

## **Law relating to sexual Harassment at the workplace: A case study of small scale Industries in Chandigarh and Mohali**

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### **Abstract**

In India, the problem of indecent harassment is increasing at an alarming rate, particularly among female workers & employees at workplace. Our fundamental rights to equality, justice and dignity are being hampered at workplace. The problem of indecent harassment of women at workplace leads to harsh consequences i.e. it destroys their work performance and progress, ultimately resulting in frustration and absenteeism and it also affects work environment. Since, indecent harassment at workplace creates an insecure and hostile work environment, women's right to equality, life and liberty are violated, which in turn affects and economic empowerment. The main objective of this research paper is to understand the problem of indecent harassment, legal approach for prevention, and it also includes certain recommendations with respect to the role of Government and judiciary in curbing the menace and to sensitize the people against indecent activities, gestures & postures and also to promote education and awareness among the workers & employees.

The article describes the development of an Indecent Harassment Experience Questionnaire which measures the women's experiences of indecent harassment at the small scale units with special reference to Mohali & Chandigarh. Questionnaire may be useful for increasing understanding of the experiences of indecent harassment faced by women in small scale units.

**Key Words:** Indecent Harassment of Women, Fundamental rights, Tackling, Legal Approach, Remedies.

### **Introduction**

Fundamental rights allows us to do any work for both of the genders, i.e. men or a women, Our constitution gives equal opportunity for both compartments of the society, i.e. men & women. But still there are certain problems faced by men and women during the working. These problems relate to indecent contact by co-worker(s), superiors, boss, and employer or sometimes by Clients or Customers. Most of the time, the employer insults their employees, let down the self-respect of the employees, generate pressure to share a cup of tea at \* unfavourable times and threatens their job and working conditions. As a result of

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\* Supreme Court of India passed an act on "sexual harassment" and all above mentioned problems are included in this act. "Sexual harassment" includes any one or more of the following unwelcome acts or behaviour (whether directly or by implication) namely:- (i) physical contact and advances; or (ii) a demand or request for sexual favours; or (iii) making sexually coloured remarks; or (iv) showing pornography; or (v) any other unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of sexual nature; (o) "workplace" includes:(i) any department, organisation, undertaking, establishment, enterprise, institution, branch or unit which is established, owned, controlled or wholly or substantially tenanted by funds provided directly or indirectly by the appropriate Government or the local authority or a Government company or a corporation or a co-operative society; (ii) any private sector organisation or a private venture, undertaking,

these problems, there arise many conflicts in the minds of the workers, leading to dissatisfaction among them. To tackle these problems, the Legislature of India has enacted certain laws. Hon'ble Supreme Court of India in the case of **Vishakha v. State of Rajasthan**<sup>†</sup>, has given a landmark judgment on "sexual harassment", wherein the Hon'ble Court has discussed all the above mentioned problems relating to indecent harassment.

### **Meaning of Sexual harassment**

Sexual harassment includes a wide range of behaviours, like rude jokes, physical contacts, showing pornography and other unwelcome physical conduct of sexual nature. Although the definition of sexual harassment varies country to country, a fairly comprehensive definition considers sexual harassment as "any unwelcome sexual advance, request for sexual favour, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature, or any other behaviour of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offense or humiliation to another.

Such harassment may be, but is not necessarily, of a form that interferes with work, is made a condition of employment, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment". Acts of sexual violence are always considered to be sexual harassment (as well as criminal acts). Suggestive jokes or insulting remarks directed at one sex may be considered sexual harassment in the legal sense, but not always, depending on context and frequency. And there is not a clear line between annoying courtship overtures and sexual harassment. Quantifying the severity of sexual harassment is even more challenging, as people react differently to objectively identical treatment. Furthermore, women tend to apply the term sexual harassment to more severe forms only, such as sexual violence.

### **Laws against Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace**

The Constitution of India provides equal status to women with men and women also have the right to life and personal liberty. It is our duty to respect them and to let them live with dignity but with the progress and development of society this evil offence is assuming new dimension with the passing of each day. In the era of modernization, working women are facing lots of problems related to their status, nature of job and sometime indecent touch by the superior etc, either knowingly or unknowingly. Most of the times, women remain silent because of their status-quo and conditions of the family. This economic dependence of women helps the male counter-parts, who by virtue of their status are placed in a superior position in this patriarchal social order, to exploit and harass women. Each such incident results in the violation of the fundamental right of women guaranteed under the Indian Constitution. But nobody seems to be in a position to take care of and to respect this provision and the menace is increasing at an alarming rate despite interference by the Supreme Court.

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enterprise, institution, establishment, society, trust, non-governmental organisation, unit or service provider carrying on commercial, professional, vocational, educational, entertain mental, industrial, health services or financial activities including production, supply, sale, distribution or service; (iii) hospitals or nursing homes; (iv) any sports institute, stadium, sports complex or competition or games venue. whether residential or not used for training, sports or other activities relating thereto; (v) Any place visited by the employee arising out of or during the course of employment including transportation provided by the employer for undertaking such Journey; (vi) A dwelling place or a house

<sup>†</sup> AIR 1997 SC 3011.

‡The apparatus for dealing with sexual harassment was first spelt out in 1997 in the so-called Vishakha Guidelines. Almost 16 years after the Supreme Court's landmark guidelines on prevention of sexual harassment at workplace (known as the "Vishaka Guidelines"), the legislature enacted The Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redressal) Act, 2013, that has endorsed many of the guidelines, and is a step towards codifying gender equality. The Act intends to include all women employees in its ambit, including those employed in the unorganized sector, as well as domestic workers. This Act has identifies sexual harassment as a violation of the fundamental rights of a woman i.e. right to equality under Articles 14 and 15 of the Constitution of India and her right to life and to live with dignity under Article 21 of the Constitution; as well as the right to practice any profession or to carry on any occupation, trade or business which includes a right to a safe environment free from sexual harassment. The Act also states that the protection against sexual harassment and the right to work with dignity are universally recognized human rights by international conventions and instruments such as Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women, which has been ratified on the 25th June, 1993 by the Government of India.

In 2013, The Criminal Law (Amendment) Act, introduced certain changes to the Indian Penal Code, making sexual harassment an expressed offence under Section 354-A, which is punishable up to three years of imprisonment or with fine or with both. The Amendment also introduced new sections making acts like disrobing a woman without consent, stalking and sexual acts by person in authority an offence.

**Objective:** To understanding the concept of indecent harassment.

**Pilot Study:** The recent changes in the Act of Sexual Harassment arose the misunderstanding. Most of the time, when young generation talks about the sexual harassment then, mostly women feel shy and avoid discussion on this problem due to the word 'sexual'. During the pilot study of questionnaire, most of the responses were 'No'. After that, some of the changes were made in the questionnaire and researcher replaced the word 'Sexual' to 'Indecent'. After this, the researcher found that there was lack of awareness about this law among the people.

### **Review of Literature**

**Stockdale (1996)** conducted a study and found that it was important to note that, while cases most frequently involve a woman harassed by a male peer or supervisor, harassment by a woman of a man, by a subordinate of a supervisor or by a person of the same sex are scenarios that occur and must be viewed as equally serious. Harassment perpetrated by a visiting consultant or by a collaborator on an employee is also possible and is an issue appropriately demanding management's attention. Further, sexual harassment can be a one-time occurrence of a serious nature or a behavioural pattern experienced over an

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‡ It was first in case of Vishakha and Others vs. State of Rajasthan and others, that Supreme Court declared sexual harassment at workplace to be unconstitutional. It was in the ruling for the first time, sexual harassment at workplace recognized as a violation of human rights. The Supreme Court laid outlined the guidelines making it mandatory for the employer to provide for a mechanism on gender equality. Sexual harassment is considered to be violation of Article 14, 15, 19(1) (g) and 21 of the Constitution. The atrocious gang rape of a social worker in Rajasthan in 1997 brought to the attention of the Supreme Court of India, the absence of domestic law occupying the field, to formulate effective measures to check the evil of sexual harassment of working women at all work place. The judgment is popularly known as Vishaka Judgement. In April 2013, India enacted its own law on sexual harassment in the workplace - The Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redressal) Act, 2013.

extended period. To be clearly understood, sexual harassment is probably best defined in terms of specific examples, all the more so in the context of cultural complexity.

**Britz, Elmarie (2007)** as stated in *The Perceptions of Employees Regarding Sexual Harassment in an Administrative Higher Educational Work Environment*. (Magister Short Dissertation), Business Administration, Johannesburg, South Africa, sexual harassment may take different forms. Several forms of sexual harassment exist, namely: • **Verbal** - Sexual innuendoes, suggestive comments, jokes of a sexual nature, sexual propositions or sexual threats. • **Non-Verbal** - Sexual suggestive objects or pictures, graphic commentaries, suggestive or insulting sounds, leering, whistling or obscene gestures. • **Physical** - Unwanted physical contact, including touching, pinching, brushing the body, coerced sexual intercourse or assault.

**Robbins and Coulter (2011)** contend that sexual harassment is not a problem in one country; "It is a global issue. For instance, the European Commission found that 30 to 50 percent of female employees in European Union countries had experienced some form of sexual harassment. Moreover, sexual harassment cases have been filed against employers in countries such as Japan, Australia, New Zealand, and Mexico". **Mondy and Mondy (2012)** concluded that "the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission fielded more than 13,867 charges of sexual harassment. From 1990 to 2009, the percentage of sexual harassment claims; filed by male employees have doubled from 8% to 16%. Awards to charging parties amounted to more than \$47.4 million, not counting monetary benefits obtained through litigation". In Egypt, 83 percent of Egyptian women and 98 percent of foreign women have been sexually harassed, but only 2 percent have reported it (El Shimi, 2011).

**Gatten (2012)** has looked for cases where sexual harassment has been brought before employment tribunals. "So far, he has not found a single case recorded of sexual harassment, but says tribunal judges often report hearing testimony of incidents during unfair dismissal of cases, which is never written down". Therefore, although there are scarce statistics about the subject, the Lebanese Ministry of Social Affairs revealed in 2007 that three complaints had been filed per week for sexual harassment and rape (Thomas, 2013, p. 210). Beside the huge amounts of financial losses, sexual harassment has many implications both on individuals and organizations alike. It shows a summary of such implications on organizations; while Exhibit 2 shows implications on individuals.

**Implications on organizations** • It decreases productivity and increases team conflict. • Decreases success and meeting of financial goals • Decreases job satisfaction • Sexual Harassment per missal can undermine ethical standards and discipline in the organization which will lead to disrespect and trust among employees and their seniors. • The image of the organization will suffer financially and reputation-wise when complainants take the issue to court. • Increases loss and absenteeism of staff members and expertise.

**Implications on individuals** • Decrease in work and/or school performance • Loss of career and income; dropping out of school • Personal life has been exposed to public viewers which could lead to depression, anxiety, shame and guilt and loss of motivation. • Humiliation and objectified by gossip and scrutiny • Loss of trust in the environment and people • Extreme stress upon relationship with others • Being discriminated from a work

place or school • Re-location to another surrounding • Loss of references and recommendations.

### **Primary Study**

A multi-stage random sampling technique was adopted to select the sample respondents. Under the multi-stage random sampling technique method, the selection of sample items depends upon the availability of the respondents. All the women and men who are working in small-scale manufacturing units in the major industrial areas of Mohali & Chandigarh have been considered as population for the purpose of study.

The data was drawn from the structured questionnaire to study the objectives and hypothesis in the region of Mohali & Chandigarh. Data collection instrument consisted of structured questionnaire. The primary data were collected by filling up the questionnaire by the workers and employees of selected small scale units.

### **Results**

#### **a) Profile of the Respondents**

Out of 200 respondents, most of the women were in the age-group of 20 to 40 years and about 69 % women were married and 20 % were unmarried and rest were separated.

Out of 200 about 20% of the working respondents were illiterate. Community wise distribution of respondents was SC (56%), ST (23%), and OBC (21%). Respondents of Advanced Communities were only 10% and rest belonged to un-advanced communities.

All 200 respondents were working in different type of organisations. About 28% women were working as labourers in construction industry, factories, large manufacturing units, small manufacturing units. The analysis of job status revealed that only about 6% of the respondents each were placed in managerial cadre and Supervisory cadre, 19% in clerical cadre, 33% in class IV cadre and 48% as labourers.

Out of 200 respondents about 62% had a feeling of safety and security at work place. Majority (about 60%) had good relations with their male co-workers.

When respondents (working women) perception of the nature of sexual harassment was inquired into it was revealed that majority of the respondents 51% described it as physical contact and advances of sexual nature while rest regarded it as request or demand for sexual favour which includes sexually coloured remarks, showing pornography, verbal and non-verbal sexual conduct and unwelcome physical conduct of sexual nature.

From the 200 respondents about 33% reported that they were victims of sexual harassment at work place. Out of these 33% victims, majority was from the age group of 18-23 years as against 7% in the age group of 38-43 years. Thus, the incidence of sexual harassment at work place was at higher rate in women of younger age group as compared to elder age group. Negative association was observed between the age of the women employees and the chances of their sexual harassment at work place. The incidence of sexual harassment at work place was observed at higher rate among the educated women as compared to uneducated one.

Out of 200 respondents of sexual harassment 43% were graduates or post-graduates, 28% were S.S.C. or H.S.S.C. passed, 10% were educated up to primary or middle school level and 19% were illiterate. This study revealed that women with lower educational qualification run a higher risk of sexual harassment at work place. It was also observed that



the incidence of sexual harassment at work place was at higher rate in married women as compared to other categories like unmarried, widows, divorced and separated. It is because of the fact that flirting with married women is treated safe by the perpetrators.

Out of 200 respondents, about 58% were married women. Nature of organisations / establishments and the work place also encourages or discourages the intentions of perpetrators to harass women employees. Women employed in factories, construction industries, agricultural operations are more prone to sexual harassment as compared to those working in offices. Co-workers 17% and immediate bosses (7%) were reported as the perpetrators of sexual harassment by maximum number of victims. The victims of sexual harassment at work place reported that 22% neglected, 7% raise objection, and tolerated (about 2%) the first attempt of the perpetrators to sexually abuse them. Thus, maximum number of respondents does not create any voice against sexual harassment at the first incident, later on which turned to be an encouragement for further harassment.

Out of 200 respondents of harassment only 41% stated that co-workers present at the time of harassment intervened and came down for their help. However, when it came to produce evidence against the offender's only 43% co-workers who had intervened came forward to produce evidence against the offenders, the rest refused to do so any help.

The immediate reaction to sexual harassment at work place was reported in different forms by the victims i.e. anger (33%), nervousness and helplessness (19% each), and trauma (3%).

Only 21% out of 200 victims of sexual harassment openly spoke about the incidents of sexual harassment to their friends, co-workers or higher authorities to seek their guidance and advice. A majority of 32% of them were advised to simply give a strong warning to the offenders, around 24% each were asked to lodge a complaint with higher authorities, and 15% were asked to report the matter to police. In about 29% of the cases the victims were asked to neglect the perpetrator and his behaviour totally.

Out of all victims, only 24% filed written complaint to the higher authorities. Out of these, higher authorities did not take any action against the perpetrators in 5% of the cases and only strong warning was given to the perpetrators in 50% of the cases. Nearly 24% of the victims were not satisfied with the action taken by the higher authorities against the perpetrators. Only 25% of the respondents were aware of the guidelines issued by the Hon'Supreme Court in respect of sexual harassment of women at work place. Out of these 43% respondents, stated that a Complaints Committee was constituted in their establishments as per guideline of the Supreme Court. Most of these respondents were from organised sector in urban areas only.

### **Suggestions**

1. The employers have, apart from legal, a moral responsibility to protect the rights, interests and dignity of women employed in their establishments. The study team would like to recommend certain steps to be taken by the employers to ensure that every woman employee in the establishment gets due security and protection so that her dignity as woman is not tarnished in any way. Every employer must, therefore, design and strictly implement.

2. Sexual Harassment Prevention and Control Policy must be made public and each employee should be provided a copy thereof at the time of his / her appointment.
3. There is a sufficiently large number of NGOs working in the field of empowerment and welfare of women. They have long experience in the field and have earned good reputation. Such NGOs should be involved in the preventive activities related to sexual harassment of women at work places. They should also be provided with sufficient funds to carry out these activities.
4. Sex education should be included in the curriculum of school and college education so that the youngsters are acquainted with the possible consequences of sex abuse.
5. There should be no objection if the women employees are social and mix freely with the male members of the team at work place. However, they should keep restraint on their behaviour pattern so as to avoid the possibility of sexual harassment at work place.
6. Government should be active in the Industrial zone and the Government should organize seminars, workshops, awareness camps and similar other programs for the labourers, unskilled as well as skilled workers.
7. Educational institutes and the Government should make joint efforts to make the people aware about sexual harassment and the laws relating its prevention.

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## **Political Exclusion of Scheduled Castes Village Panchayat Presidents of Tamil Nadu – A Study**

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### **Abstract**

Political exclusion is a process whereby certain groups are pushed to the margins of decision making and prevented from participating in the political process of the state by virtue of their poverty, low education, and caste or by default of their origin. An individual is politically excluded when he or she does not participate in the key activities of the government at the different levels in which he or she being a member of the system. Discriminations against Scheduled Castes groups' takes place in the form of physical, psychological, emotional and cultural abuse that receives legitimacy from the social structure and the social system. The elected representatives, especially Grassroots leaders, are also facing the discriminations at the grassroots level and they are not able to discharge constitutionally defined duties and responsibilities due to the fact that they belong to scheduled castes. Though many constitutional safeguards measures are enacted for the socio-political development of Scheduled Castes the ground realities are different. The available empirical evidence shows that Scheduled Castes people are not able to enjoy those constitutional rights because of systematic exclusion of SC from participating in the political discourse of the state, especially at the Panchayat Raj Institutions level. The main aim of the article is to examine the nature and patterns of political exclusion of scheduled castes, especially the grassroots leaders, in the state of Tamil Nadu.

**Keywords:** Exclusion, Scheduled Castes, Political Rights, Caste discrimination, Gram Sabha

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### **Introduction**

Historically communities and societies are given out in the process of mainstream development either on their own because of their inability to contend with others or by the design of the dominant segments of the company who established hegemonic control over others. The excluded communities had been continuously struggling for equality and equity with others. An array of steps had been taken by the state to equalize the opportunities through affirmative action's and yet communities are not able to come up and over a period of time it was argued that institutions and organizations which were created for governance and administration continuously excluded and subjugated by certain segments of the society in the process of governance and development.

Steps are being taken by the state to liberate the oppressed from the clutches of the dominant groups and include the communities in the mainstream development and

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governance process. It is believed that all the institutional mechanisms have got highest potentials to address the problems of disparities and marginalization.

### **Scheduled Castes in Tamil Nadu**

In Tamil Nadu as per 2011 census 107.12 lakh (19.18%) people belong to SC, 5.74 lakh (1.037%) belong to ST and 63.2 percent are literate among the Scheduled Castes. Of the total SC population, 22.9 percent are living in the rural areas. While looking at the all India map Tamil Nadu has the sixth biggest concentration of Scheduled Castes population. It is interesting to note that only 11 percent of SC population in Tamil Nadu owned land. Only 1.5 percent of the Scheduled Castes are having more than 10 acres of land. It is estimated that there are 1600 castes are available throughout India of which 76 caste groups are available in Tamil Nadu. When compared with other caste groups the Scheduled Castes people are in the lowest position in the social order. It is interesting to note that even among the Scheduled Castes there are three subdivisions are existing in Tamil Nadu. For instance, 9 percent people belong to Paraiyar, Devendrakula Vellalar account for 5 percent, and 3 percent belongs to Arundhathiyar, and rest constitute 2.18 percent.

As far as the communal situation is concerned, Tamil Nadu is by and large very peaceful when compared with rest of India. However, the state had also witnessed caste and communal clashes leading to the killing of innocent people, especially the SC. For instance, 47 Scheduled Castes workers were killed; later caste clashes took place in the 1980s in northern parts of Tamil Nadu. The same type of clashes took place in southern Tamil Nadu in the 1990s. There were sporadic events which provoked Scheduled Castes to mobilize themselves in order to protect their socio-political rights. In their struggle to protect their socio-political rights Scheduled Castes could not advance an expected base on the strength of the population of Scheduled Castes in Tamil Nadu. Though their struggle is on they could not achieve much as other backward caste<sup>1</sup>.

### **Political Safeguards**

Reservation of seats for SCs/STs in the local bodies of the States/UTs, Legislative Assemblies of the State and in Parliament are provided in the Constitution of India as follows:

Article 243 (D) Reservation of seats:- (1) Seats shall be reserved for (a) the Scheduled Castes; and (b) the Scheduled Tribes in every Panchayat and the number of seats so reserved shall bear, as nearly as may be, the same proportion to the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in that Panchayat as the population of the Scheduled Castes in that Panchayat area or of the Scheduled Tribes in that Panchayat area bears to the total population of that area and such seats may be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a Panchayat.

Not less than one-third of the total number of seats reserved under clause (1) shall be reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes or, as may be the Scheduled Tribes. The one-third (for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes) of the total number of seats to be filled by direct election in every Panchayat shall be reserved for women and such seats may be allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a Panchayat<sup>2</sup>.

### **Impediments to Political Empowerment**

The elected representatives at local bodies more particularly the village panchayats presidents from the Scheduled Castes community face an array of problems and difficulties in the village. Conditions are still worse for the elected Scheduled Castes women representatives. But the mandate of the 73rd amendment to the constitution of India is to work for economic development and social justice. Fifteen years have gone after the establishment of Panchayati Raj what is the conditions of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Castes representatives at the PRI level is so pathetic.

Tamil Nadu is known for social reforms movements conducted by E.V. Ramasamy Periyar for a longer period to remove the untouchability. The political party's descended from the Dravidian movement of E.V.Ramasamy Periyar due to the fact that they failed to protect the SC population from socio-political inequality. Apart from mainstream Dravidian political parties there are Scheduled Castes political outfits in Tamil Nadu politics. For instance, the Dalit Panthers of India (DPI), Puthiya Tamizhagam (PT) etc., were formed primarily to protect and promote the socio-political rights of the SC people of the state. Apart from Scheduled Castes political parties, the left parties had also working equally for the protection of political rights of SC in Tamil Nadu.

However, the presence of both Dravidian parties and parties supported by SC population failed to protect the constitutional rights of the marginalized groups at the grassroots level. For instance, in Erode district Chennimalai block Pasavapatti village Panchayat president had accused that she faced discrimination continuously in the village because she belongs to SC. She was not allowed sit in the chair provided for Panchayat president. Subsequently, beneficiary selection for all government schemes had been done deviously and she was forced to sign the documents as dictated by the vice president, belong to another upper caste, in many parts of the district. The list prepared by them was not proper or not compliance with the rules and regulations. Even while finalizing the old age pension beneficiaries, the ineligible persons were also included in the list.

In another case, Kalaimani, an SC woman, village panchayats president of Karu Vadatheru panchayats was also allegedly prevented from hoisting the national flag during Republic day. She was not permitted by the vice president to hoist the tricolor national flag. She lodged a complaint in the police station and submitted a petition to the district collector<sup>3</sup>.

### **The situation in Namakkal District**

The authors of the article have conducted an empirical study in the district of Namakkal. A structured interview schedule was prepared and the interview was conducted among the presidents of reserved village panchayats in the month of April 2018. Further, the study was conducted in Namakkal, Rasipuram, Tiruchengodu, Paramathi Vellore, Kolli Hills taluks of Namakkal district. More importantly, the study was also conducted among Scheduled Tribes panchayat presidents of Kolli Hills<sup>4</sup>.

Initially, with a lot of hesitations, the respondents, elected village panchayat presidents, revealed their experience when they were heading the PRI posts as president of the village panchayats. The problems faced by the reserved village panchayat presidents are briefly summarised below:

- i. Prevented from filing nomination papers at the time of Panchayat elections.

- ii. If they succeeded in filing nomination papers, they were not allowed to campaign.
- iii. Creating violence during the campaign period.
- iv. Not allowed to campaign in an- Scheduled Castes residential areas.
- v. Malpractices or resorting to violence on the day of polling.
- vi. If the scheduled castes candidates won in the elections, they were forced to resign post soon after assuming the powers.
- vii. Not allowed to function or discharge constitutionally defined duties.
- viii. Government officials had also discriminated the elected SC presidents.
- ix. Ill-treatment by vice- president and other ward members belong to upper castes.
- x. Not allowed to sit in the chair during the time of Grama Sabha meeting<sup>5</sup>.

The presidents were confronted with several rights violations in which they themselves became the victims. Gender equalities, caste discrimination, feeling of insecurity, a threat to life from land mafias and caste groups while managing common village resources especially land, water, and other natural resources. Legal advice had become imperative for them in today's scenario, particularly after the implementation of the National Rural Employment Guarantee scheme in villages. Lack of knowledge had also allowed vested elements within the offices of Panchayat to take the upper hand and exploit the presidents particularly women and Scheduled Castes. Naturally, those who have violated existing rules and regulations are liable for punishments under section 206 of Tamil Nadu Panchayat Act, which empowered the district collector to remove the panchayat presidents from the post.

It is worthwhile to note that some of the districts, for instance, Madurai, Sivagangai, Dindugal, Viruthunagar, Theni, Erode, Namakkal etc., the elected Scheduled castes panchayats were not allowed to function independently. They never allowed taking any vital decisions independently and if they refused to obey the orders they were insulted humiliated and harassed to accept the decisions of the majority dominant community of the village<sup>6</sup>.

S. Palraj, elected president of the Nakkalamuthanpatti village panchayat in Tirunelveli district in Tamil Nadu, said that "he has undergone a lot of pains, insults, humiliations etc. when he was heading the panchayat chief position. In another case, Jakkaiyan was murdered on November 22, 2006, for choosing to ignore the diktats of persons belonging to the dominant caste in running the local administration. Scheduled Castes organizations point out that Palraj was allegedly threatened that he would meet the same fate if he tried to function independently. Palraj is one of the 3,136 Scheduled Castes panchayat presidents elected in the local bodies elections held in the state in October 2011. Many others like him had also face different forms of caste-based discriminations in the state of Tamil Nadu.

As the available evidence shows that, in many places, the village committee, headed by caste Hindus, sponsored the Scheduled Caste candidates with poor socio-economic backgrounds, such as landless agricultural workers, for the post of president in reserved panchayats while retaining for themselves the post of vice- president. This has resulted in elected functionaries virtually becoming "*benamis*" of the upper castes and they mutely accepted the diktats of the dominant community. In most of these cases, the elected

panchayat chiefs depend on the land-owning class for their livelihood. Even the slightest attempt on the part of the Scheduled Castes panchayat presidents to assert themselves is not tolerated. In some cases, the dominant caste groups have not hesitated to get rid of the Scheduled Castes panchayat chiefs who dared to function independently.

Murugesan, a young president of Melavalavu panchayat in Madurai district, was hacked to death along with five other Scheduled Castes in 1997. Menaka, a Scheduled Castes woman panchayat chief of Urappakkam in Kancheepuram district, was murdered on the panchayat office premises in 2000. R. Purushothaman, president of Mannivakkam panchayat on the outskirts of Chennai, was killed on September 24, 2012. A 10-member fact-finding team comprising, among others, V. Karuppan, State convener of the National Campaign for Scheduled Castes Human Rights, O. Fernandes of the Human Rights Advocacy and Research Foundation, and M. Bharathan, director of the Tirunelveli-based Human Rights-Kalam, submitted a detailed memorandum to the Tamil Nadu government on March 16, 2007, highlighting the travails of Scheduled Castes panchayat presidents<sup>7</sup>.

In certain places, for instance, L. Kottanipatti in Madurai district, Scheduled Castes panchayat chief was denied access to official records. They are not allowed to perform their due role in taking decisions pertaining to development works of their panchayats. Most often they sat on the floor and remained mute spectators to the discussions held by the elected representatives belonging to the dominant castes. In several cases, Scheduled Castes panchayat presidents sign cheques and other records in the possession of the vice-presidents without a murmur. At several places, they are prevented from conducting gram sabha meetings also. Thazhiyuthu, a reserved panchayat, earned notoriety for not allowing the Scheduled Caste woman president to convene the gram sabha meeting. The worst affected are women presidents of the reserved village panchayats<sup>8</sup>.

It is important to note here, initially, the political exclusion of SC at the PRI took place in very few districts of Tamil Nadu but now this unhealthy practice is gradually penetrated into many districts of Tamil Nadu. The SCs are constitutionally included in the mainstream affairs of the state but the ground reality shows that they are socially and politically excluded and are not able to enjoy or exercise constitutionally define duties and responsibilities which ultimately paved a way for generating political and social discontent among the SC people of the state.

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## **Feminism in Post Independent Indian Writing in English**

**Sanjeev Kumar (PGT English) \***

### **Abstract**

Twentieth century has witnessed a growing awareness among women regarding their desires, sexuality, self-definition, existence and destiny. Women's efforts to seek their independence and self-identity started a revolution all over the world which was termed by analysts and critics as 'Feminism'. Although the feminists and feminist writers have been successful in achieving the legal rights for women, yet much has to be done at the social level. Different countries having different religions and cultural mores have a new tale to recite about the plight of the modern women, their dilemmas and conflicts, and their efforts to achieve self-identity and independence.

Education had inculcated a sense of individuality amongst women and had aroused an interest in their human rights. Feminism in Indian Literature as well as the broader perspective of feminism in India, is not a singular theoretical point of reference, it has metamorphosed with time maintaining proportion with historical and cultural realities, levels of consciousness, perceptions and actions of individual women and women in mass. But the contemporary writers are still striving to provide liberation to the female world from the debilitating socio-cultural constraints and oppressive myths of their respective countries. Feminist writers in India today proudly uphold their causes of 'womanhood', through their write-ups. However, the journey from self-effacement to self-actualization is yet to be covered.

Throughout the world, women have been deprived of their basic socio-legal rights by a patriarchal order. In the domain of patriarchal culture, woman is a social construct, a site on which masculine meanings get spoken and masculine desires enacted. The factor which changes a girl into a woman with finality is not simply her anatomy, but the process of social conditioning which influences and moulds her psyche to desire and pursue traditionally accepted and encouraged feminine roles only. To change the conventional image of women constructed by the orthodox society it is necessary to discourage the habit of defining woman as an essence whose nature is determined biologically and whose sole identity is to produce human species. Twentieth century has witnessed a growing awareness among women regarding their desires, sexuality, self-definition, existence and destiny. Women's efforts to seek their independence and self-identity started a revolution all over the world which was termed by analysts and critics as 'Feminism'.

Feminism in Indian literature, as can be most commonly conceived is a much sublime and over-the-top concept, which is most subtly handled under restricted circumstances. With advancement of time, however, feminism has been accepted in India, setting aside the patriarchal predominance to certain extent. Yet, prior to comprehending a more intense look into feminist literature in India, it is necessary to grasp the essential concept of the

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term `feminism` in the country`s context, beginning from its inception. The history of feminism in India can be looked at as principally a "practical effort".

In post-Independent India, the educated New Woman with economic independence and a search for identity does not belong totally to either of the two former categories - Brahmavadini or Sadyobadhu (the former denoting the ascetic kind in quest of truth, knowledge and spiritual pursuits, which sacrifices life for the society and the second category denoting the domestic woman, the daughter, wife and mother who dedicates herself to the welfare of the family. The images of woman in society and in Indian literature in the past and present mostly belong to the second category). She belongs to a fresh category, more down to earth, more human.

The not-unusual "heterogeneity of Indian experience" reveals that there exists multiple leveled patriarchies and so also there exists multiple level feminisms. Hence, feminism in Indian literature as well as the broader perspective of feminism in India is not a singular theoretical point of reference; it has metamorphosed with time maintaining proportion with historical and cultural realities, levels of consciousness, perceptions and actions of individual women and women in mass. Feminist writers in India today proudly uphold their cause of `womanhood`, through their write-ups. The literary field is most bold to present feminism in Indian literature in the hands of writers like Amrita Pritam (Punjabi), Kusum Ansal (Hindi) and Sarojini Sahoo (Oriya), who count amongst the most distinguished writers, making a link between sexuality and feminism and writing for the idea "a woman`s body, a woman`s right" in Indian languages. Rajeshwari Sunder Rajan, Leela Kasturi, Sharmila Rege and Vidyut Bhagat are some other group of essayists and critics, who write in passionate favour of feminism in Indian English literature.

With the attainment of independence various reforms were made by the government to ensure development in the country. Soon, a new sphere of literature appeared where the writers wrote on themes projecting the miseries and complexities of human lives and concentrating on individual predicament. The mid- 1950`s and 1960`s mark the second important stage of Indian English writing, when writers like Arun Joshi, Anita Desai, Kamala Markandaya, Ruth Praver Jhabvala , Shobha De, and Nayantara Sahagal came out with their works that changed the face of Indian English novel. They have opened up a new vista of human nature and man-woman relationship. The problems discussed in their novels are individual, rather than universal. These writers have projected the inner psychological turmoil of human beings surviving in different sections of the society.

Shobha De portrays women who, while in quest of self-identity, lose their morality. Her female characters are modern, educated, glamorous, ambitious, and money-minded and have thirst for physical gratification. Her characters do not possess any moral or ethical values the Indian psyche normally associates with marriage. Her themes propagate the dilution of family ties by women in order to accommodate themselves in better social positions. Though she takes up some problems related with the lives of women, she fails to suggest any substantial or relevant solutions to them. Her novels present a very small section of contemporary society. It can also be mentioned that feminism which was propagated as a revolution to grant equal rights to women in India, is now being influenced by the feministic concepts of western culture. According to the western feminists, women

should attain their individuality within or without the family, whereas Indian women want to seek their individuality while remaining within the institution of marriage. This difference in the temperament of Indian and western women nullifies the adaptation of western feministic ideology in India. Writers like Shobha De represent a small section of Indian women who get misguided and carried away by their emotional undulations and end their marital knots with no regrets.

Anita Desai has portrayed the tyrannies, torture and violence faced by women in Indian society. Most of her women characters lack the spirit of viewing life with optimism and fail to overcome their existing traumas and apprehensions. Maya in *Cry, the Peacock* is unable to understand her husband who has a practical approach towards life. Raka in *Fire on the Mountain* is a product of a broken marriage who has witnessed the violent attitude of her father towards her mother. Monisha in *Voices in the City* commits suicide as she finds no way out of the monotony of her life. Anita Desai has also projected the pathetic condition of Indian widows through her character Mira Mavshi in the novel *Clear Light of the Day*. Her women characters are feeble and engrossed in their pain, which inculcates in them a devious state of mind restricting them from initiating relevant and authentic changes in their lives. Her fiction does not talk about the emancipation of women either intellectually or morally. Her themes are not universal rather they talk about individual women and their emotional and psychological turmoil.

Anita Nair who is easily accepted as an efficient practitioner of the genre of fiction, depicts a vivid knowledge of South Indian culture, and has an eye for describing details. She mainly deals with man-woman relationship and moves from tender compassion to sensuality, to raging hatred, and is a compelling story-teller. Her attempt to exhibit the plight, fears, dilemmas, contradictions and ambitions of her women characters is remarkable. She is a feminist with a difference. She depicts the real women not the ideal.

In this whole scenario the fiction of Shashi Deshpande comes as a fresh air, which not only propagates feminist ideas but also advises women to understand their naked selves. Deshpande's novels suggest that women should take cognizance of their weaknesses, overcome them and implement their potentials in order to assert their individuality. The themes dealt by Deshpande in her novels possess universality. They do not refer to a particular woman or a particular section of women in the society but are representative of Indian womanhood. She presents the true facet of the modern Indian society in her novels. Like Virginia Woolf, she feels that women should be allowed to utilize their talents, and simultaneously they should fulfill their duties towards their families. Like Betty Friedan, she too advocates that women should be equivalent to men and their existence should be noticed as human beings. Like Simone de Beauvoir she traces and exposes the limitations associated with a woman's life from her childhood to womanhood. Deshpande's feministic concerns are different from those of the other contemporary writers. She presents the new image of the Indian woman who wants to be a wife, mother and daughter, and simultaneously desires to achieve her individuality. Deshpande's novels define the concept of feminism within the context of Indian social milieu.

Ruth Praver Jhabwala and another contemporary Indo-English novelist, has given us a glimpse of Indian society in which men hold the place of master and women of slave. The

feminine traits inculcated in women force them to unquestioningly submit to their male counterparts. Has given us a glimpse of Indian society in which men hold the place of master and women of slave. The feminine traits inculcated in women force them to unquestioningly submit to their male counterparts.

Kamala Markandaya is one of those contemporary writers who have tried to define the pathetic condition of Indian women by raising some feminist issues. She talks about women trapped in their poverty like Rukmani in *Nectar in a Sieve* and Nalini in *A Handful of Rice*, whereas in *The Golden Honeycomb* she has written about women belonging to rich families. Unlike Anita Desai and Ruth Praver Jhabwala, she points out that the crux of all prevailing problems of women is their financial dependence. Her women characters refuse to treat men as oracles. Her novels take up some feminist issues and provide a new, strengthened and independent image of women. Unlike other writers, she not only criticises the deplorable the status of women, but also wants to guide and encourage them to transcend it.

To conclude we can say that in Indian writing feminism has been used as a modest attempt for evaluating the real social scenario as women are concerned. There are several novels in English literature of India that actually portrays the actual status of the women in Indian Societies. However, the modern aged women have realized that they are equally competent like the men and they are not helpless unlike the past when men were considered as the sole bread earners, in today's age, women too have become direct money earners of any household.

They are ready to expose the splendour and beauty of the world in which they live and have a better role to play than remaining mere spectators within the four walls of the house. The men who thought they were superior to women have now recognized the potentialities of women; women are not just spectators but partners and coworkers.. Today's contemporary Indian English novelists are writing for the masses using the theme of feminism, which not only interests the readers but also affects them. Feminism does not particularly talk of equality and rights of women but it is more about compassion respect and understanding from the male counterparts. The main cause for the dissatisfaction of the women in today's society is the superior attitude of the men throughout, the women have suffered in silence and feminism talks exactly about that Indian English novelists have frankly highlighted this concept.

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## **Status of Elementary Education Among the Lodhas of Mayurbhanj District**

**Dr Manoj Kumar Pradhan \***

### **Abstract**

The lives of tribes always remain an alluring matter for the social scientists. Tribes in India are of various categories spreading over different inaccessible pockets. Education of tribes is an emerging area of research. The investigator makes a novel attempt to study the educational backwardness of a less intervened and researched tribal community named Lodha. People have different myths about this community. The researcher studied the status of the primary education relating only to the reasons of absenteeism in school and drop-out from school. It is a very sad matter that in spite of spending a huge amount of money by the government on primary education its benefits are not utilized by this Lodha community. The causes are many. In this present study the author has highlighted on these issues. At the end he has also suggested some recommendations.

### **Introduction**

Tribes of India are most backward in each and every aspect of life including education. They mostly live in geographically isolated places adjacent to forests, hills and mountains. Since long they have been depending upon natural resources for maintaining their lives. They generally do not want to mainstream themselves with the society. They want to remain happy with their culture and tradition. However, since the implementation of National Policy on Education (1986) and subsequently Programme of Action (1992), the national government as well as the state governments has been mostly focusing on the formal education of the tribes. These deliberate attempts along with the reservation for the tribes (scheduled castes), have made a change in the status of tribes.

Odisha and especially Mayurbhanj district is mostly dominated by tribes. Tribes like Santhals, Kolhas etc. have come forward and been benefited by the developmental programmes of the government including education. But a small tribal community named Lodha in Mayurbhanj has not responded well in comparison to other tribal communities of the district. So it is important here to study the status of elementary education in Lodhas. Then only, some remedies can be suggested for overcoming the obstacles in the way of getting education by Lodhas.

### **Statement of Problem**

The Lodhas are less intervened tribes whose educational status remained unknown for long time. They predominately live in Suliapada, Morada and Rasgovindpur Blocks of Mayurbhanj district apart from their high density in the adjacent state of West Bengal. The Lodhas are found to live in separate hamlets of a multi caste village. But it is common to see that most of the Lodha villages are situated inside the dense forests which are difficult

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to access. They are also generally perceived by other community as a criminal community. So there is a general apathetic attitude for this community. It is a small tribe having a total population of 5,088 (2011 census report). Having influenced by a variety of ethnographic factors of this wonderful community, the investigator wanted to study the status of elementary education of this community.

Some anthropological studies have been conducted on Lodhas. P. K. Bhowmick (1983) studies about Lodhas of West Bengal and Odisha. S. C. Mohanty (2004) described the socio-cultural life of Lodhas in Odisha in the book "Tribes of Orissa". A. B. Ota, et. al (2008) analysed the demographic and health situation of Lodhas. The studies are mainly anthropological and there is no reporting on the educational status of Lodhas. So the present study is a novel one to highlight the status of education (here elementary education only) of Lodhas, so that some remedies could be suggested for the further improvement of their education.

### **Objectives of the Study**

1. To study the educational status of Lodha children in general.
2. To study the enrolment status of Lodha children in the local lower and upper primary schools.
3. To study the causes of absenteeism and drop out in case of Lodha children.
4. To study the infrastructural development and facilities of the schools along with the mid-day meal and other incentives (dress, reading materials etc.)
5. To study about the socio-cultural and economic barriers to primary education.

### **Methodology**

The Lodha dominated villages from Suliapada and Morada Blocks of Mayurbhanj district of Odisha state were selected for the purpose of data collection. It is a fact that result of a big sample is more accurate. But this is not always true. In case of the present study, the universe is a primitive tribe i. e Lodha. They are truly a homogenous group confined to the mountain and forest pockets of Mayurbhanj. Therefore, the results of this study can be taken as representative of the entire Lodhas of this district. Observation method, especially participant observation was followed to get the idea about socio-cultural and economic activities of the community. Various tools like structured and open interview and observation schedules were used for collection of data about problems of attending elementary school from the parents, teachers, leaders of the Lodha community and officials in charge of tribal education. Besides this, some open-ended questions were also put to the respondents to know the personal opinion about some required facts. During data collection, the following people were also contacted and interviewed.

- i. Teachers of village schools
- ii. Block Education Officers of Morada and Suliapada Block
- iii. District Tribal Welfare Officer, Mayurbhanj, Special Officer of Lodha Development Agency, Morada
- iv. Parents of the village under study
- v. Members of the Village Education Committee

**Fidings**

The investigator, for the purpose of identifying the cases of absenteeism and drop out among the Lodha children, examined the enrolment register of the concerned schools for a period of three years i. e. from 2011 to 2014.

**Summary of the Table showing the Enrolment and Drop out Pattern of the Schools in Lodha Area**

Sl. No	Name of the Schools	Students enrolled(2011-2014) from class I to IV			Drop out for the said period		Total No of Drop outs	Total per cent of drop outs
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female		
1.	Chikitamatia Educational Complex (A Girls School)	-	760	760	-	157(20.65%)	157	20.65
2.	Tiasi Primary School	220	65	285	63(28.63%)	14(21.53%)	77	27.01
3.	Gadigan Nodal School	77	18	95	10(12.98%)	2(11.11%)	12	12.63%
4.	Handibhanga Primary School	98	21	119	11(11.22%)	4(19.04%)	15	12.60%
5.	Bhadrasole Primary School	81	27	108	9(11.11%)	3(11.11%)	12	11.11%
6.	Bhatchatar Primary School	78	24	102	11(14.10%)	4(16.66%)	15	14.70%
7.	Gadabandha Primary School	84	27	111	30(35.71%)	25(92.59%)	55	49.54%
8.	Purnachandrapur Primary School	114	104	218	19(16.66%)	20(19.23%)	39	17.88%
9.	Kudei Primary School	152	87	239	32(21.05%)	19(21.83%)	51	21.33%

The above table is self explanatory. The enrolment and drop out case of the school where the children of Lodha community read, is alarming. In Gadabandha School almost 50 per cent students drop out from class I to V. The most common reasons of low enrolment and high dropout rate are attributed to the lack of interest among the parents to send their

children to schools as revealed by the parents themselves in interview and through the interaction with local villagers. Other causes like extreme poverty of the Lodha community, alcoholic habits of male members in the family are obstacles in the way of education. These are discussed below in detail.

### **Reasons for Absenteeism and Drop-out**

Absenteeism refers to a regular or irregular absence for a considerable period of time from the school whereas drop outs are those who leave the school and discontinue because of certain reasons. There are some specific and general reasons cited as causes for this which is detailed below.

#### **A. Specific Reasons**

This includes the reasons like specific socio cultural traditions of the people that hinder the process of education of the Lodhas to the greatest extent.

##### **i. Compulsion for collection of Forest Produce**

The Lodhas, either nomadic or settled, always prefer to venture into the forests for the collection of minor forest produces. Settled inhabitants have not yet been able to modify their way of life so far. Therefore, collection of minor forest produces most often compelled them to remain away from the home throughout the day. This may cause severe absenteeism leading to drop out.

##### **ii. Engagement in Household Activities**

Lodha boys and girls are more often expected to help their parents in domestic activities of various types like sweeping, cooking, fetching water, collecting fodder and firewood etc. These compel them to stay out of home.

##### **iii. Caring of Sibling**

When parents go to forest, the elderly children are assigned with the responsibility of taking care of the younger ones till the parents come back. Such responsibilities are most usual in the daily life of Lodha children which do not allow them to join school.

##### **iv. Absence due to Cow herding**

Some Lodha children in the villages are engaged in cow herding in view of earning livelihood. They usually herd cows for agricultural purpose.

##### **v. Teasing by Classmates**

Usually Lodhas occupy a very low position in the social hierarchy of the locality. Because of high drinking practice and poor economic condition, they are looked down upon by the higher tribes/caste children in the school. As a result, they dislike continuing the education.

##### **vi. Fear of Punishment**

Lodha children are very shy in nature. They maintain a low profile in school and in most cases do not come up in the educational process. When teachers punish them for bad or poor performances, they fear and terribly shocked. It provokes them against accepting education.

##### **vii. Failure in the Class**

Because of so many cultural and economic drawbacks when a Lodha child fails in the class, he/she feels psychological depression and strictly avoids the school. Sometimes conflicts with classmates and friends also lead to discontinuity in the school.

**viii. Long distance of the School**

Lodhas mostly prefer to stay in between a peasant village and forest both for the forest collection activities and selling them in the peasant villages. As a result of this, they stay nearer to the forest. When the school is not near to them, they feel hesitated to attend the school.

**ix. Lack of Peer to accompany**

Location of the school at a distance sometimes causes a very unusual problem like this to occur. If a good number of children are proceeding every day, their togetherness makes each one comfortable to attend the school. Lack of peer to accompany the Lodha child to the school may dissuade the child from attending the school.

**B. General Reasons**

Such reasons are most common to Lodhas as well as to all other non Lodha communities. They may be covering infrastructural, curricular, political, reading materials etc. Here is some mentioning about these reasons.

**i. Engagement in Remunerative Work**

It happens equally well with the Lodha and all other children. As most of the people in tribal areas are poor, for all of them, engagement in a remunerative work gets utmost priority. Schooling is strictly discarded.

**ii. Lack of Interest**

This is a very common cause of drop out fitting equally to Lodha and all other children.

**iii. Inability to understand the Transaction of the Classroom**

Lack of interest is mostly connected to inability of a child to understand different subjects in the class. When the parents are illiterates, and do not encourage the children for their studies at home, children fall into a precarious situation. They could not clarify their doubts either in the class or at home which finally lead to no interest and discontinuity.

**iv. Lack of Incentives**

Now a days in all the primary schools in tribal areas, incentives like mid-day meal, provision of uniform dress and reading materials have been made. But sometimes, they do not reach or partially reach the children that ultimately lead to discontinuity.

**v. Prolonged Illness**

Most of the tribal areas are malaria and diarrhea prone. Children most often suffer from illness because of which they remain absent for a prolonged period and drop the education.

**vi. Mismatching of Holidays with Tribal Rituals**

Culture to a particular community is unique. When school holidays do not match with the local festivals and rituals of Lodha children, they feel disappointed which ultimately leads to discontinuity and drop out.

**vii. Teachers' Irregularity and Absence**

Generally in most tribal areas and especially in Lodha habitation areas, most often teachers neglect their duties. Their irregularity and absence automatically helps in absenteeism and drop out. Lack of supervision of the higher authorities in such interior pockets augments drop out cases.



**viii. Lack of Light at Home**

Most of the Lodha houses lack space and light for which reading in the evening is an impossible task. Poor Lodhas also cannot afford to use kerosene lamp because of which education of their children is severely threatened causing drop out.

**ix. Indifferent Attitude and Lack of Awareness of the Parents**

As found in the survey, the investigator found that Lodha parents are quite indifferent and apathetic to school education. As they themselves are illiterates, they are not aware of the benefits of education. This may be a major cause of absenteeism and drop out especially in Lodha situation.

**x. Medium of Instruction**

Lodha children do not feel comfortable with Odia speaking teachers. It did not encourage them to go for schooling. In some areas tribal language teachers have been appointed but not in Lodha inhabited areas.

**xi. Not appointing Local Teachers**

In almost all Lodha areas, the schools do not have local teachers. The teachers from far off place do not come in time and quite irregular. Such undesirable situations impose negative impact on the education of the children.

**xii. Superiority and Dominance of Hindu/Odia Children**

In most of the schools where Lodha children are enrolled, odia speaking Hindu children usually dominate because of which the Lodha children do not feel comfortable. As already mentioned earlier, the presence of Santhals and other dominating tribal community children also pose a similar problem for the Lodha children. It has indirect impact on the education of the Lodha children causing absenteeism and drop out.

The investigator mostly focused on the reasons of absenteeism and drop out. After finding out the above stated reasons, some recommendations were also suggested by him.

**Recommendations**

The following suggestions have been suggested by the investigator.

- i.** Proper and specific development programmes must be implemented to change the economic condition of Lodhas.
- ii.** Appropriate incentives and programmes must be implemented to make the Lodha community self sufficient so that it would not have an adverse impact on their education.
- iii.** School holidays of the local schools in the Lodha areas must have a proper matching with the local and regional festivals which may reduce the absenteeism to a considerable extent.
- iv.** Awareness by the NGOs and other bodies should be created to remove the superstitious beliefs of Lodhas.
- v.** Steps must be taken to motivate the Lodha male members to give up drinking.
- vi.** Teachers should be sensitive towards these children and dedicated to their profession. They should work in a missionary zeal.
- vii.** Steps should be taken to appoint teachers speaking the language of Lodhas.

Besides the above, the government and other non government bodies should work intensively for education of the Lodha children.

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## **WOMEN AND HEALTH**

**Dr. M.P.Baligar \***

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Three basic considerations impel the greater recognition of health of ageing women as a major health and development issue for the future:

- . The numbers of ageing women are increasing Worldwide;
- . Women's life course beyond age 50 extends for a significant period and is increasing everywhere in the world; and
- . There is a very significant scope for improving the health of ageing women and thus ensuring that they remain recourse for their families and communities.

### **Most ageing women are living in the developing regions of the World**

Currently, more than half of the world's women aged 60 years and over are living in developing regions, 198 million compared with 135 million in the developed regions. And the percentage of older women living in developing regions will grow dramatically in the future, since two-thirds of the women in the age group 45-49 currently live in developing countries as compared with only one third in the developed countries.

### **There are significant differences in life expectancy of women and men**

In the developed nations of the world, women live on average six to eight years longer than the men. Life expectancy for women now exceeds 80 years in at least 35 countries and is approaching this threshold in several other countries. However, the life expectancy of women in countries at different levels of development is markedly different, ranging from just over 50 years in the least developed countries through the 60s and 70s in those undergoing rapid economic development.

But life expectancy at birth alone can be misleading the duration of women's lives in developing countries. For women in developing countries who survive the early lifespan stages to reach middle age, life expectancy approaches that of women in developed countries. At age 65, women in developing countries now have about three quarters of the remaining life expectancy of their counterparts in developed countries, and the gap will narrow in the future as morality steadily declines at younger ages.

### **Longer Lives are not necessarily healthier lives**

Since the likelihood of disability increases with age, it is hardly surprising that national surveys reveal increasing numbers of disabled women among the older populations. In a few developed countries, however, recent data reveals that the rates of disability among the older population are steadily declining. The available data, on the other hand, is still insufficient to assess the real extent of disability among the world's older women. The term "healthy life expectancy" has been developed to describe the number of years one can expect to live in relatively good health. Healthy life expectancy is not necessarily life expectancy free of disease. Rather, the concept of healthy life expectancy as normally used refers to life expectancy without limitation of functions that may be the consequence of one or more chronic conditions.

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More than forty five countries now have estimates of healthy life expectancy. One general conclusion is warranted based on these studies: women can generally expect to spend more years of their lives with some functional limitations than men. This is valid for developing as well as developed countries. Among the types of disability, mobility disability, in particular walking disability, is currently acknowledged as one of the most important quality of life and public health concerns of older women. Slow walking speed is a risk factor for falls and other accidents, resulting in fractures, further disability and loss of independence. In developing countries, losing the ability to walk may be associated with even greater risks of adverse outcomes as walking is often the most common means of transportation. While older women may suffer more functional limitations than men, it is inaccurate to say that older women are generally frail.

It must be emphasized that the vast majority of older women and men are in generally good health, especially during the "young old" ages. Recent studies in developed countries have shown that the prevalence of disability for both women and men to be less than 10percent for persons aged 70 to 74, and then rising to slightly more than 20percent among those aged 85 and over and in developed countries, the rates of nursing home use are generally very low for persons under the age of 80. But with more and more women reaching 80plus there is concern about the quality of their extended lives. There are powerful economic, social, political and cultural determinants which influence how women age, with far-reaching consequences for health and quality of life, as well as costs to the health care systems. For example, poverty at older ages often reflects poor economic status earlier in life and is a determinant of health at all stages of life. Countries that have data on poverty by age and sex (mostly the developed countries) show that older women are more likely to be poor than older men. But in many developing countries there are often simply no reliable data on poverty tabulated by sex and age. Poverty is also linked to inadequate access to food and nutrition and the health of older women often reflects the cumulative impact of poor diets. For example, years of child bearing and sacrificing her own nutrition to that of the family can leave the older women with chronic anaemia.

Another determinant of health is education; levels of education and literacy among current cohorts of older women in developing countries are low.

Increased literacy for older women will bring health benefits for them and their families. Lack of safe drinking water, a gender-based division of domestic chores (including the carrying of water), environmental hazards, such as contact with polluted water, agricultural pesticides and indoor air pollution, all have a cumulative negative impact on the health of women as they age in many developing countries. Older women everywhere are far more likely to be widowed than older men and most women can expect widowhood to be a normal part of their adult daily lives. While most women adjust both emotionally and financially to their changed situation, traditional widowhood practices in some countries result in situations of violence and abuse and pose a serious threat to older women's health and well-being.

Widowhood is often being preceded by a period of care giving to the deceased spouse combined in many cases with care giving to dependent parents, grandchildren and other

dependent family members. Older women are an important source of care giving and such activities are most often unremunerated.

In many countries, access to health care is tied to coverage by national social security and health insurance systems which in turn are linked to employment in the formal sector of the economy. As much older women in developing countries have worked all of their lives in the informal sector or in unpaid activities, access to health care often remains unaffordable and difficult at best.

### **Gender-sensitive life course approach to older women's health**

Because the major preventable causes of morbidity and mortality all take effect over the life course, prevention strategies will be most effective when initiated as early in the life course as possible. For example, the health benefits of exercise and physical activities are well known and exercise should be promoted in all age groups from children to centenarians. Barriers for girls and women to exercise should be removed and culturally appropriate strategies for exercise should be put into place. This would help prevent functional dependence in old age and maintain mobility of older women at an adequate level for management of daily life.

Other modifiable risk factors associated with poor mobility in old age include smoking and deviance from normal weight. Cessation of smoking, promotion of exercise and improved diet are in fact primary prevention strategies for many causes of death and disability. In addition, it is of paramount importance that younger women have opportunity to build and maintain strong bones in order to maintain bone density and prevent osteoporosis at later ages.

Another example of preventable diseases is heart disease and stroke which are the major causes of death and disability in ageing women, accounting for close to 60% of all adult female deaths. The common view of heart disease and strokes as men's health problems has tended to overshadow the recognition of their significance for ageing women's health. Half of all deaths of women over 50 in developing countries are due to these conditions. Although communicable diseases are not yet fully controlled in these countries, they are no longer important causes of sickness and death in old age. For many types of cancer, particularly breast cancer and cervical cancer, early detection is the main strategy for prevention. For breast cancer early detection includes physical examination of the breasts by trained health workers, breast self examination and mammography. As general screening programmes by mammography are still far beyond the resources of developing countries, there is an urgent need to improve the effectiveness of breast self examinations strategies.

### **WHO's response to maintain the health of older women**

WHO's Ageing and Health Program (AHE) recognizes that gender is one of the major determinants of health. In addition to biological differences, a gender approach to health includes an analysis of how different social and economic roles, decision-making power and access to resources affect the health status of men and women at older ages. The AHE programme is committed to apply the gender perspective in all of its activities, notably in the areas of research, information dissemination, training, advocacy and policy development. Moreover, the programme promotes the concept of active ageing which



stresses that older people are a resource for their families and communities and that policies should be developed which enable older people to remain active for as long as possible in their later years. To facilitate the implementation of Active Ageing policies and strategies at all levels –national and community – gender sensitive guidelines and strategies are being developed. The AHE program works in close partnership with Governments, academic institutions and civil society organizations.

**Reference**

Sources: US Department of Health; The World Health Organization.

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## **Effectiveness of ICT Programme on Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) among Pre-service Teacher Educators**

**Prof. Hemantlata Sharma\***

**Dr. Leena Sharma\*\***

### **Abstract**

Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) is changing pace of teaching and learning by adding elements of vivacity to learning environments including virtual environments for the purpose. New technologies make it possible for intricate collaborative activities of teaching and learning by dividing it in space and time, with seamless connectivity between them. The beauty of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) lies in its capability to provide interminable stores of information. In present study the researcher has made an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of ICT Programme on Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) of Pre-service Teacher educators. For this purpose, the TPACK Scale by Schmidt et.al. 2009 was adapted in Indian conditions. A sample of 90 pre-service teacher educators studying in Haryana Institute of Education, Bahadurgarh (Haryana) participated in the study. It has been found that ICT Programme positively affected the Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) of pre-service teacher educators. In this regard, Effect Size, Variable Importance and Decision Tree were also made.

**Keywords:** ICT Programme, TPACK, Pre-service Teacher Educators.

### **1. Introduction**

ICT is a generic term referring to technologies which are being used for collecting, storing, editing and passing on information in various forms. A personal computer is the best known example of the use of ICT in education, but the term multimedia is also commonly used. Multimedia can be expounded as a combination of data carriers, for example video, CD-ROM, floppy disc, internet and software in which the probability for an interactive approach is offered. ICT is used for communication between students and teachers, in which internet, laptops and simulation are being used and as a result, a variety of learning environments are possible. Teacher-centred and whole-class instruction is no longer the dominant teaching method.

The Office of Technology Assessment (1995) reported that only about 15% of the funds available to support technology integration in schools/ colleges were spent on teacher training and development. Another question about technology and teacher education that was not clearly answered in 1995 does seem answered today. It is whether what are now

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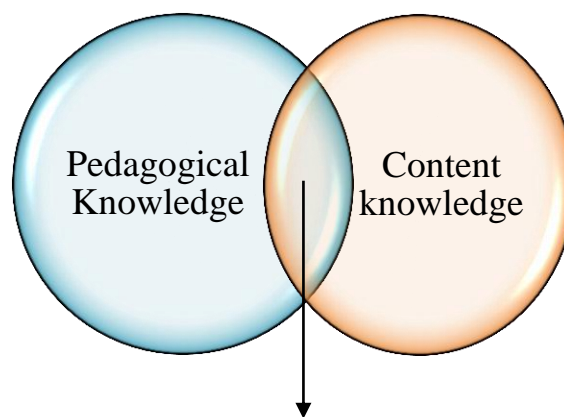
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called —one shot workshops are an effective way of providing teacher education and development on the integration of technology into the classroom. The answer is no, it is not. Traditional one-shot workshops rarely result in changes in classroom practice. These are the issues that must be answered when it comes to how teachers are to be prepared to inculcate technology into the learning experiences of their students. Valanides & Angle (2005) concluded that, “There is a general failure of teacher development programmes to adequately prepare teachers to integrate ICT in their teaching-learning. One of their explanations for that failure was the lack of a systematic framework to systematically guide teachers’ to integrate of ICT in teaching-learning. They nominated Shulman’s (1986) framework, PCK or Pedagogical Content Knowledge, as a way to answer what they consider to be one of the major root causes of the failure of teacher development efforts to support the infusion of technology into the classroom”.

### 1.2 Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) Model

The term Pedagogical Content knowledge (PCK) was putforward by Lee Shulman in his presidential address to the American Educational Research Association. “Pedagogical Content Knowledge represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular aspects of subject matter are organised, adapted and represented for instruction. Shulman argued that having knowledge of subject matter and general pedagogical strategies, though necessary, but were not sufficient for capturing the knowledge of good teachers. To characterize the complex ways in which the teachers think about how particular content should be taught, he supported the “pedagogical content knowledge” as the base that deals with the teaching process, including the ways representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others. If teachers wanted to be successful, they would have to confront themselves with both issues simultaneously, i.e. by embodying “the aspect of content most germane to its teaching ability” (Shulman, 1986).

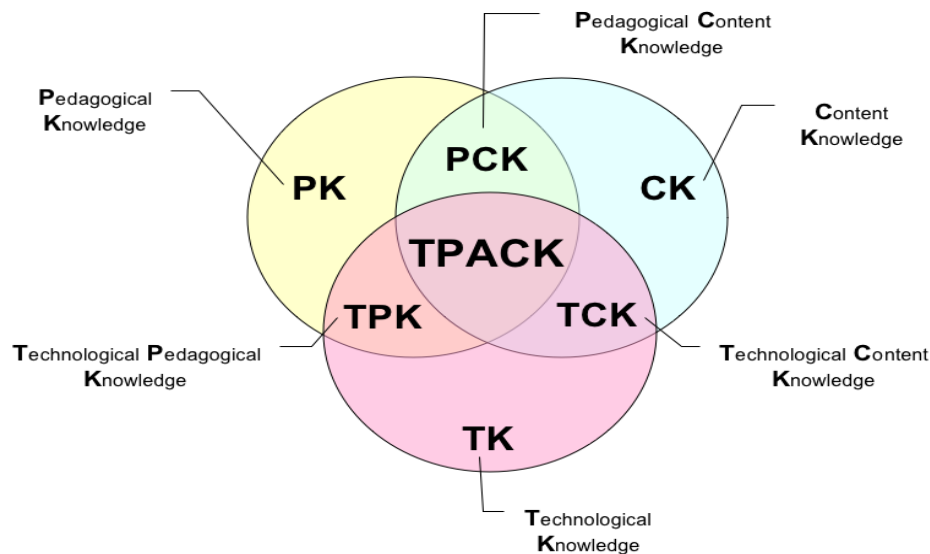


**Pedagogical Content Knowledge**

**Fig. 1**

Shulman’s PCK model has been examined, expanded, and elaborated by many scholars and practitioners since 1986. And, while all those contributions are important, we will focus here on one of them. It is the work of Mishra & Koehler (2006) on expanding PCK

to include another domain – the use of technology to support teaching-learning. The resulting model, Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) adds further complexity to the way we think about teaching, learning, and technology. It does that by adding another knowledge domain (Technological Knowledge or TK) to the basic model and also adding additional interactive relationships between the different core domains. Figure-2 is currently the most popular way of representing the model.



**Fig.-2**  
**TPACK Model**

“TPACK is a blooming form of knowledge that goes afar all three core components (Content, Pedagogy and Technology). TPACK is a mastery that matures from the interaction among the Content, Pedagogy and Technology Knowledge. TPACK is the basis of effective teaching with technology, requiring an understanding of the representation of concepts using technologies; pedagogical techniques that use technologies in constructive ways to teach content; knowledge of what makes concepts difficult or easy to learn and how technology can help redress some of the problems that students face; knowledge of students’ prior knowledge and theories of epistemology; and knowledge of how technologies can be used to build on existing knowledge to develop new epistemologies or strengthen old ones. Much of the model is represented in Figure 2 but there are also some very important assumptions of the model that are not represented in the figure. TPACK’s organization of knowledge domains teachers need to know into three core areas, three two-way knowledge domains and the multiple interactive domain of TPACK, is a very important contribution to our understanding of technology and teacher education. However, the underlying assumptions made by the developers of the model are also very important. There are three major assumptions and each of them has significant implications for the way we think about preparing teachers to use technology in their classroom.”(Koehler & Mishra, 2009)

### **1.3 Assumptions of TPACK Model**

- ❖ **Assumption 1:** Teaching is an ill-structured activity.
- ❖ **Assumption 2:** Digital technologies have unique characteristics.
- ❖ **Assumption 3:** Technologies are not neutral.

### **1.4 Components of TPACK Model**

**1. Technology Knowledge (TK)** is the Knowledge about certain ways of thinking about, and working with technology, tools and resources. This includes understanding information technology broadly enough to apply it productively at work and in everyday life. Also being able to recognize when information technology can assist or impede the achievement of a goal, and being able continually adapt to changes in information technology.

**2. Pedagogical Knowledge (PK)** is teacher's deep knowledge that includes the strategies, processes, practices and principles of teaching-learning, classroom management and organization in Education.

**3. Content Knowledge (CK)** is the amount of the actual knowledge and organization in the mind of the teacher.

**4. Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK)** is an understanding of how teaching and learning change when particular technologies are used. This includes knowing the pedagogical affordances and constraints of a range of technological tools and resources.

**5. Technological Content Knowledge (TCK)** is the knowledge of the presentation of technology and subject matter. This knowledge provides flexibility of use of the appropriate technologies for educational purposes.

**6. Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)** includes the understanding that provides the learning of both tough and easy subjects. It is the knowledge of different teaching methods for different subjects.

**7. Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK)** is the knowledge of the use of technology in various subjects and practicing teaching methods. This knowledge makes the learning of the subject for the student easier with appropriate pedagogy and technology. It is aimed to go beyond techno centrism to help teachers in creative thinking. It will be possible with the practice of TPACK, and helpful in bringing a new dimension to technology for educational purposes.

Formulating research objectives in an appropriate manner is one of the most important aspects of any study. This is because research objectives determine the scope, depth and overall direction of the research. Research objectives divide the aim into several parts and address each part separately. In order to achieve the aim 'Effectiveness of ICT Programme on Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) among Pre-service Teacher Educators' following objectives were framed which would facilitate the achievement of the research goal.

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

1. To compare the pre-test mean scores of control and experimental group with respect to their Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK).
2. To compare the post-test mean scores of control and experimental group with respect to their Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK).

3. To compare the mean gain scores of control and experimental group with respect to their Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK).

4. To find the Effect Size of ICT on Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) of pre-service teacher educators of both experimental (E) and control (C) group after experimental treatment.

5. To find Variable Importance of Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) of pre-service teacher educators after experimental treatment.

6. Development of Decision Tree and Interpretation of results of Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) of pre-service teacher educators after experimental treatment.

### **1.6 Hypotheses of the Study**

Synchronizing with above objectives following hypotheses was framed:

1. There exists no significance difference in pre-test mean scores of control and experimental group with respect to their Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK).

2. There exists no significance difference in post-test mean scores of control and experimental group with respect to their Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK).

3. There exists no significance difference in mean gain scores of control and experimental group with respect to their Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK).

## **2. Methodology**

**2.1 Method of Research:** The investigator used **Experimental Method** of research to conduct this study.

**2.2 Design of the Study:** In the present study, **Non Randomized Control Group Pre-test Post-test Quasi Experimental Design** was used with a purposive sample in the form of intact sections of B.Ed. class of the same college of Education.

**2.3 Variables Involved:** The dependent variables or the criterion variables for this study is Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK). **Information and Communication (ICT) Programme named ICT-Enabled Instructional Package (ICT-EIP)** is independent variable, which is being manipulated to study its effect on Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK).

**2.4 Population and Sample:** In the present study Pre-service Teacher Educators of Jhajjar district studying in Teacher Training Institutes will constitute the population.

In the present study 90 pre-service teacher educators (45 in control group and 45 in experimental group) studying in two sections of Haryana Institute of Education, Bahadurgarh (Haryana) were taken as sample.

**2.5 Tools Used:** Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) Scale (Schdimit et. al., 2009) was adapted in Indian conditions by the researcher. First of all items relating to the 7 sub domains were framed. The initial draft contained 61 items. It was administered on a sub sample of 110 pre service teacher educators. On the basis of Item Analysis and expert opinion 03 items were rejected and the suggestions were incorporated accordingly. The draft now contained 58 items. The scale was then exposed to a sample of



400 pre-service teachers. After Item-Total Correlation and Exploratory Factor Analysis 03 more items were deleted. The final selected set contained 55 items.

The final draft of the scale was administered to 400 pre-service teacher educators selected from Rohtak and Jhajjar district of Haryana by following random purposive Sampling technique. Reliability Coefficient was calculated by Spearman Brown Split Half Method and Guttman Split Half Method. The coefficient of reliability in both the cases came out as 0.904. Coefficient of stability was calculated by Test-Retest method. 100 pre service teacher educators were administered the TPACK scale again after a gap of 4 months. The coefficient of stability was found to be .992. For Internal Consistency, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated which was found to be .976. The Content and Face Validity of Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK) Scale was established by experts. Further, the factorial validity of the scale was also determined by Factor Analysis. The scale accounted for 52.904 % of the total variance with their Eigen Values being greater than unity.

**2.6 Statistical Techniques Used:** Mean, Median, SD, t-test were employed for analysis and interpretation of data.

**3. Results and Discussion**

**Objective- 1, 2 & 3 To Compare the Pre-test, Post-Test and Mean Gain Scores of Control and Experimental Group with respect to their Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK)**

To test the hypothesis that TPACK Scores of control group (M=15.33, SD= 1.040) and TPACK Scores of experimental group (M= 15.39, SD= 1.038) were equal before experimental treatment, a t-test was performed. Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of normally distributed difference of scores of TPACK was examined. All the assumptions were considered satisfied.

**Table-1: t-values for Pre-test, Post-Test and Mean Gain Scores of TPACK of Experimental and Control Group of Pre-service Teacher Educators**

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value	p-value (sig. Value)
<b>Objective-1 (Pre-test)</b>	<b>Total TPACK (C)</b>	45	15.33	1.040	1.054	.298
	<b>Total TPACK (E)</b>	45	15.39	1.038		
<b>Objective-2 (Post-test)</b>	<b>Total TPACK (C)</b>	45	15.08	1.1970	66.486	.000
	<b>Total TPACK (E)</b>	45	28.69	0.6891		
<b>Objective-3 (Mean-Gain)</b>	<b>Total TPACK (C)</b>	45	-.248569	1.8151044	58.052	.000
	<b>Total TPACK (E)</b>	45	13.290789	1.2370825		

It can also be noted from the above table that the  $t(44) = 1.054$ ,  $p > 0.05$ . Thus the null hypothesis that "There exists no significant difference between mean scores of TPACK of control and experimental group before experimental treatment." was retained. Which means the control and experimental group were same with respect to the TPACK scores before the experimental treatment. To test the hypothesis that TPACK scores of control group ( $M=15.08$ ,  $SD= 1.1970$ ) and TPACK scores of experimental group ( $M= 28.69$ ,  $SD= 0.6891$ ) were equal after experimental treatment, a t-test was performed. Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of normally distributed difference score was examined. All the assumptions were considered satisfied. It was also noted from the table that  $t(44) = 66.486$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . Thus the null hypothesis that "There exists no significant difference between TPACK scores of control and experimental group after experimental treatment" was rejected. Which means the control and experimental group differ significantly with respect to TPACK Score after experimental treatment? To test the hypothesis that mean gain scores of TPACK control group ( $M= -.2485$ ,  $SD=1.8151$ ) and TPACK experimental group ( $M= 13.290789$ ,  $SD= 1.2370$ ) were equal after experimental treatment, a t-test was performed. Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of normally distributed difference score was examined. All the assumptions were considered satisfied. It can also be noted from the table that  $t(44) = 58.052$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . Thus the null hypothesis that "There exists no significant difference between mean gain scores of TPACK of control and experimental group after experimental treatment" was rejected. It means the control and experimental group differ significantly with respect to mean gain scores of TPACK after experimental treatment.

The findings are supported by Cengiz (2014) who found that there exists a significant difference in the scores of overall TPACK of pre-service teacher educators. Chang, Tsai and Jang (2014) also revealed that science teachers' TPACK was statistically significant in relation to different types of ICT which includes multimedia most rather power point presentation alone. Hence teaching through ICT helped in achieving better than the control group. So, it can be safely concluded that teaching through ICT-EIP is more effective than conventional method of teaching with respect to different subjects. The study of Magen-Nagar & Ungar (2014) revealed the similar results that Information and Communication technology Knowledge is critical for sense of empowerment of TPACK. It is, therefore, recommended to continue the support for all ICT instructors, and to expand their personal knowledge about evolving ICT program. Hence it can be concluded that teaching through ICT is more effective in enhancing the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge of teacher educators.

#### **Objective-4 Effect Size of ICT-EIP on TPACK Scores of Experimental and Control Group of Pre-service Teacher Educators**

Effect Size is a straightforward method for measuring the difference between two groups that has much recompense over the utilization of some treatment of statistical significance alone. Effect size underlines the extent of the difference as contrary to significant difference only. It is easy to understand and comprehended and can be connected to any deliberate result in Education or Social Science. It is especially significant for evaluating the efficacy of a specific intervention (treatment), in respect to some experimentation.

Effect size is a standardized, scale free measure of the relative size of the impact of an intervention (treatment). Understandings of Effect size for the most part relies upon the suppositions that “control” and “experimental” group values are normally distributed. Cohen (1969) depicts an impact size of 0.2 as 'little'; an impact size of 0.5 is portrayed as "medium" and is 'sufficiently substantial to be noticeable to the bare eye'. Cohen further portrays an effect size of 0.8 or more noteworthy as ‘largely noticeable’ and hence magnanimous.

**Table-2: Effect Size of ICT-EIP on TPACK Scores of Experimental and Control Group of Pre-service Teacher Educators after Experimental Treatment**

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	d-value or Effect Size	Type of Effect
<b>Total TPACK (C)</b>	45	15.08	1.1970	9.911	Large
<b>Total TPACK (E)</b>	45	28.69	0.6891		

From the above table it is clear that the effect size is 9.911 which is large enough to be statistically and educationally significant as prescribed by Cohen, 1969. This is because the pre-service teacher educators in experimental group were exposed to ICT-EIP which in turn enhanced their TPACK.

**Objective-5 Variable Importance of TPACK of Pre-service Teacher Educators**

A data set can contain a large number of predictors. Some predictors are useful for predicting the response variable, and others are not. Variable importance is an indication of which predictors are most useful in predicting the response variable. The variable importance percentage reflects the contribution of each variable in predicting the target variable.

**Table-3: Variable Importance of TPACK of Pre-service Teacher Educators after Experimental Treatment**

Variable	R-square	Df	F-value	p-value	Variable Imp.
<b>Technological Knowledge</b>	0.387486	1	27.20253	<.0001	<b>38.75%</b>
<b>Pedagogical Content Knowledge</b>	0.210809	1	22.04106	<.0001	<b>21.08%</b>
<b>Content Knowledge</b>	0.135836	1	20.94744	<.0001	<b>13.58%</b>
<b>Technological, Pedagogical &amp; Content Knowledge</b>	0.102774	1	25.20586	<.0001	<b>10.28%</b>
<b>Technological Content Knowledge</b>	0.059848	1	22.60694	<.0001	<b>5.98%</b>
<b>Pedagogical Knowledge</b>	0.057197	1	26.3456	<.0001	<b>5.72%</b>
<b>Technological Pedagogical Knowledge</b>	0.04605	1	30.59439	<.0001	<b>4.61%</b>
<b>Total Technological, Pedagogical &amp; Content ledge</b>					<b>100%</b>

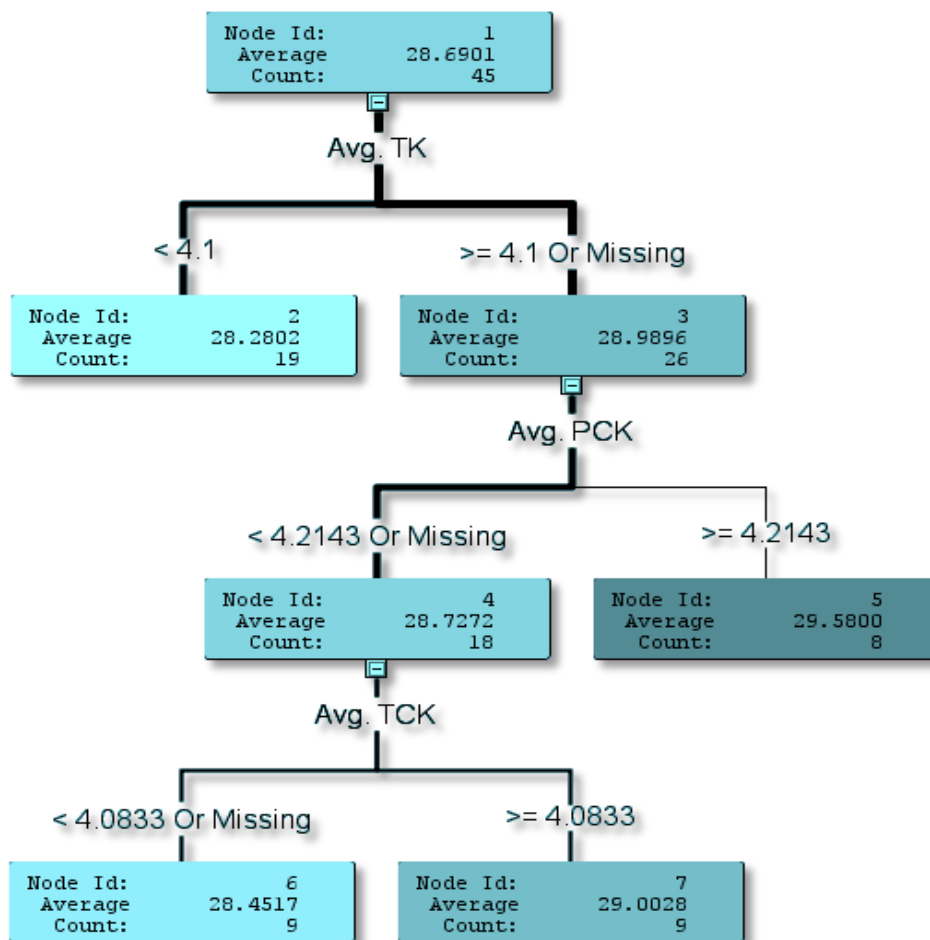
From above table, it is clear that Technological Knowledge (TK) is the most significant in predicting the Total TPACK (target variable). It has a variable importance of 38.75%. Also, it can be interpreted from the above table that Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (PK) is the least significant predictor of Total TPACK. The findings of the study are found in accordance with Alzahrani (2014). The variable importance of all the predictors of Total TPACK in descending order is as follows:

***Technological Knowledge (38.75%) > Pedagogical Content Knowledge (21.08%) > Content Knowledge (13.58%) > Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (10.28%) > Technological Content Knowledge (5.98%) > Pedagogical Knowledge (5.72%) > Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (4.61%)***

#### **Objective-6 Development and Interpretation of Results from Decision Tree of Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) at Post-test Stage**

A decision tree is a choice help instrument that uses a tree-like diagram or model of choices and their conceivable results, including chance occasion results, asset expenses, and utility. It is one approach to show an algorithm. Another utilization of decision trees is as an unmistakable means for ascertaining contingent probabilities. Among decision support instruments, decision trees have a few points of interest. Choice (decision) trees are easy to comprehend and translate. Individuals can comprehend decision tree models after a concise clarification. They have esteem even with minimal hard information.

Choice (Decision) trees are a straightforward, however of an intense type for multiple variable analysis. Decision trees are delivered by calculations that recognize different methods for part an informational index into branch-like sections. These sections frame a rearranged decision tree that begins with a root hub at the highest point of the tree. Both quantitative and subjective information can be suited in choice tree development. Choice trees transform crude information into an expanded learning and they empower you to convey the learning in a straightforward, yet effective arrangement of comprehensible standards. Decision Tree of Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge (TPACK) at Post-test Stage is shown below:



**Fig. 3**  
**Decision Tree of TPACK**

The above figure depicts the Decision Tree of Technological, Pedagogical & Content Knowledge. Node-1 represents the root node (Total TPACK). It is clear from the above diagram that Technological Knowledge, Pedagogical Content Knowledge and Technological Content Knowledge are three main predictors that are contributing the most towards Total TPACK. Also we can interpret from Node-2 of the diagram that if average TK < 4.1 then we can predict that Total TPACK Score will be 28.2802. Node-3 represents the otherwise condition and predicted value of Total TPACK will be 28.9896. Node-4 represents that if TK >= 4.1 and PCK < 4.2143 then total TPACK will be 28.7272 and the otherwise condition will constitute a Total TPACK of 29.5800 which is represented by Node-5. The next Node represents the combination statement of all the three important predictors (TK, PCK and TCK). It is represented by Node-6 that if TK >= 4.1, PCK < 4.2143 and TCK < 4.0833 then the predicted Total TPACK will be 28.4517 and the otherwise condition is represented by Node-7 which will predict the Total TPACK of 29.0028.

## **Conclusion**

The results show that the post-test TPACK scores go significantly in favour of teaching through ICT Programme as the students gained a lot after the teaching through ICT Programme. This study also provides the teacher an empirical support for using ICT Programme during the training course of pre-service teacher educators.

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## **A Study on Inclusive Growth in the North - Eastern States of India**

**Dr.K.Aparna\***

### **I. Introduction**

The north-eastern states in India are relatively backward in terms of reach and spread of formal banking services. The Reserve Bank of India has appointed a Committee to evolve a financial plan for the North-Eastern (NE) states. The Committee in its report expressed that the region has some serious limitations with respect to banking and financial sector development, attributed mainly to the topography of the region, low population density, infrastructural bottlenecks (transport, communication and power), low level of commercialization, lack of entrepreneurship, pockets with law and order problems, system of clan or community based land tenure (more prevalent in the hilly areas), exposure to grant based development approaches, low network of branches, lack of simple customized and flexible financial products to suit the needs of the local population, poor loan recovery experience, lack of awareness of banking services and inadequate payment systems (RBI, 2005)<sup>1</sup>.

### **II. Inclusive Growth**

The World Bank termed Inclusive Growth as the development strategy of economic growth along with sharing the growth benefits to reduce poverty. The planning Commission in its Draft Approach Paper to the Eleventh Five Year Plan has emphasized the need for faster and greater Inclusive Growth during the Eleventh Five Year Plan period. The Commission has identified that to achieve a higher, sustainable and equitable growth for the country, it would be imperative that domestic savings, particularly those from the households increase. Such savings would then need to be channelised to the productive sectors to attain the desired growth objectives. This can be attained only by making banking more inclusive through expanding the coverage of banking services by reaching vast un-banked and under-banked population of the country. Thus, Financial Inclusion has emerged as an effective means to achieve the Inclusive Growth. The success of Inclusive Growth is dependent on how the banks are leveraging their efforts to reach the financially excluded sections of the society.

Micro Finance has emerged as an important element in Financial Inclusion and it is one among the strategies suggested in inclusive growth process.

### **III. Objective Of The Study**

The prime objective of the present paper is to study the trends in Micro Finance in the North-East States of India.

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**IV. Source Of Data**

The data on Microfinance has been collected from the Status of Micro Finance in India, various issues and website of NABARD.

**V. Microfinance Scenario In The North – East**

In this region banks play a dominant role as the provider of funds for economic activities and the absence of specialized MFIs (Micro Finance Institutions) has made them the harbinger of micro financing. These banks are the active partners of SBLP (SHG Bank Linkage Programme) of NABARD through which microfinance flows to the SHGs (Self Help Group). The efficacy of the whole programme in expanding the outreach and increasing the depth of microfinance is thus dependent upon the sustainability of SHGs, whose act as a conduct between the banker and beneficiaries, as well as the viability of banks (MFIs) as the provider of fund. SHGs are rudimentary banking institutions engaged in saving and lending business like mainstream banks, thus their financial sustainability is crucial for overall success of SBLP. Similarly, the health of the banks is also very important as their performance reflected through overall credit-deposit ratio and recovery rate has bearing upon the SBLP endeavour<sup>2</sup>.

**TABLE – 1: PROGRESS OF SHG MOVEMENT IN INDIA**

(No. of SHGs in Lakhs and Amount in '000 Crore)						
Year	No. of SHGs with savings Linkage	Amount of savings outstanding	No. of SHGs disbursed with Loan	Amount of loan disbursed	No. of SHGs with loan outstanding	Amount of Loan Outstanding
2014-15	76.97	11.06	16.26	27.58	44.68	51.55
2015-16	79.03	13.69	18.32	37.29	46.73	57.12
2016-17	85.77	16.11	18.98	38.78	48.48	61.58

Source: NABARD, Status of Micro Finance in India, 2016-17.

Progress of SHG movement in India for the past three years i.e 2014-15 to 2016-17 has been presented in table 1. It shows that there is significant increase in the number of SHGs with savings linkage as well as in the amount of savings. Whereas marginal growth is observed in case of number of SHGs disbursed with loan.

**TABLE – 2: REGION WISE DISTRIBUTION OF SHGs WITH SAVINGS (In Percentage)**

REGION	NE REGION	NORTHERN REGION	CENTRAL REGION	WESTERN REGION	EASTERN REGION	SOUTHERN REGION
2014-15	4.34	4.69	10.62	12.23	19.81	48.32
2015-16	5.44	4.98	10.32	12.88	21.51	44.87
2016-17	5.28	5.33	9.89	13.3	22.77	43.43

Source: NABARD, Status of Micro Finance in India, 2016-17.

Table 2 depicts region wise distribution of SHGs with savings in India during the past three year's i.e 2014-15 to 2016-17. Growth is observed in case of NE, Northern, Western and Eastern region. But in two regions i.e Central and Southern regions declining growth rate is observed.

**TABLE – 3: REGION WISE STATUS OF BANK LOANS DISBURSED TO SHGs  
(Amount in Lakhs)**

REGION	2014-15		2015-16		2015-16	
	NO. OF SHGs	TOTAL LOANS DISBURSED	NO. OF SHGs	TOTAL LOANS DISBURSED	NO. OF SHGs	TOTAL LOANS DISBURSED
NE REGION	18791	15795	26037	21969	28961	28421
NORTHERN REGION	43848	42873	38106	48298	46567	57414
CENTRAL REGION	109231	110909	84282	119067	82012	67958
WESTERN REGION	97341	117080	112525	188632	106825	148819
EASTERN REGION	351800	329602	412576	349489	497063	473172
SOUTHERN REGION	1005227	2141972	1158797	3001235	1136692	3102332
ALL INDIA	1626238	2758231	1832323	3728690	1898120	3878116

Source: NABARD, Status of Micro Finance in India, 2016-17.

Region wise status of bank loans disbursed to SHGs in six regions of India during the past three years i.e 2014-15 to 2016-17 is shown in table 3. Maximum share in the total figures of India go to the southern region. And the least share goes to the north eastern region.

The outreach of SHGs in this region which started in late-nineties has picked up in the recent year both in terms of number and credit disbursement. The figures as shown in table 4 are entirely in favour of the largest state of the region i.e. Assam, where more than 86 per cent of the total SHGs (2015-16) of this region are located. The spurt of SHGs, in Assam is due to the government initiative through the Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SGSY) schemes of financing. The reason for this unequal distribution of SHGs in NER is mainly attributed to the lack of penetration of National level Micro Finance Institutions (MFIs) and also lack of efforts by NGOs and State Governments<sup>3</sup>.

The overall share of NER in the number of SHGs linked and bank loan disbursed is 1.4 per cent and 0.59 per cent respectively during 2015-16. If Assam is dropped from the list, the regions share slips drastically. While the infrastructural and logistical bottlenecks can be considered as blocking the progress of the programme in the region, the abysmally low shares cannot be justified considering the progress made by other regions that have similar development characteristics<sup>4</sup>.

**Table – 4**

NUMBER OF SHGs AND LOANS DISBURSED IN DIFFERENT SATATES MOF NE REGION				
	2011-12		2015-16	
	N0. of SHGs	loans disbursed	N0. of SHGs	loans disbursed
Assam	28012	18746.98	22625	15865.56
Arunachal Pradesh	130	157.96	57	66.79
Manipur	1308	857.52	382	360.59
Meghalaya	691	489.22	204	180.25
Mizoram	575	690.2	327	473.05
Nagaland	862	621.29	1255	1360.09
Sikkim	396	423.7	134	90.28
Tripura	19029	23141.87	1053	3572.09
Total of NER	51003	45128.74	26037	21968.7
Total of INDIA	1147878	1653476.87	1832323	3728690

Source: NABARD, Status of Micro Finance in India, 2016-17.

Though the rosy picture is emerging at all India level, the skewed regional distribution of SHGs activities needs to be corrected. Moreover in the NER, self-help promotion is done mostly by the banks themselves. They have promoted 76 per cent of SHGs as against 20 per cent at the national level. It is, therefore, important to develop the NGOs and MFIs for both development of SHGs and extending credit.

**Table – 5**

LOAN AMOUNT OUTSTANDING, GROSS NPAs AND PERCENTAGE OF NPAs AGAINST LOAN AMOUNT OUTSTANDING IN NE REGION						
	2011-12			2015-16		
North Eastern Region (NER)	loan amt o/s	gross NPAs	NPAs as % to loans o/s	loan amt o/s	gross NPAs	NPAs as % to loans o/s
Assam	63021.64	2893.15	4.59%	66031.12	8723.47	13.21%
Arunachal Pradesh	291.13	47.29	16.24%	365.44	83.24	22.78%
Manipur	2300.18	476.67	20.72%	934.84	229.59	24.56%
Meghalaya	1394.64	461.28	33.08%	1167	330.4	28.31%
Mizoram	4003.37	205	5.12%	2963.48	173.57	5.86%
Nagaland	1789.79	219.74	12.28%	2963.25	442.86	14.95%
Sikkim	3537.06	188.54	5.33%	618.55	32.66	5.28%
Tripura	22989.02	641.65	2.79%	13429.05	4575.68	34.07%
TOTAL-NER	99326.83	5133.32	5.17%	88472.73	14591.47	16.49%
TOTAL-INDIA	3634000	221273	6.09%	5711923	368622.9	6.45%

Source: NABARD, Status of Micro Finance in India, 2016-17.

During the year 2011-12, the gross NPAs as a percentage to total amount of loan outstanding are less than the all India level. But, the same figure during the year 2015-16 has significantly grown. It is much higher than that of the all India level (Table-5).

#### **VI. Conclusion**

Analysis of the progress of the SHGs in NER for the period 2014-2016 shows that despite a slow start in the programme in the region, with some states like Mizoram joining as late as 2003-2004, the programme has recorded rapid growth particularly in Assam and Tripura in terms of SHGs linked and loan disbursed. However, in Sikkim, Manipur and Nagaland the progress of the programme has been very slow. There is a need to identify factors that hamper the progress of SHGs in their region and take corrective measures to improve its performance throughout the entire region. The committee on Financial Sector Plan for NER (July, 2006) has suggested that the focus should be on proactively connecting banks to the people, rather than waiting for walk-in-customers. The committee emphasized the need for adequate publicity with a view of promoting financial literacy among the people.

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## **Comparative study on the development of Budhram and Chatua forest villages of Jalpaiguri District, West Bengal**

**Nilanjan Mistry**

### **Abstract**

The rights of the poor in India are as fundamental as those of the rich. People are the real wealth of nation, the basic purpose of development is to enlarge human freedom. The crucial instrumental freedoms are economic opportunities, political freedoms, transparency guarantees and protective security because the democracy and development are linked in fundamental ways. The people of 1321 forest villages are mostly poor and backward in India. According to the view of Amartya Sen, their development is the quality of life in terms of capability expansion which explains development as freedom and capability to function. That is what we do with what we have. Capabilities include endowment, individual capacity and social opportunity. There are three core values of development which are sustenance the ability to keep individual alive, self-esteem and freedom from servitude and poverty. Freedom is also good because it creates growth and growth is one of the necessary conditions for the promotion of human development. Three foundations for human development are to live a long, healthy and creative life, to be knowledgeable, and to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. Besides this physical infrastructures such as roads, bridges, electricity, tunnels, dam, potable water, telecommunication are need to be present to ensure development. The paper concludes with a brief assessment on developmental issues of the forest villages of Jalpaiguri district, west Bengal, India. On the basis of personal observation and preliminary information collected from different sources it is found that even after implementation of 'The Scheduled Tribes and Other Traditional Forest Dwellers (Recognition of Forest Rights) Act, 2006', there exist developmental disparities among all forest villages of Jalpaiguri district till now.

**Key words:** *Human Development, Traditional Forest Dwellers, Capability Expansion, self-esteem, physical infrastructure.*

### **Introduction**

Gorumara National Parks is encircled by 7 forest villages namely Kalipur, Chatua, Budhram, Sursuti, Bamni, Bichabhanga, Murti respectively. Even after implementation of the Forest Rights Act, 2008 there exist highly disparities in developmental issues among all the seven villages. But the disparity is found to be highest in between two forest villages namely Budhram and Chatua forest village. The distance between these two villages is only 1 kilometre and Budhram is older village than Chatua. Though different policies are implemented in Budhram forest village (more emphasized) and Chatua forest village, Budhram is still lagging behind Chatua with regards to developmental issues. In spite of the existence of a primary school only in Budhram forest village it is lagging behind in education with compare to Chatua forest village. Similarly in every developmental



parameter like health, electricity, economic status, livelihood sense and social awareness found to be better in Chatua forest village in comparison to Budhram forest village. It is found that by the field survey specifically the people of Budhram forest village are usually unaware, mostly illiterate, drunker. Their standard of living is very poor in comparison to Chatua forest villagers. So the present study will focus to find the reasons behind the unparallel development to both the villages and the specific reasons causing the disparities in development between these two villages.

### **Methodology**

Basically the present study will follow a descriptive survey method in general and interview, observation, FGD in particular.

Data collection will be involved both from primary and secondary sources. Primary data will be collected using questionnaire, interviews, observations and focus group discussions on the basis of self made questions and queries. Comprehensive door to door standard surveys will be made to find the answers for research questions for the said objectives.

Survey based methods will be conducted in such part of these villages involving local reliable and responsible villagers. The researcher will try to get feedback from the concerning government officials time to time. Meetings and interviews will be held with Divisional Forest Officer, Range Officers and advisers, EDC representatives, and forest department field staffs. Secondary data will be collected.

Analysis of the data will be done on the basis of various information collected from different sources. The real status of information also reviewed with the real life and living of the people of both the villages.

### **Result and discussion**

North Bengal is one of the most facilitating and highly biodiversity zone in India, not only for its floral and faunal diversity but also for its native people. There are 3 National Park namely Buxa National Park, Jaldapara National Park and Gorumara National Park are situated in Jalpaiguri District under North Bengal. Jalpaiguri District has 1483 sq. Km. Reserved forests, 217 sq. Km. Protected Forests and 90 sq. Km. as Un classed Forests, bearing almost second highest forest land under state of West Bengal (15% approximately).

Gorumara is one of the most leading National Parks in the country as per Government reports. In facts it stood first in India in the year of 2009 out of approximately 100 National Parks. 'The Schedule tribes and other traditional forest dwellers (Recognition of forest right) Act, 2006' has been passed and came in force since October, 2008 in all over India. In West Bengal it was first implemented in March 2008 and under Jalpaiguri District it was launched in November, 2008. As per the State Forest Report 2010-11, 4965 nos. ST and 3321 nos. Non ST claims has been enquired at FRC level and 4907 claims has been settled down as on 20.03.2013. On the other hand, 2598 nos. ST and 1057 nos. Non ST enquiry is still pending(table-3).

As per findings the following tables and charts can be described as follows....

**Table-1: Village profile of Budhram and Chatua forest villages**

Forest Villages	Family No	Population	Land Rights (Patta)	My Home Project	No. of primary School	Deep Tube Well	Community	Distance of nearest high school (k.m.)	Literacy rate (% age)	
									Male	Female
BUDHURAM	14	77	13	3	1	1	Tribal (Oraon, Kheria)	6	29	10
CHATUA	17	92	17	2	nil	nil	Tribal (Kheria, Oraon)	5	40	20

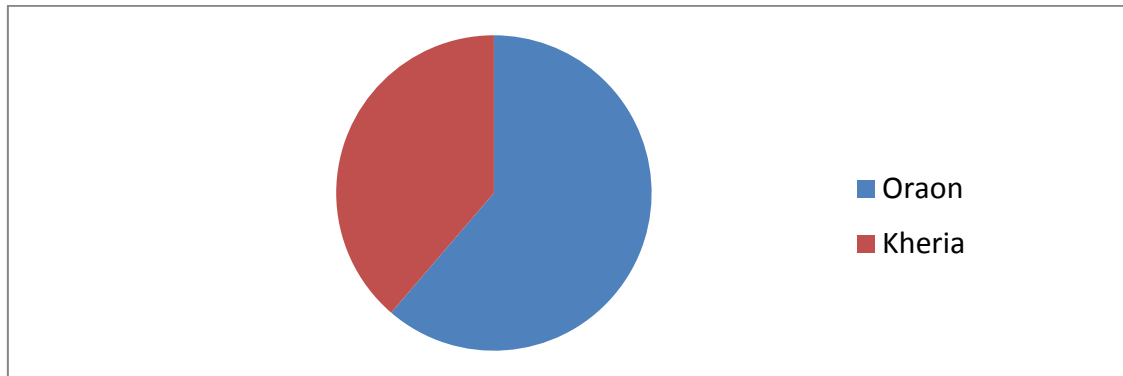
Gorumara National Parks (Lati...Longi...Area....) is encircled by 2 forest villages namely Chatua and Budhram, About 169 forest villagers and 31 families are residing there in these villages (Table-1) As per our findings about 90% families get benefited by this law. Provided according to local people the Pattas' was given to the selected people by forest officials are not at par. As per Govt. Officials , Pattas' was still given to 4895 individual and 12 communities involving 7500.66 acre Individual and 18.39 acre Community based quantum of land under Jalpaiguri district(table-3). This district has 1483 sq. Km. Reserved forests and 217 sq. Km. Protected forests, bearing almost second highest forest land under state of West Bengal (15% approximately).

**Table 2- COMMUNITY VARIATION**

Villages	TRIBAL							NEPALI		RAJBONSH I		OTHE RS	Total no of Family
	Oraon	Kheria	Munda	Kora	Koya	Goar	Ghatar	Subba	Chetri	Roy	Barmann	Uria	
CHATUA	10	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17
BUDHURAM	9	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14
Total	19	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31

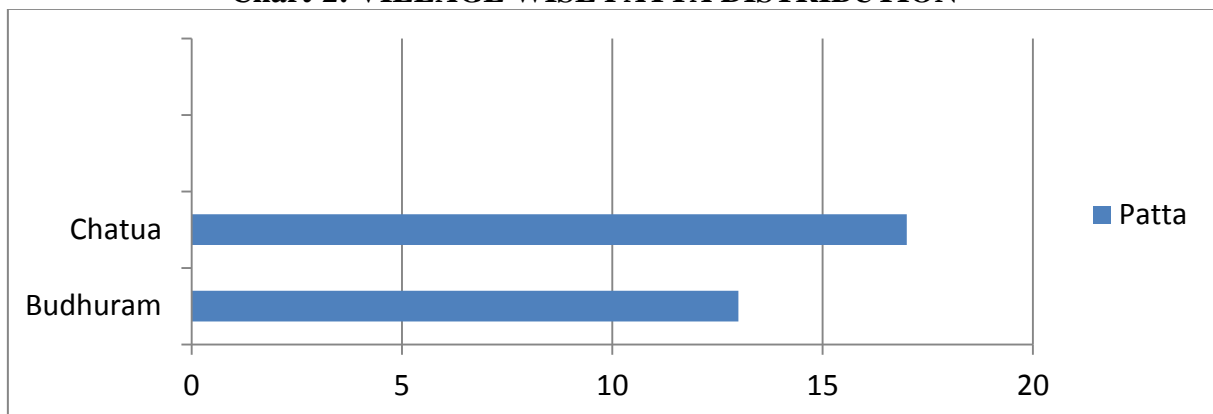
There is one type of villagers can be found-broadly -Scheduled Tribes in these two villages. The Tribal Community includes Oraon (61%), Kheria (39%), (chart-1).

**Chart-1: COMMUNITY WISE VARIATION**

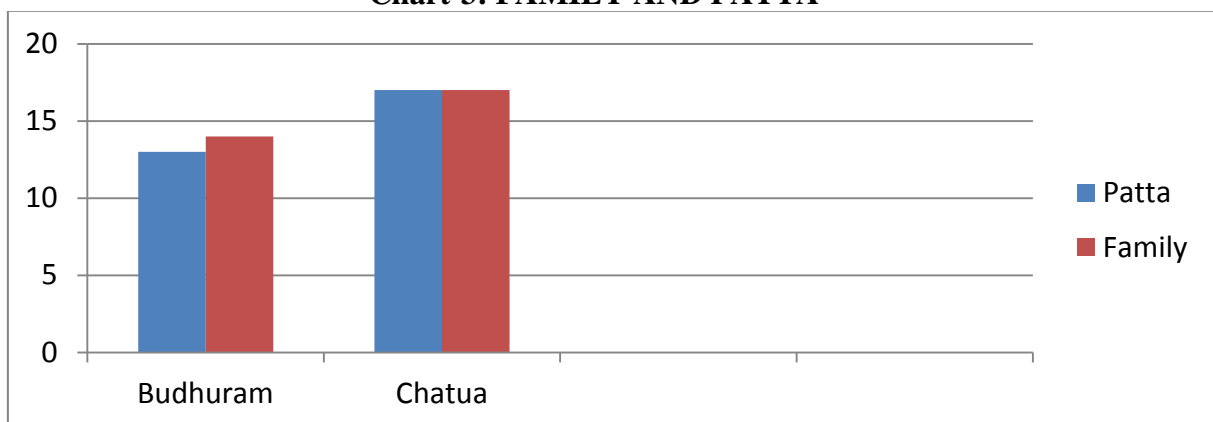


Almost all these communities reside here since British Period .Actually they were settled down here from Chotonagpur region of Jharkhand and from Orissa. The Pattas' distribution is almost 96.74%. 100% was covered in Chatua (Chart-2). In Budhram few cases is still pending.

**Chart-2: VILLAGE WISE PATTAS DISTRIBUTION**

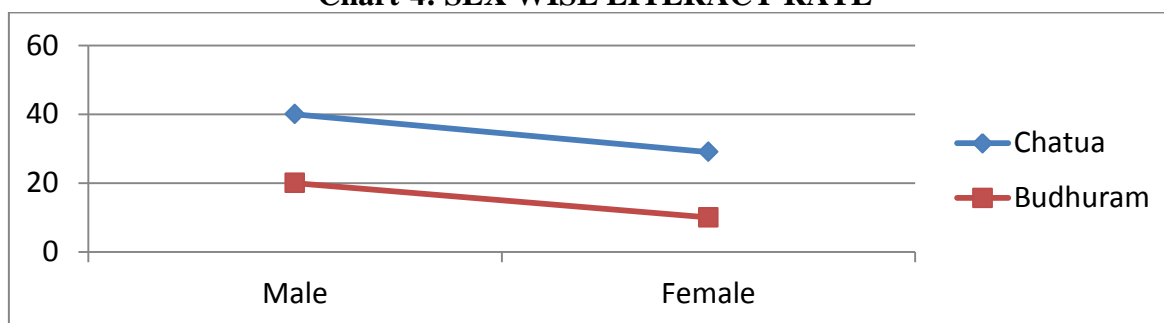


**Chart-3: FAMILY AND PATTAS**



There are only one (1) EDC are working in all these two villages although as per JFM objectivity, the number of EDC are not sufficient in number to these villages. The direct involvement of only 5 members out of 169 personalities is really a poor one (Table1). Only 5 Amar Bari Project has been implemented among 31 families (table-1).

**Chart-4: SEX WISE LITERACY RATE**



There is only one (1) Primary Schools are functioning in these two village. The Average distance to reach high school is approximately more than 4 kms. from almost each village. The Village road is not concreted and even not usable in some areas. There is no frequent and convenient communication by public bus or other vehicles to reach the High School. Although, Primary Education Level is still progressing too some extent, but taking secondary or Higher Secondary level education is still problematic. Male literacy rate is almost 41% where as Female rate is very low 18% (Table1/chart-4).

They are still facing the great problems on health. There is no facility of pure drinking water. Forest Department has supplied only one deep tube well to these villages. There is only one ICDS Centre is working. However it is a positive sign of having water reserve system for drinking water and Turmeric Grinding Machine in Chatua Forest village supplied by Forest Department. It is also a good step from Government of West Bengal that recently a few number of forest villages converted from forest village to revenue forest village (Table-4).Chatua and Budhram recently declared as Revenue village.

**Table-3: Data of Jalpaiguri District regarding enquiry and pending at FRC level & distribution of patta under FRA, 2006**

Type	Claim required				Pending of enquiry				Total claims pending for enquiry
	ST		Non-ST		ST		Non-ST		
Enquiry and pending at FRC level	Ind.	Comm.	Ind.	Comm.	Ind.	Comm.	Ind.	Comm.	
	4069	896	2105	1216	484	2114	241	816	3655
Distribution	Patta distributed				Quantum of land involved in case of distribution pattas		Patta ready for distribution		Quantum of land in respect of

of patta under FRA,2006	Individual	Community	Individual (acre)	Community (acre)		ready cases (acre)
	4895	12	7500.66	18.39	831	1273.35

**Table 4: Conversion of forest villages in Jalpaiguri district**

Sl. No.	Name of the forest villages	Name of the forest Mouza to which the village so far belongs to	J.L. No.	Police Station	Name of the newly formed Revenue Mouza	J.L. No. assigned to the newly formed Revenue Mouza
1	Kalamati	Forest Ramsai	3	Maynaguri	Kalamati	91
2	Budhuram				Budhuram	92
3	Chatua				Chatua	93
4	Kalipur				Kalipur	94
5	Baradighi	Nimna Tandu Forest	31	Matiali	Baradighi	32
6	Bamni				Bamni	33
7	South Indong				South Indong	34
8	Bicha Bhanga				Bicha Bhanga	35
9	Saraswati				Saraswati	36
10	Murti				Murti	37
11	Uttar Dhupjhora			Uttar Dhupjhora	38	
12	Mela	Marahat Forest	28	Banarhat	Mela	109
13	Knuttimari				Knuttimari	110
14	Sonakhali	Gossair Hat Forest	58	Dhupguri	Sonakhali	111
15	Gossaihat				Gossaihat	112
16	Khuklong				Khuklong	113
17	Sipchu	Diana forest	23	Nagrakata (Dhupguri)	Sipchu	34
18	Panjhora				Panjhora	35
19	North indong				North indong	36
20	New Khunia				New Khunia	37
21	Dakshin Panjhora				Dakshin Panjhora	38
22	Gajoldoba	Appal Chand forest	16	Mal	Gajoldoba	108
23	Mech Busti				Mech Busti	109
24	Magurmari				Magurmari	110
25	Sologhoria				Sologhoria	111

**Conclusion**

Poverty is a great challenge to these people. Lacking of sufficient Doctor, Nurse, Medicines, and Drinking Water etc. leads to increase their health oriented problems.

Illiteracy and malfunctioning of Primary Level Education System breaks their waist. Due to lacking of communication system, the school teachers are not giving their 100% efforts. Therefore, it produces mismanagement at school level system. Besides this Elephant also damage their school buildings at a regular interval. There is no any provision of community people to follow up the school management system as majority of them are first generation learner. Almost 6 months they are engaged as daily labour under EDC.

Scarcity of job is another challenge to these people. Engagement as daily labour is only job of the area for not more than six months under the park area for cutting plantation etc. Work under Forest Department otherwise they are unemployed. Majority of them got some earnings during peak tourist season by entertaining travellers either as guide or through folk dancing team. EDC plays crucial role in this case. Provided, not all villagers are symmetrically in engaged or utilized in this type of job.

According to the Murtee forest villagers, the royalty system of stone chips in river Murtee should be regulated by the Murtee Beat Office as previous instead of Chalsa Range Office to generate the local earnings of the forest villagers.

From conservation of National Park approach illegal felling is very much low but still going in few parts? Conflicts between human and animal still exist. Grazing is one of the major problems to this park by these villagers. Encroachment of forest Land is strictly prohibited now. Damaging of crop and other cereals by wild animal especially by elephant is another challenge to these villagers. In fact undoubtedly the park is going under tremendous pressure in respect excess tourist and local human pressure.

Concept of FRA and its implementation must be fare and up to the mark. Involvement of these villagers in National Park ethics and conservation measure taken time to time by Government is essential. Conservation of forest is also very crucial, not only for the sake of villagers but also for the sake of nature.

Trafficking is another major problem in this area especially in Budhuram forest village. There is no trace of 4 girls for the last one year in Budhuram. Certain trafficking gang may still working under dark cover.

To ensure conservation of forest resources while enhancing livelihood opportunities of forest dwelling communities, the following measures are suggested:

- i. Conversion of all forest villages into revenue villages to enhance the role of panchayats. This will allow integration of existing panchayat-run programmes such as the rural employment guarantee programme with schemes for forest work. Services such as public health facilities, schools, and agricultural extension can then be extended to these villages.
- ii. Village assemblies (*gram sabha*) must be duly constituted in forest villages.
- iii. The optimal size of a community forest for an effective conservation and livelihood programme must be identified.
- iv. The overlap between the Joint Forest Management programme and the Forest Rights Act must be immediately resolved.
- v. Finally, data on the implementation of Forest Rights Act should be provided at the forest beat and forest-village levels.



### **Acknowledgement**

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