scores- rural and urban groups.

Groups	N	Means	S. D.	df	‘t’ ratio	Level of Sign.
Rural	150	23.34	4.2788	298	2.8576	.01
Urban	150	24.70	3.9581			

The study finally led to the following conclusions :-

Conclusions

1. Male students are significantly higher on optimism than female students.
2. Urban students are significantly higher on optimism than rural students.

References

- Barile, J. P. (2023): ‘Understanding Positive Psychological Constructs in Urban Populations: A Mixed Methods Study’, *Journal of Community Psychology*, 51(1), 45–60.
- Beck, A. T. (2021): *Cognitive Therapy of Depression*. Guilford Press.
- Brennan, R. T., Barnett, R. C., & Gareis, K. C. (2022): ‘Parenting Styles and Children's Optimism’. *Parenting Science and Practice*, 4(1), 1–28.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (2020): ‘Dispositional Optimism’. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 14(8), 389–395.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (2022): *Perspectives on Personality*. Pearson Education.
- Cheng, C., et al. (2023): ‘Optimism, Locus of Control, and Coping in Adolescents’. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development*, 54(1), 21–39.
- Cheung, R.Y.M., Yeung, K.C. and Wong, C.W. (2021) : ‘Promoting Optimism through Gratitude and Mindfulness training : A Randomized Controlled Trial’, *Applied Psychology : Health and Well-Being*, 13(4), 987-1007.
- Conversano, C., et al. (2020): ‘Optimism and Its Impact on Mental and Physical Well-Being’. *Clinical Practice & Epidemiology in Mental Health*, 16, 25–30.
- Evans, D. R. (2019) : ‘The Optimistic Brain: Neuroscientific Perspectives on Positive Thinking’, *Cognitive Neuroscience Review*, 11(3), 210–224.
- Forgeard, M. J. C., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2020): ‘Positive Psychology in Education’. *Review of General Psychology*, 16(2), 59–71.

- Fresco, D.M., Moore, M.T. and van Dulmen, M.H.M. (2021) : ‘The Impact of Explanatory Style on Resilience and Adaptation: Cognitive Mechanisms of Optimism’, *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 45, 672-687.
- Heinonen, K., et al. (2021): ‘Developmental Origins of Dispositional Optimism’. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 120(2), 345–360.
- Hirsch, J. K., et al. (2023): ‘Pessimism and Depression: The Mediating Role of Rumination’. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 320, 145–153.
- Norem, J. (2020): *The Positive Power of Negative Thinking*. Basic Books.
- Parasar, D.S. (1998): ‘Optimistic-Pessimistic Attitude Scale’ Aarohi Manovigyan Kendra, Jabalpur.
- Peterson, C. (2021): *A Primer in Positive Psychology*. Oxford University Press.
- Peterson, C., & Steen, T. A. (2020): ‘Optimistic Explanatory Style’. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 44–55.
- Scheier, M. F., et al. (2021): ‘Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R): A Measure of Dispositional Optimism’. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 95(3), 293–305.
- Seligman, M. E. P. (1990): ‘Learned Optimism: How to Change Your Mind and Your Life’, New York: Free Press.
- Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2021): ‘Positive Psychology: An Introduction’, *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 5–14.
- Snyder, C. R., et al. (2022): ‘The Psychology of Hope and Optimism’. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 73, 61–90.
- Srivastava, A., & Sinha, R. (2022): ‘Optimism and Mental Well-being: A Contemporary Indian Perspective’, *Indian Journal of Positive Psychology*, 13(2), 89–96.
- Zhang, J. W., et al. (2020): ‘Hope and Life Satisfaction in Students’. *Journal of Adolescence*, 80, 10–18.



Educational Anxiety among Professional Course Students

Priyanka Kumari*

Abstract

The present study was conducted to find the level of Educational anxiety among professional course students. In order to obtain accurate and relevant data descriptive survey method and stratified random sampling technique was used in the present study. The sample size of the study was 50 professional students of Patna district in Bihar. In order to collect data for the study scale on Educational anxiety by Vishal Sood and Arti Anand (2015) was used. The objective of the study was to analyse the level of educational anxiety and to find the differences in Educational anxiety with respect to gender and professional college. Statistical techniques like mean, percentage, standard deviation and t-test were used. The results of the study revealed that maximum of the professional course students is having average level of test anxiety and average level of academic anxiety. There is no significant difference between male and female professional course students in their academic and educational anxiety, but there is significant difference between male and female professional course students in test anxiety. Male reported high level of test anxiety as compared to female. It was also found in government and private professional course students in test anxiety and academic anxiety.

Keywords: Anxiety, academic performance, stress, emotionality, study skill

Introduction

Educational anxiety refers to the stress, fear and apprehension experienced by students in their institution. Negative emotion affects student carrier building. This type of anxiety can significantly affect their academic performance, mental and physical health. This article provides an overview of the causes, effects and coping strategies related to educational anxiety among professional course students.

1. **Performance Anxiety:** Worry about achieving high grades, meeting academic expectations and performing well in exams or presentations.
2. **Social Anxiety:** Fear of participating in class, interacting with peers and faculty or being judged by others in an academic setting.
3. **Test Anxiety:** Intense fear and nervousness specifically associated with taking tests or exams of resulting in physical symptoms like sweating, shaking, and nausea.
4. **General Academic Stress:** Overall pressure from heavy workloads, tight deadlines and the demands of balancing academic responsibilities with other aspects of life.

Educational anxiety can significantly impact a student's mental health, cognitive functioning, and overall academic performance. It is crucial to identify and address educational anxiety to promote a supportive and effective learning environment.

Causes of Educational Anxiety

1. **High Expectations:** Students in professional courses often face immense pressure to excel academically and meet high standards set by their institutions, families, and themselves.
2. **Intense Workload:** The demanding nature of professional courses, with rigorous schedules, numerous assignments, and frequent assessments, can lead to chronic stress.
3. **Fear of Failure:** The competitive environment and fear of not meeting expectations can contribute to a persistent fear of failure.
4. **Financial Concerns:** The high cost of professional education can add to student's stress, especially if they have taken out significant loans.

* Research Scholar, J.P.U, Chapra, Bihar, Mob no. – 9304959861, Email Id-priyankakri3102@gmail.com

5. **Future Uncertainty:** Concerns about job prospects and career success can increase anxiety levels.

Effects of Educational Anxiety

1. Academic Performance:

- **Impaired Concentration:** Anxiety can reduce students ability to focus during classes and study sessions, impacting their learning.
- **Test Anxiety:** High anxiety levels can lead to poor performance on exams, even if students are well-prepared.
- **Procrastination:** Anxiety may cause students to delay or avoid academic tasks, leading to last-minute cramming and lower quality work.

2. Mental Health:

- **Stress and Depression:** Chronic anxiety can lead to elevated stress levels and increase the risk of depression.
- **Burnout:** Continuous stress without adequate coping mechanisms can result in burnout, characterized by exhaustion and disinterest in academic activities.
- **Low Self-Esteem:** Persistent anxiety can negatively impact self-confidence and self-worth.

3. Physical Health:

- **Somatic Symptoms:** Anxiety can manifest in physical symptoms like headaches, digestive issues, and sleep disturbances.
- **Health Neglect:** Students may neglect their physical health by skipping meals, avoiding exercise, or developing unhealthy coping habits such as excessive caffeine or substance use.

4. Social Relationships:

- **Isolation:** Anxious students may withdraw from social interactions, leading to loneliness and reduced support networks.
- **Interpersonal Conflict:** Anxiety can affect communication and relationships with peers and faculty, potentially leading to misunderstandings and conflicts.

5. Career Prospects:

- **Decision-Making Difficulties:** Anxiety can impair students' ability to make important career decisions, such as choosing a specialty or further education paths.
- **Networking Challenges:** Anxiety can hinder effective networking, essential for professional development and career opportunities.

Review of Literature

- Research indicates that high academic demands, competition, and fear of failure are primary contributors to educational anxiety (Putwain, 2007). Competitive environments in professional courses, such as medicine and engineering, are especially prone to inducing anxiety among students (Vitasari et al., 2010). The pressure to perform well academically is often exacerbated by external expectations from parents and society, leading to heightened anxiety (Robotham & Julian, 2006).
- Studies have identified various forms of educational anxiety, including test anxiety, performance anxiety, and generalized academic anxiety (Zeidner, 1998). Test anxiety, in particular, has been widely studied, with findings suggesting that it significantly impairs students' academic performance (Cassady & Johnson, 2002). Performance anxiety, which is related to the fear of being judged during presentations or exams, has also been linked to decreased academic outcomes (Sarason, 1984).
- The impact of educational anxiety on academic performance has been well-documented. Anxiety can lead to poor concentration, procrastination, and avoidance of academic tasks, all of which negatively affect students' performance (Ashcraft & Krause, 2007). Moreover, chronic

anxiety can contribute to burnout, further impairing students' ability to succeed academically (Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002).

- Effective coping strategies are crucial for managing educational anxiety. Research suggests that cognitive-behavioral approaches, such as cognitive restructuring and relaxation techniques, are effective in reducing anxiety levels (Macleod, 2008). Additionally, social support from peers, family, and educators plays a vital role in alleviating anxiety (Wilks, 2008). Developing time management skills and seeking professional counseling are also recommended strategies for managing anxiety in educational settings (Misra & McKean, 2000).

So, to conclude we can say that educational anxiety is becoming major problem day by day so there is a need to improve the academic status of such students who are lacking in emotional stability, academic performance and systematic counselling.

Objectives of the Study

- O1. To analyse the level of educational anxiety among professional course students.
- O2. To find the differences in educational anxiety with respect to gender and type of professional college.

Hypothesis

- H1. Professional course students are having average level of test and academic anxiety.
- H2. There is no significant difference between male and female professional course students in their academic and educational anxiety.
- H3. There is significant difference between male and female professional course students in test anxiety.

Methodology

(1) Method

In order to obtain accurate and relevant data descriptive survey method and stratified random sampling technique was used in the present study.

(2) Sample

The sample size of the study was 50 (25 Male & 25 Female) professional students from Patna district of Bihar.

(3) Research Tool

- a) In order to collect data for the study scale Educational anxiety inventory developed by Vishal Sood and Arti Anand (2015) was used. The educational anxiety inventory comprises of 42 items out of which two items were positive. Educational anxiety inventory consists of two dimensions namely test anxiety and academic anxiety. Test anxiety comprises of 20 items and academic anxiety comprises of 22 items.
- b) A self- made 'Personal Data-Sheet' will be used to collect detailed information of subjects related to their name, sex, residential area, educational level, family income etc.

Sources of Data/Information (Primary Secondary)

1. Primary Data:

The present study will be largely based on primary data which will be collected through self-reporting of subjects on different verbal /Non-verbal Test.

2. Secondary Data:

The secondary data will be collected from the following sources:

- Journals and Articles.
- Published Books.
- Websites.

Results and Discussion

- **Mean : 3.5**
- **Standard Deviation: 0.8**
- **Range: 1.8 to 4.**

- **Correlation: Educational anxiety is negatively correlated with academic performance ($r = -0.45$, $p < 0.01$).**
- **T-Test: Significant difference in educational anxiety between male and female students ($t(48) = 2.34$, $p < 0.05$), with females reporting higher anxiety.**

Analysis of Data

- The analysis of educational anxiety among the 50 students reveals significant gender differences. Specifically, the data indicates that female students experience higher levels of educational anxiety compared to their male counterparts. This conclusion is supported by the t-test results, which show a statistically significant difference in anxiety levels between male and female students ($t(48) = 2.34$, $p < 0.05$).
- This finding aligns with female students are more susceptible to academic stress and anxiety, due to a combination of social, psychological and environmental factors. These factors may include higher levels of self-imposed pressure, societal expectations and different coping mechanisms compared to male students.

Coping Strategies:

To mitigate the impact of educational anxiety, students can adopt various coping strategies:

1. **Time Management:** Effective time management can help students balance their academic and personal lives, reducing feelings of overwhelm.
2. **Mindfulness and Relaxation Techniques:** Practices such as meditation, deep breathing exercises, and yoga can help reduce anxiety.
3. **Counselling and Support Services:** Accessing mental health resources, such as counselling services or support groups, can provide students with the support they need.
4. **Healthy Lifestyle:** Maintaining a healthy lifestyle, including regular exercise, a balanced diet, and adequate sleep, can improve overall well-being.
5. **Peer Support:** Building a supportive network of peers can provide emotional support and practical advice.

Addressing educational anxiety is crucial for the success and well-being of professional course students. Educational institutions can play a significant role by providing resources and creating an environment that promotes mental health and resilience.

Conclusion

Educational anxiety is a significant challenge for students in professional courses, impacting their academic performance, mental and physical health, and future career prospects. By understanding the causes and effects of educational anxiety and adopting effective coping strategies, students can better manage their stress and enhance their overall well-being. Educational institutions also play a crucial role in providing resources and creating a supportive environment to help students thrive.

References

1. Ashcraft, M. H., & Krause, J. A. (2007). Working memory, math performance, and math anxiety. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 14(2), 243-248.
2. Cassidy, J. C., & Johnson, R. E. (2002). Cognitive test anxiety and academic performance. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 27(2), 270-295.
3. Macleod, S. (2008). Cognitive-behavioral therapy for anxiety disorders: An update on the empirical evidence. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience*, 10(3), 329-336.
4. Misra, R., & McKean, M. (2000). College students' academic stress and its relation to their anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction. *American Journal of Health Studies*, 16(1), 41-51.
5. Putwain, D. W. (2007). Test anxiety in UK schoolchildren: Prevalence and demographic patterns. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77(3), 579-593.
6. Sarason, I. G. (1984). Stress, anxiety, and cognitive interference: Reactions to tests. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46(4), 929-938.

7. Schaufeli, W. B., Martinez, I. M., Pinto, A. M., Salanova, M., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). Burnout and engagement in university students: A cross-national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(5), 464-481.
8. Vitasari, P., Wahab, M. N. A., Othman, A., Herawan, T., & Sinnadurai, S. K. (2010). The relationship between study anxiety and academic performance among engineering students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 8, 490-497.
9. Wilks, S. E. (2008). Resilience amid academic stress: The moderating impact of social support among social work students. *Advances in Social Work*, 9(2), 106-125.
10. Zeidner, M. (1998). *Test anxiety: The state of the art*. Springer Science & Business Media.



TPACK in Relation to Real Time Feedback and Adaptive Learning

Shweta Jha*
Dr. Somu Singh**
Rohit Kumar***

Abstract

In the era of mobile internet, cloud computing, big data technologies and significant breakthroughs in Artificial Intelligence a teacher's pedagogy should be well equipped with technology to foster real time feedback and adaptive learning. Therefore, the aim of the study was to establish a relationship between TPACK, Real Time Feedback and Adaptive Learning. Based on this perspective a systematic mapping of the literature on the key words was performed in this work. The database used in this study was Google Scholar and Shodh Ganga. A content analysis method was used to synthesize the data. This paper outlines the focus on TPACK of the teachers and real time feedback and adaptive learning of the learners.

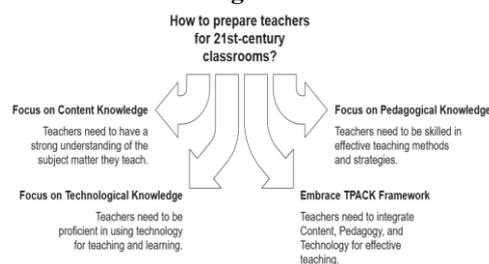
Keywords- TPACK, Real Time Feedback, Adaptive Learning, Cloud computing, Pedagogy.

Introduction

TPACK stands for Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge and it is a required and emerging set of competencies which a teacher should possess who is going to deal with Gen z and Gen alpha in the 21st century classrooms. TPACK is a framework established on

Lee Shulman's construct of PCK (Pedagogical Content Knowledge) by integrating Technology. To create an effective teaching learning environment Teacher's TPACK development is essential. TPACK framework is a complex interaction of three bodies of knowledge i.e. Content, Pedagogy and Technology. The interaction of these three domains of knowledge in theoretical and practice form will help a teacher to successfully integrate technology with teaching. Figure 1.1 shows that TPACK is a must for teachers of 21st century education.

Fig. 1.1



Advantage of TPACK in Education

- TPACK of a teacher enhances their competence regarding active learning, student engagement.
- It paves the way to choose appropriate teaching strategies as per students need.

* Research Scholar, Faculty of Education, B.H.U.

Email: shweta.jha@bhu.ac.in, Orchid Id: 0009-0003-3133-1910, Mobile: +91 9472920838

** Assistant Professor, Faculty of Education, B.H.U.

Email: somusinghedu@bhu.ac.in, Orchid Id: 0000-0003-2645-0387, Mobile: +91 9450287982

*** SRK Internee, Faculty of Education, B.H.U

Email ID: rohitgangwar997@gmail.com, Orchid Id: 0009-0002-3965-1671, Mobile number: +91 9675088078

- Teaching becomes more effective with the utilization of technology in a meaningful and interactive way.

Adaptive Learning

Adaptive learning is also known as adaptive teaching. Adaptive learning provides customized learning experiences to address each and every individual's unique educational experiences. Rather than a one-size-fits-all approach, adaptive learning utilizes just-in-time feedback, various learning pathways, and unique resources.

Advantages of Adaptive Learning- The following are some of the greatest benefits the adoption of adaptive learning can provide:

- **Allows Learners to Work at Their Own Pace:** With adaptive learning solutions, all learners can work at their own pace, dedicating as much or as little time needed to each lesson or training module.
- **Increases Learner Engagement:** Because learners have access to personalized resources, it's easier for them to stay engaged throughout the learning process, which further improves information retention and performance during exams/assessments.
- **Offers Built-In Learning Structure:** Adaptive learning programs provide a built-in structure with lessons that build off each other. This natural structure encourages engagement and supports maximum retention and skills development.
- **Offers Relevant Data to Instructors and Employers:** Instructors and employers are still integral in settings where adaptive learning tools are used; they can access and review data regularly to identify skills gaps, evaluate employees individually and as teams, and find information to help them refine future training programs.
- **Allows Instructors and Employers to Give Personalized Support:** Instructors and employers can also use the information collected from adaptive learning systems to provide personalized support to learners. If they see that someone is struggling with a particular subject, they can, for example, provide extra study materials or offer one-on-one guidance.
- **Maximises Learning Outcomes:** All these benefits add up to improved learning outcomes. Whether employers want learners to master a specific skill or pass a particular exam, adaptive learning tools can help them increase the chances that those results will happen.

Real Time Feedback

It provides immediate guidance and evaluation during the time of teaching - learning process. Real time feedback has become more accessible and interactive with the advancements in the field of technology. It paves the way for instant assessment of a child's understanding, performance, and areas that require improvement.

Advantages of Real Time Feedback- Following are the benefits of Real Time Feedback:

- **Conceptual Clarity** -Real time feedback enables children to gain a clear understanding of concepts as they work through problems. With immediate feedback, they can identify any misconceptions or errors in their thinking, allowing for timely corrections.
- **Enhanced Engagement and Motivation** -When children receive real time feedback acknowledging their efforts and progress, it boosts their motivation to continue learning and practicing the concepts. Positive reinforcement and recognition for their achievements increase their engagement with the subject, making any subject more enjoyable.
- **Targeted areas of Improvement** - Real time feedback allows for personalized instruction by highlighting specific areas where a child may need additional practice or support. By identifying their strengths and weaknesses in real time, children can focus on improving their problem areas effectively.
- **Immediate Error Correction** -Correcting errors promptly is essential for reinforcing the correct procedures and preventing the repetition of mistakes. Real time feedback helps children

recognize and rectify errors immediately, reducing the likelihood of developing misconceptions or adopting incorrect problem-solving strategies. By addressing errors in real time, children can learn from their mistakes and apply the correct methods, enhancing their overall accuracy in the respective subjects.

- **Tracking Progress** -Real time feedback allows for ongoing progress monitoring, providing valuable insights into a child's cognitive development over time. By tracking their performance and growth, parents and educators can identify patterns, areas of improvement, and achievements. This continuous monitoring ensures that children receive the necessary support and interventions to foster their subject specific skills effectively.

Purpose of the study - The purpose of the study is to establish the conceptual relationship of TPACK with Adaptive Learning and Real Time Feedback.

Adaptive Learning and TPACK

Elmaadaway & Abouelenein (2023) revealed in their study that all teachers believed that adaptive learning training helped them to build technology-integrated lesson plans. The adaptive learning system deploys a technological solution that promotes teachers' on-going TPACK development by engaging them in the design of learner-centered and ICT-infused scenarios, fostering a self-paced and personalized learning experience, while taking into account teachers' diverse needs, information processing constraints, and preferences (Angeli, Valanides, Mavroudi, Christodoulou and Georgia, 2015).

Results of a study by Chaipidech, Srisawasdi, Kajornmanee, Chaipah (2022) indicated that the in-service teachers significantly improved their TPACK through a personalized learning system - supported professional training programme. These findings add to the limited body of research on TPD that facilitates adult teachers' professional learning with the support of a personalized learning system to be equipped with the know-how to pedagogically apply digital technology into students' learning experience in science.

Another study by Cheng and Wang (2023) concluded that the integration of ALP into teaching practices can boost student engagement and elevate the quality of learning outcomes.

The results of a study showed that our system is a promising learning tool to improve STEM teachers' proficiencies under the TPACK framework (Chaipidech, Srisawasdi, Kajornmanee & Chaipah, 2022).

Real Time Feedback and TPACK

Yu, Wang and Chen (2023) revealed in their study that by comparing the performance between those using the analytical dashboard and others not using it, the results show that the approach has promising effects on improving teachers' TPACK as reflected in the lesson plans and their perceived confidence in TPACK.

Kang, Wu, Ni, Li (2010) Developed a TPACK assessment framework for evaluating teachers' knowledge and practice to provide ongoing feedback. The findings show that teachers do not understand how to integrate technology into their teaching and technology use was isolated from the delivery of content and pedagogy. The authors argue that curriculum developers should provide teachers with a curriculum assessment framework to enhance teachers' understanding and practicing of teaching with technology.

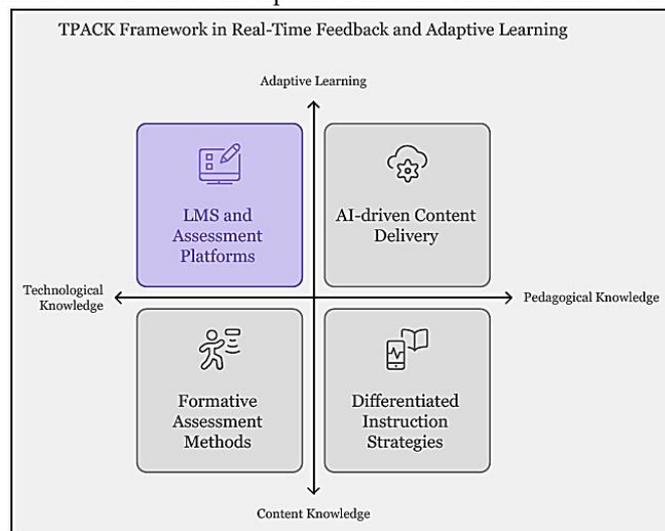
To support the teacher in orchestrating such a complex curricular design, Tissenbaum & Slotta (2019) developed a tablet application that allowed the teacher see the state of the class in real-time, control the flow of activities and helped him know when and where he was needed within the flow of class activities. The tablet leveraged a set of specially designed real-time software agents to process student interactions in real time, allowing dynamic orchestration of student groups, material allocation, and teacher notifications. The results of the study provided a reasonable balance between giving the teacher a lens into the class, while hiding other potentially distracting information away.

Another study by Yeh, Chien, Wu, Hsu (2015) developed rubrics for evaluating preservice teachers' TPACK-P, according to the proficiency levels and features identified by in-service teachers.

Results revealed that the preservice teachers' performances on lesson planning and microteaching were similar, with discrepancies of +/- 1 level on the rubrics.

Conclusion

Researches have shown that when TPACK training module included Adaptive Learning and Real Time Feedback in it, then TPACK of the pre-service teachers was improved. Teacher Educators and Teacher Education curriculum must consider Adaptive Learning and Real Time Feedback to improve the learning experiences of the learners. Below is a diagram that illustrates how adaptive learning and real-time feedback can be incorporated into the TPACK framework.



References

- Angeli, C., Valanides, N., Mavroudi, A., Christodoulou, A., Georgiou, K. (2015). Introducing e-TPCK: An Adaptive E-Learning Technology for the Development of Teachers' Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge. In: Angeli, C., Valanides, N. (eds) *Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge*. Springer, Boston, MA. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-8080-9_16
- Chaipidech P., Srisawasdi N., Kajornmanee, T. and Chaipah K. (2022). A personalized learning system-supported professional training model for teachers' TPACK development—*ScienceDirect*. (n.d.). Retrieved October 5, 2024, from <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2022.100064>
- Cheng, E. C. K., & Wang, T. (2023). Exploring Pedagogies & Strategies for Integrating Adaptive Learning Platforms: A Case Study of a High School in Hong Kong. *Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Education and Training Technologies*, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3599640.3599648>
- Elmaadaway, M. A. N., & Abouelenain, Y. A. M. (2023). In-service teachers' TPACK development through an adaptive e-learning environment (ALE). *Education and Information Technologies*, 28(7), 8273–8298. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-02211477-8>
- Kabudi, T., Pappas, I., & Olsen, D. H. (2021). AI-enabled adaptive learning systems: A systematic mapping of the literature. *Computers and Education. Artificial Intelligence*, 2, 100017. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2021.100017>
- Kang, J.J., Wu, M.L., Ni, X. & Li, G. (2010). Developing a TPACK assessment framework for evaluating teachers' knowledge and practice to provide ongoing feedback. In J. Herrington & C. Montgomerie (Eds.), *Proceedings of ED-MEDIA 2010--World Conference on Educational Multimedia, Hypermedia & Telecommunications*, pp. 1980-1983. Toronto, Canada: Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE). Retrieved October 6, 2024 from <https://www.learntechlib.org/primary/p/34911/>.
- Koehler, M. J., & Mishra, P. (2009). What is technological pedagogical content knowledge? *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 9(1).

<https://citejournal.org/volume-9/issue-1-09/general/what-is-technologicalpedagogicalcontent-knowledge>

- Tissenbaum, M., Slotta, J. (2019). Supporting classroom orchestration with real-time feedback: A role for teacher dashboards and real-time agents. *Intern. J. Comput.-Support. Collab. Learn* 14, 325–351. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11412-019-09306-1>
- Wang, A., Yu, S., Wang, M., & Chen, L. (2023). Effects of the visual analytics of peer feedback on teachers' TPACK development in a lesson study. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 32(8), 4632–4651. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2023.2204354>
- Yeh, YF., Chien, SP., Wu, HK., Hsu, YS. (2015). Rubrics of TPACK-P for Teaching Science with ICTs. In: Hsu, YS. (eds) *Development of Science Teachers' TPACK*. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-441-2_4



Suicidal Ideation in Teenagers in Relation to their Inhabitation and Caste Level

Rani Kumari*
Dr. Ram Dhyani Rai**

Abstract

To See the effect of caste and residential area on suicidal ideation of teenagers 'Suicidal Ideation Scale' (SIS-SDBV) constructed and standardized by Sisodia, D.S. and Bhatnagar, V. (2011) and 'Personal Information Inventory' were administered on a sample of 200 students of age range 15-18 years undergoing study in +2 classes of Government Intermediate Colleges of Aurangabad district of Bihar. The analysis of data revealed that caste variable does not bring significant variation on suicidal ideation. Urban teenagers have significantly higher suicidal ideation than rural teenagers irrespective of gender.

Keywords:- Suicidal Ideation, Teenager, Caste, Rural, Urban.

Introduction

The term "suicide" originates from the Latin words *sui* meaning "self" and *caedere* meaning "to kill," collectively signifying "to kill oneself." In Hindi, the equivalent term is "Atmahatya," where *Atma* means "self" and *Hatya* means "to kill." Thus, both linguistically and conceptually, suicide or Atmahatya refers to the act of ending one's own life. According to Shneidman (1985), suicide can be understood as a deliberate and self-inflicted death that arises from a multidimensional psychological crisis in a person who perceives suicide as the most viable solution to their internal struggle. Similarly, Durkheim (1897) defined suicide as any case of death resulting directly or indirectly from a positive or negative act performed by the individual, who is aware that the outcome will be fatal.

Suicide is characterized by a conscious, intentional, and self-directed effort to end life. It often reflects deep emotional pain, chronic depression, and an overwhelming sense of hopelessness, where individuals believe that death is the only escape from their suffering. De Leo et al. (2006) emphasized that suicide involves behaviour carried out with the intent to die and includes both active and passive self-inflicted actions. Importantly, suicide is not a spontaneous decision but a progressive process composed of multiple stages. It begins with suicidal ideation, followed by the formulation of a suicide plan, the attempt, and potentially culminates in completed suicide.

This pathway can be outlined as:

Suicidal Ideation → Suicide Plan → Suicide Attempt → Completed Suicide.

As highlighted by Arria et al. (2009), identifying suicidal ideation early is crucial, as it provides an opportunity for intervention before an individual progresses to planning or attempting suicide. Palmer (2004) also emphasized that recognizing suicidal thoughts plays a key role in detecting and preventing suicidal behaviour.

Various organizations, including the Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (2010), the Mental Health Commission of Canada (2012), and the American Association of Suicidology (2013), have identified a range of warning signs associated with suicidal ideation. These signs are generally categorized into three main domains: behavioural, cognitive, and emotional.

1. Behavioural Indicators: These signs include openly discussing death or suicide, giving away personal or valued possessions, and using fatalistic phrases such as "I'm going to end it all" or "You'll miss me when I'm gone." Individuals may also exhibit behaviour suggesting they are preparing for death—such as saying goodbye to loved ones, acquiring means for a potential suicide

* Research Scholar, P.G. Deptt. of Psychology, J. P. University, Chapra, Email: sbspl2008@gmail.com

** Professor of Psychology, P.G. Deptt. J. P. U. Chapra, Email: profdrain@gmail.com, Mob: 09473214073

attempt, withdrawing from social interactions, increasing substance abuse (alcohol or drugs), losing interest in previously enjoyed activities, expressing threats toward themselves, and engaging in reckless or dangerous behaviours (Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, 2010; Mental Health Commission of Canada, 2012; American Association of Suicidology, 2013).

2. Cognitive Indicators: These involve persistent thoughts about death or dying and a belief that suicide is the only escape from psychological pain. Such individuals may gradually shift from experiencing fleeting suicidal thoughts to developing structured suicidal ideation (Hawton et al., 2012).

3. Emotional Indicators: Emotional symptoms typically include profound feelings of helplessness, being overwhelmed by emotional pain, signs of psychosis, intense self-loathing, a pervasive sense of hopelessness, paranoid thoughts, mood disturbances, irritability, sadness tied to specific events or situations, noticeable personality changes, and heightened levels of anxiety or agitation (Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, 2010; Mental Health Commission of Canada, 2012; American Association of Suicidology, 2013).

Suicidal ideation often stems from a combination of **genetic, physiological, and environmental factors**, each influencing the individual's mental health in distinct ways.

Genetic Influences: Individuals born into families with a history of psychiatric disorders or suicide-related behaviours may be more susceptible to developing suicidal thoughts. While genetics can play a role in predisposing someone to emotional and psychological disturbances, it does not guarantee that everyone with such a background will experience suicidal ideation, nor are all individuals with suicidal tendencies necessarily from such families (Cannon & Hudzik, 2014).

Biological Causes: Neurochemical imbalances, particularly low levels of dopamine and serotonin, are linked to emotional dysregulation and mood disorders. These neurobiological disruptions may affect brain function, making individuals more prone to persistent sadness, hopelessness, and suicidal behaviour (Goodwin & Jamison, 2007).

Environmental Triggers: Exposure to continual adversity, such as trauma, loss, abuse, and financial hardship, can severely impair a person's ability to cope. Persistent stressors, such as rejection, joblessness, separation, or having witnessed another person's suicide, often act as catalysts for suicidal thinking. These stressors can accumulate and push individuals to believe that ending their life is the only escape from their suffering (Rockefeller, 2017).

Teenage years represent a critical juncture in human development—a period of intense change, discovery, and vulnerability. It is shaped by biological maturation, cognitive advancements, emotional experiences, and social interactions, all embedded within cultural and environmental contexts. The term *teenage* refers to the transitional stage of human development that occurs between childhood and adulthood, typically spanning the ages of 13 to 19. A person falling in this age group is called teenager. This stage is also referred to as *adolescence*, derived from the Latin word *adolescere*, meaning “to grow up.” While teenage years are biologically demarcated by puberty, their social and cultural interpretation varies across historical epochs and societies. Understanding this phase is critical in developmental psychology, education, public health, and policy formulation, especially given its implications for mental health, identity formation, and social integration. The conceptualization of adolescence as a distinct and emotionally volatile stage was significantly influenced by psychologist G. Stanley Hall (1904). Hall depicted this phase as one of “storm and stress,” characterized by conflict, mood swings, and rebellion. Some teenagers commit suicide also due to frustration.

The objectives of the investigation are to trace out the effects of caste and residential area/inhabitation on suicidal ideation in teenagers. In the light of these objectives the following hypotheses were formulated:

- 1) FC, BC and SC groups shall differ significantly among themselves on suicidal ideation.
- 2) Rural and urban groups shall differ significantly on suicidal ideation.

Method

Sample :- The study was conducted on a sample of 200 teenaged +2 students – male and female – of age group from 15 to 18 years. Out of this sample of 200 subjects 100 subjects were from rural areas and 100 subjects were from urban areas and were undergoing study in +2 classes. Teenagers were randomly selected from different Government Intermediate Colleges of Aurangabad district of Bihar. The sample comprised of teenagers from FC, BC and SC/ST.

Tests Used :- For measuring suicidal ideation Hindi version of ‘Suicidal Ideation Scale’ (SIS_{-SDBV}) constructed and standardized by Sisodia, D.S. and Bhatnagar, V. (2011) has been used. A Self-made ‘Personal Information Inventory’ has been also used which sought personal information from subjects.

Statistical Analysis :- To test the roles of caste belongingness and residential area/inhabitation on suicidal ideation, suicidal ideation scores of FC, BC and SC/ST groups; and, the same of rural and urban groups were calculated separately and compared. Means, S.Ds. and ‘t’-ratios were calculated.

Results and Discussion

The variable of caste has not been found significantly influencing suicidal ideation of teenagers. Teenagers of all the caste groups – FC, BC and SC – have suicidal ideation irrespective of residential area. The mean suicidal ideation scores of rural FC, BC and SC/ST groups are 64.13, 63.22 and 60.53 respectively. The obtained ‘t’ ratios for FC-Rural x BC-Rural; FC-Rural x SC/ST-Rural and BC-Rural x SC/ST-Rural compared groups are 0.231, 0.834 and 0.697 respectively. The mean suicidal ideation scores of urban FC, BC and SC/ST groups are 74.12, 73.04 and 69.47 respectively. The obtained ‘t’ ratios for FC-Urban x BC-Urban; FC-Urban x SC/ST-Urban and BC-Urban x SC/ST-Urban compared groups are 0.244, 1.046 and 0.941 respectively (Table – 1). Out of these six ‘t’ ratios all the six ‘t’ ratios are insignificant because all the six obtained ‘t’ ratios are lower than the value required for significance at 0.05 level. Although FC group has shown higher suicidal ideation than BC and SC groups; and BC group has shown higher suicidal ideation mean score than SC group in both rural and urban areas, yet the obtained ‘t’ ratios are not significant. This proves that caste factor does not influence suicidal ideation of teenagers. Although SC caste teenagers stem from socio-culturally disadvantaged group, yet their insignificantly lower suicidal ideation score proves that comparatively they face less depression. On the other hand upper caste teenagers appear to be facing more stress than the rest two comparative groups. However, this has not resulted in significant differences among these caste groups on suicidal ideation. As a whole it can be concluded that caste factor does not influence suicidal ideation of teenagers. Our findings do not support the findings of Mukhopadhyay et al. (2012) and Kumar and Nair (2023) who reported suicidal ideation higher in subjects of low socio-economic status.

Table – 1
Showing Means, S.Ds. and ‘t’ ratios of Suicidal Ideation Scores – FC, BC and SC groups

Groups	N	Means	S.Ds.	df	‘t’ ratios	Level of Sig.
FC-Rural	25	64.13	15.224	68	0.231	NS
BC-Rural	45	63.22	16.306			
FC-Rural	25	64.13	15.224	53	0.834	NS
SC-Rural	30	60.53	16.414			
BC-Rural	45	63.22	16.306	73	0.697	NS
SC-Rural	30	60.53	16.414			
FC-Urban	25	74.12	17.311	63	0.244	NS
BC-Urban	40	73.04	16.862			
FC-Urban	25	74.12	17.311	58	1.046	NS
SC-Urban	35	69.47	15.952			
BC-Urban	40	73.04	16.862	73	0.941	NS
SC-Urban	35	69.47	15.952			

The variable of residential area/inhabitation has been found significantly influencing suicidal ideation of teenagers. The mean suicidal ideation scores of rural and urban groups are 62.64 and 72.06 respectively. The obtained 't' ratio for Rural x Urban compared groups is 3.991 (Table – 2). The obtained 't' ratio is significant at 0.01 level. So there exists significant difference between rural and urban teenaged groups on suicidal ideation. On comparing rural and urban groups gender wise (M-Rural x M-Urban and F-Rural x F-Urban) we find that residential variation has brought significant variation on suicidal ideation in both male and female teenagers. Male urban group has obtained significantly higher mean suicidal ideation score than male rural group and female urban group has obtained significantly higher mean suicidal ideation score than female rural group. So there exists significantly higher suicidal ideation in urban subjects than rural subjects. Our findings prove that urbanization of teenagers is more likely to increase the probability of suicidal ideation. It appears that urban teenagers are more influenced by stressors emanating from high and tough competition and career problems. Urbanization pushes teenagers to be more conscious, competitive and career oriented. This increases their stress and anxiety levels. Increased stress and anxiety level, which on being uncontrollable and unmanageable, lead to self-depreciation and deflated self-concept. Self-depreciation and deflated self-concept are the prime causes of high depression. High depression is positively related to suicide, suicidal attempts and suicidal ideation. Due to these factors urban teenagers might have displayed significantly higher suicidal ideation than rural teenagers. Our findings contradict the findings of Sharma and Meena (2023) who reported rural adolescents significantly higher on suicidal ideation than urban adolescents.

Table – 2
Showing Means, S.Ds. and 't' ratios of Suicidal Ideation Scores – Rural and Urban groups

Groups	N	Means	S.Ds.	df	't' ratios	Level of Sig.
Rural	100	62.64	16.236	198	3.991	0.01
Urban	100	72.06	17.132			
M-Rural	50	65.92	16.933	98	3.015	0.01
M-Urban	50	76.36	17.681			
F-Rural	50	59.36	16.045	98	2.556	0.05
F-Urban	50	67.76	16.812			

The study has finally led to the following conclusions :-

- (1) Caste variable does not bring significant variation on suicidal ideation.
- (2) Urban teenagers have significantly higher suicidal ideation than rural teenagers irrespective of gender.

References

- Arria, A.M., O'Grady, K.E., Caldeira, K.M., Vincent, K.B., Wilcox, H.C. & Wish, E.D. (2009) : 'Suicide Ideation among College Students: A Multivariate Analysis'. *Archives Suicide Research*, 13(3), 230–246.
- Cannon, K. E., & Hudzik, T. J. (2014) : 'Suicide: Phenomenology and Neurobiology.' Springer International : New York, Dordrecht, London. (e-book, pp.125-130).
- De Leo, D., Burgis, S., Bertolote, J.M., Kerkhof, A.J. and Blae-Brahe, U. (2006) : 'Definitions of Suicidal Behaviour', *Crisis : The Journal of Crisis Intervention and Suicide Prevention*, 27(1), 4-15.
- Durkheim, E. (1897) : 'Suicide: A Study in Sociology'. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.
- Goodwin, F. K., & Jamison, K. R. (2007) : 'Manic-depressive Illness: Bipolar Disorders and Recurrent Depression (2ndEds. pp.327).' New York, Oxford University Press.
- Hall, G. S.(1904) : 'Adolescence: Its Psychology and its relation to Physiology, Anthropology, Sociology, Sex, Crime, Religion, and Education (Vols. I & II)'. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

- Hawton, K., Bergen, H., Waters, K., Ness, J., Cooper, J., et al. (2012): 'Epidemiology and Nature of Self-harm in Children and Adolescents: Findings from the Multicentre Study of Self-harm in England.' *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 21(7), 369-377.
- Kumar, R. and Nair, P. (2023) : 'Intersectionality and Suicidal Thoughts: The Role of Caste and Gender', *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 61(3), 197-213.
- Mukhopadhyay, D. K., Mukhopadhyay, S., Sinhababu, A., & Biswas, A. B. (2012) : 'Are the Adolescent Behaviors too Risky? A School-based Study in a District of West Bengal, India'. *Journal of Tropical Pediatrics*, 58(6), 496-500.
- Palmer, C., Rysiew, M.J. & Koob, J.J. (2004) : 'Self-esteem, Locus of Control, and Suicide Risk - A Comparison between Clinically Depressed White and African American Females on an Inpatient Psychiatric Unit', *Journal of Ethnic Cultural Diversity in Social Work*. 12, (4), 49-63.
- Rockefeller, J. D. (2017) : 'Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) for Depression, Anxiety, Phobias and Panic Attacks (pp.21).' Create Space Independent Publishing Platform.
- Sharma, P., & Meena, S.(2023) : 'Urban-Rural Disparities in Adolescent Suicidal Ideation in India', *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*, Vol. 65(2), pp. 143–151.
- Shneidman, E. (1985) : 'Definition of Suicide'. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sisodia, D.S. and Bhatnagar, V. (2011) : 'Suicidal Ideation Scale', (SIS-SDBV), National Psychological Corporation, Agra.



A Critical Study on the Concept and the Scope of “Special Measures” under the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination

Ms. Souma B Sarkar*

Introduction:

The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination¹ is based on the principles of the dignity and equality of all human beings. The principle of equality forms the basis of the Convention which combines formal equality before the law with equal protection of the law, with substantive or de facto equality in the enjoyment and exercise of human rights as the aim to be achieved by the full implementation of the provisions of the Convention. The Convention aims eradicating racism and racial discrimination throughout the world. It urges the State parties to outlaw discrimination and racist propaganda and to positive steps for the promotion of harmony and understanding.

The Convention is one amongst the series of UN-sponsored human rights treaties and declarations that began with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the General Assembly in the year 1948. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights although not legally binding on the UN member countries set out in a core principles that underlie all later developments in human rights law and it explicitly rejected any form of discrimination based on race or color. The fight against racism and discrimination has always been central to the UN agenda.

The principle of enjoyment of human rights on an equal footing is the integral part of the Convention's prohibition of discrimination on the grounds of race, color, descent and national or ethnic origin. The grounds of discrimination are extended in practice by the notion of intersectionality whereby the Committee on the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination addressed the situation of double or multiple discrimination such as discrimination on grounds of gender or religion when discrimination on such a ground appears to exist in combination with a ground or grounds listed in the Convention. The discrimination under the Convention includes purposive or intentional discrimination and discrimination in effect. The discrimination is constituted not simply by an unjustifiable “distinction, exclusion or restriction” but also an unjustifiable “preference” making it especially important that State parties distinguish ‘special measures’ from unjustifiable preferences.

Historical Background:

The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination is the oldest of the seven main United Nations human rights treaties which was adopted by the United Nations in the year 1965 and came into force in 1969. As of July 2003, some 168 countries have become parties to the Convention. This makes the Convention one of the most widely accepted human rights treaties. Only the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) with 193 states and the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women with 174 states have been ratified by more parties. These along with the four other human rights treaties such as on civil and political rights; economic, social and cultural rights; the prevention of torture and the rights of the migrant workers all of which contain provisions against discrimination that in a way focuses on the same provisions as used in the Convention.

Article 1, paragraph 4 deals with what was called “favorable discrimination”, measures taken in favor of certain racial or ethnic groups or individuals in order to ensure to them equal enjoyment or exercise of human rights and fundamental freedoms. This provision should be related to Article 2, paragraph 2 which imposes on State parties the duty to take special measures “to ensure the adequate development and protection” of certain racial groups or individuals belonging to them for the purpose of guaranteeing them the full and equal enjoyment and exercise of fundamental freedoms.

Some delegates proposed to delete paragraph 4 of Article 1 (paragraph 2 in the original draft, particularly in the light of the existence of the Article 2 imposing on the State parties imposing duties of preferential treatment. During the debate it was recalled that a similar provision was included in the Declaration (Article 2

* Assistant Professor, Delhi Metropolitan Education (affiliated to GGSIP University, Delhi), Noida

¹ International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (“ICERD”), G.A. res. 2106 (XX), Annex, 20 U.N. GAOR Supp. (No. 14) at 47, U.N. Doc. A/6014 (1966), 660 U.N.T.S. 195, entered into force Jan. 4, 1969.

paragraph 3). It was underlined that protection of certain groups did not constitute discrimination, provided such measures were not continued after the achievement of the aims for which they had been taken. As the Convention is supposed to seek to accomplish the objective of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to promote the rights and freedoms of all human beings, without distinction of any kind, it was made clear that the Convention should protect groups as well as individuals, although the representatives felt the groups should not be stressed. The aim should not be to emphasize the distinctions between different racial groups but the focus should be to ensure that persons belonging to such groups could be integrated into the community.

Another issue raised with regard to the paragraph 4 of Article 1 was the use of the word “under-developed”, in which some offending element could be found and which was not used in the Declaration. It was noticed that the term “under-development”, which is used in the context of the countries with poor economic condition, should not be applied to human beings. Therefore, the word “under privilege” was proposed which was also rejected on the grounds of legal and constitutional reasons.

The reason for having two provisions in the Convention dealing with the same matter is that, while Article 1 provides for the definition for the “discrimination” and its paragraph 4 refers to a case in which the application of a different treatment should not be deemed to be discriminatory, whereas paragraph 2 of Article 2 relates to the duties which are imposed by the Convention on the State parties. There are some differences in the wording of the two provisions, but both the provisions cover clearly the same question and both of them emphasize upon the temporary character of the special measure. Article 1 refers to “adequate advancement” while Article 2 says about “adequate development and protection”. In the debate on the paragraph on the special measures some of the representatives mentioned their concern that it could be used as weapons by the governments of the State parties who are interested in perpetuating the privileges of certain racial groups, as in the case of apartheid².

Mr. Mudawi of Sudan, a member of the Sub-Commission made an amendment by adding paragraph 2 on concrete and special measures in order to secure adequate development or protection of individuals belonging to “under-developed racial” groups which was adopted by the Sub-Commission³.

Paragraph 2 of Article 2 is related to paragraph 4 of Article 1. The drafters of the Convention decided to deal twice with the with the issue of special measures since they considered that, while Article 1 defines racial discrimination, Article 2 enunciates the policies that State members should follow in order to eradicate racial discrimination. Its main purpose is to secure the integration of certain racial groups in the nation, in order to attain the objective of equal development for all citizens⁴.

References were made to the situation on South America where there were two conflicting schools of thought during the discussion on paragraph 2 of Article 2. According to one, racial groups which were economically and socially backward in comparison with the rest of the society should only be integrated through measures of special protection. The second school of thought considered that to adopt special measures with regard to these groups only served to maintain and perpetuate their separation from the rest of the population⁵.

The dangers involved in the possibility of such a paragraph being used by some racist States were pointed out in the discussion as the difficulties also arose with regard to the use of the words like “under-developed” or “under-privileged”. Article 5 of the ILO Convention contemplates special measures of protection or assistance which will not deemed to be discriminatory. The UNESCO Convention determines when separate educational systems will not be deemed to constitute discrimination, but does not refer to special measures of favorable discrimination. The 1978 UNESCO Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice deals with such measures in Article 9, paragraph 2.⁶

Concept of Special Measures:

The main objective of special measures is to advance effective equality. The concept of special measures is based on the principle that in order to fulfill the obligations set out under the Convention

¹Natan Lerner, “The U. N. Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination”, Sijthoff & Noordhoff International Publishers BV, Alphen aan den Rijn, The Netherlands, Rockville, Maryland, USA, 1980, p. 33

² Ibid p. 33

³ Ibid p. 35

⁴ Statement of Mr. Krishnaswami (India), E/CN.4/Sub.2/SR.416, p.12

⁵ Statement of Mr. Santa Cruz (Chile), E/CN.4/Sub.2/SR.416, p.13

⁶ Natan Lerner, “The U. N. Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination”, Sijthoff & Noordhoff International Publishers BV, Alphen aan den Rijn, The Netherlands, Rockville, Maryland, USA, 1980, p. 39

Against Elimination of All Form of Discrimination such laws, policies and practices are to be adopted and implemented which are to be supplemented, when the circumstances warrant, by the adoption of temporary special measures designed to secure to disadvantaged groups the full and equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms. The special measures are one part of the various components in the ensemble of the provisions in the Convention dedicated to the objective of eliminating racial discrimination which would be successfully achieved with the proper and faithful implementation of all Convention provisions.

"Special measures" is a term used in the Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination for all such measures that Governments may put in place to promote certain disadvantaged racial or ethnic groups within their countries, including indigenous peoples, for instance by giving a preference to such groups in access to education or by specifically promoting their participation in government. Such measures are otherwise also frequently referred to as 'affirmative action' or sometimes as 'positive discrimination'⁷.

Meaning of Special Measures:

The terms 'special measures' and "special and concrete measures" found in the Convention may be regarded as functionally equivalent and have autonomous meaning which are to be interpreted in the light of the Convention as a whole which may differ from usage in particular State parties. The term 'special measures' also includes the measures adopted by different countries may be described as "affirmative measures", "affirmative action" or "positive action" in cases where they correspond to the provisions of the provisions of the articles 1(4) and 2(2) of the Convention. The General Recommendation No. 32 employs the terms 'special measures' or 'special and concrete measures' and encourages the State parties to employ terminology that clearly demonstrates the relationship of their laws and practice to these concepts in the Convention. The term 'special measures' includes the full span of legislative, executive, administrative, budgetary and regulatory instruments at every level of the state apparatus and also in the plans, policies, programmes and preferential regimes in the areas such as employment, housing, education, culture and the participation for the disfavored group in the public life are to be devised and implemented on the basis of such instruments. In order to fulfill the obligations under the Convention, the State parties should include the provisions of "special measures" of the Convention in their legal systems either through general legislation or legislation directed to specific sectors in light of the range of human rights referred to in the Article 5 of the Convention as well as through plans, programmes and other policy initiatives referred to at the national, regional and local levels.

Related Notion to Special Measures:

The obligation to special measures is a general obligation flowing from the provisions of the Convention as a whole and integral to all parts of the Convention is distinct from the general positive obligation of the State parties to the Convention to secure human rights and fundamental freedoms on a non-discriminatory basis to persons and groups subject to their jurisdiction. The special measures should be confused with the specific rights pertaining to certain categories of persons or community, such as, for instance the rights of the persons belonging to minorities for the enjoyment of their own religious and use of their own language and also the rights of the indigenous people which includes the right to land traditionally occupied by them and rights of women to non-identical treatment with men, such as the provision of maternity leave, on account of biological differences from men⁸. Such rights which are recognized as such in human rights instruments are permanent rights including those adopted in the context of the United Nations and its agencies. The state parties should carefully observe distinction between special measures and permanent human rights in their law and practice. The distinction between special measures and permanent rights implies that those entitled to permanent rights may also the benefits of special measures⁹.

Conditions for the Adoption and Implementation of Special Measures:

The measures in order to qualify to be termed as "special measures" should have certain characteristics such as it should be appropriate to the situation to be remedied, be legitimate, be necessary in a democratic society, should respect the principles of fairness and proportionality and should be temporary. The measures should be so designed and implemented keeping in view the basis of need,

⁷ Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination Thematic Discussion on "special measures / affirmative action" 4 – 5 August 2008

⁸ See CEDAW General Recommendation 25, paragraph 16.

⁹ See for example paragraph 19 of CEDAW General Recommendation 25, and paragraph 12 of the Recommendations of the Forum on Minority Issues on rights to education, A/HRC/10/11/Add.1 (2009).

grounded in a realistic appraisal of the current situation of the individuals and communities concerned. The appraisal of the need for the adoption of “special measures” should be carried out on the basis of accurate data keeping in view the race, color, descent and ethnic or national origin and incorporating a gender perspective, on the socio-economic and cultural¹⁰ status and conditions of the various groups in the population and their participation in the social and economic development of the country. It is the duty of the State parties to ensure that the special measures are designed and implemented on the basis of prior consultation with affected communities and the active participation of such communities.

The Convention makes no special to minority rights as its main objective is to promote racial and ethnic equality both *de jure* as well as *de facto* which is the focal point of the Convention. Therefore, it is the obligation of the State parties to take a series of steps eliminating racial discrimination provided in Article 2 is not the full extent of their duties. Under paragraph 2 of Article 2, the State parties also commit themselves to adopting special and concrete measures in order to ensure the development and protection of certain racial groups or individuals belonging to them for the purpose of guaranteeing full and equal enjoyment of human rights to these racial groups¹¹. The Convention’s embrace of the concept of positive duties or affirmative action is further strengthened by the provisions of Article 1(4) of the Convention, which expressly state that special measures taken for the advancement of racial or ethnic groups or individuals “shall not be deemed racial discrimination” (reverse discrimination). The qualifying conditions are that such measures must not lead to the maintenance of separate rights for different groups and such measures must be discontinued after the desired objectives have been achieved¹².

Provisions of the Convention Concerning Special Measures

1) Article 1, paragraph 4

- (a) Article 1, paragraph 4 of the Convention stipulates that “special measures taken for the purpose of securing adequate advancement of certain racial or ethnic groups or individuals requiring such protection as may be necessary in order to ensure that such groups or individuals have equal enjoyment or exercise of human rights and fundamental freedoms shall not be deemed racial discrimination provided, however that such measures do not, as a consequence lead to the maintenance of separate rights for different racial groups and that they shall not be continued after the objectives for which that had been undertaken have been achieved”.
- (b) The presence of the phrase ‘shall not be deemed racial discrimination’, in the Article 1 paragraph 4 of the Convention makes it clear that special measures taken by the State parties under the terms of provisions of the Convention do not constitute discrimination, a clarification reinforced by the *travaux préparatoires* of the Convention which record the drafting change from ‘should not be deemed racial discrimination’ to ‘shall not be deemed racial discrimination’. Accordingly, the special measures are not an exception to the principle of non-discrimination but are integral to its meaning and is essential to its meaning and essential to the Convention projecting elimination of racial discrimination and advancing human dignity and effective equality.
- (c) The special measures do not amount to discrimination when taken as per the sole purpose of the Convention for ensuring equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedom. Such an inference should be drawn apparently from the measures themselves and measures should be so designed to put the measures into effect. The reference to the sole purpose limits the scope of acceptable motivation behind the special measures within the terms of the Convention.
- (d) The term “adequate advancement” in Article 1, paragraph 4 signifies goal-oriented programmes which have the objective of alleviating and remedying disparities which acts as an obstacle towards equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms affecting particular groups and individuals, protecting them from discrimination. Such obstacles does not confine to persistent or structural disparities and *de facto* inequalities resulting from the circumstances of history that continue to deny the essential opportunity for the full development of human personality to the

¹⁰ Article 2.2. includes the term ‘cultural’ as well as ‘social’ and ‘economic’.

¹¹ It should be remembered that the term ‘racial discrimination’ as used in the Convention also includes discrimination on an ethnic basis

¹² Jelena Pejic, “Minority Rights Under International Law”, *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol. 19 No. 4, Aug. 1997, pp.666-685

- vulnerable groups and individuals. It is not necessary to prove ‘historic’ discrimination in order to validate a programme of special measures instead the emphasis should be placed on correcting present disparities and in preventing further imbalances from arising.
- (e) The term “protection” in the paragraph signifies protection from violations of human rights emanating from any source which includes discriminatory activities by the private persons in order to ensure the equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms. The term also indicates that the special measure may have preventive as well as corrective functions in order to ensure equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms.
 - (f) Although the Convention designates ‘racial or ethnic groups or individuals requiring ... protection’ (Article 1, paragraph 4), and ‘racial groups or individuals belonging to them’ (Article 2, paragraph 2), as the beneficiaries of special measures, the measures shall in principle be available to any group or person covered by Article 1 of the Convention, as clearly indicated by the *travaux préparatoires* of the Convention, as well as by the practice of States parties and the relevant concluding observations of the Committee.¹³
 - (g) The provisions of Article 1, paragraph 4 is expressed more broadly than that of Article 2, paragraph 2 in the sense that it refers to individuals ‘requiring protection’ without any reference to the membership of ethnic group. The main objective behind such measures should be understood in the light of the overall objective of the Convention as dedicated for the elimination of all forms of racial discrimination where the special measures are an essential tool for the achievement of this objective.
 - (h) Article 1, paragraph 4 provides for limitations on the employment of special measures adopted by the State parties. The first limitation is that the measures ‘should not lead to the maintenance of separate rights for different racial groups’. This provision is to be understood in a narrow manner referring to racial groups drawing attention to the practice of apartheid referred to in Article 3 of the Convention which was imposed by the authorities of the state and also pints towards practice of segregation as referred to in the preamble of the Convention. The idea of inadmissible ‘separate rights’ must be distinguished from the rights guaranteed for securing the existence and identity of groups such as minorities, indigenous peoples and other categories of person whose rights are similarly accepted and recognized within the framework of universal human rights.
 - (i) The second limitation on the special measures is that ‘they shall not be continued after the objectives for which they have been achieved’. This limitation imposed on the operation of special measures is essentially functional and goal-oriented. Such measures cease to be applied when the objectives sought to achieved for which they had been employed – the equality goals- have been sustainably achieved¹⁴. The duration of such special measures vary according to their objectives sought to be achieved, the means utilized to achieve them and the result of their application. Therefore, it is necessary to carefully formulate such special measures keeping in view the needs of the groups or individual concerned.
- 2) Article 2, paragraph 2 of the Convention stipulates that “State parties shall, when the circumstances so warrant in the social, economic, cultural and other fields, special and concrete measures to ensure the adequate development and protection of certain racial groups or individuals belonging to them for the purpose of guaranteeing them the full and equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms. These measures shall in no case entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate rights for different racial groups after the objectives for which they were taken to be achieved”. Article 1, paragraph 4 of the Convention is essentially a clarification of the meaning of discrimination when applied to special measures. Article 2, paragraph 2 carries forward the concept of special measures into the realm of obligations of State parties, along with the text of Article 2 as a whole. The different nuances in the use of the terms in both the paragraphs should not disturb their essential unity of concept and purpose.

¹³ Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination Seventy-fifth session, August 2009, General Recommendation No. 32

¹⁴ CESCR General Comment No. 20, paragraph 9.

- a) The term ‘shall’ in the provision is used with regard to the special measure clearly indicates the mandatory nature of the obligation to take such measures. The mandatory nature of the obligation is not weakened by the addition of the phrase ‘when the circumstances so warrant’ which should be read as providing for context for the application of the measures. The phrase provides objective meaning in relation to the unequal enjoyment of human rights by persons and groups in the State party in ensuring the need to correct the imbalances.
- b) The political structure of the State parties whether unitary, federal or decentralized does not affect their responsibility under the provisions of the Convention when they resort to special measures for application of the same throughout the territory of the State. In the federal states, it is the duty of the federal authorities to be responsible for designing a framework for the consistent application of special measures in all parts of the state where such measures are necessary.
- c) Article 1, paragraph 4 uses the term ‘special measures’ whereas Article 2, paragraph 2 refers to ‘special concrete measures’. The *travaux préparatoires* of the Convention do not highlight any distinction between the terms and the Committee has generally employed both terms as synonymous.¹⁵ The context of Article 2, paragraph 2 as a broad statement is appropriate in according obligation on the State parties to adopt measure according to the facts and circumstances of the situation to be remedied so that the State party is successful in achieving the objectives.
- d) The reference in the Article 2, paragraph 2 with regard to the objective of special measures to ensure ‘adequate development and protection’ of groups and individuals may be compared with the use of the term ‘advancement’ in Article 1, paragraph 4. The terms of the Convention signify that the special measures should clearly benefit groups and individuals in their enjoyment of any human rights. The various fields of action mentioned such as ‘social, economic, cultural and other fields’ is not a closed list. As a principle special measures can reach into all the fields wherever there is deprivation of human rights including the deprivation of enjoyment of any human rights expressly or impliedly protected by Article 5 of the Convention. It is clear that in all the cases the reference to limitations of ‘development’ relates only to the situation or condition in which groups or individuals find themselves and this is not a reflection on any group or individuals characteristics.

Beneficiaries of Special Measures:

The beneficiaries’ under Article 2, paragraph 2 may be the groups mentioned therein. The advancement and protection of communities through special measures is a legitimate objective to be pursued with respect to the rights and interests of the individuals. The identification of an individual belonging to a group should be based on self-identification by the individual concerned unless any justification exists to the contrary.

Limitations on the Provisions of Special Measures:

The provisions of limitation on special measures in Article 2, paragraph 2, are in essence the same, *mutatis mutandis* as those expressed in Article 1, paragraph 4. The main requirement behind such limitation are to limit the period for which the measures are needed, the design and initiation of the measures for continuing, system of monitoring their application and outcome by using appropriate, quantitative and qualitative methods of appraisal. The State parties are required to carefully determine whether negative human rights would result due to abrupt withdrawal of special measures especially if such have been adopted for a long period of time. The original interest of the first limitation clause, “when the circumstances so warrant”, was to grant states latitude when implementing Article 2(2) to take account of the various problems confronting different states.¹⁶ Nevertheless this limitation provision has taken on new dimensions since the Convention was drafted¹⁷. Once the integration of the disadvantaged group has been accomplished, the second limitation provision of paragraph 2 of Article 2 requires that the special

¹⁵ The UN declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination referred, in Article 2.3. to ‘special and concrete measures’.

¹⁶ 20 U.N GAOR C.3 (1308th meeting) at 99, U.N Doc. A/C. 3/SR. 1308(1965).

¹⁷ Drew Mahalic & Joan Gambi Mahalic, “The Limitation Provisions of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination”, *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol. 9 No.1, Feb. 1987, pp.74-101

measures employed as a means of to that end has to be discontinued. Unless preferential measures are halted after their objectives have been accomplished, their continued employment risks the opposite extreme of placing in a privileged position persons who were previously in a disadvantageous position.

Reports of States parties should describe special measures in relation to any articles of the Convention to which the measures are related. The reports of States parties should also provide information, as appropriate, on:

- The terminology applied to special measures as understood in the Convention;
- The justifications for special measures, including relevant statistical and other data on the general situation of beneficiaries, a brief account of how the disparities to be remedied have arisen, and the results to be expected from the application of measures;
- The intended beneficiaries of the measures;
- The range of consultations undertaken towards the adoption of the measures including consultations with intended beneficiaries and with civil society generally;
- The nature of the measures and how they promote the advancement, development and protection of groups and individuals concerned;
- The fields of action or sectors where special measures have been adopted;
- where possible, the envisaged duration of the measures;
- The institutions in the State responsible for implementing the measures;
- The available mechanisms for monitoring and evaluation of the measures;
- participation by targeted groups and individuals in the implementing institutions and in monitoring and evaluation processes;
- The results, provisional or otherwise, of the application of the measures;
- Plans for the adoption of new measures and the justifications thereof;
- Information on reasons why, in light of situations that appear to justify the adoption of measures, such measures have not been taken¹⁸.

In case where any reservation by any State party is affecting the provisions of the Convention then the State parties are invited to provide information as to why such a reservation is considered necessary along with the nature and scope of the reservation, its precise effect in terms of national law and policy and any plans to limit or withdraw the reservation within a specified time-frame. In cases where the State parties have adopted special measures despite the reservation, then they are supposed to provide information on such measure as per the guidance provided in the General Comment No. 32.

Conclusion:

The State parties should undertake the responsibility of adopting special measure which would provide its citizens a healthy environment to develop. The equality in law is to be supplemented by the equality in fact which can be ensured by the adoption of special measures aimed at protecting the existence and identity of the disadvantaged section of the society is necessary. The State parties should be encouraged to intensify their efforts against racial discrimination which would ultimately benefit the whole of the international community. The State parties should not only take special measures to combat “racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and religious intolerance” but also they need to fight against the historically construed cultural, structural and institutional aspects in each of the countries. This would enable the State parties to take concrete actions to demolish racism and other forms of discriminatory practices.

Bibliography:

1. Lerner Natan, The U. N. Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination, Sijthoff & Noordhoff International Publishers BV, Alphen aan den Rijn, The Netherlands, Rockville, Maryland, USA, 1980
2. International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (“ICERD”), G.A. res. 2106 (XX), Annex, 20 U.N. GAOR Supp. (No. 14) at 47, U.N. Doc. A/6014 (1966), 660 U.N.T.S. 195,
3. Mahalic Drew & Mahalic Joan Gambi, The Limitation Provisions of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol. 9 No.1, Feb. 1987, pp.74-101
4. Pejic Jelena, Minority Rights Under International Law, *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol. 19 No. 4, Aug. 1997, pp.666-685



¹⁸ General Comment 32 paragraph 37

Vegetables Marketing: A Case Study of Muzaffarpur District of Bihar in Post-APMC Period

Pritam Prabhat*
Dr. Sunil Kumar**

Abstract

The rationale of this study is that the Government of Bihar has repealed the Agricultural Produce Market Committee Act, 1960 in 2006. This was U-turn from regulation to deregulation of agricultural markets. Since then, there is lack of study on its impact on vegetables marketing system in Bihar. This study makes an attempt in this direction with the objective of examining the market structure and performance of vegetables marketing system with the help of a case study. The discussion has been presented in two major aspects: marketing pattern and price-spread. The analysis of marketing pattern indicates the spatial allocation of vegetables and marketing channels. The estimation of price-spread has been made with an aim to understand the level of marketing efficiency during post-APMC. The findings of the study suggest that there is multiplicity of intermediaries in vegetables marketing system. This is on account of the fact that about 90 per cent of marketed surplus of vegetables are sold at the village/primary rural market. The results of the price-spread indicate that there is low farmer's share in consumer's rupee indicating low level of marketing efficiency since farmers are not able to receive remunerative prices for their vegetables. Thus, even after the U-turn in agricultural marketing policy, there has not been any improvement in marketing efficiency of vegetables. The policy implication is that multi-pronged strategies need to be adopted for increasing marketing efficiency such as development of primary rural market/haat as well as development of co-operative marketing institutions especially for marginal and small farmers. VEGFED can play an important role in improving vegetables marketing system in Bihar.

Key-Words: Vegetables, Marketing Pattern, Price-Spread, Marketing Efficiency

Introduction

It was during the year 2006 that there has been a sea change in the agricultural marketing policy in Bihar. This could be seen as U-turn in the agricultural marketing policy on account of the fact that The Bihar Agricultural Produce Market Act, 1960 (APMC) was repealed by the Government of Bihar. Earlier, there was much focus on regulation of agricultural markets for improving the marketing system of agricultural produce. Since the British days, it was well conceived that the private marketing system of agricultural produce was highly detrimental to the benefits of the farmers. There were many disquieting features of marketing system which facilitated the intermediaries to exploit the farmers in various forms resulting in an inefficient agricultural marketing system in the state. Much before the Independence, the Royal Commission on Agriculture (1928) examined the agricultural marketing system in India and accordingly, recommended that "the most hopeful solutions of the cultivator's marketing difficulties seem to be in the improvement of communications and the establishment of the regulated markets". However, this approach, particularly, establishment of regulated markets, could not be proven to the benefits of the farmers on the one hand and to make available agricultural commodities to the consumers at the reasonable prices on the other. The Preamble of the APMC Act reads: "To provide for better regulation of buying and selling of agricultural produce and the establishment of market for agricultural produce in the State of Bihar and/or matters connected therewith (The Bihar Agricultural Produce Markets Act,

* Ph. D. Scholar, BRA Bihar University, Muzaffarpur

** Professor & Former Head, University Department of Economics, BRA Bihar University, Muzaffarpur-842001
Mob. No.-9470461720, Email- drsk062@gmail.com

1960, p.1). Consequently, over the period, 50 agricultural markets yards were developed across the state with an aim to improve the agricultural marketing system. Many studies were conducted to assess the impact of development of regulated agricultural market yards and their findings indicated that there has not been significant impact on improving agricultural marketing system in terms of ensuring remunerative prices to the farmers (Prasad, 1984; Prasad, 1993; Prasad, 1999; Prasad, 2000; Prasad, 2001). The little success of achieving the objectives of the APMC Act became the main factor that Government of Bihar repealed this Act in 2006. Since then, there is dearth of studies on the changing scenario of agricultural marketing system particularly in case of vegetables marketing. It is, in this backdrop, that this study has been taken up to examine the vegetables marketing system with the help of a case study of Muzaffarpur district of Bihar.

Objectives and Methodology

Most of the studies on agricultural marketing give focus on examining the degree of marketing efficiency which indicates that market environment of agricultural product is competitive and favourable to both of farmers and consumers. In this context, the most important indicator is the price-spread which gives an idea that farmers receive remunerative prices for their produce. The objectives of this study is, therefore, to make an attempt to examine the characteristic features of vegetables marketing system in terms of marketing pattern, marketing channels and price-spread reflecting also marketing costs and margins. The marketing efficiency has been examined in terms of proportion of producer's share in consumer's rupee along with the proportion of components of price-spread namely marketing costs and margins.

The study is mainly based on primary data. The selection of farm households has been made on the basis of stratified random sample methods. At the first stage, three blocks of Muzaffarpur district are selected. At the second stage, three villages from each block are selected randomly. As such, altogether nine villages were selected for selection of farm households. At the third stage, 12 farm households from each village were selected. Thus, a total number of 108 farm households are selected for collection of all the necessary information in regard to selling activities of their vegetables. The intermediaries were also interviewed for collection of information regarding their buying activities from the farmers.

The green vegetables namely, cauliflower, brinjal, tomato and ladyfinger were selected for the study on account of the fact that these are widely grown across the district of Muzaffarpur. In vegetables economy of the district, these vegetables occupy important place.

A well-designed structured schedule is the main research instrument for an in-depth survey of farm households and intermediaries. The structured schedule was directly canvassed to the farmers and all the possible information were collected regarding the selling activities of the farmers to the intermediaries. These consisted of market places, prices, market charges, etc. These facilitated to understand the marketing behaviour of farmers while marketing their vegetables to the intermediaries.

The analysis of data has been presented in a simple tabular approach. The market margin approach based on concurrent method has been adopted for analysing the data. This method has been mostly used for measuring the marketing efficiency of agricultural produce. This method is usually based on the estimation of price-spread and marketing costs and margins. Such an analysis facilitates to measure the degree of marketing efficiency of agricultural produce particularly in terms of producer's share in consumer's rupee. The proportion of producer's share in consumer's rupee also indicates whether farmers are getting remunerative prices for their produce which is the most critical aspect of efficient marketing system of agricultural produce. However, there is limitation of this methodology in terms of its static nature because it ignores storage function and inter-market trade. Since data is static in nature, it has been found more convenient to adopt it.

Results and Discussion

The results of the survey have been discussed here to examine the vegetables marketing system in Bihar during the post-APMC period. The discussion has been presented in two major aspects of vegetables marketing: firstly, marketing pattern and marketing channel and secondly, price-spread. One of the most important characteristics of the vegetables marketing is that unlike foodgrains, vegetables are mostly sold immediately

after its harvesting and a very little proportion of its production is retained either for on farm or off farm consumption. The high proportion of marketable surplus of vegetables is due to high perishable nature of vegetables which makes the vegetables marketing different from subsistence and commercial crops. In developing economies like Bihar, this has wider implications in terms of market infrastructure facilities which are not adequately developed for the purpose of vegetables marketing. The absence of grading, cleaning, packaging, storage and processing facilities results in depressed localised sales and losses to the vegetable growers. As such, vegetables are sold to the different kinds of intermediaries by a number of different methods. Also, marketing pattern of vegetables vary from vegetable to vegetable depending upon its perishable nature and capacity of the vegetable growers. As such, the marketing pattern of vegetables can be better understood with the help of spatial allocation and marketing agencies. The details of the spatial allocation of marketed surplus of selected vegetables according to farm sizes are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Spatial Allocation of Selected Vegetables

Vegetables	Village door level	Primary/Rural <i>haat</i>	Main market yard	Outside market yard	(per cent)
					Total
Brinjal	27.09	58.37	10.77	3.77	100.00
Cauliflower	36.19	54.16	8.18	1.47	100.00
Tomato	44.63	43.28	6.22	5.87	100.00
Ladyfinger	27.82	65.84	3.23	3.11	100.00

Source: Based on primary data

The results indicate that a very large proportion of vegetables are sold at the village door level. It can be noted from the table that in case of brinjal, 27.09 per cent of marketed surplus is sold at the village door level. Likewise, in case of other vegetables namely, cauliflower, tomato and ladyfinger, 36.19, 44.63 and 27.82 per cent are sold at the village door level respectively. Also, there has been more dominant sale of vegetables in the primary/rural *haat* accounting for 58.37, 54.16, 43.28 and 65.84 per cent in case of brinjal, cauliflower, tomato and ladyfinger respectively. This means that at the village level which also include primary/rural *haat*, there has been very high proportion of localised sales accounting for 85.46, 90.35, 87.91 and 93.66 per cent in case of brinjal, cauliflower, tomato and ladyfinger respectively. The estimation of the spatial allocation of vegetables marketing clearly indicate that about 90 per cent of vegetables are sold at the village level. This has serious policy implications for improving vegetables marketing system.

One of the important aspects for understanding the vegetables marketing system is related to the analysis of marketing channels. This indicates the influence of the market agencies/intermediaries in buying and selling activities of vegetables to whom farmers sell. This also helps to understand the marketing pattern of vegetables in terms of the presence of multiplicity of intermediaries which is supposed to be an important factor of exploitation of the farmers in various forms by them. There has been always focus on minimising the multiplicity of intermediaries to ensure the farmers for remunerative prices for their produce under the market reforms programme during the APMC period. It was expected that regulatory measures for marketing of agricultural produce may minimise the presence of unwanted intermediaries paving the way for increasing marketing efficiency. Table 2 gives the details of marketing channels of selected vegetables.

Table 2: Marketing Channel of Selected Vegetables

Vegetables	Village merchant/ itinerant trader	Katcha arahtiya/agent of the wholesaler/ commission agent	Wholesaler/ commission agent	Co-operative institutions	(per cent)
					Total
Brinjal	47.98	40.20	11.82	-	100.00
Cauliflower	47.75	42.19	10.06	-	100.00
Tomato	35.16	51.75	13.09	-	100.00
Ladyfinger	41.26	53.49	5.25	-	100.00

Source: Based on primary data.

It can be noted from the table that there has been little proportion of vegetables which are sold directly to the wholesaler/commission agent who operate in the agricultural market yard. The estimation that 47.98 and 47.75 per cent of marketed surplus of brinjal and cauliflower are sold to village merchant/itinerant trader whereas 35.16 and 41.26 per cent are sold to these intermediaries in case of tomato and ladyfinger respectively. Likewise, 40.20, 42.19, 51.75 and 53.49 per cent of marketed surplus of brinjal, cauliflower, tomato and ladyfinger are sold to the intermediaries namely, *katcha arahtiya*, agent of the wholesaler/commission agent. These estimations of marketing channels clearly indicate that farmers sell their vegetables to a number of intermediaries who are operating at the village level. As such, the following marketing channels may be categorised as follows: (i) farmer-village merchant/itinerant trader-wholesaler/commission agent-retailer-consumer; (ii) farmer-*katcha arahtiya* (small commission agent)-wholesaler-retailer-consumer; and (iii) farmer-wholesaler/commission agent-retailer-consumer. However, the data as shown in Table 2 reveal the fact that the channels I and II are widely used by the farmers for marketing purpose of their vegetables. This further reveals the fact that there has been high significance of localised sales of vegetables indicating thereby preference of farmers for selling their vegetables at the local level.

The results of marketing channels further reveal the fact that co-operative institutions like VEGFED which has been recently initiated in the State for marketing of vegetables seems to be non-functional in the study area notwithstanding with the fact that co-operative institutions may play an important role in marketing of vegetables for the benefits of the farmers.

The findings of the study in regard to overall margins of selected vegetables are discussed in terms of price-spread. Price-spread is one of the most important methods to examine the level of marketing efficiency of agricultural produce including vegetables. This method is most widely accepted on account of the fact that it indicates the farmer's share in consumer's rupee which, in turn, also indicates whether farmers are getting remunerative prices or not. Further, this method also facilitates to assess the extent of marketing costs and margins which are main components of the estimation of price-spread. An attempt is, therefore, made here to discuss the extent of price-spread in order to understand the efficiency of vegetables marketing system. It also needs to be mentioned here that marketing channels I and II are merged for estimation of price-spread as about 90 per cent of total marketed surplus of vegetables are sold through these two channels. The details of the estimation of farmer's share in consumer's rupee and the different components of marketing costs and margins indicating the extent of price-spread are given in Table 3.

Table 3: Farmer's Share and Price-Spread of Selected Vegetables

Particulars	(per cent)			
	Brinjal	Cauliflower	Tomato	Ladyfinger
Channel I & II				
Farmer's share	50.40	50.19	56.10	48.92
Village intermediaries' margins	8.50	6.27	7.15	11.38
Wholesaler/Commission agent's margins	6.37	6.81	3.90	5.32
Retailers' margins	18.33	19.48	14.00	19.54
Marketing costs	16.40	17.25	19.11	14.84
Consumer's rupee	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Channel III				
Farmer's share	52.93	53.75	59.72	52.45
Wholesaler/Commission agent's margins	12.16	9.62	6.30	6.39
Retailers' margins	20.97	21.90	18.55	20.06
Marketing costs	13.94	14.73	15.43	21.10
Consumer's rupee	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Based on primary data

It could be noted from the table that the farmer's share in consumer's rupee in different vegetables varies between 49.92 and 56.10 per cent in channel I and II. In channel III, the farmer's share in consumer's rupee is slightly higher than channel I and II which vary between 52.45 and 52.93 per cent. However, from remunerative price point of view, it could be said that farmer's share in consumer's rupee is low. This points out that there has been substantially low share of farmers in consumer's rupee in the prevailing marketing channels. This means that during post-APMC period there has not been any improvement in farmer's share in consumer's rupee as being compared with the findings of the studies conducted during the APMC period (Prasad, 1999; Prasad, 2001; Krishna, 1995). As such, repeal of the APMC Act has not benefitted the farmers in terms of prices of their vegetables. This could be better understood with the help of the analysis of marketing costs and margins.

The results as shown in Table 3 indicate that the overall margins are high in case of all the selected vegetables in channel I and II. The variation in village intermediaries' margins in the selected vegetables is reported to be 6.27 per cent (cauliflower) and 11.38 per cent (ladyfinger). Likewise, the variation in wholesaler/commission agent's margin is reported to be 3.90 per cent (tomato) and 6.81 per cent (cauliflower) whereas the retailers' margins vary between 14.0 per cent (tomato) and 19.54 per cent (ladyfinger). The margins of all the intermediaries account for 33.20, 32.56, 25.05 and 36.24 per cent in case of brinjal, cauliflower, tomato and ladyfinger respectively. This means that about one-third of the consumer's rupee is borne on the margins of the intermediaries. The estimation of market margins in channel III also indicates the high margins even the farmers directly sell their vegetables to wholesaler/commission agent. The overall margins of all the selected vegetables in this channel vary between 24.85 per cent (tomato) and 33.13 per cent (brinjal). The inference can be drawn here that one of the important factors responsible for low farmer's share in consumer's rupee is the high margins of the intermediaries. The high margins are also a reflection of prevalence of multiplicity of intermediaries in vegetables marketing and till now, there has not been any impact of market reform programmes on minimizing the multiplicity of intermediaries.

Another important component of price-spread is marketing costs which also need to be discussed. The estimation of marketing costs as shown in the table indicate that likewise market margins, marketing costs are also high. It can be noted that in channel I and II, the total marketing costs vary between 14.84 per cent (ladyfinger) and 19.11 per cent (tomato) whereas in channel III, these vary between 13.94 per cent (brinjal) and 21.10 per cent (ladyfinger). The results, thus, indicate that in both the marketing channels, marketing costs in case of selected vegetables are much high in post-APMC period. There has not been any significant impact of repeal of the APMC Act on the marketing system of vegetables indicating that it is highly inefficient and consequently, farmers are not able to get remunerative prices for their vegetables. This again poses a serious question on the inefficiency of vegetables marketing system in the Muzaffarpur district of Bihar as well as in the State of Bihar.

Conclusion

The foregoing analysis of vegetables marketing system in context of spatial allocation, marketing pattern and price-spread in the study area of Muzaffarpur district of Bihar during the post-APMC period comes out with the findings that there has been a very high level of village sales of vegetables. The most disquieting feature is that about one-third of vegetables are marketed at the village door level. This means that most of the vegetable growers prefer to sell their vegetables at their door level to the itinerant traders. The marketing channel I and II is the most prominent channel as compared to channel III in which farmers sell their vegetables directly in the market yard to the wholesaler/commission agent. The co-operative institution like VEGFED has little presence in the study area notwithstanding the fact that for marginal and small farmers, co-operative institutions can play a significant role in improving the vegetables marketing system.

The most disquieting feature of vegetables marketing system is noticed in the large price-spread of all the selected vegetables. The large price-spread has been due to much high margins of intermediaries including its multiplicity on account of large volume of sales at the village level. This may be due to lack of transportation and market infrastructure facilities at the rural primary haat which may give the incentives to sell their vegetables at the market level instead of selling their vegetables to itinerant traders and village merchants at the village level. Likewise, the marketing costs of the selected vegetables are also much high which seem to be also one of the major factors responsible for large price-spread. The findings of the study, thus, support the hypothesis that larger the price-spread, larger the inefficiency in vegetables marketing system.

The study suggests that mere repeal of the APMC Act may not be sufficient to improve the vegetables marketing system. It needs to be multi-pronged strategy to increase the marketing efficiency. The strategies must comprise both the technical and economic efficiency of vegetables marketing system. The technical efficiency could be improved with a new plan of investment in developing vegetables marketing system particularly at the rural primary market level where all the necessary market infrastructure facilities may be provided to the farmers which may provide the scope for increasing efficiency in physical handling of vegetables. This may pave the way for improving efficiency of the functioning of the vegetables marketing system. The measures like providing short-term loan for vegetables cultivation, development of rural primary market for vegetables and creation of co-operative institutions especially for small farmers may contain the influence of various intermediaries notwithstanding the fact that the intermediaries also play an important role in the movement of vegetables from farm level to consumer level. The market intervention through price support and insurance coverage may also be helpful in improving the vegetables marketing system in Bihar.

References

- Krishna, Meeta (1995), "Vegetables Marketing in Bihar Plateau Region: A Case Study of Two Agricultural Markets", in Arbind Prasad and Jagdish Prasad (eds.), *Indian Agricultural Marketing: Emerging Trends and Perspectives*, Mittal Publications, New Delhi.
- Prasad, Arbind (1993), "Regulated Agricultural Markets in Bihar: Policy and Performance", *The Bihar Journal of Agricultural Marketing*, Vol. 1, No. 1, Jan.-March.
- Prasad, Jagdish et al., (1984), "Evaluation Report of Muzaffarpur Agricultural Market", *mimeo*, A. N. Sinha Institute of Social Studies, Patna.
- Prasad, Jagdish (1999), *Production and Marketing of Vegetables in Bihar*, A Report submitted to the Directorate of Marketing and Inspection, Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, A. N. Sinha Institute of Social Studies, Patna.
- Prasad, Jagdish (2000), "Agricultural Marketing and Market Development: An Impact Evaluation Study of Regulated Market in Bihar", in Jagdish Prasad (ed.), *Encyclopaedia of Agricultural Marketing*, Vol. 3, Mittal Publications, New Delhi.
- Prasad, Jagdish (2001), "Vegetable Marketing in Bihar: Two Case Studies", in *Encyclopaedia of Agricultural Marketing*, (ed.), Volume 8, Horticulture Crops, Mittal Publications, New Delhi.



The Role of Bengali Folk Music and Dance in Revealing Cultural Heritage of Bharat

Dr. Ranu Bhattacharya*
Dr. Surjoday Bhattacharya**

Abstract

Bengali folk music and dance are vital expressions of cultural identity and heritage in Bharat (India), encapsulating the region's rich history, spirituality, and social values. This article explores the role of various forms of Bengali folk traditions, including Baul music, Bhawaiya, Gambhira, Jatra, and Chhau, in revealing and preserving cultural heritage. The historical context of these art forms illustrates their evolution influenced by socio-political changes, while their thematic content reflects the everyday lives, struggles, and aspirations of the Bengali people. Baul music, with its mystical and philosophical themes, emphasizes the quest for inner truth, while Bhawaiya captures the emotional landscape of rural life. Gambhira provides satirical commentary on societal issues, and Jatra combines drama and music to convey moral lessons. Chhau, a dynamic dance form, integrates martial arts with storytelling, showcasing mythology and nature. The article highlights how these traditions serve as repositories of collective memory, fostering community identity and continuity. It also examines contemporary revival efforts and the global appreciation of Bengali folk traditions, emphasizing their relevance in modern society. Ultimately, Bengali folk music and dance not only enrich Bharat's cultural tapestry but also offer profound insights into the region's spiritual, social, and philosophical heritage, making them indispensable in the preservation of Indian culture.

Keywords: Folk Music, Folk Dance, Cultural Heritage

Introduction

Bengali folk music and dance have served as vibrant expressions of cultural identity, spirituality, and historical narrative in Bharat (India). The state of Bengal, known for its rich artistic traditions, has developed a wide array of folk forms that capture the ethos of Indian culture. These forms not only entertain but also convey significant social, political, and philosophical themes that have shaped Bengali culture over centuries. Through various folk music genres and dance forms, Bengal preserves and perpetuates its unique cultural heritage, contributing to Bharat's diverse cultural tapestry. This essay explores the role of Bengali folk music and dance in revealing and preserving the cultural heritage of Bharat, focusing on Baul music, Bhawaiya, and Gambhira folk forms, and the role of dance forms like Jatra and Chhau. Bengali folk music and dance are integral components of the cultural tapestry of Bharat (India), reflecting its rich history, traditions, and social values. These art forms serve not only as entertainment but also as a means of preserving and transmitting cultural heritage across generations. This essay explores the significance of Bengali folk music and dance in revealing the cultural heritage of Bharat, examining their historical context, thematic content, and contemporary relevance.

Historical Context

The roots of Bengali folk music can be traced back to ancient times, influenced by various socio-political changes and cultural interactions. The region of Bengal, known for its fertile land and vibrant communities, has a diverse range of folk traditions that have evolved over centuries. Historical documents and oral traditions suggest that folk music and dance in Bengal have been

* Assistant Professor (Music), Rahat College of Education, Madhupur, Jharkhand

** Associate Professor (Education), Dr. Ram Manohar Lohiya Rajkiya Mahavidyalay, Muftiganj, Jaunpur
Surjoday@gmail.com (Corresponding Author)

shaped by various factors, including religious practices, agricultural cycles, and social gatherings (Basu, 2019) such as Baul, Bhatiali, and Kirtan.

Bengali Folk Music and Its Cultural Significance

Folk music in Bengal embodies the collective identity and shared experiences of the people. It often focuses on themes of spirituality, love, nature, and socio-political concerns, linking generations through a common narrative.

Forms of Bangali Folk Music

Baul Music

Baul music, from the mystic Baul society, combines Sufism, Vaishnavism, and Tantrism and is a major Bengali folk music (Bhattacharya, 2005). With their unusual clothing and roaming lifestyle, Bauls express profound philosophical thoughts about life and spirituality through their song. In Baul philosophy, *moner manush*, or the "man within the heart," represents the global soul and individual search for divine love and connection. Baul music preserves Bengal's spiritual and philosophical legacy and reveals Indian metaphysical and mystical traditions that emphasise inner awakening over religious rituals (Sen, 2006). The *ektara*, *dotara*, and *khol* give Baul songs their unique tone. These songs are accessible to anyone since they provide significant philosophical insights in simple lyrics. In 2008, UNESCO added Baul music to the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity, recognising its global and national significance.

Bhawaiya

North Bengalis, especially Rajbanshi-speaking Cooch Behar and Rangpur residents, sing *bhawaiya*, another popular Bengali folk genre. *Bhawaiya* songs generally depict rural Bengali life, notably the struggles and emotions of agrarian workers (Dasgupta, 2014). The genre's melancholy tunes depict separation, unrequited love, and socioeconomic reality. *Bhawaiya*'s songs about the working class and rural life connect the current world to ancient and mediaeval Bengal's agrarian heritage. *Gambhira* is a Malda-based folk music tradition. *Gambhira* hymns and dances combine devotion with satire and social critique to honour Lord Shiva. *Gambhira*'s lyrics criticise social injustices, politics, and the environment with humour and satire. With its strong moral and didactic tone, this folk music symbolises Bengal's intellectual history of questioning and criticising social norms, reflecting modern culture while conserving ancient morals (Bhattacharya, 2018).

Bengali Folk Dance and Culture

Another important part of Bengali traditional traditions is dance, which reflects Bengali and Indian culture. These dance traditions communicate emotions and tell mythology, history, and socio-cultural stories, exhibiting Bharat's cultural richness.

Jatra: Theatre Folk Tradition

Dance, music, and speech make *jatra* a potent storytelling tool in folk theatre. Melodrama and exaggeration suit rural audiences who want entertainment and morals in *jatra* performances. *Jatra* traditionally depicted mythical and religious stories from the *Ramayana* and *Mahabharata*, teaching the people about ancient Indian epics (Banerjee, 2019). *Jatra* now addresses contemporary concerns like corruption, gender equality, and social justice, reflecting Bengali society's developments. *Jatra* is important for its accessibility and popularity. It preserves India's mythical themes in a relevant, theatrical way while uniting people from different backgrounds and teaching morality.

Chau Dance: Martial-Folk Art Fusion

West Bengal's *Purulia chhau* is a remarkable mix of martial arts, tribal dancing, and folk dance. *Chhau* dancers perform forceful dances to tell Hindu mythology like the *Ramayana* and *Mahabharata* or nature stories like animal and seasonal cycles in intricate masks and costumes (Roy, 2016). *Chhau*, a UNESCO Intangible Cultural Heritage, draws enormous people to the *Chaitra Parva* festival to celebrate the region's cultural diversity. *Chhau* preserves culture and group identity, especially for Bengali tribal communities. This art form connects performers and spectators to Bengal's historic traditions of valour, spirituality, and regard for nature, demonstrating Bharat's holistic approach to life and culture.

The Socio-Political Role of Bengali Folk Music and Dance

Bengali folk music and dance have preserved culture and expressed politics. Folk music and dance inspired Indians to fight British colonialism. The Bengali folk song “Dhana Dhanya Pushpa Bhara” became a Swadeshi anthem of national pride and fortitude (Chattopadhyay, 2017). Later generations found inspiration in folk traditions in social justice, environmental, and gender equality movements. Thus, folk song and dance document socio-political struggles and reflect Bharat's history of resistance and persistence.

How Bengali Folk Music and Dance Differ from Other Forms of Folk Music and Dance in India

Any region's folk music and dance reflect its history, traditions, and values. Folk traditions in India reflect the many cultures of its states. Bengali folk music and dance differ from other Indian regional genres in style, content, and cultural significance. They represent Bengal's spiritual, philosophical, and social legacy through unique musical structure, lyrical themes, and performing techniques. This essay compares Bengali folk music and dance to other Indian traditional forms, focussing on thematic substance, musicianship, and spiritual-philosophical underpinnings. Each region of India has its own folk music and dance traditions. These include Bengali traditional music and dance, which have unique themes and histories. This essay compares Bengali folk music and dance to other Indian folk traditions, highlighting their unique characteristics, cultural value, and socio-political circumstances.

Thematic Content and Symbolism

Bengali folk music emphasises mysticism and spirituality, especially Baul music, a unique spiritual and philosophical tradition (Bhattacharya, 2005). Baul songs emphasise moner manush (the “man within the heart”), self-realization, and universal love. This differs from Rajasthani and Punjabi folk music, which emphasise valour, love, and historical narratives, and harvest, love, and social celebrations (Gulati, 2012). Bhawaiya, another Bengali folk song genre, depicts rural working class life and emotions via love, separation, and nature. Maharashtra's Lavani, on the other hand, is more sensual and energetic, focussing on romance and social commentary through strong and colourful performances (Chitnis, 2016). Bengali folk songs reflect Bengal's philosophical and emotional depth with introspective and melancholy themes. Bengali folk music explore deeper emotional and philosophical themes. Baul folk songs often explore love and truth, expressing a spiritual quest that is rare in other Indian states (Ray, 2023). Bengali folk music is introspective, unlike other Indian folk traditions that are more vibrant and communal. Bengal's geography, history, and social institutions have shaped its folk music and dance. The region's rich nature and proximity to rivers have shaped its particular themes and styles. Other Indian folk customs, like Punjab's Bhangra or Gujarat's Garba, reflect local cultural, agricultural, and social activities (Basu, 2019). Bengali folk music explores spirituality, love, and social commentary, whereas Punjabi folk music celebrates agriculture and harvest time. Bengali folk music's Baul style is known for its mystical lyrics and philosophical depth, setting it apart from other Indian folk traditions (Chatterjee, 2020).

Musicality and Instrumentation

The usage of indigenous instruments like the ektara, dotara, khol, and duggi gives Bengali folk music a distinct tone and rhythm. Baul musicians play modest, rustic instruments to create an earthy sound that fits their austere lifestyle and spirituality (Sen, 2006). Punjabi folk music, on the other hand, uses powerful instruments like the dhol and tumbi to create a rhythmic sound perfect for bhangra (Gulati, 2012). In Bengal, chhau, a dance form popular in Odisha, Jharkhand, and Bengal, combines folk and martial aspects with percussion-heavy dhol, dhamsa, and shehnai music. Bengal's masked Chhau performances add mythical storytelling to the region's folk dances, unlike Kerala's Kalaripayattu (Roy, 2016). Bengali folk music is melodious and poetic. Traditional instruments like the dotara, khol, and harmonium produce a unique sound with complicated melodies and rhythms. Other folk music, like Punjabi dhol and tumbi, is more rhythmic and geared for dance and celebration (Sengupta, 2021).

Performance Style and Structure

Simple, spontaneous Bengali folk music and dance are generally performed in casual, community-oriented settings. Baul musicians are nomadic, travelling from village to village to promote their music in public settings without staging or choreography. Rajasthani folk performances, on the other hand, use elaborate costumes and staged acts to make them visually striking (Bhattacharya, 2005). Chhau, notably in Purulia, West Bengal, tells Hindu mythology and epics via expressive movement and ornate masks and costumes. This differs from Kathakali in Kerala and Kathak in North India, which are traditional forms with structured motions, mudras, and legendary narratives (Dutt, 2001). Chhau draws from mythology but has a raw, folkloric flavour that sets it apart from traditional styles. Unlike other regional dances, Bengali folk dance has unique traits. Festival-staged Gambhira dances transmit societal messages and folk tales through song, dance, and drama. Bhangra and Garba, which centre on celebration and communal delight, may not be as engaging as this performance art, which also critiques society (Das, 2018). Bengali folk dances show the region's natural landscape in their movements. The Chhau dance mimics Bengali flora and fauna to connect with the environment. Kathak and Bharatanatyam, while storytelling-rich, are more regimented and traditional than many Bengali folk dances (Banerjee, 2021).

Religious and Philosophical Foundations

Bengali folk traditions, notably Baul, are very spiritual. Baul music combines Sufi, Vaishnav, and Tantric traditions to promote universal love and self-realization. Bauls emphasise innate divinity and personal spiritual journeys over conventional religion (Sen, 2006). Many Indian folk traditions, like Bihu in Assam or Ghoomar in Rajasthan, celebrate community life and seasonal transformations without philosophical inquiry (Chitnis, 2016).

Political and social commentary

Bengali folk music, especially Gambhira, is noted for its satire on social themes. Gambhira songs target political corruption, social inequities, and environmental issues with humour and satire, urging audiences to think about society's problems (Bhattacharya, 2018). Folk rituals like Gujarati Garba and Punjabi Bhangra celebrate life events and community identity rather than social critique. Bengali folk music and dance are also diverse due to their socio-political background. Colonialism, division, and socioeconomic issues have shaped Bengali folk traditions. During the Bengal Renaissance and independence fight, folk music was used as a means of protest or social commentary, defining cultural identity (Mukherjee, 2022).

In contrast, folk traditions in other places may have had less socio-political turmoil, resulting in distinct themes. Rajasthani folk music highlights historical people's bravery and heroism, unlike Bengali folk traditions, which are introspective (Sethi, 2020).

Research on Bengali Folk Music and Dance in Maintaining the Cultural Heritage of India

Bengali folk music and dance, which highlight Bengal's unique identity within India's cultural history, have long been studied. Research on these art forms has illuminated their origins, evolution, and importance in preserving India's unique culture. Bengali folk traditions including Baul music, Bhawaiya, Gambhira, Jatra, and Chhau promote cultural continuity, social values, and philosophical views, according to scholars. This essay discusses important Bengali folk music and dance studies and how they preserve India's cultural legacy.

Bengali folk customs are moulded by centuries of socio-political history and cultural contacts. According to Basu (2019), Bengali folk music and dance preserve the people's stories, struggles, and aspirations. Baul is a musical genre and a spiritual and philosophical discourse that reflects Bengal's socio-religious landscape (Chatterjee, 2020). This practice has been thoroughly studied for expressing and maintaining Bengali culture.

Bengali folk music and dance preserve culture. These creative forms are living archives, passing on knowledge, values, and traditions, according to Mukherjee (2022). Folk music's oral character preserves cultural identity by passing down stories and customs. Folk performances' community-based character gives participants and viewers a sense of belonging and shared identity.

The resurrection of Bengali traditional traditions in the face of globalisation and modernisation has been studied recently. Current artists are combining folk aspects with current genres to create new works that appeal to younger audiences, according to Ray (2023). This combination revives folk traditions and assures their survival in a changing culture. Bengali traditional music and dance preserve culture by adapting to new circumstances.

Researchers like Banerjee (2021) emphasise documentation and scholarly study to preserve these creative forms. Field recordings and ethnographic studies of folk music and dance are essential for understanding and preserving these traditions. Documentation helps preserve Bengali traditional practices and creates awareness of their cultural relevance.

Folk performance festivals and community gatherings help preserve culture, according to research. Das (2018) states that Poush Mela and Nabanna Utsav celebrate agricultural cycles and showcase folk music and dance, strengthening cultural traditions and communal relationships. Youth can actively participate in their legacy through these performances, guaranteeing its relevance in modern culture.

Preservation of Cultural Heritage

Bengali folk music and dance are essential to Bharat's culture. They preserve communal history, customs, and values. The oral heritage of these creative forms preserves identity and continuity over generations. Folk traditions are being documented and promoted again. Folk artists are supported by organisations and cultural initiatives to promote and preserve their work (Mukherjee, 2022). This rebirth helps preserve cultural heritage and inspires younger generations to connect with their ancestors.

Contemporary Relevance

Modern India's Bengali folk music and dance adapt to modern times while keeping their roots. Folk elements are being mixed with current genres to create new works that appeal to younger audiences. This synthesis revives folk customs and connects the past and present (Ray, 2023).

The global awareness of Indian culture has also made Bengali folk music and dance famous. Festivals, cultural exchanges, and performances overseas underscore these art forms' international appeal and significance. Cross-cultural interactions on this global platform enhance Bharat's distinct cultural heritage (Banerjee, 2021).

Conclusion

Bengali traditional music and dance preserve and exhibit Bharat's rich cultural legacy. Baul, Bhawaiya, Gambhira, Jatra, and Chhau represent Bengali spirituality, rural life, mythology, and political history. These creative forms grow but stay true to their beginnings, revealing Bengal's old traditions and Bharat's cultural environment. These folk practices connect people to the past and help them appreciate Indian culture in a fast modernising environment.

Bengali folk music and dance illustrate and preserve Bharat's culture. These art genres capture Bengali identity and Indian culture through their rich historical context, thematic depth, and present significance. As civilisation changes, folk traditions remind us of the ability of art to reflect and shape culture. Bengali folk music and dance represent its spiritual, philosophical, and social legacy. Bengali folk traditions stand out in India for its mysticism, introspection, unusual instrumentation, and community-oriented performances. Bengali folk music and dance explore philosophical problems and societal critique, unlike other Indian folk traditions that celebrate community, history, and nature. Bengali folk music and dance showcase the region's intellectual and spiritual depth and enrich Indian culture. Bengali folk music and dance preserve India's culture, according to research. Baul, Bhawaiya, Gambhira, and Chhau preserve spiritual ideals, social narratives, and mythological tales, preserving Bengali culture in India's diverse geography. Studies show how these community-based art forms preserve India's heritage. Bengali folk music and dance depict India's spiritual, social, and philosophical past, making them essential assets for preserving and promoting Indian culture.

References

- Banerjee, A. (2019). Chhau Dance of Purulia: Tradition, Practice, and Performance. Kolkata: Bangiya Sahitya Parishad.
- Bhattacharya, A. (2005). Baul Philosophy and Music: The Mystic Roots of Bengal. Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Bhattacharya, S. (2018). Gambhira: Folklore and Cultural Identity in North Bengal. *Folk Studies Journal*, 10(2), 45-60.
- Chattopadhyay, T. (2017). The Role of Folk Music in India's Freedom Movement. *Indian Historical Review*, 44(3), 112-135.
- Dasgupta, S. (2014). Bhawaiya: Songs of North Bengal. *Journal of Bengali Studies*, 6(1), 78-95.
- Roy, R. (2016). The Role of Chhau Dance in Maintaining Cultural Heritage. *UNESCO World Heritage Research Journal*, 22(4), 203-216.
- Sen, A. (2006). Mysticism in Baul Songs and the Influence of Sufism. *Indian Philosophical Quarterly*, 12(3), 88-102.
- UNESCO. (2008). Baul Songs of Bengal - UNESCO World Heritage . Retrieved from https://ich.unesco.org/en/RL/baul-songs-of-bengal-00107
- Banerjee, S. (2021). Cultural Expressions of India: A Study of Folk Traditions . New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Basu, A. (2019). The Folk Music of Bengal: A Historical Overview. Kolkata: Ananda Publishers.
- Chatterjee, R. (2020). Baul Philosophy and Music: A Cultural Exploration. Kolkata: Writers Workshop.
- Das, P. (2018). Festivals and Folk Traditions in Bengal: A Cultural Perspective. *Journal of South Asian Studies*, 45(2), 123-135.
- Mukherjee, T. (2022). Folk Traditions and Cultural Identity in Bengal. *Cultural Studies Review*, 18(1), 45-60.
- Ray, M. (2023). Exploring the Depths of Bengali Folk Music. *Indian Journal of Musicology*, 12(3), 78-89.
- Sethi, R. (2020). Globalization and Its Impact on Folk Traditions in India. *Journal of Cultural Studies*, 15(4), 201-215.
- Sengupta, J. (2021). Bhatiali Songs: A Reflection of Nature and Society. *Journal of Ethnomusicology*, 37(4), 201-215.
- Chitnis, M. (2016). Cultural Dimensions of Indian Folk Dances. *Indian Performing Arts Review*, 3(1), 92-110.
- Dutt, N. (2001). Classical and Folk-Dance Traditions of India. New Delhi: Sahitya Akademi.
- Gulati, S. (2012). Rhythms of Punjab: The Cultural Significance of Bhangra and Giddha. Chandigarh: Punjab Heritage Publishers.



Theoretical Analysis of Hydromagnetic Squeeze Film Lubrication with Longitudinal Roughness between Parallel Plates

Sudhir Kumar*

Abstract:

This paper presents a comprehensive theoretical investigation into the effects of longitudinal surface roughness on the performance of hydro magnetic squeeze film lubrication between parallel plates. With increasing applications of magnetic fields in modern lubrication systems, understanding the interaction between magnetic forces and surface roughness becomes critical. This study models the lubricant as a Newtonian, incompressible, electrically conducting fluid flowing between two parallel plates—one fixed and the other approaching it under load. A stochastic model is used to represent the surface roughness, and a magnetic field is applied perpendicular to the plates. Modified Reynolds equations are derived by incorporating roughness parameters and magnetic forces. Numerical simulations illustrate the impact of the Hartmann number, roughness amplitude, and film thickness on pressure distribution, load carrying capacity, and squeeze film time. The results reveal that while roughness generally deteriorates performance, the presence of a magnetic field can offset some of these adverse effects. This study provides insights beneficial for the design of hydro magnetic bearing systems and tribological devices.

Keywords : Magnetic field, Capacity, Surface, Lubrication, Squeeze film, Hydro magnetic, Elastohydrodynamic etc.

Introduction:

Squeeze film lubrication is a mechanism commonly used in high-load and low-speed applications such as thrust bearings, dampers, and biomechanical systems. It involves the formation of a fluid film between two approaching surfaces, which generates a hydrodynamic pressure that supports the load. Traditional theories of squeeze film lubrication assume ideal smooth surfaces; however, actual surfaces invariably possess some degree of roughness, which significantly alters the lubrication characteristics.

In modern engineering systems, the use of electrically conducting lubricants and the application of magnetic fields are becoming more prevalent, particularly in aerospace, defense, and precision instrumentation. When a magnetic field interacts with a conducting lubricant, Lorentz forces arise that affect the fluid flow. This phenomenon is known as magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) lubrication.

This paper aims to develop a theoretical framework for studying the combined effect of longitudinal surface roughness and magnetic fields on squeeze film lubrication. The focus is on parallel plates to simplify the geometry while capturing the essential physics of the problem.

Literature Review:

The interplay between surface roughness and fluid film lubrication has long been an area of intensive research. Christensen and Tonder's seminal work in the late 1960s introduced stochastic models for rough surfaces, allowing a probabilistic approach to quantify surface deviations in hydrodynamic lubrication. Their classification of roughness patterns—longitudinal, transverse, and isotropic—has become a standard in tribological studies.

Elrod and Ng et. al. (1972) built upon these stochastic models and introduced the impact of roughness in elastohydrodynamic lubrication (EHL), especially focusing on minimum film thickness and its implications for wear and durability. They emphasized that overlooking surface topography results in significant misestimations in load-carrying capacity and film breakdown thresholds.

* Research Scholar, Department of Physics, J.P.U., Chapra

The emergence of MHD lubrication theory was pioneered by Tzeng and Saibel et. al. (1967), who examined the impact of uniform magnetic fields on squeeze film bearings. Their results indicated a stabilizing effect of magnetic fields, attributing this to the increased resistance induced by Lorentz forces acting on the conductive fluid. This foundational study paved the way for a new branch of research incorporating electromagnetic interactions in lubrication.

Naduvanamani and Deheri et. al. (2002) later expanded this concept to include porous substrates and surface irregularities, showing that magnetic effects in rough, porous bearing surfaces could both enhance or diminish performance depending on flow regime and magnetic intensity. Their parametric studies demonstrated critical dependencies on fluid conductivity and magnetic field strength.

Subsequent research by Lin and Hung et. al. (2003) focused on slider bearings in asymmetric geometries, revealing that MHD interactions could compensate for geometrical imperfections and surface roughness in many cases. They highlighted the role of the Hartmann number as a tuning parameter to adjust film characteristics dynamically.

In the 2000s, Bujurke et al. (2007) introduced analytical techniques such as Homotopy Perturbation Methods to solve modified Reynolds equations with embedded magnetic and roughness parameters. Their studies offered more precise solutions and improved computational efficiency for increasingly complex lubrication models.

More recent investigations have incorporated nanofluids and electrorheological fluids into MHD lubrication studies, recognizing the promise of smart fluids in adaptive tribological systems. These fluids, when used under magnetic or electric fields, exhibit tunable viscosity and flow behavior, further enhancing control over lubrication films.

Additionally, research has begun examining real-world manufacturing data to construct more accurate surface roughness functions for simulation input, integrating metrology with modelling efforts. This trend underscores the growing realism and practical relevance of tribological modelling.

Despite these advancements, relatively fewer studies have combined stochastic roughness modelling with MHD effects in thin film lubrication between simple geometries such as parallel plates. This creates a gap in understanding the coupled impact of field forces and micro-textures in lubrication systems, especially at micro and nano scales where both effects are magnified.

This study addresses this gap by employing a theoretical and numerical framework that integrates surface roughness and magnetic field effects into the Reynolds equation. The model is developed specifically for Newtonian, electrically conducting fluids confined between longitudinally rough parallel plates. The results contribute to practical design considerations for high-precision systems where roughness and magnetic fields are unavoidable and must be accounted for simultaneously.

Mathematical Modeling:

We consider two infinite parallel plates separated by a thin film of electrically conducting lubricant. The lower plate is stationary, and the upper plate moves toward it with a constant velocity due to an applied load. A uniform magnetic field is applied perpendicular to the plates.

Let $h(x)$ represent the surface profile of the rough lower plate. Following Christensen's stochastic model, the roughness is characterized by its mean, variance, and correlation length. The lubricant flow is governed by the continuity equation and the modified Navier-Stokes equations, which include the magnetic body force term:

$$\vec{F}_m = \sigma(\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \times \vec{B}$$

Where σ is the electrical conductivity, \vec{v} is the velocity vector, and \vec{B} is the magnetic field vector.

Under the assumptions of laminar, incompressible flow and negligible inertia, the Navier-Stokes equations reduce to:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(h^3 \frac{dp}{dx} \right) = 6\mu U \frac{dh}{dx} - \sigma B^2 h^3 v$$

This forms the basis for the modified Reynolds equation incorporating both surface roughness and magnetic effects.

Non-Dimensionalization: To generalize the results, the governing equations are non-dimensionalized using the following variables:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x}{L}, \quad \bar{h} = \frac{h}{h_0}, \quad \bar{p} = \frac{p}{p_0}, \quad Ha = Bh_0\sqrt{\frac{\sigma}{\mu}}$$

Where Ha is the Hartmann number, a dimensionless quantity representing the ratio of magnetic to viscous forces.

The non-dimensional Reynolds equation becomes:

$$\frac{d}{d\bar{x}} \left(\bar{h}^3 \frac{d\bar{p}}{d\bar{x}} \right) = 6 \frac{d\bar{h}}{d\bar{x}} - Ha^2 \bar{h}^3 \bar{v}$$

Numerical Method: The non-dimensional Reynolds equation is solved using a finite difference method. A uniform grid is applied over the domain, and central differencing is used for the second derivatives. Iterative relaxation techniques ensure convergence.

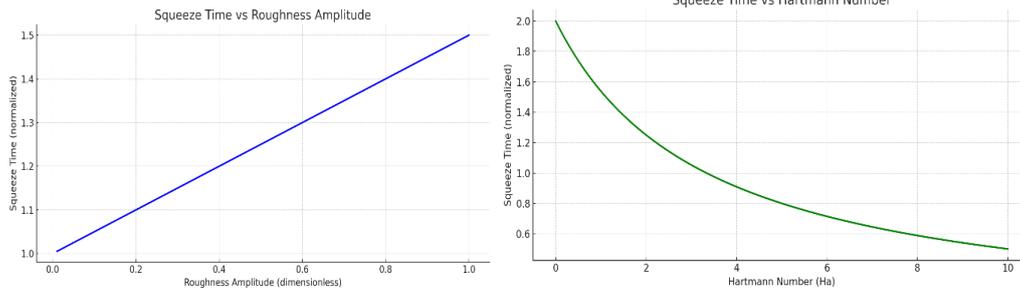
Boundary conditions: $\bar{p} = 0$ at $\bar{x} = 0, 1$

The numerical algorithm computes the pressure distribution, load carrying capacity (integral of pressure over the domain), and squeeze time for various parameter values.

Results and Discussion:

The results highlight the detrimental effect of longitudinal roughness on pressure generation and load capacity. Increased roughness amplitude leads to a decrease in the mean pressure due to flow disruptions.

The presence of a magnetic field, quantified by the Hartmann number, enhances the lubricant's resistance to flow, thereby increasing pressure and load capacity. At high Hartmann numbers, the magnetic damping effect becomes dominant, partially offsetting the adverse impact of roughness.



Graphs show that the squeeze time increases with roughness but decreases with stronger magnetic fields. This trade-off is crucial for applications where precise control of motion and load support is required.

Engineering Implications:

The findings have direct implications for the design of hydro magnetic bearing systems in environments with unavoidable surface roughness. By tuning the magnetic field strength, it is possible to achieve desired performance levels even with rough surfaces.

Applications include:

- Aerospace components
- Magnetic actuators
- Precision manufacturing equipment
- Biomedical devices such as artificial joints

Conclusion:

This theoretical study demonstrates that longitudinal surface roughness significantly affects the performance of squeeze film lubrication. However, the application of a magnetic field can reduce

these effects. The combined model offers a valuable tool for the design and optimization of advanced lubrication systems.

Future work can include experimental validation, transient analysis, and the consideration of thermal effects for a more holistic understanding.

References:

1. Christensen, H., & Tonder, K. (1969). The hydrodynamic lubrication of rough bearing surfaces of finite width. *ASME Journal of Lubrication Technology*, 91(1), 167–176. <https://doi.org/10.1115/1.3580072>
2. Elrod, H. G., & Ng, C. C. (1972). A lubrication theory for the prediction of effects of surface roughness in elastohydrodynamic lubrication. *Journal of Lubrication Technology*, 94(1), 38–46. <https://doi.org/10.1115/1.3451657>
3. Tzeng, S. T., & Saibel, E. (1967). Surface roughness effects on the performance of squeeze film bearings under the influence of a magnetic field. *ASLE Transactions*, 10(3), 334–340. <https://doi.org/10.1080/05698196708972286>
4. Naduvinamani, N. B., & Deheri, G. M. (2002). Effects of magnetic field on the behavior of a squeeze film between porous rough elliptical plates. *Tribology International*, 35(3), 205–214. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0301-679X\(01\)00108-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0301-679X(01)00108-6)
5. Lin, J. R., & Hung, C. Y. (2003). Magnetohydrodynamic lubrication analysis of finite slider bearings with various surface roughness patterns. *Tribology International*, 36(12), 925–933. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0301-679X\(03\)00121-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0301-679X(03)00121-3)
6. Bujurke, N. M., Santhosh, G., & Sanjeev, G. (2007). Homotopy perturbation method for MHD squeeze film lubrication with roughness effect. *Applied Mathematics and Computation*, 189(2), 1397–1406. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amc.2006.11.042>
7. Patir, N., & Cheng, H. S. (1978). An average flow model for determining effects of three-dimensional roughness on partial hydrodynamic lubrication. *Journal of Lubrication Technology*, 100(1), 12–17. <https://doi.org/10.1115/1.3453103>
8. Bhushan, B. (1999). *Principles and Applications of Tribology*. John Wiley & Sons.
9. Zhu, D., & Hu, Y. (2001). A review of elastohydrodynamic lubrication theory. *Tribology International*, 34(10), 703–715. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0301-679X\(01\)00068-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0301-679X(01)00068-8)
10. Gupta, R. S., & Sharma, R. (2005). Magnetohydrodynamic squeeze film lubrication between parallel plates with rough surfaces. *International Journal of Applied Mechanics and Engineering*, 10(3), 533–543.
11. Majumdar, B. C. (2008). *Introduction to Tribology of Bearings*. S. Chand Publishing.
12. Stachowiak, G. W., & Batchelor, A. W. (2013). *Engineering Tribology* (4th ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann. <https://doi.org/10.1016/C2010-0-67520-6>



The Disability Landscape and Employment Dynamics in North-Eastern India: An Empirical Analysis of Prevalence and Work Participation

Dr. Baikunth Roy*

Abstract

This paper presents a comprehensive empirical analysis of disability prevalence and employment dynamics across the eight North-Eastern states of India—Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, and Tripura. Drawing on secondary data from the Census of India (2001, 2011), the National Sample Survey (2002, 2018), and the Periodic Labour Force Survey (2018–19), the study examines spatial, demographic, and categorical variations in disability prevalence, and evaluates work participation patterns among persons with disabilities (PWDs). The findings reveal significant intra-regional disparities, including lower overall disability prevalence in some states, yet disproportionately high rates of specific disabilities such as hearing and multiple impairments. Notably, several North-Eastern states exhibit higher work participation rates among PWDs compared to national averages, though employment remains concentrated in informal and agricultural sectors. Persistent gender gaps and marginalization of those with severe or multiple disabilities are also evident. The study underscores the critical need for region-specific, gender-sensitive, and disability-type-tailored policy interventions. Enhanced data accuracy, improved access to assistive technologies, and inclusive skill development aligned with local economic contexts are essential to foster meaningful and equitable employment for PWDs in the region.

Keywords: Disability Prevalence, Work Participation, North-East India, Employment Inequality, Census, NSS, GIS Mapping.

1. Introduction

1.1. Setting the Context: Global and Indian Disability Landscape

Disability is a fundamental aspect of the human condition, affecting over a billion people, approximately 15% of the global population as reported by World Health Organization and World Bank (2011). This demographic experiences disproportionately higher hardships in meeting basic needs, particularly in developing countries, where the majority of PWDs reside and often constitute the poorest segments of society. Elwan (1999) reviewed vast literature on the subject and summarises that there is a higher incidence of disability rates in developing countries which is because of higher illiteracy, lower immunisation, poor nutritional status, lower birth weight, lack of adequate and timely health care, lower occupational mobility and higher unemployment rates. According to the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME, 2017), the global burden of disability increased by 52% between 1990 and 2017, highlighting a growing worldwide challenge.

The exclusion of PWDs from the labor market represents a substantial economic loss, estimated at 3-7% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in low- and middle-income countries (ILO, 2019). This underscores that addressing disability is not merely a welfare concern but a crucial development issue with significant economic implications. The significant economic cost associated with the exclusion of PWDs from the labor market reinforces the urgency for inclusive policies. When a substantial portion of the population, such as the 15% globally identified as having some form of disability, remains underutilized in economic activities, it represents a massive untapped human capital. Therefore, investments in accessibility, education, and employment for PWDs are not merely acts of social welfare but constitute a sound economic strategy. This perspective reframes the entire discourse around disability from one of charity or burden to one of human rights and economic integration, compelling a higher prioritization of disability-inclusive policies in national development agendas.

1.2. Conceptualizing Disability: Definitions, Models, and Policy Evolution in India

Historically, disability was viewed through a "medical model," which focused on individual

* Assistant Professor, Department of Economics, College of Commerce, Arts & Science, Patna

impairment as a health problem requiring medical intervention Oliver (1990). This perspective often overlooked the external factors contributing to a person's disablement. However, a significant shift has occurred towards a "social model," which posits that individuals are disabled primarily by societal barriers—physical, attitudinal, and systemic—rather than by their physical or mental conditions alone (Oliver, 1990). The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF, 2001) further advanced this understanding by promoting a "Bio-Psycho-Social model". This model recognizes disability as a complex interaction among a person's body functions and structures, their ability to perform activities, and their participation restrictions within a given environment (ICF, 2001). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD, 2006) encapsulates this evolving concept, defining PWDs as those with long-term impairments that, "in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others".

India has progressively evolved its disability legislation to align with these international perspectives. A notable initiative was the enactment of the Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act of 1995. This was later repealed and replaced by The Rights of Persons with Disabilities (RPWD) Act of 2016, a more comprehensive legislation reflecting UNCRPD principles (Ministry of Law and Justice, 2017). The RPWD Act 2016 significantly expanded the recognized categories of disabilities from 7 to 21 and increased job reservations in government establishments from 3% to 4% (Ministry of Law and Justice, 2017). Despite these legislative advancements, challenges persist in data collection and the accurate estimation of disability prevalence. India's primary sources for disability statistics, the Population Census and National Sample Surveys (NSS), often face limitations in comparability and consistency due to differing definitions and methodologies. A critical concern is the consistent underestimation of disability prevalence, particularly among women and in rural areas. This underestimation is frequently attributed to deep-seated societal stigma, discrimination, and inadequate enumeration procedures (Jeffery & Singal, 2008).

The persistent underestimation of disability in India, especially among women, carries profound implications. Official statistics may not fully capture the true burden of disability or the specific needs of certain demographic groups. This situation arises because socio-cultural factors, including stigma and gender discrimination in healthcare, can lead to underreporting of disabilities, particularly milder forms, among women. When the foundational data for policy-making is skewed due to these social biases, the resulting policy interventions may inevitably prove insufficient or misdirected. This creates a self-perpetuating cycle where the invisibility of a significant portion of the disabled population in data translates into their continued invisibility in policy, thereby reinforcing their marginalization and perpetuating disparities in access to services and opportunities.

1.3. Disability Prevalence and Employment Conditions

The PWDs are the largest minority groups in the world. Jha (2016) argued that "disability cuts across class, caste, gender, race, religion, ethnicity, and nationality, but mostly a differently-abled person's first identity among their other identities is their disability" (p. 5). The prevalence of disability and its association with adverse employment outcomes has been extensively documented across global and Indian contexts. According to the World Health Organization and World Bank (2011), over a billion people—approximately 15% of the global population—experience some form of disability, with 80% residing in developing countries. Disability prevalence has been linked to demographic transitions such as ageing, and epidemiological shifts toward chronic and non-communicable diseases (Mont, 2007). In India, inconsistencies between various data sources such as the Census, NSSO, and WHO estimates have produced varying prevalence figures, ranging from 2.2% (NSSO, 2018) to 5–8% (World Bank, 2009), highlighting a persistent undercounting of persons with disabilities (PWDs) (Mitra and Sambamoorthi, 2006; Erb and Harriss-White, 2002).

The burden of disability is not uniformly distributed. Studies have shown that rural populations, older age groups, and socio-economically marginalized communities such as Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes exhibit higher rates of disability (Mitra, Posarac, and Vick, 2013). Women with disabilities are particularly disadvantaged, experiencing multiple forms of exclusion (Mehrotra, 2006). Further, the intersectionality of caste, class, gender, and disability aggravates socio-economic vulnerabilities (Ghosh, 2010; Adlakha, 2007).

On the employment front, evidence consistently reveals that PWDs have significantly lower

participation rates and higher unemployment rates compared to the general population. The ILO (2007) notes that PWDs are often relegated to the informal economy or low-paying, insecure jobs, with minimal legal or social protections. In India, studies by Deshpande (2017) and Singal (2013) found that education and skill development significantly influence the employability of PWDs, but systemic barriers remain. These include inaccessible infrastructure, lack of assistive technology, and employer prejudice (Thomas, 2005; Ghai, 2002).

Policy responses have aimed to bridge these gaps, notably through the Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act, 1995 and its successor, the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (RPWD) Act, 2016. However, scholars such as Mehrotra (2013) argue that implementation remains weak, especially in the private sector, where employment of PWDs is largely voluntary. Mitra and Sambamoorthi (2008) emphasize that even when employed, PWDs tend to earn less than their non-disabled counterparts, indicating the prevalence of wage discrimination.

Mitra and Sambamoorthi (2006) argued that disability negatively impacts labour force participation, particularly among women and those in rural areas. These findings underscore the need for rights-based, inclusive employment policies that go beyond tokenistic reservation and address structural inequalities.

1.4. Research Objectives for North-Eastern India

This research paper aims to provide a focused analysis of disability prevalence and employment conditions in the North-Eastern regions of India. The specific objectives guiding this study are:

- To quantify and compare the prevalence of each type of disability across age, gender, region, and social groups at the state level using Census and NSS data for the eight North-Eastern states of India.
- To calculate and map (using GIS technique) disability prevalence among men and women and by type of disability at the district level within North-Eastern India using 2011 Census data.
- To examine the nature and extent of employment for persons with disabilities vis-à-vis the overall population in North-Eastern India using Census, NSS, and PLFS data.

2. Disability Prevalence in North-Eastern India: Temporal and Spatial Analysis

This section quantifies and compares the prevalence of disability by gender, regions, and social groups, and by type of disability, across the eight North-Eastern states of India: Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim, and Tripura.

2.1. Overall Disability Prevalence and Demographic Characteristics (Gender & Rural/Urban Distribution) in North-Eastern States

The North-Eastern states of India present a varied picture concerning overall disability prevalence /reported a disability prevalence of 3.77%, and Arunachal Pradesh 3.03%, placing them among the states with higher rates nationally. Conversely, Nagaland (1.33%), Manipur (1.31%), and Meghalaya (1.24%) recorded some of the lowest prevalence rates in the country (Census of India (2001).

By the 2011 Census, while Sikkim's prevalence decreased to 2.98%, it still remained the highest in the North-East. Many other North-Eastern states, including Arunachal Pradesh (1.93%), Assam (1.54%), Mizoram (1.38%), and Tripura (1.75%), showed a decrease in prevalence compared to 2001, positioning them among the lowest nationally (excluding Sikkim, Lakshadweep, and Puducherry). Manipur, however, saw an increase to 2.05% (Census of India (2011).

The NSS 2018 data further illustrates these patterns: Sikkim reported 2.20% and Arunachal Pradesh 1.80%, continuing to show relatively higher prevalence within the North-Eastern region. Manipur (0.80%), Meghalaya (1.00%), Mizoram (1.10%), Nagaland (1.00%), and Tripura (1.20%) generally reported lower rates.

The observed decrease in overall disability prevalence in many North-Eastern states from 2001 to 2011, despite national trends indicating an increase in disability due to aging populations and epidemiological transitions, presents a notable contradiction. This apparent "improvement" might not reflect a genuine reduction in the disability burden but could instead be attributed to changes in census methodology (e.g., definitional shifts for seeing disability in 2011) or persistent underreporting. Such a statistical artifact could mask the true scale of disability and impede accurate policy formulation for the region.

Gender Distribution:

Across all North-Eastern states and both Census periods, males consistently exhibit a higher disability prevalence than females. For instance, in Arunachal Pradesh in 2001, male prevalence was 3.82% compared to 2.15% for females; in 2011, it was 2.00% for males and 1.86% for females (Census of

India, 2001 & 2011). This pattern aligns with the national trend of male-dominated disability reporting, which is often attributed to the underreporting of disability among women due to deeply ingrained socio-cultural factors and stigma.

Rural/Urban Distribution:

While rural prevalence is generally higher than urban in most North-Eastern states, some present interesting nuances. For example, in Arunachal Pradesh (NSS 2018), rural male prevalence was 2.20% and rural female 1.90%, while urban male and female prevalence were both 0.90%. However, Assam shows a slightly higher urban prevalence for persons (2.10%) than rural (1.70%) in NSS 2018, and its urban female prevalence (2.30%) is notably higher than rural female (1.60%). Similarly, Mizoram exhibits comparable rural and urban male prevalence and higher urban female prevalence, while Nagaland also shows higher urban female prevalence.

The higher or comparable urban disability prevalence, especially among females, in some North-Eastern states like Assam, Mizoram, and Nagaland challenges the common assumption that rural areas are uniformly worse off in terms of disability. This pattern could indicate that the process of urbanization in these specific North-Eastern contexts might introduce new health risks, such as increased accidents or the proliferation of informal settlements (slums), or that urban environments, despite potentially better access to healthcare, might present unique barriers for PWDs, such as a lack of accessible infrastructure or increased social isolation. This suggests that as these states urbanize, specific policy considerations are needed to address the emerging disability challenges in urban settings.

Table 1: Share of Disabled in the State’s Population, Census 2001 and 2011 (%)

States	Census 2001			Census 2011		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Arunachal Pradesh	3.03	3.82	2.15	1.93	2.00	1.86
Assam	1.99	2.16	1.81	1.54	1.61	1.46
Manipur	1.31	1.41	1.21	2.05	2.17	1.93
Meghalaya	1.24	1.30	1.18	1.49	1.56	1.42
Mizoram	1.80	1.91	1.69	1.38	1.48	1.28
Nagaland	1.33	1.39	1.27	1.50	1.58	1.41
Sikkim	3.77	3.95	3.55	2.98	3.03	2.92
Tripura	1.84	2.04	1.64	1.75	1.89	1.60
All-India	2.13	2.37	1.87	2.21	2.41	2.01

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001 and 2011

Table 2: Percentage of Persons with Disability for Each North-Eastern State, NSS 2018

States	Rural			Urban			Total (Rural+Urban)		
	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person
Arunachal Pradesh	2.20	1.90	2.10	0.90	0.90	0.90	1.90	1.80	1.80
Assam	1.90	1.60	1.70	2.10	2.30	2.10	1.90	1.70	1.80
Manipur	0.90	0.70	0.80	0.90	0.70	0.80	0.90	0.70	0.80
Meghalaya	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.10	0.80	0.90	1.00	0.90	1.00
Mizoram	1.20	0.80	1.00	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.00	1.10
Nagaland	1.00	1.00	1.10	0.90	1.10	1.00	1.00	1.10	1.00
Sikkim	2.70	2.40	2.60	1.50	1.00	1.30	2.40	2.10	2.20
Tripura	1.30	1.20	1.30	1.40	1.00	1.20	1.30	1.10	1.20
All-India	2.60	2.00	2.30	2.10	1.80	2.00	2.40	1.90	2.20

Source: NSS 76th Round, Persons with Disabilities in India, Report No. 583

2.2. Prevalence of Specific Disability Types across North-Eastern States

The prevalence of specific disability types in the North-Eastern states often reflects national trends but also exhibits unique regional concentrations.

Seeing Disability: Nationally, reported seeing disability saw a drastic decline from 48.55% in 2001 to 18.77% in 2011, primarily due to definitional changes in the 2011 Census. North-Eastern states generally

reflect this trend. In 2001, Arunachal Pradesh recorded an exceptionally high proportion of seeing disability at 69.28% of its total PWDs, with Assam (53.19%) and Sikkim (52.98%) also showing high rates. By 2011, Manipur (32.78%) recorded the highest percentage in the region, while Mizoram (13.42%) and Nagaland (14.01%) had among the lowest (Census of India, 2001 & 2011).

Hearing Disability: This category experienced a significant national increase from 5.76% in 2001 to 18.92% in 2011, partly due to the 2011 Census including persons using hearing aids as disabled (Census of India, 2001 & 2011). Many North-Eastern states consistently show a high prevalence of hearing disability across both periods: Nagaland (2001: 19.79%; 2011: 30.17%), Sikkim (2001: 16.85%; 2011: 29.38%), Arunachal Pradesh (2001: 9.22%; 2011: 30.40%), and Meghalaya (2001: 12.73%; 2011: 27.87%). The consistently high and increasing prevalence of hearing disability in several North-Eastern states is a critical regional public health concern. Given that the World Health Organization (WHO) suggests 80% of deafness cases are avoidable, this regional concentration points to significant gaps in early detection, prevention, and access to audiological services or assistive devices in these specific North-Eastern areas. This highlights a pressing need for targeted public health campaigns and infrastructure development to address preventable hearing loss.

Speech Disability: In 2001, Nagaland (16.60%), Sikkim (15.58%), and Mizoram (12.53%) reported high proportions of speech disability. By 2011, while generally lower in the North-East, Sikkim (8.67%) and Nagaland (7.74%) still had notable rates (Census of India, 2001 & 2011).

Movement Disability: Nationally, movement disability declined from 27.87% in 2001 to 20.28% in 2011, attributed partly to efforts like polio eradication and improved health facilities. North-Eastern states generally show lower prevalence for this type compared to the national average. In 2011, Arunachal Pradesh (12.10%), Nagaland (12.92%), Mizoram (13.03%), and Sikkim (11.37%) were among the states with higher proportions within the region (Census of India, 2001 & 2011).

Mental Disability (Combined Mental Retardation & Illness): In 2001, Manipur (16.64%) and Mizoram (17.81%) had very high reported mental disability. By 2011, Mizoram (17.38%) remained notably high, along with Meghalaya (10.54%) and Manipur (10.77%). Mental Retardation generally accounts for a larger share than Mental Illness in these states (Census of India, 2001 & 2011).

Any-Other Disability: This new category in the 2011 Census accounted for 18.38% of national disability, reflecting a broad classification for unlisted or unspecified conditions. In the North-East, Meghalaya (19.67%), Assam (18.22%), and Tripura (18.38%) showed significant proportions, indicating potential enumeration challenges or a prevalence of unclassified conditions in these states (Census of India, 2011).

Multiple Disability: Also a new category in 2011, nationally comprising 7.89% of PWDs. In the North-East, Sikkim (16.17%) and Mizoram (13.74%) reported particularly high proportions of multiple disability, indicating a higher burden of severe or complex impairments in these states (Census of India, 2011).

Table 3. Proportional Share of Specific Disability Categories within Each State's Total Disabled Population (%), Census 2001

States	Seeing Disability	Hearing Disability	Speech Disability	Movement Disability	Mental Disability
Arunachal Pradesh	69.28	9.22	7.29	10.43	3.79
Assam	53.19	9.77	10.74	17.34	8.95
Manipur	41.28	10.55	9.76	21.77	16.64
Meghalaya	46.46	12.73	11.91	17.80	11.10
Mizoram	39.08	15.12	12.53	15.46	17.81
Nagaland	37.62	19.79	16.60	16.07	9.92
Sikkim	52.98	16.85	15.58	10.66	3.92
Tripura	46.67	9.67	8.66	23.70	11.30
All-India	49.0	5.8	7.5	28.0	10.3

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001

Note: Only five types of disabilities were included in Census 2011

Table 4. Proportional Share of Specific Disability Categories within Each State's Total Disabled Population (%), Census 2011

States	Seeing Disability	Hearing Disability	Speech Disability	Movement Disability	Mental Disability	Any-Other Disability	Multiple Disability
Arunachal Pradesh	21.14	30.40	5.75	12.10	7.09	14.51	9.01
Assam	16.78	21.16	8.28	15.83	9.41	18.22	10.32
Manipur	32.78	22.02	4.55	9.08	10.77	14.74	6.07
Meghalaya	15.75	27.87	6.11	11.99	10.54	19.67	8.07
Mizoram	13.42	22.12	7.67	13.03	17.38	12.63	13.74
Nagaland	14.01	30.17	7.74	12.92	7.58	16.33	11.26
Sikkim	15.24	29.38	8.67	11.37	5.66	13.52	16.17
Tripura	16.83	18.18	7.10	18.19	11.21	18.38	10.11
All-India	18.8	18.9	7.5	20.3	8.97	18.4	7.9

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 20011

As per NSS 76th Round (2018) data, the prevalence of disability in India was 2.2%, with locomotor disability (1.2%) being the most common type. In the North-Eastern states, disability prevalence varied: Sikkim (2.2%) matched the national average, while Manipur (0.8%) had the lowest. Locomotor disability was the leading type across most states, though its share was significantly lower than the national average. Other disability types such as visual, hearing, speech, mental retardation, and mental illness had relatively low prevalence, typically below 0.5% in these states. Overall, the region shows lower disability prevalence than the national figure.

Table 5: Percentage of Persons with Broad Type of Disability for Each State in NSS (2018)

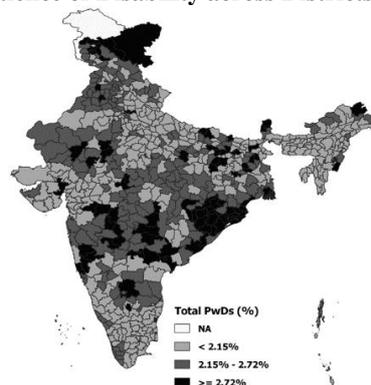
State	Locomotor Disability	Visual Disability	Hearing Disability	Speech Disability	Mental Retardation	Mental Illness	Other Type	Any Disability
Arunachal Pradesh	0.40	0.40	0.4	0.30	0.10	0.20	0.20	1.80
Assam	0.90	0.30	0.3	0.20	0.10	0.10	0.00	1.80
Manipur	0.40	0.10	0.1	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.00	0.80
Meghalaya	0.40	0.20	0.2	0.20	0.10	0.00	0.00	1.00
Mizoram	0.20	0.10	0.2	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.00	1.10
Nagaland	0.30	0.20	0.1	0.20	0.10	0.10	0.10	1.00
Sikkim	0.50	0.50	0.8	0.50	0.10	0.10	0.00	2.20
Tripura	0.60	0.10	0.2	0.20	0.10	0.10	0.10	1.20
All-India	1.20	0.20	0.3	0.20	0.20	0.10	0.10	2.20

Source: NSS 76th Round, Persons with Disabilities in India, Report No. 583

GIS Mapping of Disability Prevalence:

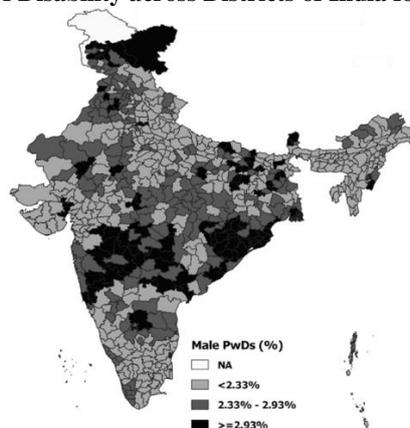
The spatial distribution of disability prevalence across districts of India in 2011, as depicted in the GIS maps (Figures 1-3), reveals distinct patterns for the North-Eastern region.

Overall Disability Prevalence (Figure 1): While some North-Eastern states like Sikkim and Arunachal Pradesh showed higher overall disability prevalence in 2001, many of them, including Assam, Mizoram, Nagaland, and Tripura, generally had lower prevalence rates. By 2011, the overall prevalence in many North-Eastern states, except Sikkim, Lakshadweep, and Puducherry, had improved (decreased) and were among the lowest nationally (Figure 1). The regions which have witnessed very high disability prevalence are the states of Jammu and Kashmir, Odisha, some parts of Maharashtra and Arunachal Pradesh, followed by Rajasthan, Punjab, Haryana, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Chhattisgarh (Roy, 2021). Inadequate infrastructure and health facilities, as well as the absence of various services and lack of proper implementations of government schemes, may have contributed to a higher burden of disability in the regions.

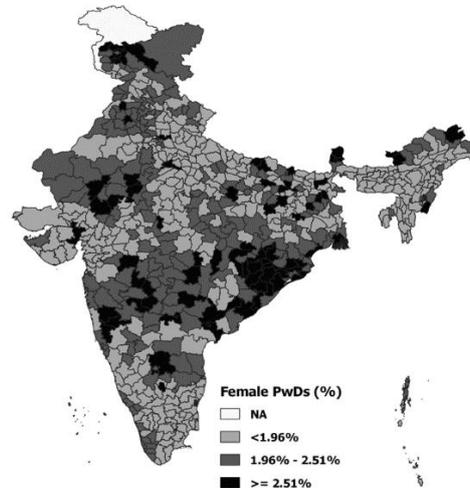
Figure 1: Prevalence of Disability across Districts of India in 2011

Source: Based on the Census of India 2011

Male and Female Disability Prevalence (Figures 2 and 3): The geographical patterns for male and female disability prevalence in these states are generally very similar to each other and to the overall pattern. The prevalence rates are calculated as a proportion of persons with male and female disabilities out of their respective population groups in particular districts. There are many spatial zones where there are higher concentrations of disability prevalence. On the other hand, it can also be observed that there are several discontinuous spatial zones, where there is lower disability prevalence. Therefore, a cursory glance across the districts of India suggests that disability is prevalent in every nook and corner of India. However, there are some regions (gender-wise), which are more disadvantageously placed. A closer examination of disability prevalence among males and females provide that although the incidence of disability is lower among women, the prevalence is evenly distributed, and the pattern is mostly similar to males. However, female disability is relatively more moderate in the eastern parts of Jammu and Kashmir, followed by some sections of Karnataka and southern Maharashtra. The highest disability prevalence (about 3% and above) can be observed in continuation from the eastern districts of Odisha to the southern parts of Maharashtra in the west. Further, there are some smaller clusters of high disability prevalence spread across the areas of Jammu and Kashmir, Rajasthan, parts of Punjab and Haryana, northeast regions (most parts of Sikkim and Arunachal Pradesh). The spatial zones where there is a comparatively lower prevalence of disability are some of the states of the southern regions (Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and parts of Kerala), followed by the states of western India (Gujarat and some districts of Maharashtra). These are followed by some of the North Indian states (Most parts of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh).

Figure 2: Prevalence of Disability across Districts of India for Males in Census 2011

Source: Based on the Census of India 2011

Figure 3: Prevalence of Disability across Districts of India for Females in Census 2011

Source: Based on the Census of India 2011

3. Employment Conditions for Persons with Disabilities in North-Eastern India

This section examines the nature and extent of employment for persons with disabilities (PWDs) in the North-Eastern states, comparing their work participation rates (WPR) with the overall population and analyzing trends by gender, social group, and disability type.

3.1. Nature and Extent of Employment among PWDs (Overall and by Type)

The employment landscape for persons with disabilities (PWDs) in India, including the North-Eastern states, is characterized by significantly lower work participation rates (WPR) compared to the general population, coupled with a notable trend towards informalization of work.

Overall Work Participation Rate (WPR):

Nationally, the Work Participation Rate (WPR) for PWDs was 34.49% in 2001 and slightly increased to 36.34% in 2011. This contrasts sharply with the WPR for the overall Indian population, which stood at 39.10% in 2001 and 39.80% in 2011 (Census of India, 2001 & 2011). The NSS 2018 data reported a Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) of 23.8% for PWDs, significantly lower than the overall population's WPR of 46.80% (PLFS 2018). This consistent gap highlights a much higher unemployment rate among PWDs.

A closer examination of the 2011 Census data reveals that the slight increase in overall PWD WPR was primarily driven by an increase in marginal workers, while the proportion of main workers slightly decreased (Census of India, 2011). This indicates a concerning trend of growing informalization of work within the disability sector, where PWDs are often engaged in precarious, low-wage, and unstable employment.

In the North-Eastern states, the WPR for PWDs in 2011 varied: Nagaland recorded 51.92%, Sikkim 49.04%, Arunachal Pradesh 44.69%, Manipur 43.69%, Meghalaya 37.74%, Mizoram 36.27%, and Tripura 33.61%, with Assam at 33.91% (Census of India, 2011). Notably, several North-Eastern states, such as Nagaland, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, and Manipur, exhibit surprisingly higher PWD WPRs compared to the national average, suggesting unique regional dynamics in PWD employment.

Gender and Social Group Disparities in WPR:

Nationally, female PWDs consistently show significantly lower WPRs compared to their male counterparts and the overall female population. In 2001, female PWD WPR was 20.51%, increasing slightly to 22.59% in 2011). Similar disparities are observed in the North-Eastern states. For example, in Arunachal Pradesh in 2011, male PWD WPR was 51.47% compared to 36.96% for females (Census of India, 2001 & 2011).

Table 6: Proportion of Employment for People with Disability in India across Genders as per Census 2001 and 2011 (%)

States	Census 2001			Census 2011		
	PWD Workers	PWD Male Workers	PWD Female Workers	PWD Workers	PWD Male Workers	PWD Female Workers
Arunachal Pradesh	61.91	72.03	41.76	44.69	51.47	36.96
Assam	32.66	45.47	16.28	33.91	46.00	19.93
Manipur	36.13	42.48	28.54	43.69	48.95	37.71
Meghalaya	40.93	48.33	32.53	37.74	43.77	31.04
Mizoram	46.75	52.62	39.65	36.27	43.18	28.14
Nagaland	43.87	48.88	37.78	51.92	55.87	47.19
Sikkim	49.95	58.46	39.12	49.04	57.22	39.51
Tripura	34.16	47.53	16.59	33.61	45.72	18.72
All-India	34.49	44.81	20.51	36.34	47.19	22.59

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001 & 2011

Regarding social groups, Scheduled Tribes (STs) among PWDs often exhibit better employment outcomes than Scheduled Castes (SCs). In 2011, the overall PWD WPR was 36.34%, for SC PWDs it was 38.25%, and for ST PWDs, it was 42.11%. This pattern is also observed in the North-Eastern states, where ST PWDs generally have higher WPRs than SC PWDs (Census of India, 2011).

Table 7: Proportion of Employment for Persons with Disabilities across Regions and Social Groups in India as per Census 2011 (%)

States	PWD Workers	PWD SC Workers	PWD ST Workers
Arunachal Pradesh	44.69	0.00	43.40
Assam	33.91	34.96	40.87
Manipur	43.69	41.53	58.20
Meghalaya	37.74	31.56	37.51
Mizoram	36.27	55.56	36.58
Nagaland	51.92	0.00	52.49
Sikkim	49.04	48.87	47.06
Tripura	33.61	32.25	37.55
All-India	36.34	38.25	42.11

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2011

Work-Participation Rate (WPR) by Specific Disability Type (Census 2011) - Work participation rates vary significantly across different disability types in the North-Eastern states (refer table 8).

- **Seeing Disability:** Nagaland (54.55%) and Sikkim (51.73%) reported the highest WPR for persons with visual disabilities in 2011, followed by Manipur (48.04%) and Arunachal Pradesh (45.12%).
- **Hearing Disability:** Nagaland (61.85%), Sikkim (60.66%), and Mizoram (51.94%) showed exceptionally high WPRs for hearing-disabled individuals.
- **Speech Disability:** Nagaland (56.28%) and Sikkim (50.10%) also had high WPRs for persons with speech disabilities.

Table 8: Proportion of Employment for Persons with Specific Disabilities across North-Eastern Regions of India as per Census 2011 (%)

States	Seeing Disability	Hearing Disability	Speech Disability	Movement Disability	Mental Retardation	Mental Illness	Any-Other Disability	Multiple Disability
Arunachal Pradesh	45.12	50.76	46.94	39.69	34.57	32.33	46.08	34.83
Assam	36.5	41.52	33.46	30.11	26.45	23.12	39.58	18.34
Manipur	48.04	50.58	42.62	34.41	32.07	27.42	46.06	26.74
Meghalaya	40.77	45.65	35.39	30.82	26.59	26.2	41.28	22.73
Mizoram	39.75	51.94	39.21	30.41	27.95	16.76	41.22	23.19
Nagaland	54.55	61.85	56.28	40.05	38.16	34.57	55.97	37.11
Sikkim	51.73	60.66	50.1	40.3	33.72	32.55	49.49	36.12
Tripura	35.58	46.23	32.21	32.22	22.87	19.01	39.09	14.81
All-India	36.34	47.22	36.53	29.59	22.12	19.86	38.25	20.55

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2011

- **Movement Disability:** Nagaland (40.05%) and Sikkim (40.30%) reported the highest WPRs for movement-disabled individuals within the region.
- **Mental Retardation:** Nagaland (38.16%), Arunachal Pradesh (34.57%), and Sikkim (33.72%) showed relatively higher WPRs for persons with mental retardation, though these rates are lower than for sensory or locomotor disabilities.
- **Mental Illness:** Nagaland (34.57%), Arunachal Pradesh (32.33%), and Sikkim (32.55%) had higher WPRs for persons with mental illness, but Mizoram had a notably low rate of 16.76%.
- **Any-Other Disability:** Nagaland (55.97%), Sikkim (49.49%), and Manipur (46.06%) reported high WPRs for persons in the "any-other" disability category.
- **Multiple Disability:** Nagaland (37.11%) and Sikkim (36.12%) had the highest WPRs for persons with multiple disabilities, but generally, this category showed the lowest employment rates across the region, reflecting the greater challenges associated with complex impairments.

Occupational Structure:

Nationally, PWD employment is highest in agriculture (48.4%), followed by the tertiary (service) sector (31.6%), and lowest in the secondary (industry) sector (20%). This contrasts with the overall Indian population, where agriculture employs 44%, industry 25%, and services 31%. This indicates a higher reliance on agriculture for PWDs, especially in rural areas, and a lower representation in the secondary sector. Self-employment is also more prevalent among PWDs (59.7%) compared to the general population (52.2%), while the proportion of regular wage or salaried employees is much lower for PWDs (15%) than for the general population (22.8%). This further underscores the informal nature of PWD employment.

Table 9: Proportion of Employment among People with Disability (Types of Workers) in India in 2001 and 2011 (%)

States	Census 2001			Census 2011		
	Main Workers	Marginal Workers	Non-Workers	Main Workers	Marginal Workers	Non-Workers
Arunachal Pradesh	55.57	6.34	38.09	34.45	10.24	55.31
Assam	24.65	8.01	67.34	23.78	10.13	66.09
Manipur	25.42	10.71	63.87	31.94	11.75	56.31
Meghalaya	32.72	8.21	59.07	28.44	9.29	62.26
Mizoram	35.54	11.20	53.25	29.31	6.96	63.73
Nagaland	37.27	6.60	56.13	40.42	11.50	48.08
Sikkim	39.70	10.26	50.05	33.31	15.73	50.96
Tripura	27.24	6.91	65.84	24.62	8.99	66.39
All-India	26.73	7.76	65.51	26.04	10.30	63.66

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 2001 and 2011

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

4.1. Synthesis of Major Findings

This research paper has systematically analyzed disability prevalence and employment conditions across the eight North-Eastern states of India.

The analysis of **disability prevalence** reveals a complex picture. India consistently reports significantly lower rates compared to global averages, a phenomenon widely attributed to underestimation stemming from societal stigma and methodological inconsistencies. Within the North-Eastern region, while some states like Sikkim and Arunachal Pradesh showed higher overall rates in 2001, many exhibited a decrease by 2011, positioning them among the lowest nationally. This apparent "improvement" is likely a statistical artifact rather than a genuine reduction, possibly influenced by changes in census methodology or persistent underreporting, particularly among women. The consistent male-dominated reporting of disability across the North-East further underscores the impact of socio-cultural factors on data accuracy. Notably, several North-Eastern states, such as Nagaland, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, and Meghalaya, exhibit a particularly high and increasing prevalence of hearing disability (Census of India, 2001 & 2011). The substantial proportion of "any-other" and "multiple" disability categories also highlights challenges in granular disability identification and the presence of complex impairments in the region.

Analysis of **employment conditions** (Census of India, 2001 & 2011) for PWDs reveals a

significant national disparity, with PWDs consistently exhibiting much lower work participation rates compared to the general population. A concerning trend towards informalization is evident, with increases in marginal workers rather than main workers among PWDs. Despite these national challenges, several North-Eastern states, including Nagaland, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, and Manipur, demonstrate surprisingly higher PWD work participation rates than the national average. Significant gender disparities persist, with female PWDs having much lower WPRs, though a slight increase was observed in 2011. The study's findings also indicate that ST PWDs often have better employment outcomes than SC PWDs, which is relevant for the North-East's tribal demographics. Employment outcomes vary by disability type, with sensory and locomotor disabilities generally showing better WPRs than mental or multiple disabilities. The relatively high WPR for the "any-other" disability category in some North-Eastern states suggests that this group might include milder, less-defined disabilities that are more easily integrated into the workforce, or highlights enumeration challenges.

4.2. Policy Implications and Way Forward

The findings of this study underscore the urgent need for a multi-pronged, region-specific approach to foster truly inclusive development for persons with disabilities in North-Eastern India.

Improving Data Collection and Reliability: The persistent underestimation of disability prevalence, particularly among women and in specific regions, necessitates a fundamental overhaul of data collection methodologies. Future census enumerations should adopt more comprehensive definitions of disability, aligning with international standards like the Bio-Psycho-Social model, to capture the full spectrum of impairments, activity limitations, and participation restrictions (ICF, 2001). Enumerators require rigorous training to overcome societal stigma and cultural biases that lead to underreporting. Involving PWDs themselves in the design and execution of surveys can significantly enhance data accuracy and reliability, ensuring that policies are based on a realistic understanding of the population's needs.

Developing Targeted Employment Strategies: Blanket policies are insufficient given the heterogeneity of disability and regional contexts. Employment strategies must be tailored to specific disability types and local economic realities. For the North-East, this means:

- **Leveraging Rural and Informal Sectors:** Recognizing the higher WPR among PWDs in rural areas and the prevalence of informal work, policies should focus on strengthening livelihoods in agriculture and traditional crafts, providing support, skill development, and market linkages for PWDs in these sectors.
- **Addressing Gender Disparities:** Specific interventions are needed to ensure that labor markets are inclusive for female PWDs, addressing barriers such as lack of accessible transportation, workplace discrimination, or limited formal sector opportunities.
- **Promoting Skill Development:** Targeted skill development programs, especially for sensory and locomotor disabilities, can enhance employability. For individuals with mental or multiple disabilities, specialized training and supported employment models are crucial to improve their participation rates.

Strengthening Policy Implementation and Governance: India's progressive Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act, 2016, must be implemented in letter and spirit (Ministry of Law and Justice, 2017). This requires:

- **Effective Enforcement of Reservations:** Ensuring that the 4% job reservation in government establishments is met, along with creating necessary infrastructure within organizations.
- **Streamlining Disability Certificates:** Simplifying and expediting the process of issuing disability certificates to ensure PWDs can access welfare schemes and benefits.
- **Adequate Financial Allocation:** Increasing and effectively utilizing financial resources allocated for the disability sector, ensuring funds reach the intended beneficiaries without leakage.
- **Inter-sectoral Coordination:** Fostering better coordination among government departments (health, education, social justice, labor) and with NGOs, self-help groups, and private sector entities to create a holistic support system.

By addressing these multifaceted challenges through targeted, evidence-based, and regionally sensitive interventions, North-Eastern India can move closer to realizing the full potential of its persons with disabilities and achieving truly inclusive and sustainable development.

References

- Addlakha, R.** (2007). How young people with disabilities conceptualize the body, sex and marriage in urban India: Four case studies. *Springer Science + Business Media New York*.
- Census of India.** (2001 & 2011). *Data on the disabled population*. Office of the Registrar General, Government of India.
- Deshpande, A.** (2017). Disability and disadvantage in India. In K. Kannabiran & A. Hans (Eds.), *India social development report 2016: Disability rights perspectives* (pp. 17–48). Council for Social Development; Oxford University Press.
- Elwan, A.** (1999). *Poverty and disability: A survey of the literature* (Vol. 9932). Social Protection Advisory Service, World Bank.
- Erb, S., & Harriss-White, B.** (2002). *Outcast from social welfare: Adult disability and institutional responses in India*. Books for Change.
- Ghai, A.** (2002). Disability in the Indian context: Post-colonial perspectives. In M. Corker & T. Shakespeare (Eds.), *Disability/Postmodernity: Embodying Disability Theory* (pp. 88–100). Continuum.
- Ghosh, N.** (2010). Embodied experiences: Being female and disabled. *Economic and Political Weekly*, April 24, 58–63.
- Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME).** (2018). *Findings from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017*. IHME.
- International Labour Organization.** (2007). *Equality at work: Tackling the challenges* (Global Report under the Follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work). ILO.
- International Labour Organization.** (2019). *Promoting employment opportunities for people with disabilities* (Vol. 1). ILO.
- Jeffery, R., & Singal, N.** (2008). Measuring disability in India. *Economic and Political Weekly*, March 22, 22–24.
- Jha, M.** (2016). Recognising differently abled as minority. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 51(36), September 3.
- Mehrotra, N.** (2006). Negotiating gender and disability in rural Haryana. *Sociological Bulletin*, 55(3), 406–426.
- Mehrotra, N.** (2013). *Disability, gender and state policy: Exploring margins*. Rawat Publications.
- Ministry of Law and Justice.** (2017). *The Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act, 2016. Gazette of India (Extra-Ordinary), 28 December, 2016*. Government of India.
- Mitra, S., & Sambamoorthi, U.** (2006). Employment of persons with disabilities: Evidence from the National Sample Survey. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 41(3), 199–203.
- Mitra, S., & Sambamoorthi, U.** (2008). Disability and the rural labor market in India: Evidence for males in Tamil Nadu. *World Development*, 36(5), 934–952. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2007.05.009>
- Mitra, S., Posarac, A., & Vick, B.** (2013). Disability and poverty in developing countries: A multidimensional study. *World Development*, 41, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2012.05.024>
- Mont, D.** (2007). *Measuring disability prevalence* (Social Protection Discussion Paper Series No. 0706). World Bank.
- National Sample Survey Office (NSSO).** (2018). *Persons with disabilities in India* (Report No. 583, NSS 76th Round). Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India.
- Oliver, M.** (1990). *The politics of disablement*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS).** (2018). *Annual report, July 2017–June 2018*. Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India.
- Roy, B.** (2021). Assessment and mapping of disability prevalence in India: A district-level analysis. *Demography India*, 50(1), 55–72.
- Singal, N.** (2013). *Disability, poverty and education* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315829531>
- Thomas, P.** (2005). *Disability, poverty and the Millennium Development Goals: Relevance, challenges and opportunities for DFID*. Disability Knowledge and Research Programme, DFID.
- United Nations.** (2006). *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD)*. United Nations, Geneva.
- World Health Organization.** (2001). *The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF)*. WHO.
- World Health Organization & World Bank.** (2011). *World report on disability*. WHO Press.

Valuation of Some Heavy Metal Estimation at 4-Sites of Saryu River, Bihar

Akhtar Parwez*
Dr. Md. Jamaluddin**

Abstract:

The Saryu River's water quality has been investigated over the course of one year(2021-2022), with a focus on heavy metal contamination by chromium (Cr), cadmium (Cd), zinc (Zn), and lead (Pb), at specific locations, Siswan, Chapra, and Dighwara. At these locations, where the river may soon be deteriorating, the produced data could be helpful in controlling the heavy metal pollution. One important source of fresh water is rivers. People are drawn to settle down close to any river because of the simple access to water. Even companies need water for a variety of purposes, including, oddly, disposing of the waste. Since garbage disposal is becoming a significant issue due to the rising urbanization and industrialization, rivers are the finest solution they can think of for these activities. There are dangerous heavy metals in these effluents.

Potential Sources of Heavy Metals in the Saryu River:

- 1. Industrial effluents: Industrial activities can release heavy metals into the river.*
- 2. Agricultural runoff: Fertilizers and pesticides can contain heavy metals that enter the river through runoff.*
- 3. Natural sources: Heavy metals can also occur naturally in the river due to geological processes.*

Introduction:

Water Pollution from industrial and urban waste undoubtedly has severe detrimental effects on water quality in the river basin, while simultaneously water runoff from rural settlements, livestock in closures and agricultural farms contributes to the issue. The river is likely to be sufficiently toxic to contaminate the surrounding water bodies and drainage systems. The runoff carries a substantial silt load that deteriorates water quality, creates navigational challenges, and poses other environmental hazards in the Saryu River.

The primary source of organic waste is sewage, which comprises feces, urine, kitchen refuse, and soil washes. It comprises a substantial quantity of both pathogenic and nonpathogenic bacteria. Domestic sewage in minimal amounts seldom causes issues, Malik D.S. and Maurya P.K., (2014). Liquid industrial wastes, along with acids, alkalis, and toxic substances such as cyanide, adversely impact aquatic life and compromise the self-purification mechanisms of water bodies. Surface runoff from agricultural fields can transport nitrogen and phosphate fertilizers, which enhance aquatic plant growth and subsequently decompose, contributing to the organic stress of streams. Pesticides and herbicides that enter water bodies may lethally impact aquatic life or cause cumulative poisoning, Patra e al.,(2010). Water quality has deteriorated in recent years due to increased drainage in rivers, resulting in varying concentrations of metal and organic pollutants. Monsoon elevates the pollution rate, while winter diminishes it. The coliform concentration in river water increases by up to 100-fold during the monsoon season.²⁵

Hazardous metal exposure, whether acute or long-term, can lead to distinct health defects. This becomes evident only after several years of exposure.119

* Research Scholar, Department of Chemistry, J.P. University, Chapra

** Associate Professor, Department of Chemistry, Gopeshwar College, Hathuwa, Gopalganj

Materials and Methods:

The water and sediment samples collected to gather detailed information about the aquatic ecosystem of the river Saryu from 4 locations as Matiyar (site 1), Alipur (site 2), Tajpur (site 3), Fulwaria (site 4), where pollution status is different during the study period. In the studied sites, the pollution level is in ascending order revealed in this research. The samples were taken during the winter, summer, and monsoon seasons in 2021-22 to evaluate the impact of monthly and seasonal variations on the physico-chemical properties of river water. Also, both grab and composite samples were taken from the middle stream, downstream from the sample station, to ensure uniformity in sample composition throughout the river section. Seasonally, composite soil samples collected for sediment analysis from a depth of 15-20 cm within the surface layer. The samples were taken using pre-cleaned 500 mL glass stopper bottles from the middle stream of the river at seven sites, specifically from water depths of 1 ft and 2 ft below the top surface of the river. The water samples were combined from various elevations in equal volumes and stored them in 500 mL glass bottles. The same procedure was used to collect water samples from all sites and in all seasons.

Analytical operations:

(1).Physical water factors

The seven sites were surveyed and fixed on the basis of topography and considering the human activities.

(2).Parameters of water Quality: This section addresses the materials used and the methodology employed throughout the investigation. The aquatic ecosystem has garnered significant attention from ecologists.

The current study employed standard methodologies as outlined in limnological literature to the greatest extent feasible. Initially, we gathered all pertinent historical and topographical information regarding the Saryu River from various specialized sources. We then conducted field trials and standardized analytical procedures.

Physical Parameters: This section addresses physical parameters. This encompasses water parameters, including temperature, color, odor, turbidity, conductivity, pH, and alkalinity. These parameters are significant as they indicate alterations in water quality due to variations in precipitation patterns, topography, vegetation, and anthropogenic activities. The physical parameters are as follows:

Results and Observations

The Saryu River flows through a number of villages, towns, and cities, including a few locations close to Bihar's Chapra district, before joining the Ganga River. Towns and cities contribute domestic and industrial wastewater run off to rivers. Additionally, untreated industrial wastewater is injected from a few small-scale businesses into the waterway. The research area includes a section of the river around the Chapra region, and Table 1-4 presents the results about the levels of heavy metals in the water.

Table 1: Heavy metals deposition at Site 1 in Saryu river during study period 2021-22

Heavy metals	Monsoon	Winter	Summer
Cr (mg/l)	0.008	0.010	0.013
Cd (mg/l)	0.035	0.045	0.034
Zn(mg/l)	0.024	0.032	0.034
Pb (mg/l)	0.09	0.17	0.24

Table 2: Heavy metals deposition at Site 2 in Saryu river during study period 2021-22

Heavy metal	Monsoon	Winter	Summer
Cr (mg/l)	0.016	0.019	0.018
Cd (mg/l)	0.034	0.044	0.033
Zn(mg/l)	0.025	0.033	0.032
Pb (mg/l)	0.86	0.18	0.26

Table 3: Heavy metals deposition at Site 3 in Saryu river during study period 2021-22

Heavy metals	Monsoon	Winter	Summer
Cr (mg/l)	0.017	0.019	0.022
Cd (mg/l)	0.034	0.044	0.038
Zn(mg/l)	0.024	0.036	0.035
Pb (mg/l)	0.87	0.18	0.26

Table 4: Heavy metals deposition at Site 4 in Saryu river during study period 2021-22

Heavy metals	Monsoon	Winter	Summer
Cr (mg/l)	0.071	0.088	0.090
Cd (mg/l)	0.035	0.064	0.033
Zn(mg/l)	0.024	0.034	0.037
Pb (mg/l)	0.98	0.19	0.27

Chromium (Cr⁺²) :

For the River Saryu, the concentration of chromium (Cr+2) varied from site to site and from season to season. As shown in Table 1-4, site 1 had a Cr value that was lowest during the monsoon season and highest during the summer, and it also showed an increase in the previous year of the study. The data revealed less deposition at site 1 and 2 moderate at site 3, and high at site 4 during the study period. The concentration is approximately at the point where it reaches WHO pollution standards.

Cadmium (Cd⁺²)

The Saryu river showed different concentration at selected sites and also seasonally variable during the study period. There 1 and 4 site showed similar Cadmium concentration, however 2 site has more Cadmium value perhaps due to ruler basin. The concentration is above WHO standards of pollution

Zinc (Zn⁺²)

In the Saryu, Zn concentration was less in site 1 and 2, while excessive deposition observed at site 3 during the study period. There is increasing pattern of deposition in preceding years at all sites as illustrated in Table 1-3. The spatial distribution is less in site 1, moderate in 2 and high in site 3 (Figure 3). The concentration is far less than WHO standards of pollution (Table 4).

Lead (Pb⁺²)

The Lead concentration ranged 0.008-0.013 in monsoon, 0.018-0.023 in winter and 0.030-0.035 in summer season of 2018-19, while 0.09-0.014 in monsoon, 0.019-0.024 in winter and 0.031-0.036 in summer season of 2019-20 (Table1-3). The spatial deposition is less in site 1, moderate in site 2 and high in site 3 during the study period (Figure 4). The concentration is about reach point to WHO standards of pollution (Table 4).

Discussion:

The quantity of Cr in water samples was determined to be below the WHO-established acceptable level of 0.05 mg/L (1996). The effluent's content rises when this chemical is used excessively (Bhalli and Khan, 2006). It is the main substance in the effluent that seeps through the sedimentary layers when it is discharged into water. Cr compounds serve as tanning agents in leather and as pigments, mordants, and colors in textiles. The sources of Cr emissions in surface waterways include road runoff from tire wear, paints, leather, laundry chemicals, municipal wastes, and corrosion of radiators, brake wires, and bushings. Depending on the species, Cr acute toxicity to invertebrates varies greatly (Jain, 2002).

Its toxicity to fish and invertebrates is not very severe. A small number of cases of Cd poisoning in humans after eating tainted fish have been documented. It is comparable in toxicity to

Pb and Cr, but less harmful to plants than Cu. Fish and invertebrates are similarly poisoned by it (Jain, 2002).

Conclusion:

The primary causes of the seasonal variations in the rivers' water quality and heavy metal deposition were watershed features and seasonal impacts. These differences were seen as a result of the varying amounts of sewage and industrial trash that were dumped into the river at various points along the route. The pollution level along the Saryu River is not very severe, according to current experimental data, but the basin's growing population load might eventually inflict irreversible ecological devastation that would be covered up by short-term economic success. The experimental results indicate that in order to enhance industrial waste water treatment techniques, it is necessary to put in place suitable policies, plans, and shared goals.

References:

1. Malik D.S. and Maurya P.K., (2014). Heavy metal concentration in water, sediment, and tissues of fish species (*Heteropneustes fossilis* and *Puntius ticto*) from Kali River, India. *Toxicological and Environmental Chemistry*, 96 (8):1195-1206. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02772248>.
2. Patra A.P., Patra J.K., Mahapatra N. K., Das S. and Swain G.C.,(2010); Seasonal Variation in Physico-chemical Parameters of Chilika Lake after Opening of New Mouth near Gabakunda, Orissa, India, *J. World Journal of Fish and Marine Sciences* 2(2): pp.109-117 .
3. Zale A., Jerry D., Roberse L., Lochmiller D. and Burrowoughs J.(1990); Limnological conditions associated with summer mortality of stripped bass in key stone reservoir. USA. *Trans. Amn. Fish. Soc.* 119(1): 72-77.
5. Astuti R.D.P., Mallongi A., Choi K., Amiruddin R., Hatta M., Tantrakarnapa K.,and Rauf A.U.,(2022); Health risks from multi-route exposure of Potentially toxic elements in a coastal community: a probabilistic risk approach in Pangkep Regency, Indonesia. *Geomat Nat Haz and Risk*, 13 (1):pp. 705-735.
6. WHO (1996): Guidelines for Drinking Water, V. 2, Recommendations World Health, Organization, Geneva. Bhalli JA and Khan MK (2006): Pollution level analysis in tannery effluents collected from three different cities of Punjab, Pakistan *Journal of Biological Sciences*, 9(3), 418-421.
7. Jain CK (2002): A Hydro-chemical study of mountainous watershed: The Ganga India, *Water Research* 36: 1262-1272. 78



Changing Dimensions of Caste and Electoral Politics in Bihar (From 1967 to 2020)

Jyoti Singh*
Dr. Pawan Kumar Singh**

Abstract

This paper presents a detailed analysis of the historical and contemporary implications of caste in electoral politics in Bihar. It focuses on socio-political changes since the implementation of the Mandal Commission, the rise of various caste groups and their changing political equations. In particular, the political implications of the recent caste census and its potential impact on the representation of marginalised sections will also be assessed. Bihar politics has long been known to be interwoven with caste equations. Here caste serves not only as a social identity but also as an important factor determining electoral outcomes. Since independence, the role of caste in Bihar has constantly changed, from the dominance of upper castes to the rise of backward castes and then the political empowerment of extremely backward castes and Dalits. This paper will explore these changing dimensions, trying to understand how caste identity influences the strategy of political parties, ticket distribution, coalition building and ultimately voter behaviour. It also analyses the political instability in Bihar at that time, including shifts in the balance of power between the leading and backward castes, the rise of caste-based activism, and the influence of money and power.

Keyword : Caste, Electoral Politics, Mandal Commission, Social Identity, Political Empowerment, Voting Behaviour

Introduction

Between 1967 and 2020, the aspects of caste and electoral politics underwent a significant shift in Bihar, a state known for its complex social structures. During this time, the political landscape is radically altered by the rise of the backward and extremely backward classes (OBCs and EBCs), which replaces the upper castes' long-standing domination in the post-independence era. An important turning point occurred in 1967 when Bihar saw the establishment of its first non-Congress government, which marked the beginning of the conventional power structure's fissures and the increasing assertiveness of other caste groupings. Before this, upper-caste politicians dominated the political discourse, and backward castes and Scheduled Castes, despite their numerical strength, frequently had only symbolic representation. But after 1967, backward castes began to gradually recognize their demographic potential, which sparked demonstrations against upper-caste control. The 1990 adoption of the Mandal Commission's recommendations, which established reservations for OBCs in government employment and educational institutions, greatly accelerated this trend. Prominent OBC political figures like Lalu Prasad Yadav and Nitish Kumar rose to prominence as a result of this act, which not only formalized the need for social justice but also effectively galvanized these populations.

In the decades that followed, caste-based coalitions interacted dynamically, conventional vote banks broke up, and new political formations emerged. Even though caste remained a major factor in election results, concerns about governance and development also started to take center stage, especially as politicians emerged who pledged a change from identity politics to performance-based politics. In order to show how Bihar's electoral politics have developed into a complex tapestry woven with threads of historical caste realities and modern political aspirations, this introduction will

* Ph.D. Scholar, Central University of South Bihar

** Assistant Professor, Department of Political Studies, Central University of South Bihar

examine the changing nature of caste mobilization, the effects of significant policy changes, the rise and fall of various political coalitions, and the shifting voter behavior.

First phase: 1967–1990

Significant political instability occurred in Bihar from 1967 until the Emergency situation in 1975. The higher Other Backward Classes (OBCs), including the Yadavs, Koeris, and Kumris, demanded socioeconomic changes and emerged as change agents in the early 1960s when the dominant castes' hold over their ancestral lands started to wane. These backward classes were "more assertive" about their socioeconomic rights by 1968¹.

These new groups were not welcome to share political power with the dominant castes, who were "primarily allied with the Congress." The OBC population was further strengthened by the socialist demand for reservations for the backward castes in public employment. Even so, Scheduled Castes (SCs) and lower OBCs continued to live in poverty and frequently "worked as landowners or tenants who were dependent on the landlords and new landowners." In the meantime, "they united against the lower OBCs and BCs" as power struggles between the dominant landowning leading castes and the increasingly powerful Yadavs persisted².

A coalition known as the United Legislative Party (SVD) was formed during the 1967 elections by opposition parties such as the Jan Sangh, the United Front, and the United Socialist Party (SSP). This political partnership resulted in Kapoori Thakur being appointed Deputy Chief Minister and Mahamaya Prasad Singh, a former Congress member, being the first non-Congress Chief Minister of Bihar. This alliance's successful trial also extended to Uttar Pradesh. The OBC political movement was further bolstered by Chaudhary Charan Singh's disassociation from the Congress and his participation in peasant politics.

The SVD government did not last long, though. After a brief period in power, Satish Prasad Sinha was overthrown by Dehri Prasad Mandal, who, with the backing of 40 MLAs from various castes, founded the Shoshit Dal (SD). The first Dalit chief minister of Bihar, Bhola Paswan Shastri, was subsequently elected by the Democratic Congress Party (LTC), which was founded by former Congress chief minister Binod Nand Jha and a number of Dalit MLAs. However, governor's control was established after his government, like many others of this era, quickly fell.

The legislature was hung after the 1969 elections. The first OBC chief minister, Harihar Prasad Singh, held office for less than four months. Once more, Bhola Paswan Shastri was appointed chief minister, but two weeks later, his cabinet fell, ushering in a new period of presidential control. Yadav politician Daroga Prasad Rai was named chief minister by the Congress in 1970, but he was quickly replaced by a candidate from a prominent caste because of factionalism inside the party. When the united party eventually succeeded in overthrowing the Congress, Kapoori Thakur was appointed chief minister. Even though the backward castes were not yet fully organized, this time of political unrest suggested that Bihar's power structure might be shifting.

Meanwhile, frequent leadership changes and the recurring imposition of Governor's rule demonstrated the growing dissatisfaction within the Congress. According to Kachchh, "The Congress eventually benefited from the political unrest of the late 1960s, regaining power in 1972 under Kedar Pandey's leadership." But it was no longer the dominating party it had been before; under Jayaprakash Narayan's (JP) leadership, anti-Congress feeling increased and the backward classes became widely politically mobilized. Later, Kapoori Thakur was appointed Chief Minister after the Janata Party gained a resounding win in the 1977 elections. In the Bihar Legislative Assembly, the representation of backward castes rose from 34.5% to 38.5% over this time, while that of leading castes decreased from 55.1% in 1967 to 48.6% in 1977³.

¹ Januzzi, F. T. (1974). *Agrarian Crisis in India: The Case of Bihar*, Austin, University of Texas Press.

² Jha, S. N. (1970). *Caste in Bihar Politics*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 5(7).

³ Kachroo, J. L., & Kachroo, V. (1999). *General Sociology*. Cosmos BookHive Pvt. Ltd.

The Yadavs and other OBCs gained more political prominence as a result of the decline of the upper castes, particularly the Brahmins, who were able to maintain some influence. Puddendra pointed out that the Janata Party's power structure saw a dramatic shift when backward castes secured a majority in the Cabinet under Kapoori Thakur's leadership.

There were still a number of significant issues in spite of the backward castes' increasing political clout. Singh emphasized the necessity of land reform, but powerful caste groups opposed the administration, which kept the political climate unstable. A more political atmosphere resulted from serious fractures within the Janata Party and dissatisfaction among prominent caste MLAs. Despite its brief tenure, the central government's Janata government established the Mandal Commission, which made an effort to investigate the socioeconomic circumstances of the backward classes. The Commission's findings, which advocated for strict restrictions, sparked a national caste debate and increased awareness of caste.

Second Phase: Post-1990

Bihar was deeply ingrained in the type of political representation and struggle that began in the country's northern states following the Mandal movement. Similar to other states in the nation, Bihar's politics have historically been dominated by the main Congress. Bihar was governed by Congress for many years, till 1990. In contrast, the state only experienced non-Congress rule for a brief period of time five times. The circumstances surrounding the post-Mandal movement altered the state's political landscape; socialist politics and political representation were no longer the same. During this time, regional political philosophies and leaders with broad support bases formed, granting rights to groups within the society, including Muslims, Dalits, JDU (in undivided Bihar), and other backward classes (OBCs). The emergence of Mandal politics caused the state's Congress to deteriorate. Following the Mandal movement in the state, the first assembly election was held in 1995. From then on, the Congress's base of support in the state dwindled with each election, and today the party, which has been in power for more than 125 years, is barely a presence in the state.

"Caste dominated political discourse in Bihar, influencing party support" throughout the second phase. states that caste coalitions and alliances are common in Bihar's political history. With the political elite moving from upper castes to backward castes, the Congress system completely collapsed in the 1990s⁴.

Widespread rioting followed the 1978 implementation of the Mangallal Commission report, which sought to solve the backward caste issue and ultimately brought down Kapuri Thakur's government. Important figures including Lalu Prasad Yadav, Nitish Kumar, Sushil Modi, and Ram Vilas Paswan also rose to prominence during this time⁵."

An important turning point occurred in the 1990s when the Mandal Commission's recommendations were put into practice, escalating caste tensions and causing violent battles between factions supporting and opposing reservations. Both Nitish Kumar and Lalu Prasad Yadav were vocal advocates of reservation politics at this time. The caste system was abolished in favor of a democracy with contemporary legal and political structures. Caste has evolved into a crucial tool in the current system for disadvantaged people to obtain social, political, and financial resources. Caste has no place in democratic politics in Nehru's vision of contemporary India, demonstrating that social hierarchy has not been eradicated by "liberal" democracy. A more precise differentiation between "caste-social" and "caste-political" is necessary due to the swift expansion of caste's influence in both the political and economic arenas. The term "caste-social" describes the tight social order upheld by

⁴ Ullekh, N. P., & Mishra, A. K. (2013, July 11). *Caste remains an integral part of Bihar's political landscape*. *The Economic Times*

⁵ Ahmad, S. (2010). *Nitish's victory: caste in a different mould*. *TwoCircles.net*.
http://twocircles.net/2010nov27/nitish%E2%80%99svictory_castedifferentmould.html#.VYvcfRugqko

the customary hierarchy that was formed in antiquity and the Middle Ages⁶. Caste and class increasingly become less distinguishable by the early 20th century. Practices like untouchability and economic reliance dominated this component of caste, making social mobility nearly impossible for marginalized populations. While the majority of the untouchable population engaged in protests against British rule or agricultural labor, only a small number of leaders from marginalized communities gained prominence during the liberation struggle, which was largely led by the Congress Party. The caste system was still strictly regulated. The core social order, which was still dominated by upper caste landlords, was barely altered by movements centered on land and wage rights, while "caste socialists" fought by trying to emulate upper caste habits (a process known as "Sanskritization"). When "caste social" gave way to "caste political" in the 1990s, there was a dramatic change. As a result of this change, the number of other backward classes (OBCs) holding political office increased significantly, surpassing the representation of upper castes, especially among groups like the Yadavs, Kumi, and Koris. Thus, caste developed into a potent instrument for political self-expression⁷.

Social mobility was significantly impacted by this political empowerment. "Class struggles are complex by nature, but caste became a very simple tool for political mobilization." In order to counter the upper castes' electoral supremacy, "caste politics" promoted a caste-based fight by highlighting caste dynamics within the class. In this conflict, the idea of honor became crucial. The goal of control and power over resources replaced the ancient hierarchy as the main emphasis of caste politics. Prosperous peasants dominated the backward caste hierarchy until the early 1980s. Kulaks, a new Dalit group, started to appear. Election-related repercussions befell political parties that did not acknowledge their significance. In particular, the Congress party found it difficult to form an alliance with the backward classes. This was due to a number of factors, including the fact that "there was little opposition in early elections; and socialist movements were actively attracting OBC support." Up until 1990, the party maintained an alliance with the landowning class and upper castes, which was uncontested⁸.

Following the collapse of the Congress Party in 1990, Rajnikanth of Bihar achieved a significant victory in the March 8 elections, which became known as the "Yudhal Democratic Revolution⁹." "The party saw its failure to fulfill its post-independence promises of land reform and social justice, and opted to maintain the existing social order". New caste Malharshahs emerged in the 1980s as "land armies" to quell caste movements and stifle those of peasants and workers who were marginalized. It is said that the Congress has become estranged from the party and the people as a result of these new party, fraternal, and social programs¹⁰.

In 1990, Dharmik Prasad Yadav led the formation of the Janata Dal. As a new party, the Yadav, Kumhari, and Maratha OBC groupings were established. Although Kori was a major player in this alliance, internal conflicts quickly surfaced, particularly following the creation of Samta Pati from Vishesh Deep, whose factory later became Samagra¹¹. The OBCs were united and successful in

⁶ Kumar, S. (1999). *A New Phase of Backward Caste Politics in Bihar: The Decline of the Janata Dal*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 34(34-35), 2472–2480.

⁷ Jha, M. K., & Pushpendra. (2012). *The Governance of Caste and the Management of Conflicts: Bihar, 1990–2011*. Mahanirban Kolkata Research Group. <http://www.mcrgr.ac.in/PP48.pdf>

⁸ Kumar, S. (1999). *A New Phase of Backward Caste Politics in Bihar: The Decline of the Janata Dal*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 34(34-35), 2472–2480.

⁹ Jha, M. K., & Pushpendra. (2012). *The Governance of Caste and the Management of Conflicts: Bihar, 1990–2011*. Mahanirban Kolkata Research Group. <http://www.mcrgr.ac.in/PP48.pdf>

¹⁰ Gupta, S. (2001). *New panchayats and subaltern resurgence*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 36(29), 2742–2744. <http://www.epw.in/commentary/bihar-new-panchayats-and-subaltern-resurgence.html>

¹¹ Alam, S. (2014). *Modi wave or the end of the politics of social justice*. *Panjab University Research Journal: Social Sciences*, 22(2), 192–200.

the 1991 elections¹². Additionally, this solidarity strengthened the coalition between different OBC groups.

Under the Congress party's influence in the 1990s, Mahapuru Narangwat advocated for all OBCs to have political empowerment. In contrast to the riots that occurred during the Congress' rule, Lalu Prasad Yadav brought social as well as political stability during his time. Popular and marginalized groups prioritized security, roads, and electricity over things like love. To the people, the administration paid respect. "This has given these communities a sense of security and hope that the spring will once more be more peaceful and prosperous."¹³

Known affectionately as "Buddha Nayad," he works to carry out the wishes of the populace. In coalition with the Congress, the Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP), and the Samata Party, his Rashtriya Janata Dal (RJD) won the 1996 and 1999 elections. At the end of his reign, the sculptures of the king were being demolished, and temples and holy artifacts were lying around like a landfill. "Lalu Prasad became a suspect after the fodder scam was revealed, which led to intense political pressure and calls for his resignation." As a result, he was compelled to leave the Janata Dal's Rajya Sabha position and start the RJD¹⁴.

The BJP and Nitish Kumar forged an alliance following the 1995 legislative elections. Despite ideological differences, the goal of this partnership was to oppose the RJD's "jungle raj" by putting up a united front for "development" and "good governance." Despite the alliance's initial difficulties in forming the government in 2000, the RJD managed to capture the largest share of OBC votes ever. However, the RJD lost badly in the elections that followed, and the Yadav community's support for the party drastically decreased, especially as a result of the emergence of rival parties led by Nitish Kumar¹⁵.

Though he soon had to deal with corruption charges connected to the fodder scandal, Lalu Prasad was given another chance to govern after Nitish Kumar was unable to garner majority support following the elections. The RJD's triumph in the 2004 Lok Sabha elections can be ascribed to its strategic partnership with the Congress and the Lok Janshakti Party (LJP), which took advantage of the Yadav and Muslim voting bases to control the political landscape. Internal conflicts within the RJD, however, caused the party to lose seats in the 2005 assembly elections, while the JD(U) significantly increased its support, particularly among Kummi and Kori voters. The political process has become more complex due to Nitish Kumar's revival of the upper castes. Additionally, he has given the backward castes the ability to handle their own issues. Additionally, he started initiatives that benefited the Muslim community, which increased their popularity¹⁶.

A number of development projects were started by Nitish Kumar's administration, which helped him gain more support. Renovating Nalanda University, establishing the Mahalakshmi Commission, setting up information contact centers, and enacting a 50% reservation for women in local government are some of his noteworthy accomplishments.

Kumar's decision to back Jitan Ram Manjhi as chief minister during the 2014 Lok Sabha elections backfired, leading to Manjhi's removal from office. To offset the BJP's influence in the 2015 assembly elections, Kumar forged a broad coalition with the RJD and the Congress. The incumbent Kumar was re-elected as chief minister as a result of this alliance's strong electoral performance, but

¹² Kumar, S. (1999). *A New Phase of Backward Caste Politics in Bihar: The Decline of the Janata Dal*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 34(34-35), 2472–2480.

¹³ Jha, M. K., & Pushpendra. (2012). *The Governance of Caste and the Management of Conflicts: Bihar, 1990–2011*. Mahanirban Kolkata Research Group. <http://www.mcrp.ac.in/PP48.pdf>

¹⁴ Hauser, W. (1997). *The 1996 general elections in Bihar: politics, administrative atrophy, and chaos*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 32(41).

¹⁵ Jagannathan, R. (2013). *Why the BJP-JDU split will be good for India*.

Firstpost. <http://www.firstpost.com/politics/why-a-bjp-jdu-split-will-be-good-for-india-867775.html>

¹⁶ Kumar, S. (1999). *A New Phase of Backward Caste Politics in Bihar: The Decline of the Janata Dal*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 34(34-35), 2472–2480.

he later severed ties with the BJP due to accusations of corruption against the RJD leader. The dynamics of caste politics in Bihar have generally changed significantly, influenced by shifting coalitions, voter demographics, and leadership philosophies that continuously impact the political climate of the state. The former stated that the potential for a solid alliance between all castes and marginalized classes should be a major component of Bihar's future political vision, in addition to the rise of "development politics." Such a partnership will put the notion of housing displaced individuals from underdeveloped social backgrounds to the test. The cycle of turmoil is helping agriculture. The 'sub-national renaissance' has reached a new phase with strong support for leaders like Lalu Prasad Yadav and Nitish Kumar, but fundamental tensions are still firmly ingrained.

The complicated dynamics of caste and class politics in India can be used to question and modify neoliberal development, as the case of Bihar illustrates. Gupta goes on to say that "the complexities associated with the 'politics of development' in Bihar are likely to persist, even though Nitish Kumar's earlier vision of development has encountered its contradictions." The electoral mandate makes it abundantly evident that social and political circumstances must be considered in development, necessitating the implementation of policies that cater to the various requirements of various castes and classes¹⁷.

These groups have frequently voted for parties that represent demands for social justice that go beyond words in places where radical left-wing alternatives are present. The outcomes of the election also demonstrate how tolerant Indian democracy is on both a political and ideological level. Despite its complicated past, voters in Bihar, especially those from the peasant and Dalit communities, have selected a party that stands for social justice and progress. The traditional narrative that distinguishes caste from development is called into question by this change. The interaction between "caste" and "development" must be critically examined by academics, scholars, politicians, administrative officials, and the media in order to completely comprehend the significance and complexity of these election outcomes. Significant changes will occur in Bihar's electoral politics between 2019 and 2024. Longtime Chief Minister and JD(U) leader Nitish Kumar continued to be a significant figure in this political sphere. But things changed with the 2020 Bihar Assembly elections. The BJP became the dominating force in the alliance and outnumbered the JD(U) in seats, shifting the balance of power away from the NDA.



¹⁷ Gupta, S. (2001). *New panchayats and subaltern resurgence*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 36(29), 2742–2744. <http://www.epw.in/commentary/bihar-new-panchayats-and-subaltern-resurgence.html>

A Comparative Study of Metacognition among Male Female School Students

Firoj Ansari*

Abstract

*This study mainly focuses on metacognition of male and female school students. For this, purpose 150 male school students and 150 female school students of Bihar were purposively selected and they were administered Meta Cognition Inventory (MCI). t-test was applied to analyze the data. The results as follows: A significant negative relationship between self-esteem and anxiety of private school students was obtained. The main purpose of the present study was to assess the level of metacognition of male and female school students. The finding suggests that females had significantly greater amount of **metacognition** than males. This would help in promoting self-regulated learning and academic competency of the student. It would also help students to identify and solve problems in learning situations through metacognitive awareness, which subsequently helps in preventing failures and improving academic achievement. The present research covers both psychology and education, hence interdisciplinary in nature and value.*

Key words: Self-esteem, Anxiety, Private and Government school students

Introduction:

The role of the students is to learn how to bear the storms of life especially at understanding and critical thinking level stage for making country proud at international level. Every day everyone confront with new challenges due to advancement of technology, professionalism and globalism. So, problems have become our part of life and solving them have become our duty for stretching ourselves and leading a good life. Basically, the problems help person to find out their true potential, but it is only possible if they possess only a right kind of mindset. More unfavourable is the problem, higher the level of thinking is required. Challenging problems require a series of solution attempts, that can be better understood with the help of mindset. The attitude of an individual towards life, matters a lot. The solution of any problem can be finding with the help of proper mindset. At secondary level, with the availability of number of courses in the educational field, the choice of the students for selecting the academic stream is becoming more confusing because most of the students aim to succeed at academic tests. School adolescent students at secondary level are worried about the better adjustment in the future complex society. Some students are aware about their abilities and they know what they have to do in their life and on the other side some students are unaware about their true potential and don't know what they want to achieve in their life.

Metacognition:

Metacognition is often simply defined as —thinking about thinking. In actuality, defining metacognition is not that simple. Although the term has been part of the vocabulary of educational psychologists for the last couple of decades and the concept for as long as humans have been able to reflect on their cognitive experiences, there is much debate over exactly what metacognition is. One reason for this confusion is the fact that there are several terms currently used to describe the same basic phenomenon (e.g., self-regulation, executive control), or an aspect of that phenomenon (e.g., meta-memory) and these terms are often used interchangeably in the literature. While there are some distinctions between definitions (see Van ZileTamsen, 1994, for a full discussion), all emphasize the role of executive processes in the overseeing and regulation of cognitive processes.

The term metacognition is most often associated with John Flavell, (1979). According to Flavell (1979, 1987), metacognition consists of both metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive

* Research Scholar, JPU

experiences or regulation. Metacognitive knowledge refers to acquired knowledge about cognitive processes, knowledge that can be used to control cognitive processes. Flavell further divides metacognitive knowledge into three categories: knowledge of person variables, task variables and strategy variables.

It has been over 30 years since the notion of metacognition was introduced into the field of psychology by John Flavell in 1979. Research activity in metacognition began with John Flavell, who is considered to be the 'father of the field' and thereafter a considerable amount of empirical and theoretical research dealing with metacognition can be registered.

There are three main areas of research in which metacognition have prominent role: developmental psychology, with emphasis on theory of mind; experimental psychology, focusing mainly on meta-memory; and educational psychology, with emphasis on self-regulated learning. However, there is also significant work in neuropsychology that connects metacognition with executive functions and prefrontal brain areas. Another line of research connects metacognition with social cognition, as well as with co-regulation and other regulation of behaviour and cognition. More recent developments include the study of metacognition in clinical psychology.

The variety of areas and perspectives through which metacognition is being studied is due to the fact that metacognition is inextricably woven with awareness of mental states and with consciousness. In humans, it is at the roots of every day memory and of scientific thinking, as well as of social interactions that require awareness of one's and others' thinking.

Metacognition is a concept that has been used to refer to variety of epistemological processes. Metacognition essentially means cognition about cognition; that is, it refers to second order cognitions: thoughts about thoughts, knowledge about knowledge, or reflections about actions. So if cognition involves perceiving, understanding, remembering and so forth, then metacognition involves thinking about one's own perceiving, understanding, remembering etc. these various cognitions about cognitions can be labeled 'meta perception', 'meta-comprehension' and 'meta memory' with 'metacognition' remaining the super ordinate term.

In the present study the term Metacognition refers to the —Knowledge and Control of own cognitive system which is composite of two main components Metacognitive Knowledge and Metacognitive Regulation. The Metacognitive Knowledge includes three sub processes that facilitate the reflective aspect of metacognition; namely declarative knowledge, (i.e., knowledge about self and about strategies), procedural knowledge (i.e., knowledge about how to use strategies) and conditional knowledge (i.e., knowledge about when and why to use strategies.) Metacognitive Regulation includes a number of sub processes that facilitate the control aspect of learning. These Four component skills of regulation are planning, monitoring, self-control and self-evaluation.

Significant of the study:

The research findings would provide knowledge about interrelationships among metacognition and the examined educational perspectives . This would not only contribute to the knowledge base of metacognition but may also help researchers to develop programs that promote metacognitive learning. The findings of this study may encourage teachers to critically examine the interrelations of metacognition with the selected variables and also facilitates the promotion of general metacognitive development of their students. With respect to students, the findings regarding relations between metacognition may motivate them to develop and use metacognitive skills and strategies in educational contexts. This would help in promoting self-regulated learning and academic competency of the student. It would also help students to identify and solve problems in learning situations through metacognitive awareness, which subsequently helps in preventing failures and improving academic achievement. The present research covers both psychology and education, hence interdisciplinary in nature and value.

The present study specifically has the following aims:

To see the difference between metacognition of male and female school students.

Hypothesis:

There would be significant difference between metacognition of male and female school students.

Sample:

Data were collected on a total of 300 school students from different school of Bihar. Out of which 150 were boys and 150 were girls. Further the age group of the students was 14 to 18 years of age. A random sampling technique was used to select the respondents of the study.

Research Design:

In the present study a two groups design (male and female) was used. Present study were to examine the difference between level of metacognition of male and female school students. So, Therefore, two group design is best suitable in this research.

Tools for Data Collection:**(1) Description of Meta Cognition Inventory (MCI)**

Meta Cognition Inventory (MCI) developed by Punita Govii was used in the present study. This test available in both mediums, i.e. in English and Hindi. This scale consists of 30 items. The reliability of the test was determined by two methods : Cronbach's alpha coefficient and test-retest method. For this purpose, the final draft of the test was administered to a sample of 700 college students studying in different Universities. With the help of resulting scores alpha coefficient was calculated which was found to be 0.85. For computing reliability coefficient by test-retest method, the test was again administered to 300 college students out of the same 700 students and the test-retest reliability was calculated by finding out the correlation coefficient between scores obtained on test and retest. The value of reliability coefficient was found to be 0.82. To ascertain the validity of the test, the draft test was given to a panel of experts consisting of 20 eminent experts of different universities. Each expert was asked to indicate the degree to which each item assessed the metacognition of the respondents. The degree of agreement of experts on each item indicated the validity of the test. Corrections were made in the test items in accordance with their suggestions. According to their views, the test possesses satisfactory content validity.

Results and discussion:

Hypothesis : There would be significant difference between achievement motivation of male and female school students

Table : Means, SDs, and SED and results of t-ratio of Male and Female school students on metacognition

Variables	Group	N	Mean	SD	SED	t	P
Metacognition	Male	150	67.27	4.955	1.193	3.631	<.001
	Female	150	71.60	4.264			

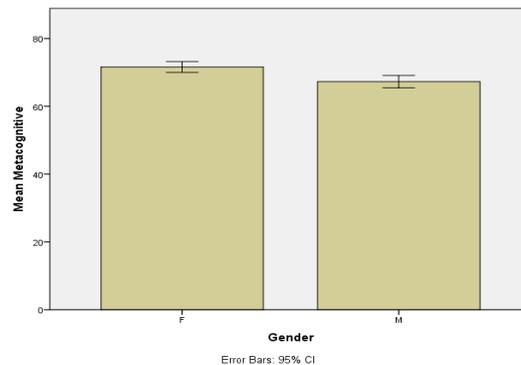


Figure: Graphic representation of mean metacognition of two (male and female) groups of school students.

From the results given in the above table it appears that the mean **metacognition** score of two groups male and female were found to be 67.27 and 71.60 respectively. It means that female school students have obtained more **metacognition** than male school students. The standard deviations for male and female school students were 4.955 and 4.264 respectively. The t-ratio between the two means came to be 3.631 which was significant beyond .01 level. These findings suggest that females had significantly greater amount of **metacognition** than males. Hence, the hypothesis-1 which states that “there would be significant difference between metacognition of male and female school students” was proved true by the finding of the study.

A comparison between male and female students shows that female students use Problem-Solving Strategies more than male students. This finding contradicts the review by Cantrell and Carter (2009) in which male students use Problem-Solving Strategies more than female students. Both male and female students use Global Reading Strategies the least. Female students apply the Global Reading Strategies more than males. This result is contradicted by the research by Fenfang (2010) that found that males are more adventurous and bolder compared to females which are more careful and considerate in their reading. By that reason, males are more ready to explore the text as shown in Global Reading Strategies. This explanation will support the report of Logan and Johnston (2010) that is males and females performance on reading comprehension depends on few factors including they are more suitable in different type of reading instruction and learning environment.

Conclusion:

The main purpose of the present study was to assess the level of metacognition of male and female school students. The findings suggest that females had significantly greater amount of **metacognition** than males.

References:

- Cantrell, S. C., & Carter, J. C. (2009). Relationships among learner characteristics and adolescents' perceptions about reading strategy use. *Reading Psychology, 30*(3), 195-224.
- Fen-Fang Chen, R. N., Shu-Yueh Chen, R. N., & Hsiang-Chu Pai PhD, R. N. (2010). Self-Reflection and Critical Thinking: The Influence of Professional Qualifications on Registered Nurses.
- Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive-developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist, 34*(10), 906-911. <http://doi.dx.10.1037/0003-066X.34.10.906>.
- Flavell, J. H. (1987). Speculations about the nature and development of metacognition. In F. E. Weinert & R. H. Kluwe (Eds.), *Metacognition, Motivation and Understanding* (pp. 21-29). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Govil, P. (2003). Metacognitive Inventory (MCI). Agra: National Psychological Corporation.
- Logan, S., & Johnston, R. (2010). Investigating gender differences in reading. *Educational review, 62*(2), 175-187.
- Van Zile-Tamsen, C. M. (1994). The role of motivation in metacognitive selfregulation.



A Strategic Analysis of the Iran–Israel Conflict and its Implications for Middle East Security and Global Diplomacy

Dr. Sunil Kumar Sahani*

Abstract

This research contains a conceptual evaluation of the Iran-Israel conflict, how it has evolved over the years, a partnership that started as a pragmatic one during the rule of the Shah to its current state as one of the most ideological and geopolitical conflicts in the world. It reviews how the historical developments, revolution ideologies, and the clash of security doctrines has led to their relationship into a multi-tiered confrontation, the proxy wars, the weapons of advanced missiles, and the nuclear brinkmanship. The study goes further to discuss the spillover of the conflict to Syria, Lebanon, and Gaza, the influence of the conflict on new Arab-Israeli alignments and influences by the world powers including United States, Russia and China. The study has provided the larger implications of the conflict on the issue of nuclear nonproliferation, global energy security and international diplomatic stability by incorporating comparative military evaluation and plotting power blocs in the region. It ends by laying out possible de-escalation options, such as renewed nuclear treaties, crisis communication mechanisms, and confidence-building measures in steps, and says that to end this rivalry is essential to the peace in the Middle East as well as to world interests on a larger scale.

Keywords: Iran–Israel Conflict, Middle East, Nuclear Proliferation, Proxy Wars, Regional Security, Global Diplomacy.

1. Introduction

Iran-Israel is one of the most important and long-lasting conflicts in the Middle East. This enmity, unlike territorial disputes or economic rivalry, is linked to other governments' ideologies, strategic uncertainty, and interests. This multidimensional battle has affected the internal discourse of the two nations, the geopolitical stability of the area, and more throughout the decades. Iran-Israel relations changed drastically. Both Iran and Israel as opponents of Arab nationalism and Soviet penetration, the two nations had strategic partnerships during the Pahlavi government before 1979. However, the 1979 Islamic Revolution altered everything. Iran, rebuilt as an Islamic Republic under Ayatollah Khomeini, adopted an anti-Israeli ideology and based its foreign policy on helping the downtrodden against perceived adversaries, namely Israel and the US. This ideological split has been a recurring theme in the war.

Modern competitiveness is fueled by complex strategy. Iran is creating several fronts against Israel via proxy organizations in Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Yemen, and Gaza. Israel maintains an aggressive deterrence and preemption strategy against Iranian assets and associated militias to prevent encirclement and maintain its military superiority. The shadow struggle between these two regimes' bombings, cyber assaults, and intelligence activities has created instability in various arenas, making small disputes easily escalate into large-scale conflicts. The Iran-Israel conflict affects the world outside the area. It affects US, Russian, and Chinese policy, energy market stability, and the international non-proliferation system. With Iran's nuclear goals still worrying Israel and its western allies, a bigger battle is possible. This study examines this conflict's history, ideology, strategy, and military tactics. It will also assess the conflict's consequences on Middle East security and international diplomacy and explore ways to mitigate this volatile situation.

1.1. Objectives of the Study

- To access the historical evolution of the Iran–Israel conflict
- To explore its strategic dimensions including proxy engagements and nuclear calculations
- To access its implications for regional and global security architectures

* Assistant Professor, Department of Defence and Strategic Studies, Shri Ganesh Rai P.G. College, Dobhi, Jaunpur (U.P.)

- To identify diplomatic and strategic pathways toward mitigating tensions

2. Literature Review

Khan, et al. (2025) offered a concentrated analysis of the Pakistan strategic calculation during the increasing Iran-Israel conflict. In their analysis, they found that Pakistan being a Muslim-majority country armed with nuclear weapons and having a major historical connection with the Gulf and the Islamic world in general was exposed to complex issues. They observed that Pakistan used to remain cautiously neutral traditionally, but the emerging regional dynamics were necessitating a balancing act especially its intensifying relationship with Saudi Arabia. The researchers also mentioned that the regional activities of Iran and the realignment indicated by the Abraham Accords complicated the alignment choices of Pakistan. They also added that this unstable environment was an internal threat to Pakistan, like the possibility of fueling sectarian divisions at home, as well as an opportunity to establish a mediating or balancing role in Islamabad.

Mousavian and Chitsazian (2020) looked at the Iranian Middle East policy in a broader perspective, putting it in the context of global upheavals such as the Covid-19 pandemic and critical changes in the U.S. policy under President Trump. They noted that, forty years after the Islamic Revolution, the Iranian policy was highly confrontational against Israel, which was aggravated by the U.S. maximum pressure policy and the American exit out of the JCPOA. They also recorded the fact that Iran had stopped honoring some of the nuclear deal agreements and this created tension in the region. The killing of General Qasem Soleimani by the U.S. and the missile attack by Iran were a perfect example of the escalation risks. Their results implied that Israel, which closely monitored these developments, was increasingly worried over the nuclear direction of Iran and its role in the region, particularly since Iran was aiding organizations such as Hezbollah and different militias in Iraq. This also solidified the Israeli security policy of preventive and preemptive measures.

Maher (2023) added to the analysis of the way in which the growing regional role of Iran and its nuclear progress ironically strengthened Israeli position of security following the Arab Spring. On a conceptual framework that focused on deterrence, Maher claimed that the expanding influence of Iran such as its influence in Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, and Yemen served to enhance the strategic alliances of Israel with the Gulf Arab regimes, with the facilitation of the United States. The paper has shown how the common view of perceived Iranian threat drove nations such as the UAE and Bahrain to publicly normalize relations with Israel, which led to the Abraham Accords. Maher further highlighted that the favored Israeli policy of sustaining a qualitative military advantage was closely connected with the effort to restrain the Iranian capabilities, both by diplomatic means and by the threat of direct intervention, thereby continuing to provide a regional balance of power strongly skewed in Israeli favor.

Roomi (2023) provided an analysis that combined constructivist and realist explanations and looked into the way the ideological conflict between Iran and Israel developed into a more overtly strategic challenge. According to Roomi, the anti-Israel rhetoric and attempts by Iran to establish itself as the leader of the Muslim world fulfilled both functions: it helped to mobilize the domestic population and cast Iran as the leader of Islamic resistance. Nevertheless, he argued that Iran followed this action without putting much consideration to internal weaknesses and external limitations. Consequently, the posture of Iran as per his study, unwillingly boosted Israeli hardline politics, enhanced international support to Israel, enhanced Iranophobia and forced conservative Arab states into the Israeli diplomatic sphere of influence. This in its turn sidelined the Palestinian issue that Iran purported to lead.

3. Historical and Ideological Evolution

The history of the Iran-Israel conflict is based on a theatrical historic and ideological transformation that transformed former allies into bitter enemies. Prior to 1979, Iran and Israel had a low-profile strategic alliance with Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi. Neither of the non-Arab states saw the Arab nationalism and Soviet influence as beneficial, and Iran and Israel SAVAK and Mossad secret services cooperated closely, and there was oil trade and military cooperation between them as well.



Figure 1: 1979's Islamic Revolution in Iran

This situation was however changed radically with the Islamic Revolution in 1979. With Ayatollah Khomeini, Iran developed a strictly anti-Israeli ideology, positioning itself as a defender of the oppressed versus arrogant powers. Israel, the ally of the U.S., and in conflict with Palestinians, became one of the main targets. Symbolically, Iran turned the Israeli embassy in Tehran into the Palestinian one and the revolutionary cry of *Marg bar Israel* (Death to Israel) became a test of loyalty.

Table 1: Iran–Israel Relations Before and After 1979

Period	Nature of Relationship	Key Features
Pre-1979 (Pahlavi)	Cooperative, strategic allies	Shared concerns over Arab nationalism; intelligence and economic collaboration via Mossad-SAVAK ties; Iran supplies oil to Israel.
Post-1979	Hostile, ideologically opposed	Iran's revolutionary doctrine rejects Israel's legitimacy; promotes an "Axis of Resistance" against Israel and the US.

This aggression is very ideological. The constitution of Iran obligates the regime to assist the oppressed and reserves the status of being an illegitimate Zionist entity to Israel. Such events as Quds Day and state media constantly strengthen this narrative. In the meantime, Israel considers the rhetoric and the support of Iran to groups such as Hezbollah and Hamas as an existential threat, compounded by its Holocaust trauma and geographic position. These fears are escalated by the nuclear ambitions and missile programs of Iran.

In addition, Iran is actualizing its ideology by aiding an Axis of Resistance- consisting of Hezbollah, Syria, Iraqi militias, the Houthis, and Palestinian groups- entrenching the conflict throughout the region. In the case of Israel, this is a reason to have a security policy based on preemptive strikes, domination of intelligence, and a qualitative military advantage, which is frequently backed by the United States. Iran relies on anti-Israel rhetoric to claim its leadership in the Muslim world, and Israel views Iran as a direct existential threat, so this conflict can hardly be resolved by a mere diplomatic effort.

4. Strategic and Military Dimensions

The historical and ideological differences between Iran and Israel are not the only reasons behind maintaining this rivalry but also due to the complicated strategic calculations and military positions. These dimensions have developed into advanced ideologies in both fronts, which are aimed at maximizing security, exerting powers and limiting the influence of the other in the region. This section is focused on three main pillars of such strategic confrontation: the use of proxy warfare by Iran, preventive security doctrine by Israel and the nuclear factor that makes their rivalry to the level of a possible existential conflict.

4.1. Iran's Proxy Warfare Strategy

Iran has a strategy of expanding its influence and dealing with Israel by having a strong network of proxy and allied militias in the Middle East. The strategy has a number of benefits to Tehran: it enables Iran to influence conflicts that are not located on its borders, it gives strategic depth, and most importantly, it reduces the probability of direct interstate conflict that may attract retaliation with devastating consequences. An imaginary map would show an Iran at the center of the map with arrows pointing in the directions of:

- Lebanese Hezbollah,
- The Iraqi Shia militias of the PMF (Popular Mobilization Forces),
- The Yemeni Houthis;
- The rooting of the IRGC in Syria, and
- Hamas and the Islamic Jihad in Gaza.

Key Examples:

- **Hezbollah (Lebanon):** Hezbollah is, perhaps, the most influential non-state armed group in the world, which acts as the frontline deterrent of Iran against Israel. Hezbollah has a stockpile thought to have more than 100,000 rockets, some of which can reach as far as the Israeli capital, and it has already shown itself capable of a credible retaliatory threat that Iran could unleash should its own resources come under attack.
- **Presence of Syrian militias and IRGC:** Iran has sunk a lot of resources in maintaining the Assad regime and establishing a land bridge between Iran and Lebanon through Iraq and Syria after the Syrian civil war. This corridor enables Iran to transfer weapons and men, and this enhances the noose around Israel.
- **Gaza factions (Hamas and PIJ):** Palestinian groups in Gaza receive large amounts of money, weapons, and training by Iran. This is two-fold in that it helps to keep the Palestinian front hot and it causes Israel to have to devote resources to its southern flank.

This proxy construction constitutes the core of the Iranian policy of asymmetric deterrence: through its threats to many fronts at the same time, Iran increases the price of any direct Israeli or American attack on it.

4.2. Israel’s Preventive Security Doctrine

Israel, which feels encircled by an Iranian encirclement, has created and institutionalized a military strategy that it refers to as MABAM (an acronym in Hebrew of the Campaign Between the Wars). This plan is based on the notion that low-level, persistent operations can slow or debilitate the ability of the enemy and deter major conflict.

Components of Israel’s MABAM strategy include:

- **Preemptive Airstrikes in Syria and beyond:** Israel has carried out hundreds of air attacks against Iranian weapons convoys, missile factories and storage warehouses in Syria. This is aimed at deterring Hezbollah and other militias to obtain precision-guided munitions that would saturate Israel missile defenses.
- **Cyber operations:** A precedent was the 2010 Stuxnet cyberattack, largely believed to have been carried out by Israel (and the United States), which crippled the Iranian centrifuges at Natanz, and in effect slowed the Iranian nuclear program.
- **Intelligence campaigns:** The bold Mossad raid in 2018 to steal an archive of Iranian nuclear files in a warehouse in Tehran showed the capabilities of Israel and highlighted the persistence of Iranian ambitions, and the event recast the international diplomatic debate over Iranian program.

This doctrine is proactive in nature. Israel would rather act in the gray area-not full-scale war-to derail Iranian schemes when they are still in their infancy.

4.3. The Nuclear Flashpoint

The Iran-Israel conflict has the most dangerous aspect that is centered on the Iranian nuclear development. Israel considers the possibility of a nuclear Iran to be an existential threat because of Iranian calls to destroy Israel, as well as the historical experience of the Holocaust. This insecurity makes Israel push so hard to lobby the international community and not to exclude a military action of its own.

Table 2: Timeline of Iran’s Nuclear Program & Israel’s Responses

Year	Event	Israeli Reaction
2002	Exposure of Iran’s secret enrichment site at Natanz	Mossad assists in passing intelligence to IAEA
2010	Stuxnet cyberattack disrupts thousands of centrifuges	Credited to Israel-US efforts to sabotage program
2015	JCPOA agreement signed, limiting enrichment	Israel (under Netanyahu) strongly criticizes deal
2018	Mossad heist reveals Iranian nuclear archives	Israel presents data to galvanize international push
2022	Iran enriches uranium up to ~60% purity	Israel openly considers direct military strikes

Israel's Strategic Concerns

- Enrichment to levels as close to 90 percent (weapons-grade) would reduce the breakout time to a bomb in Iran by a factor of many times.
- Israel argues that a threshold Iran, technologically able to assemble a weapon in a short period of time would encourage Tehran and its allies.

An Israeli attack on Iran nuclear plants will trigger a conflagration in the entire region and Hezbollah and Gaza will most probably act in unison. In the same way, in the event that Iran crossed the nuclear threshold, Israel may be forced to act, regardless of US or international self-restraint.

5. Regional Security Implications

The Iran Israel conflict significantly determines the security situation in the Middle East, as it is seldom resolved in direct conflicts but in proxy wars involving other neighboring countries. It is in this section that the indirect confrontation between Syria, Lebanon and Gaza has been briefly analyzed and the dangers of escalation and destabilization of the region have been pointed out.

5.1. Proxy Wars and Spillover

Iran and Israel do not engage in direct wars, but they carry the fight through proxies in Syria, Lebanon and Gaza, and thus making these lands unwilling battlefields.

- **Syria:** Iran has also strengthened the regime of Assad since the civil war by entrenching the IRGC and Shia militias to establish an avenue through which missiles and drones can be transported to Hezbollah. As a retaliation, Israel has repeatedly attacked within Syria to cut Iranian supply routes and to ensure that Hezbollah does not accumulate advanced weapons close to its borders.
- **Lebanon:** Hezbollah is the greatest threat to Israel and has thousands of rockets dug in the south of Lebanon. With the backing of Iran, Hezbollah has developed impregnable systems of bunkers and missile launchers. Even small-scale battles like sniper fire or tunnel finds can precipitate a full-scale war as it was in the devastating 2006 Lebanon War.
- **Gaza:** Iran provides funds and weapons to Hamas and PIJ, allowing them to produce rockets and drones in Gaza. Israeli airstrikes are caused by periodic rocket attacks by Gaza. These eruptions, though usually contained, keep Israeli forces tied up, which is in the interest of Iran to keep Israeli military spread too thin.

In these theatres, the Iranian proxy policy and the Israeli policy of preemptive containment are precariously balanced, and can easily spiral out of control because of local events.

5.2. Changing Arab-Israeli Dynamics

The Iran-Israel conflict has also radically transformed the greater political environment of the Middle East as ancient hostilities were transformed into new strategic alliances. The 2020 Abraham Accords, in which the United Arab Emirates and Bahrain normalized its relations with Israel, and later Morocco and Sudan, represent a historic turn. The reason behind these agreements was not purely economic but also included the collective security concerns against the intentions of Iran in the region and its drone and missile potential. Even Saudi Arabia, which is not quite ready to normalize relations, is quietly coordinating with Israel, especially in countering the expanding Iranian technological presence in unmanned systems and precision weapons.



Figure 2: The Arab-Israeli Conflict

This rebalancing redefines the Middle East security not as a century-old Arab-Israeli conflict over the Palestinian issue, but as a new regional equilibrium that opposes a de facto Sunni Arab-Israel front against Iran and its allies in Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, and Yemen. This new development is like a cold war in the region with proxies' war, intelligence sharing with the new allies, and sophisticated arms sales that are directly aimed at Iran. The strategic impact is dramatic, in isolating Iran even further and forcing it to intensify its relations with Russia and China in response to this closing coalition.

5.3. Escalation Risks

The risk of accidental escalation may be the biggest impact of regional security reforms. Advanced weapons, competing agendas, and unstable state and non-state players plague the Middle East. Iranian drones and missiles have blasted Saudi Arabia and attacked Israeli-linked ships in the Gulf while Israel conducts clandestine operations and cyberattacks to destabilize Iran. The stakes are larger than local battles since Gulf and Red Sea sabotage threatens oil-transporting maritime routes. Due to the heavy concentration of foreign troops and forces in the region, such as the American and Russian forces in Syria and Iraq, the slightest Israeli air sortie, a flawed Iranian proxy assault, or a lost drone could easily draw foreign actors into a local conflict. Mass deaths from Gaza or southern Lebanon missiles that miss their aim might lead Israel to conduct a large-scale land invasion, where Hezbollah would establish a second front, and risk a bigger battle with Iran. The Iran-Israel conflict is a perennial danger to regional stability and global security due to its flammable mix.

6. Global Diplomatic Repercussions

The Iran Israel conflict is not merely a regional problem in the Middle East, but it has affected the foreign policies of the key powers, destabilized international energy markets and stretched the international non-proliferation regime.

1. United States

Israel has a close relationship with the U.S. in terms of security since the U.S. supplies Israeli with advanced weapons, missile defense, and intelligence services to sustain its qualitative military advantage. Although Washington considers Israel as a wall against Iran and terrorism, it does not want another big war in the Middle East. JCPOA of 2015 was created to restrain the nuclear program of Iran, and its collapse in 2018 due to the Trump administration made Iran restart the enrichment. Biden administration has since taken diplomatic routes to rekindle or renegotiate the deal between the need to support Israel or contain Iran peacefully.

2. China and Russia

Russia and China use the rivalry to increase power. Moscow is entrenched in Syria and cooperates with Iran on the one hand and Israel on the other, letting the Israeli air force strike at Iranian targets but providing Tehran with state-of-the-art air defenses. The interests of China lie in the acquisition of energy resources and the development of the Belt and Road Initiative, the purchase of Iranian oil and the role of a neutral intermediary, which is reflected in the mediation of Iran and Saudi Arabia reconciliation.

Non-Proliferation and Energy Security Risk

This war jeopardizes two of the foundations of the world stability: nuclear non-proliferation and the safety of the oil market. Failure of negotiations may drive Iran to weapons grade enrichment leading to an arms race between Saudi Arabia and Turkey in the region to the detriment of the NPT. Elsewhere, the Strait of Hormuz where a fifth of the world oil is shipped is experiencing tensions which would result in the disruption of supply leading to a price surge and negatively affecting world growth.

The imbalance is highlighted in Table 3 below: Iran is denied access to Western air power and an undeclared nuclear deterrent, and is reduced to missiles and proxies, which makes the risk of rapid escalation to global consequences all the more likely.

Table 3: Comparative Military Capabilities (approx. 2023)

Metric	Iran	Israel
Defense Budget (USD)	~\$24 billion	~\$23 billion
Active Military	~610,000 (including IRGC)	~170,000
Nuclear Weapons	None (but enrichment at ~60%)	Estimated 80–90 warheads (undeclared)
Ballistic Missiles	Shahab, Sejil (2000+ km range)	Jericho III (4000+ km, nuclear-capable)
Air Superiority	Aging jets, reliant on drones/ballistics	F-35s, F-15s, F-16s, advanced UAVs

This comparative snapshot shows how asymmetrical the situation is: Iran is partially making up the shortcomings of its air force through ballistic missiles and proxies, whereas Israel is using advanced Western equipment and an unacknowledged nuclear deterrent. These dynamics increase the dangers of a quick escalation that has international implications.

7. Pathways for De-Escalation

Structural forces fueling the Iran-Israel conflict are deep rooted, but there are still viable diplomatic options in terms of mitigating risks, minimizing miscalculations, and containing the spiral to all-out war. Such avenues include renegotiating multilateral nuclear systems, the creation of direct and indirect channels of crisis communication, and building trust in small steps through limited yet significant cooperation.

a) Revitalizing the JCPOA with Regional Buy-in

Stabilization of Iranian and Israeli threat perceptions may be achieved through a revised nuclear agreement that will include regional security discussions. Future frameworks may, unlike the original JCPOA, directly include Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) states, who would be offered missile defense guarantees or civil nuclear cooperation in exchange for a permanent cap on Iranian enrichment. This would have the effect of reassuring Saudi Arabia and others and giving Iran sanctions relief that would make compliance in its interest.

b) Establishing Conflict Prevention Hotlines

Following on the Cold War-era deconfliction procedures between the U.S. and USSR, Iran and Israel (through trusted parties such as Oman or Switzerland) might be able to develop safe backchannel communication channels. These hotlines would enable a quick clarification of military intentions in the case of crisis- such as in a case where an Israeli attack on a Hezbollah depot mistakenly threatens Iranian officers, they can communicate immediately and avert the eventuality of an escalation to a larger confrontation.

c) Incremental Confidence-Building Measures (CBMs)

Even in the most acute mistrust, small-scale CBMs may prepare the groundwork of de-escalation. Humanitarian coordination in Syria, e.g. the creation of aid corridors, or post-earthquake reconstruction areas with international supervision, may be in both sides interest, and provide a small amount of trust. Third-party monitored ceasefires in Gaza, guaranteed by Egypt or Qatar, may sometimes break a chain of violence. In the long-term, these measures might reduce the turbulence of proxy fronts and establish a diplomatic impetus to address bigger problems.

8. Conclusion

The Iran-Israel dispute is one of the fault lines in Middle Eastern geopolitics whereby the profound ideological enmity, proxy entrenchments, and nuclear apprehensions clash to support a dangerous status quo. In contrast to traditional competitions, this conflict is a complex of identity politics, strategic deterrence, and contrasting regional visions that attract the global powers whose security, economic, and diplomatic interests always depend on its course. As demonstrated in this paper, the conflict does not only destabilize the neighboring states by means of proxy wars and weapon accumulation but also endangers crucial international mechanisms, including the non-proliferation regime and the continuous energy supply along the strategic waterways. Such a volatile competition requires a measured mix of threats and talks: strong enough to prevent escalation, and supple enough to generate avenues of diplomacy. In the end, the ability to ensure sustainable regional stability and safeguarding of larger global interests will depend upon the ability to transcend the pattern of response and counter-response to more structured and multilateral strategies that look both to short-term security issues and the causes of hostility.

References

1. Ali, Z., & Kousar, F. (2025). *The Israel-Iran Conflict: Shaping New Regional Dynamics in the Middle East*. *Journal Of Social Science and Knowledge Horizons*, 1(1), 29-40.
2. Anwar, R., & Abbas, T. (2024). *The Israel Hamas Conflict: An Analysis on Threats and Security Implications Posed by Iran in the Middle East*. *South Asian Studies*, 39(1), 17.
3. Bartal, S. (2024). *The Iran-Israel War and the Clash of Civilizations*. *Middle East Quarterly*, 31(3), 1-12.
4. Karsh, E. (2023). *The Israel-Iran conflict: between Washington and Beijing*. *Israel Affairs*, 29(6), 1075-1093.
5. Karsh, E. (2023). *The Israel-Iran conflict: between Washington and Beijing*. *Israel Affairs*, 29(6), 1075-1093.

6. Kaussler, B. (2013). *Iran's Nuclear Diplomacy: Power politics and conflict resolution*. Routledge.
7. Khan, D., Humayun, M. I., Khan, K., & Tariq, I. (2025). *Analyzing Pakistan's Position in the Iran-Israel Conflict: Strategic Challenges and Diplomatic Opportunities*. *The Study of Religion and History*, 2(1), 61-86.
8. Lituhayu, B. N. A. L., Nayla, N. M., & Park, H. K. (2024). *Analysis of the Iran-Israel War Conflict on Economic Implications in Indonesia*. *Jurnal Hukum In Concreto*, 3(2), 149-161.
9. Maher, N. (2023). *Balancing deterrence: Iran-Israel relations in a turbulent Middle East*. *Review of Economics and Political Science*, 8(3), 226-245.
10. Mahmoudian, A. (2024). *Iran-Israel Conflict: A New Stage Emerges*.
11. Minhas, A. S., Shujahi, F. K., & Saeed, S. (2024). *Analytical Appraisal of the 2024 Iran-Israel Conflict and Chances of Global Escalation*. *Journal of Law and Social Sciences-University of Turbat*, 2(2), 97-115.
12. Minhas, A. S., Shujahi, F. K., & Saeed, S. (2024). *Analytical Appraisal of the 2024 Iran-Israel Conflict and Chances of Global Escalation*. *Journal of Law and Social Sciences-University of Turbat*, 2(2), 97-115.
13. Mousavian, S. H., & Chitsazian, M. R. (2020). *Iran's Foreign Policy in the Middle East: A Grand Strategy*. *Middle East Policy*, 27(3).
14. Roomi, F. (2023). *The Iran-Israel conflict: An ultra-ideological explanation*. *Middle East Policy*, 30(2), 94-109.'
15. Simon, S. (2010). *Iran and Israel. The Iran Primer: Power, Politics, and US Policy*.



Invisible Wounds: A Feminist Critique of State Silence on the Plight of Half-Widows in Kashmir

Zubaida Bukhari*
Dr. Mahesh Shukla**

Abstract:

Over the past three decades, the armed conflict in Kashmir has resulted in thousands of enforced disappearances, giving rise to the marginalized identity of “half-widows”—women whose husbands are missing but not officially declared dead. This article explores the gendered consequences of conflict through a feminist lens, focusing on how these women face legal ambiguity, social stigma, psychological trauma, and economic hardship. Employing a qualitative case study approach, it draws on interviews conducted in 2017 with 15 half-widows and incorporates data from secondary sources to examine the structural and symbolic erasure of these women from policy, law, and public discourse.

The analysis reveals that institutional silence—framed as bureaucratic neutrality—functions as a mechanism of patriarchal and militarized governance. These women are denied widow benefits, legal recognition, and access to justice, effectively suspending them in a state of permanent liminality. Drawing on Judith Butler’s notion of grievability and intersectional feminist theory, the study argues that the suffering of half-widows is not only marginalized but rendered unintelligible by dominant narratives of conflict.

A poignant visual example is the photograph titled “A Wall of the Disappeared,” depicting family members—often half-widows—holding faded images of missing loved ones during a silent protest organized by the Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons (APDP). This image functions as both a site of resistance and a public archive of grief and memory. The article concludes with a call to reframe half-widows’ narratives within feminist scholarship and policymaking, emphasizing recognition, reparative justice, and the urgency of confronting state silence.

Keywords : Half-widows, Kashmir conflict, feminist critique, enforced disappearances, state silence, gendered trauma, human rights, intersectionality

Introduction

The ethereal beauty of Kashmir—often described as the *Paradise on Earth*—stands in stark contrast to the protracted political conflict and militarization that have shaped its socio-political landscape for over three decades. Amid this turmoil, one of the most marginalized and underacknowledged groups to emerge is the *half-widows*: women whose husbands have been subjected to enforced disappearances yet are not officially declared dead. This ambiguous legal and social status has left them suspended in a perpetual state of grief, uncertainty, and structural neglect (Chakraborty, 2025). For over three decades, Kashmir has remained one of the most militarized regions in the world, with nearly 700,000 armed forces deployed—yielding a civilian-to-security ratio of 1:7. This militarization has profoundly affected the life and liberty of the local population, governed under draconian laws such as the Jammu and Kashmir Public Safety Act, Disturbed Areas Act, and Armed Forces Special Powers Act (AFSPA), 1990. These laws grant sweeping powers of detention, search, and even lethal force, while embedding legal immunity for security personnel—thereby fostering a culture of impunity (Akhtar, 2023). Despite decades of human rights violations—including enforced disappearances, custodial torture, extrajudicial killings, and sexual violence—accountability remains elusive. Investigations and judicial inquiries have largely failed to bring perpetrators to justice. Notably, many of these disappearances are attributed not only to state forces but also to counter-insurgency renegades (Ikhwanis)—former militants who, with state backing, have targeted civilians and obstructed access to justice (Sengupta & Sinha, 2024). Between 1989 and 2006, unofficial estimates suggest that 8,000–10,000 individuals—mostly young men—have disappeared in Kashmir.

* Research Scholar (Sociology), APS University, Rewa

** Prof. of Sociology, Govt. TRS College of Excellence, Rewa

While India signed the International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance in 2007, it has yet to ratify it, and only a fraction of cases have been officially investigated (Zia, 2019). Enforced disappearance, recognized as a grave human rights violation under international law, remains a recurring phenomenon in conflict zones globally. In Kashmir, the phenomenon gained momentum particularly during the 1990s insurgency and has since led to the disappearance of an estimated 8,000 to 10,000 men, according to organizations such as the Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons (APDP) (Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons, 2024). These disappearances have produced a generation of half-widows who not only face legal and administrative limbo but also endure deep psychological trauma, socio-economic marginalization, and cultural stigma. The study foregrounds the compounded marginalization these women face at the intersection of patriarchal cultural norms, legal exclusion, and state inaction (Rafiq, 2024). The protracted conflict in Jammu and Kashmir has engendered a profound humanitarian crisis, disproportionately affecting women and leading to the emergence of the unique sociological phenomenon of “*half-widows*” (Irshad & Dar, 2015). These women, whose husbands have involuntarily disappeared in the conflict, exist in a liminal state of marital ambiguity, trapped between the legal status of marriage and the social reality of widowhood, a condition largely unacknowledged by state apparatuses (Mathur, 2019). The Kashmir conflict, one of the most protracted and complex territorial disputes in modern history, has left an indelible mark on the lives of its inhabitants, particularly women. Among the most vulnerable and underrepresented victims are the *half-widows*—a term used for women whose husbands have been subjected to enforced disappearances but are neither confirmed dead nor alive. Caught between uncertainty and grief, these women experience unique psychological, legal, and social challenges (Qutab, 2012). Half-widows experience significant psychological distress, including anxiety, depression, and sleep disorders. The uncertainty surrounding their husbands' fates exacerbates these issues, leading to moderate to severe symptoms of dissociation and other psychosocial problems (Beigh & Manzoor, 2018). Legally, half-widows face difficulties in claiming their husbands' property or accessing government benefits due to the lack of official death certificates. This legal limbo often results in economic hardship, as they struggle to provide for their families without formal recognition of their status (Qutab, 2012). The absence of legal frameworks to address the needs of half-widows further complicates their ability to secure financial stability and justice (K. K. Singh, 2019). Socially, half-widows endure ostracism and stigma, as their ambiguous marital status challenges traditional societal norms. This social exclusion often leads to isolation and a lack of community support (Qutab, 2012). The cultural context of Kashmir, where women are often dependent on male relatives, exacerbates the vulnerability of half-widows, leaving them marginalized and voiceless (Mir et al., 2023). While the plight of half-widows is severe, it is essential to recognize their resilience and agency. Many half-widows actively seek justice and work towards improving their circumstances, despite the numerous obstacles they face. This highlights the need for inclusive interventions and legal reforms to support these women in their struggle for dignity and justice. While conflict-related studies have extensively documented the political and military dimensions of Kashmir (Bose, 2004), the gendered aspects—especially those affecting half-widows—remain insufficiently explored (Zia, 2016). Even more overlooked is the state's systemic silence and institutional indifference toward these women's plight (Kazi, 2022).

The term *half-widow* has become a significant category in post-conflict feminist discourse in Kashmir, where thousands of men have been subjected to enforced disappearances since the insurgency began in 1989 (Kazi, 2008). These women are left in a state of suspended mourning—unable to grieve, remarry, or claim legal rights because of the absence of death certificates or government acknowledgment (Zia, 2019). Scholars suggest that government inaction, combined with militarized governance, worsens the invisibility of half-widows. Zia (2016) points out that despite increased documentation of disappearances by human rights groups, half-widows remain ignored in policy discussions and development programs. This reflects a broader pattern of government silence, where women's war experiences are marginalized in favor of geopolitical narratives (Ather, 2016). The Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons (APDP) has documented over 8,000 cases of enforced disappearances, many involving spouses of half-widows (Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons, 2011). Yet, the government's failure to pass laws specific to the rights of the families of the disappeared—such as compensation, mental health support, or inheritance rights—has left half-widows in uncertain legal and emotional circumstances (Conciliation Resources, 2014). From a feminist viewpoint, half-widowhood

intersects with patriarchal cultural norms and institutional neglect (Sarma, 2024). Recent reports highlight how these women are often stigmatized within their communities—labeled as bringers of misfortune—and denied essential social support (A. Singh & Mishra, 2024). The lack of official recognition exemplifies what Butler describes as the grievability gap—where some lives and losses are not considered worthy of public mourning or justice (Butler, 2016). Existing research also underscores the psychological toll of ambiguous loss. Hussain (2017) notes that the uncertainty about the husband’s fate causes long-lasting emotional trauma, which often remains untreated due to poor mental health infrastructure in conflict zones. Furthermore, the legal void—where personal law conflicts with state policies—results in the denial of basic property and marital rights (Hussain, 2017). Although grassroots organizations and women’s groups have worked to document and support half-widows, a lack of government programs addressing their specific needs persists. This gendered neglect highlights the importance of feminist critiques that focus on women’s lived experiences in conflict zones—not just as passive victims but as active political subjects navigating survival in silence. This paper employs a feminist lens to analyze how patriarchal state structures, militarization, and the absence of legal protections reinforce the marginalization and erasure of half-widows in Kashmir. A review of existing literature reveals a pattern of double invisibility—these women are both excluded from formal legal systems and absent from mainstream political narratives. Building on this foundation, the study explores how government silence acts as a form of structural and gender-based violence. By shedding light on their emotional, legal, and economic vulnerabilities, this research aims to contribute to an emerging body of gender-sensitive scholarship on conflict, human rights, and state accountability.

Research Methodology

This study uses a qualitative theoretical approach rooted in feminist critique and policy analysis, without conducting empirical fieldwork or primary data collection. We gather data from various research papers conducted by different scholars from Kashmir and surrounding regions. The data also comes from different organizations, reports, newspapers, policy documents, human rights reports, and legal texts—to critically examine the structural and discursive neglect faced by half-widows in Kashmir. From a feminist perspective, half-widowhood in Kashmir is shaped by the interaction of patriarchal cultural norms and institutional neglect (Crenshaw, 2013). Women in this situation often face stigma and social exclusion, are portrayed as bearers of misfortune, and lack communal and family support. Additionally, their experiences reflect Butler’s concept of the “grievability gap”—a scenario where certain lives and losses are deemed unworthy of public mourning or acknowledgment (Mohanty, 2005).

Findings and Discussion

Despite over three decades of ongoing conflict in Kashmir, the experiences of half-widows have remained largely invisible in legal, political, and policy discourses. Through a feminist theoretical lens—drawing from Judith Butler’s concept of *grievability* and intersectional feminist thought—this section unpacks the structural mechanisms and discursive practices that perpetuate this erasure. The analysis reveals four interrelated themes:

1. Legal Invisibility and Ambiguity

One of the most visible consequences of prolonged state silence is the legal ambiguity surrounding the status of half-widows. In the absence of a death certificate or recovered body, these women remain trapped in legal limbo—unable to access widow benefits, inherit property, or remarry without enduring protracted legal proceedings that typically require a waiting period of seven years (Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons, 2011). This legal uncertainty is not merely a bureaucratic oversight; it reflects a deeper structural apathy, where patriarchal legal frameworks and state inaction converge to marginalize women affected by enforced disappearances. This legal vacuum is also symbolic. It reflects what Judith Butler (2009) conceptualizes as a *hierarchy of grief*, wherein certain lives are publicly acknowledged and mourned, while others are rendered socially and politically invisible (Judith Butler, 2009). In the context of Kashmir, the denial of legal recognition to half-widows signifies a gendered form of state indifference, reinforcing their erasure from institutional, political, and emotional registers of justice and visibility.

2. Psychological Trauma and the Crisis of Mourning

Half-widows in Kashmir endure what scholars have termed *ambiguous loss*—a psychological state where the absence of closure prolongs grief and renders the trauma of waiting interminable. In the absence of concrete knowledge about their husbands’ fates, these women are denied the social rituals of mourning,

such as holding funerals or openly speaking of their loss (A. Singh & Mishra, 2024). This suspended grief contributes to chronic emotional suffering, which remains largely unaddressed due to the lack of adequate mental health infrastructure in conflict-affected regions. Judith Butler’s (2009) concept of *ungrievable lives* finds profound resonance in this context. When mourning lacks public or institutional acknowledgment, grief is privatized and medicalized, rather than addressed through collective healing or transitional justice mechanisms. The psychological wounds of half-widows are thus rendered invisible—both in state policy and in societal discourse.

3. State Silence as Gendered Violence

The silence of the state is not a neutral absence; rather, it constitutes an active form of gendered violence. Policies concerning rehabilitation, compensation, or truth-seeking mechanisms largely fail to recognize the specific needs of half-widows. Despite long-standing efforts by civil society groups like the Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons (APDP), there are no state-sponsored schemes that directly address their legal ambiguities, emotional trauma, or economic hardships (Ansari, 2025). This institutional neglect reflects what Mohanty (2005) critiques as the *coloniality of power* within postcolonial governance—where state institutions are structured through masculinist logics, and women’s voices are only acknowledged when they conform to dominant nationalist or victim narratives. In Kashmir, half-widows exist outside both the valorized figure of the martyr’s widow and the clearly defined victim, rendering their suffering politically inconvenient and socially marginalized (Mohanty, 2005).

4. Cultural Stigma and Social Marginalization

Women who have lost their husbands often encounter social disapproval within their local communities, facing distrust, accusations, and commonly exclusion from social activities. In a society where honour and purity are deeply ingrained cultural norms, the responsibility of a husband’s disappearance is symbolically and socially placed upon the female form. Their marginalization is exacerbated by the intersection of patriarchal gender norms, religious expectations, and conservative community structures, rendering them victims not only of state neglect but also of societal repression. This layered oppression becomes more apparent through the perspective of intersectional feminism. The identities of women as spouses of the disappeared and as financially dependent individuals intersect halfway, producing unique vulnerabilities. Their silence, in this instance, is not merely a lack of communication, but frequently a deliberate tactic of endurance within a socio-political environment that neither protects their rights nor recognises their trauma.

Table 1: Invisible Wounds of Half-Widows in Kashmir

Theme	Summary
Legal Invisibility	Lack of death certification denies legal rights and reinforces patriarchal systems.
Psychological Trauma	Ongoing uncertainty causes unresolved grief and mental distress.
Gendered State Violence	State policies exclude half-widows, reinforcing their political erasure.
Cultural Stigma	Social and religious norms compound their exclusion within communities.

4.1 Memory, Testimony, and Visual Archives of Resistance- A Case Study

Figure 1 shows that an archive becomes more than just a documentation of loss; it transforms into a collective testimony against the state’s failure to acknowledge and investigate these disappearances. Between 1989 and 2006, unofficial estimates place the number of disappeared persons in Kashmir between 8,000 to 10,000, primarily young men. Most families, despite relentless protests and petitions, have not received any formal investigation, let alone justice or death certification, further entrenching the half-widow status of many women. In 2024, the APDP released its provisional biography titled “*The Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons, Kashmir: A Provisional Biography of a Journey Towards Justice for the Enforced Disappeared.*” Authored by Dr. Goldie Osuri (University of Warwick) and Iffat Fatima (filmmaker), with assistance from APDP consultant Shahid Malik and APDP volunteers, this document chronicles the emotional, legal, and political journey of the families of the disappeared. It also highlights the gendered burden of waiting, carried predominantly by women, mothers, and wives, who often become both caregivers and breadwinners in the absence of male family members. The APDP’s visual and textual archive thus functions as a counter-memory to the state’s enforced silence and inaction.

It reclaims public space and scholarly attention for those rendered invisible, including the half-widows, who are doubly marginalized: first by the disappearance of their husbands and second by legal, cultural, and institutional neglect (Zia, 2019).



Figure 1: A Wall of the Disappeared – Relatives of missing persons in Kashmir display faded photos during a silent APDP protest, symbolizing decades of enforced disappearances and the ongoing quest for justice

Source: Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons (APDP), Kashmir.

Conclusion

The plight of half-widows in Kashmir reflects the silent, invisible toll of state violence and patriarchal neglect in conflict zones. This study, through a feminist lens, reveals how institutional silence—disguised as bureaucratic neutrality—acts as a tool of gendered control, denying these women legal recognition, justice, and the right to be grieved as political subjects. Drawing on Judith Butler’s concept of *grievability* and intersectional feminist theory, the analysis uncovers how half-widows are trapped in legal and social limbo, rendered unintelligible by systems that offer neither closure nor accountability.

Their marginalization is deeply structural rooted in the convergence of militarized governance, patriarchal legal frameworks, and communal stigmas that suppress female agency. This erasure is both symbolic and embodied. A powerful example is the image titled “*A Wall of the Disappeared*,” where families of missing persons, including half-widows, hold faded photographs in a silent protest organized by the Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons (APDP). This haunting visual serves as a living archive of memory, grief, and political resistance.

“*A Wall of the Disappeared*” – Family members of missing persons in Kashmir hold faded photographs of their loved ones during a silent sit-in protest organized by APDP.

(Source: APDP)

Addressing their condition demands more than sympathy—it calls for a political reckoning that dismantles masculinist narratives and centers gendered suffering. Reclaiming their voices in academic, legal, and policy discourse is an ethical and transformative act, necessary to reimagine justice that is inclusive, intersectional, and capable of healing invisible wounds.

Recommendations

Based on the feminist critique and policy analysis presented, the following recommendations aim to ensure justice, recognition, and rehabilitation for half-widows in Kashmir:

1. Legal Reforms and Recognition

- a. Amend personal laws and civil codes to recognize the legal status of half-widows after a reasonable period (e.g., 2–3 years of disappearance), granting rights to inheritance, remarriage, and compensation.
- b. Establish a standardized legal procedure for declaring long-term missing persons as legally deceased.

2. Inclusion in Policy and Welfare Schemes

- a. Design state-sponsored welfare programs specifically for half-widows, including monthly stipends, pensions, and skill development initiatives.

- b. Ensure accessible mental health services, including trauma counseling and psychosocial support for conflict-affected women.
3. **Documentation and Truth-Seeking**
 - a. Set up a Truth and Reconciliation Commission or similar mechanism to document enforced disappearances and formally acknowledge the suffering of victims' families.
 - b. Strengthen grassroots organizations like APDP in their documentation, legal assistance, and advocacy efforts.
4. **Cultural and Social Reintegration**
 - a. Launch public awareness campaigns through schools, media, and religious platforms to challenge the stigma faced by half-widows.
 - b. Promote community-based healing and dialogue initiatives with half-widows as central participants in peace-building.
5. **Academic Engagement and Feminist Research**
 - a. Encourage feminist scholarship on half-widows and the gendered impacts of conflict in Kashmir and similar regions.
 - b. Integrate gender-sensitive modules into university curricula, especially within conflict studies, sociology, and political science.

References

- Akhtar, Z. (2023). Kashmir's right to self-determination: UNSC resolutions, human rights violations and culpability under international law. *Athens JL*, 9, 139.
- Ansari, R. R. S. (2025). Fractured Selves: Narratives of Gender and Trauma in Shafi Ahmed's *The Half Widow* and Shahnaz Bashir's *The Half Mother*. *Bulletin of Language and Literature Studies*, 2(2).
- Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons. (2011). *Half-widows, half-rights: Addressing the rights and needs of wives of the disappeared in Jammu and Kashmir*.
- Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons. (2024). *Facts Underground: A Report on the Association of Parents of Disappeared Persons*.
- Beigh, S. N., & Manzoor, S. (2018). Half-widows in Kashmir: A psychosocial study. *Indian Journal of Psychiatric Social Work*, 68–74.
- Bose, S. (2004). *Kashmir, roots of conflict: paths to peace*.
- Chakraborty, S. (2025). The Forgotten Women: Gendered Violence and Legal Impunity in India's Conflict Zones. Available at SSRN 5349762.
- Irshad, I. A., & Dar, M. A. (2015). Kashmiri Women: Vulnerable Section of Society. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Management*, 2(2), 93–96.
- Judith Butler. (2009). Frames of War: When Is Life Grievable? *Verso*, 254–256.
- Kazi, S. (2022). Women, gender politics, and resistance in Kashmir. *Socio-Legal Rev.*, 18, 95.
- Mathur, S. (2019). *The human toll of the Kashmir conflict*.
- Mir, A. A., Jahan, Z., & Ahmad, R. (2023). Lived experiences of widows of armed conflict in Kashmir: A qualitative study. *OMEGA-Journal of Death and Dying*, 87(3), 977–998.
- Mohanty, C. T. (2005). *Feminism without borders: Decolonizing theory, practicing solidarity*. Zubaan.
- Qutab, S. (2012). Women victims of armed conflict: Half-widows in Jammu and Kashmir. *Sociological Bulletin*, 61(2), 255–278.
- Rafiq, J. (2024). Half-widows: The Silent Sufferers of Militancy War in Kashmir—An Empirical Study. *Journal of Human Rights Law and Practice*, 7(1), 29–44.
- Sengupta, N., & Sinha, S. (2024). *Female Narratives of Protest*.
- Singh, A., & Mishra, A. J. (2024). Ambiguous marital identity and conflict: A study of the half-widows in Jammu and Kashmir. *Journal of Human Rights*, 23(4), 346–366.
- Singh, K. K. (2019). Half-widows: Invisible victims of the enforced disappearances and their status in Kashmir. *ANTYAJAA: Indian Journal of Women and Social Change*, 4(2), 209–221.
- Zia, A. (2016). The spectacle of a good half-widow: women in search of their disappeared men in the Kashmir Valley. *PoLAR: Political and Legal Anthropology Review*, 39(2), 164–175.
- Zia, A. (2019). Resisting disappearance: Military occupation and women's activism in Kashmir. In *Resisting Disappearance*. University of Washington Press.



The Expressive and Accommodative Role of the Directive Principles of State Policy in Constituent Assembly Debates: A Sociological Perspective

Dr. Ramesh Chandra Yadav*

Introduction:

The constitution's foundation is the Directive Principles of State Policy, which is an ideology of social justice. The Constitution's Articles and Amendments provide the foundation upon which the state is built and reflect the broader goals articulated in the Constitution's Preamble. We hope that DPSPs will help bring about "justice" on all fronts: social, economic, and political. These are included so that the preamble's ultimate goals—justice, liberty, equality, and fraternity can be realized. As an added bonus, it represents the welfare state ideal. L.M. Singhvi argues that Article I, Section 7 of the Constitution, which outlines the Directive Principles of State Policy, is the Constitution's "vital" component. It is often held that if these policies were completely implemented, the United States would be a utopia on earth, a welfare state in which all residents shared equally in the nation's economic prosperity. The Supreme Court has ruled that DPSP are fundamental to the Constitution. In the Indian Constitution, the people established a set of guidelines for running the nation that aren't legally binding but are still essential. The State is responsible for enforcing laws that adhere to these values.

A nation's state has a responsibility to its citizens to ensure their well-being by establishing and maintaining a social order in which social, economic, and political fairness permeate all facets of society. It will aim to ensure that employees are paid a fair salary, that they have safe working conditions, that they have access to basic necessities, and that they have a voice in the administration of their respective sectors. Free and mandatory education for all children up to the age of 14; promotion of the educational and economic interests of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, and other weaker sectors; organization of local panchayats; etc. are some of the other significant directions. Economic and socialistic, political and administrative, justice and legal, environmental, monument preservation, and peace and security are the broad categories under which DPSP fall because of their shared focus on issues of social justice, economic welfare, foreign policy, and law and administration. State institutions were established by DPSP on the four pillars of Justice, Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity, which were intended to support the people's Fundamental Rights. Meaning: The meaning of the phrase "the directing principle of state policy" may be deduced by breaking it down into its component parts: "Directive," "principle," "state," and "policy," all of which point to the principles that guide the state in formulating its policies for the people. The DPSP concept was imported from elsewhere. Our Constitution's authors borrowed this principle from Article 45 of the Irish Constitution, which itself was taken from the Constitution of Spain. Ireland's independence struggle, especially the Irish Home Rule Movement, impacted those who drafted India's constitution. As a result, the Directive Principles of Social Policy have had a significant impact on the Indian Constitution's Directive Principles. Such policies may be traced back to revolutionary documents as the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the American Colonies' Declaration of Independence. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was another inspiration for India's constitution.

Objectives of the Study:

1. To look upon the role of Directive Principles of State Policy (DPSP) in action as a sociological process operating not only ideologically but also on the ground breeding sociological approbation or disapprobation leading to a fresh conflict of interest gradually unmaking many of the established institutions.
2. How will have been able to execute the Directive Principles of State Policy in order to attain the aims and realize the goals of the social welfare State as outlined in the Constitution.

Research Methodology:

It appears to happen as some sleight of hand which nobody can understand, but actually it's a sociologically entailed process which we have to find out. For this end in view, we have to choose a

* Assistant Professor, Sociology, Baiswara P.G. College, Lalganj, Raebareli, Uttar Pradesh

methodology from among the existing ones. Our search for methodology brought us to the work of Andrew Abbot and his works *Processual Sociology*, Chicago Press 2016 and *Time Matters: On Theory and Method*, Chicago Press 2001, Processual approach according to him is an approach that presumes that everything in the social world is continuously in the process of making, remaking and unmaking of itself and other things instant by instant.

The research approach employed for this study is a qualitative approach, specifically a sociological perspective. Qualitative research involves exploring in-depth insights, perspectives, and meanings rather than numerical data and subject to certain limitations as the research is based on the secondary data.

Review of Literature:

Balasubramanian Thirugnanam (2022) For the state and its people to develop economic democracy in India, Directive Principles of State Policy provide crucial guidelines. The Indian Constitution's drafters aimed to recommend an economic system that would be best suited to the country's circumstances rather than imposing any specific system on the populace. The Forty-second Constitution Amendment Act, which was passed, stipulates that India must be a socialist democracy, however not in the classic meaning, but rather in the manner that best matches Indian circumstances. A split of basic rights into two categories—judicable and non-judicable—was suggested by the Sapru Committee. It was a good idea to include "Instruments of Instructions" in the Constitution Act of India of 1935, said Ambedkar.

TarunabhKhaitan (2018) The author of this paper contends, using India as a case study, that constitutional provisions might be a valuable instrument for accommodating ideological dissidents who would otherwise lose out in constitutional discussions in highly polarized cultures. These guidelines may, under some circumstances, be effective in persuading populist, anti-liberal factions to ratify a (broadly) liberal constitution. Some of these parties were effectively accommodated by the framers of the Indian Constitution using constitutional directions, and this accommodation was restrained by containment and constitutional incrementalism tactics.

A. David Ambrose, (2013) *With Special Reference to Natural Resources - Recent Trends, Directive Principles of State Policy and Distribution of Material Resources (2013)* - The article is a very concise review of all court cases pertaining to the interaction between fundamental rights and guiding principles of public policy. The author has briefly discussed the judiciary's novel reading of Part IV into Part III approach. Since Part III and Part IV are considered as complimentary to one another, many of the unenumerated rights are read into the list of Fundamental Rights. J. Jeevan Reddy said in the Unnikrishnan case that the Directive Principles and Fundamental Rights are not mutually exclusive but rather additional and complimentary, and that the Fundamental Rights are only a means to the ends stated in the Directive Principles. Since then, it has developed into a judicial strategy to interpret Fundamental Rights in conjunction with Directive Principles in order to define the scope and ambit of the former.

Social Justice under DPSP

1. To fulfill the promise made in the preamble, the DPSP seeks to establish a welfare state and ensure that all citizens have access to the social, economic, and political rights to which they are entitled.
2. The principles of the Indian people are summed up in the DPSP, and they serve as a roadmap for the government, which helps to reinforce constitutionalism.
3. Directive Principles, which are supplementary to Fundamental Rights, provide constructive guidance to the State in order to protect and bolster the economic and social aspects of Indian democracy. These are in addition to the Fundamental Rights that provide basic civil and political liberties.
4. DPSP is a measuring stick by which citizens may evaluate a government's adherence to its stated principles of good governance.
5. Useful in judicial interpretation of the Constitution Because they are consistent with the Constitution's underlying concept, these provisions are helpful to judges as they work to apply the law.

Kesavananda Bharati ... vs State of Kerala and Anr on 24 April, 1973

Edneer Mutt is a religious group based in the Kasaragod area of Kerala, and its leader was Keshvananda Bharati. Kesavananda Bharti was the recorded owner of a number of parcels of land within the sect. The Land Reforms Amendment Act, 1969 was enacted by Kerala's state government. The law

allowed the authorities to seize certain property from the sect of which Keshvananda Bharti was the leader. On March 21, 1970, Keshvananda Bharti invoked Article 32 of the Indian Constitution to have the Supreme Court uphold his rights under Articles 25 (Right to Practice and Propagate Religion), 26 (Right to Manage Religious Affairs), 14 (Right to Equality), 19(1)(f) (Freedom to Acquire Property), and 31 (Right to Freedom of Speech) (Compulsory Acquisition of Property). While the court was still considering the petition, the government of Kerala passed another statute, the Kerala Land Reforms (Amendment) Act of 1971.

Minerva Mills Ltd. & Ors vs Union of India & Ors on 31 July, 1980

The Supreme Court of India utilized and developed the fundamental structure theory of the Constitution of India in *Minerva Mills Ltd. and Ors. v. Union of India and Ors.* (Case number: Writ Petition (Civil) 356 of 1977; case citation: AIR 1980 SC 1789).

The Supreme Court's *Minerva Mills* decision clarified how the fundamental structure concept should be interpreted. The court found that parliament's ability to modify the constitution is constrained by said document. To award itself limitless authority would be an abuse of parliament's restricted power. To add insult to injury, the majority of the court ruled that Parliament's ability to make changes does not include the ability to abolish them. Therefore, the parliament cannot weaken people's essential rights, which include freedom and equality (which is not a fundamental right but considered a basic structure of the Constitution).

Some Directive Principles:

The framers of the Indian Constitution had good intentions of providing the populace with a wide range of protections, but they were constrained by the country's existing social, economic, political, and other structures while drafting the Fundamental Rights. So, they offered the people everything they thought was conceivable in the shape of Fundamental Rights and integrated anything else they could into Directive Principles with the hope that someday these may become legally enforceable. These tenets are infused with socialist and Gandhian principles. Recently, political and social reform theorists who disagreed with the Marxist approach to fixing modern society's problems have called for these values to become the State's guiding principle. Much of what is included in this Part of the Constitution is based on the concepts of Jeremy Bentham, the political and social strand of the Liberal and Radical parties of Western Europe, the primary principles of Fabian Socialism, and to some degree, those of Guild Socialism.

In implementing this Part of the Constitution, the Assembly is offering particular directives to the future legislature and the future executive to demonstrate in what way they are to execute the legislative and the executive authority they would have, as stated by Ambedkar. Without a doubt, the introduction of these concepts here is meant to be more than just a series of moralizing proclamations. It is the will of this Assembly that these principles serve as the foundation for any and all future legislative or executive action on the governance of the country, and that the legislature and the executive no longer just pay lip respect to them.

- To maintain and defend a social order that is dedicated to the common good of its members. (Art. 38).
- The State's policies should be geared toward ensuring things like
 - a) everyone has access to sufficient means of subsistence;
 - b) the community's material resources are distributed fairly for the common good;
 - c) wealth isn't hoarded to the detriment of the majority of its citizens;
 - d) men and women receive equal pay for equal work;
 - e) workers' health and safety are prioritized, and citizens aren't coerced into occupations that are hazardous to their (Art. 39).
- The goal is to guarantee that no American is deprived of access to justice because of their inability to pay for representation (Art. 39A).
- to establish local governing bodies known as "panchayats" in each community. (Art. 40).
- To protect the right to public assistance in times of unjustified need, such as unemployment, old age, illness, etc., and to provide access to employment and education (Art. 41).
- To provide fair working conditions, including maternity leave, and other forms of assistance for working mothers (Art. 42).

- To encourage home-based businesses as a means of providing employment, a reasonable salary, a respectable quality of living, recreational, and social and cultural possibilities for everybody. (Art. 43).
- To ensure that employees of all industries are represented on company boards. (Art. 43A).
- To ensure that every one of the nations is governed by the same civil law (Art. 44).
- A free and obligatory public education must be made available to all children under the age of fourteen within ten years of the Constitution's enactment (Art. 45).

These changes were made to this section by the Constitutional Amendments to the Eighty-Sixth Amendment Act of 2002:

- Support for children under the age of six via early learning and development programs: State officials must make every effort to ensure that all children under the age of six have access to quality care and education. Changing Article 5 1A The following clause should be inserted to Article 5 1A of the Constitution, immediately after clause (J): (k) Who is a parent or guardian to give educational opportunities to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the ages of six and fourteen.
- To prioritize the social and economic advancement of the marginalized, particularly those of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes (Art. 46).
- Ensure the betterment of public health and the ban of drugs and alcohol (Art. 47).
- Prohibiting the slaughter of cows, calves, and other milch and draught animals and organizing agriculture and animal husbandry along scientific lines in order to conserve and enhance the breeds (Art.48).
- To preserve the country's natural ecosystems, including its forests and wildlife, and to make these places better places to live (Art. 48A).
- To safeguard all sites of historical and/or national significance (Art. 49).
- To bring about the independence of the judiciary from the executive (Art. 50).
- Aiming to enhance respect for international law and treaty responsibilities in the interactions of organized individuals with one another, and facilitating the resolution of international disputes via arbitration (Art. 51).

Put together, these ideals provide the cornerstones upon which a new democratic India might be constructed. They are a baseline for the hopes and dreams that Indians hold dear, with an eye toward achieving them in a fair amount of time. To be sure, India will have earned the right to call herself a welfare state once these ideals are put into practice by the government.

Importance of DPSPs for an Indian citizen

A person should be informed of DPSPs despite the fact that they cannot be litigated in court. Article 37 makes clear that these values are cornerstones of the country's governing structure. The DPSPs aim to improve societal and economic circumstances for the betterment of its citizens. A citizen's ability to scrutinize the government is strengthened through education on DPSPs. The public may utilize DPSPs to evaluate the government's effectiveness and pinpoint areas of improvement. Because these rules serve as a standard against which the legislation that controls a person may be evaluated, knowing them is important. Furthermore, it limits the state's ability to enact a harsh legislation. The importance of striking a fair balance between DPSPs and Fundamental Rights has been firmly established by several legal rulings. A vital aspect of the Constitution known as the Fundamental Right would be jeopardized in some way if a guiding principle wasn't followed.

Directive Principles of State Policy Condemnation

One common complaint about the implementation of these guidelines is that they are not backed by any legal authority. In the event of a violation of these criteria, there are no legal consequences. The Constitution does not make these claims justiciable or set a timeline for attaining them; they are only declarations of intentions that the State should carry out. Specifically, they are "a check payable by the bank at its convenience," as critic T. Shah puts it. The DPSP is a little murky. For instance, there are no specified procedures for enforcing the Directive Principle, despite its stated goal of promoting international stability and friendly cooperation among all states.

The concepts don't all seem to work in the real world. Many of the suggestions presented in Section IV are unrealistic. There was an attempt at prohibition in Haryana, but it was practically difficult to enforce. Because of this, the Haryana Government had to give up on it. Prohibition legislation is ineffective because of the difficulties of really enforcing the law.

Inter-relationship between Directive Principles of State Policy and Fundamental Rights

At first, the Directive Principles were more of a moral guideline than a legally binding document. India's constitutional courts have favoured a literal reading of Article 37, which states that Directive Principles are not enforceable by any court. Many of the Court's early rulings reflected this idea. Although the government argued that the order was issued in accordance with Article 46, a Directive Principle, it was deemed illegal in the case *State of Madras v. Champakam Dorairajan* because it clashed with Article 29(2) of a FR.

The Supreme Court ruled that

Part III provisions that are enforceable by proper writs, orders, or directions under Article 32 take precedence over state policy directives that have been specifically declared unenforceable by the courts. The Fundamental Rights chapter takes precedence and must be followed by the Directive Principles. The court went so far as to say that the FR was not meant to be a "mere rope of sand," and that if DPSP were permitted to override, that would be the case. The government cannot be forced to comply with a Directive Principle by an order or a Writ of mandamus, despite the fact that DPSP are deemed essential in the administration of the nation and the state is required to take them as guiding light in making legislation. The Supreme Court has once again reaffirmed its position that this court lacks authority to issue directives for the implementation of the Directive Principles of State Policy. Therefore, it is not possible to challenge a law on the basis that it conflicts with the Directive Principles.

Primacy of DPSP over Fundamental Rights

The Supreme Court's precedent shows that it is increasingly leaning toward Directive Principles and seeing FR as a means to that end. Several DPSP have been ingrained in the FR field via DPSP-read FR. And Article 21 stands to gain the most from this strategy.

Article 21 A is a classic example of this. Parliament introduced Article 21 A as Right to Education, which was a DPSP under Article 41 and Article 45 of the Indian Constitution, after the case of *Unnikrishnan vs. State of Andhra Pradesh*. The scope of Article 21 has been greatly expanded by the Hon'ble SC after taking Directive Principles into account; it now covers the rights to health and social justice[xi], to adequate housing, and to protection from unreasonable searches and seizures.

In the case of *Har Shankar vs. Deputy E. and T. Commission*, the Supreme Court went so far as to rule that all narcotics were included in the definition of "intoxicating beverages" in the United States Code Section u.A.47. The top court has maintained the complete prohibition on cow slaughter by the state of Gujarat in *State of Gujarat v. Mirzapur Moti KasabJammat*, making A.48 r/w A.37 more important than A.19(1) (g).

However, in *Akhil Bharat Goseva Sangh vs. State of Andhra Pradesh*, the Supreme Court watered down its ruling from the Mirzapur Moti Kasab Case and ruled that non-productive cattle may be eaten.

Air India Statutory Corporation vs United Labour Union &Ors on 6 November, 1996

The court has the authority under Art.226 to order employers to absorb such employees, as was the case in *Air India Statutory Corporations v. United Labour Union*. This is because the workers were entitled to absorption after the elimination of

Sociological Perspective of The Expressive and Accommodative Role of the Directive Principles of State Policy in Constituent Assembly Debates:

Constitution-making in deeply divided societies—where the transaction cost of securing consensus over key decisions is extremely high—poses a dilemma. On the one hand, the usual aspiration to create an enduring constitution demands a broad consensus over its contents. On the other hand, it's very potential endurance signals to groups that believe they have lost out in the constitutional negotiation that their loss might be permanent, encouraging intransigence. The literature on accommodation of intransigent groups in such societies has largely focused on ethnocultural minority groups that fear being permanently locked out of power under a majoritarian democratic constitution. This literature treats constitution-making as an

elitedriven process of interest-bargaining, where the minority group seeks political insurance in form of power-sharing arrangements, decisional vetoes, or legal disabilities on majoritarian decision-making.

Ethnocultural minorities are not, however, the only groups threatened by liberal democratic constitutions. While liberal constitutions tend to provide the widest latitude to future governments of different ideological make-ups, certain ideological groups—especially those whose political agendas sit uncomfortably with the liberal commitment to individual human rights—also have reasons to withhold consent. These groups typically care about religious or economic ideologies (religious establishment, state socialism, etc.) which often concern the very identity of the state itself. The distinction between ideological and ethnocultural groups is, admittedly, not entirely neat, but it is nonetheless a useful heuristic. In this article, I will show that (i) the accommodational needs of ideological dissenters are different from ethnocultural minorities, and (ii) one of the ways to secure their consent for a broadly liberal democratic constitution while also keeping their ideological opponents on board is the contained and incremental expressive accommodation of their ideological agenda in the form of constitutional “directive principles.”

Directive principles are expressive constitutional directives to the political organs of the state to programmatically secure certain transformative goals. Constitutional texts typically describe them as “not enforceable by any court” but “nevertheless fundamental in the governance of the country.”¹ They are called by various names, including directive principles of state policy, directive principles of social policy, fundamental principles of state policy, fundamental objectives, national objectives, or some combination thereof. I will refer to them as directive principles, constitutional directives, or simply directives.² Although the South African Constitution famously rejected directive principles as inadequate for its transformative agenda, they have—alongside preambles—been rather popular with framers seeking to enshrine transformative ideals in their constitutions elsewhere. Despite this, they have largely, and surprisingly, been overlooked by international and comparative constitutional law scholarship.

What little scholarly attention they have received has often been critical. Largely because of their non-justiciable character, they have been characterized at best as provisions with a “mere moral appeal”³ and “no practical implication,”⁴ at worst as “design flaws.”⁵ Their offhand dismissal by scholars—in thrall of a narrow imagination of constitutions as judicially enforced supreme law—is at odds with their persistent popularity with framers of constitutions. If they are so useless, why have over thirty-one constitutions adopted them in some form or the other, ⁶ and even amended them subsequently?⁷ When it is not dismissive, existing scholarship has focused mostly on what courts have managed to do with these supposedly non-justiciable constitutional provisions, especially in relation to fundamental rights—briefly, courts have used them as interpretive tools, as a source of unspecified fundamental rights, and as a reason to defer to a law or policy whose constitutionality is under attack. ⁸ But if we are to permit some idealism, creativity, and thoughtfulness to the makers of these constitutions, predominantly from the global South, better explanations are likely to be found beyond the legalistic confines of constitutional scholarship dominated by the American experience.

In order to evaluate the nature and significance of the Directive Principles, it is necessary to analyse the views expressed on them by the Members of the Constituent Assembly. There was a big debate on the nature and significance of Directive Principles in the Constituent Assembly. On one hand some members considered them as just pious wishes devoid of any Constitutional value. On the other a number of members assigned them a place of real significance in the Constitution.

K.T Shah linked them to “a cheque on a bank payable when able” because of its non-justifiable character. He observed that every citizen should have the right to compel the State to enforce these obligations by whatever means may be found practicable and effective, and conversely the State also should have the right to see that every citizen fulfils his obligation to the State.

Syed Karimuddin said that what stated in Part IV was vague. There was a view of economic pattern of the Country in which lot of poor masses could be improved, but the Constitution made no promise for nationalization and for the abolition of Zamindari. It was nothing but a drift. Not to have a definite economic pattern in the Constitution of free India was a great tragedy

Nusiruddin Ahmed said that these were “pious expressions” and “picas superfluities”. Every Constitutional principle should give a right, and every right should be justifiable in the Court of law and in other places. If these principles were purely of directive character without a binding force, then there were some other principles also which should also be equally introduced, for example, do not tell a lie etc. If

there was any principle which required to be mentioned it must be justifiable, it must be enforceable in a Court of law. To his view, if these principles were introduced without making them justifiable, then they would become "like resolutions made on New Year's Day which are broken at the end of January.

P.S. Deshmukh called its inclusion in the Constitution as undemocratic and opposed to parliamentary democracy and went to the extent of suggesting its deletion from the Constitution.

On the other hand, Prof. Shibban Lal Saxena considered it to be "an important chapter Laying down the principles which would govern the policy of the State" and which, therefore, would ensure to the people of the country the realization of the great ideals laid down by the Preamble. He further observed that the mere fact that they were being included in the Constitution shows that every Legislature would be bound to respect these principles and any act which offended the directives shall be ultra-virus. Somnath Lahri, however, criticized the distinction made between justifiable and non-justifiable rights. He observed that it was really very difficult to say as to what constituted social, economic and non-justifiable rights.

Thakur Das Bhargava regarded them as the essence of the Constitution and justified the way in which they were worded, he said that they give us a target, they place before us our aim and we shall do all that we can to have this aim satisfied.

When the Supplementary report on Fundamental Rights was presented to the Assembly, Biswanath Das observed that under the Constitution the teeming millions do not find any hope that would ensure them the freedom from hunger, secure them social justice and ensure them a minimum standard of living and of public health. In the principles there was nothing which made it obligatory on the State to discharge its responsibilities to the people about common welfare.

Hasan Imam went to the extent of saying that these principles were very easily capable of being ignored by the party in power as they were non-obligatory in character. He pointed out that in the Instrument of instructions issued to the Governors under the Government of India nothing like that was provided. So, there must be some superior authority to examine whether the Directive Principles were followed or not.

To clarify the above-mentioned divergent views on the concept of directives, Ambedkar and Alladi Krishna swami Ayer on behalf of the Drafting Committee, gave a lucid exposition of what they intended the Directive Principles of State Policy to be.

Ambedkar compared the directives to the Instrument of Instructions which were issued to the Governors by the British Government. The only difference was that they were instructions to the Legislatures and Executives. He said that such a thing was to be welcomed. Ambedkar while speaking on the significance and importance of Directive Principles observed:

There are various ways by which economic democracy may be brought about ... We have left enough room for people of different ways of thinking, with regard to reaching of the ideal of economic democracy, to strive..... in their own way of reaching economic democracy, the fullest opportunity to acting the way in which they went to act.

Ambedkar's observations in respect of the objective's Resolution are worth nothing:

I do not understand how it could be possible for any future Government which believes in doing justice, socially, economically and politically, unless its economy is a socialist economy.

Explaining the object of the framing of the Constitution, he said that it was twofold; one, to lay down that our ideal was political democracy, and two, to lay down that our ideal was economic democracy, and also to prescribe that every Government would strive to bring about economic democracy. He said that if this was born in mind, then much of the misunderstanding under most members where labouring disappears. Ambedkar categorically made it clear that the Directive Principles are nothing but obligations imposed by the Constitution upon the various Governments in the country. They were meant to supplement Fundamental Rights and for broad basing political democracy and securing the collective wellbeing of the people. It is, therefore, no use saying that the Directive Principles have no value.

From the above discussion which took place in the Constituent Assembly on the nature of directives, the following points may be deduced: First, that the directives are the instructions of the ultimate sovereign, the people of India to the future Legislatures and Executives in India that may be established by or under the Constitution. The directives in that sense are imperative and mandatory obligations on the State. Second, that the directives cannot be ignored by any responsible Government because the sanction behind them is not the Court but the strength of public opinion. Third, that the

directives, wedded as it is, to the ideal of economic and social democracy, represent a dynamic move towards certain objectives. Fourth, that the Directive Principles enumerated in Part IV and the Fundamental Rights enshrined in Part III of the Constitution formulated an integrated scheme, the former imposing a positive duty on the State while the latter containing negative restrictions on the State activities. Fifth, that the non-justifiability of the directives should, however, not mislead one to believe that they are non-cognizable. The Courts can take cognizance of the Directive Principles in determining reasonableness of restrictions imposed by the legislative measures on the Fundamental Rights of the citizens or to adjudge whether a particular State action was for public purpose or otherwise. Finally, Part IV containing the Directive Principles does not confer rights or create remedies but it merely embodies the policies which aim at securing the social order as contemplated by the Constitution.

Conclusion :

The Directive Principles are designed to supplement the Fundamental Rights and secure for collective wellbeing certain rights different from Fundamental Rights in nature and which Part III of the Constitution cannot secure to the individual. They are rights which the individual enjoys in his collective capacity by virtue of being a member of welfare State. They are not rights in the sense that they are inherent and the individual can demand as a matter of right, but rights which are conferred by the State on the individual for the specific objective of promoting the social wellbeing. Similarly, they are duties upon the State only to the extent that they have to establish a social order in which social, economic and political justice would prevail. They are not the duties in the legal sense, duties for the non-performance of which the State shall be answerable in the Court of law, but they are duties definitely in the Constitutional sense.

The directives are not wholly “obligations” because through them certain rights can be conferred on the people and they have a legal character also by virtue of being a part of the Constitution which is a legal document. Also, they are not mere “principles” though its title or heading States so. The directives, unlike principles, are binding in character and their non-observance could mean breach of faith. They aim at achieving social and economic democracy in addition to political democracy thereby supplementing and not supplanting the rights enjoyed by the individual under Fundamental Rights. Some critics have alleged that the statement “the principles enunciated in this Part are not enforceable by a Court of law” has stood in the way of appreciating the real nature and significance of the directives in the Indian Constitution. To this criticism K.C. Markandeyan has replied that in Constitutional matters, there are such things as conventions which are not enforceable through Courts. But Constitutional conventions are often of equal value and effect.

Describing the nature and importance of the Directive Principles under the Indian Constitution, Granville Austin says that in these principles one can find a clear statement of social revolution. They aim at making the Indian masses free in the positive sense, free from the passivity engendered by centuries of coercion by society and by nature, free from the abject of physical conditions that had prevented them from fulfilling their best selves.

It is submitted that to have a proper understanding of the nature and significance of directives, the expression, “Justice – social, economic and political occurring in Article 38 is of great significance. This significant expression forms the foundation on which the whole structure of Directive Principles is built up. This is intended to emphasize the fundamental aim of every democratic State in the modern times with a written Constitution. The Directive Principles included in the Indian Constitution are flexible and adjustable with changing times and circumstances and keeping in view this, Nehru regarded them as “dynamic” as against the Fundamental Rights which he called “static.”

References:

1. Sinha, Savita, Das, Supta & Rashmi, Neeraja (2005). *Social Science – Part II*. pg. 29.
2. Tayal, B.B. & Jacob, A. (2005). Indian History. World Developments and Civics, pg. A-39.
3. Upendra Baxi (2002). Directive Principles and Sociology of Indian Law. *Journal of Indian Law*.
4. Basu, Durga Das (1993). Introduction to the constitution of India. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.
5. J. King (2013). Constitutions as Mission Statements. in D. J. Galligan and M. Versteeg (eds). *Comparative Constitutional Law and Policy: Social and Political Foundations of Constitutions* 73–102.
6. Jennings (1956). The Approach to Self-Government 19. See Constitution of the Spanish Republic 1931. Arts 42–50.

7. D. Olowu (2009). An Integrative Rights-Based Approach to Human Development in Africa. 96–98.
8. J. Usman (2007) Non-Justiciable Directive Principles: A Constitutional Design Defect. 15 Mich St Int'l L Rev 643. See also Okere, who rues the absence of even a Conseil Constitutional type enforcement body for the Nigerian directive principles: O. Okere, 'Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy under the Nigerian Constitution. (1983) 32 Int'l & Comp LQ 214, 221.
9. Aiyer, Alladi Krishnaswami (1955). The Constitution and Fundamental Rights. (Srinivasa Sastri Memorial Lectures).
10. MUKHERJEE, P., Indian Constitution Documents Containing Government of India Act. 1915 and 1916.
11. MASHRUWALA. K.G. (1946). Some Particular Suggestions for the Constitution of free India.
12. Pandey, Ram Darshan (1985). Fundamental Rights and Constitutional Amendments. (Delhi: Capital Publishing House).
13. Rajesh.K. JHA.(2012). Fundamentals of Indian political System Dorling Kindersley (India) Pvt.Ltd. Licensees of Peasant Education in south Asia.
14. Aakanksha Bhola (2018). Scope of Enforcement of DPSPs. (https://www.lawctopus.com/academike/scope-of-enforcement-of-dpsps/#_edn6) accessed.
15. B.Shiva Rao (1966). The Framing of India's Constitution: Select Documents. 342-343 Article 37. the Constitution of India.
16. D.D.Basu. (2009). Introduction to the Constitution of India 151.
17. Ashoka (2007). Smokeless Coal India. (P) Ltd. v. Union of India 2 SCC 640.

