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Vol. 27

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**CONTENTS**

<b>Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis</b> Bailochan Behera and P.K. Swain	<b>1</b>
<b>Changing Tribal Economy in Central India: A Retrospect</b> Vikash Kumar	<b>22</b>
<b>Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh</b> Reena Bala	<b>30</b>
<b>Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996: Implementation and Analysis of the 25 Years of Journey</b> Sachchidanand Prasad and Nagendra Ambedkar Sole	<b>56</b>
<b>Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons</b> Pravin Laxman Shinde	<b>74</b>
<b>Political Participation and Gender Inequality among Women of Telangana, India</b> Keyoor Pathak, J. Raja Meenakshi and Chittaranjan Subudhi	<b>90</b>

<b>The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position: The Case of Governor Narasimhan's Regime, 2009-2019</b> S. Swaroop Sirapangi	<b>102</b>
<b>Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children</b> Shubhria Sharma	<b>119</b>
<b>Exploring the Nature of Social Media Usage</b> Preeti Mann	<b>136</b>
<i>Book Review</i> <b>Creating, Building and Sustaining an Institution: A Momentous Journey of Institute of Public Enterprise (R.K. Mishra and Geeta Potaraju)</b> Anupama Dubey	<b>148</b>

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## Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis

Bailochan Behera\* and P.K. Swain†

*Child labour is still an alarming issue in the contemporary India which acts as a violator of Article 21a of the Indian Constitution that guarantees free and compulsory education for 6-14 years age group children under Right to Education Act 2009. Based on 2011 Census of India data, this paper tries to examine trends, patterns, magnitude and determinants of child labour at state and district level in India. Results shows massive decline of economically active children in rural areas in 2011 than 2001. The rural-urban trends and patterns in this phenomena exhibit differently. Results also convey that work participation rate of children and their share to total work force is positively associated with proportion of Schedule Caste population, adult male and female employment rate, household size, share of workers in agriculture and negatively related with level of female literacy, level of urbanisation, household wealth, educational infrastructure, the proportion of female headed households and gross enrollment ratio. Findings show that female labour force participation and household size are the strongest predictors of share and work participation of children.*

### Introduction

Child labour is not a new phenomenon. It is as old as mankind, though its recognition as a serious issue of human society felt very lately,

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### **Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis**

particularly in the post industrial revolution in England. Probably in 1802 serious effort was put forth for the first time when Robert Peel's Factory Act was passed to abolish child labour from the society (Basu & Tzannatos, 2003). Since then, a lot of efforts have been made to solve the issue by local, national and international organisations at different scales, but the size of the problem is still so large and dynamic that its abolition is not achieved yet. "Child labour is a very stubborn problem: its abolition in one economic sector may be accompanied by its re-emergence in another, and nowhere has it been completely abolished (International Labour Organisation, 2002, p. 21).

Child labour issue affects all countries irrespective of their socio-economic development. The issue of child labour not only lies in its vastness but also in the question of large scale violation of human rights. Thus, the basic objective of all such efforts is to protect their physical and intellectual development (ILO, 2013; Dessy & Pallage, 2005; Herath & Sharma, 2007). Thus, child labour has negative consequences on growth and future development of the society in which they live (ILO, 2013; Maurya, 2001).

There are many key socio-economic-political and cultural determinants which cumulatively promote and perpetuate child labour. Hence, the study of any factor in isolation leads to erroneous conclusion (Subbaraman & Witzke, 2007). Purely social or economic explanation is not adequate to explain child labour issue in a society (Amin et al., 2004). So, it is equally important to incorporate cultural determinants while analysing child labour issues. A mixed empirical result has also been reported between poverty and child labour in the literature of academia. The first school of thought argued that child labour is deeply rooted in poverty. Child labour force participation is relatively higher among impoverished families (Basu & Van, 1998; Basu, 1999). According to Luxury Axiom<sup>1</sup> "A family will send the children to the labour market only if the family's income from non-child-labour sources drops very low" (Basu and Van, 1998, p. 416). So, child labour is a phenomena closely associated with poverty and economic development (Herath, 2007). Rising income can play a significant role in sharp reduction of child labour (Edmonds, 2005). Congdon F. (2007) finds from the study on rural India that rising income has positive impact on child school attendance and negative impact on non-school activities. The empirical studies also established wages of father lead to less probability of child labour while father's unemployment force children to work (Basu & Van, 1998).

Second School of thought such as studies of Ray (2000a, 2003) finds no direct link between poverty and child labour in Ghana and Pakistan. Chandrasekhar (1997) finds a weak and negative correlation between



### Behera and Swain

poverty and child labour participation in India. It is universally accepted that poverty is a proximate determinant of child labour but increasing parental income need not necessarily leads to increase in school attendance and reduction of child labour (Rogers & Swinnerton, 2004). Empirical evidences from South Asia also show that if adult female wages rise then mothers are more likely to take their daughters or children to work (Ray, 2000a). Studies in India based on NSS data Kambhampati & Rajan (2006) find a positive relationship between economic growth and child labour. Economic growth creates a demand for child labour and hence, it increases due to increase in growth of the economy.

Poverty and illiteracy problem is dominated among marginalised people like scheduled population (Das, 1991; Ray, 2000b) and hence the likelihood of a child to work is more in those areas where proportion of schedule population is very high. The school drop-out rate and incidence of child labour is higher in SCs and STs than non SC/STs social groups. Children from STs are twice as likely as to work than upper castes (Sadana, 2009).

Ray (2002) from the study of Nepal and Pakistan argued that there is a sharp trade-off between child schooling and child labour. Parental education, particularly mother's education and quality of schooling in the neighbourhood play a significant positive impact on child schooling and negatively affects child labour (Khan, 2003; Ray, 2003; Congdon F., 2007). Absence of public education system, poor quality schooling, and inappropriate education policy fail to impart employment skills to children and hence, it motivates parents to take their children out of school and put them in employment (Ray 2003; Subbaraman and Witzke, 2007; ILO,2002). Kambhampati (2009) finds that the proportion of children in work and attendance in school has increased sharply during 1993-2004. As a result proportion of children whose primary activities is schooling has gone down. Thus, a rapid increase of job opportunities due to better economic growth, leads to increase the proportion of children who are doing both activities and schooling. Children from urban areas are more likely to attend schools due to higher density and better quality of educational infrastructure, more educated and aware parents, better wage and regularity of jobs for elders than rural areas (Khan, 2003).

Agriculture is one of the largest sectors of child labour (International Labour Organisation, 2013; National Commission for Protection of Child Right, 2011). However, the magnitude varies from country to country. Persistence of child labour is attributed due to demand of the market as well as segmented (on the basis of caste, class and gender division) society

### **Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis**

“which provide distinct spheres for participation of children in the labour force” (Kak, 2004, p. 46).

“Child work and fertility seem to be closely related and societies with high birth rate are often the ones where the incidence of child labour is high” (Deshpande, 2004, p. 192). Slow demographic transition in the poorest part of the world acts as a supplier of children to the labour market. Because high dependency ratio puts pressure on the economically active population and leads to expansion of economically active age group by bringing younger children into the labour force (ILO, 2002; Khan, 2003; Sahu, 2013). Ray (2003) finds no strong positive relationship between child labour hours and the number of children in Ghana. Children from female-headed households are more likely to attend schools (Khan, 2003). But it may be possible that poor and large size female-headed households force children to work outside or engaged the elder children to take care of the family.

The regional or cultural factor is also immensely important to understand the practices of child labour in a country. The cultural factors also play a significant role in motivating families to send their children to work (Delap, 2001). Some parents fear of child idleness if they do not work. So, in many areas children work is considered as means for preparing children for future work as an adult (Rahman, Khanam & Absar, 1999).

India, being a developing and one of the fastest growing economies of today's world, is also a home ground of huge size of child labourer in Asia continent. A large proportion of World's child labour lives in India. According to Census of India, 2011, more than 10.1 million children are engaged themselves as 'main workers' and/or 'marginal workers' labour in India (International Labour Organisation, 2017).

Within this background, an attempt has been made to examine two objectives i.e., to analyse the trends, patterns and magnitudes of child labour in India since 1991; and to examine the socioeconomic as well as demographic determinant of child labour at state and district level.

#### **Data Sources and Variables**

The census is one of the most comprehensive sources of data on child labour which provides large set of information about child labour by age, gender, residence, sectoral (or occupation-wise) distribution, nature of employment (i.e. main or marginal), categories by activities status, non-workers and 'Nowhere Children'<sup>2</sup> etc. The Census of India, 2011 for the first time provides more comprehensive data on marginal workers by adding a new dimension to it i.e., workers engaged themselves for less than three

## Behera and Swain

months and those work for 3-6 months. As it is often found that children are more dynamic in terms of their employment status and their work is more seasonal in nature. Hence, this helps a lot to understand the nature of marginal workers more minutely than earlier census. The data for the present study has been borrowed from Primary Census Abstract, Housing and Household Series and General Economic Table (B1) of the Census of India, 2011. Besides, General Economic Tables of 1991 and 2001 of the Census of India have also been used. Different socio-economic indicators are taken from different sources i.e., Planning Commission<sup>3</sup>, Selected Educational Statistics, MHRD, Flash Statistics<sup>4</sup> 2011-12 from the NUEPA, 8th All India Education Survey 2008-09<sup>5</sup>, NCERT, and NSSO (2011).

### Defining Variables

There is no universal definition of child labour. It varies from one country to another depending upon socio-economic, political as well environmental conditions. The definitional problem, paucity of reliable statistics and the multi-facet nature make the problem more complex.<sup>6</sup>

O.P. Maurya (2001, P. 492) has defined "child labour as that segment of the child population of a country which is found to be engaged themselves in paid or unpaid employment in a given situation. For this analysis, incidence of child labour is defined as proportion of working children (5-14) to total workers of a district/state but work participation of child is defined as the proportion of working children to economically active age group children i.e., children belong to 5-14 years of age.

A wide range of economic, demographic and social indicators are being chosen to examine their impact on child labour at a district level in India. At the state level, the indicators which are chosen for measuring the correlation are broadly divided into social, economic, demographic and school related indicators. Under the social indicator; per cent of schedule population to total population is taken into consideration. Under the economic indicator domain, level of urbanisation, share of labour force in agriculture, adult male and female labour force participation rate, per cent of population below poverty line, Index of Housing Quality<sup>7</sup>, natural log of Net State Domestic Product Per Capita (NSDPPC) at current price, average growth performance of states between 2000-01 and 2011-12 (GSDP at constant price). Under the demographic indicators, Total Fertility Rate<sup>8</sup> or household size (here extended households<sup>9</sup> are taken), per cent of female-headed households, and per cent of children age 5-14 to total children. Under the education and school related indicators; female literacy rate, Gross

### Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis

Enrollment Ratio (GER) at elementary education, Dropout rate and Index of School Infrastructure<sup>10</sup> are used. However, all these variables are taken not only to see the association between incidences of child labour and/or child labour force participation (Dependent Variables) with other variables but also to examine their link between other variables as well. Correlation Matrix helps to identify some proxy variables for analysis at district level. For example, IHQ is used as a proxy indicator of family wealth. Earlier studies established that this index resembles a consumption index and reflects wealth of a family. It has also strong and positive correlation with urbanisation and negatively associated with poverty (Sundaram and Vanneman, 2008). In this analysis, IHQ is also found to be a significant and positive link with level of urbanisation ( $r=0.789$ ), Log of Net Domestic Product Per Capita ( $r=0.859$ ) and significantly negative correlation with regional poverty ( $r=-0.653$ ). Similarly urbanisation has strong negative correlation with per cent of 5-14 children, ( $r=-0.918$ ) and a share of employed in agriculture ( $r=-0.878$ ). But at the district level study, primarily census based indicators are taken into consideration and these variables are as follows:

#### Methodology

##### *Dependent Variables*

$Y_1$  = Child Labour Participation Rate (proportion of Children working in 5-14/total children 5-14)

$Y_2$  = Incidence of Child Labour (Percent of child labour among total workers.)

##### *Independent Variables*

$x_1$  = Percent of Schedule Population to Total Population of a district

$x_2$  = Percent of Urban Population to Total Population of a district

$x_3$  = Percent of Agriculture Workers to Total Workers

$x_4$  = Male (15-59 Years) Workforce Participation Rate

$x_5$  = Female (15-59 Years) Workforce Participation Rate

$x_6$  = Index of Housing Quality (In per cent)

$x_7$  = Percentage of Large Households (household members more than 6).

$x_8$  = Percentage of Female-headed Households to total households in a district

$x_9$  = Percentage of Female Literates to Female Population

$x_{10}$  = Gross Enrollment Ratio in Elementary Level

In order to find out the impact of independent variables on the dependent variables, Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) Regression has been used. The OLS regression model has been given below;

$$Y_1 = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + \beta_5 x_5 + \beta_6 x_6 + \beta_7 x_7 + \beta_8 x_8 + \beta_9 x_9 + \beta_{10} x_{10} + u_i \dots (1.0)$$

### Behera and Swain

Where  $Y_1$  (share of child labour to total workforce or Incidence of Child Labour) is a dependent variable, all  $x_i$  are independent variables  $\alpha$  is the intercept, all  $\beta_i$  are the slope of the straight line and  $u_i$  is the error term of the regression equation.

$$Y_2 = \alpha + \beta_1x_1 + \beta_2x_2 + \beta_3x_3 + \beta_4x_4 + \beta_5x_5 + \beta_6x_6 + \beta_7x_7 + \beta_8x_8 + \beta_9x_9 + \beta_{10}x_{10} + u_i \dots (1.1)$$

Where  $Y_2$  (Child Workforce Participation Rate) is a dependent variable for the second model.

The limitations of this study are that some dimension of child labour such as their occupation, education, socio-economic and cultural background etc. in this study. However, with the available data, an effort has been done to explore the nature, trends and determinants of the child labour phenomena in India.

### Trends and Magnitude of Child Labour in India

As per the Census 1971, the total number of working children in India was 10.7 million. The number of working children swelled to 13.6 million in 1981, then it fall to 11.28 in 1991, and then again rise to 12.67 million in 2001 and then finally fall into 10.13 million in 2011. This indicates a meandering trend line from which it is difficult to arrive at a concrete conclusion about the future trend of child labour in India. However, it can be said that Census 2011 reported the lowest volume of child labour since 1995 and as compared to the previous decade (particularly 1991-2001), the recent decade (2001-2011) has shown decline trend and is declined by 25.4 lakh. This is true for rural areas as well. However, the fall is sharper for girls (declined by 13.6 lakh) as compared to boys (11.8 lakh). On the contrary, 1991-2011, urban India has shown a rising trend and it became sharp for both male and female in recent decade. In other words, 7.05 lakh more working children are added in the recent decade. The trend lines of workforce participation rate of working children indicate decline patterns from 5.0 per cent in 2001 to 3.9 per cent in 2011 in India. Girls labour force participation declined more sharply than boys. This indicates there are fewer girls than boys in labour market as compare to 2001 and hence gender gap has increased. In contrast to this, urban India has shown a rising trend in workforce participation but relatively stable trends in the share of child workers to total workers.

As per the Census 2011 (see Table 1), India is a country with large size of child population (377 million) of which a significantly large proportion is constituted by economically active children (259.6 million). Working children constitutes 0.84 per cent of the total population, 2.7 per

### Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis

cent of total child population and 3.9 per cent to total economically active child population of the country in a more relative sense. These proportions vary widely across states. The highest proportion of child workers to total workers (6.6 per cent), child workers to total child population (7.0 per cent) and work participation rate (13.2 per cent) is registered against Nagaland, followed by Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan, Jharkhand, Chhattishgarh, Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Assam, Odisha and Jammu & Kashmir. The incidence and work participation rate of children in these states are also higher than the national average. But, among the major states, Kerala and Tamil Nadu have the lowest level of child labour in this regard. This can partially be explained as higher incidence of adult unemployment is found in Nagaland, Odisha, Jammu and Kashmir, Chhattisgarh and Uttar Pradesh (as per NSS KI 68/10, 2011-12).

**Table 1**  
**Child Population, Economically Active Child Population and**  
**Child Labourer; 2011**

State/Union Territories	Per cent of Child Population to Total Population			Size of Child Population (0-14)			Size of Economically Active Child Population (5-14)			Size of Child Labourer		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
<b>India</b>	<b>31.13</b>	<b>31.56</b>	<b>30.67</b>	<b>3769.34</b>	<b>1967.24</b>	<b>1802.1</b>	<b>2596.37</b>	<b>1357.19</b>	<b>1239.18</b>	<b>101.29</b>	<b>56.29</b>	<b>45</b>
Andhra Pradesh	26.68	27.31	26.03	225.62	115.93	109.69	155.06	79.69	75.37	6.73	3.45	3.28
Assam	32.9	32.88	32.93	102.68	52.41	50.27	70.36	35.96	34.4	2.85	1.73	1.12
Bihar*	40.47	40.38	40.56	421.25	219.17	202.07	289.56	151.2	138.36	10.89	6.33	4.56
Chhattisgarh	32.13	32.45	31.8	82.07	41.64	40.43	56.43	28.65	27.78	2.58	1.28	1.3
Gujarat	29.26	29.87	28.59	176.84	94.08	82.77	119.85	64.1	55.75	4.63	2.6	2.03
Haryana	29.83	30.73	28.8	75.61	41.47	34.15	51.67	28.46	23.21	1.23	0.74	0.49
Himachal Pradesh	26.01	27	24.99	17.86	9.4	8.45	12.3	6.5	5.81	1.27	0.65	0.62
Jammu & Kashmir	33.93	34.11	33.74	42.56	22.65	19.91	28.26	14.92	13.34	1.15	0.61	0.54
Jharkhand	36.4	36.41	36.39	120.08	61.64	58.44	82.43	42.31	40.12	4	2.08	1.93
Karnataka	26.3	26.67	25.93	160.71	82.59	78.11	109.78	56.52	53.26	4.21	2.31	1.9
Kerala	23.55	25	22.2	78.65	40.07	38.59	53.78	27.42	26.36	0.45	0.26	0.2
Madhya Pradesh*	33.58	33.68	33.47	243.85	126.67	117.18	168.31	87.49	80.82	7	3.74	3.26
Maharashtra	26.99	27.47	26.46	303.25	159.99	143.26	205.55	108.4	97.15	7.28	4.02	3.26
Nagaland	34.39	34.36	34.44	6.81	3.52	3.28	4.82	2.5	2.32	0.64	0.33	0.31
Orissa	29.05	29.36	28.74	121.96	62.28	59.67	84.23	42.89	41.35	3.34	1.72	1.63
Punjab	25.69	26.77	24.47	71.26	39.19	32.07	49.51	27.47	22.04	1.77	1.12	0.64
Rajasthan	35	35.68	34.27	239.95	126.86	113.09	164.23	86.9	77.34	8.48	3.96	4.52
Tamil Nadu	23.67	24.32	23.01	170.74	87.9	82.85	117.29	60.4	56.89	2.84	1.57	1.27
Uttar Pradesh*	36.5	36.81	36.16	729.3	384.56	344.74	509.32	269.29	240.02	21.77	12.91	8.85
Uttaranchal	31.19	32.34	29.99	31.46	16.62	14.84	22.04	11.63	10.41	0.82	0.44	0.38
West Bengal	27.23	27.14	27.32	248.5	127.02	121.48	174.04	88.94	85.1	5.5	3.4	2.1

Source: Census of India, 2011, General Economic Table, B-1

Boys are economically more active than girls at national level, however, such proportion varied across states.

### Behera and Swain

The growth story (Table 2) of working children indicates that during 2001-2011 period, India has registered a negative annual exponential growth rate of 2.2 per cent and pace of negative growth is higher in case of girls than boys (similar findings are also documented in ILO 2013, and rural than urban). Among major states Haryana has registered the highest negative growth followed by Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka,. However, Andhra Pradesh had a very large child population, but shown a remarkable decline of work-participation rate of working children and dramatic rise in school enrollment since 1991 (NCPCR, 2011). On the other hand, Nagaland, Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Bihar, Uttaranchal and Kerala have positive growth, both in rural and Urban India. In recent years, there is a shift of child labour from farm to non-farm activities. The rapid rise of child labour in absolute and relative terms is due to rapid increase of household industries and service sector. Despite the rapid increase in enrollment and literacy Himachal Pradesh has shown rising trends. This phenomenon can partly be explained by the rise in the proportion of children who are doing both work and attending school or better enumeration of unpaid work of children (NCPCR, 2011). In case of Kerala, it is due to large scale in migration of children, particularly in urban areas for better remuneration from poor states of India like Odisha, Chhattisgarh etc., domination of hotel and trade, tourism and manufacturing sectors which observe huge size of child labour. In urban areas, Kerala has the highest annual exponential growth rate of 12.4 per cent, followed by Gujurat, Maharastra, Uttaranchal, Uttar Pradesh and least is registered in Tamil Nadu. The majority of states have shown a negative growth of working children in rural India in 2011.

**Table 2**  
**Annual Exponential Growth Rate of Child Labour during 2001-2011**

State/Union Territories	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
India	-2.24	-1.9	-2.64	-3.37	-3	-3.79	4.28	3.42	5.79
Andhra Pradesh	-7.06	-6.15	-7.93	-9.56	-8.79	-10.23	3.97	3.02	5.42
Assam	-2.1	-2.14	-2.04	-2.29	-2.42	-2.09	0.44	2	-1.47
Bihar	-0.26	-1.17	1.14	-0.64	-1.52	0.72	5.52	3.81	9
Chhattisgarh	-3.47	-2.62	-4.24	-3.89	-3.09	-4.58	3.65	3.72	3.54
Gujarat	-0.47	0.86	-1.96	-2.52	-1.37	-3.59	7.27	6.83	8.25
Haryana	-7.22	-6	-8.8	-10.58	-9.23	-12.24	6.64	5.17	9.7
Himachal Pradesh	1.61	2.07	1.16	1.54	2.01	1.08	5.39	4.69	6.54
Jammu & Kashmir	-4.24	-3.82	-4.7	-5.7	-5.26	-6.16	6.03	4.83	7.91
Jharkhand	-0.17	-0.04	-0.31	-0.46	-0.33	-0.59	4.28	3.54	5.64
Karnataka	-6.69	-6.44	-6.99	-8.88	-8.5	-9.28	0.76	-0.56	2.98
Kerala	5.52	4.55	6.97	2.04	1.16	3.35	12.36	11.15	14.2
Madhya Pradesh	-4.2	-3.56	-4.87	-4.98	-4.42	-5.55	3.51	3.05	4.36
Maharashtra	-0.48	0.09	-1.16	-2.82	-2.08	-3.58	7.24	5.67	10.32
Nagaland	3.3	3.52	3.06	3.08	3.29	2.86	5.82	6.03	5.57

### Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis

State/Union Territories	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Orissa	-1.21	-0.65	-1.78	-1.62	-1.05	-2.17	3.9	3.43	4.64
Punjab	-0.04	-0.35	0.55	-2.54	-2.44	-2.7	5.51	3.95	8.98
Rajasthan	-3.98	-3.46	-4.4	-4.35	-3.92	-4.7	1.57	1.14	2.35
Tamil Nadu	-3.88	-3.61	-4.2	-6.17	-5.51	-6.91	0	-0.68	0.94
Uttar Pradesh	1.21	0.77	1.9	0.19	-0.17	0.73	6.86	5.44	9.76
Uttaranchal	1.61	2.31	0.86	0.78	1.63	-0.04	7.04	5.41	11.12
West Bengal	-4.43	-3.8	-5.38	-6.21	-5.49	-7.3	2.19	2.52	1.71

Source: Census of India, 2001 & 2011, General Economic Table, B-1

**Table 3**  
Size (in lakh) and Growth of Main and Marginal Workers in India during 2001-2011

		2011			2001			Annual Exp. Growth			Share of Main Child Workers to Total Child Worker	
		Main	Marginal	Total	Main	Marginal	Total	Main	Marginal	Total	2011	2001
Total	Total	43.5	57.8	101.3	57.8	68.9	126.7	-2.83	-1.76	-2.24	43	45.6
	Males	26.6	29.6	56.3	36	32.1	68	-3	-0.79	-1.9	47.3	52.9
	Females	16.9	28.1	45	21.8	36.8	58.6	-2.56	-2.7	-2.64	37.5	37.2
Rural	Total	32.7	48.3	81	48.2	65.2	113.4	-3.89	-3	-3.37	40.3	42.5
	Males	19.4	24.5	43.9	29.3	30	59.2	-4.1	-2.03	-3	44.3	49.4
	Females	13.3	23.9	37.1	19	35.2	54.2	-3.57	-3.9	-3.79	35.7	35
Urban	Total	10.8	9.4	20.3	9.6	3.6	13.2	1.25	9.48	4.28	53.5	72.4
	Males	7.2	5.2	12.4	6.7	2.1	8.8	0.73	9.04	3.42	58.2	76.2
	Females	3.6	4.2	7.9	2.9	1.6	4.4	2.37	10.06	5.79	46.1	64.8

Source: Census of India, 2001 & 2011, General Economic Table, B-1

Table 3 shows that the number of children as main workers declined faster rate of 2.8 per cent per annum as compare to 1.8 per cent rate among marginal workers. Number of boys as a main worker declined much faster than girls i.e., three per cent per annum for boys and 2.6 per cent for girls respectively. As a result the proportion of girls as main workers has increased from 37.8 per cent 2001 to 38.8 per cent in 2011. In case of rural India it is 39.6 per cent to 40.3 per cent. On the other hand, declined rate of girls as marginal workers is faster than boys. Thus, the share of girls as marginal workers has declined from 53.4 per cent to 48.7 per cent in total and 54 per cent to 49.4 per cent for rural areas. In contrast to rural India, urban India depicts a distinct picture in recent decade. Both main and marginal child worker has a positive growth rate of 1.25 per cent and 9.48 per cent per annum respectively. Within that the growth rate of girls as main and marginal workers is higher than that of boys. This growth leads to rise in proportion of girls as a main worker from 29.9 per cent to 33.5 per cent and



### Behera and Swain

42.6 per cent to 45.1 per cent as marginal workers in urban India. In other words, Urban India gets flooded with rise in the proportion of girls as main and marginal workers in 2011 as compared to 2001. This indicates that urban India is moving towards feminisation of child labour.

#### District Level Analysis

The proportion of working children to total workers and children work-participation rate has regional concentration. There is very high (5.4 per cent<) incidence of child workers, particularly in majority districts of Nagaland. For example the highest incidence is found in Longleng district (13.7 per cent), followed by Peren, Mon, Tuensang of Nagaland, Arwal and Jahanabad of Bihar, Dhaulpur district of Rajasthan and Jhabua district of Madhya Pradesh etc. Basically the Indo-Gangetic Plain and north western belt of India has a higher incidence of child labour. While, south India has a lower incidence of child labour Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and mostly the central India. A Similar pattern is also reflected in the children work participation rate. Highest level of work participation rate is 32 per cent registered against Peren district of Nagaland. Besides, Kullu, Chamba, Simaure, Kinnaur districts of Himachal Pradesh belong to the very high category of workforce participation rate.

**Table 4**  
**District Level Percentage Change, 2001-2011**

Nomenclature	in Proportion of Child Labourer to Total Workers			in Child Labour Force Participation			in Proportion of Main Child Labourer to Total Child Labourers		
	Classes	Number of Districts	Per cent to total districts	Classes	Number of Districts	Per cent to total districts	Classes	Number of Districts	Per cent to total districts
Very High Decline	-3.4<	38	6.4	-6.2<	33	5.6	-22.3<	39	6.6
Moderate Decline	-3.4 to - 1.1	209	35.2	-6.2 to -1.3	212	35.8	-22.3 to -1.9	262	44.2
Weak Decline To Weak Rise	-1.1 to 1.3	215	36.3	-1.3 to 3.5	336	56.7	-1.9 to 18.5	256	43.2
Moderate To Above Rise	1.3 <	131	22.1	3.5 <	12	2.0	18.5 <	36	6.1
Number Of Districts	N	593	100		593	100		593	100

Notes: Newly formed districts in 2011 are merged with their parent district of 2001 for comparative analysis.

Classes are done on the basis of Mean 1.5  $\sigma$

Source: Census of India, 2001 & 2011, General Economic Table, B-1.

Table 4 shows that low to very high levels of decline in child labour is occurred in majority of districts (around 462 which is the 78 per cent of the

### Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis

total districts 593) between 2001 and 2011. Similarly, in case of work participation rate, 65.2 per cent of total districts or 387 have per cent point fall in child labour. In case of percentage change, 334 districts or 56.3 per cent of total districts have shown per cent point fall in terms of proportion of main child workers to total child workers. However, the magnitude of fall varies across districts from a very high decline to high increased. In all these three indicators, more than 50 per cent districts have percentage point decline in the 2011 which is really a good sign.

**Table 5**  
**Distribution and Change of Child labour across Age cohort and Gender**

	2001				2011				Per cent change in share			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	5-9 Years	10-14 Years	5-9 Years	10-14 Years	5-9 Years	10-14 Years	5-9 Years	10-14 Years	5-9 Years	10-14 Years	5-9 Years	10-14 Years
Total	7.9	45.8	6.7	39.6	13.5	42.1	11.5	32.9	5.6	-3.7	4.8	-6.7
Rural	7.6	44.7	6.7	41.0	12.4	41.8	10.9	34.9	4.8	-2.8	4.2	-6.1
Urban	10.8	55.8	6.3	27.1	17.9	43.2	14.0	24.8	7.1	-12.5	7.7	-2.3

Author's own estimation

Source: Census of India, 2001 & 2011, General Economic Table, B-1

The proportion of boys is higher than girls among working children in both the Census i.e., 2001 and 2011 (Table 5.0). But, the proportion of boys increased by 1.9 per cent from 53.7 per cent to 55.6 per cent during 2001 and 2011. On the contrary, share of boys workers declines from 66.6 per cent to 61 per cent during the same period. Another important characteristic of age structure analysis of child workers shows that irrespective of gender, recent year is characterised by a rise in the proportion of 5-9 age cohort children by 5.6 per cent from 7.9 per cent to 13.5 per cent and this is higher in urban areas than rural. Decline in share of 10-14 years girls child labour is more than the boys in rural area while, decline of boys child labour is more than girl child labour at this age group in urban in 2011. Thus, relatively more young children entering into the labour market as compared to 2001.

The table 6 shows that incidence of working children has a strong and positive correlation coefficient with proportion of scheduled population ( $r=.471$ ), proportion of workers in agriculture ( $r=.698$ ) adult male work force participation ( $r=.121$ ), female work force participation ( $r=.543$ ), and household size ( $r=.218$ ). These correlation coefficient values are also statistically significant at one per cent level. In addition to that, state level

**Behera and Swain**

correlation analysis (which is shown in table 6.1) indicates that dropout rates at the elementary level ( $r=.408$ ) and the proportion of economically active children ( $r=.586$ ) are also significantly positively correlated. Similarly, scheduled population, which is significant at five per cent level. All these associations are statistically significant at one per cent level, except dropout rate, which is significantly at five per cent level. On the other hand, children work participation rate has strongly negative association with the level of urbanisation ( $r=-.270$ ), Index of Housing Quality (IHQ) ( $r=-.256$ ), female-headed household ( $r=-.104$ ), female literacy rate ( $r=-.263$ ). State level analysis also supports that Index of School Infrastructure is negatively correlated with children work participation rate ( $r=-.541$ ) and also statistically significant. Though, it is evident from state level analysis that poverty ( $r=.01$ ) and GSDP growth ( $r=0.14$ ) have positive association with it but, this relation is neither strong nor significant. Thus, poverty and economic performance of states show weak association with work participation rate of children.

**Table 6**  
**Correlations Matrix at district level in India, 2011**

Variables	y1	y2	x1	x2	x3	x4	x5	x6	x7	x8	x9	x10
Child Labour force Participation Rate (y1)	1	.876**	.471**	-.270**	.350**	.121**	.543**	-.256**	.218**	-.104**	-.263**	-0.029
Proportion of Child Labourer to total labourer (y2)		1	.384**	-.363**	.415**	-.264**	.288**	-.434**	.537**	-.278**	-.479**	-.097*
Proportion of Schedule Population (x1)			1	-.244**	.328**	0.057	.542**	-.329**	.083*	0.042	-.136**	0.074
Level of Urbanisation (x2)				1	-.784**	.233**	-.330**	.747**	-.319**	.207**	.574**	0.024
Proportion of Agriculture Worker to Total Workers (x3)					1	-.159**	.513**	-.766**	.272**	-.338**	-.636**	0.013
Adult Male Workforce Participation Rate (x4)						1	.371**	.312**	-.745**	.234**	.395**	.140**
Adult Female Workforce Participation Rate (x5)							1	-.268**	-.227**	.124**	-.176**	.116**
Index Housing Quality (x6)								1	-.342**	.370**	.706**	0.037
Household Size (x7)									1	-.406**	-.514**	-.130**
Percent of Female-headed Households (x8)										1	.538**	.106**
Female Literacy Rate (x9)											1	.132**
Gross Enrollment Ratio at Elementary Stage (x10)												1
<b>N</b>	<b>640</b>											

Note : \*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). \*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Census of India, 2011, (xi, xii, x4,x5), General Economic Table, B1, (x1,x2,x3 and x9 from) Primary Census Abstract, and (x6, x7 and x8 from) Housing and Household Amenities Series; x10 is computed from 8th All India Education Survey, 2008-09, MHRD

Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis

Table 6.1  
Correlations Matrix at State Level, 2011

Variables	ICL	CLPR	S_Pop	LURB	SLF in Agr.	M_WFPR	F_WFPR	POV	IHQ	LN_NSDPPC	GSDP_GR	TFR	HH_SIZE	FHH	5-14 Children	F_Lit	GER	DOR	ISI
ICL‡	1	.908**	.367*	-.614**	.698**	-.011	.628**	0.28	-.490**	-.378*	-.002	.545**	.551**	-.021	.712**	-.463**	0.244	.530**	-.541**
CLPR‡		1	0.31	-.519**	.581**	0.07	.719**	0.1	-.027	-.013	0.14	0.226	0.273	-.012	.586**	-.023	0.172	.408*	-.454**
S_Pop‡			1	-.011	0.278	-.028	.440**	0.02	-.027	-.027	-.0	.393*	.469**	.369*	0.304	0.03	.435**	0.285	-.555**
LURB‡				1	-.878**	-.004	-.560**	-.403*	.782**	.695**	0.17	-.489**	-.03	0.256	-.918**	.614**	-.026	-.653**	.600**
SLF in Agr.‡					1	0.02	.719**	.493**	-.796**	-.735**	-.02	.643**	.431**	-.359*	.811**	-.689**	.413*	.665**	-.528**
M_WFPR‡						1	0.18	0.19	-.02	0.068	0.2	-.0116	-.557**	-.474**	-.012	-.009	-.02	-.027	0.221
F_WFPR‡							1	0.2	-.455**	-.029	0.12	0.323	0.124	-.012	.514**	-.032	.501**	.436*	-.546**
POV‡								1	-.653**	-.759**	-.391*	.609**	0.322	-.458**	.384*	-.610**	0.2	.448*	-.059
IHQ®									1	.859**	0.34	-.689**	-.403*	0.291	-.783**	.711**	-.028	-.746**	.594**
LN_NSDPPC‡										1	.604**	-.685**	-.508**	0.302	-.654**	.648**	-.023	-.526**	.442*
GSDP_GR‡											1	-.0269	-.022	0.15	-.084	0.33	0.012	-.009	0.101
TFR <sup>u</sup>												1	.756**	-.031	.523**	-.736**	.403*	.615**	-.368*
HH_SIZE®													1	0.031	.477**	-.473**	0.3	0.292	-.0315
FHH®														1	-.0116	.607**	-.003	-.016	-.0088
5-14 Children‡															1	-.552**	0.154	.617**	-.682**
F_Lit‡																1	-.015	-.0343	0.272
GER¶																	1	.436*	-.365*
DOR‡																		1	-.449*
ISI <sup>µ</sup>																			1
N	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	32	32	34	35	35	35	35	35	28

Notes: \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

ICL- Incidence of Child Labour, CLPR-Child Labour Participation (per cent), S\_Pop -Scheduled Population(per cent),LURB-Level of Urbanisation(per cent), SLF in Agr- Share of Labour force in Agriculture (per cent), M-WFPR- Male Workforce Participation Rate(per cent), F-WFPR-Female Workforce Participation Rate (per cent), POV- Population below Poverty line (per cent), IHQ- Index of Housing Quality, LN\_NSDPPC- Natural Log of Net State Domestic Product at current Price, GSDP\_GR - Avg. Annual Growth of Gross State domestic Product at constant price, TFR-Total Fertility Rate, HH\_SIZE -Household Size 6 members and above, FHH-Female-headed Households (per cent), 5-14 children to total children (per cent), F\_Lit -Female Literacy Rate (per cent), GER-Gross Enrollment Ratio at elementary level, DOR-Dropout Rate at elementary level (per cent) and ISI- Index of School Infrastructure (per cent).

Sources:‡ Census of India, 2011, General Economic Table, B-1; †- Census of India, 2011, PCA;®- Census of India, 2011, Housing and Household Series ;§- Planning Commission, Govt. of India (www.);<sup>u</sup>-Guilmoto and Rajan (2013); ¶- 8th All India Education Survey, 2008-09, NCERT and <sup>µ</sup>- DISE, 2011-12, Plas Statistics, NUEPA.

As per the table 6.1 the incidence (proportion/share of child labour to total labour force) is also strong and positive link with scheduled population (r=.348), proportion of workers in agriculture sector (r=.415) adult male work participation rate (r=.264), adult female work participation rate (r=.288) and household size (r=.537). On the other hand, incidence of child labour is negatively correlated with level of urbanisation, IHQ, Female-headed household, female literacy and gross enrollment ratio (GER) and index of school infrastructure. However, their significance level is one per cent except GER which is not statistically significant at one per cent and five per cent level. Growth performance of states has a negative and poverty has positive association but they are not statistically significant association with incidence of such phenomena at state level.

Thus, it can be inferred from the correlation analysis that area with high share of schedule population, low level of urbanisation, high share of labour in agriculture, higher adult work participation rate (job opportunities), low household quality status or low level of economic wealth, higher level of fertility or large household size, low share of female-headed households, low level of female literacy rate, low level of gross enrollment in elementary schools and poor educational infrastructure, area with higher dropout are also the areas of higher incidence and/or work participation of child labour.

Results from Stepwise Regression Analysis

**Table 7**  
**Result of Regression Analysis at District Level, 2011**

Models	Predictors	Intercept	S.E	t-stat.	t-sig	R	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>	F	F-sig	Collinearity Statistics (FIV)
Model 1	Constant	-16.61	1.62	-10.25	.000	0.71	0.50	0.496	126.91	0.000	
	Per cent Adult Female Work Force Participation Rate	0.117	0.01	12.38	.000		0.30	0.29			1.7
	Per cent Large Household Size	0.140	0.01	13.80	.000		0.42	0.42			2.3
	Per cent Adult Male Work Force Participation Rate	0.234	0.03	8.91	.000		0.48	0.48			2.5
	Per cent Scheduled Population	0.021	0.00	4.62	.000		0.50	0.49			1.5
	Gross Enrollment Ratio	-0.005	0.00	-2.50	0.013		0.50	0.50			1.0
Model 2	Constant	-2.53	0.90	-2.79	0.01	0.72	0.512	0.506	82.76	0.000	
	Per cent Large Household Size	0.077	0.01	13.71	0.00		0.29	0.29			2.8
	Per cent Adult Female Work Force Participation Rate	0.040	0.01	6.67	0.00		0.47	0.46			2.7
	Per cent Scheduled Population	0.009	0.00	3.67	0.00		0.48	0.48			1.7
	Female Literacy Rate	-0.012	0.01	-2.13	0.03		0.49	0.49			2.7
	Per cent Adult Male Work Force Participation Rate	0.052	0.01	3.82	0.00		0.51	0.50			2.6
	Gross Enrollment Ratio	-0.002	0.00	-2.18	0.03		0.50	0.50			1.0
	Index of Housing Quality	-0.014	0.00	-3.11	0.00		0.51	0.50			3.5
	Proportion of workers in Agriculture	-0.009	0.00	-2.21	0.03		0.51	0.51			3.6

The regression analysis (Table 7) shows that the significant independent variables act as predictors for child workforce participation rate in model-1. Among them adult female work force participation is the strongest one and alone explains 29.5 per cent variability of the dependent variable (child work participation rate), followed by household size, proportion of scheduled population, and gross enrollment ratio explained 12.3 per cent, 6.1 per cent, 1.5 per cent, 0.4 per cent of the entire variability of the dependent variable respectively. The whole model is found to be a good

### **Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis**

fit to the given data ( $F=126.9$ ,  $P\text{-value}<0.000$ ). The entire model could explained only half of the variability of dependent variables which shows some other factor(s) also play(s) a crucial role in determining the workforce participation rate of child which is not included in this model. However, per unit increased in adult female workforce participation leads to 11.7 per cent increase of child labour force participation when other variables are controlled. Similarly, per unit increase of household size, adult male workforce participation rate, proportion of scheduled population lead to 14 per cent, 23.4 per cent and 2 per cent increase of child labour force participation respectively when other variables are controlled. On the other hand, per unit increase of gross enrollment leads to 0.5 per cent decline of child labour force participation rate at district level.

Model 2 explained the determinants of the incidence of child labour at district level. Household size and adult female labour force participation rate are two major explanatory variables to explain the incidence child labour phenomena. Both together could explain 46.5 per cent of 51.2 per cent of the variability of the dependent variables. Besides, some other predictors include scheduled population, Female literacy, adult male labour force participation, the gross enrollment rate, index of housing quality, and proportion of agriculture workers. Per unit increase of large household size leads to 7 per cent increase in the incidence of child labour when other variables are holding constant, followed by rise of 4 per cent, 0.9 per cent, and 0.9 per cent increase in the incidence of child labour when per unit increase in adult female labour participation, proportion of scheduled population, and adult male labour force participation rate. On the other hand per unit increase of female literacy, GER, IHQ and share of labour in agriculture lead to decline by 1.2 per cent, 0.2 per cent, 0.4 per cent and 0.4 per cent respectively.

### **Discussion**

The trends analysis shows that last decade (1991-2001) registered a rising number of child labour. This increasing is due to massive entering of females into the labour force in 1991. However, current decade (2001- 2011), shown a declining trend. That indicates a lesser number of children are available for paid or unpaid work at present than previous decade. Such impressive decline of child labour (in absolute number) took place in rural India about 32 lakh which makes sharp decline of child labour at national level of about 25 lakh. Both, in terms of work participation rate and incidence, declined more in case of main workers as compared to marginal

### Behera and Swain

category. Such massive withdrawal of child labour in rural India could be possible due to structural shift in rural employment since 2004-05 with the introduction of MGNREGA. The MGNREGA leads to significant increase of rural wages (more than four times increase since 1993-94), per capita consumption expenditure and sharp decline of rural poverty (41 per cent in 2004-5 to 25.7 per cent in 2011-12)<sup>11</sup>. In other words, this structural shift brought an absolute fall of employment in agriculture sector (where large number of children engaged themselves) due to mechanisation of agriculture and nationwide drought in 2009. Besides, post 2004-05 period is also marked by the slowdown of pace of employment growth due to changes in the demographic profile of young people, rising enrollment in school due to the efforts of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Right to Education etc. (Mehrotra et al, 2014).

But, we still have large size of working children of about 10.1 million. In addition to that, there is sharp and continuous rising trends of child labour in urban India. In the last decade, more than seven lakh children added to labour force in urban India of which 4.2 lakh children are 5-9 years age group. Such rise may be attributed due to massive influx of self employed, small and marginal farmers to urban areas due to nationwide drought in 2009, rise in urban adult unemployment, more opportunities in service and manufacturing sector of urban informal economy led to shift of child labour from farming to non-farming sector.

However, among working children, the share of 5-9 age cohort children has increased over this decade irrespective of gender and residence. This age cohort child labourer is more vulnerable to workplace abuse and they compromise with their education (ILO, 2013) than the older age cohort child labourers. Khanam states that the probability of combining work with study increases with age (cited in Herath 2007, p.16). So, attention and further research are needed to understand the dynamic shift on age cohort of child labour and their occupation. This has multiple negative effects on the basic objectives of universalisation of primary education as well as on them in terms of physical, mental and moral development.

Gender perspective on child labour shows that faster decline of girls against boys in the labourforce but the decline in the proportion of main workers is higher for boys than girls as a result the proportion girls as the main worker has increased in both rural and urban India. While the share of girls as marginal worker is lower in rural areas but higher in urban areas. Thus, as compared to boys, share of girls as main and marginal workers have increased in urban areas in 2011 but as a main worker in rural areas.

### **Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis**

As it is evident from both correlation and regression analysis that poor social-economic-demographic condition such as high level of female illiteracy, large family size, higher job opportunities (particularly, for adult female) in the local market, culture of lower school enrollment/attendance or area with higher dropout, low level of educational infrastructure, low level of family wealth are mainly responsible for higher share and work participation rate for children. Adult female work participation (job opportunities) and household size are the major determinants and together could explain 84 per cent and 92 per cent of the total variability of the dependent variables in the first model and in second model respectively.

### **Conclusion**

This analysis tries to capture the trends, nature and magnitudes of child labour at state and districts level in India and finds the association between work participation rate of child labour and its share or incidence with socio-economic, demographic as well as educational or institutional indicators. Results show that the incidence and the participation rate of child labour is uneven distributed over states and across districts India. At the national level there is a sharp decline of child labour, both in terms of absolute as well as in relative terms. More than three-fourth of the total districts have also shown per cent point fall in terms of the incidence of child labour. Similarly, more than three-fifth of total districts registered fall in work participation rate of child and more than half of the districts shows decline in terms of share of main workers to total child workers during 2001 and 2011. The findings also establish that the work participation rate of children and their share to total workforce (incidence) is positively linked with proportion of schedule population, adult male and female employment, household size, share of workers in agriculture and negatively related with female literacy, level of urbanisation, household wealth, educational infrastructure, the proportion of female headed households and gross enrollment ratio.

Here it can be concluded that the work participation rate of children in a district/state is largely determined by its adult female workforce participation rate, household size, proportion of scheduled population, and gross enrollment ratio negatively affect. In other words, district with higher rate of adult female work participation rate, large household size, greater proportion of schedule caste population are cumulatively contribute towards higher child work participation rate. It is also evident that higher gross enrollment in schools in a district negatively affects the child labour work



## Behera and Swain

participation rate or the areas where gross enrollment of children in school is higher are also the area where child work participation is low. Similarly, the share of child labour (5-14 year) to total workforce (incidence of child labour) of a district is determined by its household size, adult female workforce participation, scheduled population, female literacy rate, adult male labourforce participation, the gross enrollment rate, index of housing quality, and proportion of agriculture workers of that district. Household size and job opportunities are the strongest predictors of work participation rate for children and their share to total workers.

So, both central and state government should take appropriate steps towards greater enrollment, retention and completion of primary education which is free and compulsory to all 6-14 years of children according to RTE Act 2009. Strategies must design and implement towards achievement of higher female literacy and increase urban infrastructure and facilities in rural areas, emphasis must be given on improvement and wider geographical spread of better educational infrastructure, reduction of poverty, and increase income level of workers. Special incentives should be given to children of female headed households.

### End Notes

1. Luxury Axiom of Basu & Van (1998) states that children's leisure or non-work is a luxury good in the household's consumption in a sense that poor household cannot afford this but when income of the family increases sufficiently they can afford.
2. Nowhere children belong to a residual category of child population (6-14) who are neither at schools nor reported to be economically active as full time or marginal workers. They are doing nothing, or household work or are on fringe (beggars, Prostitutes etc.) which are not economically active category. (Chaudhri, 1996 p. Xxii)
3. <http://planningcommission.nic.in/>
4. [www.dise.in/.../Publications%202011-12/Flash%20Statistics-2011-12.pdf](http://www.dise.in/.../Publications%202011-12/Flash%20Statistics-2011-12.pdf)
5. <http://www.aises.nic.in/>
6. Gamini Herath (2007). Child labour in Developing Countries: Review of theoretical and Empirical Issue. In G. Herath & K. Sharma (Eds.), *Child Labour in South Asia*. p. 11.
7. Index of Housing Quality is constructed by averaging the proportion of households with good roof and wall, finished floor, electricity, toilet facility, access to tap water from treated source, modern cooking fuel, bathroom and specified assets if any (T.V, Computer/Laptop, Mobile, Bicycle/car/jeep etc.) See Sundaram & Vanneman (2008) for further detail of the index.
8. 2011 TFR data has been taken from C.Z. Guilmoto & S.I Rajan (2013).
9. Here extended household is defined as household with six or more members. As per latest round of NSSO i.e., 68th Round, the average household size in India is 4.3 per households while it is relatively larger for rural (4.5) as compare to Urban (4.0) (NSSO 68th Round "Key Indicator of Employment and Unemployment in India 2011-12", Report no. 68/10,

### Child Labour in India: A District Level Analysis

10. Index of School Infrastructure is a composite index of averaging the proportion of school with drinking water facility, girls toilet, Mid-Day-Meal (MDM), ramp, electricity, female teacher, pupil teacher ratio <30 for primary level and <35 for upper primary.
11. See Santosh Mehrotra et al. (2014). Explaining Employment Trends in the Indian Economy: 1993-94 to 2011-12. *Economic & Political Weekly*, Vol. XLIX(32), pp. 49-57.

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UGC-CARE (Group-I)

## Changing Tribal Economy in Central India: A Retrospect

Vikash Kumar\*

*Tribal economy can not be separated from their way of earning their livelihood which here refers to their capabilities of their earning means of living. It consists tangible and intangible assets where tangible assets includes land, equipments, tools, utensils, store and other physical goods used in earning while intangible assets are needs and demands. Over the time tribal economy witnessed various shifts. People of India report by Anthropological Survey of India incorporated the diversified livelihood and economy of tribal. According to the report, the hunting and gathering activities has declined by 24.08 per cent, trapping of birds and animals has declined by 36.84 per cent, pastoral activities has declined by 12.5 per cent, shifting cultivation by 18.14 per cent and traditional craft has been declined by 25.85 per cent. In spite of several initiations and packages for tribal development by governmental and non-governmental organisation in association of civil society, tribal are still vulnerable in context of livelihood. This paper is an attempt to analyse the transitional phase of tribal economy, its vulnerability and scope to strengthen it.*

### Introduction

Some kind of economy exists since the emergence of society whether non-monetised or monetised. Similarly, tribal communities have their economic system which was obvious non-monetised in its emergence but

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## Kumar

now has been converted into monetised. Tribal economy cannot be separated from their way of earning their livelihood. Livelihood here refers to the capabilities of their earning and means of the living. It consists tangible and intangible assets where tangible assets includes land, equipments, tools, utensils, store and other physical goods used in earning while intangible assets are needs and demands. Both tangible and intangible assets work together to earn livelihood. Tribals are living in remote forests for long ago and depend upon forest for their survival whether through hunting, food gathering or any other type of livelihood earning. Majumdar and Madan (1956) and Vidyarthi and Rai (1977) classified tribes based on their economy in six and eight fold respectively. It has been seen that tribal have symbiotic relation with forest which reflects in their culture. They had conservative approach towards forest since they depended on it. Their consumption pattern was for survival only not for greedy or commercial. Tribal economy is complex, dynamic and multi-dimensional which varies with geographical location, type of community, ecology, age, gender, social, cultural and political determinants (Kumar et.al, 2009).

Over the time tribal economy witnessed various shifts. People of India report by Anthropological Survey of India incorporated the diversified livelihood and economy of tribal. According to the report, the hunting and gathering activities has declined by 24.08 per cent, trapping of birds and animals has declined by 36.84 per cent, pastoral activities has declined by 12.5 per cent, shifting cultivation by 18.14 per cent and traditional craft has been declined by 25.85 per cent (Singh, 1997). Tribal have shifted their economy towards a new one within impact of processes of social change like industrialisation, modernisation and globalisation.

**Table 1**  
**Occupational Profile of Scheduled Tribes in Central India**

	Madhya Pradesh	Odisha	Jharkhand	Chhattisgarh	West Bengal	Bihar	Total
ST Population	15316784	9590756	8645042	7822902	5296953	1336573	48009010
Sex ratio	984	1028	1003	1019	998	958	855
Literacy rate	50.5	66.6	63.3	59.0	57.9	51.0	57.2
Total Worker	7640148	4769659	4058020	4131903	2509166	548000	23656896
Cultivators	2451197 (32.1)	1228133 (25.7)	1664751 (41.0)	1787951 (43.2)	302890 (12.0)	80380 (14.7)	7515302 (31.8)
Agricultural Labours	4244208 (55.5)	2477463 (52)	1563184 (38.5)	1836642 (44.4)	1450184 (57.8)	384267 (70.1)	11955948 (50.5)
Household Industry	72637 (0.9)	162662 (3.4)	98274 (2.4)	39749 (0.9)	65549 (2.6)	15458 (2.8)	454329 (1.9)
Other Work	872106 (11.4)	901401 (18.9)	731811 (18.0)	467561 (11.3)	690543 (27.5)	67895 (12.4)	3731317 (15.8)

Source: Census 2011, Office of the Registrar General, Census of India, Govt. of India.

### **Changing Tribal Economy in Central India: A Retrospect**

Table 1 depicts the status of tribal in six major states which hold more than fifty percent tribal population of the country and as per the analysis it was found that tribals are shifting towards wage and agriculture labour from their traditional occupation.

Inspite of several initiations and packages for tribal development by governmental and non-governmental organisation in association of civil society, tribals are still vulnerable in the context of livelihood. This paper is an attempt to analyse the transitional phase of tribal economy, its vulnerability and scope to strengthen it. The paper is based on secondary sources of data and review of the researches done in the field of tribal economy.

#### **Tribal Economy in Pre-British Era**

Tribe lived an autonomous life in natural resource ridden areas during colonial period. Their habitats were generally geographically isolated and disconnected from non-tribal or so-called mainstream society in context of social and economic sense. They developed institutions and culture to regulate their vital social and demographic events such as birth, marriage, funeral etc. as per their local ecology. Youth dormitory system was there for socialisation of children. They worshipped natural resources with latent motive of nature preservation and conservation. They made every possible effort to protect their ecology through their culture and social institutions. They consumed nature in sustainable manner so that their next generation could be benefitted with the available resources. Their limited needs and low population did not over-burdened on local resources. Generally there was no question of livelihood crisis among them. If there was stress situation on temporary basis, they had coping mechanism to overcome the stress.

Tribal interaction with outer world or non-tribes increased over the time which became problematic for them. For example, Bhils of Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Gujarat and Rajasthan agitated against the intruders of their areas since it seemed dangerous for their survival.

During the Mughal period, the rulers of neighbouring states tried to crush the power of non-mughal with modern weapons then they ran to the tribal areas for protection. This increases the contact of tribal with non-tribals. It had developed a negative consequence on tribe particularly for their culture and identity. In some of the areas, tribal autonomy was chased by the rulers and they were made tax payers to the rulers. The intervention of the outer society in their territory impacted their way of earning. Expansion of rule in the area contributed to their marginalisation. Such an

### **Kumar**

incidence was highlighted by Manohar (2001). For him, the rise of the Marathas in the mid-seventeenth century onwards for the first time led to serious inroads into the Bhils homelands. In order to develop trade and settled agriculture, so as to boost their revenue, they carried out sustained campaigns against the Bhils who refused to agree to incursion into their lifestyles. Peasants and traders from Gujarat and Maharashtra were encouraged to settle in the Bhil regions and forest was cleared to bring land under the plough. Thousands of Bhils were massacred when they rose in revolt against this policy.

#### **Tribal Economy in British Era**

People perceived natural resources as objects before industrialisation but valued generated by industrial revolution re-defined natural objects and it was treated as resources. The relation between man and nature changed. Natural resource was perceived as objects for human greed. Technological modernisation increased the pace of natural resources consumption. British introduced both these process in India for their own benefit. According to classical theory western countries are developed and non-western countries are underdeveloped, people all over the world have equal capacities, hence inequality is not natural and it can be mitigated through concerted and planned human effort with the help of science and technology, national government may play vital role in this context and development can only be measured in objective terms like Gross National Product (GNP), Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Per Capita Income (PCI) and so on, and for this country has to move from primary sector to secondary and tertiary sector. It was argued that only this model of development can bring prosperity.

Forest played crucial role for tribal life during this period. Guha (1983) argued that adequate forest cover was ecologically necessary to sustain cultivation on hilly terrain whether it was shifting cultivation or terraced variety. Forest provided a reserve of food that could be consumed throughout the year whether for the men or animals where animal husbandry was performed. Sen and Lalhrietpuri (2006) highlighted that there was greater diversity of landscapes and sacred groves in pre-colonial era which was contributed by shifting cultivation. Social organisations like *totem* contributed in protection of plants and animals. Forest is vital for the communities depend on forest so they protect it. Most of the dense forest was found in tribal areas. Restrictions on access to forest for tribal lead them at cross road where they detached themselves from forest at somewhat and the constructive relation of tribe and forest resulted into destructive.

### **Changing Tribal Economy in Central India: A Retrospect**

Shifting cultivation was an important source of livelihood for tribes but British imposed taxing policy which discouraged shifting cultivation and compelled tribal to become settled agriculturist. Shifting cultivation was interpreted negatively by Britishers which is still perceived as the same in post-colonial period. Hence, efforts were made to discourage it which resulted inclination of tribal towards settled agriculture and immense forest was cleared for patches of agriculture land. The revenue collection system imposed by British increased the burden of tax upon tribe which disrupted their traditional livelihood pattern (Hardiman, 1987).

During British period non-tribal interface in tribal areas increased which also culminated into domination of outsiders upon tribal due to some vested interest. Baviskar (2004) observed that classification of forests under different categories during the British Period and formulation of distinct laws to regulate relationship between tribes and forest was functional for British and dysfunctional for tribes. State control over forests during the colonial period meant that the traditional sources of livelihoods for STs became the property of the state. It forced tribes to become tenants, trespassers and poachers. Development took place in tribal areas during British period was problematic. It weakened the status of tribe over access to natural resource since various resources were encroached by the administration in the name of expansion of railways, industries, construction of ships and establishment of development projects.

#### **Tribal Economy in Post Colonial Period**

Tribal were perceived to be less developed in comparison to non-tribal communities. The indicators for the measurement of development were developed by so-called non-tribal or mainstream society. Area specific and target group specific schemes were also launched over the time. Numbers of NGO's are also working in favour of tribes but from basic need and livelihood point of view the picture is unsatisfactory, rather frustrating. The model of development is capitalistic and not accountable to tribes. Change agents working in villages are accountable to their boss and not to tribes. Even tribal change agents follow the same pattern of indifference. From livelihood point of view, there are two broad consequences of trickle down approach of development on tribes viz. there are some tribes among whom class formation is slowly going on and elites are emerging among them. There is a feeling of in-group and out-group among tribe and elite. It is argued that tribal emerging elites such as panchayat representatives have



### **Kumar**

imitated the style and functioning of non-tribal established panchayat representatives (Chaudhary, 2004).

The level of literacy, health status and livelihood security is low. They are living in poor capital and mostly surviving on primary occupation. They try to fulfil only their basic needs which revolve around food, shelter and cloths. Water, forest and land are the key requirements for tribal. The dilemma with them is that on the one hand for want of essential requirements they are miserably failed to avail benefits of new opportunity and on the other hand due to continuous environmental degradation they are unable to meet even their fundamental requirements. They are the serious and immediate victim of environmental degradation.

Tribals are aspiring to live life like non-tribal since they are their reference group. They feel relative deprivation and try to achieve what their non-tribal counterparts have. These feelings inclined them towards some culture which is alien to them. Their source of earning is limited but aspiration is more which force them to seek other source of earning. Such a crisis increase migration among them for wage work. The number of wage labour and agriculture labour is increasing among tribal which has also been presented in table earlier. Review of related literature support the argument that tribes are yet to avail benefits of development. Remedial measures are largely failed to arrest pauperisation. Instead of protecting their human rights and integrating them with mainstream process they have been left at their own to encounter challenges of globalisation.

### **Globalisation and Tribal Economy**

Globalisation was formally introduced in the country in July 1991. The tribal areas with having ample amount of state owned land and natural resources, particularly coal, iron, bauxite, water etc. are heaven for globalisation. Several industrial plants and power projects have been installed in tribal areas since raw materials are easily available in tribal belt. During the new development regime thousands of acres of land have been taken over by these industrial concerns without serious efforts for the rehabilitation of the displaced tribal masses. Forest Conservation Act prohibited tribal and non-tribal too for use of forest for non-forest work. Tribals are not using much forest for their livelihood earning but a large part of forest land is being used by non-tribal for different activities. Forest areas are developed for industrial purpose which also displaces tribal from their habitat but tribal development is excluded which in words of Virginius Xaxa is 'Adverse inclusion'.

### **Changing Tribal Economy in Central India: A Retrospect**

Tribal live with lack of water, money, electricity, education, food security and medical facilities. It may be said that tribals are the victim of internal colonialism (Sengupta, 1982). Their productive assets and income sources are lost, they have experienced a new pattern of economy which they are least acquainted, their community systems and social networks have weakened and cultural identity, traditional authority and trait of mutual help have diminished.

Social, economic and cultural aftermath of globalisation was imagined and it was felt that India will make progress in different spheres and its economy will significantly improve. A new middle class will emerge and gradually its size will increase. Market forces and consumer culture will reach to the village with introduction of modern technology. Urbanisation and industrialisation will get momentum and new jobs will be created particularly in the private sector however gap between rich and poor, developed regions and underdeveloped regions and dominants and dependents will also increase. If increasing inequality is not addressed the problem of rural violence in the form of suicide, crime against women, group conflict, robbery etc; are likely to increase. In order to address emerging resentments in tribal areas and to improve status of tribal livelihood and their quality of life, two major steps have been exclusively taken by the state viz., PESA-1996 and FRA-2006.

#### **Conclusive Remarks**

It may be concluded that marginalisation of tribes of Central India, which began during the pre-British period, gradually became forceful and speedy with the passage of time. Pro-active efforts could not arrest marginalisation, although it led to the emergence of small number of tribal elites. Role of these elites in the development of tribes is debatable. After 1991, speed of their livelihood sources erosion is very fast. Available resources are misappropriated by the vested interest. For want of required resources and capabilities majority of tribes of central India are failed to avail benefits of new opportunities. Rather they are compelled to suffer. They are also forced by consumer culture to spend their insignificant and minimum saving. In spite of various efforts they are forcefully compelled by negative forces to further move towards insecurities. Looking to the state of affair it appears that under the given context it is very difficult to restore their human rights and discontinue their march towards insecurities and deprivation.

## Kumar

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## Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh

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*In the twenty-first century with the advent of science and technology, education is the basic necessity for the individual in any nation. Earlier preference was given to complete the school education and a smaller number of individuals enrolled further for higher studies but now the scenario has changed and population inclined towards higher education too. Addressing the issue in mountainous hill state of Himachal Pradesh, the paper aims to study the accessibility in the context of equitable access to higher education. The finding shows the inter-district gap narrowing down with regard to spatial, temporal, residence, sex and social groups (scheduled and non-scheduled population). The physiographic conditions of the state have remarkable impact on net enrolment ratio (henceforth, NER) in higher education. As one moves from lower Himalayan zone to middle and then to higher and trans-Himalayan zones, NER keeps on declining.*

### Introduction

In Himachal Pradesh, there has been a remarkable growth of higher education since the state gained full statehood in general and from the year 2000 onwards in particular. The present research paper attempts to describe and explain the accessibility of higher education in the state. Here the question arises? How many individuals access the institutes in any region and what are the factors influencing the access of higher education institutions? The present

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## Bala

study area of the state characterised by rugged topography that distress the distribution and location of institutes on one hand as well as also responsible for low access such as two districts namely Lahul and Spiti and Kinnaur, geographically isolated area of the state, having very less population due to snow-fed area which creates harsh living condition.

Accessibility involves the distance between the two points or simply said the movement in an area. In higher education this distance can be understood between the settlements and educational institutions. Enrolment in Colleges/Universities is an important condition to check their effectiveness and their availability to the neighbourhood served by them. The scenario of accessibility of higher learning institutions is different between urban and rural area. The meaning of accessibility is varied in different regions of the country like the distance of one kilometre of hilly area different from plains. As generally plain areas have different modes of transportation. Since the statehood of Himachal Pradesh, educational institutions continue to increase. Therefore, accessibility in higher education is determined by number of universities/colleges, attending education institutions in rural/urban area with special reference to specific age-groups.

### Data Sources and Methodology

In the present paper, the data for the periods between 1981 and 2011 was collected from secondary source namely Census of India and this data for in-depth study at the district level was put to use. For the calculation of the single age-group, Sprague multiplier method has been used to compute the Net Enrolment Ratio (for the age-group 18-23) at the district level. The accessibility has been examined with the help of NER in the 18-23 age-group. It is an important measure to understand the real picture of enrolment in higher education. For calculating this, the number of students enrolled in higher education in a district has been taken as numerator and the total population of 18-23 age-group, as denominator and the outcome is multiplied by 100. High percentage of NER denotes higher enrollment age groups of 18-23 years, recognised officially the relevant age-group to estimate the enrolment ratio in higher education.

$$\text{Net Enrolment Ratio} = \frac{\text{Pupils enrolled in 18-23 age group}}{\text{Total population in 18-23 age group}} \times 100$$

NER has been calculated separately for total, rural, urban, male, female and scheduled (Caste and Tribe) and non-scheduled population to

### **Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh**

study residential (rural-urban), gender (male-female), and social (scheduled and non-scheduled) differentials in NER at the district level in Himachal Pradesh. The data were represented cartographically in the form of Choropleth maps to show the distribution of various attributes. These maps were generated through computer aided cartographic techniques using Arc GIS Version 9.3 software.

Further, for obtaining Weighted Score Index (WSI), the following procedure was put in service. The highest NER value in case of any unit or for a district in the state for selected indicators was assigned a value of 100, the maximum value on the scale of 0-100. All other NER values were calculated proportionally in relation to 100. A differential index was calculated to examine differentials in higher education accessibility between urban-rural, male-female and scheduled and non-scheduled population in the state. Also, differentials were examined for general and vocational education separately. This is mainly because of the fact that vocational education is considered more job oriented than the general education. Hence, a better position in vocational education provides an advantage over the general education.

There are, of course, some data constraints. During 1981 and 1991 enumerations, Census of India collected data on higher education in accordance with the streams: graduation, post-graduation, engineering, medicine and teaching and published these by categorising these into levels/streams, such as graduation, post-graduation, engineering, medicine and teaching. However, coming to 2001 census decade, such data were presented under the two main headings i.e., college education and vocational education. The former included general and university level education and the latter technical and professional education. Since vocational education includes diploma level courses also, it distorts enrolment figures under the vocational education courses.

For dealing with this kind of data comparability problem, a way was found out by excluding the share of diploma/polytechnic holders from the vocational education, computed for individual years between 2001 and 2010. Separate information for diploma/polytechnic holders is available in the publication entitled *Selected Education Statistics*, published by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, New Delhi.

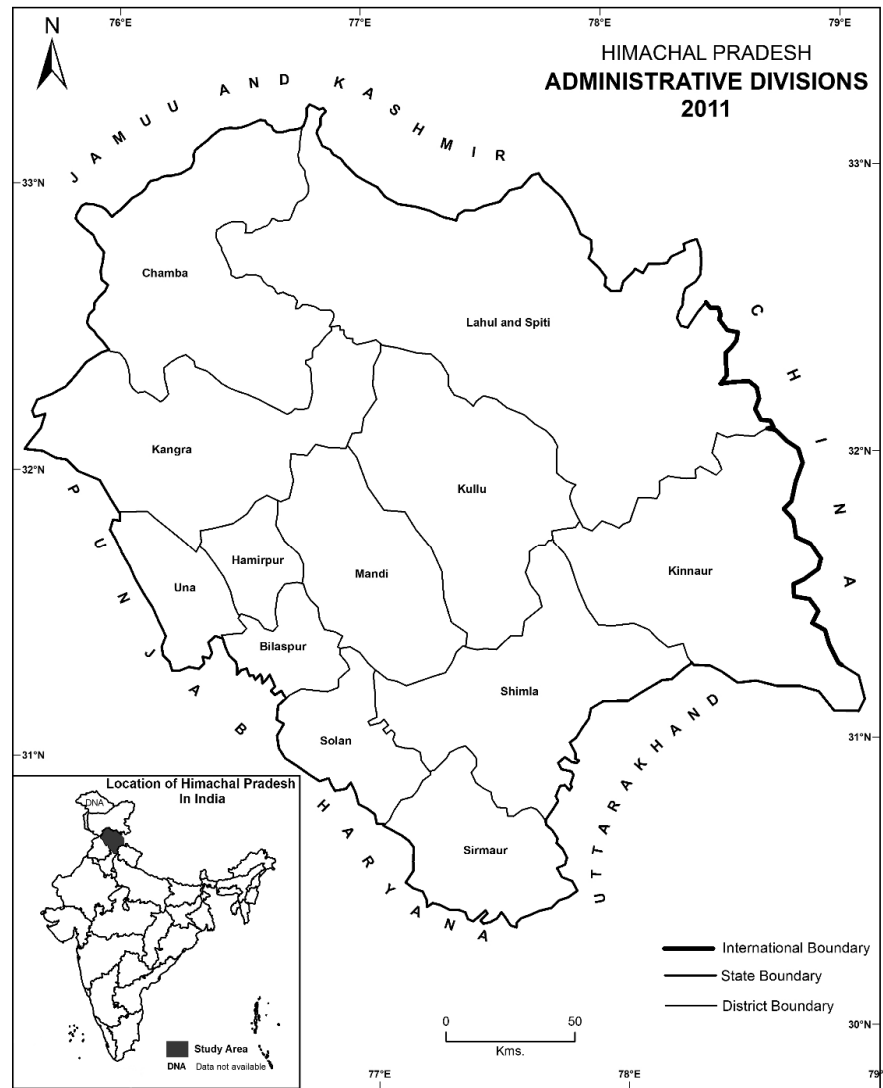
### **Study Area**

The present study was carried out in Himachal Pradesh, located in the heart of the western Himalayas, India. Geographical coordinates extend

## Bala

from 30°22'40" to 33°12'40" North latitude and 75°47'55" to 79°04'20" East longitude. It covers an area of 55,673 km<sup>2</sup>. It is hilly and mountainous tract with altitudes ranging from about 450 m to 6500 m above sea level (Map 1).

Map 1: Location of Himachal Pradesh



Source: Census of India 2011, Administrative Atlas Himachal Pradesh

The three physiographic divisions from south to north are: (i) Outer Himalaya or the Shivaliks, (ii) Lesser Himalaya or Central Zone and (iii) the

### **Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh**

Great Himalaya and Zaskar or Northern Zone. The climatic conditions vary from hot and sub-humid tropical in the southern low tracts to temperate, cold alpine and glacial in the northern and eastern high mountains ranges. The major river systems of the region are the Chandra-Bhaga or the Chenab, the Ravi, the Beas, the Sutlej and the Yamuna. In the state, from west to east and south to north, there is an increase in an altitude. The state located in the north India and surrounded by the western Tibetan plateau on its east, to the Uttarakhand on the south-east, and Jammu and Kashmir on the north, Punjab and Haryana surrounds on the west and the south-west, respectively.

### **Results and Discussion**

At the national level, Himachal Pradesh is included in the category of well performing states. Nonetheless, the higher education especially the vocational education has remained quite low in the state. Even in 2001, NER of vocational education was as low as 0.68 per cent. NER of vocational education, however, picked up after 2001 to reach up to 5.53 per cent within a decade in 2011. It seems that the year 2001 acted as water mark in the history of NER in Himachal Pradesh for the two main reasons: (i) shift in focus from general to vocational courses, and (ii) opening of higher education to the private sector.

In the following section NER of Himachal Pradesh has been examined at the district level. A weighted index method has been used to calculate NER by residence, gender and social groups (scheduled and non-scheduled population) at the district level. For studying the change in NER at the district level, a period of 30 years (1981-2011), has been taken. However, for non-availability of data for earlier decades NER for the social groups, a period of 10 years has only been covered (i.e. 2001-2011).

### **Accessibility of Higher Education in Himachal Pradesh: An Outline**

In 2011, NER in Himachal Pradesh was 16.7 per cent. In other words, only about one-sixth of the total youth in 18-23 age-group was enrolled for higher education in the state. Earlier in 1981, NER was only 0.5 per cent. In other words, only one out of 200 young persons in the age-group of 18-23 was enrolled for higher education. Evidently, enrolment for higher education in Himachal Pradesh was not only very low in the past but also continues to be so even today. Higher education in the state picked up fast in the 1990s to go into double-digits by 2001 (11.4 per cent) and then to 16.7 per cent in 2011 (Table 1).



Bala

**Table 1**  
**District-wise Net Enrolment Ratio (General) Higher Education, 1981-2011**  
(Figures in Per cent)

S.No.	District Name	General			
		1981	1991	2001	2011
	1	2	3	4	5
1	Chamba	0.09	0.25	5.71	8.84
2	Kangra	0.32	1.01	11.81	19.14
3	Lahul and Spiti	0.04	0.09	4.93	22.49
4	Kullu	0.25	0.9	9.03	13.32
5	Mandi	0.31	0.84	11.25	15.46
6	Hamirpur	0.27	0.96	17.07	23.64
7	Una	0.24	1.1	10.79	16.22
8	Bilaspur	0.33	1.13	13.93	17.14
9	Solan	0.65	1.09	8.86	12.7
10	Sirmaur	0.25	0.5	6.76	12.08
12	Shimla	1.77	2.56	16.83	23.61
12	Kinnaur	0.06	0.56	7.16	12.17
<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>		<b>0.49</b>	<b>1.08</b>	<b>11.37</b>	<b>16.66</b>
C.V Index		1.22	0.68	0.39	0.30

Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, New Delhi, India.

The scenario related to vocational streams was still poor. In 2011, NER in vocational stream was only 5.5 per cent and negligible 0.03 per cent early in 1981. Interestingly, there are striking inter-district, urban-rural, male-female and social inequalities in higher education enrolment ratio even at low level of higher education development in the state. In 2011, among districts, NER ranged from a high of 23.6 per cent in Shimla district to a low of only 8.8 per cent in Chamba district, giving a range difference of about 15.0 per cent. Separately for vocational streams, inter-district inequalities were still clearly noticeable. These ranged from a high of 10.3 per cent in Hamirpur district to only 1.4 per cent in Kinnaur district. Urban-rural inequalities in NER were equally marked both in general and vocational education. The NER of higher education for urban areas was nearly twice of that of rural areas. The former was 24.82 per cent in contrast to 15.7 per cent of the latter. In vocational education, it was 10.7 per cent for the urban areas and only 4.9 per cent for the rural areas. Between scheduled castes and non-scheduled population, it was 14.1 per cent for the former and 18.0 per cent for the latter.

Interestingly, inequalities in the field of general education in Himachal Pradesh go in favour of females. NER for the female population was 17.8 per cent against 15.6 per cent for the male population. Even in the rural areas, NER for females was higher than that of males. However, in the

### **Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh**

case of vocational education, the balance was in favour of males. In 2011, the NER of vocational education for males was 5.4 per cent against 4.1 per cent for the females. Even in the case of scheduled castes population, NER for female and male population in general education was almost the same. For the former, it was 14.6 per cent and for latter 14.8 per cent. In the following, an attempt was made to examine temporal, spatial (inter-district and urban-rural), gender (male-female) and social class (scheduled (tribe and caste) and non-scheduled population) differentials in NER.

#### **Trends in NER, 1981-2011**

During the last three decades between 1981 and 2011, there has been a spectacular increase in NER of Himachal Pradesh. NER has gone to 16.7 per cent in 2011 from merely 0.5 per cent in 1981. The state acquiring full statehood status in early 1971 induced a new enthusiasm and zeal among the leadership and the bureaucracy of the state to achieve a higher level of development; the then chief minister of the state, Shri Y.S. Parmar, placed the highest priority on education and road development.

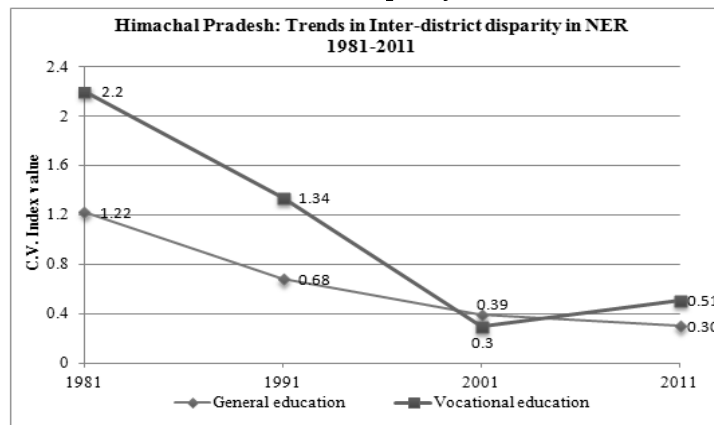
Besides opening of new schools and colleges, existing ones were strengthened and upgraded, boosting the prospects of both the school and college education. In recent decades especially after 1991, coinciding with the liberalisation of economic policies in India to attract private investment in different sectors including education, Himachal Pradesh has benefitted a lot from private investment in higher education since the state has been liberal in opening higher education to private sector. This has resulted in opening of the new colleges and universities both in public and private sectors, registering a quantum leap in NER between 1991 and 2001: from 1.08 per cent to 11.4 per cent. The NER continued to grow further in the next decade between 2001 and 2011, to reach to 16.7 per cent by 2011. However, different districts in the state responded differently to the privatisation policy. Against the state average of 0.5 per cent in 1981, it ranged from a high of 1.8 per cent in Shimla district to negligible (only 0.04 per cent) in Lahul and Spiti district.

In one-half of the 12 districts in the state, namely Lahul and Spiti, Kinnaur, Chamba, Una, Bilaspur, Kullu and Sirmaur, NER ratio was either equivalent to or less than one-half of the state average. It was only in two districts of Solan and Shimla where NER ratio was higher than the state average. In fact, the NER ratio of Shimla district was responsible for keeping state average on the higher side. The physiographic conditions of the state have remarkable impact on NER in the field of higher education. As one moves from lower Himalayan zone to middle and then to higher and trans-

## Bala

Himalayan zones, NER keeps on declining. Lack of threshold population coupled with the paucity of financial resources, required to open higher education institutions in the state government seem to be the plausible reasons behind all this. Coming to 1991, when NER state average more than doubled to reach from 0.5 per cent in 1981 to 1.1 per cent, the inter-district disparity was still wide but had considerably narrowed. The coefficient of variability index (henceforth, CV) came down from 1.22 in 1981 to 0.68 in 1991 (see Table 1 and Fig. 1).

**Fig. 1**  
**Trends in Inter-district Disparity in NER, 1981-2011**



Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, New Delhi, India.

NER ranged from a high of 2.6 per cent for Shimla district to low of only 0.1 per cent for Lahul and Spiti district. This time seven of the 12 districts had NER lower than the state average. Such districts included Lahul and Spiti, Chamba, Sirmaur, Kinnaur, Mandi, Kullu and Hamirpur. In three districts of Chamba, Lahul and Spiti and Sirmaur, the ratio was less than one-half of the state average. On the whole, all the districts registered an increase in net enrolment ratio, but six districts of Kangra, Kullu, Hamirpur, Una, Kinnaur and Bilaspur performed far better than other districts of the state. In their case, NER increased thrice or more than that. Against this, Solan, Sirmaur, Shimla, Lahul and Spiti recorded an increase and became twice of the earlier number. On the whole, narrowing down of inter-district disparities in NER was the most satisfying achievement of this decade.

There has been a spurt in NER after 1991. The absolute number of students enrolled in higher education went up from about 6500 in 1991 to

### **Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh**

82000 in 2001, registering an increase of more than 12 times. In proportional terms, NER jumped up to 11.4 per cent in 2001 from only 1.1 per cent in 1991. Among districts, it ranged from a high of 17.1 per cent in Hamirpur to a low of 4.93 per cent in Lahul and Spiti, registering a range difference of about 12.0 per cent points. In four districts (Hamirpur, Shimla, Bilaspur, and Kangra) this ratio was higher than the state average. Another two districts, Mandi and Una, had this ratio in two digits, which was quite close to the state average. All the districts in the state performed well especially those having low NER in 1991, Lahul and Spiti, Chamba and Hamirpur districts being the case in point. Against this, the lowest gain was registered in Shimla, Solan and Una districts, having relatively better NER in 1991. The inter-district disparity in NER was also reduced; CV index value came down from 0.68 in 1991 to 0.39 in 2001.

During 2001-2011, when NER increased further to 16.7 per cent registering an increase of more than 5.0 percentage points, inter-district inequalities in NER further declined. The CV index value came down from 0.39 in 2001 to 0.30 in 2011 (Fig.2). In 2011, NER ranged from a high of 23.64 per cent in Hamirpur district to a low of 8.8 per cent in Chamba district. Five districts, namely, Hamirpur, Shimla, Lahul and Spiti, Kangra and Bilaspur had NER higher than the state average of 16.7 per cent. On the other side of the scale, Chamba district had single digit NER, which was nearly one-half of the state average. In relative terms, Lahul and Spiti followed by Kangra, and Shimla districts were high and Chamba, Kullu, Mandi, Bilaspur and Solan were the low gainers. The high increase of NER in Lahul and Spiti district was attributed to opening of a new college in the district. While Kangra and Shimla districts gained due to their political clout along with attracting the private investment in higher education. During 2001-2011, when NER increased further to 16.7 per cent registering an increase of more than 5.0 percentage points, inter-district inequalities in NER declined further.

Thanks to the private investment, NER in vocational courses in the state went from merely 0.03 per cent in 1981 to 5.5 per cent in 2011. There had been a rapid increase in NER between 1991 and 2001, from 0.04 per cent in 1991 to 0.68 per cent in 2001. The NER continued to grow further during the next decade to reach to 5.5 by 2011 (Table 2). However, the different districts responded differently. Against 0.03 per cent NER for the state as a whole in 1981, it ranged from a high of 0.15 per cent in Shimla district to only 0.01 per cent in the four districts of Kangra, Mandi, Kullu, Bilaspur and Sirmaur.

Bala

Table 2

District-wise net enrolment ratio in vocational higher education, 1981-2011

S. No.	District Name	Vocational			
		1981	1991	2001	2011
	1	2	3	4	5
1	Chamba	0.0*	0.01	0.37	2.50
2	Kangra	0.01	0.01	0.61	6.29
3	Lahul and Spiti	0.0*	0.0*	0.58	3.23
4	Kullu	0.01	0.0*	0.50	2.78
5	Mandi	0.01	0.03	0.64	5.38
6	Hamirpur	0.00*	0.02	0.70	10.28
7	Una	0.00*	0.14	1.05	6.79
8	Bilaspur	0.01	0.03	0.77	8.45
9	Solan	0.03	0.02	0.83	5.97
10	Sirmaur	0.01	0.03	0.64	3.46
11	Shimla	0.15	0.11	0.79	5.14
12	Kinnaur	0.00*	0.00*	0.35	1.43
<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>		<b>0.03</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.68</b>	<b>5.53</b>
C.V Index		2.20	1.34	0.30	0.51

Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, New Delhi, India. (ii).

\*NER is negligible

In five districts of the state (Chamba, Lahul and Spiti, Hamirpur, Una and Kinnaur), NER ratio was almost zero. It was only in two districts of Shimla and Solan where the NER ratio was equivalent to or higher than the state average (Table 2). Coming to 1991, when NER for the state as a whole moved marginally higher from 0.03 per cent in 1981 to 0.04 per cent in 1991, the inter-district disparity was still wide, but considerably reduced. The value of coefficient of variability (CV) index declined from 2.20 to 1.34 between 1981 and 1991 (Fig. 2). NER ranged from a high of 0.14 per cent in Una district to a low of only 0.01 per cent in Chamba and Kangra districts. This time only two (Shimla and Una) of 12 districts had NER higher than the state average. In three districts (Lahul and Spiti, Kullu and Kinnaur), the ratio was almost zero. The highest increase was noticed in Una district.

There was a remarkable spurt in NER after 1991. The absolute number of students enrolled in higher education went up from only about 200 in 1991 to five thousand in 2001, increasing by 26 times. In proportional terms, NER jumped to 0.68 per cent in 2001 from only 0.04 per cent earlier in 1991. Among districts, it ranged from a high of 1.05 per cent in Una to a low of 0.35 per cent in Kinnaur. Five districts (Hamirpur, Una, Bilaspur, Solan and Shimla) had this ratio higher than the state average and another two districts, Mandi and Sirmaur, fared close to the state average. The inter-district disparity in NER reduced, CV index value being 0.30 in 2001. In 2011, when NER for the state

### Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh

rose to 5.5 per cent, registering an increase of more than 5.0 percentage points. The trend in inter-district inequalities reversed, CV index increasing from 0.30 in 2001 to 0.51 in 2011 (Fig. 2). NER ranged from a high of 10.3 per cent in Hamirpur district to a low of 1.4 per cent in Kinnaur district, registering a range difference of 8.9 per cent. This is attributed to increased private investment in higher vocational education. Private investment was guided by locational advantage. Five districts, namely, Kangra, Hamirpur, Una, Bilaspur, and Solan had NER higher than the state average of 5.5 per cent. The two districts of Mandi and Shimla had almost equivalent to the state average. In relative terms, Hamirpur followed by Bilaspur, and Kangra districts were higher and Chamba, Mandi, Shimla and Solan the low gainers in this regard. High increase in NER of Hamirpur district is attributed to locational advantage attracting private investment in technical higher education. Kangra and Shimla districts gained due to the early start of higher education institutions there.

#### Male-Female differentials in NER, 2001-11

##### (a) General/College Education

As evident in differential index value of 0.2 per cent between male-female NER, there was slightly higher male NER in 2001. Among districts, it ranged from a high of 0.6 in Chamba district to a low of 0.2 in five districts (Kangra, Hamirpur, Bilaspur, Sirmaur and Shimla). Male-female differential index, in NER at district level is highly revealing (Table 3).

**Table 3**  
NER differential index of general and vocational education by sex and residence, 2001-11

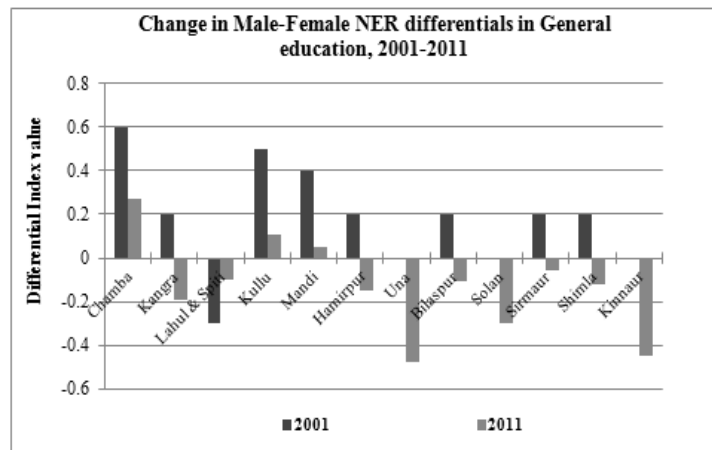
S. No	District Name	Male-Female differential Index				Urban-Rural differential Index			
		General		Vocational		General		Vocational	
		2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Chamba	0.6	0.27	0.5	0.7	3.4	1.6	3.8	2.4
2	Kangra	0.2	-0.19	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.4
3	Lahul and Spiti*	-0.3	-0.10	-0.8	0.1	*	*	*	*
4	Kullu	0.5	0.11	0.5	0.4	1.8	0.5	2.2	1.9
5	Mandi	0.4	0.05	0.6	0.6	2.0	0.5	4.0	1.6
6	Hamirpur	0.2	-0.15	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.0	1.2	0.6
7	Una	0.0	-0.48	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.4
8	Bilaspur	0.2	-0.11	0.5	0.5	1.1	0.2	2.4	1.0
9	Solan	0.0	-0.30	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.6
10	Sirmaur	0.2	-0.06	0.5	0.1	3.0	0.9	1.6	2.6
11	Shimla	0.2	-0.12	0.6	0.1	1.5	0.6	1.9	1.7
12	Kinnaur*	0.0	-0.45	0.2	-0.2	*	*	*	*
	<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>	<b>0.2</b>	<b>-0.13</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>0.5</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>1.0</b>

Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India. (ii). \*Entirely rural district.

### Bala

Three districts of Chamba, Kullu and Mandi were above the state average (0.2 per cent), revealing higher male-female differential in NER. In Una, Solan and Kinnaur districts, there was gender equality in NER. Lahul and Spiti is the only district in the state where female NER was higher than that of the males. One possible explanation of this may be that males, desirous of higher education move to other districts of state or outside the state and female students generally stay back to get educated within the district. This can be attributed to the mind set of the male-dominated society. The scenario shifted in favour of females by 2011. In all but three districts (Chamba, Kullu and Mandi), female NER was higher than that of males. In 2011, the NER for males and females was 15.6 and 17.8 per cent, respectively, average differential index being -0.13. On the whole, one-third of the districts recorded index value below the state average, indicating low differentials in male-female NER (Fig. 2).

**Fig. 2**  
**Change in Male-Female NER differentials in General education, 2001-2011**



Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, New Delhi, India.

Changing attitude towards female higher education coupled with increased availability of educational institutions contributed to this. In addition, Government of Himachal Pradesh also encouraged female education by providing fee concessions and scholarships. However, it has to be noted that female NER which is better than that of male is confined to conventional courses only. In case of vocational courses, male NER is clearly higher than that of the females. It means in vocational education male NER is more than that of women, where as in conventional courses women had an upper edge.

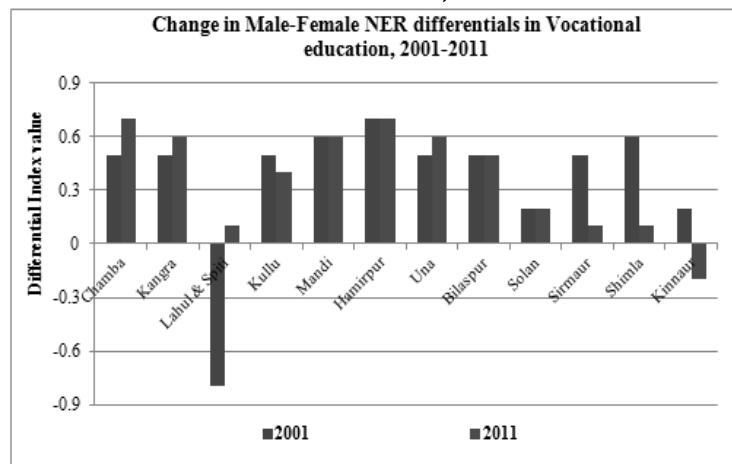
**Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh**

**(b) Vocational education**

In 2001, the average differential index value was quiet low (0.5). There were only three districts, where index value was higher than state average. Among districts, it ranged from a high of 0.7 in Hamirpur to a low of 0.2 in Solan and Kinnaur districts. Six of the 12 districts in the state (Chamba, Kangra, Kullu, Una, Bilaspur, and Sirmaur) had this value equivalent to the state average. It was only Lahul and Spiti district which recorded differential in negative (-0.8) indicating high NER for females than the males. It is, however, to be noted that there is no vocational college in the district. It means students enumerated in higher vocational education were studying in the colleges located outside the district, but enumerated during censuses in Lahul and Spiti district (Table 3 and Fig. 4).

They might, however, be living or not living in the district. Solan and Kinnaur districts had this value below the state average. In 2001, average differential index value being positive, indicates to male students NER higher than that of their female counterparts (Table 3).

**Fig. 3**  
**Change in Male-Female NER differentials in Vocational education, 2001-2011**



Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India.

In 2011, the NER for males and females were 6.7 per cent and 4.1 per cent, respectively; differential index value being 0.5. This indicates to low male-female NER differentials in higher education in the state. Among districts, differential index value ranged from a high of 0.7 in Chamba and



## Bala

Hamirpur districts to a low of 0.1 in three districts of Lahul and Spiti, Sirmaur and Shimla. Five districts of Chamba, Kangra, Mandi, Hamirpur, and Una had this value higher than the state average. As stated earlier, vocational higher education is the first preference of male students, who try their level best to get admitted to such courses. Some of the districts such as Hamirpur, Una, Mandi, and Sirmaur have a good number of vocational higher education institutions located in there (Fig. 3).

It is, however, interesting to note that with increase in female and male NER during 2001-2011, male-female differentials on this count increased. The positive thing is that differentials were not very wide across districts.

### Urban-Rural Differential, 2001-11

#### (a) *General/College Education*

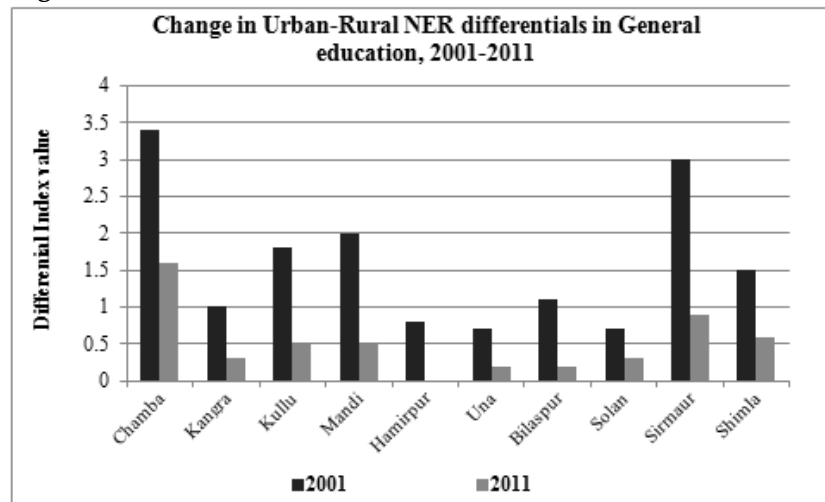
Notably, two of the 12 districts in the state do not have any urban centres, so our discussions will remain confining to ten districts only. In 2001, the average urban-rural differential index value was 1.4 against only 0.2 in case of male-female NER differentials. Evidently, urban-rural differentials in NER were wider than male-female in the state. In other words, NER was more unequal in terms of urban-rural than social classes. In 2001, urban NER was 26.0 per cent against only 9.5 per cent for rural areas.

In five of the 12 districts, this value was higher than the state average. Such districts were Chamba, Kullu, Mandi, Sirmaur and Solan. It ranged from a high of 3.4 in Chamba to a low of 0.7 in Una and Solan districts. Two districts of Lahul and Spiti and Kinnaur were entirely rural (Table 3).

During 2001-2011, differential in urban-rural NER registered a sharp decline to come down from 1.4 per cent in 2001 to 0.5 per cent. It was true of majority districts in the state. However, there has been a steep fall in the four districts of Sirmaur, Hamirpur, Mandi and Kullu. In case of Hamirpur district, differential index value was nil in 2011. At district level, it ranged from a high of 1.6 for Chamba district to as low as nil in Hamirpur. Of the ten districts, having both rural and urban areas, three districts of Mandi, Sirmaur and Shimla had differential index value higher than the state average. Another two districts (Kullu and Mandi) had the same as the state average and five districts had below the state average (Fig. 4).

## Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh

Fig. 4  
Change in Urban-Rural NER Differentials in General Education, 2001-2011



Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India.

In this way, urban-rural differentials in NER declined sharply during 2001-2011. Geographical spread of higher education institution to rural and peripheral areas as a result of privatisation policy was largely responsible for this.

### (b) Vocational education

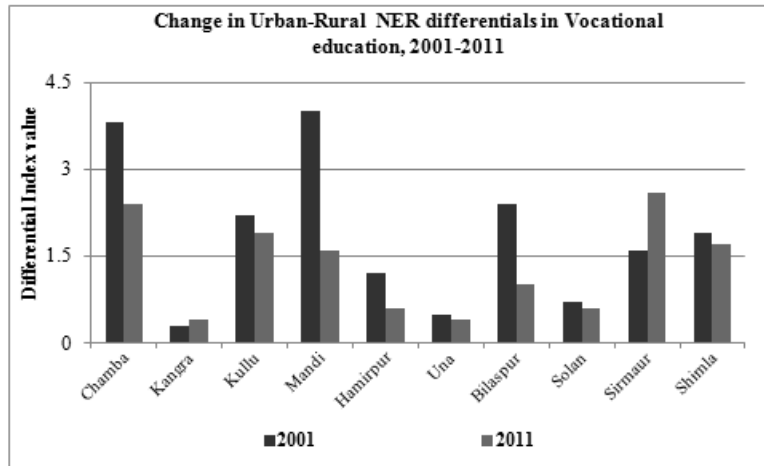
In 2011, urban-rural differential index for vocational education was 1.0. Earlier in 2001, this value was 1.7. Evidently, urban-rural differentials in NER declined during 2001-2011. This is attributed to spatial spread of higher vocational education institutions toward the rural areas coupled with higher attraction of students to vocational courses for their job potentials in comparison to conventional courses.

In majority of districts, there has been a decline in urban-rural disparity, as is evident in differential index value. The maximum decline was recorded in case of Mandi district followed by Chamba district. Against this, Sirmaur district registered sharp increase, differential index value rose from 1.6 in 2001 to 2.6 in 2011. Another district, Kangra, recorded a marginal increase from 0.3 in 2001 to 0.4 in 2011 (Table 3). On the whole, five out of the 10 districts (excluding Lahul and Spiti and Kinnaur) had differential index value higher than the state average. Vocational higher education in Himachal

## Bala

Pradesh is still at a low level, existence of wide urban-rural differential in vocational education NER does not speak of a healthy trend (Fig. 5).

**Fig. 5**  
**Change in Urban-Rural differentials in Vocational education, 2001-2011**



Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India.

### Non-Scheduled versus Scheduled differentials in NER

As expected, NER of non-scheduled population was higher than that of scheduled (castes plus tribes) population in Himachal Pradesh. It was true of general and vocational education both. In 2011, NER of non-scheduled and scheduled population was 18.0 per cent and 14.0 per cent, respectively for general education courses. Earlier in 2001, the respective shares were 13.2 per cent and 6.8 per cent. Evidently, not only did NER for both non-scheduled and scheduled population grow fast but the gap between the two NER also declined during 2001-2011. The growth of NER in case of scheduled population was faster than that of non-scheduled population. This helped in narrowing down the gap between NER of non-scheduled and scheduled population. This speaks of a healthy trend from the angle of social inclusiveness.

#### (a) *General education*

The average differential index value for general education was 0.24 in 2011. In four districts namely, Chamba, Lahul and Spiti, Hamirpur and Kinnaur differential index was negative, indicating higher NER for scheduled population in comparison to non-scheduled population in these

### Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh

districts. It is understandable in case of Chamba, Lahul and Spiti and Kinnaur districts, where tribal population is predominant. In Lahul and Spiti and Kinnaur districts scheduled castes and tribes in combine make more than three-fourths of total population. In Chamba, their combined strength is about 48.0 per cent. Hence, higher NER of scheduled population than non-scheduled population makes some sense. But in case of Hamirpur, scheduled population makes less than one-fourth of the total population, higher NER of scheduled population than non-scheduled population is quite surprising and needs further investigation. In case of Hamirpur, NER of scheduled population was 25.18 per cent against this NER of non-scheduled population was 23.11 per cent in 2011 (Table 4).

Earlier in 2001, NER of scheduled population was lower than that of non-scheduled population. How it surpassed NER of non-scheduled population in a single decade (2001-2011) is not only interesting but also worthy of further investigation.

**Table 4**  
**Net Enrolment Ratio of Non-scheduled and Scheduled Population**  
**in General and Vocational Education, 2001-2011**

S. No.	District Name	General				Vocational			
		Non scheduled		Scheduled		Non-Scheduled		Scheduled	
		2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Chamba	7.69	8.30	3.36	9.41	0.57	2.86	0.55	2.05
2	Kangra	12.94	19.31	7.54	18.72	0.67	6.89	0.37	4.39
3	Lahul and Spiti	1.70	8.64	8.23	25.90	0.90	1.24	0.42	3.63
4	Kullu	10.75	14.12	5.08	11.69	0.60	3.01	0.28	2.17
5	Mandi	12.94	15.90	7.32	14.53	0.76	5.84	0.35	4.13
6	Hamirpur	18.51	23.11	12.50	25.18	0.74	10.73	0.54	8.27
7	Una	11.62	20.28	7.85	10.00	1.10	8.45	0.86	3.96
8	Bilaspur	15.81	17.34	9.11	16.69	0.87	9.09	0.49	6.47
9	Solan	10.17	13.27	5.38	11.52	0.85	6.78	0.77	3.93
10	Sirmaur	8.18	18.68	3.35	5.40	0.75	5.56	0.37	1.19
11	Shimla	19.92	25.26	7.97	19.54	0.95	5.87	0.32	3.01
12	Kinnaur	7.26	1.40	7.13	19.21	0.69	0.25	0.25	2.12
	<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>	<b>13.19</b>	<b>18.03</b>	<b>6.75</b>	<b>14.06</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>6.42</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>3.55</b>

Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011.

In rest of the districts, NER differential was positive, indicating higher NER of non-scheduled population. Fortunately, differential index value was not that high. It is relatively high only in case of Sirmaur and Una districts (Table 5).

Bala

**Table 5**  
**NER Differential Index of Non-scheduled and Scheduled Population**  
**in General and Vocational Education, 2001-2011**

S. No.	District Name	NER differentials index value			
		General		Vocational	
		2001	2011	2001	2011
1	2	3	4	5	
1	Chamba	0.76	-0.13	0.05	0.32
2	Kangra	0.46	0.03	0.49	0.40
3	Lahul and Spiti	-1.32	-0.77	0.83	-0.74
4	Kullu	0.63	0.18	0.64	0.30
5	Mandi	0.50	0.09	0.63	0.32
6	Hamirpur	0.35	-0.09	0.30	0.24
7	Una	0.35	0.63	0.23	0.66
8	Bilaspur	0.48	0.04	0.49	0.31
9	Solan	0.54	0.14	0.10	0.48
10	Sirmaur	0.71	1.10	0.58	1.26
11	Shimla	0.71	0.24	0.80	0.56
12	Kinnaur	0.02	-1.46	1.26	-1.30
<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>		<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.24</b>	<b>0.48</b>	<b>0.52</b>

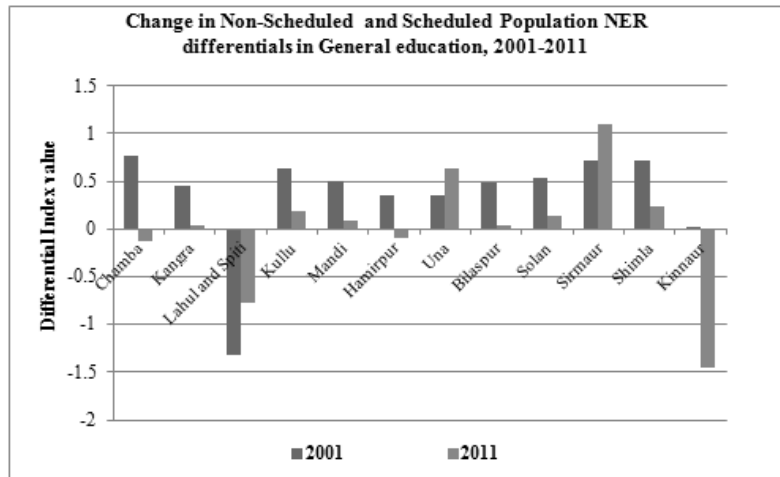
Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011.

Earlier in 2001, differential index of NER between scheduled and non-scheduled population was 0.57. It means there has been a sharp decline in differentials between the two populations during 2001-2011. One can safely assume that higher education quickly spread among scheduled castes and tribes in the state during 2001-2011 decade. It is attributed to government policies oriented to make higher education socially inclusive. During the decade, state government as well as central government made sincere efforts to escalate NER in higher education; the way was exerting focus on inclusiveness. That would mean bridging social, regional and residential gaps in higher education accessibility. Secondly, with privatisation of higher education private investment in higher education moved to remote areas where cheap land was available. To compensate students, private sector provided the bus services to students to reach colleges/ universities from their places of living (Fig. 6).

All the districts in the state recorded decline in NER value except Una and Sirmaur. The highest decline was registered in Kinnaur district followed by Chamba, Shimla and Bilaspur. The reverse was true of Solan and Kangra districts.

**Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh**

**Fig. 6**  
**Change in non-Scheduled and Scheduled Population NER differentials in**  
**General education, 2001-2011**



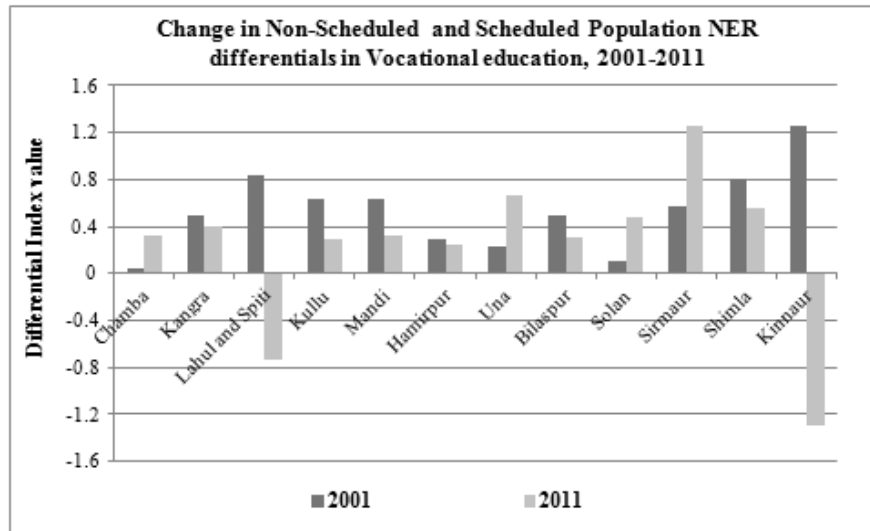
Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011.

**(b) Vocational education**

The vocational higher education recorded higher differential index than general education between NER of scheduled and non-scheduled population in the state of Himachal Pradesh. Its differential index value in 2011 was more than twice that of general education in the same year. The index value of the former was 0.52 and that of the latter one was 0.24. This denotes that there were wide differentials in NER of vocational than that of general higher education in the state. Getting admitted in vocational courses is not only tougher but also fee structure is higher than general education courses. These are mostly in the private sector, so vocational courses are generally self-financed, making it difficult for traditionally deprived sections of Himachali society to enrol their wards in such courses. In three districts (Shimla, Una and Sirmaur) differential index value was higher than the state average; it was negative in case of tribal majority districts of Kinnaur and Lahul and Spiti. For obvious reasons, differential index was in favour of scheduled population in these two districts. Quite disappointingly, there has been an increase in differential index value for vocational education during the period of 2001-2011, rising to 0.52 in 2011 from 0.48 in 2001. However, there was a mixed trend at the district level. Four districts (Chamba, Una, Solan and Sirmaur) recorded an increase in differentials index value and the rest registered a decline (Table 5 and Fig. 7).

Bala

Fig. 7  
Change in Non-Scheduled and Scheduled Population NER differentials in Vocational education, 2001-2011



Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011.

Briefly, the social differentials in NER of general courses declined during 2001-2011. The reverse was true for vocational courses. Vocational courses are considered more oriented towards jobs than general courses and these involve higher competition to get admitted even after paying hefty fee than the general courses, a large segment of scheduled population in the state finds it beyond their financial resources to admit their wards in such courses. When higher education gets highly commercialised, as is the case with vocational education, purchasing power comes in operation where socio-economically weaker sections of society, generally having low purchasing power, go in the background and higher purchasing power comes to replace them. This leads to widening the gap in NER of two sections of the society.

#### Accessibility: A Composite Picture

In the preceding discussions accessibility examined to higher education in Himachal Pradesh in terms of gender, residence and social factors for general and vocational education, separately. In the following, an attempt has been made to present a combined picture of higher education accessibility by one composite index derived by combining NER values in

### Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh

male, female, rural, urban, scheduled population and non-scheduled population of individual districts. Weighted index method has been used to calculate male, female, rural, urban, scheduled and non-scheduled NER values for individual districts followed by summing up of all these values to be divided by total number of NER, the number being six in the present case. The composite indices have been prepared and discussed for general and vocational education, separately. The composite indices of general and vocational higher education have been discussed in the following section in order. Highest value of any district of NER has been assigned the value of 100; other districts have been given index values proportionately. Both the indices calculated, separately for 2001-2011.

#### (a) General education courses index

In 2011, the general education weighted index value ranged from a high of 93.1 for Hamirpur to a low of only 40.8 in Chamba district. The state average index value being 67.8 for Himachal Pradesh, five districts had this value higher than the state average (Table 6 and Map 2A). Five districts having composite index value higher than the state average are categorised as high in terms of higher education accessibility for general education.

**Table 6**  
**Index Values of NER of General Education in Higher Education, 2011**

S. No.	District Name	General NER, 2011						Composite Index
		Male	Female	Rural	Urban	N-Sch*	Sch*	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Chamba	45	30	34	66	33	36	40.8
2	Kangra	78	83	80	75	76	72	77.2
3	Lahul and Spiti	96	94	95	0	34	100	83.9
4	Kullu	63	50	54	59	56	45	54.4
5	Mandi	71	59	63	70	63	56	63.9
6	Hamirpur	98	100	100	72	91	97	93.1
7	Una	56	80	68	57	80	39	63.1
8	Bilaspur	73	71	72	61	69	64	68.3
9	Solan	49	58	50	48	53	44	50.6
10	Sirmaur	53	49	47	66	74	21	51.5
11	Shimla	100	99	84	100	100	75	93.0
12	Kinnaur	45	61	52	0	6	74	47.3
<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>		<b>70</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>67.8</b>

Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, New Delhi, India. (ii). \*N-Sch: Non-Scheduled population; Sch: Scheduled population.

In 2011, more than one-third of the districts had index value higher than the state average. Based on this, five districts have been categorised as



## Bala

districts of high accessibility in general education and remaining seven falls in the low accessibility category (Table 7).

**Table 7**  
**Classification of Districts according to Level**  
**in Accessibility of General Education, 2011**

Accessibility index	Name of districts
High (67.8 and above)	Hamirpur (93.1), Shimla (93.0), Lahul and Spiti (83.9), Kangra (77.2), Bilaspur (68.3) (Total=5)
Low (Less than 67.8)	Mandi (63.9), Una (63.1), Kullu (54.4), Sirmaur (51.5), Solan (50.6), Chamba (40.8), Kinnaur (47.3) (Total=7)

Source: Based on the calculation as per table 6

**(b) Vocational education courses index**

In 2011, the vocational education index value ranged from a high of 100 for Hamirpur to a low of only 14.9 in Kinnaur district. The state average index value being 54.7, six districts had value higher than the state average. It included Kangra, Mandi, Hamirpur, Una, Bilaspur and Solan (Table 8 and Map 2B). The rest of the districts that were below the state average included Chamba, Lahul and Spiti, Kullu, Sirmaur, Shimla and Kinnaur.

**Table 8**  
**Composite Index Value of NER of Vocational Education**  
**in Higher Education, 2011**

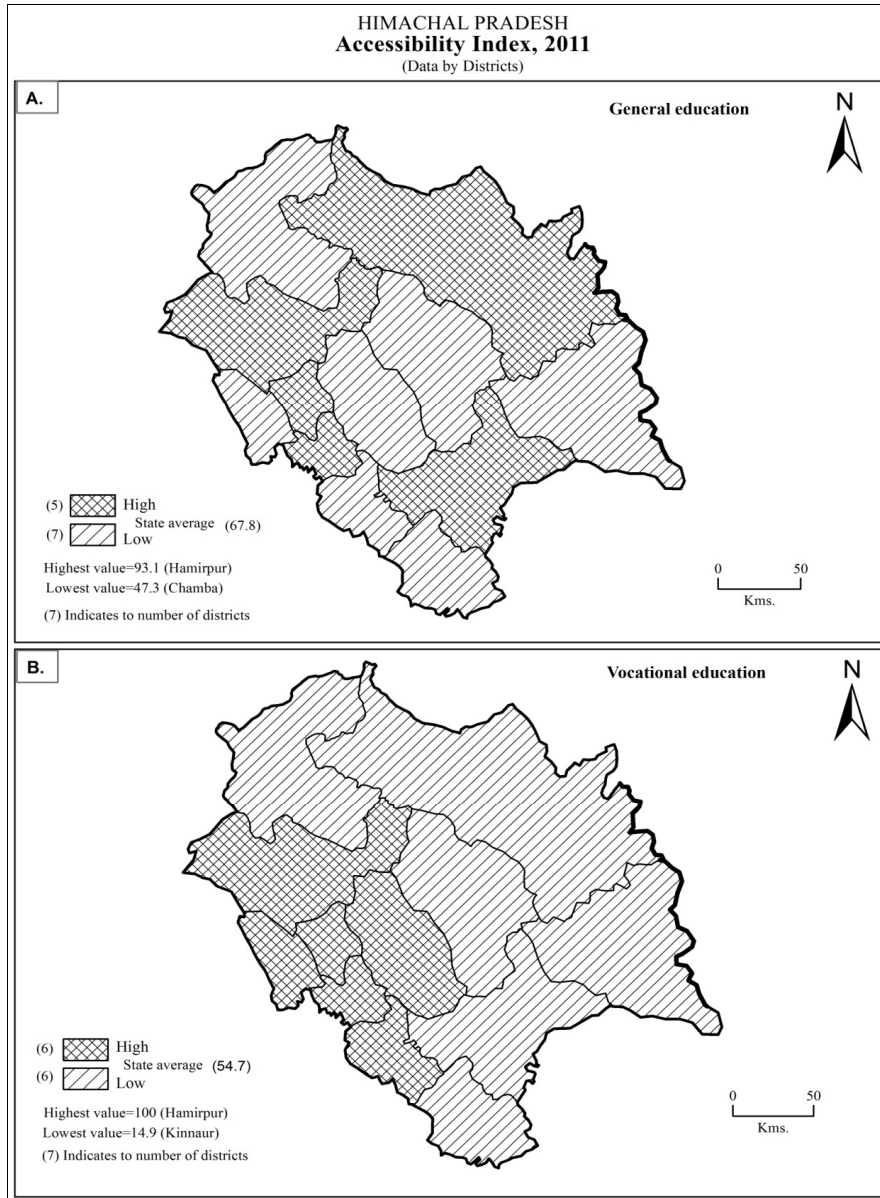
S. No.	District Name	Vocational NER, 2011						Composite index
		Male	Female	Rural	Urban	N-Sch	Sch	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Chamba	25	23	22	50	27	25	28.5
2	Kangra	60	62	62	54	64	53	59.2
3	Lahul and Spiti	24	44	33	0	12	44	31.3
4	Kullu	24	31	23	48	28	26	30.2
5	Mandi	50	55	49	84	54	50	57.2
6	Hamirpur	100	100	100	100	100	100	100.0
7	Una	63	68	66	58	79	48	63.7
8	Bilaspur	77	89	80	100	85	78	84.8
9	Solan	47	76	54	54	63	48	56.9
10	Sirmaur	26	48	26	71	52	14	39.5
11	Shimla	39	70	27	71	55	36	49.6
12	Kinnaur	10	23	15	0	2	26	14.9
	<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>54.7</b>

Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, New Delhi, India.

**Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh**

**Map 2**

**Accessibility Index, 2011: A. General Education B. Vocational Education**



Source: Author prepared on the basis of table 7 and 9

In this way, in 2011, five districts, where index value was above the state average have been categorised as the high and remaining seven

### Bala

districts of value below than the state average as low on accessibility in vocational higher education (Table 9).

**Table 9**  
**Classification of Districts according to Level**  
**in Accessibility of Vocational Education, 2011**

Accessibility index	Name of districts
High (54.7 and above)	Hamirpur (100), Bilaspur (84.8), Una (63.7), Kangra (59.2), Mandi (57.2), Solan (56.9) (Total=5)
Low (Less than 54.7)	Shimla (49.6), Sirmaur (39.5), Lahul and Spiti (31.3), Kullu (30.2), Chamba (28.5), Kinnaur (14.9) (Total=7)

Source: Based on the calculation as per table 8.

Due to their locational advantage, private investors invest to establish educational institutes in these districts of the state. Therefore, the NER of such districts was higher than the state average. The rest of the districts have harsh climatic conditions, low population share and low number of vocational education institutes was attributed to low NER in vocational higher education in these districts.

Further, a combined index of NER general and vocational education of higher education accessibility has been calculated to find out the overall scenario of accessibility to higher education in the state. It has been calculated for the two decades of 2001 and 2011, separately. Nine of the 12 districts in the state recorded negative change in index values of their composite of higher education accessibility, ranging from a high of 16.0 in Una district to a low 2.2 in Bilaspur district. Three districts registering positive change included Hamirpur, Kangra and Lahul and Spiti. The state average on this count was -4.8 (Table 10).

**Table 10**  
**Himachal Pradesh: Change in composite index of higher education**  
**accessibility (college level) 2001-2011**

S. No.	District Name	Index value		Change 2011-2001
		2001	2011	
	1	2	3	4
1	Chamba	41.8	34.6	-7.2
2	Kangra	61.7	68.2	6.5
3	Lahul and Spiti	53.6	57.6	4.0
4	Kullu	51.3	42.3	-9.0
5	Mandi	68.6	60.5	-8.1
6	Hamirpur	81.2	96.5	15.3
7	Una	79.4	63.4	-16.0
8	Bilaspur	78.8	76.6	-2.2
9	Solan	62.2	53.7	-8.5

### Mapping Accessibility of Higher Education in Indian Hill State, Himachal Pradesh

S. No.	District Name	Index value		Change 2011-2001
		2001	2011	
	1	2	3	4
10	Sirmaur	51.3	45.5	-5.7
11	Shimla	78.1	71.3	-6.8
12	Kinnaur	44.7	31.1	-13.6
<b>Himachal Pradesh</b>		<b>66.0</b>	<b>61.2</b>	<b>-4.8</b>

Source: Census of India, Himachal Pradesh Socio and Cultural Tables (C-Series) of 2001 and 2011. Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, New Delhi, India.

In 2001, the average composite index value of general and vocational education accessibility for the state was 66. More than one-third of the districts recorded this index value above the average composite index value. It included Mandi, Hamirpur, Una, Bilaspur and Shimla districts. Remaining seven districts were below the state average. In 2011, when state average value was 61.2, Kangra district replaced Mandi district, the name of districts above average remained the same (Table 11).

**Table 11**  
**Classification of districts by higher education accessibility, 2011**

Accessibility index	Name of district
High (61.2 and above)	Hamirpur (96.5), Bilaspur (76.6), Shimla (71.3), Kangra (68.2), Una (63.4) (Total=5)
Low (Less than 61.2)	Mandi (60.5), Lahul and Spiti (57.6), Solan (53.7), Sirmaur (45.5), Kullu (42.3), Chamba (34.6), Kinnaur (31.1) (Total=7)

Source: Author prepared on the basis of table 4.9.

The index unfolds that in 2011 the demand for higher education was higher in less than half of the districts (Table 11). Districts having low demand for higher education included Lahul and Spiti, Solan, Sirmaur, Kullu, Chamba, Kinnaur and Mandi districts. It indicated the following factors such as poor quality of higher education combined with physical accessibility problems might have resulted in decrease in the demand for higher education especially in case of Lahul and Spiti, Chamba and Kinnaur districts. From these districts, a substantial number of students got enrolled for higher education in Kullu, Kangra and Shimla districts, respectively.

### Conclusion

The combined picture of accessibility in general and vocational education in the state reveals that there is a decline in demand for higher education across districts, indicating a saturation stage in demand for higher education especially in districts, where private colleges and universities came up quickly in the last 10 to 15 years. This study endeavours to aim

## Bala

planners with a detailed insight of the enrolment ratio both general and vocational education at district level so that initiative taken to fill the gaps with regard to spatial, residence and social groups. On the basis of the future perspective, the planners policy-makers in the state should focus on skill-oriented education that provide employment after the completion of higher education.

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UGC-CARE (Group-I)

## **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996: Implementation and Analysis of the 25 Years of Journey**

**Sachchidanand Prasad\* and Nagendra Ambedkar Sole†**

*The PESA, 1996, came into existence on December 24, 1996, concerning the Fifth Scheduled Areas and completed 25 years of its implementation. It has been passed to protect the customs of the tribal peoples, their community resources, cultural identity, and customary mode of dispute resolution. The underlying conviction is that it could play an essential role in the social and economic transformation and implementation of developmental programmes. But, still, it has not been implemented in the letter and right spirits in Fifth Scheduled Areas. The main objective of introducing these acts and strengthening the fourth tier of governance is to preserve the tribal identity and culture and direct participation of these people in decentralised planning and evaluation to their involvement in Gram Sabha. Here we are trying to find out the PESA 1996 as a vital tool for tribal self-rule and checking the reality of ground reforms of the past 25 years of enactment of the Act.*

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### Introduction

In 1996, Central Government took an innovative step to protect the tribal self governance and its traditional administrative system by making PESA Act 1996. It was extended in the fifth scheduled area to protect scheduled tribes and their identity. PESA 1996 gives more power to traditional Gram Sabha and strengthens participatory democracy and inclusive governance in the fifth scheduled area where the concentration of the tribal population exists. Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Telangana, Maharashtra, and Himachal Pradesh are the Fifth Scheduled states where PESA, 1996 was implemented. Historically, tribals have practised local self-governance to protect the customs and culture to protect the tribal identity. After the 73rd and 74th amendments, the Bhuriya committee questioned the existence of PRI in the fifth scheduled and sixth scheduled areas. The Committee recommended PESA for rural areas and Municipal extension Scheduled Area (MESA) for urban areas. PESA was enacted in 1996; however, MESA did not get a constitutional extension to date. The study's rationale is a critical appraisal of PESA 1996 and the powers of Gram Sabha according to the Act. This article also analysed the current issues and challenges of PESA 1996 for tribal self-governance and protection of tribal identity.

### Traditional Governance System and its Enforcement

Generally, tribals are isolated from dominant mainstream societies. They are predominant in the northeast and central India. The difference between northeastern tribes and central tribes is that northeastern are more socially advanced than the rest because northeastern tribes have been given significant autonomy under the Constitution. On the other hand, tribes in the rest of India have been placed under the support of the provincial government (Kurup, 2008). A perusal of the mode of composition of the panchayats of scheduled areas and the powers and functions entrusted to them would show that such arrangements pave the way for participatory government (Purohit, 2002). The provisions of the PESA Act, 1996, extends to the panchayats in the fifth schedule areas of ten states.

Following are the primary feature of the Extension Act -

- (i) Any legislation of PESA 1996 shall be in arrangement with the customary mode of practices, religious and social customs and traditional way of management and practice of the community resources of its inhabitants (Menon & Sinha, 2003).

### **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996**

- (ii) Gram sabha will be the first formal institution, and its task is to facilitate the Gram Sabha within its jurisdiction. Gram sabha will plan and implement all development plans subject to the approval of the Gram Sabha. The panchayat will be responsible (Kothari, 2008). Gram sabha shall be empowered to give the certificate of the utilisation of funds for various plans and programmes, identify persons as beneficiaries under the poverty alleviation and other applications to implement programmes, approve loans, and government schemes for social and economic development (Pal, 2000).

There are numbers of power given to the Gram Sabha. These are - approval of development plans, ownership of minor forest products, consultation on land acquisition, control of money lending to STs, selection of beneficiaries under various programmes, management of minor minerals. Gram sabha has also power to regulate or prohibit the sale of intoxicants, the anticipation of alienated land and restore it if illegally alienated land of STs. Other powers are management of village markets, giving utilisation documentation for funds used for the schemes and programmes of socio-economic progress etc., to the Gram Sabha (Singh Y., 2002). PESA provides local communities opportunities to manage minor water bodies (Kurup, 2008).

- (iii) It gives reservation of the seats for the STs at all tiers. It shall not be less than half of the total number of seats. Reservation for other communities indicated in Part IX of the Constitution shall be in proportion to the population of such communities (Prasad & Annamalai, 2013).
- (iv) The chairmanship at all levels of the panchayats shall be reserved for the STs. The state government shall nominate such unrepresented scheduled tribes, but such nomination should not exceed one-tenth of the total elected members of the panchayats (Menon & Sinha, 2003).

From Andhra Pradesh-Vishakhapatnam, East Godavari, West Godavari, Srikakulam, and Vijayanagaram, comes under a fully scheduled area. Prakasam (only a few scheduled mandals). Chhattisgarh- Bastar, Bilaspur, Durg, Raigad, Rajnandgaon, Raipur, Sarghuja. Kanker are the fifth scheduled area districts where PESA 1996 was implemented. In Gujarat- Bharuch, Dangs, Panchmahal, Surat, Valsad, Vadodara, Sabarkanta have parts of scheduled areas. From Jharkhand - Devghar, Godda, Pakur, Ranchi, Sahebganj, Singhbhum (East and West), Gumla, Lohardaga, Simdega, are



### **Prasad and Sole**

fully covered districts and Palamu, Garhwa have only some partly tribal blocks. Himachal Pradesh - Lahaul and Spiti are fully covered districts; Kinnaur, Pangi and Bharmour blocks in Chamba district are partly scheduled self-rule areas. Madhya Pradesh - Betul, Dhar, East Nimar (Khandwa), Jhabua, Khargone, Mandla, Sailana tehsil in Ratlam district, Seoni, Balaghat, Morena, Shahdol, Chindwada are Scheduled area Districts where PESA implemented. From Maharashtra - Ahmednagar, Amravati, Chandrapur, Dhule, Gadchiroli, Nanded, Nasik, Pune, Thane, and Yavatmal are part of tribal self governance. In Odisha - Koraput, Mayurbhanj and Sundargarh are fully scheduled areas, and Bolangir, Balasore, Boudhkondmals, Ganjam, Kalahandi, Keonjhar, Rayagada and Sambalpur (parts of these districts only). From Rajasthan-Banswara, Dungarpur are fully covered tribal districts, and Chittaurgarh, Sirohi, Udaipur, are partly tribal districts. From, Telangana - Adilabad and Mahboobnagar are partially covered areas<sup>1</sup>.

The vision of the empowerment of Gram Sabha in a village can be compared with the Parliament or assembly. It is the most powerful foundation of decentralised governance. Still, unfortunately, it could not become a vibrant and essential institution at the grassroots level because of local leadership and bureaucracy (Singh Y., 2002).

### **Constitutional Subject list in the Seventh Schedule relevant to PESA 1996**

1. Public order; 5. Local government; 6. PHCs; 8. Intoxication like liquor, alcohol, rice beer, etc., including from production to sale of these intoxicants; 9. Relief for unemployed and disabled people; 10. Burial and cremation grounds; 16. Prevention of cattle trespass and Ponds; 17. Supply of drinking water, irrigation facilities, proper drainage system, canal, water storage for villages; 18. Land includes- relation of landlord, land improvement tenant, agricultural loans, collections of rents and transfer and alienation of lands; 19. Fisheries; 23. Regulation of minerals and mines; 24. Industries subject to the provision of entry; 27. Production and supply of goods; 28. Local markets and fairs; 30. Local tax revenue; and 31. Taxes on minerals.

### **Status of Grassroots Implementation in the Fifth Scheduled States**

Madhya Pradesh amended Panchayat Adhiniyam in 1997 and added Chapter XIV for panchayats extension, delineating Gram Sabha's constitution. Gram panchayats prescribe the mode of reservation of seats for them and the powers and functions of these institutions of the scheduled areas (Singh Y., 2002). Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra have enacted certain powers to the Gram Sabha at the grassroots level like - protect the

### **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996**

traditional customary laws of the people, safeguarding their cultural uniqueness and the customary style of dispute resolutions community resources, managing natural possessions including *jal-jungle* and *jamin* within the area of the community following its traditional harmony, etc. (Pal, 2000). Provisions contained in Orissa and Andhra Pradesh panchayat act imply that for dispute resolutions, provisions of IPC and CrPC would apply instead of applying tribal customs and traditions.

Andhra Pradesh and Gujarat have given powers to mandal panchayat and taluka panchayat for prior consultation before acquiring land for expansion of projects and beforehand resetting and rehabilitation for the displaced persons (ELDF, 2011). The Orissa Panchayat Act has given this responsibility to zila panchayat. Rajasthan panchayat has given this power to the Gram Sabha or panchayati raj institutions as may be prescribed. In contrast, Himachal Pradesh and Maharashtra have done what has been prescribed in the spirit of the Extension Act to the Gram Sabha. The Andhra Pradesh PESA act included that Gram Sabha has empowered to preserve, safeguard customs and traditions of the people. Gram sabha shall be responsible for community resources, their cultural identity, and without detriment to any laws for the time being enforce the customary mode of dispute resolutions (section 242 C(1)(ELDF, 2011). The Central Act says that Gram Sabha must be permitted for land procurement in the scheduled area, but it has been done under the Jharkhand PRI 2001 under section 10(8). Some states have implemented PESA partially. Rajasthan is the prominent example where the state has passed the PESA Act in 1999.

Nonetheless, rules did not formulate till 2011. In Jharkhand, a committee constituted by the speaker of Jharkhand assembly, under the chairmanship of MLA Deepak Birua, submitted a report that there is a need for grassroots implementation of PESA in Jharkhand (Prabhat Khabar, 2016). In Maharashtra, PESA 1996 rules were enacted in 2014. The Act permits that Gram Sabha can control the community's natural resources, like minor water bodies, minor forest products, community lands, etc. Maharashtra government has handed over 5 per cent of the tribal sub-plan funds to the Gram Sabha. However, these assistances do not reach the communities without the state government notification<sup>2</sup>. As per the Act, the revenue officer must declare a tribal habitation as a PESA Gram Sabha area within 135 days after the villagers demand recognition for the Gram Sabha. In Maharashtra, Gram Sabha has started conducting meetings, and tribal people demanded state government to notify these provisions in time.

### **Prasad and Sole**

The legal provision of panchayat extension is to empower the scheduled tribes at the grassroots level, but it has not been wholly implemented. The significantly less tribal population are aware of the amendments and their provisions. They are deprived of the benefits due to their ignorance and apathy of enforcing agencies. Grassroots practices recommend that most panchayat representatives and Gram Sabha members were unaware of the minimum number required for Gram Sabha assemblies (Singh Y., 2002). As per the provision of the PESA act, all 10 states have taken necessary actions. But the objects of the PESA act are primarily fulfilled. This Act gives powers to the tribal panchayat, but it needs more clear and transparent provisions (Shirsath, 2014). The new extension also opens opportunities to such NGOs in the scheduled areas, can positively help the panchayats and the people living under these areas by training panchayat representatives, particularly women representatives, project formulation and implementing awareness among the tribal people about various government programmes, literacy programmes, agriculture and extension and development, watershed schemes, utilisation of common property resources, planning resource mobilisation etc. (Purohit, 2002). Apart from the fifth scheduled area, Uttarakhand has its own van panchayat implemented under the Uttaranchal Panchayati Forest Act 2001. It empowers the 'Sarpanch' and is responsible for panchayat forests, for the distribution of forest produces among right holders, grazing regulation, cutting the grass, collecting fuelwood, and levying fees to meet its administrative expenses (Kumar A., 2013).

### **Strengthening the Tribal Self Rule**

Gram sabha is the fourth tier of local governance, gives a more participatory approach at the grassroots level. PESA 1996 gives mandatory executive functions and responsibilities to the Gram Sabha. Even government has to take compulsory consultation to the Gram Sabha or panchayat before acquiring land in fifth scheduled areas (Choubey, 2015). The underlying conviction is that local governance can play an essential role in the social and economic transformation and implementation of developmental programmes (Mathew, 2002). The main objective of introducing these acts and strengthening the fourth tier of governance is to preserve the tribal identity, culture and direct participation of these people in decentralised planning and evaluation to their involvement in Gram Sabha. No one could deny that colonial forest administration was revenue centric and exploitative and did not recognise the rights of forest dwellers (Patnaik, 2007). The policy for isolation of tribal community was started by

### **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996**

Britishers when they introduced the National Forest Policy in 1894 (Singh R.M., 2006). However, it was the numbers of Ulgullan or tribal revolts in different part of India. Tribals demanded their land, forest, and water rights from Britishers. After Independence, the Constitution of India gave a lot of safeguards to protect their identity, culture, customs, and customary practices.

It was widely recognised that village communities and tribals self-rule after 1990. It secured recognition of the Constitutional rights for the empowerment of Gram Sabha and local marginalised peoples after 73rd amendment for the constitution. Consequently, Shri D.S. Bhuria was appointed as chairman of the committee to recommend modifications in the amendment act needed to apply to the scheduled and tribal areas. Bhuriya Committee submitted its report in January 1995, and after that, the PESA Act, 1996, was passed in the Parliament on December 24, 1996 (Menon & Sinha, 2003). As per the PESA 1996, Gram Sabha is a constitutionally mandated body that enables every Gram Sabha member to contribute to the decision making process at the grassroots level. It offers a platform where people of the Gram Sabha meet and deliberate their glitches and realise the requirements and goals of the tribals (Hazra, 2013). Rajani Kothari expressed the role of Gram Sabha where Gram Sabha can syndicate the older form of informal harmony making mechanism by the additional institutionalised and legal documents directed. Gram sabha can supervise working elected representatives and finish with upward self-assurance that they cannot be browbeaten by dominant peoples or caste and convert strength (Singh S., 2004). It allows the representation of a marginalised and weaker section of society. The Maharashtra government first recognised the importance of Gram Sabha in 1959. Diwaker committee constituted by Karnataka recommended that without giving the constitutional right to Gram Sabha (Monditoka, 2010), it will be toothless.

### **Various Committees on Tribal Self-Rule**

The second administrative reform commission submitted the report of empowerment of Gram Sabha in the fifth scheduled area. Commission recommended that development procedure must initiate at the local level. The Gram Sabha's identification of beneficiaries have to be made by the Gram Sabha, and the foremost important part is the social audit, which must involve Gram sabhas (Commission, 2006). The National Environment Policy, 2006, aims to protect and conserve critical environmental resources, equitable access of support for all sections of society, especially those who

### Prasad and Sole

dwell in the forest areas and preserve biodiversity and ecology (Rajgopalan, 2008). It also visualised that Gram Sabha in the forest areas can play a crucial role in protecting the environment.

Mungeker committee (2009) said that the best delicate phase of tribal life is sovereignty. The initial phase of governance did not have a place for communities belonging to tribes and self-rule for them. There was no place for the tribals and its system of tribal self-governance in this frame. The customary structure of ownership of individuals and communities are unconsciously used. The resources of local people converted into extinction or state resources in the name of protecting the community. Committee recommended the rights of local people on land and other natural resources. However, resources could be bound through *pattas* issued by the government, which can be named favouring any individual severely or jointly<sup>3</sup>.

In 2013, the Mani Shankar Aiyar committee recommended that the government could have to take steps towards strengthening PRIs for the distribution of power from the central government to the local government for grassroots implementation of public policy. Especially, it is much needed to the grassroots application of PESA 1996 and amendment of the Act for the overall development of tribal people (Aiyar, 2013). This Act provides legal provisions for the tribal in PRI and preserves their forest rights and people's custom and culture. The committee also recommended that JFMs be rooted in the tribal self governance system. It could be recognised accountability to tribal peoples, especially in fifth scheduled areas where Gram Sabhas are to be, in effect, habitat sabha. It could also be subsequent FRA that has entrusted powers relating to forest rights in the Gram Sabha. In this manner, forest department must learn to work with these Gram Sabhas. The fourth tier of governance system could work as an architect responding to essential provision as a substitute of effective as the regulator of jungles verbalising terms to the local tribal community<sup>4</sup>.

In 2014, Xaxa Committee pointed out that the denial of tribal peoples of cultivated land adds to their marginalisation and poverty. It permits inhibition of all kinds of land alienation, finished severe administration of laws and restoration of alienated land to the original tribal owners as per the provisions of the PESA and the confirmatory acts by various state governments. There should be monitoring activities at the central and state levels to prevent alienation of tribal land and its restoration. The committee also recommended that in enacting the PESA, 1996, land transfer regulations/tenancy laws of all scheduled five areas would be adequately

### **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996**

modified to confirm Gram Sabha participation in identifying, investigating, and restoring lands to ST peoples. Gram sabha needs to be reinforced by states to accept these responsibilities<sup>5</sup>.

### **Methodology**

A threefold process followed for the data collection of the research. A pilot study of the gram panchayats/Gram Sabha's attended meetings and selected gram panchayats/gram Sabha; Discussion with Gram Sabha members; and Discussion with panchayat representatives, local government officials such as gram panchayat officials, village-level worker (VLW), civil society, self-help group members (SHGs) and their local officials etc., during the process.

### **Challenges of PESA and its Implementation**

Since enforcement of the Act, it has completed 25 years in December 2021. Still, PESA has been grossly misrepresented and underutilised, alienating tribal people all over the country. Indian Institute of Public Administration conducted a study on PESA 1996 and its empirical implementation in six districts of three states - Odisha, Jharkhand, and Chhattisgarh. The study highlighted the poor implementation of the tribal self governance act. The study says that the government is acquiring land without prior permission of the panchayats or Gram Sabhas<sup>6</sup>. We can see past movements like the *sati-pati* cult movement<sup>7</sup> in Gujarat and Pathalgad<sup>8</sup> movement in Jharkhand. These movements are the direct output of dissatisfaction among the tribals due to losing their lands, traditional economy, and identity. If we did not learn from the Niyamgiri (Odisha) land acquisition case, we must face many similar cases in the future. In this case, the Supreme Court gave a judgement favouring Gram Sabha and their customary mode of administration<sup>9</sup>.

If we go through the Act of PESA 1996 and give importance to their provision by cabinet ministries, only two central ministries issued guidelines to state government. The Ministry of Rural Development has mentioned the role of Gram Sabha in land acquisition by the state government. Union ministries never realised that PESA has to be implemented collaboratively with the state government. Central government has to be more efficient in implementing PESA and give more importance to the national policies of water, forest and tribals, including other federal policies. It can improve the status of scheduled tribes and promote inclusive growth for marginalised people. In 1997, the State Act of Madhya Pradesh gave the power to the Gram Sabha to manage natural resources like water, forest, land etc., in

### Prasad and Sole

village areas with the coherence of traditional values and constitutional provisions in schedule tribe areas (Galab & Chandrasekhra, 2003). UNDP study entitled "Peoples empowerment through panchayat raj institutions in scheduled fifth areas and studies on the law affecting the poor" with the help of the Ministry of Panchayati Raj. It is designed to study various critical issues imprinting tribal life and development. These studies have provided policy interventions directed towards empowering the tribal, creating an environment for implementing progressive elements of progressive laws.

In 2005, to check the status of PESA experiences in the fifth scheduled area, the National Institute of Rural Development studied tribal self-governance in six-volume. In first volume on 'tribal land and indebtedness' the group of researchers have done survey on 'settlement and land reforms in scheduled areas'. The procedure of acquisition of land in fifth scheduled areas for mining industry development by harmonising the industrial mining provisions of PESA. It is known how tribals are alienated from lands and reported the incidence of indebtedness among tribals. The Gram Sabha could be involved in various stages of implementing ceiling laws regarding land and indebtedness. Tenancy Act of Chhotangpur and Santhal Pargana protect the tribal land in Jharkhand and reduce indebtedness.

There is a customary mode of dispute resolution tribal mode of administration in self-governance. Through PESA 1996, It is also a provision to control forest area with Gram Sabhas. Through Gram Sabha, central and state governments can control joint forest management. Joint forest management is an outcome of the realisation involvement of local communities can lead to fruitful results. It makes people conscious of their rights and duties in forest management. Theoretically, joint forest management seeks to protect and maintain existing natural resources and replenish fast depleting forest and water resources, thereby protecting the environment. It also encourages the local communities and forest personnel to regenerate already degraded forests and increase green cover. It provides sustainable solution towards the use of local woods and water resources along with generating alternative means of subsistence through income generation. It empowers local communities for decision making in forestry programmes and helps in exercising their usufruct rights over the regenerated forest and water resources. It encourages the local communities to farm forestry in the wasteland. Even Gram Sabha could put the impact of forest laws on the livelihood system with particular references. The study

### **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996**

reveals that Gram Sabha can be convoluted in various stages, documentation and selection of beneficiaries at local or panchayat level<sup>10</sup>.

The provision of management of minor forest produce and common property resources and the role of Gram Sabha in ownership and control of non-timber forest products is the part of economic livelihood of tribal communities. Community resources among tribals are the assets owned by the whole community to make life better for the community. The traditional community resources are youth dormitory, minor forest products within the village boundary, land for shifting cultivation, community pond, community hall, graveyard, etc. The watershed project, primary school, farmer's cooperative society, Anganwadi centre, joint forest management committee, drinking water, primary health centre etc., are community resources introduced to deliver development schemes for their inclusive progress. In the context of traditional community resources, tribals capably manage and use natural resources. However, overlapping of traditions and rituals and non-acceptance for arrangements could derail proper implementation. So, the use of grassroots institutions would not generate homogeneity between tribal people and use of natural resources.

Central PESA empowers Gram Sabha to assess the forest assets, and livelihoods impact of state legislation enables the Gram Sabha to take grassroots decisions. The Act on forest rights also enables all the members of the community to have land titles. Safeguarding tribal rights is a procedure of constant scuffle; government and panchayat officials are unacquainted with the laws. PESA empowers Gram Sabha to regulate, control and restrict the transaction and intake of intoxicants like- alcohol, rice beer, etc. On the other side, the government supports the liquor business in the country as it has a vested interest in alcoholism and requires money power. It stimulates dues and the community reliance on the moneylenders.

While planning developmental activities and the fundamental issue of the Gram Sabha, there have been problems of implementation of these plans at the grassroots level that was an enormous challenge for the state government. Lack of awareness among the people about the programmes and schemes are another concern (Ministry of Panchayat Raj, 2012). A large proportion of agrarian families engaging in traditional occupation comes below poverty line. There is also a problem of money lending, which increase the poverty proportion. The involvement of Gram Sabha in approving BPL lists will considerably reduce the inclusion and exclusion errors. Gram sabha, which reflects the village power structure, favours the



### Prasad and Sole

poor at the bottom. Gram sabha does not meet or meet without the proper pre-information of meetings.

Forest plays a crucial role in the tribal economy and maintaining ecological balance. From the environmental point of view, tribal districts are comparatively rich in forest cover and forest resources. In India, 37.25 per cent of the tribal regions are covered by forest against the national average of 21.05 per cent of forest cover. Decreasing forest area mainly attributed to divergence of forest land for development projects, illicit felling of trees, encroachments, constructions of dams etc. Increased forest cover in some districts assigned to the success of afforestation projects such as social forestry and wasteland development. The losing forest cover in tribal areas needs to protect from environmental challenges and diversion of various activities. Joint forest management orders incorporated PESA provisions in making all Gram Sabha adult voters qualified as general voters in Gram Sabha.

Even the developmental scheme under the Tribal Sub Plan (TSP) has not given satisfactory results in four decades because of the most states have utilised the tribal fund to build infrastructure facilities. An average of 37 per cent of the funds of TSP are used for infrastructure. He also mentioned that tribes depend on land and forest, not only for economic livelihood but it is also related to their geographical identity and also for their food, shelter, medicine etc. Land alienation increased due to the exploitation of mineral resources and extensive scale industrialisation, irrigation dams, and power projects. These programmes have helped the government transfer lands from tribal people to non-tribals by uprooting tribals from their homeland (Xaxa, 2012). It also questioned the grassroots implementation of the various laws that guarantee tribal's land and scheduled area's forest rights as the state could not correctly implement these. He has given the example of land alienation in Bhadrachalam tribal area of Telangana. It is concerned that the allocation of the TSP is not meeting the stipulated earmarking proportion of the tribal population. Many ministries remained out of the domain of these statements, and several departments did not have the required budget. It was also observed how the TSP funds were used for general purposes. The TSP funds have been utilised to build jails, fire services, police welfare society, purchases of furniture and equipment, mapping of projects etc. These interventions did not promote empowerment, and the welfare of STs never addressed their specific developmental needs (Srivastava, 2018).

## Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996

### Field Data

**Table 1**  
**Issues and Challenges to Implementing PESA at the Gram Sabha Level**

Suggestions from respondents	Frequency	Percent
Lack of unity among panchayat representatives	18	9.1
Weakening traditional system of self governance	26	13.2
Lack of distribution of power to gram sabha/panchayat	16	8.1
lack of better coordination of the bureaucracy with PRI	21	10.7
NA	116	58.9
Total	197	100.0

9.1 per cent responded that the lack of unity among panchayat representatives is one of the main hindrances to empowering Gram Sabha. 13.2 per cent responded to the weakening of the traditional system of self governance. 8.1 per cent responded that lack of distribution of power to Gram Sabha/Gram Panchayat. 10.7 per cent responded that lack of better coordination of the bureaucracy with PRI.

### States Involvement in Strengthening Tribal Self Governance

A study done by ELDF (2011) recommended that extension of panchayat activities evade misunderstanding within regular panchayat and scheduled areas of panchayat. PESA developed as modification and exception of part IX of the Constitution that must execute in states. Unfortunately, the same has not been appropriately implemented at the panchayat level. An amendment in the Constitution brought a distinct structure for governance in scheduled areas regulated by Tribal Advisory Council (TAC) and the Governor with tribals. Accordingly, the Ministry has to be the nodal agency about the applicability of the Act (ELDF (Enviro-legal defence), 2011).

### The Way Forward

Gram sabha got the power to decide on land acquisition, resettlement, and rehabilitation of displaced people. It has the power to plan and manage minor water bodies, recommend licenses or lease regarding minor minerals etc. It also has the ownership of minor forest products as per the PESA Act 1996. But still, Governments are required to work on strengthening these toothless powers. The actual power of Gram Sabha would show the direct participation of the people in the social audit process in the rural local bodies. Documentation of efforts of the state government and contribution of the non-governmental organisation for creating

### Prasad and Sole

awareness about the PESA is to be done on priority basis. In the global pandemic crisis era, the need for decentralisation has been realised. The importance of the forest-based cottage industry in upgrading the rural economy is recognised. In tribal areas, there is a need of establishment of the cottage industry, such as beekeeping and honey extraction, lac processing, tamarind concentrate for starch manufacturing, tannin and *Khair* extraction, gum and resin collection, broomsticks and rope making, leaf and cup making, woodcraft and bamboo's product. According to the Draft of National Tribal Policy, acquisition of land and construction of infrastructure in tribal areas, like check dams, electricity lines, roads, etc., the government must have made proper consultations with tribal people in Gram Sabha and engage them for participation in development<sup>11</sup>.

The provisions regarding the social audit mentioned under the central PESA Act, for the first time, the concept of social audit was recommended by the Ashok Mehta committee to provide a watchdog of the panchayat and empower the decentralised institutions. When the Act was enacted at the grassroots, more participation of Gram Sabha members enhanced the representation scale to measure women's performance in the Gram Sabha. It is hardly accepted in the patriarchal society, and women can suggest and be involved in the Gram Sabha's decision-making power. Even in many situations, tribal women actively participated in the *Hamari Yojana Hamara Vikas*, a part of decentralised planning at the Gram Sabha level. The present government has taken the initiative of photo upload at the website to attend the Gram Sabha meeting<sup>12</sup>.

**Table 2**  
**Affective measures regarding tribal development**

Affective Measures	Respondents	Percent
The provisions of the Gram sabha of the central and the State legislation	23	11.7
Historical perspective of self-governance in the State	22	11.2
Areas specific to tribal/ weaker sections	14	7.1
Planning, implementation and monitoring of development projects	23	11.7
The Legislative, Executive and Judicial aspects of the provisions	18	9.13
Different powers and functions of the Gram Sabha	20	10.2
Combination of all	28	14.21
NA	49	24.87
Total	197	100.0

For the content of the training programme, respondents' preferences were quite revealing from most of the respondents, 24.87 per cent, who did

### **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996**

not suggest any content of the training programme. 14.21 per cent of responses came in favour of the combination of all training programme content. They did not suggest specific content, while they suggested that there should be content for the capacity building programmes for the Gram Sabha. We see that 11.7 per cent of responses opted for the Gram Sabha of the central and state legislation. In other words, 11.7 per cent of the respondents suggested planning, implementation and monitoring of development projects. 11.2 per cent of the responses chose historical perspective of self-governance in the state.

Similarly, 9.13 per cent of the responses said about the legislative, executive and judicial aspects of the provisions. Training is a necessary part of the capacity building system as having a vital and decisive role in the quality of decision making in the Gram Sabha.

For revamping these hindrances, like the entry of politics in the traditional panchayat system, the respondents suggested that there is a need of following the method of consensus in the election of village leaders. Moreover, to keep the vested interest at bay, various committees need to be set up with the members from different communities, which must take decisions through mutual consultation and approval by the village assembly.

Under the *Hamari Yojana Hamara Vikas*, Initially, Gram Sabha used the power of selection of beneficiaries. At the same time, the recipients' names changed in final approval due to the intervention of dominant people and local bureaucrats. Gram Sabha determines the priorities for the various programmes under decentralised planning. It addresses poverty alleviation programmes, gender equality, environmental status, health care facilities, education and the use of information technology. However, the proper functioning of Gram Sabha is yet to bring decision making closer to the people. It could lead to programmes and services that can better address local needs.

Prepare the background of micro-planning: (i) The organisation of panchayats, ward development committees and training of the members. (ii) Collecting information and data, identification of problems, prioritisation, planning at ward/village level. (iii) Approval of the panchayat plans at the Gram Sabha meetings. (iv) Knowledge and approval of the plans by members of the Panchayat Samiti. (v) Knowledge and approval of the plans by members of the Zilla Parishad. (vi) Integration of plans at the district level, allocation of funds according to people's plan. (vii) The Gram Sabha uses funds according to the project, mobilising the resources. (viii) Complete the micro plan documentation process.

### Panchayat Online Monitoring System

To disseminate information and monitoring system, a panchayat electronic resources system with necessary infrastructure and facilities like Internet availability, full-time technical staff, which would provide the required information on various provisions, programmes, and processes related to the PRIs. The other necessary secretarial help and guidance about preparing applications, filling up the forms and memorandums. These resource centres would help digitalise micro-planning programmes that can provide literature and materials. It also needs to promote Gram Sabha level institutions to decentralise the planning process.

### Conclusion

PESA Act 1996 has completed twenty-five years of enactment in fifth scheduled areas. But still, It did not get the right path to strengthen tribal self governance. It was not implement the TSP in its letter and right spirit. In theory, PESA empowers Gram Sabha to manage community control resources through joint forest management, but there is no substantial evidence in practice. It is also suggested that Gram Sabha is the most effective way to reduce corruption and ensure transparency, accountability, and functioning democracy. It is required to revisit its status and existence for the tribal people as a set of constitutionally protected rights. The tribal people have had a negative experience with the ruins of PESA. Simultaneously, they feel that PESA can address many discriminations in the tribal areas if given a chance. The state governments defer fairness by not giving sensible indebtedness to tribals self-ruled Gram Sabhas.

### End Notes

1. Scheduled Areas.pdf (tribal.nic.in)
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3. Mungekar3rdreport2.pdf (tribal.nic.in)
4. VOL-2\_Towards Holistic Panchayat Raj.pdf (nrcddp.org)
5. 2014-Xaxa-Tribal-Committee-Report.pdf (cjp.org.in)
6. PESA & LWE: (ncst.nic.in)
7. <https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/city/vadodara/sati-pati-cult-comes-into-focus-again/articleshow/77172982.cms>
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## **Tribal Self-Governance through Panchayat Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996**

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## **Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons**

**Pravin Laxman Shinde\***

*In general, uneven development is the basic cause of migration. This is explained in terms of 'pull' and 'push' factors. Migration takes place from less developed regions to more prosperous areas. Deprived people from all over the world have tendency to migrate to areas with employment opportunities for livelihood. This research paper is focusing on the seasonal migration patterns of sugarcane cutters in Pune district of Maharashtra. It also identifies the reasons for the seasonal migration. The study is carried out at four sugar factories, out of eighteen in Pune district. Pune district is well advanced in industry, agriculture, transport, trade, etc. The study is made by collecting both primary data by interviews of sugarcane cutters with schedule at sugar factory sites, along with secondary data. The Gravity Model of John Stewart is applied to understand migration patterns in Pune district. The study also comes up with some solutions to curb the seasonal migration not only in Pune but in Maharashtra state.*

### **Introduction**

People move out of any areas are called as *Emigrant*, while where people come are known as *Immigrant*. The people who move from one area to another are called as *Migrant* and this all process is known as *Migration*. Migration is not always a permanent migration; it is for a stipulated period

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### Shinde

so that the migrant again returns back to source region from destination after some time. This phenomenon is called 'seasonal, cyclical or oscillatory migration'. This migration ranges from few months to a season. It mainly happens in the rural parts of the country. Migrants from different socio-economic background migrate to seek employment. This employment is distributed in unorganised sectors of economy like agriculture, fishing, animal husbandry, construction, services and footloose industry. Hann, A.D. (1999) rightly argued that the heterogeneity of migration needs to be taken into consideration as there are variety of factors affecting on migration. Many studies have found that out of many types, the short distance seasonal migration accounts for more in India (Singh, D.P. 1998). Rural labours are forced to migrate due to social and economic hardship especially as most of the migrants are socially backward, the landless labourers and the poor and unskilled labourers (Bremner, Jan 1979). Deshingkar, Priya and Start, Daniel (2003) in their studies of seasonal migrants of Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh find seasonal migration as strategy of living of poor and social exclusive people. They studied patterns of seasonal migration, background of migrants and their economic condition. Keshri, Kunal and Bhagat, R. B. (2012) studied regional pattern of temporary or seasonal migration in India. They discussed the socio-economic condition of migrants with reference to caste, religion, education, landholdings etc. Many researchers are interested in the study of seasonal migrants, as it is a widespread phenomenon in north, east and central part of India, especially in Marathwada and Khandesh regions of Maharashtra State.

The quantitative and qualitative analysis of migration process is done by many scholars. They have developed many theories and models to estimate and predict the volume and direction of migration. The first ever theory was credited to Ravenstein (1885) where he studied the inter-country movement of migrants within Britain in 19<sup>th</sup> century. The Gravity model was welcome addition from John Stewart where he applied Newton's Law of Gravitation to migration, where he formulised the role of population size and distance of settlements in determining spatial interaction. In 1986, John Relethford studied migration not only with the distance and populations of settlements but also cultural and ecological aspects of population. David Karamera et al. (2000) in their studies showcase the influence of political, economic and demographic factors on the size and composition of migrants flow to USA and Canada by modified Gravity Model. Raul Ramos and Jordi Surinach (2013) studied the flow of international migrants from European Neighbourhood countries (ENC) to European Union (UN) in past and

### **Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons**

future. Hye Jin Park et al. (2018) have applied generalised gravity model to study marriage patterns between the bride and the groom clans of Korea by applying geographical and clan information with census data. These studies encouraged the author to use gravity model in seasonal migration studies in Pune district with modified nature.

#### **Objectives of the Study**

The study was carried out with following objectives: to study seasonal migration patterns of sugarcane cutters in Pune district like inter-district, intra-district, inter-state, etc.; to study the reasons for seasonal migration of sugarcane cutters in Pune district; and to come up with some solution to curb the rate of seasonal migration.

#### **Material and Methodology**

The study was carried out in Pune district having 18 sugar factories. Four sugar factories were selected on the basis of different climate, physiography and ownership. The primary data was collected with interviews of 150 sugarcane cutter families from each factory with the help of a schedule. The data collected was tabulated, processed and presented with different maps and diagrams.

John Stewart's Gravity Model has been used in this migration study to estimate the volume of migrants from native villages to sugar factory site villages in Pune District of Maharashtra.

$$MI = K \frac{P_1 P_2}{d^2}$$

Where,

MI = Volume of migration

K = Proportionality constant

P1 = Population of sugar factory village

P2 = Average population of native villages of sugarcane cutters from each tehsil

d2 = Distance between sugar factory village and average of migrant villages in tehsil

#### **Results and Discussion**

This research has been conducted in four sugar factory sites by direct visit and interviews of sugarcane cutters in Pune district of Maharashtra.

## Shinde

### 1. Study of Migration Index in Bhimashankar Co-Op Sugar Factory

Bhimashankar co-op. sugar factory is situated in Pargaon block. of Ambegaon tehsil in northern part of Pune district. The study of migration process is made with the sample size of 150 sugarcane cutter families comprising 532 migrants from different districts of Maharashtra to the factory. The distance between sugar factory and native villages are measured with Google Map. The population of villages are taken from census of 2011.

$$\text{Ashti tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1360}{144} = 63,016.57$$

$$\text{Patoda tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1813}{175} = 67,205.32$$

$$\text{ShirurKasar tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1240}{168} = 47,880.23$$

$$\text{Beed tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1332}{200} = 43,203.42$$

$$\text{Pathardi tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1190}{140} = 55,139.50$$

$$\text{Shevgaon tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1072}{149} = 46,671.57$$

$$\text{Jamkhed tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1170}{158} = 48,036.64$$

$$\text{Parner tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 609}{63} = 62,707.66$$

$$\text{Karjat tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1034}{135} = 49,685.61$$

$$\text{Rahuri tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 679}{92} = 47,876.88$$

### Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons

$$\text{Chalisgaon tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1565}{200} = 50,760.77$$

$$\text{Pachora tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1788}{240} = 48,328.15$$

$$\text{Jalgaon tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1460}{284} = 33,348.66$$

$$\text{Nandgaon tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1201}{183} = 42,573.15$$

$$\text{Ghansawangi tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1060}{231} = 32,575.41$$

$$\text{Kannad tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 741}{193} = 24,906.04$$

$$\text{Vashi tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1626}{211} = 49,989.86$$

$$\text{Dhule tehsil (MI)} = 1 \times \frac{6487 \times 1700}{240} = 47,947.39$$

The application of Gravity Model to migration data shows the maximum results as per the expectation of formula. The Table 1 showcase that the values derived for each tehsil is positively correlated to the actual migrants to the factory. The highest migration volume figure is derived for Patoda tehsil is 67,205.32 which represents the highest migrant families of 40 to the Bhimashankar factory. The Pathardi tehsil has migration volume figure of 55139.50 represented by 36 families at factory, while Ashti tehsil has migration volume figure is 63,016.57 which represents 29 migrant families to factory. The figures of Ghansawangi and Kannad tehsil are 32575.41 and 24906.04 respectively represents only one migrant family. There are some exceptions with the migration volume figure, tehsils like Jamkhed, Karjat, Rahuri, Parner and Vashi have high volume figures but they have only one

## Shinde

migrant family to Bhimashankar sugar factory. It is because the native villages have high population or distance to factory is less.

**Table 1**  
**Tehsil-wise MI and Actual Migrants at Bhimaskankar Co-Op Factory**

S.No.	Tehsil	Migration Volume (MI)	Actual Migrant Families at Factory
1	Patoda	67205.32	40
2	Pathardi	55139.50	36
3	Ashti	63016.57	29
4	Shevgaon	46671.57	8
5	Chalisgaon	50760.77	8
6	Dhule	47947.39	8
7	ShirurKasar	47880.23	5
8	Pachora	48328.15	3
9	Nandgaon	42573.15	3
10	Jalgaon	33348.66	2
11	Beed	43203.42	1
12	Jamkhed	48036.64	1
13	Parner	62707.66	1
14	Karjat	49685.61	1
15	Rahuri	47876.88	1
16	Ghansawangi	32575.41	1
17	Kannad	24906.04	1
18	Vashi	49989.86	1

Source: Field Work 2021.

## 2. Migration Volume of Sugar Factories in Pune District

The migration volume figures for each district are derived by getting averages of MI for all tehsils having migrants in that district. The high migration volume positively represents high number of migrant families from concerning district. In Bhimashankar factory 56,228.96 figure represents 75 migrant families, like wise 24906.04 figure represents only one family. In Sant Tukaram factory, 39,799.00 represents 77 families while 16,203.75 figure indicates only one family. In Malegaon factory MI 34,440.33 figure represents 114 families and 10,195.69 figure only two families. Venkateshkrupa factory 47,965.61 figure indicates 67 families while 17,883.25 indicates only one family. There are some exceptions to these figures.

**Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons**

**Table 2**  
**District-wise MI and Actual Migrants at Sugar Factories in Pune District**

Sr. No.	Sugar Factory	Districts	Average Migration Volume (MI)	Actual Migrant Families to Factory
1	Bhimashankar Co-op Sugar Factory	Beed	56,228.96	75
		Ahmednagar	51,686.31	48
		Jalgaon	44,145.86	13
		Dhule	42,706.08	8
		Nashik	42,573.15	3
		Jalna	32,575.41	1
		Aurangabad	24,906.04	1
2	Sant Tukaram Co-op Sugar Factory	Osmanabad	49,989.86	1
		Ahmednagar	39,799.00	77
		Beed	35,402.35	68
		Jalgaon	21,353.68	3
		Jalna	16,203.75	1
3	Malegaon Co-op. Sugar Factory	Nashik	20,094.62	1
		Beed	34,440.33	114
		Ahmednagar	27,969.01	13
		Jalgaon	14,524.16	9
		Aurangabad	13,725.22	7
		Nashik	10,195.69	3
4	Venkateshkrupa Sugar Mill Pvt. Ltd.	Osmanabad	24,052.48	2
		Pune	87,804.37	1
		Ahmednagar	47,965.61	67
		Jalgaon	47,410.88	45
		Beed	44,143.11	21
		Nashik	30,245.28	10
Aurangabad	40,455.96	6		
Jalna	17,883.25	1		

Source: Field Work 2021.

**3. Migration Patterns of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District**

Sugarcane cutters in Maharashtra mainly belong to the rain shadow areas of Marathwada, Khandesh and eastern parts of western Maharashtra. The districts like Beed, Osmanabad, Latur, Ahmednagar, Aurangabad, Jalna, Dhule, Jalgaon, etc. are main suppliers of sugarcane cutters to the sugar factories in Maharashtra. The main migration pattern is rural to rural i.e. labours from rural areas migrate to sugar factory sites in rural areas. Jaleel and Chattopadhyay (2019) in their study of seasonal migration in Beed district found that in dry season from December to May, many people have no choice but to migrate as sugarcane cutters for sustaining their family and cattle. Marathwada is rain shadow area with very low rainfall of less than 50 cm. per year. Even this low rainfall is not regular, droughts are very frequent. People from this area have adopted a strategy of seasonal migration during dry season to sugar factory sites in Western Maharashtra for many decades. They come back around April to their native villages and

## Shinde

start agricultural practice. They take a crop during Kharif season (June to October) and migrate to sugar factories from November onwards for around six months.

### 3.1 *Inter-District Migration in Pune District*

Pune district has 18 sugar factories which attracts sugarcane cutters from all over Maharashtra. Inter-district migration is seen the most prominent in Pune district. In this study, 600 families from four sugar factory sites in Pune district are interviewed with questionnaire. The study revealed that almost 99 per cent sugarcane cutter families are from outside the Pune district. They mainly belong to the districts of Beed, Ahmednagar, Jalgaon, Aurangabad, Nashik, Jalna, Osmanabad, etc. It is visible from Table 3 that maximum 278 families i.e. 46.33 per cent of total sample sugarcane cutter families are from Beed district alone. They are mainly concentrated (41 per cent) in Malegaon Sahakari Sakhar Karkhana, Shivnagar (Baramati). It is followed by 205 families (34.16 per cent) from Ahmednagar district. They are concentrated in Sant Tukaram SSK, Kasarsai (Mulshi). Jalgaon district accounts for 70 families with 11.66 per cent of total sample sugarcane cutters in Pune district. Only three families i.e. 0.5 per cent of sample size is from Jalna and Osmanabad district. It is evident that maximum sugarcane cutters are from Beed district which is known as economically and socially backward district of Maharashtra. Sugarcane cutters have tendency to migrate to nearby district, so migrants from Beed and Ahmednagar district are more in Pune district comparing to far lying Dhule, Jalgaon and Osmanabad district.

**Table 3**  
**District-wise Migration of Sugarcane Cutters to Punedistrict**

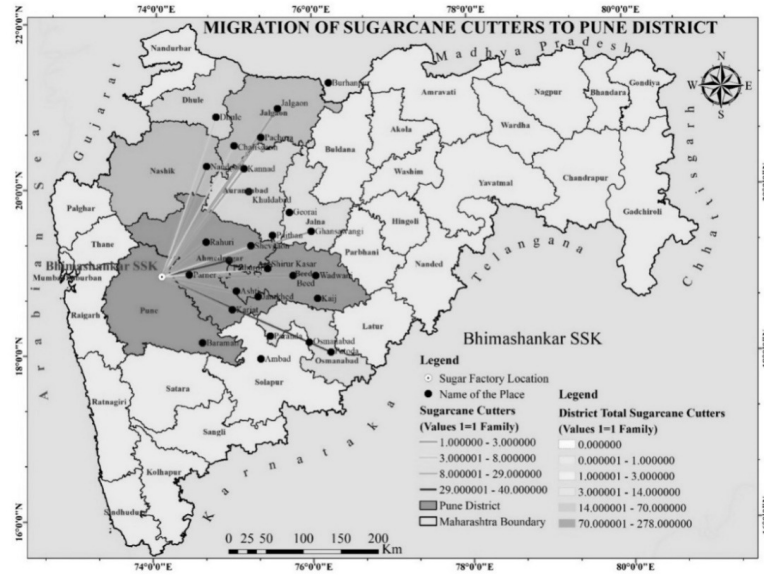
District	Sugar Factory				Total Families	% to Total Families
	1	2	3	4		
Ahmednagar	48	77	13	67	205	34.17
Aurangabad	1	0	7	6	14	2.33
Beed	75	68	114	21	278	46.33
Dhule	8	0	0	0	8	1.33
Jalgaon	13	3	9	45	70	11.67
Jalna	1	1	0	1	3	0.5
Nashik	3	1	3	10	17	2.83
Osmanabad	1	0	2	0	3	0.5
Pune	0	0	1	0	1	0.17
Burhanpur (MP)	0	0	1	0	1	0.17
Total	150	150	150	150	600	100.00

Source: Field work 2021.

Note: 1-Bhimashankar SSK, 2-Sant Tukaram SSK, 3-Malegaon SSK, 4-Venkateshkrupa Pvt.

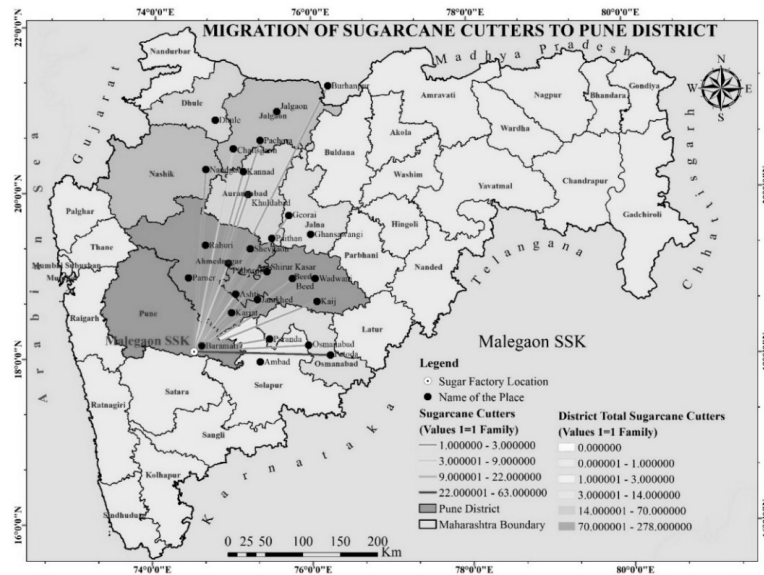
Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons

Map 1  
District Wise Migration of Sugarcane Cutters to Bhimashankar SSK



Source: Field Work 2021.

Map 2  
District Wise Migration of Sugarcane Cutters to Malegaon SSK



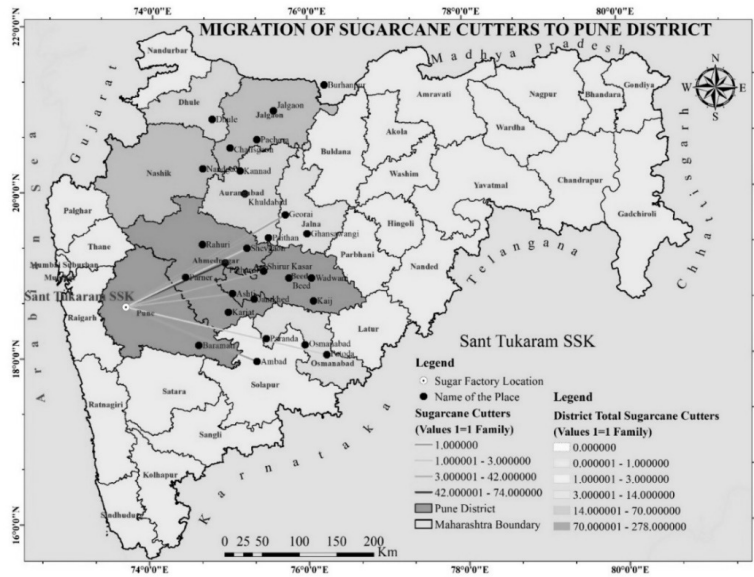
Source: Field Work 2021.



Shinde

Map 3

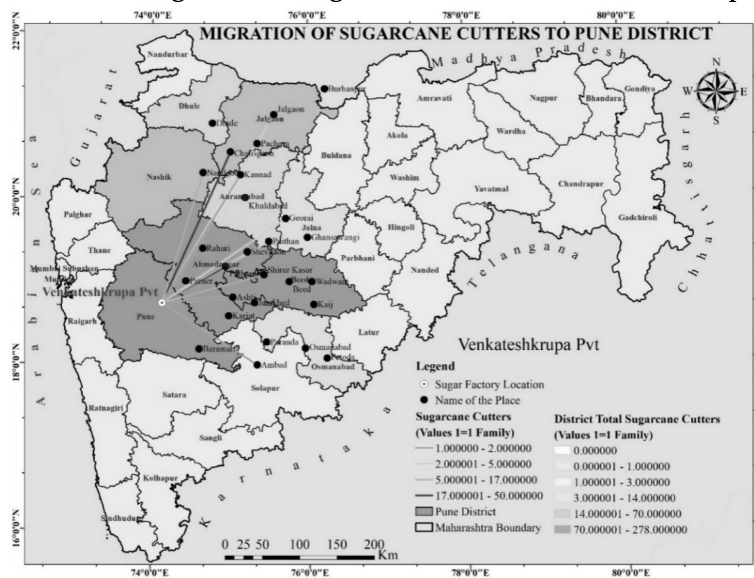
District Wise Migration of Sugarcane Cutters to Sant Tukaram SSK



Source: Field Work 2021.

Map 4

District Wise Migration of Sugarcane Cutters to Venkateshkrupa Pvt



Source: Field Work 2021.

### Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons

#### 3.2 Intra-District Migration in Pune District

Intra-district sugarcane cutting migrant means families within the Pune district migrates seasonally to sugar factories within Pune district. It is observed at Malegaon Sahakari Sakhar Karkhana, Shivnagar. There is one family belonging to same Baramati tehsil of Pune district found at factory site. It accounts only 1 out of 600 sample families (0.16 per cent) in Pune district. It rectifies the well economic condition of Pune district that people do not need to migrate as seasonal sugarcane cutter migrants to sugar factory sites in the district.

**Table 4**  
**Tehsil-wise Migration of Sugarcane Cutters to Sugar Factories**

Tehsil	Sugar Factory					
	1	2	3	4	Total Families	% to Total Families
Ambad	0	1	0	1	2	0.33
Ashti	29	42	7	2	80	13.33
Baramati	0	0	1	0	1	0.16
Beed	1	0	22	0	23	3.83
Chalisingaon	8	0	6	42	56	9.33
Dhule	8	0	0	0	8	1.33
Gevrai	0	1	3	3	7	1.16
Ghansawangi	1	0	0	0	1	0.16
Jalgaon	2	0	0	3	5	0.83
Jamkhed	1	0	2	0	3	0.50
Kannad	1	0	3	1	5	0.83
Kaij	0	0	2	0	2	0.33
Karjat	1	0	1	0	2	0.33
Khultabad	0	0	1	0	1	0.16
Nandgaon	3	0	3	10	16	2.66
Osmanabad	1	0	1	0	2	0.33
Pachora	3	0	3	0	6	1.00
Paranda	0	0	1	0	1	0.16
Parner	1	0	0	0	1	0.16
Paithan	0	0	3	5	8	1.33
Pathardi	36	74	9	50	169	28.16
Patoda	40	3	63	0	106	17.66
Rahuri	1	0	0	0	1	0.16
ShirurKasar	5	22	16	16	59	9.83
Shevgaon	8	3	1	17	29	4.83
Wadavani	0	0	1	0	1	0.16
Burhanpur	0	0	1	0	1	0.16
Total	150	150	150	150	600	100.00

Source: Field work.

Note: 1-Bhimashankar SSK, 2-Sant Tukaram SSK, 3-Malegaon SSK, 4-Venkateshrupa Pvt.

From Table 4, it is clear that there are sugarcane cutters from 27 tehsils of various districts of Maharashtra in Pune district. Pathardi tehsils in

## **Shinde**

Ahmednagar district has maximum 169 families which accounts 28.16 per cent of total sample families. They are mainly settled at Sant Tukaram SSK, Kasarsai. It is followed by Patoda tehsil with 106 families (17.66 per cent) and Ashti tehsil with 80 families (13.33 per cent). Around 9 per cent families are from Chalisgaon and Shirur Kasar tehsils. There is only one family (0.16 per cent) from Baramati, Ghansawangi, Khultabad, Paranda, Parner and Rahuri tehsil. As the Pathardi, Ashti, Patoda and Chalisgaon tehsils are having low rainfall and economically underdeveloped, people from these tehsils migrate as seasonal sugarcane cutters to various sugar factories.

### **4. Reasons of Seasonal Migration**

Seasonal or cyclical migration is the harsh reality of rain shadow areas of Maharashtra consisting dry zones of Marathwada, Khandesh and Western Vidarbha. People are helpless to move away from their native villages in search of employment to sustain their families. Keshri, Kunal and Bhagat, R. B. (2012), in their study of temporary and seasonal migration had discussed the reasons and characteristics of seasonal migration. Many of them migrate to Western Maharashtra sugar belt where many sugar factories are located in Pune, Ahmednagar, Satara, Sangali and Kolhapur districts. The major reasons of migration are discussed below:

#### **4.1 *No Agriculture Land***

There are many families without farmland among sugarcane cutters. As discussed earlier out of 600 sample families taken from Pune district, 131 families i.e., 21.84 per cent are landless. This figure is close to the study of sugarcane cutters by Prashant Bansode (2014), where he found that about 18.9 per cent sugarcane cutters are landless. This condition forces them to migrate in search of employment in the form of sugarcane cutters in Western Maharashtra. This provides them at least six months of guaranteed employment.

#### **4.2 *Less Agriculture Land***

Many farmers have not enough farmland, so they can not totally rely on agriculture. According to Economic survey of Maharashtra state (2019), about 79.52 per cent farmers are small and marginal farmers which held less than 2 hectares (5 acres) of farmland. About 57 per cent of the total sugarcane cutters in Pune district are marginal and small farmers which held less than 5 acres of farmland. These farmers mainly grow staple food grains like jowar, bajara, maze etc. which has not much economic value. Due to lack of

#### **Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons**

irrigation facility they can not grow cash crops, which create economic hardship to them. This situation compels them to move away as seasonal migrant.

#### **4.3 Lack of Irrigation Facilities**

Agriculture is beneficial only when there is enough farmland and irrigation facilities. Unfortunately, areas of sugarcane cutters come under rain shadow area with less rainfall. There is no big and perennial river to supply water throughout year. In this part of Maharashtra, there are no big dams and canals to facilitate irrigation. Especially in Aurangabad division, there are rivers like Purna, Dudhana, Bindusara, Sindhphana, etc. but all are modest rivers and remains dry most of the year. Marathwada division has cultivable area of 50.3 lakh hectares, out of which only 4.4 lakh hectares i.e., 8.7 per cent area was actually irrigated (SANDRP, 2015). It is the lowest irrigation capacity in the state. There are medium irrigation projects like Manjra, Majalgaon, Sina-Kolegaon, Lower Terna, Siddheshwar, etc. most of the years their live storage remains below 30 per cent. Only in Jayakwadi, a big project is in better condition alongwith proper storage capacity. But this project simultaneously lacks a developed canal system.

#### **4.4 Problems of Cattle**

Cattles are supportive mechanism for agriculture. Bullocks are used to plough the farmland on large scale in rural Maharashtra. Cows and buffalos are used to produce milk. This provides a supplementary income to the farmers. But lack of green fodder and scarcity of water, makes it hard to sustain cattle population. Apart from such adversities, recurrent droughts in these areas have made the situation worse for the cattles. Migration to sugar factories assures the supplies of green fodder and water to their animals. These animals are asset to the farmers. During drought period government set up *Chara Chhawani* (shelters for animals), where free fodder and water is supplied to animals.

#### **4.5 Lack of Employment**

The areas of sugarcane cutter are not only underdeveloped in terms of agriculture and irrigation but also carries the tag for economic backwardness. There is less development of infrastructure like roads, electricity, water supply, railways, etc. which hampers the growth and development of industries. In Marathwada region, employment opportunities in industries and service sector are critically less. So, many

## Shinde

people from these areas migrate to other parts of the state in search of jobs. The illiterate and workless farmers move to Western Maharashtra as sugarcane cutters. As discussed earlier, Maharashtra state has a total of 9,86,696 operational units out of which after Amravati division, Aurangabad division has second lowest units with 1,05,626 units. They are mainly concentrated in industrial centers like Aurangabad, Paithan, Nanded, etc. Rural areas are deprived of such industries.

### 4.6 *Loans and Advances*

Sugarcane cutter families are living very hard life. They are not economically stable, due to many reasons like less land, low productivity, droughts, etc. Gnanou, K.M. (2008), in his case of Tamil Nādu studied the effect of loans and advances on seasonal migrants and how they become bondage labours due to that. Many times, they have to face some inevitable situations like illness, marriage, accident, purchase of land, construction or repair of house, education of children, etc. Considering the economic condition of sugarcane cutters, they have to borrow loans from *Sahukars* (money lenders) on high interest rate. So, to settle the loans and its interest, they are thrown into the bondage of sugarcane cutting.

### 4.7 *Vairiable Climate*

There is a famous phrase in India, "Indian agriculture is a gamble with the monsoon". Indian monsoon is famous for its unpredictable nature. It is never on time, generally monsoon enters in Maharashtra on 7<sup>th</sup> June, but this timing is rarely followed. There is always a fluctuation in the distribution and amount of rainfall. The average rainfall in the state is 1140.4 mm. but in the year 2015, it was only 855.7 mm. while in year 2019, it was as high as 1377.3 mm. in the state. The Aurangabad division in the state receives the lowest average rainfall of only 800.3 mm. in the state, while Konkan division receives 3029.9 mm. of rainfall shows the disparity in distribution. The Nasik (Khandesh) and Amravati divisions along with Marathwada receives 804.7 mm. and 853.6 mm. rainfall, from where majority of sugarcane cutters belonged to. If we compare the rainfall of year 2015 with 2019, it is clearly visible that, Aurangabad division gets only 605 mm. rainfall in 2015, while in 2019 it gets 845.4 mm. rainfall. This up and down in rainfall distribution also effects on agriculture productivity. There are frequent droughts in Marathwada region. All this unstable climatic condition in the region push people to enter in the never-ending cycle of seasonal sugarcane cutting.

## Immigration of Sugarcane Cutters in Pune District of Maharashtra: Patterns and Reasons

Table 5  
Division-wise Rainfall in Maharashtra : 2015 and 2019

Division	Normal Rainfall (mm)	Actual Rainfall (mm)	
		2015	2019
Konkan	3029.9	2144.9	4107.7
Nasik	804.7	559.9	962.8
Pune	1122	639.3	1352.7
Aurangabad	800.3	605	845.4
Amravati	853.6	734.3	840.5
Nagpur	1199	1061.7	1263
State Average	1140.4	855.7	1377.3

Source: Agriculture Department, Maharashtra State. 2020

### Conclusion

Seasonal migration is a widespread phenomenon in Maharashtra. It is mainly occurring from rain shadow and economically backward areas to more progressive areas of Maharashtra. It is apparent from the study that out of total sugarcane cutter migrant, 46.33 per cent belongs to Beed district, followed by Ahmednagar with 34.16 per cent. Jalgaon district ranks third with 11.66 per cent of total migrants. Districts like Osmanabad and Jalna have only 0.5 per cent share among the migrants. In this migration pattern we can see that inter-district pattern is dominant in Pune district.

The main reasons of seasonal migrations are landless labours, almost 21.84 per cent migrants are landless, while 57 per cent of sample sugarcane cutters have less than 2 hectares of farmland. In some areas of migrants only 8.7 per cent land is irrigated which yields very less income. Marathwada and Khandesh are industrially and economically very backward regions, where there are very less opportunities of employment. So people are left with no choice but to migrate seasonally for temporary employment in sugar factories.

The solution for this problem is decentralisation of industry to offer employment in those areas. Proper infrastructure like electricity, roads should be built by government, so industries can be attracted in that areas. Some tax concession should be given by government to those industries which are setting plants in such backward areas.

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## Political Participation and Gender Inequality among Women of Telangana, India

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*Women hold a secondary position to men due to socio-cultural norms. Though this statement may have a universal application, in India, the focus of this discussion, there appears to be an overt limitation on the status of women. However, there may be opportunities for change. The authors evaluate the role of women in the establishment of the most recently created state in India, Telangana. Telangana was established in 2014 and women have been instrumental in the formation and development of the state. However, in many ways this contribution not brought any significant change in their socio-economic world. The authors, using both qualitative and quantitative data provide an assessment of the contribution of women and their status in the state analysing the various developmental indicators.*

### Introduction

Women's participation in politics is not a new trend for Indian society. However, in spite of massive historical evidence, the evaluation of

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### **Pathak, Meenakshi and Subudhi**

women's participation or contribution has been to undervaluation and purposeful oversight (Calman, 1989). On the one hand, there is a prevailing stereotype that women are incompetent for social and political life. On the other hand, the historical evidences are in opposition to the social perspectives with uncomfortable examples of women in political leadership. Women's presence, ostensibly be seen almost in all kinds of political activities, such as movements, demonstrations, armed struggle, campaign and participation and representation in elections, and so forth. If we evaluate their contribution to different movements, we can find a long series from the *Chipko* movement, *Anti-arrack* movement, *Anti-price-rise-movement*, *Nationalist* movement, *Tebhaga* movement, *Naxal-movement*, separate statehood movement of Telangana and many more (Kumar, 1993). In all these political activities, women provided examples of their capability and strength. Thus, women significantly contributed to different movements, but undervaluation and underestimation of women are continued in almost all spheres of life even today. In the case of Telangana, the role of women in political and social life has been remarkable. Either it was the struggle against Nizam rule, British rule or against the Indian State itself; in the entire struggles, they contributed with courage (Pathak & Subudhi, 2021). Women participated without considering the stark fact that involvement in the movements will make their lives insecure and vulnerable, as evidenced in numerous political struggles in which several women were killed, raped, molested and imprisoned. But the academic debates and discussion stories are untold or lesser known about the women's contribution and involvement in various movements against the British rule. The important thing which is of importance in this argument is an inseparable. The importance of women in the politics is not all about their equal presence in numbers, but also about the socio-economic environment which has to be brought underdesired change. The paper deals with the issue that even their significant contribution their socio-economic situation does not reflect a satisfactory condition in the state (Pathak & Subudhi, 2021).

#### **Re-visiting Political Participation**

Conventionally, the term political-participation is used in informal sense in non-academic debates; it has been taken for granted, perceived within the existing political order, and there has not been a space for alternative ways of or its larger possibilities politics. So far as political participation is concerned merely voting and the activities related to institutionalised politics, such as campaigning in elections, convincing others

### **Political Participation and Gender Inequality among Women of Telangana, India**

to vote, attending the public meetings, distributing party literature, contributing money, contesting elections and so on, were being counted as political participation. Until the end of the 1960s, other kinds of political activities such as strikes, demonstrations, mass movements, marches were not considered rational and political behaviour at different walks of society and academia. But, in recent decades, to some extent, the legitimacy of unconventional politics can be noticed across the world. In many countries, this unconventional political participation has demonstrated an alternative representation of preferences and responsiveness. For instance, in Italy, unconventional participation shifted from 'citizen-oriented to 'cause-oriented'. This 'unconventional participation' became an alternative tool to institutional politics rejecting the corruption of Italian political order (Khanna, 2009). Verba and Nie have done one of the first conceptualisations of political participation in 1972. They argued that political participation refers to "those activities by private citizens that are more or less directly aimed at influencing the selection of governmental personnel and the activities they take" (Quaranta, 2015). At this moment, this conceptualisation cut out a wide meaning and activities of political activities. Political participation is more than electoral politics; therefore, many authors went beyond this conceptualisation. In 1979, Barnes and Kaase insisted on the importance of it to further studies. First, they systemically studied 'conventional' and 'unconventional' political participation. During defining 'conventional political participation, they included all the electoral activities such as reading and discussion about politics, contacting officials, work for the party and other electoral politics. On the other hand, to contemplate 'unconventional participation', they sum up all such types of activities either electoral or non-electoral behaviours, viz. petitions, demonstrations, boycotts, rent or tax strikes, unofficial industrial strikes, occupations of buildings, blocking of traffic, damage to property, and personal violence. In this way, political participation can be defined as "all voluntary activities intended to influence either directly or indirectly political choices at various levels of the political system" (Quaranta 2015).

#### **Purpose of Participation**

Now the question comes to us what is the ultimate goal of women's political participation? This participation is only for participation solely or it has a larger goal. No doubt, if women have sacrificed themselves, there would have been a great demand for socio-economic change from their side. Following the existing literature, we try to classify the larger purpose of

political participation. Although this is specifically classified in terms of 'political-representation', here we are using it in a larger context as 'political-participation', and hereby two purposes are as follows (Burchi & Singh, 2020):

- a. In terms of input indicators, that is investment choices, use of budgets and management of welfare of programmes, etc.
- b. In terms of developmental indicators as health, education, labour force participation, etc.

Hereby, gender equality is an important developmental indicator; the importance of achieving gender equality within and outside the household has reaffirmed in the recently adopted Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). For the sake of this goal, some provisions are being made in India to the "equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life" (Milazzo & Goldstein 2017). Political participation is an activity by which people can influence policies to improve their various dimensions of life. It is being assumed that women's participation in politics can allow them to involve and influence policies that could affect various aspects of their developmental indicators like health, education, employment, and so on. Politics deals with the power structure which determines the share of resources among people. It's all about justifiable rights.

#### **Contribution in Various Movements**

Modern Indian movements can be classified into two types in terms of gender roles: first, which are purely of women that fought against patriarchal values and policies; and the second, those movements that are predominantly initiated by men leaders, but women equally participated in that and hereby there is no movement run without the contribution of women. In the first category, we can put a few major movements such as Communist-led Food Campaigns in the 1940s, Chipko-movement, the Anti-Alcohol, and Anti-Price-Rise movements of the nineteenth century. Anti-Arrack movement of 1992 in Telangana may also be considered in this category. And those who are pre-dominated run by men but women's participation are in large scale are Nationalist Movement, Tebhaga Movement, and Telangana Movements (Kumar, 1993). It demonstrates that almost in all the movements, the role of women has been crucial, and they manifested their strength in various ways. When we look into the political struggles of Telangana in different periods, we find that women's participation was also in a huge number. In all the movements, their

### **Political Participation and Gender Inequality among Women of Telangana, India**

contribution is unanticipated and immemorial. For instance, to any movement or struggle, there is a need for ideological backup; education is the medium of shaping and spreading the ideology. Women understood the gravity of education and built schools and other kinds of educational and social organisation for girls and women, such as *Mahila-Sangham*, and *Anjuman-e-Qawateen* were founded by Begum Tayeba Bilgrami of which Begum Sugra was the secretary. In Hyderabad, Begum Humayun Mirza opened two schools for the girls in 1919. For the sake of women's issues, several women's organisations were established in the decade of seventies in Telangana region such as *Stree Shakti Sangathan*, Feminist Study Circle, Dowry Death Investigation Committee and so many other (Volga et al 2001). It is to be noted that despite the Anti-Arrack movement, the rest of the movements in Telangana were mainly male-dominated movements, but the role and sacrifice of women were not insignificant inside the activities. Claims of the many feminist intellectuals cannot be overlooked whether the movements stayed for the long period or got success only due to direct or indirect involvement of women; it is clearly apparent in the movements discussed below:

#### ***Indian National Movement***

Women took part actively in the national movement and the role of Durgabai is note worthy as she was involved in the movement from her childhood and known for translating the Gandhi's speeches in meetings. Usage of Khadi was encouraged by Congress Committee of women where many of them were imprisoned for boycott of foreign products and adopting Swadeshi. Sarojini Naidu took part in Dandi March and had set an example for many Indians to get participated in the national movement. Chanting Vande Matram was promoted by women from all religions and particularly Muslim community women took major efforts in this movement chanting Vande Matram. Padmaja Naidu, Brijrani, Nadimpalli Sundarama, Godavari etc. are some of the women to mention who fought intensively in the freedom struggle (Volga et al., 2001).

#### ***Telangana Movement***

This movement struggled against the arbitrary rule of Nizam of Hyderabad and it specifically opposed the Zamindari system that suppressed basic human rights of people. This movement was led by the communist ideologies that severely opposed the contemporary bureaucracy. This struggle addressed the bonded labour system, poor wages in

### **Pathak, Meenakshi and Subudhi**

agriculture and other forms of human exploitation. *Mahila sangam* was started by the women participants that organised meetings at various places and created awareness among the public about the exploitations. In the All Andhra Women's Conference the concept of vocational education to women was raised with the belief that vocational training to women would solve the livelihood problems prevalent among them. During the struggle, many women were raped, molested, killed and imprisoned. Even after the independence, the women fought for their rights particularly the Girijan women played a major role in it. In the 1970's many women associations emerged like Feminist Study circle, Dowry death investigation committee etc., which made meaningful contribution for the well being of women (Lalitha et al., 1989).

#### ***Dalit Movement***

The black day of the village Karamcheddu is being marked as July 17, 1985 as six Dalit men were brutally killed and many women were molested and raped by dominant caste for the problem between Dalit woman and upper caste man over access to the drinking water pond. This incident made the Dalit and the State to realise their positions and that incident became the reason for starting Dalit Mahasabha and other Dalit forums to work for the rights of Dalit community. Dalit women stood strong in opposing the atrocities and formed strong network to address their issues. Suvartha, a dalit woman played a predominant role in opposing the dominants and she refused to bow down and her courage and restless effort brought enormous changes in the pace of Dalit movements. This incident is one of the major reasons for framing and enacting the SC/ST (Prevention of Atrocities) Act in 1989. This was a big shift in the Dalit movement (Pathak & Subudhi, 2021).

#### ***Anti-Arrack Movement***

In Independent India, this movement had vast importance in the decades of the nineties. Thousands of women joined it. Initially, it was started from a remote village of Nellore, but soon after it spread across the state. It was a quite women's movement and presented the strength of rural women against the use of alcohol. For the first time, this movement brought domestic violence and alcoholism at public forums in an organised way. Anti-Arrack movement publicised the need of women education and how the women literacy could bring positive changes in the society. This movement was backed by the National Literacy Mission and the women got

### **Political Participation and Gender Inequality among Women of Telangana, India**

awareness about the ill effects of alcoholism and the way to prohibit. This movement made the Government to prohibit liquor and the strong fight of the women led to the fall of the ruling party in the state. This movement made the state to address the relation between alcohol and domestic violence and insisted to take steps to prevent it (Lalitha et al., 1989; Volga et al., 2001).

### **Contemporary Representation**

Interestingly, despite their unforgettable role and contributions, we find a pitiable condition of women when we look through some developmental indicators like education, health, security, labour force participation etc. They had broken the stereotypes in the political field. However, their socio-economic condition could not be changed.

In India, the condition of the women representation in political bodies is also insignificant. Despite having about 50 per cent of the women population in India, the representation in the political field is very disappointing, and it is limited to 15 per cent in the parliament. The report also reveals that in India 64 women MPs (11.8 percent of 542 MPs) in Lok Sabha (Lower House of Indian Parliament) and 27 (11 percent of 245 MPs) women MPs in Rajya Sabha (Upper House of Indian Parliament). Only 9 per cent of women MLAs are representing out of 4,118 MLAs across the Country as of October 2016 (The Economic Times 2018). Women reservation bill is still pending which may give life for women representation in politics. If the bill gets pass, 33 per cent seats will be reserved for women in both of the houses.

Telangana was the 29th state of India that emerged in 2014 faces a lot of opportunities and challenges relating to the political participation of women. The new Government took initiatives to bring socio-economic equality through education and welfare programmes but the reality shows that the state has a long way to go to attain its objectives. Political participation leads to the empowerment of women in all aspects of social, economic and cultural fields. If we talk about the Telangana, only 5 per cent women representatives are there in Telangana assembly. In 2014, only nine MLAs were elected whereas in 2018 the number dropped to six (The News Minute, 2018). Only two MLAs are representing the Members of Legislative Council. In the Lok Sabha election, the state was limited to only one MP in both 16th and 17th Lok Sabha elections. It is only 6 per cent women representation of MPs in the state out of total 17. In PRIs, the women representation is acquiring a substantial share i.e. about 45 per cent of total seats in PRIs that is 103468 and women representation is 46702 (Government

### **Pathak, Meenakshi and Subudhi**

of India Report, 2018). The Panchayat election conducted in January 2019 shows the female elected Sarpanches (Village panchayat representative) outnumbered the male contestants. In Sangareddy area, 132 women were elected as Sarpanches out of the total 258 villages that went to polls. In Kandi, women have won more than the reservation provided by the Government. In Medak, 83 women were elected, which shows the gradual increase of women's political participation in Telangana. In Karimnagar district total Elected Councillor members are 234 out of total 1531, the number of women Councillors are 123 out of 727. And the total number of Chairpersons is nine and in which four are women (The Hindu, 2019). Similarly, the number of elected women member corporators is 27 out of the total 50, which are more than 50 per cent. Although the representation is following the reservation of women, however, the condition of women is not satisfactory in the state, which is to be looked in the next segment (Rajaram, 2015). The political scenario shows the gradual increase in women participation in politics in spite of the complaint that the male member of the elected Sarpanches family has a major influence on the work.

#### **Space in the State**

To consider the women's condition in the state, few indicators have been discussed, such as education, health, labour force participating and crime against women.

#### ***Education***

Telangana's educational status shows a majority gender gap and disparity. In 2014, 10 per cent boys and 18 per cent girls have never enrolled in the schools and in the domain of higher education, the girls educational status is quite pathetic when compared to boys. The rural urban contrast of 2014 reveals 12.5 per cent male and 25.9 per cent female were never enrolled; and this percentage in urban areas are 6.7 per cent male and 6.4 per cent female which has a gap of subsequently 13.4 per cent and -0.3 per cent. In terms of social groups, the educational status among Scheduled Tribe (ST), Scheduled Caste (SC), Other Backward Classes (OBC) and Others were in male 12 per cent, 25.9 per cent, 8 per cent and 0.9 per cent; and among females subsequently 55.3 per cent, 21.4 per cent, 15.7 per cent and 4.9 per cent, and gap is 33.1 per cent, -4.5 per cent, 7.7 per cent and 4 per cent respectively. The urban female's presence is larger than rural female, and the condition of STs, SCs and OBCs is comparatively deplorable as compared to other caste female (TSDR, 2018).

## **Political Participation and Gender Inequality among Women of Telangana, India**

### ***Health***

Gender health disparity is quietly affected by gender values, relations and roles in the society; it is unjust and directly embedded to unequal distribution of economic, social and environmental resources. We find a high degree of gender disparity in terms of health and nutrition in the state: sex ratio, Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) and severity of diseases present gender-based disadvantages. In terms of health care expenses, it is least among women. Data reveal that elderly women are the most disadvantaged when they suffer from health problem, and for that, they have to depend on other members of the family. Sex ratio, which is an important indicator show, in urban areas 976 females are in 1000 males. The rural areas show a better condition, i.e., 1035. The sex ratio at birth for children in the last five years was 884 and 865 subsequently in urban and rural areas, which is alarming and shows the cultural and social value for the girl. Similarly, IMR in urban and rural areas in the gender line shows that the condition of the urban area is worse than rural areas for all the years of 2014, 2015 and 2016 in Telangana (TSDR, 2018).

### ***Crime against Women***

There are many ways by which crime against women is conducted such as rape, kidnapping, dowry death, torture, molestation, eve-teasing, and so many. We have many laws to control such violence. The Nirbhaya Case that occurred in 2012 led to significant transformation in the laws against sexual offences interpreted in Criminal Act 1986, but the hard truth is laws alone could not break the path of violence as can be seen from 2013 to 2016, there is a gradual increase in crime against women specifically in rape. In the year of 2013, rape, kidnapping, dowry death, torture, molestation and eve-teasing took place with the percentage of subsequently 6.3 per cent, 7.6 per cent, 2.1 per cent, 50.7 per cent, 19.0 per cent and 14.4 per cent; in the year of 2014 it was subsequently 7.5 per cent, 8.8 per cent, 2.2 per cent, 48.5 per cent, 24.3 per cent, and 8.7 per cent; in the year of 2015 it was 7.5 per cent, 7.1 per cent, 1.8 per cent, 50.1 per cent, 24.7 per cent and 8.8 per cent; and for the year of 2016 it was 8.6 per cent, 8.8 per cent, 1.7 per cent, 48.6 per cent, 25.4 per cent and 6.8 per cent in the state (TSDR, 2018).

### ***Labour Force***

According to the International Labour Organisation (2017), gender gaps in the labour force presents not only the bad condition of women and their household but also of global economy as a whole also. In Telangana,



particularly urban regions reveal a very low proportion of female labour force participation. In rural-urban contrast, we find in 2011-2012 rural male's percentage was 57.8 per cent, while female's 47.3 per cent, i.e. an overall gap is 10.6 per cent. In urban areas, this gap is very high. Urban male's percentage is 56.8 per cent, and urban female's percentage is 15.9 per cent. The gap is around 41 per cent, which is very high comparing to the rural ratio. In terms of social group, the gender gap among SCs and STs, BCs and others are subsequently 4.9 per cent, 15.4 per cent, 8.2 per cent and 20.8 per cent in rural regions for the year of 2011-12; in urban areas this is subsequently 38.7 per cent, 35.2 per cent, 39.5 per cent and 45.5 per cent. The unemployment rate across social groups in Telangana depicts that for the year of 2011-12, the rural male's percentage is amongst STs, SCs, OBCs and others are subsequently 0.3 per cent, 5.3 per cent, 2.9 per cent and 3.7 per cent, while female's percentage are 0.6 per cent, 0.5 per cent, 0.9 per cent and 0.1 per cent; in urban areas this is subsequently 1.4 per cent, 1.8 per cent, 4.4 per cent and 8.1 per cent among male and 4.5 per cent, 2.5 per cent, 5.8 per cent and 12.3 per cent among females in the state (TSDR, 2018).

Political participation by women is not an easily accepted task in Indian society. The Women Reservation Bill 2008 is still not reached to Lok Sabha for voting though it has passed in Rajya Sabha. Irrespective of the party that forms Government, the significance of the Women Reservation Bill has not been understood in a proper way (Handa, 2019). Telangana has a different scenario. It has 119 assembly seats. Though all the parties claim of supporting the 33 per cent reservation for women, the Congress party has given only 11 tickets, Telangana Rashtra-Samithi has given only four seats to women in Telangana State Assembly elections 2014 (The Indian Express, 2019). Equality between men and women is still a dream in India due to deep imbibed social perception and stereotypes; society of men decides every aspects of women's life. Women get little or no role in decision making processes, and they are expected to be mere spectators on all occasions. Though education has created a space to voice out women's opinions and ideas, the degree is very less due to deep rooted misconception that merely men are made for politics and that is one of the prominent reasons for poor representation of women political participation in spite of reservations. Poor education level and the domination of male members especially husband involving in decision making is also a major hindrance for women's political participation. National perspective plan for women 1988-2000 has made strong recommendations to all political parties to ensure 30 per cent of women representation in elections (Government of India, 1988), but the

### **Political Participation and Gender Inequality among Women of Telangana, India**

scenario can be changed change only if women start to work and take decisions independently both in house and society.

#### **Conclusion**

Undoubtedly, women have contributed in past, and still they are leading the society and polity having different roles, but the problem is that the decisions what they are taking are *de-facto* decisions, the dominances of men regulate women directly and sometimes under the symbols of patriarchy. Although, political representation alone is not the final solution in order to solve the inequalities, however the provision of reservation has improved the condition of women to some extent, so there is no excuse of creating a problem in the ways of reservation for women in the parliament.

In the system of democracy, there is a severe dearth of the practice of democracy, we need a practical system of democracy. We do not have many scarce of theoretical provisions at policy levels, but unfortunately, the democratic agencies and institutions are also being run with social prejudices and stereotypes towards women's issues. It is difficult to take the society away from patriarchal perceptions overnight, but few more constitutional provisions might help eradicate inequalities; hereby reservation at all the layers of the political system is the best one. In addition, in the hours of the great pandemic, when the model of development is being criticised by many environmentalist, eco-feminists, and developmental economists as it has set the world on man-made disasters, it must be reviewed by the women's lenses. Merely, the mother can produce life.

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## **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position: The Case of Governor Narasimhan's Regime, 2009-2019**

**S. Swaroop Sirapangi\***

*The article focuses on - how united Andhra Pradesh and the Telugu states Governor Narasimhan's decade long role can be analysed from a political dimension? Then concludes by pointing that all the involved constitutional and political actors, though critics one and other; in reality, they cooperate (informally) for 'political benefits'. Thus, the 'constitutional and political nexus' continues unabatedly without strengthening the demarcation between 'separation of powers'. Overall, the significance of the article could be observed in the light of post-Sarkaria Commission dynamics. Methodologically, the article followed 'political discourse analyses' and highlights on how constitutionally designed procedural democracy is in danger.*

### **Introduction**

The Indian National Congress (INC) led United Progressive Alliance (UPA) regime appointed ESL Narasimhan (Narasimhan) as Governor of Andhra Pradesh (AP) during one of the most turbulent phases of the then erstwhile 'united AP' in December 2009.<sup>1</sup> As per the Indian constitutional

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### **Sirapangi**

mandated provisions, Governors are appointed by the President of India. Moreover, upon assumption of office, Governor acts as the Union of India representative to the respective state. The President of India appoints Governors on behalf of the Union Government (Constitution of India, 2018). Though technically, Governors are appointed by the President of India, in reality, Governors are selected based on the 'forwarded recommendations' of the Union Government. The 'forwarded recommendations' of the Union Council of Ministers headed by the Prime Minister (PM) are mostly obligatory based on constitutional and legal norms (Noorani, 2002).

#### **Governor's Position: Turbulent Democratic Background**

The Governor's powers were much misused during PM Indira Gandhi's regime. With the breakdown of the single dominant player status of the INC in states and mushroom of regional parties, the INC started to target non-INC governments through the Governor's position and used to dismantle them. In due course of time, the regional parties raised their voice against the objectionable role of Governors in creating troubles for the regional parties headed governments in states. Furthermore, they effectively politicised the issue for quite some time. As a result, 'Sarkaria Commission' was appointed to consider renewed analysis, observations, and recommendations on the need for the better conduct of proper 'Union-state' relations (Sarkaria, 1988). Later on, in a famous verdict, i.e., *Bommai versus Union of India*, detailed guidelines were laid down by the Supreme Court of India to limit misuse of Governor's power and undue imposition of the President's rule (Pankaj, 2017).

After the breakdown of INC position as a single dominant player, the Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP) emerged as a second dominant parallel national player. Both the INC and BJP are mostly heading federal politics through two alliances and coalitions. For instance, the INC inclined block is named as the United Progressive Alliance (UPA); on the other hand, BJP leads the National Democratic Alliance (NDA) (Chakrabarty, 2014). The INC and BJP led alliance and coalition politics indicate that either of these national parties is not in a full-fledged position to dominate federal and state politics confidently. These two national parties must engage with other regional players (Ruparelia, 2016). However, even after engaging with regional parties, these two national parties are interested in dominating and creating troubles for the regional parties headed governments through the Governor's position if required to promote their political interests.

### **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position...**

Even after Indira Gandhi's wide misuse of Governors' position, after careful implementation of the Sarkaria Commission recommendations to some extent, after the breakdown of the single dominant player status of the INC, after the much-acclaimed implementation of Bommai versus Union of India verdict; there remains another set of difficulties in the 'Union-state relations' through Governor's position (Singh, 2016). Recently, the BJP headed NDA created trouble for non-BJP governments in Assam, Delhi, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Nagaland, Pondicherry, Uttarakhand, West Bengal, etc. In all these states, the BJP attempted to create troubles for regional parties headed governments through the Governor's position. In a few states, the INC was in alliance or coalition. The BJP attempted to capture political power by creating turbulence in these states. In a few states, the BJP was successful in capturing political power. The role of the Governor also became crucial in some of these states when troubles were created. This indicates that a new level of creating troubles for the non-BJP regional parties is continuing in renewed fashion.

#### **Governor from Non-Political Background**

Narasimhan professionally belonged to the Indian Police Service. Later on, he headed a few significant tasks like Director of Intelligence Bureau. The UPA led INC had chosen Narasimhan as AP Governor at a turbulent political phase. The INC headed UPA Government gave additional charge as Governor to Narasimhan - apart from already discharged Chhattisgarh Governor's role, in December 2009. Later on, Narasimhan was appointed as the full-fledged AP Governor in January 2010. One of the prime visualised reasons for considering Narasimhan as Chhattisgarh Governor was due to prevalent turbulent dealing with 'political left's ideological extremism', i.e., Maoism. Narasimhan's Governor phase, after appointment in AP, was marked with stark criticisms at different points of time. (While) His appointment in Chhattisgarh was seen to engage in background mode with the 'left's extremist political ideology effectively'. On the other side, his transferred appointment in AP in the same capacity was seen to deal with the then widely prevailing 'Mass Telangana Movement', if required either directly or in background mode. Thus, as per this recognised perception, the Union Government attempted to utilise a retired bureaucrat in dealing with extreme political turbulences like those prevalent in the Chhattisgarh and AP. As per critics' observations, the most turbulent position in December 2009 and possible further deterioration made the INC led UPA Government to re-consider Narasimhan's candidature transferred from Chhattisgarh.<sup>2</sup>

## **Sirapangi**

### **Governor's Involvement in 'Political Activities'**

The over reliance of INC on the Governor's position to tackle its INC governed AP was unusual. Previously, during PM Indira Gandhi's regime, the INC misused the Governor's position by dismissing non-INC governments (Gopal, 1989; Chatterjee, 1972). However, during the INC headed UPA regime, the AP Governor's position was utilised to tackle its own governed state (AP was under the INC regime during 2004-2014). All this indicates that the INC at a certain level degraded politically in maintaining a solid political structure from national to the regional level and beyond, i.e., up to village level. Due to a lack of trust in its political caliber from New Delhi to the local level, the INC started to depend on the Governor's position. However, during this phase, it chose a non-political person as Governor, i.e., from December 2009 to 2014. By being a well-established party, the INC should have established proper authoritative sources to tackle any unwanted incidents in AP confidently.

Indeed, Governor's position was a source of power to deal with the Telangana movement during the imposition of 'Presidents' Rule' under emergency provisions of the Constitution. Telangana movement was a political movement. Nevertheless, the Governor's position is a constitutional one. Under the UPA regime, the INC degraded the Governor's position from constitutional to political level in AP, like during other regimes. All this 'political degradation' occurred due to a lack of faith in its AP INC Government and lack of confidence to tackle the AP situation. As a result, even during the 'non-emergency period', the INC resorted to utilise Governor's position in a backdoor manner for political benefits. All this indicates that Governor Narasimhan was appointed for political benefits under the shadow of a 'constitutional head'.

### **Back Door Political Cooperation**

As per various informal views circulation, Narasimhan had played a crucial role in referring to the INC New Delhi regime - the best suitable person to head AP as Chief Minister (CM) in 2011. At this point, the AP INC Government plunged into a crisis after the tragic death of its CM, YS Rajashekar Reddy (YSR), in September 2009. After the death of YSR, the INC national leadership had a tough time appointing a new CM - through INC AP Legislative body's formal consent. As a temporary gesture, senior cabinet colleague of YSR - Rosaiah was elevated as the CM through the then AP Governor, ND Tiwari. Though the INC national leadership ensured

### **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position...**

Rosaiah got elevated as AP CM, such a measure was seen as a temporary solution. Even then, Rosaiah was continued as AP CM for about 14 months.

Furthermore, the INC was desperate to choose another suitable person as AP CM for an entire tenure upto 2014. During this time, YSR's son - YS Jagan Mohan Reddy (Jagan), emerged as a potential aspiring contender for CM's position. However, under Sonia Gandhi's leadership, the INC rejected demand favouring Jagan. Later on, the INC faced another intensified problem with the Telangana Rashtra Samithi (TRS) Chief - Kalvakuntala Chandrashekar Rao's (KCR) fast-on-to-death agitation demanding the immediate formation of a separate Telangana State (TS).

These two incidents (Jagan's aspiration and backed support for AP CM's position and KCR's fast-on-to death for TS formation) considerably shook the INC national leadership. These two incidents also pushed the INC-led AP Government into profound instability. As a result, the INC national leadership delayed choosing a suitable candidate as AP CM. In fact, due to the involved most turbulent political position, it became difficult to choose an acceptable non-controversial person as the CM. Because all the AP Members of Parliament (MPs), Members of Legislative Assembly (MLAs), Members of Legislative Council (MLCs), etc., were divided into regional lines of 'Andhra, Rayalaseema and Telangana'. As a result, it became difficult for the INC national leadership to choose a non-controversial and acceptable person as the CM, who can be regarded as a balanced person, and equally take forward the sentiments of all three regions. At this point, the then AP Legislative Assembly (LA) Speaker - Kiran Kumar Reddy (KKR), developed an aspiration to become AP CM.<sup>3</sup> Surprisingly, the INC national leadership had promoted KKR as the AP CM.

During this whole process, it was informally reported that Narasimhan had played a crucial role in suggesting KKR's suitable candidature to the INC national leadership for CM's position.<sup>4</sup> It should also be noted that the INC national leadership might have certainly considered other politicians candidature for elevation as AP CM. Ultimately, after due contemplation, the INC national leadership had opted to elevate AP LA Speaker - KKR as AP CM. However, there were stark differences between CM KKR and Governor Narasimhan as per visible reports. Nevertheless, such differences were considered as low in intensity, as no significant outbreak occurred. Suppose Narasimhan's possible informal backdoor role should be considered for political analysis, suggesting to the INC national leadership - KKR's potential candidature for the CM position - in that case, Indian politics should be understood differently. Governors in India get



### **Sirapangi**

appointed as representatives of the Union Government in states, and they are required to perform specific constitutionally defined roles. Nevertheless, when observed instances like the present reported and suspected part of Narasimhan in suggesting to the INC national leadership KKR's suitability as AP CM, then Narasimhan dislodged from strict constitutional duties and plunged into a political leader's role.<sup>5</sup> In India, the thick and thin lines of separation of powers 'among those in the government, political parties, and constitutional position holders' have become a source of nexus (Devesh Kapur, 2018).

#### **Dislodged from Regular Constitutional Duties!**

In the initial days, it sounded that Narasimhan was appointed as Governor based on his long-standing exposure in police administration and intelligence bureau. Moreover, it was expected that his role as Governor would be beneficial to tackle the then prevailing extreme law and order problem due to the sporadic rise of the Telangana movement, which rose to prominence since the end of November 2009. In reality, as per constitutional spirit, Governors are not appointed to discharge such executive functions. However, in this case, Narasimhan's task in AP resembled an ordinary politician appointed as Governor for some sections suspicion. Different sections, including opposition parties like the TDP and TRS, critiqued Narasimhan's role (which he allegedly carried) contrary to his constitutionally assigned duties (Apparasu, 2018).

Usually, Governors in India forward confidential reports to the Union Government about the state governments' performance and prevailing law and order position. Contrary to such a confidential role, Narasimhan started to take sides with active politicians. For instance, his active association with the INC politicians until AP bifurcation in 2014 was silently reported and justified as taking part in consultation negotiations over AP bifurcation bill preparation, to be tabled before and passed by the Parliament of India (Politics and Nation, 2013). In reality, he was not appointed to perform such 'clerical tasks'. The works like the AP bifurcation bill can be prepared by suitable designated professionals, like those from the Ministry of Home Affairs. All this indicates that Narasimhan had started to favour and take sides politically, which was against the nature of his appointed position (Hyderabad, 2012). In 2012, after completing Narasimhan's five-year tenure, the INC led UPA extended his tenure for another five years.

### **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position...**

#### **Bifurcation of AP**

After the turbulent phase of intense Telangana movement in the Telangana region and anti-Telangana movement from other parts of AP, the united AP was finally bifurcated by an act of Parliament by the INC led UPA regime in February 2014. As a result of the AP bifurcation act coordinated by the INC led UPA Government, the INC Government led by KKR at the AP level resigned. Then due to CM's resignation, Narasimhan recommended imposition of the President's rule. Under the President's rule, the AP simultaneously proceeded for the 2014 general elections for its LA and Lok Sabha (LS) constituencies. After the election, the AP was formally bifurcated, and two states were formed, TS and 'residual AP'. The proper formal bifurcation of AP and formation of TS came into existence on 02 June 2014. After the 2014 general elections, the TDP captured power in the residual AP, and TRS formed the Government in the new TS. Interestingly, both the TDP and TRS Governments from 2014 onwards started to maintain good relations with Narasimhan.

#### **The BJP led NDA Regime From 2014**

As per the provisions of the AP Reorganisation Act of 2014, the Union Government continued Narasimhan as Governor to both the Telugu states (residual AP and TS). It was also reported now and then in the news that the NDA led BJP Government after the 2014 general election to the LS also preferred to continue Narasimhan as Telugu states Governor. Narasimhan continued to meet politicians, like the Union Home Minister and PM - other than the appointing authority, i.e., President of India (Andhra Pradesh, 2015) (K. Nageshwar, 2018b). Furthermore, he briefed them periodically about his esteemed unique successful role as Governor to the Telugu states. Narasimhan started to build rapport with the new regime change at the New Delhi level under the BJP led NDA in this mode. As a result of such rapport with the new regime, Narasimhan's position as Governor continued, even after his second successive term completion in 2017. He was made to continue as (temporary) Governor upto September 2019. Thus, Narasimhan could play and maintain cordial relations with the UPA and NDA regimes and continue as one of the most successful long-term served Governors.

Narasimhan assumed charge as Governor of the Chhattisgarh in January 2007. He was Governor of the united AP from 28 December 2009 to 01 June 2014. Later on, Narasimhan was joint Governor to TS and residual AP from 02 June 2014 to 23 July 2019. As a final resort, he was the exclusive

### Sirapangi

TS Governor from 24 July 2019 to 07 September 2019. Narasimhan administered the oath of office to the CMs - Raman Singh (Chhattisgarh), KKR (united AP), KCR (TS), Nara Chandrababu Naidu (Naidu) (residual AP), and Jagan (residual AP). Thus, from the years 2007-2019, he had sworn in five CMs in three states, in addition to the Council of Ministers and other dignitaries. In fact, KCR was sworn in as TS CM for two consecutive terms in 2014 and 2018 (TNM Staff, 2019) (Pavan, 2019). Overall, he continued in the gubernatorial Governor's position for about 12 years - 7 months - 12 days.

Even after the INC led UPA Government lost power in the 2014 elections, and BJP led NDA assumed Union Government charge - Narasimhan continued to maintain relations with the political class, like with the new Union Home Minister, PM, etc. He completed his second successive five-year tenure as Governor in 2017 and continued as Governor without direct extension of tenure upto 07 September 2019 (Telangana, 2017). By all means, Narasimhan continued as one of the senior-most Governors in India even after a political regime change at the Union Government level from the INC led UPA to the BJP led NDA. This is one of the rarest of the rare occasions in Governor position's continuation favouring a single person in the Indian democratic history and discourse. Very few Governors have had got an extension beyond two successive terms. Though Narasimhan occupied Governor's position from a non-political background, he continued in Governor's office even after completing two consecutive terms.

Usually, any political party which captures the political power at the Union Government level recalls the Governors appointed in various states during the tenure of the previous party's/coalition governance regime. Though the NDA under BJP adopted the informal policy of recalling a few Governors' appointed during the last INC led UPA regime, Narasimhan was not recalled. Immediately upon the NDA regime under BJP leadership assumed Union Government's charge; as per various critics' arguments and observations, different persons started to establish and prove their so far unnoticed and hidden pro-Hinduness and Hindutva dimensions and started to grab potential opportunities in several folds. This dimension should be seen from the changed perspective of the BJP and Rashtriya Swayamsevak Sangh (RSS) leadership styles from past times when BJP was projected as a 'party with a difference'. During the regime of PM Narendra Modi and Amit Shah as BJP national president, previous ideological distinctive position - BJP as a party with a difference - was kept aside, and this duo leadership started to engage even with the non-RSS and non-BJP sections for political gains. Thus, Narasimhan's continuation as Governor of Telugu states, even after

### **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position...**

the bifurcation of the united AP into residual AP and TS, was seen from this changed perspective of the BJP-RSS leadership dynamics. This indicates how astute Narasimhan could be in ensuring his successful continuation even after political regime change. Narasimhan maintained good relations with both the INC and BJP regimes from 2007 to 2014, i.e., the 'centrist and rightist' political sections<sup>6</sup> (Journalist Diary, 2018) (Mahaa News, 2019).

#### **Renewed Ties: TDP and TRS Relations with Narasimhan**

During 2009-2014, both the TDP and TRS critiqued Narasimhan vehemently as two different opposition parties on a few occasions. The TDP and TRS mostly critiqued Narasimhan's actions from the Telangana movement perspective and non-adherence to constitutional and legal modalities. For instance, one of the prominent TRS leaders - Harish Rao, accused Narasimhan of favouring the coastal Andhra and Rayalaseema political interests.

Surprisingly after the 2014 elections and subsequent formation of two governments in respective Telugu states, the TDP and TRS started to embrace Governor Narasimhan with sweet-heart; especially the TRS was much forefront. This indicates that the previous opposition parties, TDP and TRS, which critiqued Narasimhan's actions during 2009-2014, after assuming charge as ruling parties from 2014 onwards, changed their stances and extended cordial relations with the same Governor. The previously made political, legal, procedural and technical critiques against Narasimhan were relegated to backdoor by these two parties. On another dimension, previously AP ruled INC from 2004-2014, under whose Union Governed INC led UPA tenure Narasimhan was appointed, expressed bitter dissatisfaction against Narasimhan's (alleged) colluded nexus with the TDP and TRS Governments and CMs (Current Affairs, 2015).

This modified cordial step of the TDP and TRS after the 2014 elections with Narasimhan should also be understood from the point of Union Government perspective - as Governor usually represents Union Government at the state level. Moreover, the Governor's change is not easy when a non-TDP and non-TRS coalition Government functions at the national capital. Interestingly, after the 2014 elections, TRS led the TS Government under KCR. Same-time, the residual AP Government was led by the TDP's Naidu. Both KCR and Naidu started to maintain cordial relations with Narasimhan! This was a calculated 'political reconciliation' on the part of all the involved parties, i.e., the Governor and both the Telugu states CMs!

## Sirapangi

### Dilution of Anti-Defection Act by Narasimhan

The newborn (undisclosed, yet understood and suspected) nexus between Narasimhan and Telugu states CMs was revealed in two incidents but in a related issue. As per opposition parties' critique, including that of the TDP in TS, Narasimhan and KCR had entered into a malicious hands-in-glove agreement contrary to the constitutional spirit.<sup>7</sup> According to this criticism by the opposition parties, a TDP MLA in the TS was made to tender formal resignation (yet symbolic) to the TS LA Speaker. Even before accepting that resignation, Narasimhan, based on the recommendation of CM KCR, had inducted that MLA into the Council of Ministry (Krishnamoorthy, 2014) (NTV Telugu, 2014).

TDP critiqued this nature and action of KCR and Narasimhan on a large scale for quite some time. The TS LA Speaker failed to accept or reject TDP MLA's resignation and pave the way for a by-election. As a result, the newly inducted Minister continued to hold both MLA and Ministerial positions unabatedly. This whole incident exposed the colluded nexus between CM KCR, with other constitutional positions held by Narasimhan and TS LA Speaker, on the other side. The TS LA Speaker won the election as MLA on behalf of the TRS. Though the TDP critiqued Narasimhan's action for inducting a TDP MLA into KCR led Council of Ministry, even the TDP in residual AP resorted to the same measure. The TDP in residual AP lured 23 MLAs of (opposition) *Yuvajana Shramika Rythu* Congress Party (YSRCP) into its fold (News 18, 2017). Thus the TDP Government in residual AP under Naidu's CM regime had replicated KCR's style in inducting opposition party MLAs into the Council of Ministry.

The AP CM, Naidu, made YSRCP MLAs submit symbolic resignation letters to the residual AP LA Speaker. And even before the Speaker accepted those resignation letters, four YSRCP MLAs were inducted into Naidu's Council of Ministry through Narasimhan. This established the suspected and alleged colluded nexus between Naidu and Narasimhan. Previously, Narasimhan was critiqued for this same action in the TS by the TDP for inducting a TDP MLA into the KCR's Council of Ministry. However, the TDP in residual AP resorted to the same measure! Residual AP LA Speaker won as MLA on behalf of the TDP.

These two incidents of inducting opposition party MLA's into the Council of Ministry fold in TS and residual AP by the TRS and TDP led CMs amounts to violate anti-defection act in force and spirit (Reddy, 2015). Even Narasimhan violated this act's spirit. In both Telugu states, Narasimhan

### **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position...**

should have ensured to induct opposition party MLAs into the Council of Ministry, if respective LA Speakers formally approved their resignations or the MLAs represented the ruling section in any form like on either floor of the LA (i.e., LA or Legislative Council)! This is a blatant violation of constitutional and legal provisions and the spirit of parliamentary procedure. This whole episode and the (alleged) illegal process were challenged before law courts.

Technically, Narasimhan seemed to have justified his action as sub-judice since the (accused illegal and un-parliamentary convention) process was challenged in law courts. However, Narasimhan should have sort judicial advice before resorting to such a step. The former Presidents of India - Shankar Dayal Sharma and KR Narayan, used to indicate that some of their steps were consciously taken and used to inform the public through a press release on behalf of the *Rastrapathi Bhavan*, the official residence and Secretariat of the President of India. However, in reality, Narasimhan failed to emulate such a step. Even the judiciary could not rectify these alleged and challenged blatant constitutional and legal violations in time. Cases filed against these alleged gross constitutional and legal violations were pending at various law courts. Criticism rose to the peaks that the 'political and judicial' nexus also continues, in addition to rooted 'political and constitutional' positions nexus. In the present case, even Narasimhan resorted to the repeated extreme measures (by first inducting a TDP MLA into the KCR led Council of Ministry, and then four YSRCP MLAs induction into the Naidu's led Council of Ministry) (PTI, 2017).

When Narasimhan inducted a TDP MLA into the TRS led Council of Ministry under KCR's CM-ship, the TDP critiqued his action bitterly. However, in due time, the TDP Government in residual AP resorted to the same extreme measure through Narasimhan and inducted four opposition YSRCP MLAs into the Council of Ministry under Naidu's CM-ship. Thus, all this exposed that Narasimhan entered into an undisclosed political nexus with both the TDP and TRS ruling sections in residual AP and TS, respectively. This alleged and exposed political nexus of Narasimhan with two regional ruling parties headed Governments was in addition to his previously maintained political nexus with the INC led UPA and later with the BJP led NDA. According to political regime change, Narasimhan's political nexus and actions also underwent modifications, paving the way for the benefit of governing parties! Thus, Narasimhan failed strictly to adhere to the spirit of the Constitution and parliamentary procedural norms.

## Sirapangi

### The TDP and YSRCP Relations with Narasimhan from 2014

In April 2018, residual AP CM Naidu developed an intense conflict with Narasimhan. The TDP-BJP pre-election alliance of 2014 and continued post-election coalition Government regime at the national and residual AP levels ended due to (emotional) political conflicts and rivalry, primarily due to failure in the extension of 'special category status' to residual AP.<sup>8</sup> Due to an intensified political critique and movement from the opposition YSRCP, the TDP withdrew its support to the BJP led NDA Government and cut-off ties with the BJP at the AP level (Chaturvedi, 2018).

The YSRCP had critiqued TDP for maintaining a coalition alliance with the BJP and continuing under the BJP led NDA Government, even after BJP failed to extend 'special category status to the residual AP'. After weighing due consequences and the YSRCP's focused criticism - ultimately, the TDP ended ties with BJP and NDA coalition. As a result, the BJP Ministers withdrew from the Council of Ministry led by Naidu. Similarly, the TDP Union ministers withdrew from Modi's led Union Council of Ministry. As a subsequent follow-up and as per revelations of various news reports and political commentaries, the BJP led NDA Government started to take revenge against the TDP Government. For quite some time, Naidu openly critiqued the active political role of Narasimhan. Later, as per various news reports, the BJP led NDA Government took multiple measures to intensify numerous pending cases against Naidu at various courts of law as a means of racking judicial harassment. In this sequence, a few TDP politicians were targeted by federal investigative agencies, albeit as a measure to fix them in corruption cases (By Express News Service, 2019).

The TDP alleged this move of Union investigative agencies role as a step taken on the undisclosed political orders of the BJP led NDA Government. However, at last, such an expected step to arrest did not arise against Naidu from the national investigative agencies. Nevertheless, the BJP's threatening attitude against the co (opposition political) parties across India makes some sections believe that the BJP, under the influence of the NDA, might resort to any extreme measures against persons like Naidu to arrest him; in order to obtain a better political prospectus for BJP in AP. As per certain dominant political analytical views in circulation, the BJP (led NDA) wishes to finish TDP and targets to transfer TDP's electoral base to the BJP in residual AP (K. Nageshwar, 2018a).

Interestingly, the YSRCP never openly critiqued Narasimhan for inducting four MLAs into the Naidu's Council of Ministry. However, the YSRCP and Jagan vehemently critiqued only Naidu and TDP over this issue.

### **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position...**

Moreover, the YSRCP has resorted to legal measures to secure justice against such a move. Nevertheless, the judiciary has failed to pronounce its verdict in time, so far. The YSRCP and Jagan's failure to critique Narasimhan in this respect should also be understood from the dimension of fear towards the BJP (led NDA), as Jagan too faces multiple financial crime cases filed against him. As a result, the YSRCP failed to effectively politicise Narasimhan's conventional and legal parliamentary norms violation, resulting in four YSRCP MLAs induction into the Naidu's Council of Ministry.

### **Implications for Union-State Relations**

The above narrated political discourse throws light on Union-state relations. With the growth of regional parties, Union-state relations started to decline. Up-to-the decade 1980's end, the INC had a major prospectus as a single dominant player. Later on, the BJP emerged as a parallel second dominant contender at the national level. As a result, India's national politics continue under two broad sections led by the INC and BJP through various fronts. The regional parties mostly align with these two national parties led fronts. However, the composition of UPA and NDA alliances vary significantly over time. Moreover, national and regional players have no strict ideological chord strike to continue the alliance and coalition under the UPA or NDA. These two fronts' undergo variations depending on changed political circumstances.

Though now and then, the regional parties have a certain aspiration to play a dominant role in national politics, such aspirations failed to realise concretely. In this sequence, one can observe the PM tenures of Viswanath Pratap Singh, Chandra Shekar, Deve Gowda, and Indra Kumar Gujral. In some sense, all these PMs were promoted by the national parties like INC and BJP; and regional parties' leaders were elevated as PMs. However, this strategic step failed to sustain for long and failed to produce lasting results. Thus, even regional parties cannot alter the national prospects and initiate a few measures to further strengthen Union-state relations.

At some other level, regional political parties are also failing to politicise Governor's role, who acts, now and then, as per the wishes of the Union Government, led by either of the two major political parties and fronts, i.e., INC - UPA or BJP - NDA. As a result, occasional judicial verdicts concerning the role of the Governor are getting codified. The best instance lay in the Bommai versus Union of India verdict (Sathe, 2003). Nevertheless, national parties were dubious in misusing Governor's position through other emerged political circumstantial necessities in their favour. Thus, national



### Sirapangi

parties lack proper commitment not to misuse the Governor's position. Moreover, regional parties fail to effectively politicise this issue on a collective front to set the discourse properly. As a result, the whole process poses a severe threat to the Union-state relations, which is a challenge to the constitutional checks and balances.

At one level, the solution to this problem lay in reviewing the role and prospects of the Governor properly as part of the Constitution. The judiciary can protect the Constitutional spirit concerning the Governor's role when such a chance emerges. For a comprehensive outcome, regional parties should initiate proper politicisation of the Governor's political roles for a sustained duration. However, most regional parties seem to have contended if their governments were not dismissed by the Governor, as per the wishes of national parties headed governments. Suppose the Governor's active political role continues for a sustained duration, without producing proper positive results, then the Union-state relations may encounter further intensified problems, provided even if the judiciary fails to interfere beyond a point. Failure to adhere to constitutionally designed 'procedural democracy', 'checks and balances' and parliamentary procedural norms result in chaos and anarchy (Saxena, 2018).

### Conclusion

The article attempts to prove how political nexus continues between political leaders and parties on one side, with constitutional positions held by persons like Governor, highlighting Narasimhan's tenure from December 2009 to September 2019 in the Telugu region. During PM Indira Gandhi's tenure, high-level misuse of the Governor's position took place against the non-INC regimes; later on, such a situation altered to some extent. This article's uniqueness lay in focusing on Governor Narasimhan's engagement with different parties in power since December 2009 at the Union Government level, at the united AP range, and later on at residual AP and TS realm. At last, and at another level, the article throws light over post-Sarkaria Commission dynamics over Union-state relations.

On the whole, the article focused on Narasimhan's successfully continued political relations with the INC led UPA (2009-2014), BJP led NDA (2014-2019), INC led united AP (2009-2014), TDP led residual AP (2014-2019), and TRS led TS (2014-2019). Though in 2019, Narasimhan administered the oath of office to Jagan as residual AP CM, they both (Narasimhan and Jagan) maintained visible cordial relations. Though occasionally most of the parties critiqued Narasimhan's 'political role' for his debunk from 'constitutional

### **The Constitutional-Political Nexus and Governor's Position...**

practices', in reality, these involved parties were not sincere enough to demand and bring about further constitutional reforms for better-enhanced stature of Governor's office! At most, all the involved constitutional and political actors were comfortable enough to mitigate their interests to a possible extent through the Governor's office, as and when possible. Moreover, Narasimhan was also interested in altering his actions and function based on changing political situations rather than adhering to the constitutional practices and parliamentary procedural norms. This 'constitutional and political nexus' might change only when (regional) political parties show political resolution and initiate a few measures accordingly.

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#### **End Notes**

1. The 'united AP' referred to here has existed from its formation in 1956 to its bifurcation in 2014. 'Residual AP' refers to the position after bifurcation in 2014, i.e., after the formation of Telangana State.
2. ND Tiwari, the then AP Governor, was caught in a sensational sex scandal. As a result, Narasimhan was transferred to take charge upon ND Tiwari demitted office.
3. As Speaker of AP LA, he symbolically maintained political neutrality without expressing direct political opinions. Thus maintained political neutrality without expressing his opinion against or favouring separate TS formation became a boost for him at this point.
4. In addition to Narasimhan's role, it was also reported at some low level that KKR also lobbied through other INC sources like the then Union Home Minister, P Chidambaram.
5. The view that Narasimhan had a specific background role in suggesting KKR's candidature as CM to Sonia Gandhi got circulated and believed for quite some time, as such news was circulated in a certain section of media at that point.
6. Individual prominent media analysts like Prof K Nageshwar observed that Narasimhan had the then Union Home Minister's (P Chidambaram) backed support when the INC led UPA was in power. Later on, Narasimhan's close contact with the National Security Advisor, Ajit Doval, during BJP led NDA helped him to maintain better contact with the BJP - NDA. Thus, during two different political parties led coalition regimes at the national level, Narasimhan successfully maintained good contacts and continued as Governor, as observed by Prof K Nageshwar.
7. The TDP is spread in both residual AP and TS. After the 2014 election, in residual AP, TDP captured political power. However, TDP was in opposition in the TS.
8. The non-extension of 'special category status to residual AP' was seen and reported at some level as an emotional one to Andhra people. The BJP promised to extend the

## Sirapangi

same in the 2014 election campaign in residual AP in alliance with TDP. However, the BJP (led NDA) is seen and projected as a villain throughout this process for failing to fulfil the same. Since TDP was in an alliance with BJP led NDA during 2014-2018, TDP also faced the brunt of this emotional political conflict for failing to achieve special category status to residual AP.

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# Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children

Shubhria Sharma\*

*Overcrowding congestion and unhealthy living conditions and deforestation, we began to affect our atmosphere. With the growing concern, regarding the environmental conditions, man himself is the real culprit. At present time it is almost impossible to get fresh air because it is polluted due to chemical industries, combustion of fossil fuels, dust and hydrocarbon. Traffic on road and vehicle emissions become the dominant source of pollutants. Now congestion and transport both are large contributors to air pollution in cities. In the last few years many studies have reported significant associations between urban air pollution on various aspects of respiratory health in children. Twenty one of the world's 30 cities within the world worst air pollution are in India and Lucknow is among the top 10 polluted cities of the country. Therefore proposed study was conducted to find out the relationship between traffic air pollution and respiratory health symptoms of school going children.*

## Introduction

The history of agriculture began thousands of years ago and with advent of agriculture human began to change the land for food and with the present population exploitation, rapid technological progress, large scales industrialisation, man as producer and consumer has disrupted the dynamic equilibrium. Overcrowding congestion and unhealthy living conditions and

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### **Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children**

deforestation, we began to affect our atmosphere. With the growing concern, regarding the environmental conditions, man himself is the real culprit. At present time it is almost impossible to get fresh air because it is polluted due to chemical industries, combustion of fossil fuels, dust and hydrocarbon (Gupta, 2000). Air pollution is a global problem and one of the most important environmental determinants for human health (Shultz, 2017) and also is biggest threat in human life. In recent years the air quality of many cities in India have gone worse. The main reason for the rapid growth in transport is exponential increase of personalised vehicles. Matz et al., 2019; stated that traffic related air pollution (TRAP) has been associated with a wide range of adverse effects, the variable of mixture of gases and particles due to mixture of vehicles exhausts has been linked to wide variety of health effects. At present time traffic on road and vehicle emissions become the dominant source of pollutants (Zhang et al, 2013). Now congestion and transport system both are large contributors to air pollution in cities.

Steinfeld (1986) defined pollution as "Atmospheric condition in which substances present at concentrations higher than their normal ambient level to produce significant effects on humans, animals, vegetation and materials (Chandrappa and Kulshreshtha, 2015). According to WHO, ambient air pollution caused 3.7 million deaths. About 300 million children worldwide breathe highly toxic air (Shultz, 2017). Manisalides (2020); stated that due to urbanisation, industrialisation and use of motor cycle, the pollution is occurring in both urban and rural area in India.

### **Pollutants and Health**

The gradual degradation and pollution of environment is a worldwide issue and now has attracted minds of planner health sector academicians, environmentalists and others. Esposito et al. (2014), stated that traffic related pollution is associated with an increased risk of respiratory morbidity and lower respiratory disease with wheezing in children.

The substance that causes pollution known as pollutants is term applied usually to non-living man made substance or other nuisances that refer to them being in excess or not desired in particular location (Agarwal, 2001), whereas the presence of substances in ambient atmosphere, resulting from activity of man from natural processes causing adverse effect to man and environment i.e. Pollution (Weber, 1982). Rossi (2020) stated that poor quality not only affects livability of cities, but also human health. These health effects vary from mild symptoms such as headache, nausea, irritation in eyes to more serious health problems such as lung disease, asthma,

### Sharma

respiratory infections and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease etc. There are two types of health exposures depending on particular pollutants:

- (a) *Short Term Exposure:* This exposure exacerbates pre-existing illness such as asthma, chronic obstructive disease and irregular heartbeats.
- (b) *Long Term Exposure:* This exposure can actually cause the development of respiratory health problems, heart problem and reduction in life expectancy.

In a report of Lancet, it was estimated that air pollution lowers the life expectancy of 1.7 years (UNICEF, 2016). Numerous studies have been conducted on associations between exposure to particles and increased rate of respiratory illness and hospital admissions. Numerous studies have been conducted on associations between exposures to particles and increased rate of respiratory illness and hospital admissions. Tuteja and Sharma, 1996; stated that anthropogenic factors contribute major fraction of fine particles than the natural sources as natural sources contribute only coarse particles in the environment. The main sources of air pollution today are automobiles. Today most of the health problems in children are associated with exposure to particulate air pollution. Human life added hundreds of pollutants in the air but particulate matter is just one ingredient of hazy cocktail of airborne pollutants that is produced from motor vehicles, construction as well as emission from factories. Particulate matter depends upon the fate of particles. Particulate matter sometimes called aerosols. Aerosols is a discrete mass of any material, except pure water, that exists as a liquid or solid in atmosphere under normal conditions and is of microscopic or sub-microscopic size but larger than the molecular size (Agarwal, 2001).

Based on size, particulate matter in atmosphere is categorised into three-coarse particles-particles PM10 are airborne particles with a diameter of less than 10 micron can easily penetrate in the bronchi of human lungs, Fine particles-particles less than 2.5 can reach the alveoli where air exchange occurs and this PM2.5 can also reach to small airways. Ultrafine particles-very small particles (0.1 Microns) have high surface to mass ratio, which increases their toxic potential. Such particles can even pass directly into the blood stream.

Agarwal, 2001 stated that particles less than 0.1 micron in dimension stay in the air for much longer periods, they serve as nuclei for condensation of water vapours and produce fog during cold and humid periods. Particulates may be either emitted from primary sources or formed through chemical reaction of secondary sources, example - Sulfer Dioxide, Oxides of Nitrogen and other organic compounds. These organic compound can be

### **Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children**

emitted by both natural sources (trees and vegetation) or through anthropogenic sources such as vehicular exhaust and industries. In many studies, evidence shows that exposure to fine particles can cause symptoms of respiratory tract problems, reduced lung function increased hospital admissions (US, EPA, 2020). Respiratory system can be classified into two - upper air ways passage-includes the nose, nasal passage, mouth and the pharynx down to vocal cords in the larynx (Adam's Apple) and lower air ways passage includes vocal cards, trachea (wind pipe), air sacs (alveoli in lungs), bronchial tree includes trachea, the bronchus and bronchioles (CCOHS, 2018).

In the last few years many studies have reported significant associations between urban air pollution on various aspects of respiratory health in children. Twenty one of the world's 30 cities within the world worst air pollution are in India (Regan, 2020) and Lucknow is among the top 10 polluted cities of the country. Recently evolved city infrastructure usage is yet to reach the bench mark as desired. Further rapid growth of population and vehicular traffic has been found to be the main source of traffic pollution. The number of vehicles registered with RTO, Lucknow was 2,40,719 as on 31.03.2020 (IITR, 2020). Lucknow city has become denser with traffic congestion, which increases the vehicle emissions and subsequent health impact especially on school going children. In view of ever increasing the level of pollution, the proposed study was conducted to find out the respiratory health problems of school going children in Lucknow city.

### **Research Question**

In any research there is always scope for making improvement. Although many studies have been conducted on respiratory health and pollution but according to few studies, some respiratory health problems are not due to traffic pollution, however some studies shows the association between traffic pollution are respiratory health problems thus avoiding confounding bias the proposed study was conducted to find out following researches questions: Is there any association between Particulate matter and respiratory symptoms? Is there any relationship between socio-economic class and respiratory health impact? What is the prevalence of asthma and what kind of respiratory health problems in children from last three month?

### **Objectives**

The objectives are as follows: (i) To assess the routes of exposure of pollutants on children near school. (ii) To examine and compare the respiratory health problem of school going children belonging to age group



## Sharma

of 6 to 12 years, studying near traffic polluted area. (iii) To explore the relationship between the socio-economic status and respiratory health of children.

### Methods

In the present study, the sample was drawn from the Lucknow city. The study was conducted to find out the association between traffic pollution and respiratory symptoms (upper and lower both) school going children. Secondary data of Indian Institute of Toxicological research (I.I.T.R) was used for the selection of area and Air Quality Index (AQI) from Central Pollution Control Board. According to the pre and post monsoon report of 2019 and pre monsoon report of IITR, 2020, the concentration level of Suspended Particulate Matter and Respirable Suspended Particulate Matter were higher than the prescribed limit in Alambagh and Charbagh, whereas AQI, in Lalbagh was found to be higher than the prescribed limit. Thus, in present study these three areas were considered as high polluted areas and schools near traffic polluted zones were selected for the data collection.

**Concentration of PM10 and PM2.5 during Pre and Post Monsoon**

Location	Pre-Monsoon 2019		Post -Monsoon 2019	
	PM10 Max/Avg	PM2.5 Max/Avg	PM10 Max/Avg	PM2.5 Avg/Max
Alambagh	240.9/180.1	130.7/86.7	297.1/157.4	118.3/70.8
Charbagh	243.1/190.9	112.1/92.0	313.3/197.4	199.0/109.6

\*NAAQS (National ambient air quality standard)-60 for PM2.5 and 100 for PM10

\*WHO Guidelines-25 for PM2.5 and 50 for PM10 (Source: IITR, 2020).

### Sample Size and Sampling

A cross sectional and comparative survey was conducted to determine the prevalence of respiratory system of children studying near traffic area. Children were selected randomly from the school situated near high air pollution level from traffic. In the present study, data collection on total 550 children, belonging to age group of 6 to 12 years was completed during August to November; 2020. The areas were divided on the basis of air pollution level.

**Table 1  
Showing Area wise List of Schools Selected for the Study**

High Polluted Area		Less Polluted area	
High Socio-economic Status	Low Socio-economic Status	High Socio-economic Status	Low Socio-economic Status
200 Children (boys+girls)	200 Children (boys+girl)	75 Children (boys+girls)	75 children (boys+girls)
Total Children: 400 from High Polluted Area		Total Children: 150 from Less Polluted Area	

### Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children

Due to COVID-19, closure of schools, parents of children were interviewed from the selected areas i.e., the high polluted and less polluted area. These children were categorised on the basis of their family income. Among the participants, children of different age groups were enrolled in different schools of Lucknow city. Therefore schools were selected on the basis of locations and socio-economic status:

- Schools located in traffic polluted and congested area of Lucknow city (Pollution data from I.I.T.R and Air Quality Index by Central Pollution Control Board, Lucknow).
- Schools located in less traffic polluted area.
- Children of different socio-economic class were selected on the basis of their family income.

The answers for the prevalence of respiratory symptoms were recorded through interview of parents as due to COVID-19, no parents were ready to fill the questionnaire, therefore respiratory symptoms problems were recorded through the questionnaire survey from the household of both the area i.e., High Polluted Area and Less Polluted Area. Children of High Polluted Area exhibited high prevalence of both the respiratory symptoms i.e., Upper and Lower Respiratory Symptoms (URS and LRS). Therefore for the analysis of the study, respiratory symptoms were classified into two categories:

#### The prevalence and Distribution of Upper Respiratory Symptoms *Sneezing*

Sneezing is a natural uncontrolled burst of air, caused by irritation to the mucus membrane of the nose or throat. Rapaport (2020) stated, that fine particulate matter are also associated with worse congestion, nasal irritation and sneezing. *Sneezing is the natural reaction of removing irritants from nose or throat.* Sneezing occurs, when nasal passage is irritated by foreign particles entering in nose, but at present, particulate matter from traffic pollution also causes inflammation in respiratory tract, therefore sneezing was considered to examine upper respiratory symptoms among children of both the area.

**Table 2**  
**Prevalence of Sneezing**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Sneezing		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	<sup>1</sup> H.P.U.SES	40	20.0	200
2.	<sup>2</sup> H.P.L.SES	33	16.5	200
3.	<sup>3</sup> L.P.U.SES	9	12.0	75
4.	<sup>4</sup> L.P.L.SES	1	1.3	75
5.	Total	83	15.1	550

<sup>1</sup>High polluted upper socio-economic status, <sup>2</sup>High polluted lower socio-economic status, <sup>3</sup>Less polluted Upper socio-economic status, <sup>4</sup>Less polluted lower socio-economic status.

### Sharma

The symptoms of sneezing was present in 20.0 per cent children of H.P.U.SES and 16.5 per cent in children of H.P.L.SES. Total 36.5 per cent children of high polluted area had the problem of sneezing, whereas in L.P.U.SES, the sneezing was present only in 12.0 per cent children and 1.3 per cent children were from L.P.L.SES. Therefore it was noted that prevalence of sneezing was higher in high polluted area than the less polluted area. Particulate matter can make experience the symptoms of sneezing in the school going children near traffic pollution area.

#### *Rhinitis (Runny and Stuffy)*

Rhinitis is a term of inflammation of the nasal passages. Runny nose refers to a discharge from the nasal passage while stuffy nose also called nasal congestion. Rhinitis is condition that is linked with asthma, a state of hyperactivity of the airways, where they constrict and inflamed on exposure to apparently innocuous substance like pollen (Liji Thomas, 2020). Since rhinitis symptoms are also associated with high level of PM10 and PM2.5 (Brute et.al, 2020). The term stuffy nose often used to refer to obstruction to the flow of air and out of the nose.

**Table 3**  
**Prevalence of Rhinitis(Runny)**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Rhinitis(Runny)		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	17	8.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	5	2.5	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	1	1.3	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	23	4.2	550

Table 3 showing the prevalence of Rhinitis Runny Nose of children residing in both the area. The results indicate that 8.5 per cent children of H.P.U.SES had the symptoms of runny nose and 2.5 per cent children were from H.P.L.SES. In less polluted area, the symptom was present only in 1.3 per cent children of L.P.U.SES. There was no prevalence of runny nose symptoms in the children from L.P.L.SES. Again children of polluted area had the higher prevalence than the less polluted area.

#### *Rhinitis (Stuffy Nose)*

Table 4 Showing the prevalence of Rhinitis Stuffy among children. The results indicate that 8.5 per cent children of H.P.U.SES and 3.0 per cent children of H.P.L.SES had the symptoms of Rhinitis Stuffy Nose. While in

### Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children

less polluted area, only 5.3 per cent children belonging to High SES. No children of low SES had the prevalence of rhinitis stuffy nose.

**Table 4**  
**Prevalence of Rhinitis (Stuffy)**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Rhinitis (Stuffy)		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	17	8.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	6	3.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	4	5.3	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	27	4.9	550

#### *Cough (Morning and Night)*

Exposure to any irritant or pollutant during early childhood may further increase the future risk of respiratory problems (Eun Jung Jo and Woo, 2019). Since weather and other seasonal problems can cause coughing but at present time pollutants like particulates can change cough and therefore in the present study the cough symptoms was also asked through questionnaire.

*A rapid expulsion of air from the lungs typically in order to clear the lungs airways of fluid, mucus or other materials. Exposure of high air pollution levels can cause immediate health problems including coughing. Particulate matter and other irritant gases are also associated with increased cough and wheeze. (<http://www.indiatoday.in>).*

#### *Prevalence of Cough (Morning)*

**Table 5**  
**Prevalence of Cough (Morning)**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Cough (Morning)		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	36	18.0	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	36	18.5	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	7	9.3	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	79	14.4	550

Table 5 depicts the prevalence of cough (morning) among the children of both the areas. The prevalence of cough was present in 18.5 per cent children of H.P.U.SES and 18.5 per cent in H.P.L.SES, only 9.3 per cent children of L.P.U.SES experienced cough symptoms than the children of L.P.L.SES, i.e., 0.0 per cent.

*Prevalence of Cough (Night)*

**Table 6**  
**Prevalence of Cough (Night)**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Cough (Night)		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	7	3.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	3	1.5	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	7	0.0	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	10	1.8	550

The table 6 showing the prevalence of cough (night) symptoms of children. Among the children of high polluted area only 3.5 per cent children of Upper SES and 1.5 per cent children of lower SES had the prevalence of cough (night). No children were found from the less polluted area. In earlier times cough was related to cold and allergies, but now days, with the rising level of pollution, cough could be a sign of other respiratory symptoms. In the present study percentage of cough (morning) was higher than the percentage of cough (night).

*Running Nose*

Running nose is mucus being discharged out of the nose (<http://myclevanclinic.org>health>).

**Table 7**  
**Prevalence of Running Nose**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Running Nose		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	24	12.4	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	36	18.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	5	6.7	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	65	11.8	550

Results from table 7 demonstrate that children from high polluted area had the higher prevalence of running nose than the children of less polluted area.

**The Prevalence and Distribution of Lower Respiratory Symptoms***Wheezing*

Wheezing is sound like whistling and it comes from the small bronchial tubes during breathing. According to the health line: *Wheezing is*

### Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children

high pitched whistling sound made, while you breathe. Its heard most clearly, when you exhale but in severe cases. It can be heard when you inhale. It is caused by narrowed airways or inflammation (<http://www.healthline.com>). The symptoms of wheezing are laboured breathing particularly during exhalation. New research suggests that air pollution contains harmful substances which can be toxic to respiratory tract (Arifuddin, 2019).

**Table 8**  
**Prevalence of Wheezing**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Wheezing		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	14	7.0	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	12	6.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	3	4.0	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	29	5.3	550

Table 8 depicts the prevalence of wheezing of the children. Results indicate that both the socio-economic status of high polluted area had the symptoms of wheezing i.e., 7.0 per cent children from high SES and 6.0 per cent children from low SES. It was also noted that only 4.0 per cent children were from the L.P.H.SES, whereas no children of L.P.L.SES suffered from wheezing.

### Shortness of Breath

Polluted air can cause shortness of breath and other respiratory symptoms. Long term exposure to air pollution can cause difficulty in breathing. Particulates pose the greatest problem because they bypass body's natural defence mechanism and can get deep into bloodstream and in lungs even healthy person may experience temporary symptoms, such as shortness of breath. (<http://www.sparetheair.org>).

**Table 9**  
**Prevalence of Shortness of Breath**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Shortness of Breath		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	10	5.0	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	2	1.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	2	2.7	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	14	2.5	550

### Sharma

Results indicate that the 5.0 per cent children belonging to H.P.U.SES had the prevalence of shortness of breath and 1 per cent children had the symptoms of shortness of breath. It was also noted that again no children were from L.P.L.SES, while only 2.7 per cent children were from the less polluted high SES.

#### *Breathing Attack*

**Table 10**  
**Prevalence of Breathing Attack**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Breathing Attack		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	3	1.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	3	1.5	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	3	4.0	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	9	1.6	550

Table 10 showing the same percentage of prevalence in breathing attack of children of high polluted area. The prevalence of breathing attack was present in 1.5 per cent children of both H.P.U.SES and in low SES also. In less polluted area the prevalence of breathing attack was reported by 4.0 per cent children of upper SES and no children were suffered from the L.P.L.SES.

#### *Chest Trouble*

Chest trouble can result from infection, inflammation, and trauma etc. In present scenario, due to traffic congestion, most of the children suffered from chest trouble due to polluted air, therefore few questions were also asked on chest related health problems.

**Table 11**  
**Prevalence of Chest Trouble**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Chest Trouble		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	11	5.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	4	2.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	2	2.7	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	17	3.1	550

Table 11 showing the prevalence of chest trouble among the children of both the area. Trouble in chest was present in 5.5 per cent children of

### Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children

H.P.U.SES, whereas 2.0 per cent children of H.P.L.SES had the symptoms of chest trouble. In contrast 2.7 per cent children of L.P.U.SES had suffered from these symptoms. No children of L.P.L.SES suffered from the symptoms.

#### *Nasal Congestion*

In the nasal congestion, blood vessels and mucous membranes in the sinuses and nasal passage ways swell (Huizen, 2020). Chest congestion causes a feeling of tightness in the chest due to lack of proper supply of oxygen to the lungs (<http://www.thehealthsite.com>). Today the most common unavoidable cause of chest congestion is exposure to pollution, even short term exposure to pollution may lead to respiratory infections.

**Table 12**  
**Prevalence of Nasal Congestion**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Nasal Congestion		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	58	29.0	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	53	26.5	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	4	5.3	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	115	20.9	550

Table 12 depicts the prevalence of congestion of children belonging to both the area. Among the children of high polluted area 29.0 per cent children of high SES had the prevalence of congestion, whereas 26.5 per cent children of L.P.L.SES were also prevalent of congestion. It was also noted in less polluted area, only 5.3 per cent children belonging to high SES were suffered from congestion. Again no children had the prevalence of congestion in low SES.

#### *Breathing*

Breathing in polluted air can cause many respiratory health problems.

**Table 13**  
**Prevalence of Breathing**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Breathing		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	4	2.0	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	7	3.5	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	3	4.0	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	14	2.5	550



## Sharma

The results indicate that the symptoms of breathing were not very prevalent in children of both the areas. Only 2.0 per cent children from H.P.U.SES and 3.5 per cent children from H.P.L.SES had the prevalence of breathing, while only 4.0 per cent children were from L.P.U.SES and no children were from the low SES.

### Other Symptoms

#### Headache

Headache is common condition, the main symptom of headache is pain in head and face. *Headache pain is results from signal interacting among the brain, blood vessels and surrounding nerves* (<http://myclevelandclinic.org>). *A unknown mechanism activities specific nerves that affect muscles and blood vessels.*

**Table 14**  
**Prevalence of Headache**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Headache		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	45	22.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	18	9.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	3	4.0	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	66	12.0	550

The symptoms of headache were more prevalent in high SES of high polluted area. Results indicate that 22.5 per cent children of H.P.U.SES had the symptoms of headache, whereas only 9.0 per cent children were from H.P.L.SES. Like other symptoms no children from L.P.L.SES had the prevalence of headache while 4.0 per cent children of high SES had the symptoms of headache.

#### Eye Irritation

Eyes are vulnerable to dirt dust and pollution. School going children are at greater risk of eye related problems caused by vehicular pollution. *The term eye irritation refers to the feeling of dryness, itchiness, pain and grittiness in the eye* (<http://www.medicalnewtoday.com>)

**Table 15**  
**Prevalence of Eye Irritation**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Eye Irritation		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	11	5.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	4	2.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	2	2.7	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	17	3.1	550

### Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children

Table 15 showing the prevalence of eye irritation. Total 5.5 per cent children of high SES and 2.0 per cent children of low SES from high polluted area had the prevalence of eye irritation. In less polluted area, 2.7 per cent examined children of upper SES complained of eye irritation. Like other symptoms no children from low SES had the prevalence of eye irritation.

#### *Use of Inhaler*

Inhaler is small hand held device filled with medicine. It is commonly used in treating breathing difficulties related to respiratory health problems and asthma. In the present study children were asked about the use of inhaler.

**Table 16**  
**Prevalence of Use of Inhaler**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Use of Inhaler		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	10	5.0	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	2	1.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	1	1.3	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	13	2.4	550

In table 16, the prevalence of inhaler use in high polluted area was found only in 5.0 per cent children of upper SES and 1.0 per cent children of lower SES, whereas only 1.3 per cent children of LP.U.SES were using inhaler. No children were from L.P.L.SES.

#### *Nasal Spray*

Nasal spray is used to reduce congestion, sneezing and also used for drippy nose. The spray is also used to control different types of allergies.

**Table 17**  
**Prevalence of Nasal Spray**

S.No.	Category	Prevalence of Nasal Spray		
		Number	Percentage	Total
1.	H.P.U.SES	35	17.5	200
2.	H.P.L.SES	16	8.0	200
3.	L.P.U.SES	4	5.3	75
4.	L.P.L.SES	0	0.0	75
5.	Total	55	10.2	550

The children of high polluted area had the higher prevalence of nasal spray use in both socio-economic group's i.e., 17.5 per cent children

### Sharma

from Upper SES and 8.0 per cent children from lower SES. In less polluted area only 5.3 per cent children were using nasal spray and no children from lower socio-economic status were user of nasal spray.

In the present study, the respiratory health status was provided on the basis of presence and absence of respiratory symptoms such as upper and lower respiratory symptoms rhinitis, coughing, wheezing (defined as difficulty in breathing). Among all the upper respiratory symptoms (URS) like sneezing, rhinitis, stuffy and runny nose were more prevalent in high polluted area in comparison to children of less polluted area. Fine particulate matter was associated with nasal irritation and sneezing. The respiratory symptoms like nasal congestion and morning cough were more prevalent in high polluted area than the children of less polluted area. Other symptoms such as headache and eye irritation were more common in children of high polluted area in comparison to children of less polluted area. Strong association was found between the use of nasal spray and exposure of traffic pollution. The findings of the study suggest that children belonging to upper and lower SES of high polluted area had the higher prevalence of upper respiratory symptoms than the children of less polluted area. Since children of lower socio-economic status in high polluted area was more likely to walk and cycle from congested area to school, therefore they were more vulnerable to traffic pollution. Statistically (Independent t-test) the values of morning cough, running nose, sneezing, eye irritation, headache, nasal spray, nasal congestion and rhinitis (runny) were found to be significant at ( $< 0.05$  level). No asthma symptom was found in the children. According to Jo and Song (2019), pollutant exposure during the childhood may further increase the future risk of respiratory problems including chronic cough, however results were consistent in children of lower socio-economic status of less polluted area. The reason of being not exposed from traffic pollution was distance, conveyance and location of school.

### Conclusion

The need of health assessment is very important due to tremendous growth in urban population. Exacerbations of respiratory problems was clearly related to particulate matter, as level of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> was higher than the prescribed limit in high polluted area, therefore significant association was found between upper respiratory symptoms and traffic pollution near school.

## Respiratory Symptoms and Location of the School: An Assessment of Health of Children

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UGC-CARE (Group-I)

## Exploring the Nature of Social Media Usage

Preeti Mann\*

*From Facebook to Twitter, Instagram, Snapchat, WhatsApp, YouTube, LinkedIn, Pinterest, Wordpress to TikTok, the presence of a diversified range of social media platforms can be termed as one of the defining features of the present times. For arriving at an understanding of the mechanisms behind the usage of such media, it is pertinent to examine the nature of social media usage i.e., the social media users' behaviour in terms of the kind of activities they perform on these new social media platforms. The paper examines the activities that social media users perform on social media and also to study the relationship of the time spent using social media with the kind of activities performed.*

### Introduction

The availability of a diverse range of social media makes it possible for the users to perform an array of activities on such media platforms/sites/apps. The varied activities include discussing current issues to sharing information, gaming, chatting, posting/watching videos, listening to music, shopping, making new connections, sharing content, among others. The world of social media offers an unprecedented range of possibilities of utilising one's time on such media. This user engagement with social media is referred to as the nature of social media usage. As the

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## **Mann**

users have the option of performing varied activities on social media platforms, the users' engagement with social media in terms of kind of activities performed is looked into in the present paper for a clearer understanding of social media behaviour. For the study of nature of usage, using survey method, the activities performed on social media were grouped under three broad categories on the basis of motives of these activities, namely social connection, information and entertainment related activities. The research also probes the time spent on social media on the kind of activities performed therein.

### **Methodology**

A cross-sectional survey of 500 Chandigarh residents regarding the nature of their social media usage and the amount of usage of different social media platforms was conducted. Since social media usage has become commonplace and everyone uses some or the other social media, the respondents were selected on the basis of non-probability sampling method of convenience sampling. Out of the 500 respondents, 440 was the number of users while 50 were non-users and 10 were former users. The frequency of performing social media activities was measured on a 3-point scale ranging from always to never and the amount of social media usage was measured in terms of hours spent every day on different social media platforms. The social media platforms considered for this study included six broad categories, namely, Social Networking Sites (Facebook, Google+, LinkedIn), Blog Hosting Platforms (Blogger, Wordpress, Tumblr), Microblog Platform (Twitter), Media Sharing Sites (YouTube, Instagram, Pinterest), Social Media Apps (WhatsApp, Skype, Hike) and Miscellaneous (social bookmarking, social news and content aggregation sites like Reddit, RSS, Storify). A questionnaire containing close-ended questions, related to the nature of social media usage and the amount of social media usage, was administered to the respondents. SPSS was used to analyse the data thus collected and the data was presented in the form of tables and charts.

### **Nature of Social Media Usage**

A typology of social media activities on the basis of the motives of these activities was followed and thus, the nature of social media usage was classified into three broad categories, namely, social connection activities, information activities and entertainment activities. Under the social connection activities, chatting, messaging, tagging photos and videos, making new friends, commenting on updates, photos and videos, and advice

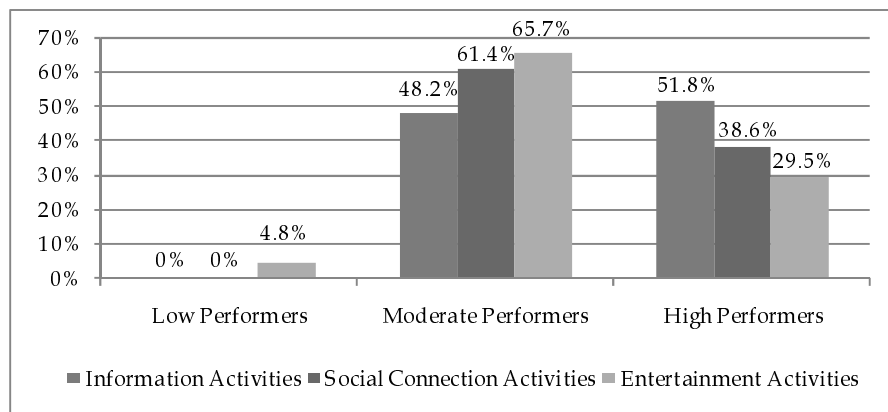
### Exploring the Nature of Social Media Usage

seeking were considered. The information activities included debate and discussion, sharing links, following current happenings and downloading content. The entertainment activities included listening to music, watching videos, posting photos (of self, family, friends and general photos), posting videos, lurking, gaming and shopping. Since social media is all about articulation of one's social network and maintaining of social ties, it was hypothesised that:

H<sub>a1</sub>: Social connection activities are the most frequently performed activities on social media.

A non-parametric Friedman Rank Test was used to determine if the users had differential preference for the three kinds of social media activities. The result of the test showed that there was highly significant difference among the frequency of performance of different activities in social media (Chi-square=81.402, df=2, p<.01). The hypothesis was disproved as the mean ranks of the social media activities showed that the most frequently performed activities in social media were information seeking activities and not social connection related activities. With a mean rank of 2.20, information activities like sharing links, downloading content, etc. were the most frequently performed activities. The mean rank for social connection activities was 2.00, making them the second most frequently performed activities, followed by entertainment activities with a mean rank of 1.80.

**Figure 1**  
**Categories of Social Media Activities Performers**



On the basis of frequency of performance of various activities, the users were classified into: low activity performers, moderate activity performers and high activity performers. Among the three activity



## Mann

categories, the highest number of high performers was in information activities. The majority of the performers of social connection activities and entertainment activities were in the moderate activity performers' category (Figure 1).

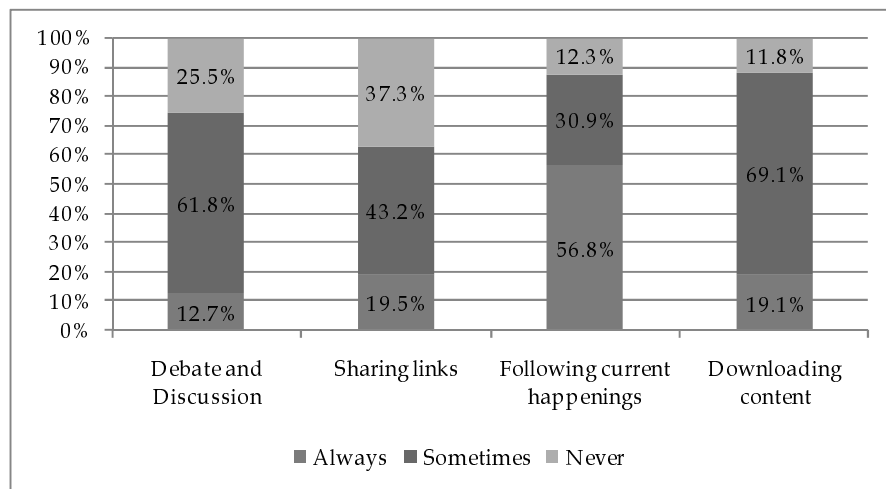
Across the three activities' categories, 'following current happenings' was the most performed activity, followed by chatting and then listening to music. Gaming and posting videos were the least often performed activities of all.

### Social Media Activities

#### a. Information Activities

In the information activities, following current happenings on social media was the most often performed activity with majority of users always performing it. Majority of users sometimes indulged in debate and discussion, sharing links and downloading content (Figure 2).

**Figure 2**  
**Frequency of Information Activities**



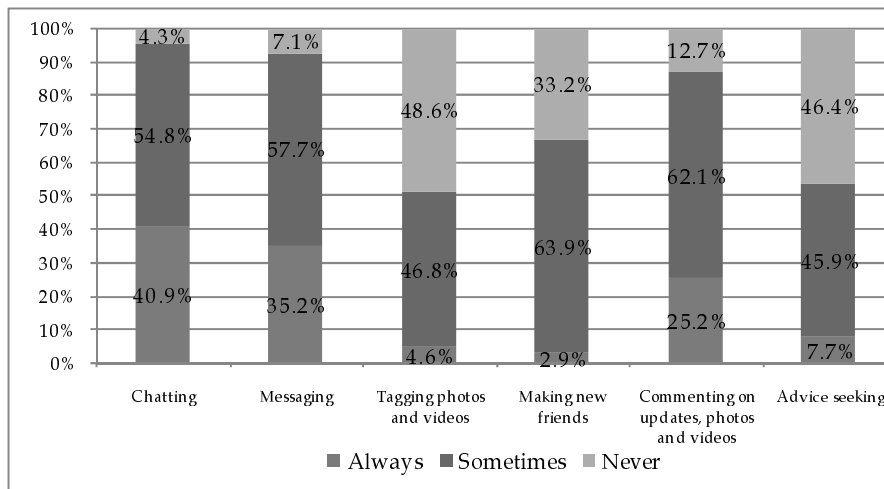
#### b. Social Connection Activities

Under this category of activities, chatting was the most performed activity with 180 respondents reporting that they always chatted. Messaging was the second most performed activity with more than half of the respondents saying that they messaged sometimes when online. On the other hand, tagging photos and videos was the least performed activity as

### Exploring the Nature of Social Media Usage

maximum number of respondents said that they never tagged photos and videos. Advice seeking was the second least performed activity as majority of the users said that they never seek advice online. A very few users always performed the activity of making new friends while the majority of them sometimes made new friends on social media. As far as commenting on updates, photos and videos is concerned, majority of users reported commenting sometimes (Figure 3).

**Figure 3**  
**Frequency of Social Connection Activities**

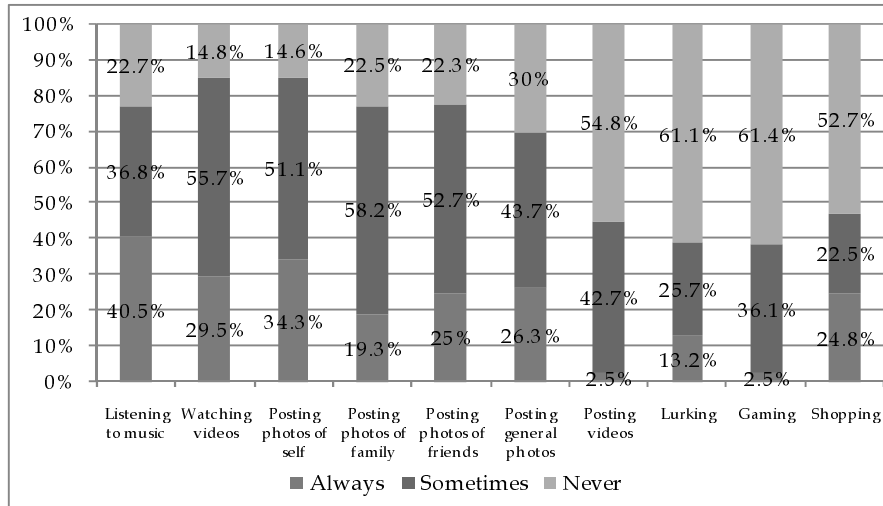


#### c. *Entertainment Activities*

In this category, listening to music was the most performed activity, with majority of users reporting that they always listen to music on social media. Gaming emerged as the least performed activity on social media as the highest percentage of respondents reported that they never played games on social media. Posting photos of self-emerged as the second most performed activity. Majority of users sometimes posted photos of family, friends and general photos like that of nature, events, etc. Respondents engaged in watching videos on social media more often in comparison to posting videos on social media. The activities of shopping and lurking were never performed by maximum number of respondents (Figure 4).

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Figure 4  
Frequency of Entertainment Activities



The finding of this section that information activities are the primary activities on social media, is contrary to the findings of Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe (2007) that social networking sites' members use it primarily to keep in touch with family and with old and new friends, which is a social connection activity. Raacke and Bonds-Raacke (2008) found that more than half of a sample of social networking sites' users reported using them to make new friends, while this section's findings show that a mere 2.9 per cent of respondents always use social media to make new friends. On the other hand, the finding of this section that maximum number of respondents use social media for following current happenings, finds support in Raacke and Bonds-Raacke (2008) who found that maximum respondents use social networking sites for learning about events. Tosun (2012) found entertainment activities to be a main motive of using social networking sites; this is in contradiction to the finding of this section that entertainment activities are the least performed activities of all.

From the theoretical point of view, the finding of this section that a mere 2.9 per cent of users always use social media to make new friends can be explained using the Social Exchange Theory which posits that human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis. If the exchange is perceived to be beneficial, then the individual is likely to enter into an exchange relationship. Applying this contention to the social media users, the decision to make a new online friend who is not known offline

### Exploring the Nature of Social Media Usage

involves huge cost in terms of compromising one's privacy, thus the users refrain from making new friends online very frequently. The Hyperpersonal Model proposes that CMC facilitates selective self-presentation and thus, one may transmit only those cues online that an individual desires others to have. This can be used to explain the finding of this section that users post photos of self-more frequently than they post the photos of family, friends and of general nature.

#### Amount of Social Media Usage and Nature of Social Media Usage

The amount of time one spends on various social media can impact the kind of activities one performs there, e.g. if the amount of usage of Facebook is high, it is quite possible that one performs more of social connection activities there since Facebook is majorly about keeping in touch or connecting with the people in one's friend list. Thus, it was hypothesised that:  
H<sub>a2</sub>: Amount and nature of social media usage are correlated.

Gamma was used to test the hypothesis and the results partially supported the hypothesis. The results revealed that of all the social media platforms, the amount of usage of Facebook, Wordpress, Twitter, YouTube, Instagram, Pinterest, WhatsApp and Skype was significantly correlated with the nature of usage (Table 1).

**Table 1**  
**Correlation between Amount of Usage & Nature of Usage**

Social Media Amount of Usage↓	Social Connection Activities	Information Activities	Entertainment Activities
Facebook Weekday Usage	Gamma=.810 p<.01	Gamma=-.025 p=.808	Gamma=.588 p<.01
Facebook Weekend Usage	Gamma=.578 p<.01	Gamma=-.379 p<.01	Gamma=.193 p=.066
Wordpress Weekday Usage	Gamma=1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01
Wordpress Weekend Usage	Gamma=1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01
Twitter Weekday Usage	Gamma=-1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01	*
Twitter Weekend Usage	Gamma=-1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01	*
YouTube Weekday Usage	Gamma=.276 p<.05	Gamma=.331 p<.05	Gamma=.394 p<.01
YouTube Weekend Usage	Gamma=.786 p<.01	Gamma=.404 p<.01	Gamma=.840 p<.01
Instagram Weekday Usage	Gamma=.614 p<.01	Gamma=-.091 p=.464	Gamma=.502 p<.01
Instagram Weekend Usage	Gamma=.256 p<.05	Gamma=-.061 p=.624	Gamma=.208 p=.115

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Social Media Amount of Usage↓	Social Connection Activities	Information Activities	Entertainment Activities
Pinterest Weekday Usage	Gamma=-1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p=.307	Gamma=-1 p<.01
Pinterest Weekend Usage	Gamma=-1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p=.307	Gamma=-1 p<.01
WhatsApp Weekday Usage	Gamma=.921 p<.01	Gamma=.325 p<.01	Gamma=.565 p<.01
WhatsApp Weekend Usage	Gamma=.896 p<.01	Gamma=.478 p<.01	Gamma=.902 p<.01
Skype Weekend Usage	Gamma=-1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01	Gamma=1 p<.01

(\*No statistics could be computed because Entertainment activities was a constant.)

**a) Amount of Social Networking Sites' Usage and Nature of Usage**

Among all the social networking sites, only the amount of usage of Facebook was correlated with the nature of usage. The weekday and weekend usage of Facebook were highly significantly positively correlated with social connection activities; more the hours spent using Facebook, more were the social connection activities performed. During weekday, 97.7 per cent (n=43) of high users and during weekend, 77 per cent (n=77) of high users were high performers of social connection activities.

The weekend usage of Facebook was highly significantly negatively correlated with information activities. The more the respondents spent time using Facebook, the lesser they performed information activities and vice-versa. While 70.2 per cent (n=160) of low users were high performers of information activities, a comparatively low percentage of high users (55 per cent, n=55) were high performers.

Weekday usage of Facebook was highly significantly positively correlated with entertainment activities. As the amount of Facebook weekday usage increased, the performance of entertainment activities also increased. 70.5 per cent (n=31) of high users as against 24.4 per cent (n=67) of low users were high performers of entertainment activities.

**b) Amount of Blog Hosting Platforms' Usage and Nature of Usage**

In the blogs' category, the usage of Wordpress was highly significantly correlated with nature of usage. The weekday as well as weekend usage of Wordpress had a perfect positive linear relationship with social connection activities. On both weekday and weekend, all the 11 high users came under the category of high performers of social connection activities.

Wordpress weekday and weekend usage had a perfect positive linear relationship with information activities; as the amount of Wordpress usage increased, the performance of information activities also increased. All

### Exploring the Nature of Social Media Usage

the 11 high users, both on weekday and weekend, were high performers of information activities.

As far as the entertainment activities are concerned, the weekday as well as weekend usage of Wordpress had a perfect positive linear relationship with them. Again, all the 11 high users, both on weekday and weekend, were high performers of entertainment activities.

c) *Amount of Microblog Platforms' Usage and Nature of Usage*

The amount of Twitter usage was highly significantly correlated with nature of usage except entertainment activities. There was perfect negative linear relationship between Twitter usage and social connection activities while Twitter usage was positively correlated with information activities.

High users of Twitter tend to be low performers of social connection activities and vice-versa. On both weekday and weekend, none of the high Twitter users were high performers of social connection activities.

An important finding was that in case of information activities, as the amount of Twitter usage went up, the performance of information activities also went up. On weekday as well as weekend, all the 19 users with moderate Twitter usage were high performers of information activities.

d) *Amount of Media Sharing Sites' Usage and Nature of Usage*

Under the Media Sharing Sites, the amount of usage of YouTube, Instagram and Pinterest were correlated with the nature of usage.

The weekday usage of YouTube was significantly correlated and weekend usage of YouTube was highly significantly correlated with social connection activities. The more the time spent on YouTube, the more the users indulged in social connection activities. During weekday, 70.7 per cent (n=53) of high users and during weekend, 77.6 per cent (n=76) of high users were high performers of social connection activities.

YouTube weekday usage and information activities were significantly correlated and YouTube weekend usage and information activities were highly significantly correlated. High users of YouTube tend to be high performers of information activities. 73.3 per cent (n=55) of high users on weekday and 79.6 per cent (n=78) of high users on weekend were in the category of high performers of information activities.

YouTube usage, both weekday and weekend, was highly significantly positively correlated with entertainment activities. An increase in the amount of YouTube usage resulted in an increase in the performance of entertainment activities. It was found that 69.3 per cent (n=52) of high

### Mann

users (weekday) and 76.5 per cent of high users (weekend) were high performers of entertainment activities.

Instagram weekday usage was significantly correlated and weekend usage was highly significantly with social connection activities. The high Instagram users tend to be high performers of social connection activities. All the 20 high users on weekday and 74.7 per cent (n=65) of high users on weekend reported to be high performers of social connection activities.

Weekday usage of Instagram was highly significantly correlated with entertainment activities while weekend usage was not correlated with entertainment activities. As the weekday usage of Instagram increased, the performance of entertainment activities also increased. All the 20 high users were high performers of entertainment activities.

Pinterest usage was correlated with social connection and entertainment activities but not with information activities. Pinterest weekday as well as weekend usage had a perfect negative linear relationship with social connection activities. High users of Pinterest tend to be low performers of social connection activities and vice-versa. During weekday as well as during weekend none of the high users were high performers of social connection activities, all the 23 high performers had low Pinterest usage.

Pinterest weekday as well as weekend usage had a perfect negative linear relationship with entertainment activities. High users of Pinterest tend to be low performers of entertainment activities and vice-versa as it was found that all the 23 high performers had low usage.

#### e) *Amount of Social Media Apps' Usage and Nature of Usage*

Among the social media apps, the amount of usage of WhatsApp and Skype were found to be correlated with the nature of usage.

Weekday as well as weekend usage of WhatsApp was highly significantly positively correlated with social connection activities. High users of WhatsApp tend to be high performers of social connection activities. 80 per cent (n=132) of high users (weekday) and 72.9 per cent (n=145) of high users (weekend) figured in the category of high performers of social connection activities.

WhatsApp weekday and weekend usage were also highly significantly correlated with information activities. High users of WhatsApp tend to be high performers of information activities. It was observed that during weekday, 54.5 per cent (n=90) of high users and during weekend, 55.8 per cent (n=111) of high users fell in the category of high performers of information activities.

### Exploring the Nature of Social Media Usage

There was significant positive correlation between WhatsApp (weekday and weekend) usage and entertainment activities. An increase in the amount of WhatsApp usage led to an increase in performance of entertainment activities. 46.7 per cent (n=77) of high users on weekday and 49.7 per cent (n=99) of high users on weekend were high performers of entertainment activities.

The weekend usage of Skype had a perfect negative linear relationship with social connection activities. The high performers of social connection activities consisted of only low users while all the 21 high users were moderate performers.

Skype weekend usage had a perfect positive linear relationship with information activities. All the 21 high users of Skype were high performers of information activities.

Skype weekend usage was also positively linearly correlated with entertainment activities. All the 21 users who spent 4 hours or more on Skype were high performers.

Ulusu (2010), in her study to find factors affecting the amount of time users spend on Facebook, found that networking, writing on wall, sharing photos, videos and music and entertainment activities were main Facebook usage factors. These findings are in consonance with the results of this section that both the weekday and weekend usage of Facebook are correlated with social connection activities and Facebook weekday usage is correlated with entertainment activities. Similarly, Hargittai and Hsieh (2010) found that more intense users of social networking sites engage in more social activities on social networking sites than those who spend less time on these sites. Rosentiel, Sonderman, Loker, Ivancin and Kjarval (2015) found news to be the primary activity engaged in on Twitter and showed that the use of Twitter increases how much news the users consume. This supports the finding of this section that Twitter usage and information activities are correlated.

According to the Social-Constructivist perspective, the patterns of media usage are not just the result of what technologies do to people, but also what individuals do with technologies. This perspective can be expanded to explain the findings of this section that the nature of social media usage is influenced by the amount of time users spend on social media. For example, if the users spent less time using Twitter they performed more of social connection activities and less of information activities. On the other hand, if the time spent on Twitter was high, the performance of information activities was high.



## Conclusion

With the proliferation of diverse kinds of social media catering to plethora of motives like getting information, entertaining oneself, staying connected, and so on, the social media users can perform a host of activities on social media. This paper tried to examine the nature of social media usage i.e. what users do on social media, which activities are the most performed on social media. Contrary to the common notion that social media is primarily used for activities promoting social connectivity, this study found that of the social connection activities, information activities and entertainment activities, information activities figured as the most performed activities on social media. This finding shows that cognition related activities tend to be the highly performed activities on social media and social connection activities are the second most performed activities. Across the three activities' categories, 'following current happenings' turned out to be the most performed activity. Under social connection activities, 'chatting' was the most performed activity and under entertainment activities, 'listening to music' was the most performed one. A look into the correlation between the amount of social media usage and nature of usage revealed that of all the social media, the amount of usage of Facebook, Wordpress, Twitter, YouTube, Instagram, Pinterest, WhatsApp and Skype was significantly correlated with the nature of usage.

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*Book Review*

**Creating, Building and Sustaining  
an Institution: A Momentous Journey of  
Institute of Public Enterprise**

R.K. Mishra and Geeta Potaraju

Academic Foundation, New Delhi/Manesar, Pages: 189, Price: Rs. 1,295  
ISBN 978-93-327-0561-6

**Anupama Dubey\***

The book 'Creating, Building, and Sustaining an Institution: A Momentous Journey of Institute of Public Enterprise' by Prof. R.K. Mishra and Dr. Geeta reflects the difficult endeavour that serves the greater objective of elevating educational standards, hence aiding in societal transformation. Understanding the subtleties of how institutions could be formed, expanded, and scaled to serve the more diversified industrial and technology-led society is a yeoman service to the community that is served by the idea of documenting the trip in a book. The book describes the Institute of Public Enterprise's 50-year odyssey of relentless efforts to grow it into a formidable entity in seven enigmatic chapters (IPE).

The book captures the beginning stages of building top management leadership skills for Central, State, and Private Enterprises (CSPEs), laying

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### Dubey

the groundwork for diversification into social science research for creating infrastructure for larger research-based support to CSPEs, and capacity building by IPE with its expanded network and collaborations with industry forums and government agencies to promote innovation and value creation. Subsequently diversifying into consulting to strengthen reforms of CSPEs and other enterprises, including small and medium-sized businesses, at various levels. It described how difficult it was to garner support for funding its expanding operations, despite its evident effort.

IPE, as a forward-thinking institute, has not ceased its efforts to reform public sector firms in order to accelerate economic growth by means of industrial transformation, and it has also conceived of creating people competencies in company management. It started promoting management education. Since financial stability and transparency is the cornerstone of company growth and longevity, this initiative centred on it and established a common culture by developing worldwide connections to import global best practises in IPE development. The chapters provide guidance to the next generation of businesses on how to build resilience and stand tall in the face of adversity, based on the author's experience of enduring difficult times in the company's formative years.

Due to its active collaboration, the name of IPE began to reverberate in the halls of every institution of higher education in India as well as the nation's foremost research institutions. The chapter-by-chapter talks on the nuances of how the journey was made, the description of turns and twists along the road, and the solutions developed will be able to aid institutions seeking to expand their presence, as IPE did to become an iconic institution. It has been performing many functions. Providing technical assistance to CPSEs through MDPs and consulting, as well as preparing competent future leaders for these institutions through management education, have been the most significant.

The book is a valuable resource for policymakers, students, and business executives who are interested in catching up on leadership skills to establish the proper type of distinctiveness. Intriguingly, the first chapter describes how IPE evolved in 1964 with the goal of assisting the nation's efforts to provide quality and content of management at the top and middle levels for the benefit of CPSEs. Prof. Mishra has been connected with IPE since 1979 and has witnessed its four-phased growth, which is aptly described in the book, which will serve as an everlasting guide for institution formation. Prof. Mishra took over the helm of IPE in 2004 as the institute's leader, helping it to expand and branch out its activities across multiple

### Book Review

areas, while strengthening its relationships with worldwide institutions and think tanks, which earned IPE a strong reputation among its peer institutions.

IPE conducted more than 280 research projects on the operational complexities of CPSEs, as detailed in Chapter two of this book. It evaluates various sponsored research projects assigned to IPE depending on the quality of periodic research generated and published. IPE's research and publication competencies, in addition to its research collaboration with global institutes and renowned Indian research organisations, have made it a leader in peer-reviewed journals.

Institutional research and case studies to establish a reservoir of teaching inputs for the next generation of leaders have also been pursued assiduously on occasion. In partnership with ICSSR, it may create a robust network of its own peer-reviewed research journals. Quality research output and ICSSR recognition resulted in the awarding of 95 Ph.Ds. employing IPE research competency and resources, and the institution could host post-doctoral fellows working on CPSE reforms. Consequently, it has become a precursor to research specialisation, publications, and lecture series.

Chapter three describes the trials and tribulations associated with diversification into the launch of Management Development Programmes (MDPs), training, skill building, industry-led tactical trainings, and short- and medium-term training programmes for capacity building in CPSEs and associated entities. Seminars, conferences, workshops, and symposia, policy debates, discussions, and brainstorming sessions of CPSEs to handle and resolve industrial issues characterised the institute's well-received capacity building programmes. Holding phased advanced leadership programmes resulted in rapid collaborations with several Asian nations, thereby establishing IPE as a global institute capable of imparting training in industrial company leadership. IPE quickly became a centre for the development of human capital not just for Indian businesses, but also for neighbouring South Asian economies.

The focus of Chapter four is on how IPE utilises its research and training experience to give firms with short-term and long-term answers to difficulties that arise in their operations. Consulting work began on a minor scale as early as 1971, but quickly rose to prominence as IPE specialists helped CPSEs handle their operational challenges. Soon, a number of states and central organisations reached out to IPE for assistance with skill development and leadership programmes and other consulting tasks.

### Dubey

The fifth chapter describes how IPE's multitasking style propelled it to diversify into the management education stream in order to deliver an endless supply of talent to CPSEs. 1978 saw the beginning of the PGDEM programme, which finally transformed IPE into a management education centre of excellence with various streams of PGDM programmes, NBA accreditation, and a high NIRF ranking.

Soon, IPE became a sought-after brand as a B-School with a reputation for producing "industry-ready" individuals to assume varied functions. The rigour of its inputs, curriculum, and pedagogy prompted numerous firms to provide placements, summer internships, and projects, indicating that IPE became a consistent source of talent for businesses. Soon, the number of students enrolled in various specialisations surpassed 550, resulting in the production of industry-ready specialists.

The sixth chapter examines how the institution could marshal its resources to achieve financial stability and grow IPE from its infancy to its present stature as a robust and diversified institution. Prudence, financial discipline, budgetary rigour, and optimising resources to produce value have been the guiding principles throughout the institution's transformation into a multifunctional entity. Grants, allocations, the establishment of construction funds, and support flowed at various times in accordance with the mission and capacity for permanent value creation.

Subsequently, these modest steps culminated in self-financing mode to ensure sustainability and financial independence. Transparency, a standardised accounting system, and saving every resource instilled confidence in the institution-building process among the stakeholders. The fee structure, operating expenditures, staff compensation, and staff perks were well-aligned with the institution's internal benchmarking systems, preserving the quality of instructional inputs and allowing the number of students to expand in proportion to the institution's resources.

The commitment and quality of deliverables were perfect in order to elevate the standard for performance in order to win and maintain market reputation. Consequently, IPE became one of the leaders in management education. The financial planning has always been precise, open, and accommodating to institutions.

The book concludes creatively with a seventh chapter that depicts not only the continuing philosophy, values, and culture of IPE ingrained in every aspect of its functioning, but also how the future will unfold for the 50-year-old institute poised to serve a higher purpose in the government's liberalised new educational policy.

### **Book Review**

The new campus was designed with the requirements of the next generation and their long-term goals in mind. In developing a learning ecosystem and acting as an incubation centre for young students, quality education is supported by rigorous research, publications, consulting, innovation, networking, and establishing global standards. The authors believe that IPE has just recently begun to take shape due to the efforts of prominent intellectuals from the past five decades. What has been materialised thus far is merely a sample of what will eventually serve businesses and higher education.

The authors have contributed their expertise in such a way that the reader will be carried from chapter to chapter like a fiction of a success story that was artistically shaped by IPE with the meticulous guidance and handiwork of numerous notable leaders, whose contributions are fondly acknowledged in the book at appropriate places. To pay homage to the arduous commitment of these diligent leaders in developing IPE, its foundation has already been laid with physical infrastructure and management education standards that can be scaled to accommodate future demands. This book provides a guidance for the next generation of educationists on how to scale up institutions of higher education in order to produce talent and future leaders. The book should be a prized treasure for all ardent educationists, present and future, students, instructors, researchers, administrators, and advocates for public policy.

# Instructions to Authors

## Manuscript Submission

Madhya Pradesh Journal of Social Sciences (MPJSS) welcomes research papers for dissemination of original research, analytical papers, and papers based on literature review on any aspects of social sciences. Research papers should be submitted electronically to the Editor, MPJSS at [mpjssujain@gmail.com](mailto:mpjssujain@gmail.com).

## Review System

Every research paper will be reviewed by masked reviewers. The Editor reserves the right to reject any manuscript as unsuitable for publication, keeping in view the required level of logical argument, the topic of relevance and citation style of the submitted paper without requesting for external review.

## Basic Format of the Manuscript

Contributors must include their affiliations, and postal and e-mail address with their papers and book reviews. Research papers should be written in MS word (1.5 spaced) format ranging between 4000 to 5000 words. It must be accompanied by an abstract of 100 words and necessary keywords. MPJSS accepts reviews of scholarly books on social sciences (1500-2000 words).

## Spellings and Numerical Usages

Use British spellings in all cases instead of American spellings (hence 'programme' not 'program', 'labour' not 'labor'). Use 's' spelling instead of 'z' spelling (hence 'organise' not 'organize'). Use figures to express all numbers 10 and above. Spell out numbers lower than 10, however for exact measurement, use only figures (3 km, 9 percent not %)

## Quotation, Notes, Tables, and Figures

Use a single quote throughout. Double quotes are only to be used within single quotes. Spellings of words in quotations should not be changed. Quotations of 45 words or more should be indented from the text. MPJSS uses endnotes in the place of footnotes. Endnotes should be numbered serially and presented at the end of the paper. We advocate minimum usage of tables and figures. However, all the tables and figures should be numbered and their sources should be mentioned clearly below the tables and figures.

## In-text Citations (As per APA, 7th Edition)

(Deshpande, 1998, p. 151); (Bhattacharya & Jairath, 2012, pp. 50-66); (Massey et al., 1993) [for three or more authors]; (Anonymous, 1998); (Gupta, 2020; Sharma, 2018)

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Singh, M. A. (2016). Narendra Modi and Northeast India: Development, insurgency and illegal migration. *Journal of Asian Public Policy*, 9(2), 112-127.

## **M.P. Institute of Social Science Research Ujjain - 456010 (M.P.)**

The M.P. Institute of Social Science Research (MPISSR) is an autonomous, multi-disciplinary centre for research and training of Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR), Ministry of Education, Government of India, and Department of Higher Education, Government of Madhya Pradesh.

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