

A Study on the Production of Apples in Arunachal Pradesh

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Abstract	India is one of the largest producers of horticultural crops in the world. Fruits and vegetables form the major share in the production of horticultural crops in the country. A large variety of tropical, sub-tropical and temperate fruits are grown in different parts of the country. Apple is an important fruit grown in India today. The production of apples was ranked sixth position in terms of production of the various fruits grown in the country and constituted 2.4 percent of the total fruits produced in India during 2018-19. Apple in India is grown in the mountainous States of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Arunachal Pradesh and Nagaland. Arunachal Pradesh has a diversified economy producing a variety of horticultural crops like apples, oranges, pine apple, ginger, cardamom etc. Apple is an important fruit crop grown in Arunachal Pradesh. Apple cultivation is mainly concentrated in West Kameng district though the fruit is of late also grown in Tawang, Lower Subansiri and Anjaw district.
Keywords	Fruits, Apple, Production, Productivity, Crop.
Introduction	India is a home to a variety of fruits produced in the world. A large variety of tropical, sub-tropical and temperate fruits are grown in different parts of the country. Apple is an important fruit crop grown in India today. Apple was first introduced in the country by Christian Missionaries and British officials in the Kullu valley of Himachal Pradesh. Apple has gained much popularity over the past few years and different cultivars of apples imported from different countries of the world have now been spread all over apple growing states in India. The production of apple constituted 2.4 percent of the total fruit produced in India in 2018-19 (Agricultural Statistics at a Glance 2020). Apple in India is mainly grown in the mountainous state of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Arunachal Pradesh and Nagaland.
Aim of study	The paper attempts to study the trend of apple production and productivity in India and Arunachal Pradesh.
Review of Literature	Malik (2013) in their study revealed that apple cultivation was the primary occupation of the people of Kashmir valley and it consist of about 90 percent of the total fruit crop grown in the valley. The production of apples in the State increased from 1093.33 thousand metric tonnes in 2004-05 to 1332.01 thousand metric tonnes in 2008-09. The average growth of apples in the State was more than 100 percent during the period. The productivity of apples in the valley was 10.02 tons/ha in 2008-09 which was much higher than the national average of 6.86 tons/ha making it the largest contributor of the State GDP among the horticultural produces. Jadhav (2013) pointed out that India produces more than 28.2 million tonnes of fruits and 66.0 million tonnes of vegetables and it is ranked next to Brazil and China. Horticulture sector witnessed growth of 10.13 percent in production and 4.22 percent in area in 2007-08 over 2006-07. This sector contributes more than 24.5 percent of the agricultural GDP. India is the largest producer of mango and banana with a production of about 41 percent of the world mango and 23 percent of the world banana production. India is the leading producer of apple, citrus, grapes, guava, litchi, papaya, pine apple, pomegranate etc. Bhat and Choure (2014) studied the trend of growth in area and production of apple in Kashmir valley. The study revealed that apple cultivation in the State was increasing both in terms of production as well as productivity because of its comparative advantage over other crops. The State is the largest producer of apple in India and produces 71 percent

of the apples produced in India during the year 2008-09. Apple is the most important fruit crop of the State and accounts for about 80 percent of the horticultural produce of the State. The area under apple cultivation in Jammu and Kashmir increased from 107935 hectares in 2004-05 to 138062 hectares in 2009-10. The production of apples increased from 1093335 MT in 2004-05 to 1367805 MT in 2009-2010.

Result and Discussion

Production of Apple in India

There has been a gradual increase in the area and production of apple cultivation in India.

Table 1

Area, Production and Productivity of Apple in India

Year	Area (In '000 HA)	Production (In MT) '000	Productivity (In MT/HA)
1991-92	194	1147	5.9
1992-93	191	1168	6.1
1993-94	205	1298	6.3
1994-95	210	1183	5.6
1995-96	217	1214	5.6
1996-97	222	1308	5.9
1997-97	227	1320	5.8
1998-99	231	1380	6.0
1999-00	238	1047	4.4
2000-01	239	1226	5.1

2001-02	241	1158	4.8
2002-03	193	1348	7.0
2003-04	201	1521	7.6
2004-05	230	1739	7.5
2005-06	226	1814	8.0
2006-07	252	1624	6.4
2007-08	264	2001	7.6
2008-09	274	1985	7.2
2009-10	282	1777	6.3
2010-11	289	2891	10.0
2011-12	321	2203	6.8
2012-13	311	1915	6.1
2013-14	313	2498	7.9
2014-15	320	1885	5.8
2015-16	277	2521	9.1
2016-17	305	2265	7.4
2017-18	301	2327	7.7

2018-19	308	2316	7.5
2019-20	309	2783	9.0

Source: Indian Horticulture Database 2008&2013

Agricultural Statistics at a Glance 2020

Horticultural Statistics at a Glance 2018

The table shows the fluctuations in the production as well as productivity of apples in India over the past two decade. The area under apple cultivation increased from 194.5 thousand hectares in 1991-92 to 309 thousand hectares in 2019-20. During the decades, the production of apples increased from 1147.7 thousand metric tonnes in 1991-92 to 2783 thousand metric tonnes in 2019-20. In the year 2010-11, the country witnesses a record production of 2891.0 thousand metric tonnes of apples from an area of 289.1 thousand hectares which was 3.9 percent of the total fruit production in the country and the productivity increased to 10 MT/HA. In 2016-17, India was ranked the fifth largest producer of apples in the world but the production of apples had further declined to 2265 thousand metric tonnes resulting to a declined in the productivity to 7.4 MT/HA. However, in 2019-20, the production of apples increased to 2783 thousand metric tonnes from an area of 309 thousand hectares increasing the productivity to 9.0 metric tonnes per hectares (Agricultural Statistics at a Glance 2020).

The productivity of apples in India has been fluctuating during the last decades. The productivity of apples increased from 5.9 Mt/Ha in 1991-92 to 9.0 Mt/Ha in 2019-20. The percentage increase in productivity in 2019-20 over the year 1991-92 was 52.54 percent. The productivity of apple fell to 4.4 Mt/Ha in 1999-2000 which was the lowest productivity of the apples that the country had ever witnessed. India witnessed the highest productivity of 10.0 Mt/Ha in 2010-11 when the production of apples in India increased to 2891 thousand metric tonnes from an area of 289.1 thousand hectares. The average productivity of apples in 2015-16 was 9.1 Mt/Ha which was low compared to the world average productivity of 16.9 Mt/Ha and the other major apple producing countries like china(18.6 Mt/Ha), USA (35.6 Mt/Ha).

Production of Apples in Arunachal Pradesh

Arunachal Pradesh located at the eastern most corner of north eastern part of India is found suitable for growing a variety of horticultural crops. The State is considered to be a reservoir of a large variety of horticultural crops like fruits, vegetables, aromatics, spices and flowers. The state being primarily under Jhum cultivation and the limitation of growing field crops in the hills makes horticultural activity a better alternate with higher returns on the hills. Horticulture is now a growing economic activity of the people of the state. The state produces all kinds of horticultural crops like fruits, vegetables, spices flowers, etc and is known for its unique and good quality fruits and flowers.

Arunachal Pradesh produces a variety of fruits. The different agro climatic and the geographical condition in the different parts of the state enables it to produce a variety of tropical fruits like orange, pineapple, banana, guava etc and temperate fruits like apple, kiwi, plum, walnut etc. The State produced 138.42 thousand metric tonnes of fruits from an area of 49.846 thousand hectares with a productivity of 2.7 metric tonnes per hectares which formed 78 percent of the total horticultural crops produced in the State in 2016-17.

Apple is an important fruit grown in Arunachal Pradesh. The state is the fourth largest producer of apples in India. Arunachal Pradesh is the only state in the north eastern region of India that produces apple on large scale for commercial purposes. Though apple was being produced in the state since long back but it is of recent

Innovation The Research Concept

that the fruit is being produced for commercial purposes. Arunachal Pradesh produced 11.66 thousand metric tonnes of apples from an area of 6.1 thousand hectares with a productivity of 1.8 metric tonnes per hectare in 2016-17. The production of apple constituted 8.4 percent of the total fruit produced in the State in 2016-17. The production of apple in the State has been steadily increasing every year as a result of which the share the share of the State in the national production increased from 0.3 percent in 2010-11 to 1.3 percent in 2011-12 and then to 1.6 percent in 2012-13. The different varieties of apple grown in the State are Royal Delicious, Golden Delicious, Mollies Delicious, Cooper-4, Starkrimson etc. The details are shown in the table below:-

Area, Production and Productivity of Apples in Arunachal Pradesh

(Area in '000HA, Production in '000MT and Productivity in MT/HA)

Year	Area	Production	Productivity
1999-2000	6.6	8.2	1.2
2000-2001	6.7	8.5	1.3
2001-2002	6.9	8.6	1.2
2002-2003	7.3	8.8	1.2
2003-2004	7.9	9.3	1.1
2004-2005	8.4	9.5	1.1
2005-2006	9.1	9.6	1.1
2006-2007	9.8	9.8	1.0
2007-2008	10.8	9.8	0.9
2008-2009	10.8	9.8	0.9
2009-2010	12.8	10.0	0.8
2010-2011	12.8	10.0	0.8

2011-2012	13.9	30.5	2.2
2012-2013	14.07	31.0	2.2
2013-2014	14.27	31.87	2.2
2014-2015	14.50	32.00	2.2
2015-2016	4.6	7.2	1.5
2016-2017	6.1	11.6	1.8

Source: Directorate of Horticulture, Government of Arunachal Pradesh,

-Indian Horticulture Database 2008, 2009, 2011 and 2013,

- Statistical Abstract of Arunachal Pradesh from 2000 to 2017.

Thus, the table reveals that the State witnessed an increasing trend in the area and production of apple.

Apple being a temperate crop is mainly grown in the higher altitudinal districts of Tawang, West Kameng and Lower Subansiri. Anjaw, Dibang Valley and West Siang are the other districts where apples are being produced in small quantities. West Kameng, Tawang and Lower Subansiri are the three leading apple producing districts of Arunachal Pradesh producing 80 percent of the apples produced in the State respectively.

Conclusion

Apple cultivation is at a nascent stage in the State. The people of the State have recently started the cultivation of apples for commercial purpose. The production of apples was introduced in the State only a few decades ago. In the course of few decades apple production has spread in the State but the rate of diffusion has been slow because of the inaccessibility of many areas. However, though the area under apple cultivation has been increasing, the productivity of apples has been low in the State as compared to the other major apple producing States in India like Jammu and Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh. The agro climatic condition and topography of the districts like West Kameng, Tawang, Lower Subansiri, Anjaw, Dibang Valley has been found suitable for the cultivation of apples. Therefore, the State should encourage the farmers to take up apple cultivation on a large scale for commercial purpose.

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Pakhodana: A typical proto historic cultural site

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Abstract

The present paper is a preliminary report of the systematic archaeological surface survey and analysis and result of Pakhodana village, tehsil - Khair, district-Aligarh, Uttar Pradesh. This paper discusses the methodology, finding, and the result of the survey. The Village of Pakhodana is an attractive location for archaeological interest prone mound. During the first surface survey, I had reached at this mound in 2016 and further extensive survey by me in 2017 and 2018. Here this survey we fixed to draw attention to site which may be threatened by Proto historic cultural site. An attempt has made to establish a tentative chronology of the site with the help of ceramic analysis as well as a comprehensive study of potteries from Pakhodana with the others excavated or explored sites in this doab region such as Atranjikhhera (Etah) and Lal Qila (Bulandshahr).

Keywords

Proto History, OCP, B&RW, PGW, NBPW, Pakhodana, Aligarh.

Introduction

The main problem I have found that how to prove the mound of village Pakhodana is associated with proto historic cultures. After surveyed this mound and collected artefacts and completed drawing of these potteries and artefacts, I conclude my paper. An attempt has made to establish a tentative chronology of the site with the help of ceramic analysis as well as a comprehensive study of potteries from Pakhodana with the others excavated or explored sites in this doab region such as Atranjikhhera (Etah) and Lal Qila (Bulandshahr).

Aim of study

To establishment of the proto historic cultural status or background of the Village.

Review of Literature

Human life started near about 6 million year before in somewhere in Africa continent. Six million year before humans ancestors walking with two feet, foods gathers, and very short in height. In Indian perspective, after the end of Mesolithic age proto historic cultural ages has been started. Neolithic age and proto historic age have been running parallel in past. This proto historic culture has been flourished by one hundred century AD. The relevant literature is reviewed below: D. P. Agarwal, Archaeology of India; This book dedicated to drown the complete archeologically profile of India. This book is very important to every research which were regarding to Indian archaeology. Pre history (Paleolithic, Mesolithic, and Neolithic), Proto history (Ochre coloured pottery, Black & Red ware, Painted grey ware, and Northern Black Polished ware cultures) and many others Indian regional cultures profiles have been vastly described in this book. R. C. Gaur, Excavation at Atranjikhhera; early civilization of the upper Ganga basin, This excavation report describes the proto historic cultural phase at Ganga-Yamuna doab region especially the famous archaeological site of Atranjikhhera. This is used as the proto type source for our study. This book refers the main dictionary for the proto historic cultures. According to this source Black & red ware culture is sandwiched between the ochre coloured pottery culture and Painted grey ware culture. There were the large amounts of the artifacts diagrammed in this book. R. C. Gaur, Excavation at Bulandshahr Kiratpur OCP Site/ Unique Copper hoard Culture, This excavation report is very unique to describe Ochre colour pottery culture. Kiratpur is the single cultural site. Some different shapes of potteries which is not including in Atranjikhhera excavation report have been entered in this report. Vibha Tripathi, Painted Grey Ware: Northern India, This source is very relevant to aforesaid thesis. To focused the third phase (Painted grey ware

culture) are very deeply. Thus this book is relevant to the present research because it is directly concerned with many ideas for the thesis. K. C. Jain, Pre history and Proto history of India, This book helped to sketch to basic structure of the archeology profile of India. This book is very important to my aforesaid research which were regarding to Proto historic period of India. Proto history (Ochre coloured pottery, Black & Red ware, Painted grey ware, and Northern Black Polished ware cultures) and many others Indian regional cultures profiles have been vastly described in this book. Linda Ellis, Archaeological Method and theory and Encyclopedia This is one of the best source is about to know archaeology. This source refers for the very deep knowledge of archaeological method, theory, terminology, exploration process. Archaeological excavation process, tools, scaling and many other relevant topics entitled in this book. This book helped to sketch to basic knowledge of the archeology. This book is very important to my aforesaid research which were regarding to archaeology term. Indian Archaeology- A review This source is very relevant to aforesaid thesis. To focused the archaeological exploration work before this study are very relevant. In different time many explorers taken exploration and excavator taken excavation in the aforesaid district or aforesaid topic. Thus this book is relevant to the present research because it is directly concerned with many ideas for the thesis. Apart of that so many sources have been consulted which were admitted in bibliography.

Main Text***Surface Survey at Pakhaudana***

Archaeological surface survey is aimed identification of human past life span. For the successful execution of the present survey a number of factors are as follows, when we reached this site first time, this surveyed area was marked by GPS (Global Positioning System) with the help of Google Maps. At this mound an intrusive surveyed (It mean different things, in some cases artifacts and archaeological valued material were collected). Huge vegetation from this site and topographically of aforesaid mound. There are so many pieces of potsherds, artifacts and some big baked mud structure found from this habitational mound during this surveyed.

Finding- During the course of archaeological survey of the *Pakhaudana* village, These artifacts especially potteries have been discovered. The analysis of pottery pieces and theirs drawing are given below.

Ochre Colour Pottery Phase: - This is the 1st phase of the proto historic period. These were finding of the OCP phase-

S.No.-01-

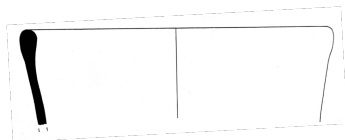


Figure No. – 02: OCP Basin

S. No. - 02

Type - OCP Basin

Colour - Red

Fabric - Coarse fabric

Rim - Prominently out turned

Slip - unslipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 01, I/B-01 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation at Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

S.No.-03

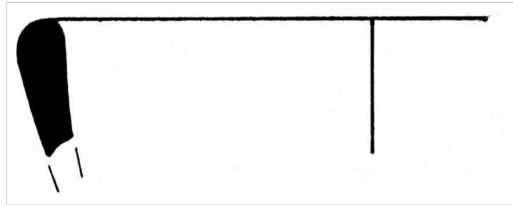


Figure No. – 03: OCP Bowl

S. No. - 01

Type - OCP Bowl

Colour - Dull red

Fabric - Coarse fabric

Rim - Vertical and featureless

Slip - unslipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 29, I/B-22 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation at Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

Black and Red Ware Phase: - This is the 2nd phase of the proto historic period. These were finding of the B&RW phase-

S.No.- 01

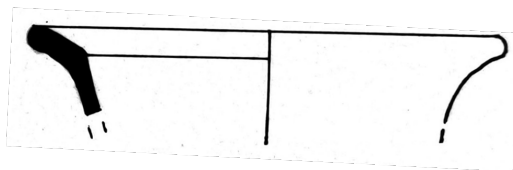


Figure No. – 01: B&RW Vessel

S. No. - 01

Type - B&RW Vessel

Colour - Dull red

Fabric - Coarse fabric

Rim - Out-turned, thickened and featureless

Slip - Unslipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 04, II/VL-2 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation*

at *Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

S.No.-02

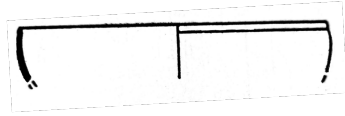


Figure No. – 02: B&RW Dish

S. No. - 02

Type - B&RW Dishes

Colour - Dull red

Fabric - Medium fabric

Rim - Vertical and featureless

Slip - Unslipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 28, II/D-18 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation at Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

Painted Grey Ware Phase: - This is the 3rd phase of the proto historic period. These were finding of the PGW phase-

S. No.-1

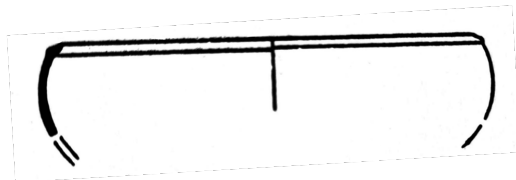


Figure No. – 01: PGW Basin

S. No. - 01

Type - PGW Basin

Colour - Red

Fabric - Medium

Rim - Incurved roughly clubbed

Slip - Unslipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 20, III/BN-15 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation at Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

S. No.-2



Figure No. – 02: PGW Arrow Head

S. No. - 02

Type - PGW Arrow Head

Design - Fine point, Socketed, Elliptical cross section, lustrous

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 04, III/-3 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation at Atranjikhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

S. No.-3

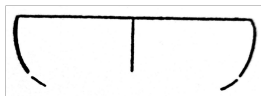


Figure No. – 03: PGW Bowl

S. No. - 03

Type - PGW Bowl

Colour - Grey

Fabric - Fine fabric

Rim - Slightly Inturned and thickened

Slip - Unslipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 43, III/ B-25 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation*

at *Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

Northern Black Polished ware Phase: - This is the 4th phase of the proto historic period. These were finding of the PGW phase-

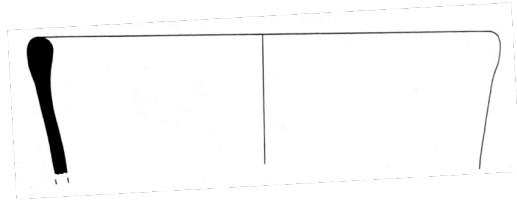


Figure No. – 01: NBPW Storage Jar

S. No. - 01

Type - NBPW Storage Jar

Colour - Red ware

Fabric - Coarse fabric

Rim - Flaring and featureless

Slip - Unslipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 17, IV/J-13 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation at Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

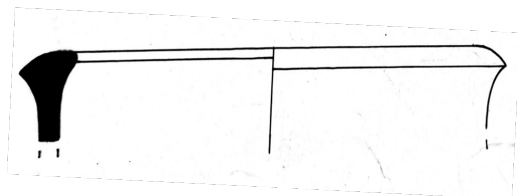


Figure No. – 02: NBPW Basin

S. No. - 02

Type - NBPW Basin

Colour - Red

Fabric - Medium

Rim - Inturned and nail headed

Slip - Slipped

Reference - ARJ, Figure No. - 26, IV/BN-14 (Gaur, R.C., *Excavation at Atranjikhhera* Motilal Banarsidass, Indological Publishers, Delhi, 1983)

Methodology

The research methodology is essential qualitative historical investigation and critical analysis, with an exploratory qualitative research process depending on primary, secondary and archaeological sources.

Sampling	Artefacts especially potteries
Tools Used	Case Studies of Atranjikhhera excavation report, and others excavation reports
Statistics Used in the Study	<p>The researcher mainly takes on primary sources, which is important in any historical research in order to get authentic and reliable information. The exploration process provides very few data as compared to excavation of the sites. Beside of that artefacts, which were collected from a large number of sites by the process of exploration, can provide a good settlement pattern. This research mainly depends on archaeological sources. The most important archaeological sources are artefacts especially potteries.</p>
Result and Discussion	<p>This research set the order of proto historic cultures like Ochre coloured pottery culture succeeded by Black & Red ware culture succeeded by Painted grey ware culture and these are succeeded by Northern Black Polished ware culture in village Pakhodana.</p>
Findings	<p>Potteries of different cultures.</p>
Conclusion	<p>In 1st phase the main colour on potteries were red, ochreous, buff red, and dull red. There are various shapes of the potteries bowl, basin, dish, vessel, and ribs of potteries have been explored. Some pieces of grey and dark red potteries found in 1st phase in some sites. Some potteries are well fired and some potteries are hard baked. There were one brick was explored from Pakhodana village.</p> <p>The 2nd phase (Black & Red ware) habitat in very thin line at mound. The both colour of Black & Red have been found at same surface of pottery. Most of potteries were wheel-made, red coloured outside and black colour inside. This could be resulted after processing of inverted fire. These potteries have characterized with fully and partially black inside and dull red to buff red in external skin. At that processed being fired and smog inside potteries is black and outside containing oxidation colour would be red. The painted tradition of the potteries very differs from each of BRW sites in India. This Cultural level was found between Ochre coloured pottery and Painted Grey ware cultural level. Bowl, basin, vessel, dish and vase, these were the main shapes of the potteries which have been explored. In the 2nd phase some figures were seen to close red ware potteries. These potteries have tapering slide, flaring slide and clubbed rim.</p> <p>The 3rd phase has been assigned the time horizon of 1200 to 600 BCE. Historians were suggested this phase as 2nd urbanization in Indian context. PGW phase was succeeded BRW culture and proceeded by Northern Black Polished ware. This PGW pottery was made of very fine materials. These potteries have been show very fine and smooth texture. Its reflects grey and silver grey in colour and smooth surface with matt finish. With the local clay effect some regional potteries were red in colour. The peoples of this aforesaid culture were well matured in about fire techniques. This fire technique had composed of high temperature and pots turn process. These incised potteries have incised with geometric design, dots, circle, wave, checks, dashes, and many natural motifs etc. During this phase the neck of the potteries is very simple but its figs have various design. Mostly rim shaped inturned, slightly inturned or incurved. Bowl, basin, vessel, dish and vase, storage jar, plate, and painted design these were the main shapes of the potteries which have been explored. Bowl and dish shapes were the most common finding. Some design of Banas culture from Rajasthan like wavy line was explored here. One arrow head was explored from village Pakhodana in khair tehsil.</p> <p>This phase is preceded by the Painted Grey Ware phase. This NBPW culture covered big time frame in Indian history. This culture stretched from 600 BCE to 50 CE. It was a pottery with superfine polished. It is very thin, minimum size with 1.5 mm. This deluxe pottery are wheel made, well fired made and of with well levigated clay. These potteries have shine skin look like metallic polished. This</p>

shine look of potteries has result from oil polishing. Archaeologist suggested that iron oxide and some plant extract or juice were rubbing on potteries and after that it were in fire processed. The impression on the surface of the potteries with dots, circle, semi-circle, wavy lines, and some other motifs. Bowl, basin, vessel, dish, vase, these were the main shapes of the potteries which have been explored. Bowl and dish shapes were the most common finding. The main shapes of rim are straight, tapering and convex.

The period from OCP to NBPW is proved for the agricultural development along with increasing of population, cultural plurality, social mobility and social progress, technique progress, development of art and architecture and economic development and prosperity. To sum up, Pakhodana is the typical proto historic site.

Suggestions for the future Study

To excavate this mound for the clear picture of the cultural aspects.

Acknowledgement

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The Psychological Impact of The Covid-19 on Frontline Workers: A Study of District Kangra, Himachal Pradesh

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Abstract This study focuses on the psychological distress among frontline workers of district Kangra Himachal Pradesh during COVID-19. The outbreak of COVID-19 had a significant impact on the healthcare workers and frontline workers. When the world went into lockdown, the healthcare workers had to go to work. These frontline workers had a heavy burden, as they had no choice but to put their health and lives at risk to help their communities. The fear that the pandemic might result in mortality, seclusion, or quarantines has psychological, emotional, and physical consequences on every individual and frontline workers in particular. The study had undertaken the perspectives of frontline workers, including female and male health workers, community health officers, and ASHA workers.

Keywords COVID-19, Psychiatric disorder, Lockdown, Stigma, Social Distancing.

Introduction On December 1, 2019, COVID-19 made its maiden appearance in Wuhan, China. Corona viruses are abundant in animals, and a human can be infected by an animal corona virus. When an infected person coughs or sneezes, droplets of the Corona virus are released into the highly communicable air. Cold, cough, fever, chills, loss of taste and smell, and shortness of breath are some of the prominent symptoms of it. It has the potential to be severe and even fatal. Although there is no treatment for this virus, physical separation and maintaining good health and cleanliness are the only ways to protect oneself.

It was evident that everyone was affected by it whether it was on the social, psychological, or economical grounds. Various studies showed that after the pandemic the most prevalent problem was the problem of mental distress which affected everyone irrespective of caste, class or group, etc. The researcher studied one social group (frontline workers) who was the first one to get infected from the virus but remained behind the cameras, was abused by the public or bears the loss of family separation, etc. There are many studies also done previously which brought out the reasons for mental distress among the frontline workers.

Frontline employees are more likely to acquire mental diseases, according to the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI). According to other research studies it was observed that Post-trauma stress syndrome (PTSS), sadness, and anxiety are the most common psychiatric disorders among health care personnel during the pandemic. Fear of becoming infected and threats of death were the two reasons that contributed to the high incidence of mental distress among frontline workers. They were worried not only about their health but also for the health of their loved ones since they frequently expressed concern about spreading the infection to their family and co-workers. Even many of their loved ones also become infected which increased the problem of depression and insomnia. The pandemic had a social and cultural influence on frontline workers' life more because they were cut off from all forms of social support, including family gatherings, time spent with friends, and any other sort of social interaction. (Bennett, 2021)

A study conducted by Accountability Initiative staff examines the role and experiences of Frontline Workers (FLWs) during and after a nationwide lockdown. Only 6 percent of frontline workers in Himachal Pradesh (Kangra & Solan district) had reported receiving

transportation or funds for transportation, despite having to cover long distances. Instead, 31 percent had to provide transport for themselves. It was reported that there was an increase in the working hours of the frontline workers during COVID-19 which was 91 percent in Himachal Pradesh and 79 percent FLWs reported that they had to work harder for each task. However, looking closer at the data shows that the intensity of most services decreased during the lockdown. The distribution of supplements (Zinc, ORS, and IFA) took place at a lower frequency as reported by FLWs which was 44 percent, and a drop-off in Antenatal Care provision which was 34 percent in Himachal Pradesh.

According to National Health Mission, Himachal Pradesh a circular was released by the state government which entitled ASHA workers in the state to 1,000 per month for COVID-19 related work from March to June 2020 which was later increased to 2,000 per month from July to August 2020.

According to WHO it was estimated that between 80,000 and 180,000 health and care workers could have died from COVID-19 in the time of January 2020 to May 2021. Available data from 119 countries suggested that 2 in 5 health and care workers were fully vaccinated on average across regions by September 2021. (WHO, 2021)

Dr. Roopa Dhatt, Executive Director of Women in Global Health, and two scientists produced COVID-19 vaccinations. On International Women's Day 2021, she spoke during a WHO bi-weekly briefing. She described the year as a "rollercoaster" because she was treating COVID-19 patients while still managing household responsibilities. She also cautioned that the pandemic's basic weaknesses and inequalities must be addressed promptly before the next global crisis. She stated that while women in the healthcare industry did outstanding work during the pandemic, they had not earned an equal seat at the decision-making table, and as a result, we have all missed out on their ability and knowledge. She added further that "COVID-19 does not discriminate, but societies do". (United Nations news, 2021)

According to WHO Director-General Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus, the pandemic has disproportionately affected women, who have experienced issues ranging from increased violence to increased unemployment. Even though women make up the majority of health workers (70%) internationally, they only make up a quarter of those in leadership positions. (UN news, 2021)

Aim of study

1. To know the socio-economic background or profile of the frontline workers.
2. The social and psychological problems faced by the frontline workers during COVID-19.
3. The challenges faced by the frontline workers during COVID-19.

Review of Literature

Kumar et al. (2020) expressed in the article that the low and middle-income nations were the hardest affected by the pandemic. During the crisis, medical resources, infrastructure, medicine, equipment, and human resources were diverted to COVID-19. COVID operations took priority over the work of Community Health Workers (CHC) and ASHA Workers. Cabarkapa et al. (2020) highlighted that COVID-19 and the changing response harmed the well-being of hospital employees functioning as frontline workers. The rapid transmission rate of COVID-19 led to increased tasks that Health Care Workers may not have been fully prepared to handle, both professionally and psychologically. The numerous threats to Health Care Workers' well-being were little understood. Traumatic stress, anxiety, and depressive symptoms are all negative effects. Billings et al. (2021) mentioned in their article that the rising number of COVID-19 patients had increased treatment demand and put a strain on healthcare providers' resources, all at the expense of their health. It impacted frontline employees' mental health, prompting calls for psychosocial support. In investigations, it was discovered that insufficient PPE (Personal Protective Equipment) had also contributed to the fear of contamination. Furthermore, these PPE kits made it difficult for frontline staff to work and communicate. Health professionals were stigmatized, and their families were discriminated against as well.

Methodology It was exploratory research and the quantitative method was used. The data was collected from primary sources. The researcher interviewed 40 frontline workers in the study.

Sampling

The researcher used purposive or convenient sampling. The proposed study was conducted in Kangra district, Himachal Pradesh. The researcher had covered 9 Health Sub- Centres and 1 Primary Health Centre under Shahpur block, Kangra district, Himachal Pradesh.

Tools Used

The tool used for data collection was the semi-structured interview schedule. The data was analyzed through Excel.

Result and Discussion

The researcher interviewed the frontline workers in said area of research and analyzed the data in tabular form. Data analysis means ordering or categorizing and summarizing the data to obtain answers to the research questions. The researcher had made different categories to summarize the data. The summary of the data collected by the researcher is based on these tables:

Table No. 1**Age Composition of the respondent**

S. No	Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	20-25 years	2	0.05
2	25-30 years	4	0.1
3	30-35 years	8	0.2
4	35-40 years	6	0.15
5	40-45 years	6	0.15
6	45-50 years	7	0.175
7	50-55 years	3	0.075
8	55-60 years	4	0.1
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based Data

Age is an important factor to analyze as through this one can distinguish between different groups like adult or old. In this table, the researcher found out that the data has different age groups: there were the persons who have reached the age of adulthood and also who have reached the old age or retirement age. The maximum number of the population found was between the 30-35 years age group.

Table No. 2
Sex of the respondent

S. No.	Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Male	1	0.025
2	Female	39	0.975
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based Data

Sex is biological; the person is born as a male, female or other. Through this table, the researcher found that the health sub-centre has the maximum number of female health workers. The researcher found only one male health worker in all the 10 sub-centres.

Table No. 3
Educational Qualification

S. No.	Educational Qualification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	High School	10	0.25
2	Senior Secondary School	17	0.425
3	Diploma	1	0.025
4	Undergraduate	12	0.3
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based Data

Educational qualification is another important factor to get the basic information about the respondent. The researcher got to know that the maximum numbers of the respondent were those who have completed their senior secondary schooling and some of them were now in the post of health worker. While knowing more about them, the researcher found that those who have the experience of 20 years or more than 20 years were appointed to that post, as at that time, the health worker needs the maximum qualification of 12th and on that basis, they were appointed but before joining they had to complete the 2 years training on medical health which was provided to them in Dharmshala.

Table No. 4
Health Sub-Centre of the respondent

S. No	Health Sub- Centre	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Kiari	3	0.075
2	Praei	4	0.1
3	Nerati	4	0.1
4	Rehlu	5	0.125
5	Saddu	4	0.1
6	Kuthman	4	0.1
7	Chadi (PHC)	6	0.15
8	Bhanala	1	0.025
9	Baslur	2	0.05
10	Ladwara	7	0.175
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based Data

The researcher visited the 9 health sub-centres and 1 Primary health centre for collecting the data. These all sub-centre came under Shahpur block, Kangra district. The researcher covered the area which was on the roadside and also which were in the outskirts. According to the Indian Public Health Standard's amended recommendations of 2012, a Sub-Health Centre (Sub-centre) is the most peripheral and first point of contact between the primary health care system and the community in the public sector, In rural health, the goal was to build one Sub-centre for 5000 people in the plains and 3000 in tribal and hilly areas, one Primary Health Centre (PHC) for 30000 people in the plains and 20000 in tribal and hilly areas, and one Community Health Centre (CHC/Rural Hospital) for a population of one lakh.

Table No. 5
Marital Status

S. No.	Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Married	28	0.7
2	Unmarried	4	0.1
3	Widow	8	0.2
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based Data

Marital Status means the state of being married or not married —used on official papers to determine if a person is married, single, divorced, or widowed. The respondent collected the data from different marital status groups of the respondents. The above table shows that the maximum number of respondents were married, some were widows and the minimum number of respondents was unmarried.

Table No. 6
Type of Family

S. No.	Type of Family	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Joint	20	0.5
2	Nuclear	20	0.5
	Total	40	100

Source: Field based data

Family is an important part of our life. A family is a group of people who are linked by marriage, blood, or adoption who live together in a single household, interacting in their social roles, which are commonly those of spouses, parents, children, and siblings. The researcher collected the data about their families also and found that out of the total respondents half of the respondents belonged to a nuclear family and the rest to the joint family system.

Table No. 7
Profession

S. No.	Profession	Frequency	Percentage (%)
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1	Female Health worker	8	0.2
2	Male Health worker	1	0.025
3	Community Health Officer	7	0.175
4	ASHA worker	24	0.6
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based data

The researcher collected the data from different professional groups of health sub-centres. The maximum number of respondents were ASHA workers. The researcher got to know that in 1 health sub-centre there was 1 Male/female health worker, 1 Community health officer, and 4-6 ASHA workers based on the population of the village. Of over 800 people there was 1 ASHA Worker.

Table No. 8**Regular/ Contractual**

S. No.	Profession	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Regular	8	0.2
2	Contractual	32	0.8
	Total	40	100

Source: Field based data

The researcher found that the respondents who have experience of more than 15 years were on regular posts and those who were in the post of ASHA worker and Community health officer were on the contractual post.

Table No. 9**Impact on Social life during COVID-19**

S. No.	Impact on social life	Frequency	Percentage (%)
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1	Yes	37	0.925
2	No	3	0.075
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based data

The researcher found that the social life of the maximum number of frontline workers was disrupted during COVID-19. They had a lot of burden of work, they were at risk, their families at risk, and they were unable to manage with both families and work together.

Table No. 10**Impact on family time during COVID-19**

S. No.	Family time	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Yes	38	0.95
2	No	2	0.05
	Total	40	100

Source: Field based data

The researcher found that most of the respondents said that they do not have time for their families. They rarely got time to spend with their families. Even 1 respondent said that her mother got infected during COVID-19 but due to the overburden of workload she was unable to take care of her mother. After some time her mother died due to COVID-19 and for that, she was blaming herself.

Table No. 11**Duty/Working hour effects on the family relationship during COVID-19**

S. No.	Family-relations disturbed	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Yes	26	0.65
2	No	14	0.35
	Total	40	100

Source: Field based data

The maximum number of respondents said that their working hours disrupted their families. They said after work when they reached their home then also they had to make phone calls, attend to phone calls, visit the household for giving medicines, etc.

There was no time to even talk to their family members. One respondent said that her husband died suddenly during COVID-19, she only got leave of 10 days and on the 11th day, she had to resume her duty. Even their children's education was disturbed as the ASHA worker told that they bring their smartphones with them because of which the child was unable to attend the online classes.

Table No. 12**Impact on the mental health during COVID-19**

S. No.	Impact on Mental health	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Yes	38	0.95
2	No	2	0.05
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based Data

The research found that most of the respondents had mental stress due to workload, disturbance in family life, etc. During an interview one of the ASHA workers told that she managed to balance her stress by writing songs about their situation. Those who said that there was no impact on their lives or mental health during COVID-19 were having a small family size, single mother-child or all the family members were frontline workers.

Table No. 13**Anxiety/ Fear while interacting with the public during COVID-19**

S. No.	Anxiety/ Fear while public dealing	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Yes	17	0.425
2	No	22	0.55
3	Sometimes	1	0.025
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based data

The researcher found that the respondent had anxiety issues while dealing with the public during COVID-19. It was the time when everyone was avoiding meeting anyone but as per their duty, respondents had to go to the field for a survey, giving medicines to the corona positive person, collecting samples, etc. They were worried about their families because they had to go home after their duties and they could be the carriers of the infection. But slowly-slowly they became habitual in the situation and followed the operational standard behavior like taking bath when reaching home, changing

clothes, washing the duty dress, and sanitizing their hands properly.

Table No. 14
Infected/Positive during COVID-19

S. No.	COVID-19 Infection	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Yes	6	0.15
2	No	34	0.85
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based Data

The respondents also got infected during COVID-19 because as per their duty they had to meet with the corona positive person, collect their samples, etc. meanwhile during their work they also got infected but they said that they were treated at home quarantine. Some respondents said that they had mild symptoms and by following proper diet and medicine they recovered. Soon they said that one of the reasons behind their recovery was the vaccination.

Table No. 15
Challenges/Issues faced during COVID-19

S. No.	Challenges faced during COVID-19	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Dealing with unsupportive public	10	0.25
2	Burden of work	11	0.275
3	Disturbance in Family	7	0.175
4	Transportation problem	11	0.275
5	Police stoppage during lockdown	1	0.025

	Total	40	100
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Source: Field based data

The researcher found that there were different issues and challenges faced by the respondent but the maximum number of the respondents faced the problem of the burden of work and transportation. During the lockdown, the new problem that emerged for the frontline workers was the unavailability of public transport. The respondents found it difficult to come for the duty. They found its alternative by hiring a private taxi at a high price, or one of their family members came with them to the office in their vehicle and sat there for the whole day and then goes home along with them.

Table No. 16**Monthly camps of vaccination/immunization organized during COVID-19**

S. No.	Immunization camps	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Yes	40	1
2	No	0	0
	Total	40	100

Source: Field based data

The frontline workers said that the monthly camps of vaccination were organized during COVID-19 and lockdown also. It was not affected; it was delayed during lockdown for 2-3 days due to their COVID-19 duties otherwise it was organized as usual. They called the pregnant woman on a fixed-time basis so that no crowd was collected outside the hospital.

Table No. 17**Getting PPE kits during the field visit**

S. No.	PPE kits	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Yes	0	0
2	No	24	0.6
3	Sometimes	16	0.4
	Total	40	100

Source: Field based data

The frontline workers said that PPE kits were provided to them only during testing or sample collection. They had to protect themselves on their own during vaccination camp or survey/ visit to the suspected or infected person's house or the medicine distribution to them. The shortage of safety equipment like hand gloves and sanitizers was also reported by them.

Table No. 18**Fully vaccinated against COVID-19**

S. No.	Fully vaccinated	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Jan-March	27	0.675
2	April-June	6	0.15
3	July- September	5	0.125
4	October-December	2	0.05
	Total	40	100

Source: Field Based data

Most of the frontline workers were vaccinated in the initial phase of the vaccination drive. Some of the respondents were vaccinated late because either they were pregnant at that time or were lactating mothers.

Conclusion The study showed that the frontline workers faced various challenges and problems during COVID-19. The major impact of the COVID-19 was on their mental health. Their personal and professional life was disturbed totally. The frontline workers were packed with the long duty hours, no time for families, unsafe working conditions, etc. During the interview one more important thing that came into the limelight was to convince the people to be in isolation, to get them tested, and to reach the work every day because during lockdown no public transport was available and it was difficult for them to fulfill their basic need during COVID-19 as they did not get any support from the higher authorities over this problem.

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Perception about Drug addiction in Youth : A Case study of Hamirpur District of Himachal Pradesh

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Abstract

In Himachal Pradesh, drug addiction is a severe concern. In recent years, there have seen an alarming increase in the number of young people who are addicted to drugs. Many cases are usually read in the newspapers about young people being arrested for drug use, the majority of whom are adolescents. According to several surveys on the drug use, youngsters make up the majority of those who used drugs. It has been well documented that drug addiction causes a slew of health problems as well as a significant disruption in academic performance. Drug addiction is a very complex phenomenon so, finding easy strategies to address it is incredibly challenging. One are the days when we think about and come up with feasible answers to this significant problem among the youth, who are the nation's true building blocks. To address the unpleasant problem of drug addiction, more effort needs to be done with focused approach. Keeping this in mind, the current paper aims at studying the impact of family and peer networks in shaping attitudes about drug addiction and to learn about the prevalence of drug addiction among young people confront within days to day life. The research study is based on original data. While doing research , the researcher used the Stratified Sampling method. To complete the sample process, Stratified Sampling used to divide the whole population into smaller groups or strata. The researcher took the 100 respondent sample size in his study .

Keywords

Youth, Drug Addiction, Health, Family and Peer.

Introduction

Despite being a well-known phrase, "youth" still lacks a broadly accepted definition. While youth is commonly understood to be the period of life that begins with puberty and ends when physical and emotional maturity is achieved, Definitions of term youth are more context-specific, relying on both formal and informal factors such as culture, tradition, and socio-economic status in a country or community. It is a period of semi-dependency that occurs between infancy and maturity, during which young people attempt to gain personal autonomy while being dependant on their parents or the state. Youths are the most diverse group of people in any country. They are the country's backbone. However, no age group is more vulnerable to the effects of alcohol and drugs than young people. In some ways, it appears to be a problem that affects everyone: you, your family, and your friends. Simply put, no matter how hard one tries one, They will not be able to avoid the difficulties caused by alcohol and medications. (Source: UN Reports)

Drugs touch us all, directly or indirectly, in our homes, families, schools, dorms, communities, towns, and cities across the country.

Youth is best described as a phase of transition from childhood reliance to adulthood, when one is independent and aware of one's interdependence as a community member. The age group of youth is a more fluid category than the age group of adults.

The United Nations defines youth as everyone aged between 15 to 24 years old, and all UN statistics are based on that age range. The United Nations also acknowledges that this varies without regard to other age categories identified by member states, such as 18-30. Within the UN, a useful difference can be established between teenagers (those aged 13 to 19) and young adults (those aged 20 and up) (those between the ages of 18 and 32). While working to enhance

uniformity in statistical methodologies, the UN is well aware of the inconsistencies in its own statutes.

According to the Indian National Drug Testing Laboratory (2020), drug addiction increased in 2020 as a result of the nationwide lockdown. As per the data 32% of persons had used non-prescribed fentanyl, 20% of people who had used methamphetamine, 12.5% of people had used heroin, and 10% of people who had used cocaine in the previous year. Himachal Pradesh ranks third among the 29 states and seven Union Territories in the country, with a total of 929 cases registered under the Special and Local Laws (SLL) offences in the NDPS Act 1985. BHAWANI NEGI, 2017).

The user obtained these substances through unlawful routes such as black markets, putting him or her in contact with criminals. Drug prices were greater than cannabis, but most individuals can afford to pay them with regular money from regular jobs. Required additional funds, were be obtained through illegal means or by undertaking illegal crimes such as robberies, burglaries, muggings, or drug sales. Users may act in improper ways as a result of these substances' effects on mood and behaviour, resulting in activities that are disruptive to others, such as family, friends, or coworkers. This can cause social problems at home or at work, as well as lower productivity (Adrian, 1991).

In 2018, 1,342 instances were filed under the NDPS Act, representing a rate of 18.5 per lakh of the population. According to the NCRB report 2018, Himachal has the third-highest crime rate in NDPS cases, after Punjab (39.2) and Kerala (24.9), and drug addiction in this state has recently led to local drug consumption, which was not previously the case. One of the many unforeseen outcomes of drug abuse was this. After reviewing the Himachal Pradesh NDPS crime list, the researcher came up with the idea for this study.

The current study has conducted in the Hamirpur district. Although Hamirpur district is the smallest in Himachal Pradesh, it is the best in terms of education. Researchers want to know what young people in the Hamirpur district think about drug addiction. The researchers tried to determine whether the influence of drug addiction on adolescents is increasing or decreasing of their school going children.

Impact of Drug addiction

The impact of drug usage on the mind is one of the most notable repercussions. It has been demonstrated that abuse of various substances alters chemical responses and brain activity. According to Medical Daily, a research on alcohol use revealed that drinkers have lower IQ scores. People who smoke tobacco have had the same outcomes. according to a study published in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. The medicine has been shown to have an effect on the development of young brains.

According to Science Daily, youths who used marijuana regularly lost IQ points over time, on average 8 points, Those who abuse drugs excessively had mental health issues as a result. When substance usage is stopped and addiction is treated, some cases of substance-induced illnesses may go away, but others may not. According to the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, mood disorders affect 80 percent of those who suffer from alcoholism.

Aim of study

1. To understand the role of family and peer groups in creating perception towards drug addiction.
2. To find out the prevalence of drug addiction among youth in Hamirpur district, Himachal Pradesh.

Review of Literature

Anuradha (1999) in her study related to "Alcoholism and Drug abuse" in Bathinda district of Punjab found that most of the addicts were from the lower caste groups, both in rural and urban areas. A higher proportion of addicts from the rural areas were illiterate, whereas the most of the urban addicts had studied up to matric level. The researcher suggested a community based approach towards de-addiction because drug abuse is a multi-factorial and multifaceted problem. This approach includes the development of culture specific models for prevention and treatment of addicts. The approach also emphasizes the creation of a network of institutions for motivation, counselling and de-addiction. Jalota (1999) in a study conducted in

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Amritsar, Gurdaspur, Batala and Hosiarpur districts found that there is high prevalence of multiple drugs abuse among drug addicts. The study recommended that there was immense need for looking into the incidence and nature of substance abuse and formulate interventive measures, taking into consideration.

Methodology

While the investigation the problem, the researcher utilised the Stratified Sampling method. The sample size was 100 respondents, and the age group of the youth undertaking for the study was 15-29 years.(NYP 2014).The current study looked into the problem of drug addiction among youth of Himachal Pradesh, with the goal of determining that many addiction tendencies that stem from drug seizures, as well as the modus operandi of drug addiction. The causes and other elements that contribute to drug addiction, as well as its persistence, were examined in order to confront future difficulties not just by law enforcement agencies, but also by the general public after they have been educated and provided with alternative options.

Sampling

Analysis of the personal details of the respondent revealed that most of the respondents traits 61% belong to the age group of 20-24. Out of the total respondents who were participated in the study were 55% males and 45% were females.

Result and Discussion

**Table No. 1
Consuming Drugs**

S. No	Consuming Drugs	Frequency	Percentage
1	Family member	16	16
2	Relatives and neighbours	25	25
3	Friends and colleagues	59	59
	Total	100	100

Source :- Field Based Data

The above table 1, shows that consuming drugs according to the respondent's perception.16 percent of the respondents have seen consuming drugs their family members whereas 25 percent of respondents have seen consuming drugs their relatives and neighbors. 59 percent of respondents have seen consuming drugs their friends and colleagues.

As per the study, 59 percent of the respondents have seen consuming drugs their friends and colleagues. Friends and colleagues who use drugs may motivate, teach, and reinforce adolescents to self-medicate as a way of using substances. Thus, adolescents with high levels of friendship intimacy and with greater exposure to friends who use substances may also be more likely to self-medicate.

Table No. 2**Ways of Helping Friends, Relatives, Community Member**

S. No	Ways of Helping Friends, Relatives, Community Member	Frequency	Percentage
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1	By spreading awareness	48	48
2	By referring to counselling centre	30	30
3	Counselling by own self	12	12
4	Nothing will do	10	10
	Total	100	100

Source :- Field Based Data

Drug addiction have grave consequences on our existing social systems, affecting crime rates, hospitalizations, child abuse, and child neglect, and are rapidly consuming limited public funds.

The above table 2, indicated "Ways of Helping Friends, Relatives, Community Members" according to the respondent's perception. 48 percent of the respondents help others by ways of spreading awareness. 30 percent of respondents refer those in need to counselling centres and 12 percent of respondents provide counseling based on their own knowledge and 10 percent of respondents did not provide any suggestions for them.

As there is a say, precaution is better than cure, It is been evident that the majority of respondents emphasized that conducting awareness has a great reach to control the people from getting addicted.

Table No 3**Frequency of Consuming Drugs**

S. No.	Usually Consume Drugs	Frequency	Percentage
1	Daily	39	39
2	Weekend	15	15
3	Parties and Gathering	38	38
4	Don't know	8	8
	Total	100	100

Source :- Field Based Data

Cannabis is by far the most commonly used drug worldwide, according to the latest Global Drug Survey (GDS). Cocaine and MDMA are used to a far lesser extent in comparison. The figures used here do not consider alcohol, tobacco, or caffeine, which of course are also heavily used (Global Drug Survey).

The above table 3 shows that frequency of consuming drugs of drug addicts according to the respondent's perception. 39 percent of the respondents thought addicts consume drugs daily. 15 percent of respondents thought addicts usually consume drugs on weekends

whereas 38 percent of respondents thought that they may consume drugs during parties and gatherings. 8 percent of respondents did not know how many times they consume drugs.

Here it's been understood that the new generation Parties and gatherings have great influence on drug consumption as a status of pride, to enjoy and make themselves one among peers. Once this limit gets crossed the person becomes addicted to drugs and consumes it on daily bases.

Table No 4
Effects of Drugs on The Body

S. No	Drugs Effects On Body	Frequency	Percentage
1	Physical Health Problem	18	18
2	Mental Health Problem	14	14
3	Stress and Anxiety	6	6
4	All the above	62	62
	Total	100	100

Source :- Field Based Data

The above table 4, that effect of drugs on the body according to the respondent's perception. 18 percent of respondents said that physical health is affected by the use of drugs. 14 percent of the respondents said that mental health is also affected by drug use. 6 percent of respondents said stress and anxiety issues are also there. 62 percent of the respondents were those who said physical health problems, mental health problems and stress and anxiety all happen with an addict. Drugs not only affect your physical body and health, but they can affect your mental health, your finances, your relationships, your social life.

Table No 5
Social Effects of Being Addicted To Drug

S. No	Social Effects Of Being Addicted To Drug	Frequency	Percentage
1	Effect on Education	39	39
2	Effect on employment	14	14
3	Family chaos	34	34
4	Other	13	13

	Total	100	100
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Source :- Field Based Data

Long-term use of drugs or alcohol can also affect your ability to socialize. Someone who is doing drugs likely has unbalanced relationships.

The above table 5, show the social effect on being addicted to drugs according to the respondent's perception. 39 percent of the respondents said that drugs affect their education. 14 percent of respondents opinion that drugs affect employment whereas 34 percent of respondents believe that drugs affect family relationships. 13 percent of respondents said that there are other things that happen with an addicted person. Another social effect that Drug addiction brings is behavioral change in personality.

As per the study, 39 percent of the respondents said drugs affect education. According to Monti PM, Miranda R, Nixon K, Sher KJ, Swartzwelder HS, Tapert SF, drug addiction itself may impair cognitive development which, in turn, reduces academic achievement and disrupts academic progression. Recent studies have shown that heavy adolescent substance use can lead to problems with working memory and attention due to changes in adolescent brain activity.

Table No 6**Population Which Majorly Consumed Drugs**

S. No	Consumes Majorly	Drug	Frequency	Percentage
1	Men		29	29
2	Woman		1	1
3	Elderly People		8	8
4	Youth		49	49
5	Teenager		13	13
	Total		100	100

Source :- Field Based Data

The above table 6 provides the data on the population which majorly consumed drugs according to the respondent's perception. 29 percent of men consume drugs in the selected sample. 1 percent of women, 8 percent of elderly people and 13 percent of teenagers consume drugs whereas 49 percent of them were youth.

Table No 7**People Consuming Any Sort Of Drug**

S. No	People Consuming any Sort of Drug	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	51	51
2	No	49	49

	Total	100	100
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Source :- Field Based Data

Factor Responsible for Drugs: - Many different factors contribute to drug addiction. The factors that contribute to drug addiction include genetics, environment, family history, occupation, and social factors. These are some of the most common factors that contribute to addiction. How one relates to and interacts with others can influence their risk of experimenting with drugs and alcohol ([Mackenzie Whitesell](#), 2013).

The above table 7 shows the data of people consuming drugs according to the respondent's perception. The majority of respondents i.e. 51 percent from research area said that they have seen people consuming any sort of drugs whereas 49 percent of the respondents have not seen any people consuming any sort of drugs. As per the study some of the reasons young people have given for taking drugs are to fit in, to escape or relax, to relieve boredom, to see grown-up.

Table No 8

Starting Age of Drugs

S. No	Starting Age of Drugs	Frequency	Percentage
1	Below 15 age	00	00
2	15-25 age	72	72
3	Above 25 age	28	28
	Total	100	100

Source :- Field Based Data

Age, a demographic variable having a possible influence on the phenomenon under consideration is found differential among addicts. The above table 8 indicates the starting age of drug addiction according to the respondent's perception. Here more than half (72 percent) of the respondents belong to the age group of 15 to 25 years. Very few (28 percent) of the total population belong to the age group of above 25 years. As per the study, no one belongs to below 15 years of age.

As per the study, 72 percent of the respondents belong to the age group between 15 to 25 years. The age group 15-25 years is very active in the study and they gave their views without any hesitation. This explained that more than one-third of the respondents had started using drugs from their adolescent age. Most of them started consuming drugs before attaining mental maturity i.e., at the age of 15-25.

Table No 9

Addicted Persons Usually Consume

S. No	Addicted Persons Usually Consume	Frequency	Percentage
1	Cigarette /beedi	38	38
2	Panparag, gutka and other tobacco	13	13
3	Opium	6	6

4	Ganja	28	28
5.	Canbias	5	5
6.	All drugs	10	10
	Total	100	100

Source: - Field-Based Data

We usually think of alcohol or illegal drugs when we think of addiction. People, on the other hand, become addicted to medicines, cigarettes, and even glue. Some substances have a higher potential for addiction than others: Crack or heroin are so addictive that the user may only use them once or twice before losing control (UNODC, 1995).

The table 9, shows the type of drug consumed as per the knowledge of respondents. . 38 percent of the respondents smoke Cigarettes/bidi usually. 13 percent of the respondents consume chew types of Tobacco Products like Panparag, gutka etc. 6 percent of the respondents consume opium usually. 33 percent of the respondents consume cannabis-related products. 10 percent of the respondents usually consume all of the drugs mentioned above.

The majority of respondents used *Cigarettes/beedi*. This is because they are very cheap and are easily available in every shop and there are no particular restrictions for selling them.

Table No. 10**With Whom These Drugs Usually Been Consumed**

S. No	With Whom These Drugs Usually Been Consumed	Frequency	Percentage
1	Alone	13	13
2	Along with friends	57	57
3	In Parties and gathering	22	22
4	All the above	08	08
	Total	100	100

Source: Field-Based Data

The above table 10 indicated the data about 'with whom these drugs have usually been consumed' according to the respondent's perception. Very few (13 percent) of the respondents said that addicted person usually take drug, when they are alone. 57 percent of the respondents said that addicted person consume drugs whenever they are with their friends. 22 percent of the respondents said that addicted person were occasional consume of these types of drugs and 8 percent of respondents said that addicted person had taken above all things (alone, along with friends and in parties and gathering).

Friends are the first role models of any individual. They influence a person's behavior. If the individual is exposed to drug use by friends the person will also have a tendency to experiment with it. Alongside there is also a lack of control from the family which will aggregate the problem (AL Pedrosa, 2020).

Conclusion Addiction to drugs is a worldwide problem. Their effects may be similar everywhere, with just minor variations in magnitude depending on the local situation. This study used proper documentation from the research area to get information about drug addiction viewpoints, difficulties, and recommendations. The current research looked into the "perception about Drug Addiction among Youth." This is to generalise the societal problem, which is prevalent throughout the state. Various recommendations for removing the condition that would emerge from the findings of this study have been made by various groups of individuals. As a result, it's critical to fully appreciate the study's findings. It is clear from this research endeavour that drug addiction is a problem that affects a large portion of the Himachal population. It has far-reaching ramifications in practically every section of the country.

Limitation of the Study

1. Study was limited to Hamirpur District , Himachal Pradesh only.
2. Respondents interviewed were only those who were youth from the age group 15-29yrs.

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Dynamic Alteration of Rural Workforce Structure in India from 1961 to 2011

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Abstract This paper attempts to investigate the dynamics of the nature and extent of rural workforce alteration in India in 1961. It discovers a substantial drop in labor participation rates across time, with the size of the decline being much more significant during the reform. Structural change in every economy is a direct effect of the development process. As a result, as a dynamic economy develops, the occupational structure of the economy must undergo significant changes. The most typical structural shifts witnessed throughout history have been the shifts from agriculture to industry and then to services. As a result, an underdeveloped economy has characterized by a large share of agriculture; as the economy develops, the percentage of industry grows while agriculture shrinks; and finally, as the economy develops to a reasonable level of development, the service sector grows in importance, becoming a significant component of the economy. Kuznets established that changes in sectoral composition caused by demand and supply-side factors had been linked to growth. As a result, demand for industrial items rises, while demand for services rises quickly after reaching a certain level of wealth. The shift in shilling results from varied growth rates in all sectors, dominated by agriculture, which has natural growth constraints. As a result, the industry does not have significant growth potential, primarily dictated by market conditions. Secondary and tertiary sectors have a better potential for growth, which will result in a higher contribution to GDP in the long run. Although the primary sector's percentage of GDP and contribution to GDP has decreased, it continues to be a significant source of employment. Agriculture still employs 49% of India's workforce. The tertiary sector employs 27% of the workforce. In this study, we look at how gains in building, transportation, communication, and storage offset the decline in the absolute number and relative share of employees in agriculture, fishing, forestry, mining, and quarrying.

Keywords Workforce, Structural, Sectors, Employment.

Introduction Structural changes are the average patterns of development observed by Chanery and colleagues in time series and cross-sectional studies across countries. Every economy's structural alteration is a direct result of the development process. As a result, a dynamic economy in the course of development must undergo fundamental changes in the occupational structure of the economy. Historically, the most prevalent structural changes have followed a succession of moves from agriculture to industry and services. As a result, an underdeveloped economy is characterized by a large share of agriculture; as the economy develops, the percentage of the sector grows while agriculture shrinks; and finally, as the economy develops to a reasonable level of development, the service sector grows in importance, becoming a significant component of the economy. Structural shifts and changing sectoral shares are valid for the national product workforce and other primary indicators. Structural changes are not simply characteristics of economic development; they are also required to sustain economic progress. Kuznets established that changes in sectoral composition caused by demand and supply-side factors are linked to growth. According to Fisher and Clark, the income elasticity of demand for agricultural items is low; as income rises, demand for farm products drops; on the other hand, the income elasticity of demand for the industrial sector is high, and it is even higher for services. As a result, demand for industrial goods rises, and after reaching a certain level of wealth,

demand for services increases dramatically. As a result, the industry does not have a significant growth potential, primarily dictated by market conditions. Secondary and tertiary sectors have more considerable growth potential, which will result in a more substantial contribution to GDP in the long run. Despite its declining percentage of GDP and contribution to employment, the primary sector remains a significant source of jobs. Agriculture continues to employ 57% of India's workers.

Aim of study

This paper attempts to investigate the dynamics of the nature and extent of rural workforce alteration in India in 1961. It discovers a substantial drop in labor participation rates across time, with the size of the decline being much more significant during the reform.

Review of Literature

Vaidyanathan. (1986, 1994) discovered a direct link between state unemployment rates and the incidence of non-farm employment. He claims that agriculture's labor force absorption capability is limited, whereas the urban sector is known to support an ever-increasing and massive labor force. As a result, the rural non-farm sector functions as a supplementary sector, and the rural workforce is assigned to it. Visaria P. (1994) claims that the expansion of urban centers spurs non-farm employment in the surrounding rural areas. Aside from that, agricultural growth and commercialization promote various rural industrial activities by supplying raw materials, increasing demand for inputs and allied services, increasing demand for consumer goods, and producing surpluses for investment. Islam (1997). observed that the factors such as infrastructural facility extensions, he claims, are substantially associated. Several human-resource-related factors, including rural worker education and skill development, and credit availability for non-farm enterprises, have aided the pastoral diversification process. Chadha, G.K., (2003) published a report titled Rural Employment in India: Current Situation, Challenges, and Expansion Potential, in which he found that, at the state level, the post-reform period saw a radical reversal in the labor deployment between agriculture and non-agriculture sectors. According to Ghoshal (2005), one of the reasons for the increase in non-farm activity and employment is the lowering in rural land-man ratio owing to demographic pressure, which causes family farms to become unsustainable without non-farm revenue. Das, P., (2011-12), The decline in the labor force participation rate in recent years has been attributed to the increase of education among rural youth and the economic downturn, decrease in work opportunities and reduced labor absorption in agriculture. As a result, the unemployment rate in rural areas has diminished. Hundreds of millions of young people are pursuing higher education to gain better employment opportunities. If the slow pace of job creation continues, the gap between aspirations and reality in India's labor markets will widen.

Main Text**Data Sources**

The information on diverse dimensions of employment in the country was taken from the unit level data of the quinquennial employment and unemployment surveys (EUS) performed by the National Sample Survey Office. This article is based on census data (NSSO). In 1972-73, the first NSSO-EUS was conducted to determine the country's volume and structure of employment and unemployment. Conducted these surveys in 1983, 1993-94, 1999-2000, 2004-05, 2009-10, and 2011-12. The output and employment performance of rural areas was investigated before the reform, after reform, and during the period of economic acceleration.

Employment situation in rural India

The reallocation of the workforce from primary to secondary and tertiary sectors is one of the most fundamental elements of structural restructuring. Urbanization and agglomeration are other outcomes of this process. Any economy that operates solely on market principles will allocate labour based on marginal labour productivity. According to Fisher and Clark's (1939) hypothesis, labour allocation and reallocation occur so that sectoral productivity convergence is eventually achieved. According to them, productivity disparities would widen in middle-income countries before converting to high levels of affluence. Like most developing countries, we know that India's rural economy by the persistence of a large amount of excess labour disguised as open unemployment. It is self-evident that rising population pressure on land has resulted in a massive drop in the land-to-man ratio and a decrease in labour productivity in agriculture. Small and marginal farmers cannot cultivate due to new

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capital-intensive agriculture technology. The agricultural sector's labour force moves to non-agricultural sectors, either within the rural sector or through short-term migration to urban and semi-urban areas.

Furthermore, infrastructure development, particularly the transportation and communication network, appears to have underserved the process of the short-term rural labour movement to urban and semi-urban areas, notwithstanding its modest scale. All of these variables have an impact on the rural workforce.

Shares of Rural Areas

The rural sector's contribution to India's economy from 1970 to 2011 can be seen in its national output and employment percentage. (Table1). In 1970-71, rural areas employed 84.1 percent of the total workforce and created 62.4 percent of the entire net domestic product (NDP). The diminishing contribution of the primary sector to GDP without a corresponding reduction in employment is attributable to the fact that a large portion of the economy's overall growth came from capital-intensive sectors in urban regions that did not generate considerable work. After 1999-00, the rural economy's growth rate increased and became competitive with the urban economy . As a result, overall, NDP has remained stable at roughly 48%. Despite a faster growth rate, the rural proportion of national NDP fell somewhat from 2004-05 to 2011-12. On the other hand, rural employment has steadily declined from 76.1 percent in 1999-00 to 70.9 percent in 2011-12. These data reveal that while the urban economy outperforms the rural economy in terms of output, urban employment is less than half that of rural jobs. This has significant consequences for worker productivity differences between rural and urban locations. Rural India's economy is oriented toward self-employment, and the best approach to gauge employment is likely to be measured in terms of the workforce participation ratio.

On the rural WFPR, (Table 2) delivers the message. The WFPR for all people fell from 45.1 percent in 1961 to 36.1 percent in 1971, then increased to 40 percent in 1991, fell to 38.0 percent in 2001, and then increased to 41.8 percent in 2011. Male and female workforce participation ratios show nearly identical trends, with a minor exception in the case of males. Rural India's economy is oriented toward self-employment; hence the best approach to assess employment is to look at the labor participation rate.

Table -1 Share of Rural Areas in Total NDP and Workforce

Year	Economy	Work Force
1970-1971	62.4	84.1
1980-1981	58.9	80.8
1993-1994	54.3	77.8
1999-2000	48.1	76.1
2004-2005	48.1	74.6
2011-2012	46.9	70.9

Source: NSS data on employment and unemployment survey

Table -2 Rural Workforce Participation rates in India according to Sex (1961-2011) As per Census Data

Year	Male	Female	Persons
1961	58.2	31.4	45.1
1971	53.6	15.5	36.1
1981	53.8	23.2	38.9
1991	52.5	26.7	40.0
2001	52.2	23.1	38.0
2011	53.0	30.0	41.8

Sources: Various Census Reports, GOI.

Structural Changes in Rural Economy

India's rural economy has grown from 229 billion to 34167 billion at current prices and 3199 billion to 21107 billion at constant prices over the last sixty decades. Employment increased from 191 million to 336 million during the same period. Thus, despite a nearly seven-fold rise in output in rural India, employment could not even double.

The output and employment growth rates demonstrate a considerable discrepancy between sectors over time, which is a guiding tool in comprehending the country's rural economic development. Table 3 displays the NDP and job growth by sector, whereas table 4 provides the sectoral arrangement. From 1970-71 to 1993-94, the agriculture sector's NDP grew at 2.57 percent per year, compared to 5.7 percent per year in non-farm industries (table 3). As a result, by 1993-94, agricultural output had declined from 72.4 percent to 57 percent of total rural output (table 4). During the pre-reform period, the manufacturing, construction, and service sectors grew by 5.18 percent, 3.94 percent, and 6.1 percent, respectively, while their share of rural NDP increased by 2, 2, and 10 percentage points, respectively.

Table 3: Growth Rates of NDP at 2004-05 Prices and Employment in Rural Areas (%)

Period	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Construction	Services	Non-agriculture	Total
Net domestic product (at constant prices)						
1971-94	2.57	5.18	3.94	6.10	5.70	3.72
1994-05	1.87	3.38	7.92	3.55	7.93	5.06

2005-12	4.27	15.87	11.49	3.48	9.21	7.45
Employment (usual status)						
1973-94	1.72	3.55	4.82	4.51	4.22	2.16
1994-05	0.74	2.79	3.32	3.25	3.70	1.45
2005-12	-2.04	0.67	12.09	1.35	3.65	-0.28

Source: Same as Table 1

Table 4: Sectoral Share in NDP and Employment in Rural Areas, 1970 to 2012 (%)

Year	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Construction	Services
Share in rural NDP (at current prices)				
1970-71	72.4	5.9	3.5	17.1
1980-81	64.4	9.2	4.1	20.6
1993-94	57.0	8.2	4.6	26.8
1999-00	51.4	11.1	5.6	28.6
2004-05	38.9	11.5	7.8	37.3
2011-12	39.2	18.4	10.5	27.0
Share in rural employment				
1972-73	85.5	5.3	1.4	7.3
1983	83.6	6.2	1.3	8.8
1993-94	78.4	7.0	2.4	11.4
1999-00	76.3	7.4	3.3	12.5

2004-05	72.6	8.1	4.9	13.9
2011-12	64.1	8.6	10.7	15.5

Source: Different Reports on Employment and Unemployment of NSSO, GOI.

Agriculture's growth rate fell to 1.87 percent in the post-reform era (1993-94 to 2004-05), whereas non-farm sector growth rates upturn to 7.93 percent. The agricultural slowdown in the rural economy was due to much more substantial growth in non-farm sectors, which boosted the rural economy's growth rate to above 5%, compared to 3.72 percent before the reform time. Agriculture's part of the rural economy fell even further, from 57 percent in 1993-94 to 39 percent in 2004-05, resulting from these changes. As a result, by 2004-05, the rural economy became increasingly non-agricultural rather than agricultural. In 2004-05, the non-farm industries of services, manufacturing, and construction accounted for 37.3 percent, 11.5 percent, and 7.8 percent of rural output (Table 4). The agriculture industry saw a resurgence from 2004-05 to 2011-12, with an annual growth rate of 4.27 percent.

Similarly, growth in the non-farm sector surged to 9.21%. This time is known as "the period of economic acceleration" because of the rapid expansion in farm and non-farm sectors. During this time, the whole rural economy grew at 7.45 percent each year. It's worth noting that agricultural prices rose faster than non-agricultural pricing, and the growth rates in both sectors were nearly the same at present values. As a result, agriculture's share of the rural NDP did not fall any further, rising to 39.2 percent in 2011 from 39.1 percent in 2004-05. In the non-farm sectors, service sector output grew slower at 3-4% after 2004-05, compared to 8.55 percent in the previous decade. Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, the manufacturing and construction industries grew at an impressive 15.7 percent and 11.49.1 percent, respectively. As a result, the service sector's proportion of rural economies has decreased from 37.3 percent to 27.0 percent over the last seven years, while manufacturing's share has climbed from 11.4 percent to 18.4 percent, and the construction sector's part has increased from 7.8 percent to 10.5 percent. The rural economy diversifies significantly away from agriculture, as seen by growth trends in many sectors. From an economic development standpoint, employment should follow a similar trend and pattern. This was determined using employment data from successive NSSO rounds corresponding to the year for which the rural-urban income distribution was available. Table 3 demonstrates that employment and output growth in rural areas followed different patterns. During the pre-reform period, rural employment grew at a rate of 2.16 percent per year before slowing to 1.45 percent in the post-reform period and turning negative (-0.28 percent) during economic acceleration. As a result, employment grew slower than output and even dropped after the record output growth of 2004-05.

The non-farm industries could not absorb the labor force leaving agriculture, which resulted in sluggish growth and negative employment growth in rural areas. Table 3's findings also suggest that employment elasticity in rural areas has decreased, turning negative after 2004-05. The development that is not sensitive to employment raises questions about the rural economy's ability to deliver meaningful jobs to a growing population and a workforce leaving agriculture. Manufacturing and the service sector suffered a reduction in employment growth, whereas the construction industry saw a dramatic acceleration in employment expansion over time.

Changes in rural Employment after 2004-05

Despite a 7.45 percent yearly rise in output, rural areas experienced negative employment growth after 2004-05. It's essential to figure out whether the drop in the rural workforce between 2004-05 and 2011-12 was attributable to increased unemployment or a shift in the labor force. These factors are investigated by looking at changes in labor force participation and workforce distribution across sectors by household type and gender and tracking the activity status of the "not in labor force" population between 2004-05 and 2011-12. During high productivity and falling employment (2004-05 to 2011-12), the rural population grew by 62 million, with male and female proportions equal (Table 5). As evidenced by

Table 5: Changes in Population and Economically Active Persons in Rural Areas between 2004-05 and 2011-12 (Millions)

Particulars	Male		Female		Persons	
	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12

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1 Population	401	432	379	410	780	842
2 LFPR (%)	56	55	33	25	45	41
3 Labour force	223	239	126	104	349	342
4 Workforce	219	235	124	102	343	336
4.1 Agriculture	146	139	103	76	249	216
4.1.1 Cultivators	93	92	67	49	160	141
4.1.2 Agriculture labour	53	48	37	27	89	75
4.2 Non-farm	73	95	21	26	94	121

Source: NSSO Various Employment and Unemployment Survey Reports.

Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, the share of the male population joining the labor force stayed practically similar (55%), and 16 million out of 31 million more male population joined the labor force. However, female labor force participation has decreased dramatically from 33% in 2004-05 to 25% in 2011-12, resulting in a 22 million reduction in the female labor force. Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, the rural labor force (male and female) decreased by nearly 7 million people. Surprisingly, NSSO data revealed no change in unemployed (based on normal status) over this period and showed that the workforce in rural areas shrank by a similar amount as the labor force. It is worth noting that the removal of female workers from the labor force occurred in all types of rural households. In both percentage and absolute terms, the withdrawal of female workers from the labor force is highest among agricultural labor households, followed by cultivators and non-farm households.

Many academics have proposed reasonable explanations for women's absence from the workforce (Mazumdar and Neetha, 2011; Rangarajan et al., 2013; Chand and Shrivastava; 2014). Increased participation in educational activities is one of the reasons for the drop in female LFPR (Rangarajan et al., 2011).

Table 6: Reason-wise Distribution of 'Not in Labour Force' Population in Rural Areas (%)

Household Type	Education		Domestic Activities		Others*		Not in Labour Force (%)	
	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12
Male								
Cultivator	62.9	71.3	0.8	0.8	36.3	27.9	44.3	44.1
Agriculture labour	53.7	67.9	1.1	0.9	45.2	31.2	43.2	42.5
Agriculture worker	59.5	70.2	0.9	0.9	39.6	29.0	43.9	43.5
Non-farm	58.9	63.4	0.9	1.0	40.2	35.6	48.1	47.8
Rural worker	59.3	67.1	0.9	0.9	39.8	32.0	45.4	45.3
Female								
Cultivator	29.1	31.5	48.3	52.2	22.7	16.3	74.9	80.9
Agriculture labour	28.1	32.5	42.7	49.0	29.2	18.6	65.3	73.8
Agriculture worker	28.8	31.8	46.3	51.1	25.0	17.0	71.2	78.5

Non-farm	27.9	29.3	48.1	51.9	24.0	18.8	81.7	86.3
Ruralwork of Person	28.4	30.7	47.0	51.5	24.6	17.8	75.1	81.9
Cultivator	42.2	46.3	29.9	33.1	27.9	20.6	59.1	61.8
Agricultural labour	38.5	45.5	25.9	31.2	35.7	23.2	54.1	58.0
Agricultural worker	40.9	46.0	28.5	32.5	30.7	21.5	57.2	60.5
Non-farm	39.5	41.6	30.4	33.5	30.0	24.9	64.8	66.8
Rural worker	40.3	44.0	29.2	33.0	30.4	23.0	59.9	63.2

Source: As mentioned in “Data Sources” (Different Reports of NSSO Employment and Unemployment survey)

Among the household types, the increase in the share of education in the total "not in labor force" female population was three percentage points for agricultural workers compared to 1.4 percentage points for non-farm households. Similarly, the male "not in labor force" population in education witnessed a substantial increase across all household types during consideration. Increasing enrolment for education is a desirable trend in terms of improvement in education level and skills for the process. But the real challenge will be to create employment opportunities for those educated people who join the labor force after acquiring education. Most of the employment opportunities have to be made in the non-farm sector as the natural choice of the educated youth would be to join the more productive non-farm sectors instead of agriculture. It is interesting to note that education accounted for one-third of the entire reduction in the female labor force. In contrast, the withdrawal of male counterparts from the labor force (from agriculture) was the same as increased education. Many females, withdrawn from the labor force, confined themselves to household activities. The highest increase in the proportion of females removed from farm work and staying back at home is reported in the case of agricultural worker households. A further increase in the proportion of females in domestic activities is also noticed in the case of non-farm families, whose economic conditions are not very good. Four chose to withdraw from the workforce and stay back in households.

One argument is that high growth in agricultural output and the resulting terms of trade for agriculture during 2004–04 to 2011–12 resulted in a high rate of increase in the income of farmers and agricultural laborers in this period, which led to a withdrawal from farm work. This appears to be a component of the explanation that can hold in their earnings. Some scholars argue that the female withdrawal from the labor force might be due to the reversal of an unprecedented increase in the female labor force caused by agrarian distress from 1999–2000 to 2004–05 (Abraham 2009; Thomas 2012). However, empirical evidence refutes such arguments because the reduction in female LFPR was not confined to only agricultural households but was across all house types in rural areas.

Other reasons for the workforce reduction appear to be (1) increasing mechanization of farm operations, (2) increasing reservation wage, and a lack of suitable work at that wage rate. (3) manufacturing jobs away from the place of residence, discouraging females from pursuing them; (4) a lack of skill to obtain well-paid non-farm jobs; and (5) rising tension between agricultural labor employers due to changing social relationships between them (Chand and Srivastava 2014).

Apart from the withdrawal of the labor force or workforce, sizeable shifts in the workforce across sectors were also observed between 2004-05 and 2011-12. Of the 33 million workers who left agriculture, 27 million (81%) were female, and 6 million (19%) were male (Table 5). Further, the outgoing workforce from agriculture comprised both cultivators and agricultural labor, with their respective shares of 56% and 44%. Out of 27 million female workers who left agriculture, only 5 million joined non-farm sectors,

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and the rest withdrew from the labor force itself. In contrast, between 2004-05 and 2011-12, 6 million male workers left agriculture, and the 16 million additional labor force joined non-farm sectors. Based on this evidence, it can conclude that from 2004-05 to 2011-12, the rural workforce witnessed defeminization, and employment diversification towards non-farm sectors was biased against females.

Sector wise change in rural economy**Agriculture**

The results reported in the preceding sections reveal that agriculture's contribution to rural output has gradually decreased. This is thought to be a positive move for the advancement of economic development. However, an over-reliance on agriculture as a source of employment has arisen as a significant issue. For the first time in its history, India's agricultural workforce shrank between 2004-05 and 2011-12. The decline rate was 2.04 percent. Despite this, agriculture employed 64% of the entire rural workers in 2011-12 while producing only 39% of total rural production. To achieve convergence between the share of agriculture in total output and employment, it is predicted that 84 million agricultural employees in rural areas would have to be transferred to non-farm sectors in 2011-12. This translates to an almost 70% growth in non-farm employment, which appears to be quite tricky. The vast disparity in worker productivity between agricultural and non-farm industries is due to an overdependence on agriculture. In 2011-12, per worker productivity in the farm industry was only \$30,912, compared to 1,19512 in non-farm industries (at 2004-05 prices) (Table7).

This reveals that non-farm employment in rural areas was 2.8 times more productive than farm employment. The difference in per-worker productivity between the farm and non-farm sectors has decreased by 1%. Sector-specific implicit price deflators (2004-05=100) were used to deflate NDP.

Table 7: Trend in per Worker Productivity in Farm and Non-farm Sectors

-	Real Productivity (Rs./worker)				Compound Growth Rate (%)		
	1970-71	1993-94	2004-05	2011-12	1970-71 to 1993-94	1993-94 to 2004-05	2004-05 to 2011-12
1 Farm	13,841	17,629	19,933	30,842	1.06	1.12	6.43
2 Non-farm	34,128	53,453	82,990	1,19,685	1.97	4.08	5.37
3 Ratio: 2/1	2.47	3.03	4.16	3.88	0.90	2.92	-1.00

Source: NSSO. Different survey reports on Employment and Unemployment.

Manufacturing

Between 1970-71 and 1993-94, manufacturing production in rural areas grew at a 5.18 percent annual pace. The post-reform period (1993-94 to 2004-05) saw a higher rate of growth of 8.38 percent, which accelerated to 15.8 percent from 2004-05 to 2011-12. (see Table 3) Manufacturing grew faster than other sectors, increasing its proportion of rural NDP from 5.9% in 1970-71 to 18.4% in 2011-12 (see Table 4), indicating a definite trend toward industrialization in rural regions. On the other hand, the signals of automation were not evident in the changes in the job structure. Between 1972-73 and 1993-94, the manufacturing sector added 10.29 million jobs (or 29% of all nonfarm positions), and its percentage of total rural employment climbed from 5.3 percent to 7 percent. During the following decade (post-reform), the sector added 7 million jobs (23.4 percent of new nonfarm jobs). Yet, its share of total rural employment climbed by only one percentage point to 8.1 percent in 2004-05. Manufacturing employment increased by only 1.2 million people between 2004-05 and 2011-12. (4.9 percent share in incremental nonfarm jobs). Manufacturing employment grew slower in the second and third periods, falling from 3.55 percent in the first to 2.79 percent in the second and 0.65 percent in the third (see Table 3). Wearing clothes, tobacco products, textiles, and non-metallic mineral items are all examples of manufacturing products. The largest employment-generating sub-sectors are textiles,

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non-metallics, and food and drinks (Table 8). Between 2004-05 and 2011-2012, most of these subsectors had either employment stagnation or decline. The biggest impediment to rural employees entering the manufacturing sector appears to be a lack of skills and technical knowledge. The NSSO surveys paint a bleak picture of the degree of education and technical skill held by rural workers. In 2011-12, more than three-quarters of the rural workforce aged 5 to 59 years lacked even a secondary education (Table 9).

Table 8: Sub-sector wise Changes in Employment (Usual Status) in Manufacturing and Services Sectors

Sub-sectors	Employment: Usual Status (million)		Compound Growth Rate (%)	Share in Total Manufacturing Employment (%)	
	2004-05	2011-12		2004-05	2011-12
Wearing apparel	3.4	4.2	2.9	12.3	14.5
Tobacco products	3.4	3.6	0.8	12.3	12.5
Textile	4.5	3.6	-3.2	16.0	12.3
Non-metallic mineral products	3.4	3.6	0.8	12.3	12.5
Food products and beverages	3.4	3.4	0.0	12.3	11.8
Machinery, metal products and transport equipment	2.1	3.0	5.7	7.4	10.4
Wood and wood products	4.1	2.8	-5.4	14.8	9.6
Furniture	1.7	1.5	-2.1	6.2	5.1
Chemical products	0.7	0.6	-2.6	2.5	2.0
Rubber and plastic products	0.3	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.3

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Paper and printing, etc	0.3	0.3	-0.3	1.2	1.2
Leather and related products	0.3	0.3	-1.8	1.2	1.0
Others	0.0	1.7	-	0.0	5.8
Manufacturing sector: Subtotal	27.6	29.0	0.67	100	100
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles	18.5	18.8	0.3	38.9	36.0
Transport, storage and communication	8.6	10.0	2.3	18.0	19.2
Education	5.5	7.0	3.4	11.5	13.3
Hotel and restaurants	2.4	2.9	2.9	5.0	5.6
Public administration, defence and compulsory social security	2.7	2.7	-0.5	5.8	5.1
Health and social work	1.4	1.6	2.0	2.9	3.0
Financial intermediation	0.7	1.1	7.1	1.4	2.1
Others	7.8	8.2	0.7	16.4	15.7
Services sector: Subtotal	47.6	52.3	1.4	100	100

Furthermore, only 1.3 percent of rural laborers aged 15 to 59 had a technical education. 6 Similarly, only 14.6 percent of this age group's rural workforce got vocational training to develop skills (knowledge, skill, and attitude) of skilled or semi-skilled employees in various crafts. Female laborers have a lower degree of schooling and technical education than their male counterparts, according to gender disaggregation. These statistics show that establishing industries and improving infrastructure are necessary but insufficient conditions for creating rural employment.

Improvements in rural infrastructure must be followed by successful Human Resources Development programs that provide rural youth with the appropriate skills and training to match the job requirements in the rural economy.

Table -9 Education Level (General and Technical) of Usually Employed Rural Workers (Age Group 15-59 Years)(%)

Rural Workers	Male		Female		Persons	
	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12	2004-05	2011-12
Secondary education and above	19.7	27.1	6.8	11.8	14.9	22.3
With technical education	1.7	1.6	0.7	0.7	1.3	1.3
With vocational training	14.2	15.4	13.0	12.7	13.8	14.6

Source: Authors' estimation based on unit level NSSO data on employment and unemployment survey.

Source: NSSO ,Various Reports on Employment and Unemployment Survey.

Service Sector

In rural areas, the service industry was the second-largest source of output and employment. In 2011-12, the sector accounted for around 27% of total rural production and 15.5 percent of full rural employment. According to National Accounts Statistics, the services sector experienced annual real NDP growth of 5.94 percent and 6.1 percent in urban and rural areas, respectively, during the pre-reform period; growth increased to 8.94 percent and 8.55 percent, respectively, during the post-reform period. Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, urban areas maintained an 8.42 percent increase in services sector production, while rural areas saw a 3.48 percent decrease. The service industry has played a significant role in the country's structural development, but its gains have been primarily centered in urban areas in recent years. In 1993-94, wholesale and retail trade and auto repair accounted for 27% of NDP's entire service sector. Between 1993-94 and 2004-05, this climbed to 37% due to remarkable annual growth in the entire services sector in rural areas.

From trade and hotel and restaurant activities, NDP fell by 4.8 percent and 2.5 percent per year in 2004-05 and 2011-12, respectively. Even though there was a substantial increase in financial services, transportation, storage, communication, and public administration and social security operations, growth in the overall services sector output slowed to a crawl.

The "shopping" behavior of rural households towards urban centers could be one of the reasons for the fall in output of some services in rural areas. Improved road connectivity and transportation and a surge in private vehicle ownership have made it easier for rural residents to travel nearby urban areas for shopping and other necessities. Although consumers in metropolitan regions have more options, this has a negative impact on rural trade and other enterprises.

After 2004-05, the service sector's output slowed, resulting in a decline in employment growth. Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, employment in the service industry grew at 1.35 percent per year, compared to 3.25 percent in the previous year (Table 3). Between 2004-05 and 2011-12, the service sector, which provides generally decent and comfortable work, accounted for only 15% of the 27 million new jobs produced in non-agricultural industries. Wholesale and retail trade, which includes auto repair services, was the largest sub-sector in terms of employment in 2011-12, accounting for 36.2 percent of total employment in services. However, from 2004-05 and 2011-12, job development in this sub-sector remained flat, resulting in a slowdown in overall

service sector employment.

Conclusion The current article looks at India's rural workforce's growth and structural changes during the last five decades. Due to changes in the WPR, worker growth in rural areas has slowed. Between 2001 and 2011, the rate of growth in the rural workforce, particularly among women, was rapidly dropping, according to the data. A decrease in younger age group-specific WPRs, particularly among rural females, was offset by increased WPR of adult and older age groups of the same gender. Rural areas contribute approximately half of the national income and more than two-thirds of overall employment. Almost all agricultural output is produced in these areas, nearly half of industrial and construction output and a quarter of service sector output in the economy. The low level and considerable differences in worker productivity are prominent in these locations. Despite the rapid expansion of cities and towns and more incredible services and economic opportunities in urban regions, more than two-thirds of India's population still lives in rural areas. The low level of per capita income in rural areas is attributable to reliance on low-paying agricultural jobs and low productivity. The rural economy has shifted away from agriculture and toward non-agricultural enterprises.

Agriculture's share of rural income has shrunk to less than 39%. Between 1970 and 2011, its share of manufacturing output more than doubled, surpassing that of urban areas. However, this shift did not coincide with a corresponding change in employment, and rural manufacturing employment dropped. Female farmworkers withdrew in enormous numbers for various reasons, and the majority of them returned to their homes. According to some data, the defeminisation of the rural workforce is due to a lack of available jobs rather than a lack of inclination to work outside the home. The majority of the workers left agriculture to work in the construction industry. After 2004-05, employment growth in the manufacturing and service sectors in rural areas slowed dramatically. The most significant barriers to rural workers entering the manufacturing industry are lacking essential skills and technical knowledge. The service industry in rural areas has shown a decrease in output and employment. The rising reliance of rural customers on service providers in urban regions is one of the primary reasons. Linking processes to production through an efficient value chain, contract farming, and a direct link between the factory and the farm has a lot of potential for creating rural jobs and increasing farmer income. Must make diverse efforts to move personnel from the agriculture sector to non-agricultural industries. In rural India, India needs to find an alternative sort of manufacturing. Micro, small, and medium enterprises and labor-intensive units appear viable options for rural job creation.

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A Paradigm Shift in India Japan Relations During the 21st Century

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Abstract

In the international politics, there are no permanent friends and no permanent foes. The nation states relations are largely determined by their national interests. India-Japan relations remained largely inactive for half a century after the World War II. The two nations had different orientations of foreign policy and divergent national interests. India was the founder member of and a strong adherent to Non-alignment movement while Japan remained aloof from playing any active political role at the international stage rather it focused on its economic revival. It put faith in its alliance with the US for its national security. In the 1971, India signed 'treaty of Peace, Friendship and Cooperation' with the erstwhile USSR. This set the two countries in the opposite camps of the Cold war. Their different foreign policy alignments, diverging national interests and India's nuclear tests were the main issues that refrained the two nations from forming any meaningful bilateral partnership. But the changing geopolitical scenarios of the Indo-Pacific region in the 21st century is bringing the two countries together. This research article evaluate the progress made by India-Japan relations in the first two decades of the 21st century. This article also looks into the different factors working in the favour of their relations.

Keywords

Special Strategic Partnership, Maritime Cooperation, the Quadrilateral Initiative, South China Sea, the ODA.

Introduction

India and Japan share bond of cultural and religious affinity through Buddhism religion. Buddhism had helped in establishing a permanent and deep spiritual connection between the people of the two countries. In the modern era, they share commitment to the ideals of democracy, pluralism, tolerance, open society, respect for fundamental rights and international laws. They were able to establish diplomatic relation on a positive note in April 1952. India treated defeated and humbled Japan with respect and affection after the World War II. It signed a separate 'Treaty of Perpetual Peace and Amity' with Japan in place of 'Treaty of San Francisco' signed with it by the allied powers. India also supported the cause of Japan's entry into international organizations like International Labour organization and its participation in international conferences in the 1950s[1]. But this initial bonhomie did not translate into any substantial progress in their bilateral relations. Main reason behind this was their divergent foreign policies in the 1950s. Japan signed mutual defence agreement with the US in 1954 and joined the camp of the US in the cold war politics, on the other hand, India was the founding member of Non-Aligned movement and chose not to become part of the warring camps. Due to Japan's sensitivity to nuclear issue, India's nuclear tests further hurt the prospects of their relations. Their cooperation remained largely inactive with limited economic interactions in the second half of 20th century.

At the start of 21st century, the course of their relations took a major turn. During the historic visit of Japan PM Yashiro Mori in the year 2000, the two countries signed the global partnership in the 21st century. Japan discontinued its sanctions against India that were imposed in the aftermath of India's nuclear test in the year 1998[2]. In the first two decades of 21st century, the two countries are able to establish multifaceted and broad based special strategic partnership. The theoretical framework of neorealism has been adopted to understand the geopolitical environment of the Indo-Pacific that is bringing the two countries together.

Aim of study This article objective is to look into the different factors working in the favour of improving India-Japan relations. It also evaluate the progress made in their relations in the first twenty years of the 21st century.

Review of Literature In order to fulfil the objectives of this research, researcher have reviewed the governments' documents from the sites of Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Defence of Governments of India and Japan. Bilateral partnership of India and Japan is an emerging partnership in the new geopolitical environment of the Indo-Pacific region. A limited work is available on this topic. This article is an effort to provide details and insight into this research topic.

Main Text

India-Japan Special Strategic Partnership

At the turn of 21st century, a significant event took place in the relations of the two countries. The Japanese Prime Minister Yashiro Mori paid a visit to India in the year 2000. This was the first visit of Japanese PM to India after a gap of ten years. He expressed his wish that two country should not only cooperate and collaborate at bilateral level but also at regionally and globally level. The two countries established a 'Global partnership in the 21st century' during this visit[3]. Before this, Japan had established Global partnership only with the US. In the following year on October 10, 2001, Japanese government announced that it would withdraw all its sanctions imposed against India in the aftermath of its nuclear test in May 1998. However, a watershed moment in their relations came in the year 2005 during the visit of the Japanese PM Junichiro Koizumi to India. In the meeting with his counterpart, PM Manmohan Singh, the two leaders recognized a high degree of congruence in their political, economic and strategic interests. They agreed on a point that international situations had been the changing especially in Asia, which would be a leading economic growth center of the world in the 21st century. The two countries undertook an 'Eight fold initiative' to broaden and deepen their Partnership. The following eight areas of cooperation were identified to take their partnership forward.

1. Enhanced Dialogue and Exchanges
2. Comprehensive Economic Exchanges
3. Enhanced Security Dialogue and Cooperation
4. Science and Technology Initiative
5. Cultural and Academic Initiative and Strengthening People to People contacts
6. Cooperation in ushering a New Asian era
7. Corroboration in the UN and Other International Organizations
8. Responding to International Challenges: Recognizing the threat posed by it[4]

The 'eight fold initiative' provided a strategic orientation to their relations and set the future course of their bilateral, regional and international cooperation. Two leaders agreed that "a strong, prosperous and dynamic India is in the interest of Japan and vice versa 2005. It was also decided that regular annual summit level meeting would take place between the two countries. In the year 2006, strategic partnership was established during the visit of Indian PM Manmohan Singh to Japan[5]. This event was of great importance to their relations. Institution of the strategic partnership meant that the two countries had official realised and accepted the convergence of their long term vital national interests.

With the establishment of strategic partnership, their bilateral relations continued to gain momentum in the subsequent years. In the year 2010, a new initiative of two plus two dialogue at the secretary level was launched among the defence and foreign ministries of the two countries. The aim was to synchronise their foreign and security policies to strengthen their partnership. In the year 2014, during the historic visit of Indian PM Narendra Modi to Japan, he and his Japanese counterpart Shinzo Abe raised the level of their strategic and global partnership to 'special strategic and global partnership. Both leaders termed this meeting as the dawn of a new era in the relations of two countries. New Indian PM Modi chose Japan as the first country to visit outside of India's immediate neighbourhood. He gave reason to choose Japan over other countries that it has a prominent role to play in India's economy development and foreign policy. He also emphasized that Japan has a central role in India's look east policy[6]. During the visit of Japanese PM to India in the year 2015, India and Japan unveiled their joint vision for peace, prosperity and security of the Indo-pacific region for the next one decade. Setting up of a long term common goals and vision for the region reflected their increasing confidence in their strategic partnership. They also stressed the importance of global commons in maritime, cyber and space field. Both leaders implicitly criticised China for its unilateral action in the waters of the South China Sea. This was the first reference to China in India-Japan joint communique. They recognised the importance of the South China Sea in regional security, trade and commerce, which is crucial for the peace and prosperity of the entire Indo-Pacific region. Both the nations have consensus that maritime dispute in the SCS should be peacefully resolved in line with the code of conduct of parties established in the year 2002 and international law like the United

Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) till any further consensus emerged on the code of conduct among the parties involved in the this dispute[7]. Moreover, the two nations are committed to work with other concerned state actors in the Indo-Pacific region to make efforts to maintain the rights of unimpeded lawful commerce, overflight and the freedom of navigation in the international waters of this region. To realise their common vision of Indo-Pacific region, the two countries have decided to synergize Japan's foreign policies of 'Free and Open Indo-Pacific Strategy' and 'Expanded Partnership for Quality Infrastructure' with India's foreign policy of 'Act East Policy'. They share common vision for the Indo-Pacific region that reflects in the common objectives of India's Indo-Pacific Oceans' Initiative (IPOI) and Japan's Free and Open Indo-Pacific initiative[8].

The Japanese PM Abe committed to invest 35 billion dollar of public and private investment in the next five years in India during Indian PM Modi's visit to Japan in the year 2014[9]. Japan has been financing critical infrastructure building in India. A big contribution has been made by Japan in the infrastructure building in India with through its Official Development Assistance (ODA). Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), a government agency that disburse ODA in the developing world which in turn facilitate international cooperation for Japan. It provides financial help at very cheap interest rates to the developing nations. India has been the biggest and oldest recipient of ODA from Japan. This comes along with the technical expertise needed for these projects. A substantial part of the orders in the projects undertaken under the ODA, goes to Japanese companies. Thus Japan is also getting economic benefits from these projects. On the other side, India is getting much needed financial and technical support from JICA to build its critical infrastructure. Metro projects in major cities: Delhi, Ahmedabad, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai and Bangalore are being technically and financially supported by Japan. An 1500 km long Western Dedicated Freight Corridor (WDFC) from Delhi to Mumbai is being constructed, which will act as a back bone of Delhi-Mumbai Industrial Corridor. An 1856 km long Eastern Dedicated Freight Corridor (EDFC) from Ludhiana (Punjab) to Dankuni (West Bengal) is also a major infrastructure projects undertaken under the grants of ODA from Japan[10]. During his visit to India in 2017, Japanese PM Shinzo Abe unveiled High Speed Railway project (the Shinkansen system) from Mumbai to Ahmedabad. Both the countries are also working upon the connectivity projects between the Northeast India and Southeast Asia for the sustainable economic development of India's Northeast region. Moreover, Japanese ODA is also positively contributing to women empowerment, water security, forestry, human resource development, energy security and business environment improvement projects in India.

Japan has promised its full support to Indian government initiative such as Digital India, Make in India, Skill India, Smart City and Clean India. Along with it, Japan is the third largest investor in India. Japan has trained 3700 Indian in Japan-India Institutes for Manufacturing and Japanese Endowed Courses in 2021-22[11]. India and Japan have established Industrial Competitiveness Partnership in November 2021.

India-Japan economic relations are growing at fast pace after the establishment of the special strategic and global partnership in the year 2014. Japan has fulfilled its promise of making 35 billion dollar of public and private investment in India in five year as committed by former PM Abe in the year 2014. During the visit of Japan's new PM Kishida Fumio to India in March 2022, he has promised another 42 billion dollar of public and private investment in India over the next five years.

Defence and security Cooperation

Defence and security is an essential part of their bilateral, regional and global partnership. Emerging maritime issues and threats in the Indo-Pacific region have bolstered their defence cooperation. Maritime cooperation is at the heart of their defence cooperation. They face common adversary in the form of China. Aggressive and expansionist policies of China at its land and maritime borders has brought the two countries together to form a solid defence partnership. Their defence partnership is growing stronger in recent years. Their first ever naval exercise was held as a part of Quad countries' naval exercise along with Singapore navy. In the year 2008, the two countries laid the framework for their security cooperation and initiated cooperation at the highest level during the visit of Indian PM Manmohan Singh to Japan. Their defence and security partnership is on the rise since. Currently, the two countries have elaborate and comprehensive defence cooperation mechanism including the coast guard to the coast guards cooperation, military to military cooperation, defence policy dialogue and the two plus two dialogue. They conduct annual bilateral exercises among all three parts of their military namely Dharma Guardian, Shinyuu Maitri and Malabar between their army, air force and navy respectively. In 2012, the first bilateral naval exercise was conducted off the coast of Japan. In the year 2015, Japan became the regular participant in the annual Malabar naval exercise[12]. Three important agreements namely the Acquisition and Cross-Servicing Agreement, the Transfer of the Defence Equipment and Technology and the Agreement concerning Security Measures for the Protection of Classified Military Information have been signed between the two countries. These agreements will further boost their defence cooperation. The two countries are collaborating their security and foreign policy through their annual two-plus-two dialogue and summit meetings. Their two-plus-two dialogue has been elevated to the ministerial

level. The first ministerial meeting of this dialogue took place in November 2019 in New Delhi.

Along with this, they are also collaborating on the number of important issues of climate action, terrorism, nuclear proliferation and space security humanitarian assistance and disaster relief (HA/DR) exercises. A very important agreement on the Civil Nuclear Cooperation was signed during Indian PM Modi's visit to Japan on November 11, 2016 after the negotiation process of 6 years and subsequently came into force on July 20, 2017[13].

Regional and international Cooperation

India and Japan have been able to establish multifaceted and multisectoral partnership. The two countries are cooperating at bilaterally, regionally and globally levels to serve their mutual national interests. Both countries are committed to use regional forum especially the East Asia Summit with the centrality of ASEAN nations in it, to discuss and resolve the issues of regional peace and security. They are also cooperation with the likeminded countries to promote peace and prosperity in the region. Aggressive and expansionist policies of China in the region has forced countries of the region to come together to counter it. Quadrilateral initiative of the US, Japan, India and Australia is one such initiative. A first in person meeting of Quad leaders at the summit level was held in September 2021, before this a virtual summit meet was held in March 2021[14]. The fourth foreign ministers' meeting of Quad was held in February 2022. The four countries have recognized their shared responsibility to safeguard and promote free and open international order based on the international laws. The four countries share and promote the vision of free and open Indo-Pacific region.

India and Japan are in the favour of reforms in the United Nations Security Council (UNSC). They want expansion in the number of permanent and non-permanent members of the UNSC so that this body could reflect and accommodate the new geopolitical realities of the 21st century. The two countries support each other permanent membership in the UN Security Council. Japan has helped India to become member of international control regimes of Missile Technology Control Regime, Australia Group and Wassenaar Arrangement. It also support India's membership in the key nuclear proliferation control regime of Nuclear Supplier Group. The two countries in the wake of increasing convergence of their regional and global interest are committed to promote each other interests.

Conclusion

In the year 1991, India undertook liberalization, privatization and globalization reforms. It showcased its willingness engage with other prominent state actors. At the end of cold war politics and amid the changing dynamics of world politics, India and Japan find their strategic interests converging. They are building their relations upon their common values of democracy, pluralism, open economy and their commitment to international laws and fundamental rights. Their economic partnership has come up as the most important aspect of their relations. Japan is helping India in building its modern infrastructure by providing required financial and technical help. Japanese companies are getting good business from these projects. Japan companies and business are making big direct and institutional investment in Indian economy. Indian economy with large consumer base and high potential growth is a very attractive destination for them. In return, nascent Indian business are getting access to the Japanese state of art technology. The Indian automobile business of Maruti Suzuki and Hero Honda are prime example of this partnership.

Rise of China and its aggressive and expansionist foreign policies have brought India and Japan together to counter and contain it. Both the countries are part of the Quadrilateral initiative, which is apparently an alliance to counter China. They are gradual rise in their defence and security cooperation especially in the field of maritime cooperation. Recently, they have signed the three key defence agreements to facilitate their defence cooperation through increased interoperability. They are cooperating at regional and international platforms like East Asia Summit and the United Nations to support and promote each other agendas. Thus it would not be wrong to say here that their relations have made substantial progress in the 21st century and are mutually beneficial. But still there is a large potential left to discover in this partnership.

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Jai Bhim: The Veracity of Custodial Violence

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Abstract This paper examines the issue of custodial deaths while in police custody. Custodial violence has grown to be a serious human rights and criminal law issue, as well as one of the most significant im-pediments to democracy and the advancement of human well-being in modern societies. Despite the existence of several laws in our judicial system, the problem of custodial violation remains.

Keywords Custodial Violence, Jai Bhim, George Floyd, Institution, Police Re-Forms.

Introduction In this paper, the issue of custodial violence has been brought to light through the film Jai Bhim. This film portrays numerous aspects of society and institutions. It also shows how convicts are denied of their rights and tormented while detained. This paper examines how the film depicted prison realities, interactions with inmates, and the use of inhumane torture. The unlawful and harsh treatment of po-lice personnel, as well as the obstacles faced by innocent people fighting against such a system, are also discussed through the plot of the film. This article also examines the reasons stated by police of-ficers for justifying their misbehaviour in a variety of scenarios, and they claim that obtaining a con-fession from an accused individual is essential. Statistics and examples of guilty officers' convictions are also taken into account. It also looks into the different incidents of police officers being convicted and punished after the brutal killing of George Floyd in the United States. And what may be learned from the United States in this regard. This paper also examines current examples of custodial brutality in India, as well as the efforts of advocates to fight injustice.

Aim of study To Determine the Custodial Reforms.

Review of Literature

When it comes to justifying their actions, this paper emphasises on the fact that those officers involved in the misbehaviour as individuals do not represent the police as an institution. This paper further stated that facts and statistics are rarely used to judge cases of misconduct, and that their actions are interpreted according to popular beliefs. Finally, the study looks at what has been done so far to combat the threat of custodial violence and what more needs to be done. It also believes that police changes in India are urgently needed, and that the Supreme Court of India's directives in Prakash Singh v. Union of India must be followed.

Main Text

To deal with the custodial violence our Indian legal system contains a slew of regulations governing police behaviour in detention and dealing with instances of torture. Various laws and statutes, including Section 76 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, Sections 330, 331 & 348 of the Indian Penal Code, Section 29 of the Indian Police Act, Sections 25 & 26 of the Indian Evidence Act, and the Constitution of India, explicitly outline legal remedies. In spite of these precautions, India was unsuccessful to put these legal measures into effect. India is a signatory to many conventions against torture, including the "International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), and the United Nations Convention Against Torture (UNCAT)". Torture and the use of brutal means and methods against humans are likewise prohibited under these accords. "Every state party should adopt effective legislative, administrative, judicial, or other measures to prohibit acts of torture in any area under its authority," according to UNCAT's Article 2(1). "No one should be subjected to torture or cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment," says Article 5- "of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Article 7 of the

ICCPR is also crucial in that it prohibits governments from torturing people for whatever reason". As a signatory to international treaties, India has a responsibility to comply and not violate their requirements.[1]

All of the above-mentioned statutes deal specifically with police conduct and the validity of confessions made while in police custody. In India, jail reforms resulted from the worst circumstances of treatment experienced by political prisoners in prison during their detention, rather than from a popular movement. They protested with the prison officials on several occasions, and they did everything they could to ensure that detainees were treated humanely and that the rigours of prison life were lessened. All of the above-mentioned statutes deal specifically with police conduct and the validity of confessions made while in police custody. In India, jail reforms resulted from the worst circumstances of treatment experienced by political prisoners in prison during their detention, rather than from a popular movement. They protested with the prison officials on several occasions, and they did everything they could to ensure that detainees were treated humanely and that the rigours of prison life were lessened.[2] N.V. Ramana, India's Chief Justice, voiced alarm over the extent of human rights breaches at police stations around the country. "Despite constitutional declarations and protections, detained individuals suffer greatly from a lack of efficient legal counsel at police stations," he stated. Though a reality check reveals that the scenario isn't as terrible as it appears, and that attempts have been made to enhance the protection of human rights system in police stations.[3]

Custodial Violence

Custodial violence is the most visible of our criminal justice system's numerous systemic failings in securing justice and maintaining equal rights for everyone because of its pervasive and heinous character, which turns the very guardians of the law into criminals. The police, who are tasked with upholding the rule of law, are involved in some of the most heinous acts of cruelty. It is more shocking than the severity is the casualness with which this procedure is being carried out. In interviews, police officials have said publicly that torture is essential to get a confession from an accused person. Our reaction has implicitly legitimised the savagery, from the film industry's loud celebration of the concept of a violent police force to public spectacles featuring glorification of encounter killings.[4] The inadequacy of judicial response, the lack of political will, and the collusion of state machinery, which has repeatedly failed to comprehend the importance of enacting far-reaching police reforms, are all testaments to the inadequacy of judicial response, the absence of political will, and the collusion of state machinery.[5]

Judicial Response

The statistics on guilty officers' conviction rates are not promising. In an landmark judgement, a special CBI court in Kerala sentenced two Kerala Police officers to death for the brutal prison torture and killing of a young man called Udayakumar in 2005. However, encouraging imprisonment torture and murder based on a few convictions is not the answer. The necessity of the hour is for a competent judicial reaction with a remedial approach. In the P Jayaraj and J Bennicks case, the court's parochial attitude can be contrasted with the judgement in the Udayakumar case.

Lessons from The United States

Floyd's name was given to a police reform bill just passed by the US House of Representatives. Within a year after the event, Chauvin was sentenced to 22.5 years in jail. In India, such haste in responding to a heinous crime is almost non-existent. And in another case, Jinee Lokaneeta, a scholar who has studied the relationship between state authority and legal violence extensively, emphasises the need of prompt action in providing justice for victims of state violence. The massive and communal outpouring of indignation against racially motivated police violence in America was equally noticeable in the aftermath of Floyd's murder. The tragedy provoked massive countrywide protests and encouraged movements for racial justice in other areas of the world. Floyd's murder was not perceived as an isolated occurrence, but as part of a long history of institutional oppression of African-Americans. The slogan "Black Lives Matter" is a collective statement of dissatisfaction with the state's unfair treatment of a specific community. India has yet to develop a comparably acute and collective awareness to atrocities against minorities. Following the murder of George Floyd, worldwide discussions regarding police abuses have erupted, notably in the United States. The Jeyaraj-Benicks case in India is the most recent instance of police violence to elicit discussion on the need for reform. [6]

Recent Cases in India

Last year, a sanitation worker suspected of stealing Rs. 25 lakh from Agra's Jagdishpura police station allegedly died in police custody when his health worsened during questioning. Mayawati, the leader of the Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP), ordered the Uttar Pradesh government to change its police system after a Kanpur businessman died reportedly as a result of police thrashing. "After the sad murder of a businessman in a hotel by police in Gorakhpur, the current BJP administration is now in the dock again due to the death of a Dalit sweeper in police custody in Agra," she said. As a result, the government should make the necessary changes to its police force.[7] In another case, Altaf, a 22-year-old Muslim male, is accused of hanging himself from a bathroom tap only using the drawstring of the jacket's hood, raise two feet or 61 cm above the ground. Altaf's family, on the other hand, thinks he was murdered, and the relatives have asked for an investigation by the Central Bureau of Investigation investigate Altaf's death (CBI).[8]

The use of "third-degree methods" against suspects at the time of illegal detention and police remand cast a stain on India's entire administrative system, where the rule of law is the "supreme command and the right to life and liberty is an existential force or derivative right for the majority of other fundamental rights". Furthermore, it calls into question the judiciary's competence in allowing such police activities to go unpunished while sacred rights are jeopardised.[9]

Torture in detention is now considered an unavoidable component of the inquiry process. The mistaken belief persists in investigations that if enough pressure is exerted, the accused would confess. The film 'Jai Bhim' has shown various facets of the society and institutions in which we live. It has made the injustice they suffer or may encounter in police detention more visible and clear to the wider public. This film portrays how inmates in jails are denied their rights and how force is used against them in dangerous ways, and it is for this reason that it is both tragic and amazing. The video illuminated many aspects of the rule of law, as well as abuses of power and authority. It shows prison life, including interactions with convicts and the use of a variety of gruesome tortures. The film examines "not just the police's illegal and brutal treatment of inmates, but also the difficulties in combating such a system". The rule of law is only an abstraction that must submit to such ostensibly lawless authority. The result of policing authorities' unaccountable and unfettered authority is how a society transitions from a welfare state to a police state.[10] In films like *Singham* and *Dabangg*, the Hindi film industry has dealt with police violence and uncontrolled authority for a long time. However, *Jai Bhim* puts in motion a bleak image of incarceration brutality, police torture, and police abuse of the law. It shatters the narrative of police violence being idealised.[11]

Jai Bhim

The film *Jai Bhim* eloquently showed the terrible underbelly of our law enforcement colossus. Few films have succeeded in capturing the imagination of spectators in the way that this creative effort based on true events has. One can scarcely see the film without feeling powerless in the face of the State's blatant unfairness to Rajakannu at every stage of his life, especially towards the conclusion.[12] In India, the police are frequently seen as harsh, dishonest, and a leading suspect in human rights crimes. *Jai Bhim* also portrays bogus accusations being brought against members of a defenceless minority population, police violence, and hope in the shape of a lawyer committed to battling injustice. Rajakannu, an Irular tribal member, is wrongly accused of stealing. He is apprehended with a few relatives and tortured by the local cops, which is all described in great detail. Some officers arrest and brutalise Rajakannu's wife Sengkani and his sister; one of them even removes the sister's clothing. As the theft victim is a local VIP occurs, the local police station head is under immense pressure from his superiors to solve the crime. In addition, he is clamouring for a raise. As a result, he and two other cops are keen to get Rajakannu to confess. And he was beaten to death. To hide their tracks, the cops pretend the group had gotten away. Sengkani, who is expecting her second child, is unhappy and seeks support from a variety of individuals in her hunt for Rajakannu. Finally, she is led to see lawyer K Chandru by a sympathetic activist who educates the Irular community to read and write, and the momentous court struggle starts. Chandru files a petition of habeas corpus and, facing virtually certain defeat, carefully pulls together the circumstances of the case to defend it in court.

Throughout the story, it has been seen that how cunning and cooperative cops can be in order to save their own or their colleagues' lives. Sengkani's

stubbornness and Chandru's talents, on the other hand, win the day. They are aided in this by the report of an honest senior police officer who, despite being directed by his boss to protect the police force's name, investigates the case on the court's orders and produces true evidence. In addition, the two judges' willingness to be flexible in their pursuit of the truth pays off. The film is not hesitant to raise tough questions, and after seeing the courtroom sequences, one will notice that it's not just people who are on trial, but also the fundamental ideals of law enforcement, justice, and caste."Apart from a few cinematic liberties, the film has maintained close to the facts and the backbone is intact," retired judge Chandru quoted. [13]

The truth is that police brutality and deaths in custody occur all over the world. In reality, Jai Bhim demonstrates the critical role of attorneys and judges in defending the poor guy and maintaining justice. It emphasises the need of police officers, attorneys, and the judiciary cooperating in the pursuit of truth and justice. It implies that even one committed and determined individual can make a difference. It also gives reason to believe that justice will prevail.[14] It stands to reason that police officers who are involved in misconduct as individuals do not represent the police as an institution when it comes to justifying such misbehaviour. The police force, on the other hand, is compelled to share the blame. In our country, facts and data are rarely used to determine cases of police misconduct. Rather, they are frequently extrapolated from popular beliefs. Such narratives aim to demonise the police as a whole. Individual police officers' wrongdoings are labelled as the entire force's implicit endorsement and support of similar crimes.[15]

In spite of the fact this movie is being told with the intent of delegitimizing their position and tarnishing their reputation as upholders of the law. According to what has been shown in the movie, the uniform and those who wear it are permanently tainted with the blood of the innocent. Custodial violence or the employment of extra-legal means that violate the rule of law in the name of ensuring actual or imagined 'justice' are not acceptable. At the same time, it's critical to acknowledge that custodial violence is deeply embedded in our criminal justice system's colonial origins. Under strong sub-cultural influences, it is frequently committed by officials based on their behavioural profile and personalities. Justice Chandru, who filed the habeas corpus petition featured in Jai Bhim, stated in an interview that our investigative tactics haven't progressed much since Independence. The issue of how the police are meant to carry out their investigation tasks efficiently and effectively begs to be questioned without the adoption of contemporary and scientific investigative procedures and proper training of police personnel in their application. In the face of 'investigation' and 'interrogation,' there appears to be little concern for human rights.

Conclusion

"A piece of art can only raise attention to an issue," as it is rightly stated. Only through the state and political movements can true social change be achieved." And Jai Bhim is said to be "that work of art, the response to what it symbolises from some quarters proves that the film not only succeeds in raising attention to an issue, but also in making the proper individuals uncomfortable".[16] It is important to note that police torture occurs as a result of a lack of institutional reform to hold state institutions responsible and inform them of their basic responsibilities as public employees. Police reform becomes necessary as a result, but, with the exception of a few cases, it has always been a "red herring" for policymakers. While ratification of the UNCAT and the introduction of new torture regulations are critical, much more is necessary to combat custodial violence generally. No state has completely implemented the Supreme Court's orders for the formation of the Police Complaint Authority in Prakash Singh v. Union of India.[17] Long work hours, low pay, physical and emotional stress, and political pressure may all be contributing reasons to police abuses. Only until governments at all levels adopt curative police reforms to provide safety, security, and a life of dignity for all people, as guaranteed by the Indian Constitution, can custodial torture be avoided.

In addition to it, the government must act, and courts should establish stringent limits for police custody, which literally means "guardianship", because at the very first place a suspect is not a criminal, and torturing a suspect or victim never reduces, but rather increases, the crime rate. Nevertheless, various measures has been taken for instance, CCTV Cameras installed in the case of "Paramvir Singh v. Baljit Singh"[18],

the Supreme Court has ordered that states cover a larger area of each police station with CCTV cameras and provide audio-video recording storage for 18 months..[19] As the unregulated escalation of prison tortures may come to characterise the essence of Indian government; as former Supreme Court justice V.R. Krishna Iyer put it, "Custodial torture is worse than terrorism since the state is behind it." The basic theme of Jai Bhim is that there are millions of such occurrences, all of which have gone unnoticed. In the courts of law, justice must be served to them. For years, numerous people, opposition parties, and human rights organisations have called for investigations into custody killings and the implementation of measures to prevent such deaths. Custodial violence doesn't simply happen in jails and police stations. It happens anytime persons in positions of power are permitted as a carte blanche to wield control. The terms "encounter killing" and "custodial death" have entered our lexicon. As per the data, around five individuals died in jail per day, according to a report by "the National Campaign Against Torture (NCAT)". The NCAT cases reveal that the circumstances in India is significantly worse than as suggested by the crime statistics. According to the research, the number of deaths in 2019 happened over a 20-year period, according to the country's official crime bureau.[20] And there are news at present on accounts of custodial abuse and police brutality 20 years later, despite the fact that the above-mentioned occurrences occurred more than 20 years apart. Even the affluent, according to recent studies, are not immune to third-degree torture. As a result, it's clear that those at the bottom of the social ladder who have no voice bear the brunt of it. Most of the people are often detained on spurious accusations, brutally abused, and forced to pay bribes to be freed. [21] Since, as we evolve and develop, police are the protections in society that maintain the morals and principles intact and functioning. However, such duties must be carried out in a humane and legitimate manner, and the existing methods through which the police wield authority are prima facie incompatible with human rights and dignity. As a result, it is critical to retain the police's "guardian" character by punishing wrongdoers regardless of their status, so that the reputation of the whole police institution is not tarnished. To sustain this, allegations of police wrongdoing must be investigated using facts and statistics.

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Analyzation of Diasporic Sensibility in South Asia

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Abstract Today, due to the increasing population in the world, the expansion of migration is happening very fast because human beings of one country migrates to another country to answer their generally faced problems of education, employment, business etc. From a commercial point of view, today many countries of the world keep importing and exporting their resources. Thus migration is increasing rapidly in those countries where the density of population is high. People from developing countries migrate more to developed countries. Major Countries in South Asia are India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam, Sri Lanka etc. So, the migration within these countries has also been studied to solve the purpose of the given paper. Under China and India, migration is more due to the greater effect of population, even it has been found that different cultures are affected by migration and even gets intermixed within the prolonged migrators.

Keywords South Asian Diaspora, Sensibility, First gen. and Second Gen Diaspora.

Introduction The initial and ancient dispersion that came into existence was of the merchant who started departing the subcontinent of South Asia to various other lands and are still pursuing the same until today in quest of finding better place, business and opportunity. East Asia, Central Asia and East Africa were already collaborated and had commercial link with the cities or states situated at the coastline of India before colonialism existed. It can be asserted as the trade route for diaspora which was interim or non-permanent or orbital movement of a diaspora constituting a key factor in diaspora regarding trade. During the same instance of time, Indians moved to abroad in order to serve them as teachers and clerks and came in the light of migrated one's following their government's rules and norms. After the Second World War various dispersions or migrations can be sighted which upholds the third migrants existence which were the Muslims that moved or migrated from India to East and West region of Pakistan, whereas the people belonging to Hindu community migrated or departed from Pakistan in order to settle in India, but both had questions in mind that whether the new government will be able to maintain their democratic and majority rights.

In the interim, an exodus can be seen who were eminently educated professionals and started leaving India so as to abode abroad in Europe, Canada and the USA with respect to their professions of lawyers, teachers and doctors in order to get better place, opportunity or due the fact of brain drain. While since 1970's in the Middle East another set of few migrators as construction or site workers and servants has been analyzed. Amongst them some belongs to the category of "short term or non-permanent migrants", while others undeliberately or deliberately didn't return. The fourth pattern of migrants can also be observed in between the phase of post war related to the twice or thrice times migrated people. These were basically the people of Indian community who settled in Surinam, known to be as indentured laborers and gradually aboded in Netherlands and amongst them some were expatriated or deported from East Africa who found their place of living in Canada and UK. It was due the fact of both political as well as economic reason, basically comprising of traders, laborers as well as professionals.

India is a place of diverse people as well as community and hence gives rise to diverse migrants. It has been conceded that migrated Indians overseas want to generate or propagate their own religions, family patterns and cultures as much as possible and where language and social division are not a matter of concerns and are kept aside in fresh ambiances. Locality and region seem to bring up a key feature in identities formation regarding the migrated people leaving behind the basis of nationality and

religion, they specify themselves as Telugus, Biharis, Bengalis, Gujaratis etc. or either specifying as Brahmins, Pandits, Jains etc. So, it all emphasizes that Indians overseas do not lay emphasis on nation India but to their native land or i.e. to the region where they belong to.

Claude Markovits appropriately emphasizes that the people who are migrated from Gujarat, belonging either to Muslim community or Hindu community or any other had more common experiences in comparison with the Gujarati Muslims with Bihari Muslims when subjected to migration. Although, in the case of indentured laborers who are the twice migrants, the descendants or successors, this kind of pattern has not been observed. They are hardly acquainted with the religion to which they originated, whether it was Bengal, Bihar, MP, for many of them India an obscure term. So, there arises a question, Indian diaspora and its comparative structure can lead us to what parameters and to what extent? But South Asian diaspora will be taken up as a term of reference in the course of this study.

Approx. 20 million people of Bangladesh, India and Pakistan have found their livelihood outside their native lands with the maximum number of people have dispersed to the Caribbean Sea Oceania and Africa showing monotony in sensibility and identity of Indians. However, being displaced to such places and in a new environment, wants to produce such circumstances in which they might be able to preserve and propagate their Indian custom, moral values, culture, native tongue, worship etc. profoundly. It has been speculated by some researchers and authors during examination found that some of the people living outside their homelands were not at all intending to reunite to their native lands with a sense of feeling that the Indian government was refraining them to connect to their respective patriarchal roots such as, happened to many Muslims migrated after independence from India. The researchers and authors while exploring the trajectories of various dispersed people perceived that amongst there were few who do not want to get reconnected to their homelands. Hence, it becomes mandatory to discuss about the diasporic sensibility features before making advances in the study.

Aim of study

In the present paper, the cause and role of migration has been analyzed in the context of South Asia. South Asia is a landmass where two-thirds of the world's population resides, that is, more than four billion (including neighbor country China) of the world's population. For this reason, the problem of migration has arisen in many countries. Under this, along with the introduction of migration, the features of diasporic sensibility have been analyzed and what is the reason for sensibility has also been shown. A brief explanation of the causes, sensibility and problems of the first generation and second generation migrant people in South Asia, highlighting the present scenario related to diaspora in various countries of South Asia as well as the pragmatic problems related to the migrants.

Review of Literature

Literature of the diasporas comprises works on and by various writers and critics taking into consideration different theoretical and conceptual frameworks which can be applied to such writings. The people displaced out of their fantasies of new lands, imagination of a better future, along with the nostalgia of the homeland come across a feeling of alienation when they are living as expatriates. The same notions have been explored by some critics in the novels of Khaled Hosseini. We witness that the term diaspora is sorely described as the People living outside their original homeland. Amongst these some are writers or authors composing various books and novels and so, rising with a notable literature. Hosseini is amongst such remarkable literature seekers. Devyani Agarwal in Writing of Khaled Hosseini: depicts that Hosseini, being an author in a non homely environment has kept his remembrance alive of his native land which is seen in his writings and that's what we seek in a diaspora. The main concerns of Hosseini is the exodus of Afghan people in order to protect them and families against the torments, lynching, brutality, hanging, rape etc. Divakaruni's works are to a great extent set in India and the United States. It frequently centers around the encounters of South Asian diasporas. She composes for kids as well as grown-ups and has distributed books in various types, including practical fiction, verifiable fiction, enchanted authenticity, legend and dream. Alexandra Andrews in his thesis (Re)Defining Afghan Women

Characters as Modern Archetypes using Khaled Hosseini's *A Thousand Splendid Suns* and Asne Seierstad's *The Bookseller of Kabul*. It describes that how that how thirty three years of turbulence has been depicted by Khaled Hosseini during the phase of insurgence in Afghanistan through *A Thousand Splendid Sun*. The story revolves around two prime women characters Laila and Mariam and how the culture of Afghanistan and war affected their lives has been shown by Hosseini. The words and sentences have been used in such a way that it gives a live experience or to be a part of the story while reading. The entire struggle to survive and interconnected lives of the two women leaves the reader to the sentimental grounds. Thus, the reviews range between the ideas taking various South Asian diaspora in general and only in a limited sense taking up works of Khaled Hosseini for investigation.

Analysis

Features of Diasporic sensibility

While embarking upon the world of diaspora, we should be able to elucidate the vital as well as the peculiar feature of diaspora that can adhere to comprise a precise sensibility accordingly. It sometimes becomes quite intricated which makes it elusive to severals, thus, the importance to understanding of the features of diasporic sensibility.

Diasporic sensibility becomes poignant when it comes to the terms of reminiscence. For some it becomes exultation and for few its revulsion. Therefore, it shows the contrasting ideologies apparently. It is different for various incumbents dispersed such as lawyers, doctors, teachers and different for authors or novelists. While for indentured laborers it is much more complex. The highly educated professionals left India to find jobs so as to gain much more wealth as they were not stipend in their respective homelands, which in turn led them to surge for more wages and seemingly dispersion. Authors or novelists moved for profound knowledge so as to clear vague opinions.

On the other hand, the third kind of migrants or the indentured laborers who resided in the Netherlands and also the ones who got evicted or total expulsion out of East Africa, ended settling in the U.K. and Canada. The reason for all these migrations was both political as well as economic. Despite all this, there was still the sense of returning to their homelands alongside with the common consent. This innate desire was unrequited and shows the diasporic sensibility amongst the major of the Diasporas.

There is a natural difference between the diaspora condition and the reactions of the migrants to that situation of such reactions. The difference resolves around the response of the FIRST GEN. and their SECOND GEN. Diasporas.

First Generation and Second Generation Diasporas

The world first means the sects that have actually immigrated to a host country. On the other hand, the second generation diaspora usually means the children who are born in a host country to immigrant parents.

Alba and Waters contends that the generation of second era generally categories the children who groom in immigrant homelands, either being part of it at a young age or took birth in the respective society.

So, from the above cited description we can speculate that the children born outside the encompassing federation or at quite a young age immigrate i.e. twelve years or earlier receiving education abroad.

Those children, who are born outside, hardly have sense of their homelands and don't even know that they are emigrants because they have never made their way to homelands but knew what it means to be an inhabited migrant. (Hirji p.3-11)

First Generation Diaspora in America

The first generation Indian Americans are always acutely aware of the apparent cultural differences between India and America. There are approx. 1.8 million people who were resident of India have migrated to the U.S., illustrating U.S. to be the third largest group of immigrants followed by the Chinese born and Mexican born immigrants. This is basically the young generation of the first era and comprising the age group of 38. Amongst, Eighty four percent were the maximum number of migrants from India that belonged to the working class i.e. the age group of 18 to 64 which was even way higher than the United States accumulated population nationally (63%) or even the population of the first generation as shown in the series of RAD. People with 65 years and older were nine percent and under 18 years of age lie in 7 percent.

Second Generation Diaspora in America

While evaluating the generation of second era than around 80 lakhs individuals of the United States has one parent as an Indian amongst which under 18 years old were about 69 percent having eleven years of age as a median. Holistically, maximum diasporas tend to marry within the community only, fourteen percent only had married the outsiders. Thus, around Eighty four

percent have Indian fathers and mothers. Diaspora depends upon the present global conditions too to decide their actions.

The Present Global Scenario related to Diasporas

There are several reasons which perturb the diaspora in the present day globalized world but prevailing sense of insecurity amongst the diasporas is a big reason to worry. Various things can be accounted for insecurity, which include:

Human Terror and Anti-Social Elements

One of the most vital concerns is of the security before leaving their homelands. Highly intellect professionals bifurcates Nations on the basis of wealth as well as security. Nations are prioritized which are highly bothered of such issues. Emigrants want to reside in such ambience where they should be quite far away from the periphery of the anti-social elements such as, terrorists, graffiti, groupism, drug active people etc. The mobility is less likely in Libya, Somalia, Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq etc. Henceforth, human terror and anti-social elements are an obsession when it comes to the ground of dispersion.

Prejudice

Prejudice is traditionally the emotion that depicts the negativity towards a group or a particular person arising a thought which are different for different groups comprising emotional components too. As for an instance, it is sometimes marked by a sense of aversion or revulsion for some specific section of society, ill temper by others and else by apprehension. Hence, aspects related to nations towards migration plays a vital role too.

Less Job Opportunities

Generally people are less inclined to such Nations which are not sufficed with adequate job opportunities, so the migrants lures towards that which affords to provide proper facilitation

Natural Calamity

The milieu also determines the abode factor for the immigrants. If they find the ambience in accord with their lifestyle then the migrants find it difficult to sustain to such environment and hence succumbs.

The above cited points are some reasons that tend an individual to explore his/her needs accordingly in order to fulfill what they desire hopefully as a prominent positive prospect, migration is not limited to South East Asia people only but to the civilization of entire world laying emphasis that needs are what that everyone is after up to and that even can be voluntarily and in some cases forcefully too.

From the above analysis it is concluded that due to the high density of population in South East Asia, human beings migrate more to meet their needs. Migration from a populated country like India is increasing at mass level.

Conclusion From the above analysis it is concluded that due to the high density of population in South Asia, human beings migrate more to meet their needs. Migration from a populated country like India is increasing at mass level.

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g-Semi-Open Sets In Generalized Topological Spaces

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- Abstract** In this paper, we have studied g-semi-open sets in generalized topological space. We have obtained some significant properties of g-semi-open sets and constructed various examples.
- Keywords** Generalized Topological Spaces, g-interior, g-closure, g-semi open set.
- Introduction** The concept of generalized topology was introduced by Csaszar [1] in 2002. In 2005, Csaszar [2] has generalized the notions of semi-open set, pre open set, -open set and -open set in the category of generalized topological spaces. There are four fundamental concepts of generalized open sets in Topological spaces. These generalized open sets are known as semi-open sets, pre-open sets, -open sets and -open sets. The notion of semi-open sets was introduced by N. Levine [3] in 1963. Maitra and Tripathi [4] have obtained significant properties of interior and closure of a set in generalized topological spaces.
- Aim of study** To study g-semi-open sets in generalized topological space and obtain some significant properties of g-semi-open sets and construct some examples.
- Review of Literature** First we recall the definition of generalized topological space, g-open sets and g-closed sets. Definition 2.1 [1] Let X be a non empty set and let τ_g be a family of subsets of X . Then τ_g is said to be a generalized topology on X , if following two conditions are satisfied viz.: $\emptyset \in \tau_g$; Arbitrary union of members of τ_g is a member of τ_g . The generalized topology τ_g is said to be strong if $X \in \tau_g$, and the pair (X, τ_g) is called a generalized topological space. The members of family τ_g are called g-open sets and their complements are called g-closed sets. From the above Definition 2.1 we observe that every topological space is a generalized topological space but the converse is not true. We have following Example. Example 2.1: Let $X = \{a, b, c\}$ and let $\tau_g = \{\emptyset, X, \{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$. Then τ_g is a generalized topology but is not a topology on X . Proposition 2.2 [4]: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space. Then \emptyset and X are g-closed sets in X . Arbitrary intersection of g-closed sets is a g-closed set. Proposition 2.3: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and let $A \subseteq X$. Then A is g-open set in X iff for each point $x \in A$ there exists a g-open set U in X such that $x \in U \subseteq A$. Corollary 2.4: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and let $A \subseteq X$. Then A is g-closed set in X iff for each point $x \notin A$ there exists a g-open set U in X such that $x \in U$ and $U \cap A = \emptyset$. Definition 2.5 [1]: Let X be a generalized topological space and let $A \subseteq X$. Then g-interior of A is denoted by $i_g(A)$ and is defined to be the union of all g-open sets contained in A . The g-closure of A is denoted by $c_g(A)$ and is defined to be the Intersection of all g-closed sets containing A . Remark: Since arbitrary union of g-open sets is a g-open set and arbitrary intersection of g-closed sets is a g-closed set, it follows that $i_g(A)$ is a g-open set and $c_g(A)$ is a g-closed set. Thus $i_g(A)$ is the largest g-open set contained in A and $c_g(A)$ is the smallest g-closed set containing A . Proposition 2.6 [4]: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and let $A \subseteq X$. Then A is g-open set iff $i_g(A) = A$. A is g-closed set iff $c_g(A) = A$. Theorem 2.7 [4]: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and let A, B be subsets of X . Then following properties holds: $i_g(\emptyset) = \emptyset, i_g(X) = X$. If $A \subseteq B$ then $i_g(A) \subseteq i_g(B)$. $i_g(A) \cup i_g(B) \subseteq i_g(A \cup B)$. $i_g(A \cap B) \subseteq i_g(A) \cap i_g(B)$. Theorem 2.8 [4]: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and let A, B be subsets of X . Then following properties holds: $c_g(\emptyset) = \emptyset, c_g(X) = X$. If $A \subseteq B$ then $c_g(A) \subseteq c_g(B)$. $c_g(A) \cup c_g(B) \subseteq c_g(A \cup B)$. $c_g(A \cap B) \subseteq c_g(A) \cap c_g(B)$. $c_g(c_g(A)) = c_g(A)$. Theorem 2.9 [4]: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ be a family of subsets of X . Then $i_g(i_g(A)) = i_g(A)$. $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} i_g(A_\alpha) \subseteq i_g(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha)$.

$(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha)$. $i_g(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} [i_g(A_\alpha)]$. Theorem 2.10 [4]: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and $\{A_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ be a family of subsets of X . Then (i) $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} c_g(A_\alpha) \subseteq c_g(\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha)$. (ii) $c_g(\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} A_\alpha) \subseteq \bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} [c_g(A_\alpha)]$. Theorem 2.11 [4]: Let (X, τ_g) be a generalized topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Then $i_g(X-A) = X - c_g(A)$. $c_g(X-A) = X - i_g(A)$.

Main Text

g-Semi Open Sets

In this section we have obtained significant properties of g-semi open sets. Further we have constructed some useful examples.

Definition 3.1[2] : Let X be a generalized topological space and let A . Then the set A is said to be **g-semi-open set**, if .

Remark: The empty set and whole set X are always g-semi-open set in any generalized topological space .

Proposition 3.2: Let X be a generalized topological space. If A is ag-open set in X then A is g-semi-open set.

Proof: Let X be a generalized topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Suppose A is ag-open set in X . Then . Since , we have, . Hence A is g-semi-open set in X

However the converse of above Proposition 3.2 is not necessarily true. In the following example we see that A is a g-semi-open set but A is not g-open set in X

Example 3.3: Let τ and let consider generalized topology on X . Suppose . Then we see that A is a g-semi-open set in X but not g-open set in X .

Remark: In a generalized topological space if A is non empty g-semi-open subset of X , then is also a non empty subset of X .

Proposition 3.4: Let X be a generalized topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Then A is g-semi-open set iff .

Proof: Let A be a g-semi-open set in X . Then we have This implies $(A) = X - c_g(X-A)$. Since we have Hence we find that .

Conversely, suppose that . Since we have Thus A is g-semi-open set in X . **Theorem 3.5 :** Let X be a generalized topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Then A is g-semi open set if and only if there exist a g-open set U in X such that .

Proof. Let A be a g-semi open set in X . Then we have Suppose Then U is a g-open set in X and . Since , we have . Hence we deduce that .

Conversely suppose there exist a g-open set U in X such that . This implies , and therefore . Then by and , we find that . Hence A is g-semi open set in X . **Theorem 3.6:** Let X be a generalized topological space and let \mathcal{A} be a collection of g-semi-open sets in X . Then $\bigcup \mathcal{A}$ is a g-semi-open set in X .

Proof: Let X be a generalized topological space and let \mathcal{A} be a collection of g-semi-open sets in X . Then, , for all . Put . We have

\supseteq Thus we conclude that . Hence A is a g-semi-open set in X .

In the following Example we see that intersection of two g-semi-open sets may not a g-semi-open set

Example 3.7: Let τ and let us consider generalized topology on X . Suppose A and B . Then we see that A and B are g-semi-open sets in X but their intersection is $\{b\}$, which is not a g-semi-open set in X .

Remark: In the above Theorem 3.6 it has been proved that arbitrary union of g-semi-open sets is a g-semi-open set. Further in above Example 3.7 it is shown that intersection of two g-semi-open sets may not a g-semi-open set . Thus the collection of g-open sets in a generalized topological space form a generalized topology on X and this collection is finer than τ .

Theorem 3.8 : Let X be a generalized topological space and $A \subseteq X$. Then A is g-semi open set if and only if for each x there exists a g-semi open set U in X such that $x \in U$

Proof. Let A be a g-semi open set in X . Then clearly for any point $x \in A$ there exist a g-semi open set viz., A itself satisfying the desired condition.

Conversely suppose A having the property that for each $x \in A$ there exists a g-semi open set U_x in X such that $x \in U_x$. Clearly we have . From Theorem 3.6 we note that arbitrary union of g-semi open sets is g-semi open, therefore A is a g-semi open set in X .

Methodology Generalized topological spaces, g-interior, g-closure, g-semi open set.

Conclusion In topology g-semi-open sets in generalized topological space were studied and some significant properties of g-semi-open sets were obtained. Also some examples were constructed.

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An Analysis of the Reasons Behind the Commission of Rape in the Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir.

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Abstract Sexual violence is a complex phenomenon deep rooted in the socio-cultural milieu. It is the most extreme and effective form of control in a male dominated society, which simultaneously damages and constrains women's lives. Sexual violence manifests itself in all stages of human life - the community perpetuates it, the State legitimises and condones it, and even the presumably safe and secure niche of home is not free of violence. The harsh reality is that the most pervasive form of sexual violence is the rape, which cuts across State borders and cultures, is used in all countries and in all cultures as weapon of degradation and terror against women. Rape is an intrusion into the most private and intimate parts of a woman's body as well as an assault on to the core of herself. Rape is an expression of the need to illustrate that power of supremacy, which men enjoy over women and the exercise of that power is condoned and encouraged by existing social attitudes and practices. It is the manifestation of institutional coercion that flows from the structure of economic, social and political relations between men and women in general, a type of structure that discourages women for asserting themselves physically, emotionally, socially and financially. This paper is an attempt to collect data relating to the reasons for the commission of the offence of rape in the Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir, for that four districts have been selected namely, Jammu and Samba, in Jammu Division; and Srinagar and Budgam from Kashmir Division. For the present study, the researcher had opted for the 'stratified random sampling technique' as in this type of sampling the universe was known and it was possible to select a sample by taking sub-samples usually proportional to the size of the significant elements of sub-divisions in the universe and comprised of Police officials, Judges, Prosecutors and Defence counsel. Besides, researcher had also used Purposive Sampling technique in collecting data from victims and people belonging to different socio-economic strata of society. The researcher had studied a sample of nine hundred and sixty respondents comprising of four hundred and eighty members of general public, four hundred officials and eighty victims.

Keywords Sexual, Violence, Rape, Victims, Rights.

Introduction Rape is a crime, not only against the person of a woman but against the whole society. It destroys the entire psychology of a woman and pushes her into deep emotional crises. It is the most hated crime and it violates the most cherished right of victim, viz., right to life, which includes right to live with human dignity, as contained in Article 21 of the Constitution of India. Rape is the most terrifying, humiliating and traumatic event in the life of a woman, which leads to fear for existence and a state of powerlessness. Right from the childhood, the fear of rape is infused in the mind of every woman, which conditions the personality of the woman and her choices regarding her conduct.

Rape is an expression of the need to illustrate that power of supremacy, which men enjoy over women and the exercise of that power is condoned and encouraged by existing social attitudes and practices. It is the manifestation of institutional coercion that flows from the structure of economic, social and political relations between men and women in general, a type of structure that discourages women for asserting themselves physically, emotionally, socially and financially. As a consequence of myths related to rape, the victims may already/in advance hold negative and

prejudicial attitude towards sexual violence, which affects their interpretation of rape, undermine their self-esteem and has detrimental consequences for their psychological health.

On the basis of interview schedules administered to three different categories of respondents, viz., victims, officials including police, prosecutors, judges, defence counsels and advocates and general public belonging to different socio-economic strata of society, an attempt had been made to know about from the respondents as to different types of crimes committed against women in our society, category of women becoming victims of rape, perpetrators of crime of rape, reasons behind the uncontrolled incidents of rape, involvement of juveniles in commission of offence of rape.

Aim of study

To Analyse the reasons behind the commission of rape in the Union Territory of Jammu and Kashmir.

Review of Literature

The only study conducted in the UT of Jammu and Kashmir relating to the reasons behind the commission of rape in Jammu and Kashmir.

Analysis

The findings of the study are as follows:

1. Kinds of crimes generally committed in our society:

When asked about the kinds of crimes generally committed in our society (Table1), majority of the respondents, *i.e.*, 39.10 per cent, stated that it was the crimes against women; 22.32 per cent of the respondents mentioned crimes against the person; 21.60 per cent mentioned crimes against property; while the remaining 16.96 per cent responded that it was the crimes against nation/State which were generally committed by the culprits in our society.

Table 1**Kinds of crimes generally committed in our Society**

S. No.	Crimes	Common Man		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Crimes against property	117	24.37	4	5	121	21.60
2.	Crimes against person	119	24.79	6	7.5	125	22.32
3.	Crimes against nation/state	91	18.96	4	5	95	16.96
4.	Crimes against women	155	32.29	64	80	219	39.10
	Total	480	100	80	100	560	100

2. Nature of crimes women become victim of:

When asked about the nature of crimes women generally become victim of (Table 2), majority of the respondents (31.45 per cent) stated that in most of the cases women become victim of rape; 21.77 per cent of the respondents mentioned murder and rape was the crime generally committed against women; while 13.75 per cent of the respondents opined that it was sexual harassment at workplace; 12.81 per cent of the respondents mentioned that it was torture for dowry, the women in general become victim of; 12.39 per cent of the respondents pointed out that murder was more often committed crime against women in our society; 7.60 per cent mentioned that it was the crime of hurt while the rest 0.20 per cent of the respondents had no idea about the nature of crimes committed against women in our society.

Table - 2

Nature of crimes women become victim of

S. No.	Nature of Crimes	Common Man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Hurt	50	10.42	23	5.75	-	-	73	7.60
2.	Murder	108	22.5	9	2.25	2	2.5	119	12.39
3.	Rape	136	28.33	112	28	54	67.5	302	31.45
4.	Murder and Rape	91	18.96	100	25	18	22.5	209	21.77
5.	Torture for Dowry	43	8.96	76	19	4	5	123	12.81
6.	Sexual Harassment at workplace	52	10.83	80	20	-	-	132	13.75
7.	Do not know	-	-	-	-	2	2.5	2	0.20
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

3. Frequency of occurrence of rape in our society:

In response to the query regarding the frequency of occurrence of rape in our society (Table-3); 33.95 per cent of the respondents believed that the crime of rape happened frequently in our society; 27.81 per cent of the respondents indicated that the crime of rape happened 'very frequently' in our society; 20.83 per cent of the respondents stated that the crime of rape 'did not occur so frequently' in the society; 15.93 per cent of the interviewees responded that the crime of rape occurred 'least frequently' in the society; whereas the remaining 1.45 per cent of the respondents had no idea about the frequency of crime of rape occurring in our society.

Table-3

Frequency of occurrence of rape in our society

S.No.	Frequency	Common Man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Very Frequent	160	33.3	89	22.25	18	22.5	267	27.81
2.	Frequent	133	27.7	145	36.25	48	60	326	33.95
3.	Not so frequent	97	20.2	101	25.25	2	2.5	200	20.83
4.	Least frequent	86	18	65	16.25	2	2.5	153	15.93
5.	Do not know	4	80	-	-	10	12.5	14	1.45
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

4. Category of females who become victims of rape:

When asked as to category of females who become the victims of rape (Table-4), a majority of the respondents, i.e., 37.18 per cent, stated that it was the women from lower socio-economic strata of society who would generally become victims of rape; 25.20 per cent of the respondents mentioned that women from all socio-economic strata of society become victims of rape; 22.39 per cent affirmed that women from middle class families mostly become the victims of rape; whereas the

remaining 14.89 per cent of the respondents stated that women from upper-middle class families become victims of the crime of rape.

Table-4**Females who become victims of rape**

S.No.	Victim of rape	Common man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Women from lower socio-economic strata of society	158	32.91	154	38.5	48	60	360	37.5
2.	Women from middle class families	126	26.25	85	21.25	4	5	215	22.39
3.	Women from upper-middle class families	104	21.66	39	9.75	-	-	143	14.89
4.	Victims come from all socio-economic strata of society	92	19.16	122	30.5	28	35	242	25.20
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

5. Time and place of commission of rape:

The data collected with regard to the time and place of the commission of the crime of rape (Table-5), a majority of the respondents, i.e., 36.77 per cent, stated that the crime of rape was committed at isolated and secluded place at any time of the day; 20.72 per cent of the respondents mentioned that the crime of rape was committed while the victim was alone in the fields; 20.41 per cent respondents stated that the heinous crime was committed while the victim was alone at home; 11.04 per cent respondents stated that rape was committed while the victim was alone in the hired cab and another 11.04 per cent respondents answered that there was no specific time or place fixed for the commission of the crime of rape and it could be committed at any time of the day and at any place.

Table-5

Time and place of commission of rape

S. No.	Time and place	Common Man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Isolated and secluded place at any time of the day	149	31.0	164	41	40	50	353	36.77
2.	While alone in a hired cab	55	11.4	51	12.7	-	-	106	11.04
3.	While alone at home	128	26.66	52	13	16	20	196	20.41
4.	While alone in the fields	106	22.08	73	18.25	20	25	199	20.72
5.	Any time and any place	42	8.75	60	15	4	5	106	11.04
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

6. Circumstances responsible for being a victim of rape:

When asked about circumstances responsible for becoming a victim of the crime of rape (Table-6), a majority of the respondents, i.e., 40 per cent, stated that women become victims of rape while being alone, unprotected and not under any watch; 19.82 per cent declared abduction of the woman as the reason for commission of rape; 15.53 per cent contributed late working hours for such suffering of the females; 10.89 per cent declared that by accepting free ride the women become victim of the heinous crime of rape; 6.96 per cent of the respondents stated females going out on 'date' as the reason for rape; 5.00 per cent of the respondents mentioned false promise of marriage as the reason for the commission of the crime of rape while the remaining 1.78 per cent of the respondents believed the all the above mentioned circumstances, in one way or the other, were responsible for a female becoming the victim of the crime of rape.

Table -6

Circumstances responsible for being a victim of rape

S. No.	Circumstances	Common man		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Being alone and unprotected /not under any watch	166	34.58	58	72.5	224	40
2.	Working late hours	87	18.13	-	-	87	15.53
3.	Abduction	101	21.04	10	12.5	111	19.82
4.	Offered free ride	59	12.29	2	2.5	61	10.89
5.	Date Rape	39	8.12	-	-	39	6.96
6.	False promise of marriage	18	3.75	10	12.5	28	5
7.	All of the above	10	2.08	-	-	10	1.78
	Total	480	100	80	100	560	100

7. Age group of female victims of rape:

In response to the query related to the age group of females who generally become victim of the crime of rape (Table-7), 27.60 per cent of the respondents mentioned that females between the age group of 18 to 23 years generally become the victim of rape; 26.66 per cent of the respondents mentioned the age group females of below 18 years who fall prey to the crime of rape; 23.12 per cent respondents stated that the females in the age group of 24 to 29 years become victims of rape; 8.85 per cent of the respondents stated that females between age group of 30 to 35 years become victims of rape; 6.14 per cent mentioned the age group of 36 to 41 years of age; and 3.54 per cent respondents mentioned the age group of 42 years and above who fell prey to the crime of rape. The remaining 4.06 per cent respondents stated that females were subjected to the ignominy and brutality of rape irrespective of their age group.

Table-7

Age group of female victims of rape

S. No.	Age group	Common man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Below 18 years	106	22.08	112	28	38	47.5	256	26.66
2.	18 to 23 years	142	29.60	103	25.75	20	25	265	27.60
3.	24 to 29 years	111	23.13	95	23.75	16	20	222	23.12
4.	30 to 35 years	53	11.04	28	7	4	5	85	8.85
5.	36 to 41 years	41	8.54	16	4	2	2.5	59	6.14
6.	42 years and above	27	5.6	7	1.75	-	-	34	3.54
7.	All of the above	-	-	39	9.75	-	-	39	4.06
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

8. Perpetrator of rape:

When asked about the perpetrator of the crime of rape (Table-8), the data depict that 22.29 per cent of the respondents stated that crime of rape was committed by a stranger who was not known to the victim; in 19.06 per cent of the respondents mentioned that rape was committed by a neighbor of the victim; in 18.43 per cent of the respondents mentioned that rape was committed by a relative of the victim; 14.79 per cent of the respondents pointed out that rape was committed by a friend of the victim; 14.16 per cent of respondents answered that the perpetrator of the crime of rape was an acquaintance of the victim; 7.70 per cent of the respondents opined that rape was committed by colleague of the victim while the remaining 3.5 per cent of the respondents mentioned the perpetrator of this heinous crime could be any one of the offenders mentioned herein above.

Table - 8

Perpetrator of rape

S. No.	Perpetrator of rape	Common man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Neighbour	108	22.5	45	11.25	30	37.5	183	19.06
2.	Friend	76	15.81	62	15.5	4	5	142	14.79
3.	Acquaintance	58	12.08	78	19.5	-	-	136	14.16
4.	Relative	98	20.41	57	14.25	22	27.5	177	18.43
5.	Stranger	80	16.70	112	28	22	27.5	214	22.29
6.	Colleague	36	7.5	38	9.5	-	-	74	7.70
7.	All the above	24	5	8	2	2	2.5	34	3.5
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

9. Approximate age of person who committed rape:

When asked about the approximate age of the person who had committed the crime of rape (Table-9), 25.62 per cent of the respondents stated that the person who committed rape were in the age group of 19 to 23 years; 22.5 per cent respondents stated that the perpetrator of the crime of rape was in the age group of 24 to 28 years; 18.43 per cent respondents mentioned that the perpetrator of rape was in the age group of 29 to 33 years; 12.18 per cent respondents mentioned that age group of the perpetrator of the crime as 14 to 18 years; 12 per cent respondents stated the age group of the perpetrator of rape as 44 years and above; 10.83 per cent of the respondents mentioned the age group as 34 to 38 years; while 7.3 per cent of the respondents stated the age group of the perpetrator of this heinous crime to be 39 to 43 years. The remaining 0.6 per cent of the respondents answered that age was determining criteria and the perpetrator of the crime of rape could be from any age group.

Table -9

Approximate age of person committing rape

S. No.	Age	Common Man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Below14 years	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2.	14 to 18 years	91	18.9	26	6.5	-	-	117	12.18
3.	19 to 23 years	119	24.79	107	26.75	20	25	246	25.62
4.	24 to 28 years	92	19.17	98	24.5	26	31.25	216	22.5
5.	29 to 33 years	80	16.66	71	17.75	26	31.25	177	18.43
6.	34 to 38 years	50	10.42	48	12	6	7.5	104	10.83
7.	39 to 43 years	36	7.5	33	8.25	2	2.5	71	7.3
8.	44 years and above	12	2.5	11	2.75	-	-	23	12
9.	Age no bar	-	-	6	1.5	-	-	6	0.6
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

10. Number of males involved in the commission of rape:

The data collected with respect to the number of males involved in the commission of rape (Table-10), depict that a majority of respondents, i.e., 30.52 per cent, stated that rape was committed by one person only; 22.29 per cent stated that two persons were involved in the commission of rape; 14.68 per cent respondents mentioned that three persons committed rape; 13.33 per cent respondents stated that four persons were involved in the commission of rape; 11.04 per cent respondents replied that more than four persons committed the rape together; while the remaining 8.12 per cent respondents were of the view that the number of persons committing the rape was not so specific and the rape could be committed by any number of persons.

Table - 10

Number of males involved in the commission of rape

S. No.	Males involved	Common man		Officials		Victims		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	One person	134	27.92	109	27.25	50	62.5	293	30.52
2.	Two persons	99	20.62	99	24.75	16	20	214	22.29
3.	Three persons	102	21.25	37	9.25	2	2.5	141	14.68
4.	Four persons	80	16.67	40	10	8	10	128	13.33
5.	More than Four persons	65	13.54	37	9.25	4	5	106	11.04
6.	Any number of persons	-	-	78	19.5	-	-	78	8.12
	Total	480	100	400	100	80	100	960	100

11. Reasons for uncontrolled incidents of rape in our society:

With respect to the probable reasons for the uncontrolled incidents of the crime of rape occurring in our society, the data collected (Table-11) depict that 19.77 per cent of the respondents confirmed drug addiction as the major reason for ever-increasing incidents of rape in our society; 19.43 per cent respondents declared unemployment and frustration for various reasons as the reasons responsible for the incidents of rape; 16.13 per cent respondents that it was the lack of parental care and attention which was responsible for the occurrence of such crimes; 14.31 per cent of the respondents mentioned poor implementation of law as the reason for uncontrolled incidents of rape; 13.86 per cent respondents held alcoholism as a reason responsible for unrestrained incidents of rape in our society; 7.9 per cent respondents stated ignorance of law and consequent absence of fear of law as the reason for the increase in the number of rapes; 7.72 per cent of the respondents stated the breakdown of joint family system as the reason for an increased incidents of rape while the remaining 0.79 per cent of the respondents mentioned all of the above mentioned reasons for uncontrolled incidents of rapes occurring in our society.

Table - 11**Reasons for uncontrolled incidents of rape in our society**

S. No.	Reasons	Common man		Officials		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Unemployment and frustration	98	20.42	73	18.25	171	19.43
2.	Drug Addiction	118	24.58	56	14	174	19.77
3.	Alcoholism	75	15.62	47	11.75	122	13.86
4.	Breakdown of joint family system	59	12.30	9	2.25	68	7.72
5.	Lack of parental care and attention	47	9.8	95	23.75	142	16.13
6.	Ignorance of law	39	8.12	31	7.75	70	7.9
7.	Poor implementation of law	40	8.33	86	21.5	126	14.31
8.	All of the above	4	0.83	3	0.75	7	0.79
	Total	480	100	400	100	880	100

12. Contribution of drug addiction and alcoholism in the commission of rape:

When asked about the contribution of drug addiction and alcoholism in the commission of rape (Table-12), a majority of the respondents, i.e., 43 per cent, stated that because of delirium and disorientation induced by drug addiction and alcoholism and consequent loss of control over the senses was the reason for the commission of rape; 29.43 per cent mentioned that rape was committed by the perpetrator of the crime just for the heck of it on losing sense of reality; another 25.56 per cent stated that drug and alcohol induced hallucination and peer pressure was responsible for the commission of rape; while the remaining 1.59 per cent respondents mentioned that both the loss of control over senses, drug induced hallucination and peer pressure were the reasons which prodded the perpetrator to commit rape.

Table – 12

Contribution of drug addiction and alcoholism in the commission of rape

S.No.	Drug addiction and alcoholism	Common man		Officials		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	On loosing sense of reality rape committed just for the heck of it	127	26.45	132	33	259	29.43
2.	Feeling high and loss of control over senses a reason for the commission of rape	204	42.50	178	44.5	382	43.40
3.	Hallucination and peer pressure may prod one to commit rape	135	28.13	90	22.5	225	25.56
4.	1 and 3	14	2.92	-	-	14	1.59
	Total	480	100	400	100	880	100

13. Involvement of Juveniles in the commission rape:

When asked about the involvement of juveniles in the commission of the heinous crime of rape (Table- 13), 61.47 per cent of the respondents agreed that of late throughout the country there was an alarming increase in the involvement of juveniles in the commission of the offence of rape; whereas 17.5 per cent respondents did not agree to the factum of involvement of juveniles in the commission of the heinous crime of rape. The remaining 21.02 per cent of the respondents did not have an idea about the recent spurt in the involvement of juveniles in the commission of the offence of rape.

Table – 13

Involvement of juveniles in the commission of rape

S.No.	Involvement of Juveniles	Common man		Officials		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Yes	298	62.08	243	60.75	541	61.47
2.	No	71	14.80	83	20.75	154	17.5
3.	Cannot say	111	23.12	74	18.5	185	21.02
	Total	480	100	400	100	880	100

14. Reasons for the involvement of juveniles in rape cases:

When asked about the probable reasons for the recent spurt in the involvement of juveniles in the crime of rape (Table-14), majority of the respondents, i.e., 24.02 per cent, believed that it was lack of parental control over children in a broken family which was a strong reason for the involvement of juveniles in the crime of rape; 19.22 per cent respondents stated that children from broken homes where there was no parental control over children, they fell into the company of deviants and consequently got involved in rape cases besides other crimes; 17.19 per cent respondents mentioned the peer group pressure which lead them to commit the crime of rape; 14.78 per cent respondents were of the view that it was because of the lack of jobs that juveniles took to crime and hence their involvement in rape cases; 14.41 per cent of the respondents were of the opinion that lack of education was also an important reason for the involvement of juveniles in rape cases; 7.57 per cent respondents mentioned that the absence of infrastructure as required under the Juvenile Justice System failed to take care of the juveniles and hence their involvement in crimes including rape cases; while the remaining 2.77 per cent of respondents stated all the factors mentioned herein above as the probable reasons for the involvement of juveniles in rape cases.

Table – 14**Reasons for the involvement of juveniles in rape cases**

S. No.	Reasons for the involvement of juveniles in rape cases	Common Man		Officials		Total	
		R/F	%age	R/F	%age	R/F	%age
1.	Lack of parental control because of broken family	89	29.86	41	16.87	130	24.02
2.	Peer group pressure	50	16.78	43	17.7	93	17.19
3.	Company of deviants	44	14.77	60	24.69	104	19.22
4.	Lack of education	51	17.11	27	11.11	78	14.41
5.	Lack of jobs	47	15.78	33	13.52	80	14.78
6.	Absence of infrastructure under Juvenile Justice System	10	3.35	31	12.75	41	7.57
7.	All the above	7	2.34	8	3.29	15	2.77
	Total	298	100	243	100	541	100

While condemning rape, the society condemns the rape victim also. This is deemed to be precipitated by the victim, through her words, conduct or mere existence and most of the rapists go scot-free because men are considered to be naturally aggressive creatures for whom control on sexual urges is an impossible task. In view of the grave social consequences which may follow after the occurrence of rape, it is not surprising that majority of the rape victims prefer not to report the crime at all. Rape is the most under reported of all violent crimes. The unsympathetic attitude of police officials and lack of faith in the justice system are the important reasons for not reporting the crime of rape. Rape trials must focus on the violent acts of the accused rather than behaviour of the victim. It was high time that the judicial attitude changed and courts appreciated the testimony of women of her experience of violence. The decision makers were often blind and reluctant to believe the version of the victim. If a woman did not take the first opportunity to report the rape or she made no attempt to resist the rape then there was a strong presumption that her testimony was false and feigned.

Findings While condemning rape, the society condemns the rape victim also.

Conclusion While condemning rape, the society condemns the rape victim also. This is deemed to be precipitated by the victim, through her words, conduct or mere existence and most of the rapists go scot-free because men are considered to be naturally aggressive creatures for whom control on sexual urges is an impossible task. In view of the grave social consequences which may follow after the occurrence of rape, it is not surprising that majority of the rape victims prefer not to report the crime at all. Rape is the most under reported of all violent crimes. The unsympathetic attitude of police officials and lack of faith in the justice system are the important reasons for not reporting the crime of rape. Rape trials must focus on the violent acts of the accused rather than behaviour of the victim. It was high time that the judicial attitude changed and courts appreciated the testimony of women of her experience of violence. The decision makers were often blind and reluctant to believe the version of the victim. If a woman did not take the first opportunity to report the rape or she made no attempt to resist the rape then there was a strong presumption that her testimony was false and feigned.

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