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AL-SHODHANA

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Principal's Message

Some weeks ago while attending a seminar, one of the speakers mentioned that our Colleges are no more than tuition centres. Listening to this comparison I was very angry and annoyed. Later, while reflecting on this comment, I realised that there is much truth in this comment. The tuition centres prepare students to be successful in their examinations and nothing more. The syllabus is already given to them. Some explanation and notes is all they require to memorise and reproduce in the examinations. Probably, this is exactly the situation in many of our affiliated colleges in our country. The syllabus is prepared by someone else, examinations are conducted by the University, the question papers are set by some unknown person, evaluation of the answer scripts is done by some different person, etc. A lecturer or a professor is satisfied with repeating the syllabus in the class room or dictating some old notes. Students are forced to attend classes with the threat of compulsory attendance while they are guaranteed of passing examinations by just referring to some guide book. Very little reflective learning takes place!!!

If this is the scenario of our higher education in our country, then the situation is really pathetic. There is very little desire for change and to transform the system. The teaching fraternity has to wake up to today's challenges in higher education. The greatest challenge is: to be trusted by our students and all the rest of the stake holders. When fighting for greater freedom to our teachers one of the saddest voices that we keep hearing is that our teachers cannot be trusted. Internal assessment components cannot be increased because almost every student is given full marks sometimes even without conducting the required activity. If this is the opinion of the public and the officials about our teachers where is the trust which we highly require in this profession?

Autonomy to the Colleges is one of the ways through which the teachers can claim their integrity and reputation. In an autonomous system, the syllabus is set by the concerned department with the help of experts, evaluation is done by the concerned teacher, results too will be declared by the College. This exercise requires a high level of integrity on the part of teachers, a desire to transform today's educational system and to be committed to the cause of education.

Let our education be not a system where we become tuition teachers disseminating information, but centres of excellence where new knowledge is generated. Small innovative projects of the students can become methodologies of creative learning. Minor research projects of the teachers can generate new knowledge. Hence higher education can contribute mightily to the growth of our nation.

I want to congratulate and thank the editorial team of 'Al-Shodhana' for their efforts in bringing out this research journal in a creative manner.

Rev. Fr Swebert D' Silva, SJ

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Editor's Note

I am pleased to place before you the second issue of Al-Shodhana. This issue features nine articles focusing on a wide range of topics. I appreciate the efforts put in by the authors of these articles, the reviewers for their time, sacrifice and patience and the advisory and editorial board members for their guidance and cooperation.

The nineteenth century missionaries who landed in India with a preoccupied mind of the superiority of Christianity always projected the native culture and religion as primitive and barbaric. Therefore, they felt the urgent need of converting the native souls to Christian faith which in turn would make them modern since Christianity was equated to modernity. But, even after the conversion to Christianity the natives could not claim to be on par with the missionaries. This is the core idea of the article ***Perception of the Natives in the Basel Mission Writings of 19th Century*** written by Fernandes. The doctrine of 'Universal Brotherhood' never troubled the missionaries while dealing with the neophytes. He concludes that the Europeans always remained as teachers and the neophytes were treated as learners, often poor learners. D'Souza's article ***The Contentious Domain of Globalization and the Salience of Welfare State*** attempts to understand the forces of globalisation in order to assess its profundity. The article highlights multiple discourses of globalisation. The same time it makes an attempt to figure out multilevel perspectives of globalisation extending over people, territory and ideas. It also made an effort to understand, those aspects of globalization that have their bearing on the state that stood as big supportive of welfare state. By analysing the quinquennial employment surveys by the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) and other published studies, Lobo in his article ***Women Employment Scenario in India: Issues of Feminisation and Marginalisation*** makes a case for feminisation of employment in agriculture, informal sector and casual labour rather than feminisation of labour. Priya's article ***Status of Women Health in India: An Overview*** reviews the status of women health in India. She makes a case for decisive approach integrating the development of social, cultural, economical and educational needs to raise the status of women health in India.

In the article ***CSR for Sustainable Development: An Empirical Study on the Corporate Social Responsibility Focus of Top Listed Companies of BSE*** Paramashivaiah and Puttaswamy identify the best practicing companies by studying the CSR activities of top 100 companies listed in BSE India, and finds that there is a significant difference in the focus and magnitude of CSR activities. Juby and Shivram in their case study ***Changing News Landscapes: Impact of Online Newspapers Among College Teachers*** brings out the need for training Teachers in the areas of multimedia production, podcasting and citizen journalism. Monteiro and Joseph paper ***Study on Risk Behaviours Practiced by Adolescents and Its Impact on Psychological Health*** identifies the risk behaviour frequently practiced by adolescents and opines that adolescents who have fallen into risk behaviour need help and enhancement to reinforce a better positive life.

Moolya and Gowda in their paper ***Effect Of 8 Mev Electron Irradiation On Optical Absorption Edge Of Diglycine Hydrochloride And Diglycine Hydrobromide Nonlinear Optical Single Crystals Measures the Effect of Electron Irradiation on Certain Single Crystals.*** Rebello in his article ***A Multidisciplinary Implementation Methodology for Knowledge Engineering with Rule Based Classification*** deals with multi disciplinary implementation methodology with a search technique known as rule based classification to extract knowledge from databases.

I hope the articles published here will contribute to knowledge development and trigger further research among readers

Dr Norbert Lobo
Editor-in-Chief

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PERCEPTION OF THE NATIVES IN THE BASEL MISSION WRITINGS OF 19TH CENTURY

- Denis Fernandes

Abstract

This article tries to project the missionary understanding of native culture and religion which in turn reflects their preoccupied mind with the superiority of European culture and religion. The native religions were looked upon as something primitive and therefore they felt the need to introduce Christianity. But then, they could not treat all religious practices of the with the in the same measuring rod. Therefore, the non brahmanic practices were branded as devil or demon worship which would lead them directly to hell, therefore, salvation of such souls were to be met with immediate effect. But after converting the natives, they perceived that natives can not be brought on par with the European Christians. The Europeans always remained as teachers and the neophytes were treated as learners, often poor learners.

Keywords: *Canara, Basel Mission, Missionaries, Protestant, native, Colonial*

The missionaries who landed in Canara as well as in Malabar with an agenda of Europeanisation and Christianisation of the people here had already gained enough knowledge on the prevailing religion, laws and customs of the land. The knowledge which they gathered was based on the politics of difference, always tried to emphasize the difference between the 'traditional' east and the 'enlightened' west. Their writings always projected moral depravity connected with Hinduism. They portrayed the religion of the natives as the opposite of Christianity-ceremonial, ritualistic, fatalistic, licentious and superstitious. For them such things indicated darkness, which could be expelled by the light of Christianity. Therefore, they proposed a reform agenda.

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The missionaries found the caste system a difficult obstacle to surmount. They found that it could not easily be defeated¹. But then, the missionaries believed themselves to be messengers of Christ, who had been commissioned to carry forward the work of their Saviour, and in that mission it was their duty to emancipate the lowest ranks of the caste hierarchy from the tyranny of the upper castes. Therefore the missionaries considered caste as the greatest opponent of Christianity and they called themselves 'destroyers of caste'²

Even though missionaries opposed the caste structure of the Indian society, they had a soft corner for Brahmins, provided they appeared in the shape of Christian converts because a Brahmin convert represented quality and a low caste, quantity.³ Conversion of a Brahmin was always celebrated, as it was considered the greatest achievement of the mission. After eight years of their work in Canara the Basel missionaries lamented that even though their congregation had more than doubled, they could not convert any high caste native and all their Christians belonged to the Billava caste.⁴ When Anandrao Kaundinya and two other Brahmin youth accepted Christianity in 1843, the missionaries considered it their greatest achievement. They did not yield to the pressure of the influential Saraswat family members of Kaundinya. They were not ready to give up their trophies even when the parents of the other upper castes withdrew their children from the missionary school. They sought refuge from the district Magistrate but, they would not let go of Kaundinya.⁵ The conversion of a Brahmin was looked upon as a theological triumph and failure was looked upon as the failure of missionary enterprise itself. It is because the missionaries who read Caldwell must have got the impression that the Brahmins came down to the South not as conquerors but as instructors and cultural colonists and, that by their knowledge and administrative skills they had achieved ascendancy in society.⁶ Ines Zupanov explains that the missionaries always aimed at converting the upper caste Hindus, because, they assumed that with their conversion, the Christian message would trickle down to the low impure castes.⁷ They thought if the upper castes accepted Christianity, the other communities would automatically follow and the whole country would become Christian.⁸

There were other reasons too. The missionaries had the apprehension that the low caste Christians would lower the prestige of the Mission and it would involve the risk of offending and estranging converts from the more respectable castes.⁹ Moreover, the missionaries thought that the lower castes would not be able to understand what the missionaries preached. They only looked at them for material benefits. Therefore, they chose not to be flattered by the 'bread-and-butter converts', whatever their numbers. They would rather prefer to wait till they found the one who had passion for Christ.¹⁰ "A clear full conversion and renewal of heart can scarcely be spoken of with exception of perhaps a few cases".¹¹ Thus the missionaries were aware that it was not always a desire after the salvation of their souls that induced them to apply for admission to the Church. But they justified the conversion of these people by quoting the Bible that the Lord himself did not send back those who came to him for help in bodily sufferings. "... we try to lead them to Christ, as the true helper in every kind of distress. Those that do not want to be led to Him and do not find the secular assistance they came for, leave us again sooner or later".¹² They had serious reservations on some of the conversions they had made, especially during natural calamities or contagious diseases.¹³

However, the missionaries always looked at the Brahmins as a major hindrance in their work of spreading the Bible to the people. Bazaar preachings of the missionaries were often objected to by the Brahmin-led groups. While they questioned the authority of the missionary to preach in the streets, the missionary cursed the Brahmins for their defiance. "You Brahmanas are the seducers of the people. God's wrath will come upon you and destroy you, unless you repent. I call upon heaven and earth to witness that I am speaking the truth. This truth will also be revealed to you scoffers, but alas! Then it will be too late."¹⁴ Thus the Brahmins were looked upon as the people having 'caste pride and complacency' who made some meaningless assertions, or left the missionary with a 'disdainful air' when the latter wanted to disclose the 'truth' to them. For them the women among Brahmins looked more conservative and very superstitious. But they hoped that in the near future their minds would be stored with the better things.¹⁵ To bring the 'Good News' to such a category of people the missionaries appointed Bible women in the late 19th century.

Once the Basel missionaries realised that it was not possible for them to convert too many from the upper castes, they began to look for converts from those who belonged to lower rungs in the caste hierarchy. Thus, nearly ninety percent of their converts in Canara were from the Billava community. Here too they aimed at the influential men of the caste like the priests of 'demon' temples so that the rest of the members of the caste would follow them. For the German missionaries in Canara, Billavas remained a significant community. It was they who defied the Demon worship on the instruction of the missionaries and embraced Christianity to grab the heavenly reward. Even though the missionaries were not quite comfortable with them, they were the last choice for conversion in the caste hierarchy in Kanara.¹⁶

The missionaries could not go well with the Mohammedans too. They had to face a threat from them in Mangalore during the conversion of Kaundinya. A pig was found thrown into the tank belonging to the principal mosque, which was next to the compound of the missionaries. Even though this created tension in the city, it was peacefully settled by the Magistrate, H.M Blair.¹⁷ In Canara not much was done to convert the Mohammedans to Christianity. There were a few cases in Malabar; one was at Phalghat in 1871, creating turmoil, where the local Mohammedans even threatened to kill the catechist. The matter was taken to the Cochin Minister, Shankuni Menon, and settled peacefully.¹⁸ But the tension between Mohammedans and the missionaries did not ease quickly. All the evidence shows that the Basel missionaries were not comfortable with the Muslims.

The missionaries found that it was very difficult to make the low castes comprehend the truths of the Gospel. "Their mental capacities and powers of reasoning are so deficient, that long and repeated teaching and catechizing are necessary, and after all, to change a heart of stone into a heart of flesh is the work of Holy Spirit alone".¹⁹ They saw indifference among the people with regard to the truth of the Gospel and to their eternal welfare. Clinging to their caste and family connections were the greatest obstacles to the task of bringing them to the 'true' religion. Moreover, the power of darkness seemed to keep them in a state of bondage. "The cross of Christ is still a stumbling block to some, and foolishness to others."²⁰ However, they also noticed that whenever there was an

attack of dreaded diseases like cholera, the most sacred family ties were dissolved among the heathen, to leave the affected ones and run away.²¹ In the missionary writings the outbreak of cholera in Calicut at the end of 1887 is picturised as follows: “Pen cannot describe the despair and terror of the one, and utter indifference and stupor of the other, who know of no other remedy to brave the disease but to get drunk; the patients are drunk daily, the nurses and attendants are drunk, and the grave diggers are drunk! This is the hopelessness of heathenism.”²²

The missionaries saw sorcerers and soothsayers holding control among the Tuluvas. They were experts in duping the people which they did with great simplicity and earnestness. They also supported the people to take revenge upon their enemies.²³ The missionaries reported that the people were unaware of the terror sorcerers exercised over their mind, body and property. “The people are on the whole deeply sunk in ignorance and superstition. On, that they might come to understand that a religion, which destroys body and soul, is a sinful one, and turn to God for grace and peace”.²⁴

The Protestant emphasis on the ‘text’ as an authoritative representation of religion had made them look for similar features in Indian religion since they entered the land with a definite evangelical agenda, the missionaries were busily concerned with the religion of the people. They first studied the native religion in spite of the opposition from the home committees, and then began to comment on it. They studied the native pagan literature to skillfully turn their own weapons against them so that they could make a more complete exposition of the Divine truth.²⁵ Thus, they hoped to get a comprehensive and authentic vocabulary for the translation of the Bible.²⁶

They published large number of Tracts²⁷ through which they tried to project Hinduism as a religion of moral depravity. Its image worship, dominance of the Brahmins, adultery, selfish attitudes of Hindu gods, too many gods and quarrels among these gods were the major issues they discussed. Historical verifiability of the incarnation of Hindu gods was one of the obsessive concerns of the missionaries. They rejected the miracles of these gods as they are undatable, and discarded the ancient Hindu scriptures as a collection of legends and fantasy.

For them none of the Hindu gods took birth or incarnation for the sake of saving the sinners of the earth, but for for shameful reasons. However, the missionaries recalled that such practices existed in Europe prior to the advent of Christianity, but once people accepted Christianity, these were given up forever. Therefore, it was Christianity alone that had the power to stop the image worship in this world.

Sin was a major concern in the missionary writings and teachings. They kept assuring themselves and the world that they were in Canara for the sake of its people who were soaked in sin and steeped in ignorance. The wretched sinners did not know the state of sin they were in, nor the ways of overcoming it. So the missionaries claimed that it was their duty to show what exactly sin was and to whom it could be confessed and how it could be forgiven²⁸.

In the colonial writings we see a broad division of Indian religious thoughts and practices. On the one hand all those religious practices which resemble the Brahmanical features are discussed or described as constituting 'Hinduism' and, on the other, those cults and practices they thought had defied the label of 'Hinduism', they termed as Demon or Devil Worship. The fear of these perpetual evil demons among the majority in India, led them to worship such spirits. In short the demons do much evil, but never bestow benefits, or evince any affection for their votaries. It could not be a religion of the civilized population. The rationale behind such offerings to the demon was life for life and blood for blood.²⁹ For the imperialist writers, particularly for the missionaries, the belief and worship of 'Bhuta' was nothing but the worship of Satan, the enemy of God. Where ever they come across a reference to Satan in their Biblical narration or preaching to the heathens, they were quick to associate it with the 'Bhuta' of Tulunadu. In a way the 'Bhuta' became a readymade symbol of that which was opposed to God. It also became a live example to threaten the heathens with about the anger of God which would consign them to everlasting fire in hell if they followed the 'Bhutas'.³⁰ The missionaries were constantly at war with the omnipresent demons of Tulunadu, whose conquest became the precondition of their success.

In the missionary writings the converted Christian congregation assumes a major space as preaching or conversion of the heathens. They reported year after

year that the congregation was gradually growing in number, slowly emerging out of infancy and youth into a self reliant state of Christian life.³¹ However, it is important to know to what extent the missionaries accepted the neophytes in the 'Christian brotherhood' which they preached, and what relations they maintained with the new born community.

As the number of congregations increased, the anxieties of missionaries also increased. They felt that there were many who did not quite conduct themselves in a manner worthy of the Gospel which they professed to believe. The missionaries constantly complained that congregations seemed to be apathetic to the Grace of God, and that they did not follow the spiritual exercises prescribed to them and did not attend the services held in the church except on Sundays.³² The common complaint about the community was that they were spiritually asleep and did not walk worthy of their high calling. Some even had given cause to the heathens around to blaspheme the name of the Lord.³³ Laziness overshadowed their spiritual activities and therefore very few were found in divine services. "...men prefer going to see cockfighting to going to church".³⁴ Education for the Christian children was treated as one of the agencies for building up the church. But unwillingness to send the children to school was sometimes caused by poverty, but much more frequently by indifference, weakness, niggardliness, and covetousness. They kept their children at home to escape paying school fee or to get as much work out of them as possible.³⁵ Besides, the missionaries felt that people were thankless. When there was a famine in the district they distributed the rice at lower prices for the Christians. But the members of the Christian congregation were not ashamed to show dissatisfaction openly.³⁶

The missionary felt that there should be constant spiritual training for the neophytes. "The spiritual care of the congregations has always been considered of the highest importance, and by means of services on Sundays and weekdays, by speaking with the individual members of the church, by visiting and praying with them in times of disease, by supervision of their behaviour, by admonishing and punishing transgressors, and in several other ways we endeavour to root them deeper in piety and to raise their moral standards".³⁷ To teach them frequently on Christianity the missionaries brought out catechism literature which, according

to Zupanov, aimed at empowering the newly converted Christians to argue against their former religious affinities and affiliations.³⁸ To train them in Christian spirit they thought that the prayers would play a major part. They brought out prayer books which they thought might guide the members of the congregation in proper spiritual life.³⁹

The missionaries found that there were heathen residues which neophytes still clung to. Among the neophytes the missionaries saw the continuation of several cases of sorcery in Malabar and in the Tulu churches. The native Christians found it very hard not to join the tom-tom, singing, theatricals and other pastimes of heathens. Of course, for missionaries, the nature of these plays, the time at which they were performed, and the surroundings were highly objectionable.⁴⁰ The Basel missionaries held regular meetings with the catechists to review the progress of neophytes in Christianity. They also reported that the work of years had been endangered and progress seriously checked by the grave misunderstandings and unexpected distrust on the part of a number of Christians towards their superiors. They claimed that they had preserved the congregation from the outward calamities but assault from inside the church was much more dangerous and painful.⁴¹

The missionaries also pointed out that some of the social issues had lowered the standards of Christian life in the congregation. There were dissensions among Christian families. This was due to the state of transition from the heathenish law of nephew inheritance to the Christian law of children inheritance, which they thought would discourage individual initiative and spirit of independence. It also hindered the spread of Christianity.⁴² Missionaries looked upon alcoholism as the greatest evil that affected the Christians of Canara. It was, along with thoughtlessness, diagnosed as the cause of poverty and debt.⁴³ Women alcoholics were never tolerated in the church. They were ordered to sit outside the church and if required were excommunicated.⁴⁴ The majority of the converts from the Billava caste were involved in toddy tapping. "Most of them being, moreover toddy drawers, and the produce of our coconut trees being almost exclusively consumed in toddy and arrack, we cannot help setting our face against this occupation".⁴⁵ In this context they published a book in Tulu, called, *Is it Right for*

Christians to Manufacture and Sell Toddy and Arrack?, addressed mainly to toddy drawing Christians.⁴⁶ They argued that once the Billavas accepted Christianity they were supposed to give up such old heathen practices. Otherwise, they feared that the people would point out at Christians saying that they would not practice what they professed. They also pointed out that in this matter the former government was better than the colonial government since it had not allowed the preparation and sale of liquor. The English government was less concerned with welfare than profit, which merely brought misery to the people.⁴⁷

Another issue which the missionaries had to contend with was the habitual indebtedness of the native Christians. This led to other evils like lies, cheating, theft, and slavery under non Christian masters.⁴⁸ The Presbytery Proceedings of the Basel Mission Churches reveal to us the way in which the early church operated in disciplining its members in Kanara.⁴⁹ The meetings of these churches were attended by the missionaries and the church elders who were elected from their respective wards. These records disclose the early years of the church activities. The Presbytery meetings involved in warnings, punishments and excommunicating its members. These church committees acted as little courts in settling the disputes on various issues of Christian families: warning was given to those who threatened the widows and the poor,⁵⁰ a separate punishment bench was shown in the church to those who were involved in sorcery,⁵¹ 'Lord's Supper' was denied to those who were involved in theft⁵², debt⁵³ and even for their non Christian behaviour.⁵⁴ In Mulki, the church was also the landlord and therefore the issues related to tenancy, non-payment of rent were discussed in the Presbytery meetings.⁵⁵

The Presbytery meetings of the Basel Mission churches emphasised the need to bring spiritual discipline among the natives. Each and every family was closely observed and the defaulters were warned or persuaded to correct themselves in the Christian way of life. The church elders were directed to go and inspect those families who abstained for silly reasons from attending the Sunday services.⁵⁶ The Church Presbytery meetings have also examined aspirants who intended to join the congregation thoroughly. In 1865 in Mulki church, there were many enquirers for baptism but doubts were raised about their conduct. It was stated that if there was no improvement in their life style, then, it would be

futile to continue the instruction for baptism to them.⁵⁷ Each one was examined with his positive as well as negative traits before they were brought to the Christian fold.⁵⁸ There were incidents of many who swung between Christianity and Heathenism. The Presbytery meeting insisted on examining them thoroughly before their re-entry in the church and therefore they were ordered to sit outside.⁵⁹ There was a discussion on baptising the new born baby of Pauline in the Mulki church. Her husband Fredrick was a leper for many years and therefore, there was suspicion on the legitimacy of the child. The baptism was deferred till the correct information was obtained.⁶⁰

If the neophytes exceeded the limits of missionaries' forbearance, they were excommunicated. The statistical figures of the Basel Mission highlight the large scale excommunications from the church: From 1891 to 1895 at Udupi alone there were around 245 excommunications against the 230 baptisms.⁶¹ The Annual Report for the year 1898 stated that in Udupi there were twenty baptisms but twenty five excommunications.⁶² In 1881 in all stations 197 natives were converted, 287 Christian children were baptized and 32 persons were restored to full church membership, which meant a total increase of 516. However, in the same year 21 persons left for other districts where the Basel missionaries had no control, 137 died and 138 were excommunicated.⁶³ *Kraistha Sabha Patra*, the missionary journal for the congregation, stated in 1884 that a good number of Christians were excommunicated for various reasons and the majority of them were from Mulky station.

Disobedience of the native Christians was never tolerated by the missionaries. When an influential Catechist of Mulki was transferred to Udupi in 1857, he disobeyed the order and the entire Christian community of Mulki stood by him. For such an act of defiance they all received the orders of excommunication. "We exclude them from our fellowship. And until they thoroughly humble themselves and show true fruits of penitence, and lay, aside their godless and hypocritical ways, we will neither preach the Gospel to them or their children, nor give them and their children baptism or the Lord's Supper, nor concern ourselves with any of their concerns".⁶⁴ They even sent notices to the community members who lived in the mission property to vacate within six months. The excommunicated congregation of Mulki made an appeal to the Home Committee to look into the

matter and to do justice. The decision of the Home Committee at Basel to all these developments was interesting: It ordered the two ex-catechists to do penance and seek public apology from the missionaries in the presence of the witnesses, and to declare that they were prepared to be posted anywhere in the district lest they should lose their catechist job. The congregation was asked to return with penitent hearts to the Lord and their appointed shepherds and keepers of souls and throw off the influence of the ex-catechists. In the case of the missionaries the Home Committee felt that they went too far in excommunicating the entire congregation without obtaining the agreement of the District Conference before hand. But “With such a serious step, and with such young missionaries, this would definitely have been necessary. In future this should not happen again”.⁶⁵

Since the Billavas formed the majority among the converted Christians, the Basel missionaries claimed that “caste was not difficulty in their congregations.⁶⁶ Of course, they did not tolerate caste differentiation among the members in or outside the congregation. “As every Christian must recognize, that we are all descendants of Adam and children of wrath by nature,... therefore, every member of our churches must also see that in Christ there is neither white nor black, neither male nor female,...they are all one in Christ Jesus.”⁶⁷ Even though they proclaimed that the natives were brought to the brotherhood of Christ, the missionaries always kept a distance from the native congregation. There was also a feeling among them that they belonged to the ruling nation or, at least, the ruling race.⁶⁸ The Europeans never tried to be a part of the native congregation. They only remained as teachers who commanded from above and punished members of the congregation when they disobeyed them. A missionary marrying a native Christian was probably beyond the imagination of Germans. As Kenneth Ballhatchet points out, the preservation of social distance was essential to the maintenance of structures of power and authority. Marriages that threatened to bridge the social distance were strictly discouraged.⁶⁹ Rev. Greiner’s intimacy with a native woman at Udupi was taken seriously and he was deported immediately from India even though, he was one among the first three missionaries to land in Kanara in 1834.⁷⁰ The missionary Report stated that it made the other missionaries shudder and tremble because of the illegitimate relation the missionary had with the ‘native’ woman. It is hard to believe that the

Church would have reacted in the same indignant manner had Griener shown the same intimacy with a European woman.

Even the native pastors had the experience of the racial discrimination by the missionaries. When Moegling thought of taking Anand Rao Kaundinya to Basel for the training, he was not accepted unanimously. At first the Home Committee denied Moegling's request, and only after much debate he was accepted.⁷¹ Even after his ordination, Moegling and his wife Pauline expected complete obedience and accountability from him.⁷² Except Moegling, Weigle and Gundert, other missionaries never accepted him as their equals. He was allowed to conduct the Sunday service at Balmatta only when no one was available among the German missionaries.⁷³ The native pastors always felt that the missionaries were dominating them. They were supposed to obey the missionaries at any cost.⁷⁴ They felt that some missionaries had not kept the Christian togetherness with the native pastors. They were separated like low grade workers in the service of God. When Rev. Fisher was the missionary at Karkal, the pastors were supposed to stand just in front of his door, waiting for him to open the door of his bungalow. They were not permitted to knock at his door or even cough to draw attention. While the missionary resided in the bungalow, the pastor who got a transfer to assist him, was shown the horse stable to live in. The District Chairman of the Basel Mission never addressed the pastors when he made the station visit at Karkal.⁷⁵ The pastors recalled that they had no courage to go to missionary Bungalows.⁷⁶ When a missionary misbehaved with the pastor, the latter lodged a complaint against him with the District Chairman of the Basel Mission, who also happened to be a German, ordered the pastor to obey his boss even though he was wrong.⁷⁷

In the missionary perception happiness or unhappiness of a person was determined in terms of his acceptance or rejection of Christianity. The salvation that one gets by becoming Christian was more important for them than the life in this world. But they noted that all do not deserve to be in 'Christian heaven'. Some even do not deserve to tap it. G.A. Oddie states that the history of Protestant Christianity in the nineteenth century India is the history of Western missionaries attempting to exercise dominion and control over the 'new Christians'. They

selected those individuals who responded strictly to the European evangelical version of the gospel. It sustained the missionary control over the native converts.⁷⁸ The missionaries worked hard in bringing up the native congregation to the European standards as well as uniting them under the banner of 'universal brotherhood'. However, they never became a part of the congregation to which they were assigned. They tried to impose equality among the converts irrespective of their castes but never allowed the converts to claim equality with the missionaries. Missionary bungalows represented the centres of power and dominance. The missionaries remained in close proximity to the natives in building up Christian brotherhood in Canara, but they never became a part of it.

Note:

¹ Fifty Sixth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India, Mangalore, 1896, p.65.

² Sixty Third Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India, Mangalore, 1903, p.30.

³ Dick Kooiman, *Conversion and Social Equality in India: London Missionary Society in South Travancore in the 19th Century*, New Delhi: Manohar, 1989, pp.176-177

⁴ *Second Report of the German Mission in South Western India*, Madras, 1842, p.17.

⁵ *Fourth Report of the German Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1844, pp.4-11.

⁶ Nicholas B. Dirks, *Castes of Mind: Colonialism and the making of Modern India*, Permanent Black, Delhi, 2003, p.140.

⁷ Ines Zupanov, *Disputed Mission: Jesuit Experiments and Brahmanical knowledge in Seventeenth Century India*, Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1999, p.30.

⁸ *Souvenir of the First Eucharistic Congress of the Diocese of Mangalore*, Mangalore, 1938, p.96.

⁹ Kooiman, *op.cit.*, p.78.

¹⁰ *The Thirtieth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1870, p.30.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p.33.

¹² *The Fifty Third Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1893, p.30.

¹³ *The Thirtieth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*,

Mangalore, 1870, p.30.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. 61

¹⁵ S. J. Ballard, *Tales about India*, Mangalore, 1875, pp.7-8.

¹⁶ *Thirteenth Report of the German Mission, op.cit.*, p.12.

¹⁷ *Fourth Report of the German Mission, op.cit* , p.12.

¹⁸ *Thirty Second Report of the German Mission in South Western India*, 1872, pp.13-14.

¹⁹ The Fifth Report of the German Mission in South Western India,1845, p.8.

²⁰ *The Sixth Report of the German Mission in South Western India*, 1846, pp.18-19.

²¹ The Twenty Sixth Report of the German Mission in South Western India, 1866, p.63.

²² The Forty Eighth Report of the German Mission in South Western India, 1888, p.31.

²³ The Sixtieth Report of the German Mission in South Western India, 1900, p.44.

²⁴ The Forty Sixth Report of the German Mission in South Western India, 1886, p.44.

²⁵ *Proceedings of the South India Missionary Conference, Held at Ootacamund, Madras, 1858*, p.281.

²⁶ Albrecht Frenz, Ed., *Herrmann Moegling: A Biography by Hermann Gundert*, Kottayam: D.C. Books, 1997, p.247.

²⁷ The following Tracts of the Basel Missionaries are referred for the study. *Daiva Parikshe: Examination of Hinduism*, Mangalore, 1870., *Deva Vicharane*, Mangalore, 1845., *Kraistara Hamgu Hindu Janara Baluvikeya Vyatyasa: A Comparison of the Christian and the Hindu Life*, Mangalore, 1884., *Jnana Marga Suchane*, Mangalore: Mission Press, 1846., *Dvimatha Parikshe: Hinduism and Christianity Contrasted*, Mangalore, 1866., *Tirupathy Yatre: On Pilgrimages*, Mangalore, 1870., *Narakula Devaru Yaru: Who is your Saviour?*, Mangalore, 1892., *Kaliyugada Mahatmye-The Greatness of the Present Age*, Mangalore,1899., *Iraru Patrike: Twelve Letters*, Ninth Ed, Mangalore, 1920., *Krishna Kristha ivara Hechchu kadime:Krishna and Christ Compared*, 2nd Ed., Mangalore, 1867. *Ubhaya mata Darshakavu: A short Catechism of the Consonant and Dissonant Teachings of the Evangelical Protestant and Roman Catholic*, Mangalore, 1881.

²⁸ *Proceedings of the South India Missionary Conference, op.cit.*,p 305.

²⁹ Rev. Robert Caldwell, 'Demonolatry in Southern India' in *The Indian Evangelical Review: A Quarterly Journal of Missionary Thought and Effort*, Vol. XIV, Calcutta, 1887-1888, pp.192-193.

³⁰ *The Sixth Report of the German Mission*, 1846, p 11

- ³¹ *The Twenty Eighth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1868, pp.14-15.
- ³² *The Twenty Seventh Report German Mission*, 1867, p.15.
- ³³ *The Twenty Fourth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1864, p.19.
- ³⁴ *The Sixty Sixth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1906, p.42.
- ³⁵ *The Fifty First Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1891, p.20.
- ³⁶ *The Fifty Eighth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1898, p.71.
- ³⁷ *The Thirty Seventh Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1867, p.34.
- ³⁸ Zupanov, *op.cit.*, p.53.
- ³⁹ *Tulu Prayers: Dinatha Prarthanelu* (in Tulu), Mangalore, 1869, pp.9-55.
- ⁴⁰ *The Forty Second Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1882,, p.31.
- ⁴¹ *The Sixty Second Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1902., p.16.
- ⁴² *The Forty Third Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1883., p.29. Also see Kooiman, *op.cit.*, p.84.
- ⁴³ *The Fifty First Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1891, p.20.
- ⁴⁴ 'Mulki Church Presbytery Record', Minutes dated 1st April 1864, No. IX; December 1864, No. III; 7th April 1865, No. V; 25 August 1865. Milka, David's wife was ordered to sit outside the church for alcoholism. When her husband requested to readmit her to the Church, she was denied full membership of the church on the ground that she could not be trusted. When he requested for help him to buy food, it was refused on the same ground. She continued to be under punishment for one and a half year.
- ⁴⁵ *Proceedings Of the South Indian Missionary Conference*, *op.cit.*, p.82.
- ⁴⁶ *Kraisther Murud Kali Gangasara Malth^d Marunavu Samadunda?: Is it Right for Christians to Manufacture and Sell Toddy and Arrack?* (in Tulu language), Mangalore, 1878.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, p.12. The missionaries claim that earlier the Government was getting only Rs. 500/- by way of bidding the Arrack shops in the Mangalore Taluk but when this publication was brought out the profit of the government increased to Rs. 60000/-.

⁴⁸ *The Sixty Seventh Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1907, p.42.

⁴⁹ The early records of the Basel mission churches are in German language. Only from 1891 onwards the Shanti Church records are found in Kannada language. The records of Mulki Church records from 1863 are found in Tulu language. In the twentieth century they too adopted Kannada.

⁵⁰ 'Shanti Church Presbytery Record', Minutes dated 3rd April 1891, No.4.

⁵¹ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 14th August 1891, No. 2.

⁵² 'Mulki Church Presbytery Record', Minutes dated December, 1864, No. VI. Precilla had stolen the clothes of Dhobi Paul and she was asked to sit outside the church., 7th April 1865, No.III. However, there was another complaint brought before the church committee that she had stolen the pitcher of her neighbours and therefore her punishment continued.

⁵³ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 12th May 1863, No. IV; 25th August 1865, No. III-3; 14th December 1865, No. I. These minutes record that Jonus was in debt and was punished for repayment. He was taken to full membership of the church only after his repayment.

⁵⁴ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 1st April 1864, No. III. Conduct of Christian and his wife was considered as not 'proper'. He was also an obstacle for others in the church. Therefore he was denied Lord's Supper. 1st March 1865, No II-a and b. Only after one year they were permitted to take Lord's Supper after their close examination by the Rev. Brigel.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 10th May 1864, No.1. Basappa was not found fit for the land at Kadulachchil and therefore part of it was given to Charles and part to Poovayya; minutes dated 1st July 1864, No. I. Since Nehemia had not paid the rent to the Church, the land was handed over to Paul.

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 12th May 1863, No. IV.

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 1st March 1865, No. I. Finally it was agreed to give religious instruction again to them all .

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 31 October 1865, No. I, 1-4. It is stated that Dhuma had not attended many catechism classes yet no harm is found in him. Therefore he could be baptized. Even Chennappu was of same kind and more than that he was interested. But Kesu Shetty's conduct was not to the expectations and Devu's anger was still

dominated him. However, they could be baptized.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 14th December 1865, No.1.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, Minutes dated 25th August 1865, No. 1.

⁶¹ *The Fifty Sixth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1896, p.46.

⁶² *The Fifty Ninth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1899, p. 80.

⁶³ *The Forty Second Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1882, pp. 28-29

⁶⁴ Basel Mission Archive C-1, 22. Udupi-Mulki.8 Attachment C, Discussion in Mulki 15, August 1857. Translation into English by Paul Jenkins.

⁶⁵ *Ibid.*, *Udupi-Mulki.8 Appendix*. Minutes of the Committee of the Basel Mission, 1857. 53rd meeting of the year, Basel, 30th Dec 1857. Translations into English by Paul Jenkins.

⁶⁶ *The Thirty Seventh Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1877, p.40.

⁶⁷ *Basel Evangelical Mission In India: Constitution and Rules of the Mission and the Church in the District of South Kanara(with Coorg) South Mahratta and Malabar*, Mangalore, 1931, pp.29-30..

⁶⁸ Kooiman, *op.cit.*, 1989, p.44.

⁶⁹ Kenneth Ballhatchet, *Race, Sex and Class Under the Raj: Imperial Attitude and the Policies and their Critics, 1793-1905*, New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House, 1980, p.vii.

⁷⁰ *The Sixteenth Report of the German Evangelical Mission in South Western India*, Mangalore, 1856, pp. 4-6.

⁷¹ Frenz, Ed., *op.cit.*, p.145.

⁷² Veena Maben, "Pauline Moegling- An Exceptional Mission Woman" in Albrecht Frenz and Stefan Frenz, Eds., *Future in Remembrance*, 2007, p. 338.

⁷³ Katrin Binder, "Hermann Anandrao Kaundinya", in Albrecht Frenz and Stefan Frenz, Eds., *Future in Remembrance*, 2007, pp. 425-427..

⁷⁴ Personal interview of Rev Vedamuttu on 20-5-1986 by J.S. Sadananda and Vijayakumar, KTC Archives, p.25.

⁷⁵ Personal interview of Rev J.B. Sathyvratha in 1984 by J.B. Shiri and O.V. Jathanna, KTC Archives, pp. 15, 17, 21.

⁷⁶ Personal interview of Augustine Salins in 1982 by O.V. Jathanna, KTC Archives, p. 20.

⁷⁷ Personal interview of D. I. Ananda in 1984 by O.V. Jathanna and G. Shiri, KTC Archives, p.14.

⁷⁸ G. A. Oddie, ‘ “Orientalism” and British Protestant Missionary Constructions of India in the Nineteenth Century’ in *South Asia*, Vol. XVII, No. 2, 1994, pp 38-39.

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THE CONTENTIOUS DOMAIN OF GLOBALISATION AND THE SALIENCE OF WELFARE STATE

- Rose Veera D'Souza

Abstract

The world has witnessed transformative changes from the last quarter of the 20th century that many regard as paradigmatically different from the earlier phases. These changes are associated with a process called globalisation. The process of globalisation has gained ground in such a way that very few states are left with any option other than opening up their economy and society to the impinging world. These developments have a special bearing on the developing countries of the world. The dominant discourse of globalisation supported swift changes integrating these societies into a world markedly different from the ways they were accustomed to or familiar with. They have made many states particularly in the developing world, redefine their role and create opportunities for the market, new technologies and hitherto unfamiliar interactions and exchanges, or face the danger of being left out. The article attempts to understand the forces of globalisation in order to assess its profundity. As such, an effort is made here to understand those aspects of globalisation that have their bearing on state that stood as a big supportive welfare state. The discourse and trends of globalisation are discussed to acquire a wider perspective on processes affecting contemporary social relations. Is globalisation old or new? Is it inevitable? Does globalisation help mitigate social and economic inequalities? What are the factors that influence globalisation and who are its beneficiaries? These become imperative questions if we wish to assess the salience of welfare state under globalisation.

Keywords: *Globalisation, Welfare, Periodisation, Social Relations, Intensification, Asymmetry,*

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Three major developments of recent decades have altered the economic, political and ideological context of the welfare state- the globalisation of economy, the relative decline of the state and the collapse of socialism. These major developments essentially form the changed economic, political and ideological context of welfare state.

Over the last three decades, the forces of globalisation have been influencing the political, social and cultural milieu of the nation-state. It is true that the policies and institutions that the state had nurtured over the years have entered a crisis period. Economic factors have played a major role in this transformation. Nonetheless, this process of transformation encompasses social, political and cultural factors that along with economic and technological links increasingly tend to affect territorial, legal and political spheres that the state nourished for decades.

SITUATING GLOBALISATION

How do we situate globalisation? There are multiple discourses on this issue. Discourses need to be taken seriously as social practices attempt to construct reality.ⁱ One of the dominant discourses of our time revolves around a phenomenon that they identify as globalisation. In the process they advance a particular understanding of this phenomenon. Globalisation is explained as the construction of a new reality by the dominant global markets which make "individual actors, companies, agencies and nations" powerless. There are others who see several versions of globalisation and distinguish between new and old. While some feel that globalisation is a discordant and highly uneven process others argue that it is coherent, all encompassing and inevitable. Some trace the antecedents of globalisation to earlier centuries. Matthias Finger identifies seven steps of the development of globalisation.ⁱⁱ He traces globalisation back to Christianity or Judeo-Christianity, as the first step of globalisation. This step suggests the 'unity of God' or unity of religion and the relationship of individual to God. As such, God is presented as one, or a 'global God'. The second step of globalisation is the 'global rationality phase' which brings back the erstwhile unified God to temporal existence with the claim that paradise could be created on Earth due to science and corresponding technological engineering. He finds

the third step expressed in colonialism with its processes of scientific exploration, evangelization, economic exploitation and military conquest. The next three steps of globalisation are linked to revolutions, like the French Revolution, Industrial Revolution and the two-world wars and the cold war. The French Revolution brought nation-states into existence and paved the way for the emergence of an autonomous responsible citizen with defined relationship to political organization. Industrial Revolution developed rationality of the individual and the world wars and cold war furthered the process of industrial growth. Linking all these steps to these historical antecedents Finger locates the seventh step of globalisation to the present globalisation, marking the world from 1960s.

Finger's linear version is not the sole version of this kind. Other versions of its kind abound. *The World Bank Policy Research Report (2001)* also speaks of the 'three waves of globalisation'. It suggests that the period between 1870-1914 as the first wave of global integration characterized by falling costs of transport, the reduction in tariff barriers and the dramatic increase in flow of goods, capital and labour. It argues that the total flow of labour in the first wave had been estimated to be 10 per cent of the total population and the export as a share of world income doubled to about 8 per cent.ⁱⁱⁱ The share of foreign capital stock of developing countries is stated to have grown from 9 per cent of their income in 1870 to 32 percent of their income in 1914. The second wave of globalisation is considered to have taken place from 1950-1980, with the integration of the economies of the rich countries. This phase is considered as the golden age of industrial countries. It was marked by integration of the OECD bloc and a spectacular reduction of poverty within them. The third wave of globalisation is traced to 1980s onwards. It is marked by technological advance in transport and communication. It witnessed spiral growth in technology, integration of trade and a large number of developing countries opened up to foreign trade and investment with increased participation in global trade and took measures to liberalize their economies.

The report argues that historically none of the earlier developments before 1870 can be termed as globalisation. According to the report the first wave witnessed a combination of falling transport costs, such as the switch from sail to steamship, and reductions in tariff barriers. Cheaper transport and the lifting

of barriers encouraged the utilization of abundant land. Advancement through railways also helped in creating better economic opportunities. However all these major developments did not sustain for a long time. Though there was a substantial increase in flows of trade due to reduced cost of transport in 1870, between 1914 and 1945 trade had fallen back to the 1870 level.^{iv}

The report correlates such a reversal to the great depression, and the two world wars. Though the report considers the integration of the OECD countries in the second wave as significant, such an integration cannot be compared to the convergence that globalisation displays today. Seeing globalisation in several versions makes the present avatar of globalisation as the logical continuation of the developmental process that has been carried on through the various phases of history. They smack of historicism and an underlying evolutionism mark the way they construct their period. Most of them make the west the anchor of the process reducing the rest of the world to passivity. Suggesting, globalisation as phenomenon of the past does not allow us to comprehend the intensity of globalisation that came to mark this process from the beginning of 1970s. Moreover, globalisation is not a linear process and periodization of globalisation can never be definitive. Often such an explanation tends to nullify the phenomenon before us and argues that it is similar to any other historical phase.

As such, the above perspectives evade the holistic or multilevel perspective that becomes important to analyze globalisation, as a distinct process extending over territories, people and ideas. Though the World Bank report emphasizes the distinctness of the present wave of globalisation yet it ends up to be a parameter at best to analyze contemporary context that changed the international scenario just as the continuation of industrial growth. Moreover, such an explanation only seems to accommodate economic globalisation that was the landmark of earlier phases. Globalisation, at present, encompasses all spheres of human existence: political, social, cultural. They play as much an important role as the economic sphere.

Often Marxist and post-colonial writers, trace globalisation to colonialism and argue that colonization that took place from the 16th century onward, is the systematic extension of the European civilization model on to the new world.^v

Scholars like, Vandana Shiva and Wallerstien subscribe to the view that globalisation is a continuation of the imperialistic process that was carried forward through colonialism. Such a perspective, believes that the imperialistic patterns have been continued through new imperialism by Europe and American expansionism. In such a viewpoint the present globalisation, becomes a replication of colonialism or at best its extension. Similar perspectives are extended by, world system theorists who maintain that the expansion of European capitalism marks the start of globalisation.^{vi}

Seeing globalisation as a continuation of colonialism does not help to see the new ways in which the former process articulates nation with class, nations and cultures. Further the kind of centrality around which the colonial project was mooted and carried out by colonial powers can hardly be said to be central feature of globalisation.

Discourses on globalisation link it to varied phases of the 20th century also. Economic historians like Williamson argue that globalisation emerged somewhere before the 1930s, as the turn of the 19th century registered accelerated growth in international trade and investment which declined during World War I and the Great Depression. Globalisation is also traced to the end of World War II with the coming of nuclear age, the emancipation of colonies and the renewed expansion of trade.^{vii} Scholars argue that globalisation was set into motion during the beginning of the Cold War. "It was simply unfortunate that this period of great tension and superpower rivalry of nearly 45 years masked this process."^{viii} In the book *Re-imagining Political Community*, edited by Daniele Archibugi, David Held and Martin Köhler, it is suggested that the processes of globalisation are connected to the end of the Cold War and the assertion of democracy as the sole legitimate system of governance. These attempts at the historical periodization of globalisation may help to claim that globalisation is old. However, these claims would not be validated as the present processes of globalisation witness stupendous changes that extend to social, economic, political and cultural spheres which could hardly be attributed to the phases suggested by the above scholars. Historical antecedents of globalisation, may at the most, help us identify certain tendencies of globalisation but not to explain the characteristics of the process

as a whole. They fail to explain the pace and scale of globalisation which cuts across the dimensions of space and time.

Cumulatively these attempts to historically situate globalisation boil down to the following query: Is globalisation old or new? Such a query leads itself to either the 'all-change' or 'all-continuity' debate. The 'all-change thesis' suggests that globalisation is entirely a recent historical turn. It suggests that the complex of globalisation is entirely new in terms of its intensity, scale and scope. The 'continuity thesis' pursues the chronology and periodization of globalisation, suggesting globalisation as old.^{ix} Sometimes, it tends to locate the antecedents of globalisation to many centuries back in history as we have seen in the phases outlined by Finger.

If we understand globalisation as a mode of large-scale interaction then, such a process can be traced to the past quite easily. But the central characteristics of globalisation may not be captured by such interactions. Therefore David Held says 'spread of world religions, the huge development of empires in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the stretch of the British Empire, global cultural and economic phenomenon are not new. But there have been different historical forms of globalisation, and the contemporary conjuncture is new.'^x

Many people feel that the supra territoriality had its substantial beginning in the middle of the 19th century. The telegraph lines and the later development of trans-border telephone connections; radio communications and intercontinental air transport of 1919 have been located in the latter half of the 19th century and first half of the 20th century. However, the present phase of accelerated globalisation can be only traced to increasingly proliferating global relations which began to take place in 1970s. As such, the earlier trans-territoriality can never be the same compared with the heightened supra territoriality witnessed today since the latter half of the 20th century. Even the globalisation of markets in the present phase is distinct with its digital computers, advanced telecommunications and electronic mass media. Hence, it can never be subsumed within the kind of marketing that existed in the late 19th and beginning of 20th century. Then marketing was limited to a few products and the sale was limited to a few countries. The transoceanic cables began to be laid in 1956, direct

dialing between countries was in 1963 and that helped connectivity through the trans-world direct-dial telephone to over 200 countries in 1990.^{xi}

Financial globalisation with free flow of capital, with free market ideology of liberalization, deregulation and privatization is distinctly new. Admittedly, there has been always 'footloose' capital and nation- states have often been dependent on the co-operation of international financiers, but the changes that have taken place in the recent decades are quite distinct.^{xii} Moreover in traditional trade, agriculture, mining and manufacturing played a predominant role. Globalisation changed the phase of trade through 'electronic financial transactions', flows of images and sounds.^{xiii}

The markets have developed exponentially in supra territorial coordination of distribution, promotion and sales activities only in the later part of the 20th century. Trans-border production processes and associated intra-firm trade gained substantial proportions only in this period. Moreover, many service industries entered global production during this phase as electronic finance initiated deterritorialization of money. Trans-world institutions also expanded in their competence, membership staff and budget in the last 40 years. Thus, since 1960s, even globality rose continually and inclusively to the large sections of humanity. Marking splendid technological expansion and market mobilizations globalisation has become an autonomous process only in recent years.

Globalisation in an economic sense derives particularly from a progressive reduction in transaction cost. However, the level and pace of global economic interactions is quantitatively much more than earlier phases of change. It has gone beyond economic dimensions spreading through political, cultural and environmental influences. The present global integration is also qualitatively different from the past because of the scale, intensity and rapidity of the processes involved. Globalisation today has brought forth contradictory trends with varying degrees of pressures on state, society and economy, as was never the case with the supra territorial reach of the past.

The term "globalisation", had been first used around 1960 in its world-wide sense.^{xiv} The rise of supra-territoriality extending to communications, organisations, trade, finance, ecology and consciousness, across widely dispersed locations

simultaneously and their moving between places anywhere instantaneously became its characteristic. In these interrelated spheres globalisation unquestionably is a phenomenon of recent decades.^{xv}

Restricting the process of globalisation to recent years does not necessarily ignore its earlier mappings, however inadequate they may seem today. In fact such mappings help us to see the complexity and nuances of this process better. Media references to globalisation became very wide over the last two decades. But, its origins lie in the work of many nineteenth and early twentieth century intellectuals, from sociologists such as Saint-Simon to students of geo-politics such as Mackinder, who identified how modernity was integrating the world. It was only in the 1960s and early 1970s that the term globalisation had actually been used.^{xvi} In the academic circle the phenomenon of globalisation became very significant only about a decade or so.^{xvii} In the suggested earlier phases of globalisation supra territoriality communications markets production, finance, organization, and social ecology as understood today were not present and the global consciousness touched very few minds. Even among that minority, globality was just a passing and not a focal thought.^{xviii}

The magnitude, complexity and speed of globalism also distinguish globalisation from the earlier periods. Thomas Friedman calls it the 'democratization of technology, finance and information, as diminished costs have made the erstwhile luxuries available to a much broader range of society'.^{xix} The growing transactions and organizational connections across national boundaries is the cornerstone of globalisation. Globalisation began to take a popular stance in the mid-80s when it began to replace the terms like 'inter-nationalization' with 'transnational' and 'multinational', to refer to the increasing and intensifying networks of cross-border human interaction. International often meant to explain the relationship between nation-states. Robert J. Holton suggests that transnational comprises the processes that somehow stand above or beyond national jurisdiction or control. And, multinational implies the enterprises operating in many countries and can switch activities among them. Multinational is the preferred term in the academic circles today to explain the processes of globalisation.^{xx}

GLOBALISATION AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS

If globalisation is a destructive development, irreducible to the processes central to the preceding phases, how do we identify its central characteristics? There are strong contestations regarding the central features of globalisation as there are with situating it historically. Generally, globalisation implies growing interdependence of regimes and nations, markets and economies, technologies and modes of development impinging upon one another. It also involves intensification of interrelationships of nations and regions. Such intensification is manifest in trans-border interconnectedness in social economic, political and cultural sphere. These features suggest an epoch-defining set of changes that are radically affecting social and economic relations and institutions in the present century. On account of these developments there is a widespread feeling that the very nature of 'world politics is changing'.^{xxi}

David Held defines, globalisation as a process resulting in cross-border flows of goods, services, money, people, information and culture.^{xxii} Three features of these flows are noteworthy. Jan Aart Scholte distinguishes them as, a) increase in cross-border relations, b) increase in open border relations c) increase in trans-border relations.^{xxiii} These developments make the impenetrable borders of sovereign states much more porous.

The developments highlighted above profoundly mark social relations and one can discern a trend whereby 'social relations become less tied to territorial jurisdictions'.^{xxiv} Having said this we need not rush to the conclusion that social relations under conditions of globalisation have to be necessarily dislocated from their local and national contexts. Locality and trans-locality both may get entwined in the articulations of social relations. It comes through in Anthony Giddens characterisation of globalisation as 'the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring across space and vice-versa'.^{xxv} He regards globalisation as 'distanciation', between space and time. For him, globalisation is accompanied with the intersection of presence and absence, the interconnectedness of social events and social relations "at a distance", with local contextual ties' which he calls 'distanciation'.^{xxvi} He argues that globalisation is not a single process but a

complex of processes which often act in contradictory ways, producing conflicts, disjunctures and new forms of stratification.

We have suggested earlier that information and technology play major roles in articulating globalisation. David Harvey and James Mittelman see in the process a 'compression' of space and time, a shrinking of the world.^{xxxvii} In fact distant places and duration may acquire a sense of here and now and simultaneity like at no time before. Similarly the relationship between hither-thither, now-after may undergo profound transformation. Political Scientist Robert Gilpin defines Globalisation as the "increasing interdependence of national economies in trade, finance and macroeconomic policy."^{xxxviii} Globalisation immensely influences cross-national flows of goods, investment, production and technology begetting 'deepened international interdependence'.^{xxxix} This implies that a development in any corner of the world can have far-reaching consequences elsewhere and neighbourhoods may become strange and distant.

Sociologist Roland Robertson considers globalisation as "both the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole."^{xxx} The process of globalisation may be accompanied by the encounter of new ideas, fusion of culture and ideas and even hybridisation of cultures and practices. Sociologist Martin Albrow defines globalisation as the "diffusion of practices, values and technology that have an influence on people's lives worldwide."^{xxxi} Albrow and Robertson refer to 'both the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as whole'. This emphasizes the growing intensity of globalisation in the meaningful aspects of societal life including the world images. Both Albrow and Robertson include the political and cultural ideas like human rights, global environmental concern, cosmopolitanism which according to them, support a single humanity. In this sense globalisation for them entails 'an essential and inevitable part of the human condition'. For one thing, 'globalisation becomes a reference point to those who reject it and also to those who celebrate it'.^{xxxii} Globalisation suggests a single social field that implies a social world within which social interaction and social change of various kinds take place. Robertson rightly summarizes globalisation as process by which a single global field has come to exist with other components which includes particular localities indicating nations, communities and individuals.^{xxxiii}

Many people have noted the impact of globalisation on the economy without necessarily being sensitive to the new institutions and processes it inaugurates. Critics have seen in globalisation the emergence of a 'supra-national', borderless global economy with its own laws of movement, encapsulating and subordinating the various local economies in a worldwide division of labour, reducing national government into municipalities. The other softer version of the concept, considers globalisation less as an end-stage and more as a process in which the international economy integrates more closely, with domestic economic agents increasingly oriented to the global market rather than to particular national markets, even as the state continues to remain central to national economic advancement.^{xxxiv}

Globalisation necessarily leaves its mark on the political order and state structures that people have been attuned to including the 'welfare state'. It is a process in which a number of historical world societies are necessarily brought into interaction with one another.^{xxxv} It highlights the deepening as well as the broadening of political process, in the sense that local regional, national international and global events constantly interact. While the state and the political system are affected by it, there is also the internationalization of the state and the political processes that simultaneously take place. David Held has argued that, globalisation is distinctively new international order involving the emergence of a global economic system that extends beyond the control of single state (even of dominant states). He argues that globalisation does not lead to 'the end of state' but in some fundamental respect, it leads to a more 'activist state'.^{xxxvi}

In a way, globalisation is a unique experience. It is an action at a distance; it makes actions of social agents in one place to have significant consequences for distant others. Through time-space compression, an instantaneous electronic communication takes away the constraints of distance and time on social organization and interaction. It has accelerated interdependence among national economies and societies and thereby leads to the shrinking of the world. It has made borders and geographical barriers fragile to socio-economic interaction. Globalisation undoubtedly has provided a fillip to global integration; it initiates the reordering of interregional power relations, crafts a consciousness of the global condition and leads to interregional connectedness.^{xxxvii}

The interplay between the medium and the message makes some to view globalisation not as reality but a concept of reality. At the same time others argue that globalisation is a glaring reality that has impact on almost every aspect of human life.

Debates on globalisation, suggest that it is a process far from uniform. It is deeply divided, incomplete, discontinuous, contingent, and in many ways a puzzling and contradictory process.^{xxxviii} The direction in which it is heading is uncertain.^{xxxix} All of it, however, makes it a distinct phase of collective human predicament having its bearing on the way we have organized our collective life. Therefore, its bearing on the welfare state too is undeniable.

IMPACT OF GLOBALISATION ON WELFARE

There is a mixed response to the impact of globalisation on the concerns of welfare. It is widely accepted today that globalisation has raised economic growth, spread technology, and has contributed to better living standards, in both developing and developed countries. A question is often asked as to whether the rapid growth of cross-border economic, social, technological, and cultural exchange is 'civilising, destructive or feeble'?^{xi} Further it is important to ask the questions, whom does it benefit and how does it affect structures and institutions extending support to the disadvantaged.

It is assumed that more integrated economies tend to grow faster and the integration process of economies under globalisation benefits poverty reduction. Free flow of capital across the border leads to enormous benefits to the countries involved, in gaining better opportunity of investment and employment, effective use of savings, higher economic growth, better administration etc.

At the same time, the adverse impact on concerns of poverty, equality and social justice have been considered alarming under globalisation. Globalisation encourages a mechanism of the preponderance of the market over state and as such the erosion of local cultures and prepares the ground for growing economic inequalities. Critics frequently allege that globalisation 'increases unemployment' 'worsens working conditions', for those people who retain waged jobs, and thereby threatens social cohesion.^{xii} Though it is not possible to clarify such an allegation

given the economic and historical nature of trans-border production, it is possible to draw evidence that contemporary globalisation is linked to growing income inequalities and greater job insecurity.^{xlii}

It has been argued that globalisation reflects the 'political project of an identifiable constellation of dominant social forces' and it is 'politically problematic and contestable'.^{xliii} With its free market philosophy globalisation is concerned with increasing global wealth without having concern for its just and equitable distribution and has an adverse effect on the welfare state. Critics say that the New Right neo-liberal economic policies attack the post-liberal welfare policies pushing the affected more and more to the margins. Those who view globalisation as significant for political economy ignore its implications for welfare states and as such, the welfare functions and activities of the states are ignored altogether.^{xliv}

Globalisation inherently supports asymmetry as equality in the international market is impossible to build as it requires equal competence. The foreign capital often displaces domestic capital. What is beneficial to the global capitalist need not prove good to the peasant, worker, trader and small entrepreneur. Moreover, the marginalized countries lack capital and as such integration does not benefit them.

There is a question mark today on welfare activities that are the core of human development. In this context it would be good to review the debate of welfare state vis-à-vis advocacy of rights, as its principal rationale is equality and justice for the marginalized sections. The welfare state has been the public policy in a large part of the world after World War II. The contentious character of globalisation towards welfare state is visible when it comes to public policy. The collapse of the socialist alternative and the changing character of the nation state both have worked with serious consequences on the concept of welfare state especially in developing countries. The debate on the viability of welfare state under conditions of Globalisation hence requires to be placed significant.

Note:

ⁱ See, John Clarke, "Globalisation and Welfare States: Some Unsettling Thoughts", in Robert Sykes, Bruno Palier and Pauline M. Prior, eds., *Globalisation and European Welfare States: Challenges and Change*, New York: Palgrave, 2001, p.25.

ⁱⁱ See, Matthias Finger, "People's Perspectives on Globalisation", *Development*, vol. 40, no.2, June 1997, pp.15-16.

ⁱⁱⁱ See, World Bank, A World Bank Policy Research Report -*Globalisation, Growth, and Poverty: Building an Inclusive World Economy*, 2001, New York: Oxford University Press, 2002, p.3.

^{iv} It is argued that despite reducing cost of transport, the concerned countries followed increased trade barriers due to "beggar-thy- neighbour policy". As a result, trade did not revive. Ibid., p.24.

^v Cited in, Finger, *op. cit.*, p.16.

^{vi} See, Mauro F. Guillen, "Is Globalisation Civilizing, Destructive or Feeble?: A Critique of Five Key Debates in the Social-Science Literature", *Annual Review of Sociology*, vol. 27, 2001, p.3.

^{vii} See, Robert Gilpin, *The Political Economy of International Relations*, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1987, pp.341-344.

^{viii} Quoted from, Graham Gerard Ong, "Globalisation and Its Impact on UN Structural Reform", [http://www.spp.net/archive/papers/4\(1\)ong.htm](http://www.spp.net/archive/papers/4(1)ong.htm).

^{ix} Such a distinction is made by Jan Aart Scholte. See, Jan Aart Scholte, *Globalisation: A Critical Introduction*, London: Macmillan Press, 2000, p. 62.

^x See, Paul Hirst and David Held, 2002, "Globalisation: the Argument of Our Time", <http://www\Welfare state\openDemocracy.htm>.

^{xi} See, Jan Art Scholte, *Globalisation: A Critical Introduction*, London: Macmillan Press, 2000, p. 75.

^{xii} See, Peter Evans, "The Eclipse of the State? Reflections on Stateness in an Era of Globalisation", *World Politics*, vol. 50, no. X, 1997, pp. 62-87.

^{xiii} Citing an example in this context Jan Aart Scholte says, "...less than 5 per cent of foreign exchange transactions in the 1990s is directly connected to trade between countries in 'real goods'. " See, Jan Aart Scholte, "Global Capitalism and the State", *International Affairs*, vol. 73, 1997, p.436.

^{xiv} See, M. Waters, *Globalisation*, New York: Routledge, 1995, p.2. Also see, Scholte, *op. cit.*, 2000, p. 74.

^{xv} See, Scholte, *op. cit.*, 1997, pp. 431-32.

^{xvi} See, David Held and Anthony McGrew, eds., *The Global Transformations Reader: An Introduction to the Globalisation Debate*, Cambridge: Polity Press, 2000, p.1.

^{xvii} See, Anthony Giddens, *Third Way: The Renewal of Social Democracy*, Cambridge: Polity Press, 1998, p. 28.

^{xviii} See, Scholte, *op. cit.*, 2000, p.65.

^{xix} See, Thomas Friedman, *Lexus and the Olive Tree*, New York: Farrar Straus and Giroux, 1999, p.50.

^{xx} See, Robert J. Holton, *Globalisation and Nation-State*, London: Macmillan Press, 1998, p.10.

^{xxi} See, Robert O. Keohane and Joseph S. Nye Jr., "Globalisation: What's New? What's Not? (And So What?)", *Foreign Policy*, 2000, p.104.

^{xxii} See, David Held, Anthony G. McGrew, D. Goldblatt and J. Perraton, *Global Transformations*, Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1999, p.16.

^{xxiii} See, Scholte, *op. cit.*, 1997, p. 430.

^{xxiv} Ibid.

^{xxv} See, Anthony Giddens, *The Consequences of Modernity*, Stanford: Stanford University, 1990, p.64. Also see, Anthony Giddens, *Beyond Left and Right: The Future of Radical Politics*, Oxford: Polity Press, 1994, p.4.

^{xxvi} See, Giddens, *op. cit.*, 1990, p.64.

^{xxvii} See, Guillen, *op. cit.*, 2001, p.3.

^{xxviii} Quoted from, Gilpin, *op. cit.*, 1987, p.389.

^{xxix} See, Scholte, *op. cit.*, 1997, p. 430.

^{xxx} Quoted from, Roland Robertson, *Globalisation: Social Theory and Global Culture*, London: Sage Publications, 1992, p.8.

^{xxxi} Quoted from, Martin Albrow, *The Global Age*, Stanford: Stanford University, 1997, p.88.

^{xxxii} See, Holton, *op. cit.*, p.16.

^{xxxiii} Ibid., pp.16-17.

^{xxxiv} See, Paul Hirst and Grahame Thompson, *Globalisation in Question: The International Economy and the Possibilities of Governance*, Cambridge: Polity Press, 1996, pp. 7-16.

^{xxxv} See, Modelski George, "Globalisation", in David Held and Anthony McGrew, eds., *op. cit.*, 2000, p. 55.

^{xxxvi} See, David Held, "Regulating Globalisation? The Reinvention of Politics", in Anthony Giddens, ed., *The Global Third Wave*, Cambridge: Polity Press, 2001, p. 395.

^{xxxvii} See, Held, et al., *op. cit.*, 1999, pp. 429-431.

^{xxxviii} *Ibid.*, 431.

^{xxxix} Cited in, Nicola Yeates, *Globalisation & Social Policy*. New Delhi: Sage Publications, 2001, p. 4.

^{xl} See, Albert O. Hirschman, "Rival Interpretations of Market Society: Civilizing, Destructive, or Feeble?", *Journal of Economic Literature*, vol. 20, pp. 1463-1484.

^{xli} See, Scholte, *op. cit.*, 1997, p. 435.

^{xlii} *Ibid.*, p.436.

^{xliii} Cited in, Atul Bharadwaj, "Understanding the Globalisation Mind Game", *Strategic Analysis* vol.27, n0.3, July-September, p.310.

^{xliv} See, Nicola Yeates, *Globalisation & Social Policy*, London: Sage Publications, 2001, p.1.

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WOMEN EMPLOYMENT SCENARIO IN INDIA: ISSUES OF FEMINISATION AND MARGINALISATION

- Norbert Lobo

Abstract

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), women's participation in labour markets has increased considerably along with the expansion of service sector work. It has been argued that employers prefer young, single women, with a good education. With the rapid casualisation and informalisation of the job market there has been a common assumption of feminisation of labour in India in the post liberalisation period. The global expansion of trade, capital flows, and technology has resulted in increased formal and informal market opportunities for women, which is referred to as the feminisation of labour. The trend in the feminisation of labour has been accompanied by a shift in employment from manufacturing to services in developed countries, and from agriculture to manufacturing and services in developing countries.

However contradictory conclusions are available regarding the pattern, process and nature of feminisation of labour in India. The quinquennial employment surveys by the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) show that work participation rates among women have been fluctuating. The ILO (International Labour Organisation) has shown that women are predominantly based at the lower paid and less skilled employment levels, with few occupying positions in management even within the service industry, particularly banking, finance, and insurance. This indicates the problems women are facing in the labour market in India.

In this background an attempt has been made in this paper to analyse the nature, pattern and trends in feminisation of labour in India. Secondary data published by Census Registrar, NSSO and data published by individual scholars is used to study the nature of feminisation of labour in India.

Key words: *Informalisation, Casualisation, Work Participation Rates among Women, Trends in Feminisation, Unpaid Workers.*

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BACKGROUND

The era of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation has been associated with far-reaching changes in the structure of employment, including pressures for increased flexibility, incidents of "jobless growth," expanding opportunities for the highly skilled, but vanishing opportunities for the less skilled. It has been empirically (Shah et al 1994; Mitra 2006, Kanzi and Sen 2011,) argued that the policies of liberalisation of trade, which stressed the increasing role of export-led growth and market oriented growth as strategies of choice for development, brought about a change in the gender composition of the industrial workforce in India to include more women. The deregulation of labour markets, wage discrimination, pre-existing socioeconomic inequalities with lower reservation wages for women, fragmentation of production processes, dominance of service sector and emergence of new areas of export specialisation and growth of various sunrise industries in garments and electronics, have all generated an increased demand for low-paid, flexible female labour. Consequently informalisation and feminisation of labour have emerged as two dominant features of post liberalisation labour market in India.

An analysis of literature and data on the employment and unemployment scenario in the post 1991 period reveals contradictory conclusions regarding the pattern, process and nature of feminisation of labour in India. In the light of this an attempt is made to analyse the nature, pattern and trends in women employment in India. Secondary data published by NSSO, Census Registrar and findings of the individual scholars have been used to study the nature of employment scenario of women in India.

THE CONCEPT OF FEMINISATION OF LABOUR

Feminisation of labor is defined typically as an increasing female share of paid work, and it has most often been measured using data on labour force participation. The "feminisation of labour" framework was initially outlined by Standing (1989, 1999) who notes that the decade of the 1980s is both the decade of 'labour deregularisation' as well as a period marked by a "renewed surge of feminisation of labour activity". This is the period in which "labour and social

rights became perceived increasingly as costs and rigidities" and the growth of very low wage employment. Until the late 70s/ 80s, factory production was based on 'Fordism' principles of economies of scale in mass production and the assembly line. Production has since been tending towards segmentation to outsourced suppliers, especially of labour intensive components in emerging economies, having the political and legal stability in place for enterprise as well as low-cost surplus labour. Post-Fordist or flexible production is based on decentralised small units of production, with subcontracting arrangements, minimum inventories similar to the Japanese 'just in time' system, with flexible labour deployed over a variety of production tasks. The labour force is used only when required which means workers do not have permanent status, are paid low wages and deprived of statutory rights. (Munch, 2002).

Standing (1999 p. 583) uses the term 'feminisation of labour' in two ways. Firstly, it is used to refer to the rapid and substantial increase in the proportion of women in paid work over the last two decades. Secondly, the term is used to describe the flexibilisation of labour for women and men, a fallout of the changing nature of employment where irregular conditions once thought to be the hallmark of women's 'secondary' employment have become widespread for both sexes. Informal activities, subcontracting, part-time work and home-based work have proliferated while rates of unionisation have declined.

Chhachhi, and Renee (1996) use the feminisation of the labour force to refer to one or all of the following.

- (1) Increase in the female participation rate relative to men;
- (2) The substitution of men by women who take over jobs traditionally handled by men;
- (3) The increase in women's involvement in 'invisible' work, i.e, family labour and home working; and
- (4) The changing character of industrial work on the basis of new technology and managerial strategies whereby work is decentralised, low paid, irregular, with part time or temporary labour contracts, i e, increasingly like 'women's work' (but which is not necessarily done by women).

Applying this argument to India, Sudha and L K Deshpande (1992) state that the tendency towards feminisation of the workforce has been observed in official data at national level as well as in the city of Mumbai. They argue that feminisation through flexible labour practices in urban labour markets over the 80s increased employment opportunities for women. They note that employers in Bombay responded to liberalisation by employing women or retrenching fewer women than men. In this context, they argue that the employment for women will increase faster than that of men, since women constitute a cheap and docile labour force. Sudha Deshpande (1993) goes further to say that "to the extent that it [NEP] is likely to increase the demand for labour in general and that for female labour faster than in the past; offer wider choice of occupation to women entering the labour market in the near future; and reduce the extent of poverty among families of these working women, the change to NEP should be regarded as a positive change". Many empirical studies undertaken in different country contexts also suggest the occurrence of such a phenomenon for at least for short periods, though the rates of change vary widely across countries and sectors (Mehra, and Sarah Gammage, 1999; Cerruti, 2000; Ozler, 2000; Valodia, 2001).

TRENDS IN WORKER POPULATION RATIO (WPR)

WPR defined as the number of persons /person days employed per 1000 persons/person-days. The work force, considering both the usual principal status and the subsidiary status, includes the persons who (a) either worked for a relatively long part of the 365 days preceding the date of survey and (b) also those persons from among the remaining population who had worked at least for 30 days during the reference period of 365 days preceding the date of survey. (MOSPI, 2011). Women's participation in employment has always been much low and has been on the diminishing trend. Women's worker participation rate fell from 29.6 percent in 1983 to 20.6 percent in 1993-94 to 22.8 percent in 2009-10 and then even lower to 21.5 percent in 2011-12. Similar trends have been observed both in the rural as well as urban areas. For instance in rural areas it declined sharply from 34 percent in 1983 to 27. 8 percent in 2011-12. The rural-urban disaggregation shows that the rates have fluctuated both in rural and urban areas almost at the same manner for women while for men the increase

is continuous but insignificant. Further, the results of the NSS 66th round survey (2009-10) on employment and unemployment show a striking decline in the women workforce participation rates in rural and urban areas as compared to 2004-05. Significantly, in the recently published 68th round NSSO survey (2011-12) a steeper decline is witnessed among rural females as is evident from the workers' population ratio (WPR) in that segment, declining from 26.1 per cent to 24.8 per cent, along with the number actually employed falling 2.4 per cent to 103 million from 106 million. Pronab Sen, Chairman of National Statistical Commission attributes this to the shifting of rural women towards self-help groups and self-employment, which is according to him is clear from the percentage of women taking up self-employment rising to 59 per cent in 2011-12 from 56 per cent in 2009-10. (The Hindu, June 24, 2013).

**Table 1: Worker Population Ratio:
NSSO Data - Usual Principal & Subsidiary Status (UPSS)**

Rounds / Year	Rural		Urban		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
38th - 1983	54.7	34.0	51.2	15.1	53.8	29.6
43rd -1987-88	53.9	32.3	50.6	15.2	53.1	28.1
50th - 1993-94	55.3	32.8	52.0	15.4	53.2	20.6
55th-1999-00	53.1	29.9	51.8	13.9	52.0	20.3
61st - 2004-05	54.2	32.7	54.9	16.6	53.6	21.5
64th - 2007-08	54.8	28.9	55.4	13.8	55.1	21.4
66th - 2009-10	54.7	26.1	54.3	13.8	54.6	22.8
68th - 2011-12	54.3	24.8	54.6	14.7	54.4	21.9

Source: Various NSSO Reports

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE (LFPR)

Labour-force participation rate (LFPR) is defined as the proportion of persons / person days in the labour-force to the total persons / person-days. The NSSO data reiterates the disturbing trend about the diminishing presence of women in the workforce. Women's labour force participation rate fell from 29.4 percent in

2004-05 to 23.3 percent in 2009-10 and then even lower to 22.5 percent in 2011-12. It is estimated that between the 2009-10 and 2011-12 the number of women working in rural areas has declined from 81.2 million to 72.1 million indicating that 9.1 million jobs were lost by rural women during this period. Commenting on the state of women's employment Neetha opines that "declining women's employment in rural areas is a long term trend in India despite high economic growth". (TOI July14, 2013) In the urban area it declined from 17.8 percent in 2004-05 to 14.6 percent in 2009-10. However the data for 2011-12 shows an increase of 0.9 percent compared to 2009-10. In the unemployed male category, the percentage rose from 2.2 to 3.4, while among women, the percentage was higher at 3.7 in 2012 as against 3.3 in 2010.

Table:2 : LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE (LFPR) usual status (ps + ss)

Year	Total		Rural		Urban		Total		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban
50th	-	-	56.1	33.1	54.2	16.4	-	-	-
55th	-	-	54.0	30.2	54.2	14.7	-	42.3	35.4
61st	55.9	29.4	55.5	33.3	57.0	17.8	43.0	44.6	38.2
66th	55.7	23.3	55.6	26.5	55.9	14.6	40.0	41.4	36.2
68th	55.6	22.5	55.3	25.3	56.3	15.5	39.5	40.6	36.7

Source: Various Census Reports

CASUALISATION OF FEMALE EMPLOYMENT

The data on the nature of employment indicates that among the female workers in the rural areas, around 56.0 percent are engaged in self-employment, 35.0 percent as casual workers and only 9.0 percent in regular wage employment. In the urban areas, the share of self-employment turns out to be 42.0 percent and

that of casual employment 15.0 percent. Between the 64th and 66th rounds, the share of self-employment is on the decline, which is accompanied by a rise in casualisation both in the rural and urban areas. In the rural areas even the share of regular employees declined marginally, however, there is a rise in the relative size of female workforce engaged in regular wage employment in the urban areas. The 68th round data shows that the proportion of regular employment has increased positively both in rural and urban areas.

Table 3: Female Workers by Type of Activity - UPSS

Rounds / Year	Rural			Urban		
	Self Employed	Regular Employees	Casual Labour	Self Employed	Regular Employees	Casual Labour
38th - 1983	61.9	2.8	35.3	45.8	25.8	28.4
43rd -1987-88	60.8	3.7	35.5	47.1	27.5	25.4
50th - 1993-94	58.6	2.7	38.7	44.8	29.2	26.1
55th-1999-00	57.3	3.1	39.6	45.3	33.3	21.4
61st - 2004-05	63.7	3.7	32.6	47.7	35.6	16.7
64th - 2007-08	58.3	4.1	37.6	42.3	37.9	19.9
66th - 2009-10	56.0	4.0	40.0	41.0	39.0	20.0
68th - 2011-12	56.0	9.0	35.0	42.0	43.0	15.0

Source: Various NSSO Reports

In rural areas self employment always predominated over wage employment because of the dominance of peasant agriculture. It is evident that the extent of casualisation of female labour increased during 90's but declined between 1999 -00 to 2004-05. However, since then the index of casualisation of female labour both in rural and urban areas shows a rise. The level of the incidence of casualisation is much higher in the rural areas than in the urban areas. A mere 9 percent of the female labour force is with regular jobs. More than half of the total female labour force is either self -employed or casually employed in the

urban areas, while in rural areas majority of them are engaged in non-regular employment. Thus, the female casualisation of labour has increased in the post reform period.

THE GROWING PREDOMINANCE OF FEMALE UNPAID WORKERS

In the NSSO survey's the self employed persons are further categorised into three groups: own account workers, employers and helpers in household enterprise. Of the total self employed women in 2004-05, 77 per cent of the rural self employed women and 45 per cent of the urban were unpaid family helpers. These unpaid family helpers are mostly family members who keep themselves engaged in their household enterprises as assistants working full or part time, and do not receive any regular salary or wages in return for the work performed. These workers could be engaged in either agricultural holding or family enterprises on an unpaid basis to produce products that are marketed or in the production of goods for household own consumption; including production of crops and livestock, basic food processing, gathering firewood and fetching water, making tools, utensil and clothes, constructing housing. Between the period 1993-94 and 2004-05 the proportion of women with unpaid family work as principal status reporting subsidiary economic activity has increased from 73.28 percent to 76.01 percent. Based on this trend, though one could argue in terms of increased opportunities for women, also mean increased pressure on women.

Table 4: Paid and unpaid work in self employment rural areas - UPSS

Category of self employed	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05
Own account worker	25.51	25.44	23.19
Employer	1.22	0.73	0.8
unpaid family worker	73.28	73.83	76.01

Source: Unit data, Employment and Unemployment Rounds, NSSO

The situation in relation to unpaid work is not different in urban areas. The share of unpaid women in total self employed increased from 46.4 per cent in 1993- 94 to 48.8 per cent in 2004-05. The decline in own account workers is quite

striking. It declined from 51.61 percent in 1993-94 to 49.73 percent. This trend is a reflection of the stagnation in the urban economy and declining opportunities for women.

Table 5: Paid and unpaid work in self employment urban areas - UPSS

Category of self employed	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05
Own account worker	51.61	52.69	49.73
Employer	1.97	1.34	1.56
unpaid family worker	46.42	45.97	48.71

Source: Unit data, Employment and Unemployment Rounds, NSSO

There is a clear trend towards decline in the primary sector's shares of both male and female workers in rural and urban areas. A longstanding feature of women's employment in the country has been the persistent and substantially high concentration of women in agriculture. This is reflective of the fact that for most women, urbanisation and the pattern of industrial development did not mean expanding opportunities for employment. The trend seems to suggest a highly regressive tendency with women getting concentrated in the lower rungs of the labour market.

BROAD SECTORAL DISTRIBUTION AND SHARES OF FEMALE WORKFORCE

A higher proportion of females were engaged in informal employment vis-à-vis male workers. Informal employment accounted for 95 percent of the total female workforce. Female Informal employment constituted 98 percent of total jobs in rural areas, compared to 95 percent of male informal employment. 79 percent of total jobs in urban India were of an informal nature, with 82 percent of total female workers engaged in informal employment compared to 78 percent among urban male workers. Evidence suggests that in general the paid work performed by women has become less permanent and more casual or part-time

in nature. Interestingly the latest 68th round survey points out a shift in women employment with a somewhat significant increase in the regular employment.

Table 6a: Percentage share of the three broad industrial sectors in total workforce in usual status (ps+ss)

Sector	RURAL									
	Male					Female				
	50th	55th	61st	66th	68th	50th	55th	61st	66th	68th
Agr.	74	71	67	63	59	86	85	83	79	75
Sec.	11	13	16	18	22	8	9	10	13	17
Ter.	15	16	18	19	19	6	6	7	8	8

Note: 50th-1993-94; 55th-1999-00; 61st-2004-05; 66th-2009-10; 68th -2011-12
Agr = Agriculture: Agriculture, hunting and forestry, fishing
Sec = Secondary: Mining & quarrying , manufacturing , electricity, gas & water supply, construction
Ter = Tertiary: Trade, hotel & restaurant+ transport storage & communication + other services.

Source: Various NSSO

Table 6b: Percentage share of the three broad industrial sectors in total workforce in usual status (ps+ss)

Sector	URBAN									
	Male					Female				
	50th	55th	61st	66th	68th	50th	55th	61st	66th	68th
Agr.	9	7	6	6	6	25	18	18	14	11
Sec.	33	33	34	35	35	29	29	32	33	34
Ter.	58	61	60	59	59	46	53	50	53	55

Note: 50th - 1993-94 ; 55th - 1999-00 ; 61st - 2004-05 ; 66th - 2009-10; 68th -2011-12

• Table 6a and 6b Source: Various NSSO

It is evident that agriculture sector accounts for about 75 percent of total female employment in rural areas and about 11 percent of women employment in urban areas in 2011-12. Women's increased participation in agricultural labouring in rural areas does not reflect upward mobility but is merely the result of an increase in pauperisation of smallholders and artisans. The entry of a large number of women into the labour market in rural areas is mainly an outcome of desperation. As landholdings became smaller and demand for modern agricultural inputs increased, women had to work for wages to supplement farm incomes. The drastic increase in the number of female subsidiary workers in certain sectors

Table 7: Female Workers by Type of Activity

Female Workers by Type of Activity	Rural				Urban			
	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	2009-10	1993-94	1999-00	2004-05	2009-10
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	77.4	74.9	72.4	79.3	24.7	17.6	18.2	13.9
Mining & quarrying	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.3
Mfrg & repair services	9.9	10.1	11.7	7.5	27.7	24.0	28.2	27.9
Electricity, gas and water	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4
Construction	1.4	1.7	1.9	5.2	4.1	4.8	3.8	4.7
Trade, hotels and restaurants	3.2	4.3	4.1	2.8	10.1	16.9	12.2	12.1
Transport, storage & communication	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	1.3	1.8	1.4	1.4
Finance, insurance, real estate & business services	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.2	2.0	2.5	3.2	4.7
Community, social & personal services	7.0	7.9	8.6	4.4	29.3	31.7	32.7	34.6

Source: Various NSSO Reports

alongside betterment in the participation rates by all status suggests the possibility of many women being unable to find employment throughout the year. About 17 per cent of total female employment in rural areas and 34 per cent in urban areas is in the secondary sector. Service sector accounts 8 per cent of total female employment in rural areas and about 55 percent in urban areas. While in rural areas, there has been an increase in the share of service sector in the urban areas there has been fluctuations in the last decade from 53 to 50 and to 53 per cent during 55th, 61st and 66th rounds.

In terms of various job wise categories 80 percent of women have depended on primary activities while two-thirds of women in urban area engaged themselves in community, social and personal services like administration, education, health and other services. The data shows substantial increase in the number of female workers in this category. At the overall level, the trends in women's employment during the last two decades are somewhat puzzling. In the rural areas more and more women are found moving to agriculture while in urban areas one can notice that women are found leaving from one sector to the other. However, these trends point to a desperate situation where women are trying out various possibilities. This suggests that female employment is largely driven by survival options and thus is far from being a positive labour market outcome. These trends are thus indicative of growing labour market uncertainty and volatility rather than steady improvement in female employment.

CONCLUSION

Various research findings as well as reports in various dailies and news magazines suggest that despite contributing heavily to family provisioning, women own very little family land and other assets. Moreover, they have a negligible influence on household decisions which results in a weak claim over resources and incomes. Furthermore, even the incomes they control are impinged upon in various ways. This 'gender based resource divide' impinges on women's status severely. Female labourers without land or other comparable assets were compelled to accept highly oppressive working conditions. Thus, far from expanding independent opportunities for women in the labour market, what we have witnessed in the NSSO data is a socially regressive concentration of women workers in dependent forms of labour without independent incomes. The fluctuating Female Workforce Participation Rate and dominance of unpaid family helpers are

indicative of marginalisation of women employment. Further the data reveals that women now are in an increasing number working on the land they are dwelling on, but they rarely possess any ownership, or management rights to this land. Similarly the percentage of women employed in the informal economy remains high; the number of Indian women engaged in formal, secure and recognised labour is still minimal. Only 14-15 percent of workers in the formal sector are women. Moreover, their number had hardly risen over the past years.

A review of various studies and reports further reveal that the feminisation of export-oriented employment has taken a particularly regressive form in India, whereby the marginal utilisation of women workers is at the lowest and poorest paid parts of the production chain, and such women are therefore effectively deprived of all the benefits that may accrue from outside employment except for the meager nominal returns that they receive from piece-rate work. A recent report by ITUC (2011) entitled *Living with Economic Insecurity: Women in Precarious Work* points out that the women are more vulnerable to effects of Global economic crisis due to their concentration in low-earning informal or vulnerable forms of employment. It is also reported in some of the articles that India's largest manufacturing units, such as the garment manufacturing in Tirupur in Tamil Nadu are largely dominated by men. Women, on the other hand are left with the remaining insecure and casual jobs in the informal economy.

An analysis of the data and findings of various individual scholars clearly reveals that the participation of women in economic activity in India in the post-liberalisation period has been fluctuating. Whenever there is an increase in female labour participation, much of this increase is recorded in agriculture and in the informal sector of the economy. This has resulted in a socially regressive concentration of women workers in dependent forms of labour without independent incomes. The paid employment or wage work among women has become increasingly more acute. Moreover the work participation rates among women have been fluctuating which is an indication of the problems women are facing in the labour market. Thus the women employment scenario in India far from being feminised, per se is indicative of marginalisation of women employment. The rising incidence of casualisation and informalisation of women employment as evident in the data certainly makes a case for feminisation of employment in agriculture, informal sector and casual labour rather than feminisation of labour.

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STATUS OF WOMEN HEALTH IN INDIA: AN OVERVIEW

- Priya S Shetty

Abstract

Woman is the pivot around which the family, the society and humanity itself revolves. National development depends greatly on the welfare of women who are the real architects of a nation. The lack of typical female advantage in life expectancy in India suggests that there are inherent problems with women's health. Women's access to health services is much less in comparison to men. The working environment for women, both at home and at work place, affects her physical conditions. The most common occupational hazard for women is over-work. As a general proposition, much of the performance under the critical indicators of Life Expectancy, maternal mortality rate, mental health, occupational health, nutritional standard etc of women in India correlates with economic wealth and levels of poverty.

Poor health has repercussions not only for women but also for their infants and other members of family. Considering these facts, the Government of India has framed policies to improve women health status in the country. The implementation of the Reproductive and Child Health Program was strengthened with its integration into the National Rural Health Mission. Women's health and her access to health services play an important role in a developing country like India. In this paper an attempt is made to find out the health status of women in India, the disparities across the states, governmental measures undertaken and the challenges ahead.

Keywords: *maternal health, maternal mortality, nutrition, National Rural Health Mission, Reproductive and Child Health.*

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“The best judge of whether or not a country is going to develop is how it treats its women. If it’s educating its girls, if women have equal rights, that country is going to move forward. But if women are oppressed and abused and illiterate, then they’re going to fall behind.” Barack Obama , (*Ladies’ Home Journal*, Sep. 2008.)

Woman is the pivot around which the family, the society and humanity itself revolves. National development depends greatly on the welfare of women who are the real architects of a nation. The programme for women welfare aims at raising the economic and social status of women, so that they can play an important role in building a strong and prosperous nation. Women’s health and her access to health services play an important role in a developing country like India.

OBJECTIVES

1. To provide an overview of women’s health status in India.
2. To study the factors that make women vulnerable.
3. To examine the state wide differences and the initiatives taken by the Government of India.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

The source of data for analysis used in this paper is secondary. It includes reports of the Health Departments and Surveys of the Government, information through print media like newspapers, articles related to the issue in magazines and journals, electronic media, though they are not exhaustible.

BACKGROUND FACTS

India is one of the few countries on the planet Earth, where women and men have nearly the same life expectancy at birth. The lack of typical female advantage in life expectancy in India suggests that there are inherent problems with women’s health. Indian women have high fertility rate particularly during childhood and in their reproductive years. The health of Indian women is intrinsically linked to

their status in society. Some studies suggest that women typically have very limited autonomy, living under the control of their fathers, then their husbands, and finally their sons (Chatterjee, 1990; Desai, 1994; Horowitz and Kishwar, 1985; The World Bank, 1996). All of these factors inflict a deleterious impact on the health status of Indian women.

Women's access to health services is much less in comparison to men. Decision making by ever married women on own health care is 62.2% in India (International Institute of Population Science, 2007; NFHS-3,2005-06) The underlying reason being their lower status in the family and lack of decision making power regarding ill health, expenditure on health care and non-availability of health care facilities prevent them from seeking medical help. Women lack time due to existing unequal division of labour and the socially sanctioned 'feminine' quality of 'sacrifice'. Besides, the perceptions of acceptable levels of discomfort for women and men lead to gender differences in willingness to accept that they are sick and seek care. (Sarojini, 2006). Women wait longer than men to seek medical care for illness. This is partly due to their unwillingness to disrupt household functioning unless they become incapacitated.

Poverty constitutes the underlying factor for poor health status among large masses in India. The era of globalisation marked by unemployment, depleting wages, rising health care costs, hazardous working and living environment has clear, gender specific impacts (Sarojini 2006). The patriarchal forces act in alliance with the forces of globalisation to accentuate gender related subordination. Desai (1994) asserts that parents' reluctance to educate daughters has its roots in the situation of poor health of Indian women. Hence, one needs to go beyond the biological determinants of health and understand that women's poor health status is inextricably linked to their social and economic inequalities, which restrict their access to and control over resources.

Relatively high mortality rates of women are a reflection of unequal gender relations, inequalities in resource distribution, lack of access and availability of drugs and health services in our country (NFHS-3). Because of the wide variation in culture, religion, and levels of development among Indian states and union

territories, it is not unusual startling that women's health also varies immensely from state to state (MFHW-2010).

A. MATERNAL MORTALITY RATE (MMR)

MMR is defined as the number of maternal deaths per 100,000 live births due to causes related to pregnancy or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, regardless of the site or duration of pregnancy. In India, the national average of MMR in the year 2005 is 254 per 100,000 live births which in itself is compared to the international scenario like Sweden(5), USA (11), Brazil (58) and even in neighbouring countries like China(45), Japan(06), Sri Lanka(58) and Thailand (48) (Source- India—Registrar General of India, Government of India (GoI) SRS 2008 and State of World Population' (2009)

Some of the States with high Maternal Mortality as per the RGI-SRS 2004-06:

States	MMR
Uttar Pradesh/Uttarakhand	440
Rajasthan	338
Madhya Pradesh/Chhattisgarh	335
Bihar/Jharkhand	312
Assam	480

Source: RGI - SRS 2004-2006

The major causes of maternal mortality have been identified as haemorrhage, toxemia (Hypertension during pregnancy), anaemia, obstructed labour, puerperal sepsis (infections after delivery) and unsafe abortion. Haemorrhage accounts for more than one- third of all deaths followed by puerperal sepsis and abortion. Anaemia which has been included in "other conditions" is a major contributory factor. Most of these deaths are preventable with good ante natal care, timely identification and referral of pregnant women with complications of pregnancy and timely provision of emergency obstetric

care. Moreover social factors like Illiteracy, low socio-economic conditions, poor access to health facilities are also contributing factors leading to higher maternal mortality.

Causes	Percentage
Haemorrhage	37
Sepsis	11
Hypertensive disorder	5
Abortion	8
Obstructed labour	5
Other Conditions	34

Source: Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, GoI, 2010

B. WOMEN AND MENTAL HEALTH

Estimates of mental health show that about 10 million people are suffering from serious mental disorders in India. Approximately 15% of all women suffer from mental illnesses against 11% of all men (Sarojini, 2006). Some important correlates of common disorders in women are: age, marital status, economic status, occupation, education, family roles, and dependency. (Bhargavi, 2001).

The social roots of women's mental health problems are overlooked owing to gender insensitivity. Women's mental healthcare has been given very low priority and, consequently, mental health services are in an abysmal state in India. Hospitals are poorly equipped to meet the needs of the mentally ill and often serve more of a custodial role than one of care and treatment. The infra-structural requirement in government hospitals for mental health treatment is poor. Living conditions are often abysmal, with low or non-existent standards of sanitation, and patients are often physically restrained with chains. The situation in the rural areas is worse, with erratic outpatient and outreach services and no inpatient services. There is also a lack of clinical psychiatrists, who can understand the socio-economic and cultural constraints and realities of the

women as the major causes of mental health problems and, thereby, handle them sensitively.

C. WOMEN AND OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH

To understand the occupational aspects of health, it is necessary to have a detailed examination of women's work in terms of the actual activity undertaken, the hours of work entailed, the remuneration, if any, and the effects of all these on their nutritional status and physical as well as mental health.

The working environment for women, both at home and at work place, affects her physical conditions. These include inadequate lighting, unsanitary conditions, and absence of any toilet facilities, poor airflow and ventilation, to name a few. Sexual exploitation, harassment at work place is regularly experienced by almost all sections of women in both formal and informal sectors.

A study in a rice-growing belt of coastal Maharashtra found that 40 per cent of all infant deaths occurred in the months of July to October. The study also found that a majority of births were either premature or stillbirths. The study attributed this to the squatting position that had to be assumed during July and August, the rice transplanting months. (Sarojini, 2006).

The most common occupational hazard for women is over-work. Over working have further grave implications on the health of women. In rural areas, where women work as agricultural labourers, they are exposed to pesticides and chemical fertilizers that can cause diseases of the liver and nervous system, cancer, blindness or deformities. The tasks performed by women are usually those that require them to be in one position for long periods of time, which can adversely affect their reproductive health. Sarojini asserts that in urban areas, where 80% of the women workforce is in unorganized sector like household industries, building construction and other petty trades, the hazardous work environment and absence of security and welfare mechanisms make women prone to serious health consequences, rape and other forms of sexual harassment.

D. WOMEN HEALTH AND POLLUTION

The impact of pollution and industrial wastes on health is considerable. Venkateswaran (1995) asserts that the high incidence of malnutrition present amongst women and their low metabolism and other health problems affect their capacity to deal with chemical stress. The smoke from household biomass (made up of wood, dung and crop residues) stoves within a three-hour period is equivalent to smoking 20 packs of cigarettes.

For women who spend at least three hours per day cooking, often in a poorly ventilated area, the impact includes eye problems, respiratory problems, chronic bronchitis and lung cancer. One study quoted by WHO in 1991 found that pregnant women cooking over open biomass stoves had almost a 50 percent higher chance of stillbirth.

Anaemia makes a person more susceptible to carbon monoxide toxicity, which is one of the main pollutants in the biomass smoke. Given the number of Indian women who are anaemic - 25 to 30 percent in the reproductive age group and almost 50 percent in the third trimester - this adds to their vulnerability to carbon monoxide toxicity. Additionally, with an increasing population, diseases caused by waste disposal, such as hookworm, are rampant. People who work barefooted are particularly susceptible, and it has been found that hookworm is directly responsible for the high percentage of anaemia among rural women (Sarojini 2006)

E. WOMEN AND COMMUNICABLE DISEASES

In addition to the poor nutritional status, heavy work burden and maternal and prenatal ill-health, communicable diseases including malaria, tuberculosis, dengue, leprosy, etc. contribute significantly to the heavy burden of disease faced by women. Communicable diseases remain the most common cause of death in India. Despite the arsenal of diagnostics, drugs and vaccines that have been developed during this century, medical researchers and practitioners continue to struggle against an ever-growing number of emerging infectious diseases such as HIV and hepatitis etc. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15-24 years is 0.48% in 2008 (*Source: HIV Sentinel Surveillance, NACO, Ministry of*

Health and Family Welfare).

Structural inequalities of gender and economic resources enhance the risk of communicable diseases among the poor. Although both men and women are equally exposed to communicable diseases, there is concrete evidence to show that women suffer far more than men in terms of decision making and access to treatment and services. Decision making by ever married women on own health care in India is 62.2% (NFHS-3, 2005-06).

If one considers that women constitute approximately 70% of the poor, then the interaction between poverty and gender may represent the most important risk factor to be addressed in efforts to arrest communicable diseases (Sarojini, 2006) There exist crucial linkages of communicable diseases- particularly TB and malaria, perhaps they are so common – with issues related poverty, the environmental degradation and the change of lifestyles and food habits, etc.

F. WOMEN HEALTH AND NUTRITION

As per National Family Health Survey-3, more than one third (36%) of women aged 15-49 years have a body mass index (BMI) below 18.5%, which indicates chronic energy deficiency including 16% who are moderately to severely thin. The proportion of married women who are more thin (33%) has declined slightly from 36%. The states with the highest proportion of undernourished women are as under

State	Percentage
Bihar	45
Chhattisgarh	43
Madhya Pradesh	4
Orissa	41

Source: National Family Health Survey-III, 2005-06

The major micronutrient deficiency: Iron, Vitamin A and iodine deficiencies

among Indian women are major public health problems. Vitamin A deficiency is a well known cause of morbidity and mortality among young children and pregnant women. Iron deficiency anaemia (IDA) is highest among children, adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women. It leads to high risk of low birth weight or premature delivery. The IDA is 55% among women and 24% among men in India (NFHS-3), Iodine deficiency during pregnancy leads to low birth weight, increases still births, spontaneous abortion and congenital abnormalities. A report of the Working Group on Nutrition for the 12th Five Year Plan 2012-2017 states that there is an emerging concern of over-nutrition which is 15% among women and 12% among men. Both under and over nutrition is higher in women than in men.

REASONS FOR VARIATIONS ACROSS STATES

As a general proposition, much of the performance under the critical indicators of Life Expectancy, MMR, mental health, occupational health, nutritional standard etc of women in India correlates with economic wealth and levels of poverty. Medical attention to mothers at the time of deliveries varies widely across States; from as low as 20% in Jharkhand to almost 100% in Kerala (MHFW 2010).

The reasons for such adverse health indicators may relate to high levels of malnutrition and anaemia, and the lack of access to essential health services. Not surprisingly, the states which are the weakest in terms of life expectancy, maternal and infant mortality and total fertility areas, are also the lowest in terms of economic wealth and highest in terms of poverty levels and total health expenditures.

GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

Poor health has repercussions not only for women but also for their infants and other members of the family. Women in poor health are more likely to give birth to low weight infants. They also are less likely to be capable of providing food and adequate care to their children. Finally, a woman's health affects the economic well-being of the households. As a result of poor health, women will be less productive in the labour force.

Considering these facts, the Government of India has framed policies to

improve women health status in the country. In 1951, the draft outlined for the First Five-year Plan, recognised 'Population Policy' as 'essential to planning' and 'family planning' as a step towards improving the health of the mothers and children. The Mother and Child Health (MCH), nutrition and immunisation programmes were brought under the umbrella of the Family Welfare Programme and was finally transformed into the Reproductive Child Health (RCH) programme. The International Conference on Population and Development in 1995 was the milestone which resulted in India shifting the unitary focus on sterilisation-centered family planning approach to a broad-based reproductive and child health policy framework. The National Rural Health Mission (NRHM 2005) – launched in 18 states that were identified as having poor health indicators – emphasises on comprehensive primary health care for the rural poor.

The implementation of the Reproductive and Child Health Program was strengthened with its integration into the National Rural Health Mission, where improved programme implementation and health systems development were seen as mutually reinforcing processes.

With the launch of the NRHM, the RCH programme efforts got a further boost with the two-legged policy of restructuring the rural health care system (the supply side) along with stimulating the demand side with the introduction of the innovative conditional cash transfer scheme for pregnant women to deliver in public health facilities. Popularly known as the Janani Suraksha Scheme (JSY), the conditional cash transfer scheme resulted in a dramatic increase in institutional delivery. Proportion of deliveries attended by skilled personnel is 52% in 2007-08 Expected Achievement in 2015 -62.45% (*Reports of NFHS-I, II and III; DLHS-III; Ministry of Health & Family Welfare, Govt. of India*).

The estimates of maternal mortality at State/UTs levels not being very robust, MMR can only be used as a rough indicator of the maternal health situation in any given country. Hence, other indicators of maternal health status like antenatal check-up, institutional delivery and delivery by trained personnel etc. are used for

this purpose. These reflect the status of the ongoing programme interventions as well as give a reflection on the situation of Maternal Health. All India figure for these indicators as per the District Level Household Survey (DLHS II and III) are tabled below:

	DLHS II (2002-04) (%)	DLHS III (2007-08) (%)
Any Antenatal Check-up	73.6	75.2
Three or more Antenatal check-up	50.4	49.8
Total Institutional Delivery	40.9	47.0
Safe Delivery	48	52.7
IFA tablets Consumed for 100 days	20.5	46.6
PNC within 2 weeks of delivery	N.A	49.7

Source : Ministry of Health and Family welfare 2011

From November, 2009 - January, 2010 a nation wide survey called the Coverage Evaluation Survey (CES) was conducted by the United Nations Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF) & ORG- Centre for Social Research. This study was monitored independently by the National Institute of Health and Family Welfare (NIHFW) and Population Resource Centre. From an estimated MMR level of 437 per 100,000 live births in 1990/1991, India is required to reduce the MMR to 109 per 100,000 live births by 2015.

In the five years since the launch of the NRHM in 2005, institutional deliveries have increased rapidly. To achieve the targets for 2012 and 2015, and in view of the recommendations made in the Mid Term Appraisal Report of the Planning Commission, a five-pronged strategy with the following key elements is an option:

- Improving quality of the facilities where institutional deliveries are being conducted.
- Focussing on 235 districts that account for a major proportion of the infant and maternal deaths and having a high TFR (Total fertility rate).

- Providing an additional package of incentives for those facilities notified by district authorities as remote and inaccessible.
- Strengthening supportive supervision in these 235 districts by placing trained public health nurses.
- Re-formulating the financing of these services based on results and performance.

The Janani Suraksha Yojana had 7.39 lakh beneficiaries till 2005-06 and about 1 crore beneficiaries in 2009-10 (MHFW, 2010). The report of the working group on NRHM has addressed gender related issues. The Twelfth plan would make a major effort to improve the range and effectiveness of programmes addressing adolescent girls. This would include adolescent health clinics and would include correcting malnutrition and anaemia in adolescent girls through a well focused effort reaching out to both in-school and out of school girls. Delaying the age of marriage and pushing back the age of the mother at the time of the first child birth are also very basic requirements for women's health and women's rights. Adequate spacing between children is also essential to safeguard health of women. Besides the access to counselling and contraceptives for enabling this is a women's right.

There shall be universal access to safe and quality abortion services. The same criterion of universal access as stated for emergency obstetric care applies. Making hospitals women friendly, in terms of amenities, ensuring privacy and maintaining dignity would be a mandatory part of every quality assurance system that is put in place. The Twelfth plan should lead every district to provide universal access to quality reproductive and child health care. This would include the availability of assured referral transport and a site for basic services within 30 minutes to an hour of every habitation and an emergency obstetric care centre within one hour of any basic obstetric facility.

Every village health sanitation committee would have at least one thirds, preferably 50% representation of women. Not only are all ASHAs (Accredited Social Health Activist) to be women, their immediate supervisors are also to be all women. ASHAs would have grievance redressal cell that is functional.

All women employees must be assured of the following as part of their terms of employment: maternity entitlements, privacy, freedom from harassment, a functional grievance redressal mechanism and equal opportunities for career advancement. There would be a greater emphasis on rolling out programmes related to the prevention and a health system response to gender based violence.

NEW INITIATIVES OF THE INDIAN GOVERNMENT

Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana (IGMSY): The Ministry of Women and Child Development introduced a new Scheme for pregnant and lactating women called Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana (IGMSY) - a Conditional Maternity Benefit Scheme from 2010-11, initially in 52 pilot districts across the country. IGMSY is a centrally Sponsored Scheme under which full grant-in-aid is provided to State Governments/Union Territories. A cash incentive of Rs.4000/- is provided under the Scheme to P & L(pregnant & lactating) women of 19 years of age and above, for the first two live births, subject to the woman fulfilling specific conditions relating to maternal child health and nutrition.

Maternal Death Review (MDR): To review every maternal death both at the health facilities and in the community through formation of MDR Committees at district level and a task force at State Level. The purpose of the review is to find gaps in the service delivery which leads to maternal deaths and take corrective action to improve the quality of service provision.

Maternal & Child Health (MCH) Centres: The Government of India is facilitating the States in identifying the delivery points /MCH centres (for basic and emergency obstetric management) for quality care during pregnancy, child birth and in post-natal period and commensurate family planning services, operationalization of these facilities along-with rational deployment of existing manpower, training of doctors and specialists in these identified MCH centres/ delivery points and providing funds for strengthening and up gradation of these centres.

Name Based Tracking of Pregnant Women: Government of India has taken a policy decision to track every pregnant woman by name for provision of timely ANC, institutional delivery, and PNC along-with immunization of the new- born.

Monitoring and Evaluation of Service Delivery: To monitor the performance and quality of the health being provided for maternal and child health under the NRHM/RCH II program, several mechanisms like performance statistics, surveys, community monitoring, quality assurance, field visits etc have been placed to strengthen the monitoring and evaluation of the key indicators and strategies under these programs.

Health Management Information System (HMIS): A web-based system has been established for flow of information of both physical and financial progress from District to State and there in up to the national level. Mode of e-governance is being used for quick data sharing and evaluation of key indicators.

CHALLENGES

Human resources for health: There is a huge shortfall in the number of human resources required and currently in position.

Governance issues: Tenure of key officers, including Principal Secretaries, State NRHM Mission Directors, Directorate officials at the state levels, Chief District Medical Officers and Block Medical Officers, is not assured. This affects programme ownership and continuity of interventions.

Decentralized Planning: Decentralized planning capacities are inadequate, including capacity to utilize locally available data for district planning. Facility surveys have been carried out by most states; however these have not been systematically analyzed by the states to map out the resources and gaps, and prepare facility-wise micro plans for operationalization/strengthening.

Village Health and Sanitation Committees: These need to be strengthened and activated for improved outcomes.

Monitoring & Supervision: Supervisory structures at the state and district level are weak. At many places, there is no mechanism for monitoring and supervision.

Public Private Partnership (PPP): PPP in RCH services are not up to the expected levels and needs to be scaled up.

CONCLUSION

The above analysis, though preliminary in nature, reveals that the status of women health in India is not very pleasing, knowing the fact that weaker women are responsible for the weaker population in general. The paper reveals that the social, economic, cultural difference is also one of the reasons for differences in the health status of women in different groups. Poverty constitutes the underlying factor for poor health status among women in India. Women who are subject to poverty have a very poor health indicator in India. The poorer segments of Indian society are disadvantaged with respect to women's health care facilities. It also reveals the fact that there are state wise differences in the status of women health in India. It clearly indicates the fact that the difference in development in different states is the reason for such disparities. The women themselves should change their mindset so that they are able to take decisions on their own regarding their health. Though the Government of India has taken several steps to uplift the health status of women in India, there is still a long way to go. To raise the status of women health in India, a focused approach integrating the development of social, cultural, economical and educational needs should emerge.

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- <http://www.globalhealthcheck.org>

CSR FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY FOCUS OF TOP LISTED COMPANIES OF BSE

- P. Paramashivaiah and Puttaswamy

Abstract

The attention on the impact of companies on the society, the increased expectations of consumers, employees, investors, and local communities on the role of businesses in society; guidelines, principles, and codes developed for corporate conduct; government's and non-governmental organizations' (NGOs) increased demand for transparency and accountability, have led to the emergence of an important concept in the on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) literature over last three decades. Companies integrate societal concerns into their business policies and operations; these societal concerns include environmental, economic, and social concerns. For companies to survive and grow, they have to undertake various socially desirable actions, and it is important that society recognises the compatibility of the behavior of companies with its own ethical values. The CSR concept is closely related to the concept of sustainable development which depends on three key components: environmental protection; economic growth; and social equity. With this background this paper attempts to study the corporate CSR initiatives. It aims at understanding and measuring CSR activities of companies. The sample companies selected are of top 100 companies listed in BSE INDIA, on the basis of net sales. Data consists of qualitative information in the annual reports. Through content analysis, data was analysed, high scoring companies on the set criteria were grouped. The Study recognises the best practicing companies and finds that there is a significant difference in the focus and magnitude of CSR activities.

Keywords: CSR, Listed Companies, Sustainability, Focus

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INTRODUCTION

Every business firm is a part of a society. It cannot exist in a vacuum. Enterprises exist in a milieu with which they are in a continuous and dynamic interaction. Every business firm has to work under some social environment that is known as a society and as a good corporate citizen one has to be responsible for the society in which their firms are operating. Helping the society by means of preserving the environment, minimising the wastage of natural resources, helping the needful, contributing to or running the educational institutions to provide education to low income group, promoting IT education and running NGOs for various social causes, recycling of products, counselling sessions awareness programmes regarding the different diseases are considered some of the examples for CSR practices. All these activities constitute corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices and initiatives which contribute significantly for societal well being and sustainable socio-economic growth and also protect our natural planet. The role of business in society is therefore being revisited and the triple bottom line concept has emerged essentially. Thus, profit is no longer the only concern for business enterprise, but the 3P of Planet, Public, and profit are relevant concerns for every business firm today. This is due to the fact that a corporate entity has its impact on all relevant stakeholders today. Realising this fact leading corporations started engaging in efforts for enhancing social well-being and environmental protection. In the earlier times these efforts had taken the form of corporate philanthropy. But today, a more proactive approach is being taken balancing economic efficiency and environmental protection.

CONCEPT OF CSR

CSR is the continuing commitment by business to behave fairly and responsibly and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as local community and society at large. It is a collection of policies, programs and practices adopted, followed and recognised by a company. CSR is based on certain values including respect for people, communities (in which the company operates) and the environment.

World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2001) states that CSR is the commitment of business to contribute towards sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families and the local communities. Welzel (2006) expresses CSR as an accepted and effective concept for business to help solve societal problems and at the same time strengthen their core business activities. This approach helps achieve the goals of business and society under win-win strategy. According to European Commission (2001), CSR is constantly developing into a tool for societal cooperation and the active shaping of globalisation.

According to the founder of INFOSYS, Narayan Murthy, 'social responsibility is to create maximum shareholders value working under the circumstances, where it is fair to all its stakeholders, workers, consumers, the community, government and the environment'. Commission of European Communities 2001 stated that being socially responsible means not only fulfilling legal expectations, but also going beyond compliance and investing more into human capital, the environment and the relation with stakeholders (Bajpai,2001).

Over the time four different models have emerged all of which can be found in Indian scenario regarding corporate responsibility (Kumar et al., 2001). The given framework, within which CSR needs to be understood, is given below: (Arora & Puranik,2004)

- **Model 1** – M.K.Gandhi's Ethical model, focusing on voluntary commitment by companies to public welfare.
- **Model 2**- Jawaharlal Nehru's Statist model, focusing on state ownership and legal requirements determine corporate responsibility
- **Model 3**- Milton Friedman's Liberal model focusing on corporate responsibilities limited to private owners (shareholders)
- **Model 4**- R Edward Freeman's Stakeholder model, focusing on companies respond to the needs of stakeholders- customers, employees, communities, etc.

CSR IN INDIA

In India, CSR is known from ancient time as social duty or charity, which through different ages is changing its nature in broader perspective, now generally known as CSR. The ideology of CSR in the 1950s was primarily based on an assumption of the obligation of business to society. The community development and social welfare program of the premier Tata Company, Tata Iron and Steel Company started the concepts of “Social Responsibility.” (Gupta, 2007). The last decade of the twentieth century witnessed a swing away from charity and traditional philanthropy towards more direct engagement of business in mainstream development and concern for disadvantaged groups in the society. This has been driven both internally by corporate will and externally by increased governmental and public expectations (Mohan, 2001). An ideal CSR has both ethical and philosophical dimensions, particularly in India where there exists a wide gap between sections of people in terms of income and standards as well as socio-economic status (Bajpai, 2001).

Further, an impending crisis in Indian economy led the Rajiv Gandhi and Narashima Rao governments to dismantle the ‘license raj and introduce much-needed economic reforms in the country, which marked the beginning of the economic liberalization and the free market economy in India. The major impact of these economic reforms has been the increased presence of transnational corporations in the country and transformation of Indian businesses into large global enterprises. In this scenario, there is an increased focus on the social role of these private enterprises also by both the proponents and opponents of liberalization in India. Consequently some corporates are made responsible to disclose their CSR activities in their annual report. Recent amendment of companies bill stress the requirement of certain companies to spend and disclose compulsorily on CSR activities.

CONSTITUENTS OF CSR

According to clause 135 of the bill, “Every company having net worth of Rs

500 crore or more, or a turnover of Rs 1,000 crore or more, or a net profit of Rs 5 crore or more, during a financial year” shall make “every endeavour to ensure it spends, in every financial year, at least two per cent of its average of net profits made during the three immediately preceding financial years, in pursuance of its corporate social responsibility (CSR) policy.”

According to the Companies Bill, the following activities can be included in CSR: Eradication of hunger and poverty, promotion of education and gender equality, empowerment of women, reduction in child mortality and improvement in maternal health, combat of HIV and other diseases, environmental sustainability, vocational training, contribution to the Prime Minister’s National Relief Fund or any other fund set up by the Central or State Governments, welfare of SC/STs and OBCs. The list is likely to grow as the exact provisions of the Bill are still being debated.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Experts are not sure of the preparedness of the corporate sector to comply with the provisions. An official with Indian Institute of Corporate Affairs said, “At present, the corporate sector is spending about 0.2 percent of their profits in CSR activities, even a substantial portion of these spends might not fit into the specific sphere of activities prescribed in the Bill.”

The Bill requires each of these companies to form a corporate social responsibility committee of the board “comprising three or more directors, of which at least one shall be an independent director.” The board will have to give reasons if the company falls short of CSR spending targets in a particular year in its directors’ report.

This study focuses on understanding the degree and approach of companies’ CSR practices in the present legal environment, especially in India. It is obvious to know the model framework under which the companies spending on the CSR activities, and as to what they contribute to the sustainable development.

PROBLEM DEFINITION

The problem field leads to the following research question.

“What are the companies’ CSR contributions to the sustainable development?”

In order to operationalise the research question, the following objectives were framed to guide the research work.

OBJECTIVES

- To study and understand the CSR initiatives taken by selected Indian companies
- To examine the corporate approach towards CSR practices
- To measure the CSR contribution of the sample companies towards sustainable development
- To examine the focus of CSR activities of the sample companies to find out the best practice.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are number of studies undertaken to measure the level and approach of CRR practices by the business enterprises world over. In their study, Maon et al., suggest for integrative framework of CSR design and implementation. Their study incorporates nine steps in CSR framework. The study’s main approach was towards strategic implementation and not on assessment of CSR initiatives for sustainable development. John Simmons (2008) expresses his concern on CSR as an ethical business operation and responsible business. The main focus of this study is on operationalising the CSR in the context of employee governance with the objective of critically evaluating ethical Human Resource Management and to propose an alternate stakeholder system model of HRM. Hankey and Stark (2009) proposed a conceptual framework as a basis to develop company’s CSR strategy. This research provides measures and instruments to make complex CSR processes more visible and manageable. The conceptual framework, as they suggest, enables a process to understand whether the CSR engagement is driven

by legitimation or by sense making and the fundamental address is internal or external environment. Chaudhri and Wang (2007) examine CSR communication undertaken by top 100 IT companies in India, on their companies web sites. They find that the Indian IT companies are lagging behind creative and effective CSR communication on the web sites.

According to Chappel and Moon (2005) CSR web site reporting in seven Asian countries is not homogeneous but varies among countries. Porter and Cramer (2006) stated that strategically CSR can become source of tremendous social progress as the business applies its considerable resources, expertise and insight to the activities that benefit society. The study shows that companies operate in ways that secure long-term economic performance by avoiding short-term behavior that is socially detrimental or environmentally wasteful. Saeed (2010) explores CSR initiatives of companies in India. In case of FMCG companies where the major challenge is reduction of packaging materials. These companies are doing work in the field of environment care, health care, Education, community welfare, women's empowerment and Girl child care. Companies like Hindustan Unilever working on CO₂ reduction. Banerjee et al. (2003) suggest that the environmental orientation is the recognition by managers about the importance of environmental issues faced by their firms. According to Chopra (2006) now a days CSR is emerged as a core focus area for organizations in general, which are looking at new and innovative ways to contribute to the communities in which they operate.

FORBES India (2013) conducted a survey on 500 top listed companies on the basis of their Net Profit to know the magnitude and direction of their CSR spending. The report highlights both voluntary and compulsory disclosure of CSR activities in their annual report. Business Standard (2013) analysis of balance sheets of BSE 500 companies showed some 457 companies covered will have to make provisions for spending. The Business Standard Research Bureau arrived at the numbers by calculating the average net profit for the financial year 2009-10,

2010-11 and 2011-12 on a stand-alone basis.

The above research studies have been undertaken more on conceptual basis except in a large sample survey by Forbes. Even the Forbes survey fails to analyse the types of activities they focus in CSR as per their CSR report disclosed in their annual report.

With this background, the present study aims at understanding and measuring the different types of activities the companies are carrying on under the name CSR to social, educational, environmental and overall community development of the society in which these companies operate.

HYPOTHESIS

In the process of understanding and evaluating the CSR initiatives of the companies, we hypothesise that there is no significant difference among the companies in the nature of their CSR spending.

METHODOLOGY

We have used content analysis methodology for data analysis for this empirical study. The research design framed includes selection of the data score from BSE top 100 companies, and a criterion was net sales.

SAMPLING

Purposive sampling method was followed. For the present empirical study, the top 100 companies listed in BSE India are chosen as sample. The criteria for the sample selection are the net sale. The reason for such selection of sample is that the norms of the new Companies Bill on mandatory spending and disclosure on CSR activities.

DATA

This study depends mainly on the secondary data, the annual reports of the sample companies for the financial year 2011-12. The annual report of sample companies, identified in the process of sample selection, were retrieved from

their respective web sites. We have adopted qualitative analysis of the data on the basis of the disclosure in the annual reports of the sample companies.

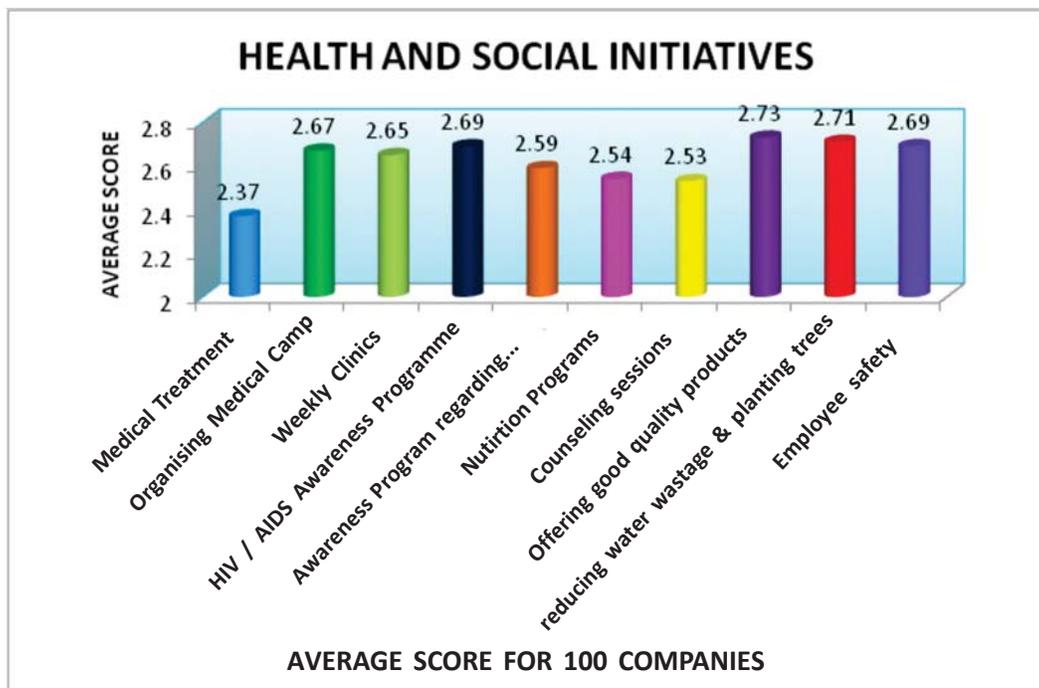
DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

It is evident from the annual report that every company discloses their CSR spending and various initiatives taken by it. Qualitative analysis of CSR spending helped the researcher in data editing. The qualitative data in the said source, under the heading Governance Report/ Director's Report/Management Discussion and Analysis/ Sustainability Report as the case may be in the annual reports. The place of disclosure was different for different companies.

on the basis of the magnitude of the activities, amount of spending, number of beneficiaries, area covered, direct initiatives taken or donations paid for such activities, regularity, the maximum score assigned for each company for each component factor of the three dimensional CSR spending was FIVE. In the case of low level of such activities, low score ranging from 0 to 2, moderate level 2 to 4 and high level scores at 5. The three dimensions such as Health and Social activities, Educational initiatives, and Environmental activities are divided under different types of activities that are directly related to such initiatives.

Chart 1 discloses the various activities pertaining to health and social activities in which the companies spending and disclosing. 'Offering good quality products to people' scores highest average of 2.73. Companies are more concerned over providing good quality products and enabling gain maximum satisfaction and enhancing standard of living. Enhanced standard of living indicates that CSR initiatives of companies indirectly contributing to sustainable growth of human resources and the economy. HIV/AIDS awareness programme, and employee safety activities' average scores being 2.69 each, stand second. Except the 'provision of direct medical treatment', all other components score is above average. This is a remarkable quality of CSR initiatives that certainly help the economic and human resource sustainability and social concern for the growth of the society.

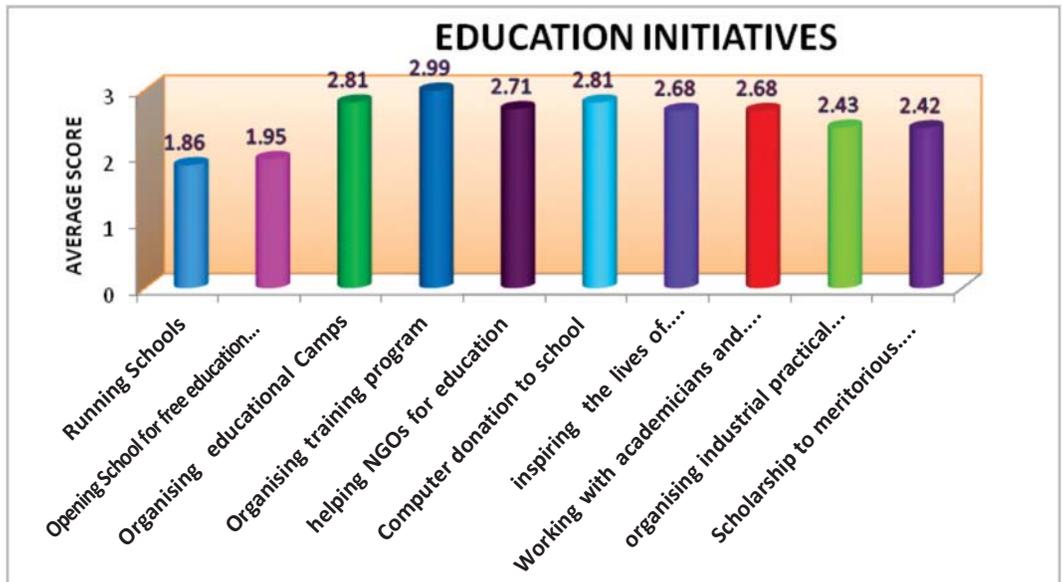
CHART 1



SOURCE: RESEARCHER'S OWN CALCULATION

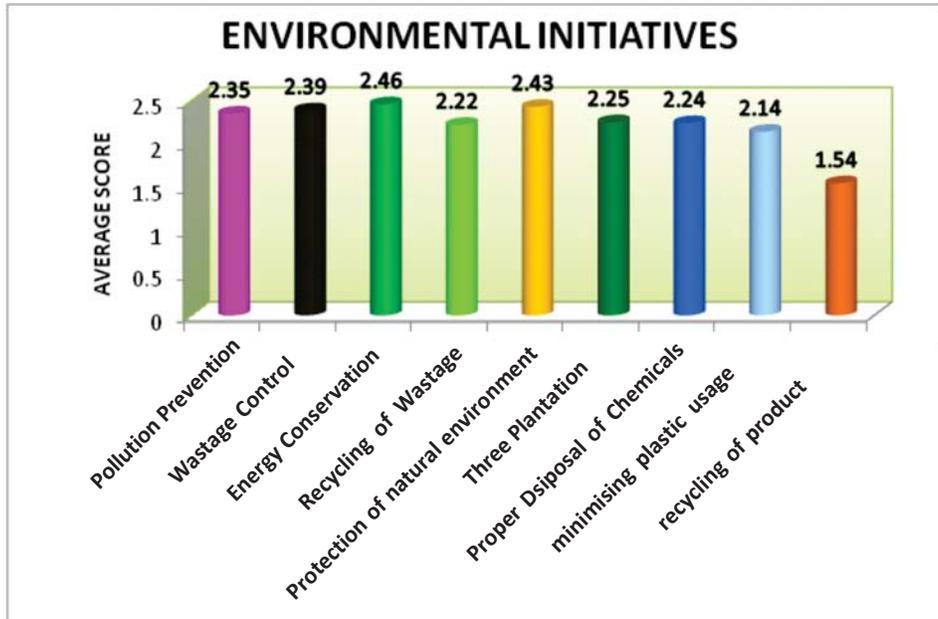
The second dimension is educational activities that contribute to the development of Human Development. Human resource development plays a key role in sustainable growth of any economy. In fact high quality human resources in turn contribute to economic and social sustainability and world peace. Industries require skilled employees, intellectual and talented decision makers, thinkers and efficient leaders. Educational activities under CSR programme are oriented towards achieving integrity of human resources of the society in which the companies operate. As such organizing training programme has the highest score of 2.99. Secondly, organizing educational camp and donating computers to IT development is equally important for the company as we are in the IT age. Information technology in education yields a long run benefit to industries and society together. In this category also all educational activities individually are above average. Only few established large scale companies have directly established and running schools and colleges.

CHART 2



SOURCE: RESEARCHER'S OWN CALCULATION

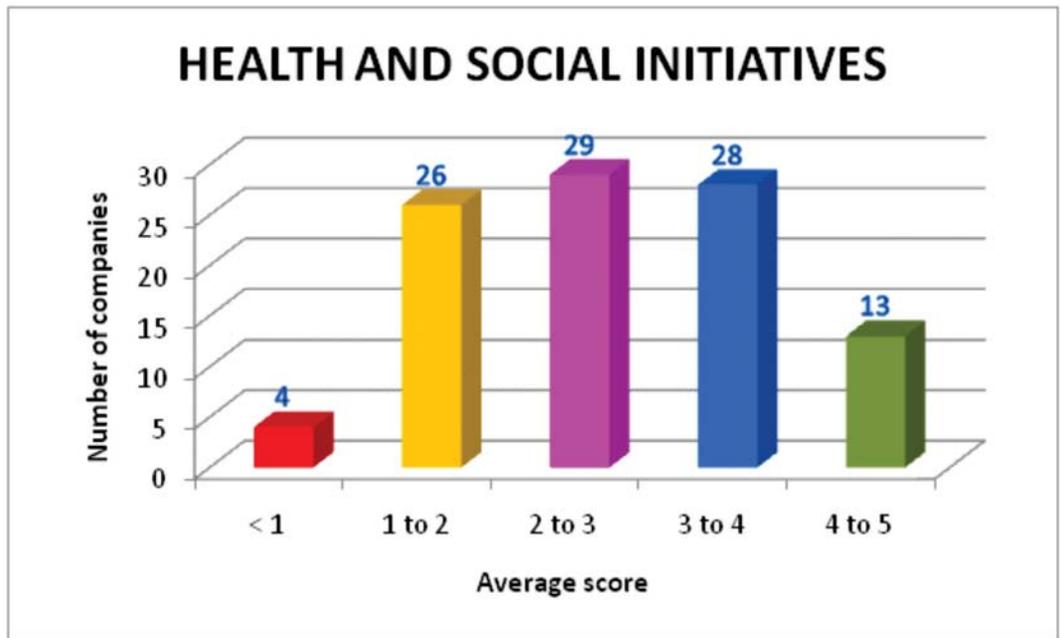
CHART 3



SOURCE: RESEARCHER'S OWN CALCULATION

Global warming and Green House Gas Emission and its cruelty to the creatures on the earth cannot be underestimated. Several research studies have highlighted the quantum of CO₂ and other environmentally dangerous acids resulting from industries and business activities. Companies, now, are under legal implications of environmental laws and governmental regulation upon this. It is mandatory, now, to estimate and mitigate GHG emissions in the business houses. There are several ways in which our planet can be saved and maintained intact and bring back our natural environment to its balance status. The activities popularly carried out by corporations, as voluntarily/mandatorily disclosed in their reporting to stakeholder vary from one enterprise to the other. The study shows that conservation of energy is a serious concern for corporations today. Obviously, for country like India facing energy crisis, it is an important CSR activity. The score is less than average in case of recycling of products. It indicates that the corporations are yet to realise the benefit of recycling products. Perhaps, technological constraints hinder them to do so.

CHART 4

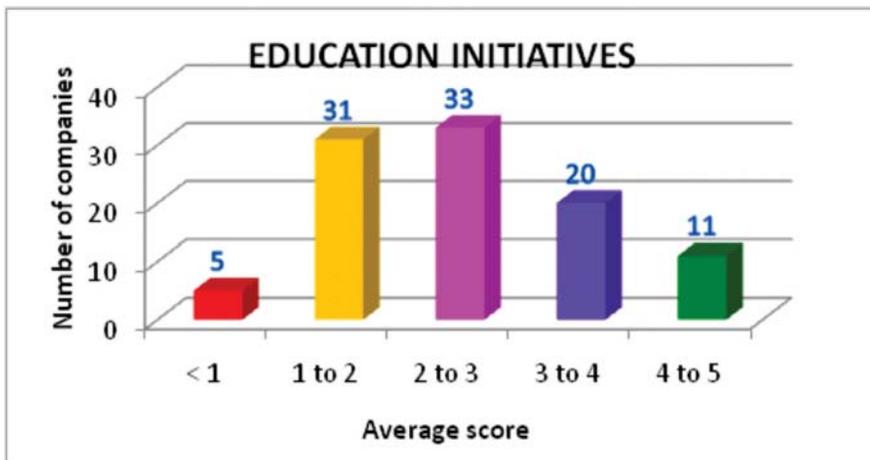


SOURCE: RESEARCHER'S OWN CALCULATION

After the analysis of different types of activities, we identified the distribution of companies engaging in these three CSR dimensions. Under health and social initiatives, 29 companies score 2 to 3, while 28 companies have scored 3 to 4, 13 companies have scored 4 to 5 points and only 4 companies have less than one score. This analysis brings out the fact that out of 100 companies only 13 companies have high score, 57 companies have moderate score, and 30 companies have below low score. More than 50 percent of the companies have above average score of 2.7.

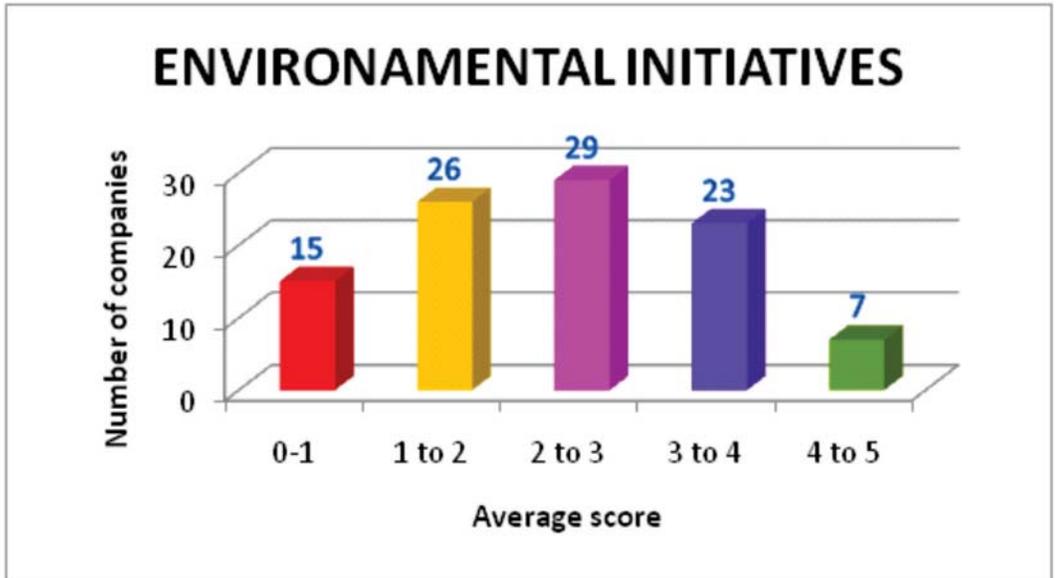
Chart 5 indicates the number of companies engaging in educational activities. Only 11 companies are coming within the group of high score companies. 53 companies are in the group of moderate score, 36 in the low score category. Similarly, Chart 6 indicates distribution of companies engaging in Environmental activities. Surprisingly only seven companies have high score, 52 companies have moderate score and 36 companies in the low score category. The analysis shows that corporations in India are not so objectively and keenly engaging in environmental activities. There are mandatory provisions for sustainability and environmental reporting in India also. However, it is voluntary for certain companies, and as such some companies are not disclosing their environmental information. Despite that it is required for Indian corporations to focus their CSR initiatives equally on environmental activities also.

CHART 5



SOURCE: RESEARCHER’S OWN CALCULATION

CHART 6



SOURCE: RESEARCHER’S OWN CALCULATION

On the basis of high score above four and up to five, top ten companies are ranked for the analysis. Table 1 depicts those top 10 companies and their respective scores and ranks. The table indicates that Infosys Company has high score and placed in first rank in all the three dimensions. The ranks of the rest of the companies vary much between the different dimensions. Reliance ranks 5 in two dimensions but placed 6th in educational activities. The analysis also indicates that top companies spend more on health and social activities than the other two dimensions. The analysis shows that the CSR score of companies in three dimensions is significantly different. And therefore, we **reject the null hypothesis**

TABLE 1

RANKING OF TOP 10 COMPANIES ON THE BASIS OF AVERAGE SCORE ON CSR INITIATIVES								
CSR TOWARDS HEALTH & SOCIETY			CSR TOWARDS EDUCATION			CSR TOWARDS ENVIRONMENT		
COMPANY	AVG SCORE	RANK	COMPANY	AVG SCORE	RANK	COMPANY	AVG SCORE	RANK
RELIANCE	4	5	RELIANCE	4.1	6	RELIANCE	4	5
TATA MOTORS	4	5	ONGC	4	7	ONGC	4.3	2
TCS	4	5	MMTC	4	7	TATA MOTORS	4.3	2
Maruti Suzuki	4	5	TATA MOTORS	4.2	5	TCS	4.4	1
Tata Steel	4	5	SAIL	4	7	TATA STEEL	3.7	7
WIPRO	4.2	3	TCS	4.4	4	WIPRO	4.1	4
INFOSYS	4.6	1	WIPRO	4.7	2	INFOSYS	4.4	1
ITC	4.1	4	INFOSYS	5	1	ACC	4.2	3
BAJAJ AUTO	4	5	INDALCO	4.4	4	TATA POWERS	3.8	6
JINDAL STEEL	4	5	ITC	4.6	3	NESTLE	3.8	6
MRF	4.1	4	BAJAJ AUTO	4	7	TATA CHEMICALS	3.7	7
TATA POWER	4.3	2						

SOURCE: RESEARCHER’S OWN CALCULATION

TABLE 2: CSR SECTOR FOCUS OF TOP RANKED COMPANIES

COMPANY SECTOR	RELIANCE	TATA MOTORS	TCS	WIPRO	INFOSYS	Maruti Suzuki	ITC	BAJAJ AUTO	JINDAL STEEL	MRF	TATA POWER	ONGC	MMTC	SAIL	INDALCO	NESTLE	TATA CHEMICALS	ACC
HEALTH & SOCIAL	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?							
EDUCATION	?	?	?	?	?		?	?				?	?	?	?			
ENVIRONMENT	?	?	?	?	?							?				?	?	?



The overall mean of all the three dimensions are found to be 2.62, 2.53, and 2.22 respectively. The present model of the corporations on CSR spending can be highlighted as below. Among the top ranked companies as per the study, RELIANCE, TATA MOTARS, TCS, WIPRO INFOSYS, are found to be corporations of best practices. They have scored high ranks in all the three dimensions. Infosys lead in the CSR activities and was found from its practical approach on sustainable activities that help millions of people in the society. Wipro, Reliance, and TCS also made remarkable progress. These companies are the models for CSR activities in general.

LIMITATIONS AND SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study contributes to the existing literature on the CSR. It is an insight into the activities of business enterprises in their growth journey. Keeping in view the forthcoming mandatory rules that restricts the companies by CSR spending parameter, more qualitative study on the issue posed concern to the researcher. The limitation of the research is that it ignores sales and profit criterion in considering the magnitude of CSR spending. Only small sample of companies may not replicate the results, and the period of study is on the annual report of one year. However, there is a scope for further research in this area, particularly on issues like economic impact of CSR in a particular region or city; investigation of relevancy on the CSR activities by certain corporations; CSR and environmental accounting; sector wise analysis of CSR; industry wise analysis of CSR practices; creation of an integrated model for CSR.

SUGGESSTIONS AND CONCLUSION

CSR initiatives among the Indian companies are growing positively. Before the New company bill is implemented, many companies show their sincere concern towards the society. Its socio-economic impact on the society is positively reflected through their disclosure. Many companies spend on only Health and Societal programmes. The quantum of amount spent on Educational initiatives was found to be magnificent. However, CSR activities were not very much convincing in some business enterprises. Despite their spending, it was found that annual reports are silent about the CSR activities in some areas. The qualitative information can be read and inferred that due to non-mandatory norms on disclosure, all the companies are not exhaustively disclosing their generous spending. From the decades since TATA's initiatives on voluntary basis, some of

the public sector companies have got awards on CSR. ONGC, MMTC, OIL, SAIL, etc are showing the progressive achievement being the models of sustainable activities.

From the analysis, it is found that IT companies are considered to be the stalwarts in all the spheres of CSR spending. Despite their consistent efforts in sustaining economic development and environment protection, companies are interested more on energy conservation, and human resource development of the society at large. It is time to think over spending on activities like recycling of products, waste reduction and re-use, alternative energy development, protection of natural resources by tree plantation, and afforestation, etc. The need of the hour is, mainly, Overall development of the society and environment in addition to activities on poverty alleviation. The decision makers shall know the limitation of mandatory requirements of new company bill 2012, and try to generously involve in integrating its business activities with the societal growth. They need to infuse sufficient monetary resources out of their profit upon the sustainable development of People, Planet, and Socio-economic dimensions. If every business enterprise contributes for such sustainable development, then our society will be a peaceful place to live in.

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STUDY ON RISK BEHAVIOURS PRACTICED BY ADOLESCENTS AND ITS IMPACT ON PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH

- Roshan Monteiro

- Jince Joseph

Abstract

Age of Adolescence is considered to be the most important period of life. The major growth and development occur during this period. It is a period of transition from adolescence to adulthood. This means it is an age where adolescents are going to be mature. But most often in many cases among adolescents, age becomes a distraction. They are often misguided by their peers, and they get attracted towards temporary attractions of life. They find it difficult to adjust to realities and often end up having conflicts with their parents. It becomes very difficult to take apt decisions in life. It leads to dissatisfaction and therefore they opt for risk-behaviour. Risk behaviours are those that can have adverse effects on the overall development and well-being of youth.

The aim of the study is to identify the risk behaviours frequently practised by adolescents and also to identify the psychological health of adolescents. A descriptive research design was used where a total of 50 respondents were selected for the study. The researcher has used proportionate random sampling method to collect data. The age group includes students of 14-22 years of age from different colleges of Mangalore. The Data has been collected using a preliminary questionnaire. The research portrays that there are adolescents who have fallen into risk behaviours and they really need help and enhancement to reinforce a more positive life.

Keywords: *Adolescents, Psychological Health, Risk behaviours*

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INTRODUCTION

Adolescence represents a difficult developmental period in one's life. Many highly concentrated demands are imposed upon the youth by society during this period for independence, for peer and heterosexual adjustments, for educational and vocational preparation and for the development of a workable set of personal and social values. On the other hand the road is paved for adulthood and an adolescent's identity is formed, developed and crystallised. If the adolescent fails to meet the varied demands in a changing world, his/her personality development is adversely affected. The term adolescence is commonly used to describe the transition stage between childhood and adulthood. Adolescence is also equated with the terms "teenage years" and "puberty." However adolescence is not exclusive to either of these terms. Puberty refers to the hormonal changes that occur in early youth; and the period of adolescence can extend well beyond the teenage years. In fact, there is no single scientific definition of adolescence or set age boundary. There are key development changes that nearly all adolescents experience during their transition from childhood to adulthood. Adolescence (from Latin: *adolescere* meaning "to grow up") is a transitional stage of physical sex and mental human development generally occurring between puberty and legal adulthood (age of majority), but largely characterised as beginning and ending with the teenage stage. Scholars have found it incredibly difficult to agree upon a precise definition of adolescence, because it can be approached from so many angles. Understanding of adolescence in today's society depends on information from various perspectives, most importantly from the areas of psychology, biology, history, sociology, education and anthropology. Within all of these perspectives, it is safe to say that adolescence is viewed as a transitional period whose chief purpose is the preparation of children for adult roles. According to Erik Erikson's stages of human development, for example, a young adult is generally a person between the ages of 20 and 40, whereas an adolescent is a person between the ages of 13 and 19. Sociologically, adolescents are those who are trying to bridge the gap between dependent childhood and self-sufficient adulthood (Muss, 1962).

Adolescence is also a stage when young people extend relationships beyond their parents and family. A desire to experiment and explore can manifest in a range of behaviours-exploring sexual relationships, alcohol, tobacco and other substance abuse. The anxiety and stress associated with achievement failure, lack of confidence etc are likely to lead to depression, anger, violence and other mental health problems. Hains (1994) noted that adolescent stress has been linked to various psychological problems such as anxiety, depression, delinquent behaviour, decreased self-esteem, eating disorders, and suicidal behaviour.

Adolescence is a period of storm and stress, a time when the individual is erratic, emotionally unstable and unpredictable. This is because of the socio-cultural variables that they face in their environment. This may bring a strong impact on their growth and development. Many a time in order to find solutions to these issues their first choice would be practice of risk behaviours. The problem of adolescents getting into risk behaviour is the breakdown of the value system in the family, in the society, and especially within the individual. Some of the adolescents observe risk behaviours as part of pleasure seeking.

Hence, these years of adolescence are very critical and problematic; there is a need for supportive measures on the part of significant people. The special and distinct needs of adolescents should be understood and appreciated, so that they can mobilize these needs for themselves positively as well as to contribute significantly to the national development.

RISK BEHAVIOURS

Risk behaviours are those that can have adverse effects on the overall development and well-being of youth, or that might prevent them from future successes and development. These include behaviours that cause immediate physical injury (e.g., fighting), as well as behaviours with cumulative negative effects (e.g., substance abuse). Risk behaviours also can affect youth by disrupting their normal development or preventing them from participating in 'typical' experiences for their age group. For example, teen pregnancy can preclude youth from experiencing typical adolescent events such as graduating from school or from developing close friendships with peers.

Because high-risk behaviours can significantly impact the lives of young people and those around them, it is essential that parents, educators and other concerned adults become aware of the prevalence of these behaviours , the factors that increase their likelihood, and what can be done to abate or prevent those risks.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADOLESCENCE AND RISK BEHAVIOURS

Adolescence is a time of rapid change. In a span of just a few years, teens transition dramatically in almost all realms of their lives. Physically, they grow in leaps and bounds and start to appear like mature adults. Cognitively, their thinking becomes more sophisticated. Socially, relationships are renegotiated, and teens develop the capacity to form deep intimate relationships with others. At the same time, the roles that they occupy in society also change. Partly because teens start to look more mature, people surrounding them sometimes begin to treat them like adults — giving them mature responsibilities and adult expectations.

The home and school environments are constantly attempting to influence behaviour change in adolescents with learning and behaviour difficulties. Adolescents and children are encouraged to acquire new skills, to improve on skills they have, to use present skills for extended periods of time, and to reduce or eliminate ways of behaving that are viewed as inappropriate. The educator is responsible for arranging a set of educational experiences that will influence these competency characteristics. He is concerned with providing experiences that represent the best match with the learner’s characteristics. In this arrangement the educator sets behavioural practices that are realistic in terms of the learner’s present characteristics and organizes a set of experiences that will not only ensure the learners participation but also result in maximum benefit to the child in terms of acquisition, maintenance, generalization and discriminated behaving. This is a complex undertaking.

From a behaviour management view point a problem is defined as any consistent discrepancy between what is expected in a child in academic and social areas and what is done in these various areas. The educational program is designed to reduce on a continuous basis the deficit areas that is to teach the child new competencies like how to overcome the risk behaviours often practiced by adolescent children.

SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Adolescence is a critical developmental life stage in which an important issue is the establishment of self (offer et al., 1981). As the period is marked by risk-taking behaviour pattern and great emotional upheavals; adolescent unrest is a major feature of this emotional state. Besides, these young folk experience stress and strains as a result of imperfect adaptation to social surroundings and uncertainties of the future. The adaptation to new subjects and new methods of study is under the threat from failure in examination, which may bring disastrous economic consequences and also cause strain upon their minds (Kapur. R.K., 1968). This may have greater impact on their self and they may create a negative image for themselves. It is also characterised by several kinds of high risk behaviour like drug abuse, increase in pre-marital, sexual activity, risk of contracting HIV/AIDS and involving in anti-social behaviour. Research increasingly notes that risky social and sexual behaviour is more likely among those who start sexual activity early in life. The early establishment of social identity independent of socially prescribed standards of responsible behaviour compounds problems and intensifies threats to health and well being.

OBJECTIVES

- ❖ To assess the causes for risk behaviours and habits.
- ❖ To determine risk behaviours frequently practiced by adolescents.
- ❖ To assess the knowledge about the effects of their behaviour, psychological health and future.
- ❖ To find out the consequences on youth including psychological health.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study is aimed at risk behaviours practiced by adolescents as well as assessment of the psychological impact on their health due to risk behaviours . In order to assess this objective the researcher has chosen the descriptive design for his study. The researcher has used proportionate random sampling method to collect data. The sampling size includes 50 adolescents. The geographical universe of the study comprises of adolescents between the age group of 12 to 22 years.

It includes both male and female categories from Mangalore. The questionnaire has been used as a means of collecting data. The questions have been prepared based on the objectives of the study. Close ended questions have been used for the study. The investigator has approached the respondents personally and collected the information. The investigator has introduced him and has explained about the purpose of the study. The medium of language for primary data collection is English.

ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Table No.1: Causes for risk behaviours and habits

Causes	Frequency (50)	Percentage (100%)
Mass Media	32	64%
Imitation of others	25	50%
Persuasion by someone	19	38%
Peer group influence	29	58%
Practice of risk behaviours is a necessity at adolescence age	27	54%
For pleasure	25	50%
Variation of emotions	35	70%
Family Problems	16	32%
Total	26	52%

Adolescent age is said to be very crucial in human development. Therefore, creating feasible environment from the significant people is essential. When young people are accepted as they are, when their age and difficulties are being understood, when they are encouraged and supported in all their achievements, it helps them to grow and acquire positive life.

But most often this may not be true among many of our young people’s lives. When they are neglected by their own significant people, they may often go for negative practices.

This study points out that, 26(52%) of the young people expressed different reasons to go for risk behaviours . A majority of them, i.e., 35(70%) expressed that they go for risk factor practices because of variation of their emotions. Youth who have low self-esteem, who have negative peer groups, and low school engagement or educational aspirations are more likely to engage in risky behaviours . Around 29(58%) of them said that peer group influences them, 27(54%) of them said they practice because it is a necessity, 25(50%) of them because of pleasure and an equal percentage agreed that it was for imitating others, 32(64%) of them said that media is responsible for risk behaviours and 8(16%) of them expressed their opinion that adolescents practice risk behaviours because they are persuaded by others.

A branch of research has developed around the issue of parental or familial problems having an effect upon children and adults (Russell, 1990), the same has been observed in this study since 16(32%) of them expressed that adolescents practice risk behaviours because of family problems.

Table No.2: Determine the risk behaviours frequently practiced.

Risk Behaviours	Frequency (50)	Percentage (100%)
Bunk the classes for any reason	28	56%
Sexual pleasure	4	8%
Smoking	11	22%
Spending time in pubs	16	32%
Alcohol/drugs	28	56%
Communal Group Activities	14	28%
Suicidal Tendencies	18	36%
Total	17	34%

Today a large numbers of young people are at unrest. They are very much attracted towards a modern worldly life. When significant people fail to guide them they get into failures, dissatisfaction and risk behaviours . The above table portrays the different risk factors practiced by adolescents, i.e., 17(34%). Among

those a majority, i.e., 28(56%) practice risk behaviours of either bunking classes or alcohol and drugs. Substance use is another group of behaviour that contribute to immediate as well as long-term damage. Drinking and drug abuse have been linked to motor vehicle accidents, fighting/violence, problematic relationships and social interactions, and various diseases.

Of the other risk behaviours practised by adolescents, 18(34%) of the young minds think about suicidal tendencies, 16(32%) of them spend their time in pubs, 11(22%) smoke and only 4(8%) go for sexual pleasure.

Other than the above mentioned risk behaviours youth are motivated by some fundamentalists groups. According to this study, 18(36%) of the adolescents spend their time in communal group activities.

Table No.3: Consequences including psychological health

Consequences	Frequency (50)	Percentage (100%)
Going away from the normal mental functioning	38	72%
Find difficulties in interpersonal relationship	26	32%
Guilt feelings	26	32%
Emotional breakdown due to the practices of risk behaviours	32	64%
Depletion of moral behaviour	35	70%
Feelings of emotional instability	32	64%
Feelings of Losing mental health	30	60%
Feelings of isolation	35	70%
Total	31.75	63.5%

High-risk behaviours are those that can have adverse effects on the overall development and well-being of youth, or that might prevent them from future successes and development. Risk behaviours also can affect youth by disrupting their normal and Psychological health.

The above mentioned data describes the consequences due to risk behaviours and its impact on psychological health. A majority of the young people, i.e., 31.75(63.5%) of them face different psychological disturbances.

SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The study focuses upon the adolescent period as it represents a difficult development and period in one's life. Adolescence is a period which has important long-term as well as immediate effects. This period is important both physically and psychologically, (Hurlock, 1981). It is also widely accepted as a 'problem age.' Many highly concentrated demands are made upon youth by society during this period for interpersonal adjustments, for educational and vocational preparation and for a workable set of social and personal values. If the adolescent fails to meet the varied demands in a changing world, his development is adversely affected (Mehta, M., 2000).

In adolescence, because of increasing self-consciousness, interdependence with significant people (parents, relatives, siblings and peers), attraction towards media and worldly pleasures as well as mainly anything that violates self-respect is taken with exceptional hurt. It may result in self-withdrawal, complete destruction of self and mental illness, drug abuse or enormous hostility. Thus, adolescence is a very important period.

Adolescents always have the risk taking behaviour. They are influenced by the so-called magical power of drugs. Even the tallest mountain will seem like a safe road for them. Once they realize the truth it will be peak time. So they need to realize it is their life and they have to opt for the right choices. Peer influences are the strongest component for practising risk behaviours. Even though adolescents realize that it is the strongest component, they deny it due to various illogical evidences contradictory to the thoughts of the positive thinkers of life. Thus adolescents go through derailment of the routines of daily routine.

The present study reveals that there are average number of adolescents practicing risk behaviours . As these risk factors look like enjoyment and fun in the beginning, they may have a greater impact, they may suffer failures and lots of problems, they may ruin their future life. Therefore, significant people have a

greater role to play in to influencing them to provide them with better ways towards a positive life and making them good people and good citizens of the country.

The results of this study will help parents, counsellors and other educators to pay attention to interactive effects of risk factors of adolescents. This knowledge of interactive effects can be of great help to parents, counsellors and educators to deal with the problems of adolescents.

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CHANGING NEWS LANDSCAPES: IMPACT OF ONLINE NEWSPAPERS AMONG COLLEGE TEACHERS

- Juby Thomas and G.P. Shivram

Abstract

Online and digital news consumption continues to increase in India, with more populace getting news on cell phones, tablets or other new media platforms. Majority of the Indian newspapers have substantial numbers of regular readers who read them digitally. In spite of an expanding variety of ways to get news, a sizable minority of young people continues to go newsless on a typical day even though they spent vital time on social networking sites. In this context individual teachers can play the role of a catalyst in making students depend on technology on a day to day basis. Teachers can mould the future career of their students by exposing them to various technological advancement. Adopting new technology in teaching and bringing technology down to the curriculum can enhance the knowledge level of the students. This will also encourage students on the knowhow of the various events that takes place around them. Teaching community can instill in their students the habit of being updated about the affairs of the world around them. In order that teachers should be catalysts in a society where media culture is on a boom, they themselves should be aware of the latest trends in the media. Hence the importance of the study on “Changing News Landscapes: Impact of Online Newspapers among College Teachers” that can in innumerable ways influence the larger sections of the society towards a new media culture.

Keywords: *Changing news landscapes, online newspaper, digital news conception, online newspaper standard in India, e-paper, e –reading, new media*

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INTRODUCTION

Transmission of information has undergone tremendous changes from its inception. Be it the shift from orality to literacy, the ascend of print culture, or the emergence of modern mass media in the early 20th century, each represents important paradigm shifts in the way human beings communicated. At this juncture technological advancement remarked a slow adjustment. And today, the emergence of new media has created a situation, where the consumers no longer have to wait until a designated time to get their news and information. Even technological advancement and adoption in the country have registered a rapid growth.

Studies have proved that online and digital news consumption continues to increase, with more and more people getting news on cell phones, tablets and other electronic platforms. Proliferation of media devices has completely transformed the way consumers gather news and information. While it has created many new opportunities, it also has brought about numerous challenges to traditional media and some traditional media enterprises have embraced new media platforms with great success. As a result today the majority of the leading newspapers in India have an e-edition or online newspaper. However it may not be a great threat to the traditional newspapers.

Since almost all the newspapers have an online version with added features it is found that substantial numbers of regular readers of leading newspapers in India now read them digitally. Like all the other media, even online news consumption is also undergoing major changes. If you talk about the changing news landscape in India many a time much focus is given to technological change. But there are also lots of changes taking place in other core areas like writing style, presentation and even in the way audiences access information.

In this present scenario the individual attitude of teachers towards adoption of technology holds a very important role. If only the teachers understand and believe in the technology, they would adopt it in their day today life and bring it down to their curriculum. The sole beneficiaries of adopting new technology in their teaching would be their students. The teachers can successfully prepare the students for their future careers, expose them to a variety of new technologies, enable the students to gain additional skills and make students dependent on

technology. Hence, this study based on the influence of online newspaper among college teachers who can in various ways influence a large section of the youth of today towards a new media culture is very significant.

OBJECTIVES

The study aims at providing a systematic understanding of online newspapers and its popularity among college teachers in Mangalore. Therefore the aims and objectives of the study are:

- To identify the access and usage of online newspapers among the college teachers and its influence on the present teaching learning process
- To explore whether online newspapers have replaced the print media and has e - reading changed the normal reading habits of new generation
- To assess the efficacy and effectiveness of online newspapers in meeting readers' expectations

METHODOLOGY

Researcher made use of various books, journals, research articles, online resources and news articles to understand various concepts like the changing news landscapes on national and global scale, growth of online newspapers in India, the history, the challenges the entrepreneurs face etc.

The present study is based on 'survey research'. Surveys of 120 teachers from 5 academic disciplines from various colleges in Mangalore were taken into consideration. Academic discipline divisions as follows:

- Arts
- Science
- Commerce
- Engineering and
- Other teaching professionals

The study consists of two phases like direct personal interviews and teachers with email ids. A questionnaire which consists of both open ended and closed

ended questions were distributed among the participants and quantitative data analyzed with percentage analysis.

FINDINGS

Even though new media has a great role to play in teachers' information gathering, television is still the king/queen when it comes to the primary source of information. The transformation of the nation's news landscape has already taken a heavy toll on traditional news sources, particularly print newspapers and radio.

TEACHERS' PRIMARY SOURCE OF INFORMATION

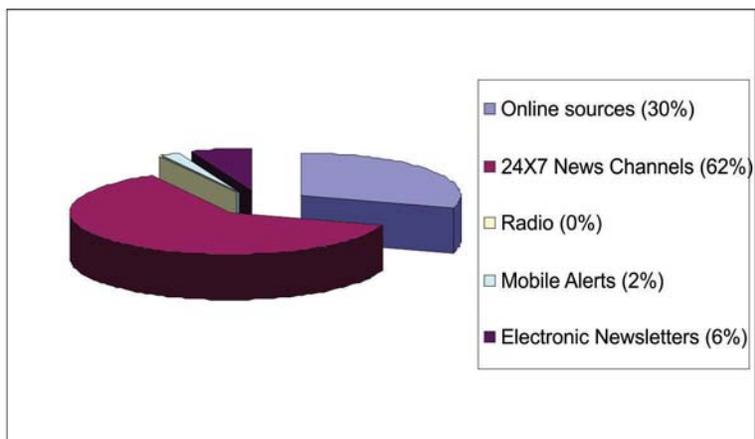


Figure 1

According to this study, 62 per cent of the teachers' who were part of the survey depend on 24X7 news channels for latest information. But there are now signs that television news – which so far has held onto its audience, is vulnerable through the rise of the internet. In short span of time 30 per cent of the teachers use online sources and therefore television may lose its hold on the next generation of news consumers. Another important factor is that the radio has lost its importance among those teachers who were part of the survey. Radio is available on mobile phones but none uses it. But 2 per cent uses mobile alerts for accessing information.

ONLINE NEWSPAPER USAGE

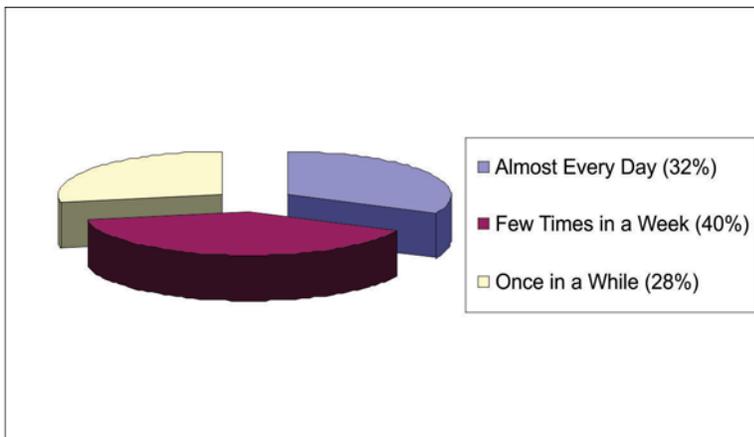


Figure 2

All the teachers who were part of the survey have an access to online newspapers and 32 per cent are regular readers and 40 per read few times in a week. It shows that there is a shift in teachers' reading habit and now they prefer to read digitally. This shift is gradual but very noticeable. Proliferation of communication platforms/ devices are said to be one of the major reasons but 82 per cent of the teachers who were a part of the survey use personal computers or laptop for accessing online newspapers and other information search. Usage of tablets is just 4 per cent. Mobile phone users for accessing online newspapers constitute 12 per cent. This proves that news consumption habits of teachers are changing. This will create an impact in teaching learning process and they have the power to influence the students.

Teachers use online newspapers due to several reasons, some of them being that it is more mobile and more social. 20 per cent of the teachers prefer to share the news link with their students and 52 per cent prefer online newspaper to increase their general knowledge and 28 per cent prefer due to the immediacy of information. But majority of the teachers feel that the standard of online newspaper in the country should be improved.

ASSESSMENT OF ONLINE NEWSPAPER STANDARD

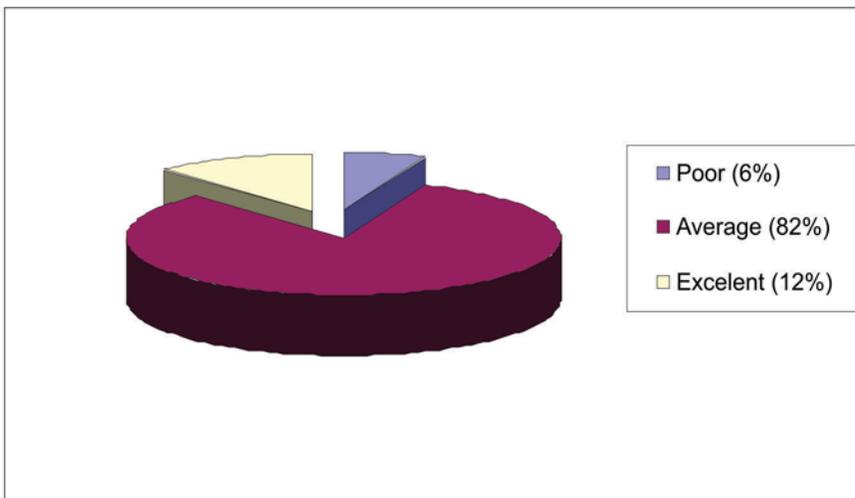


Figure 3

Only 12 per cent of teachers who were part of the survey feel that the present standard of the online newspaper is excellent and 82 per cent said it maintains an average standard. 6 per cent believes that its standards are poor. Undoubtedly, through online newspapers news flows fluidly across national borders; people deploy the new communication networks to interact with others around the world. 56 per cent of the teachers believes that online newspapers ability to disseminate immediate information make them popular among the readers across the globe and 32 per cent said that its availability on multiple platforms make them popular and 12 per cent believe that the added features like interactivity, multimedia, hypertext and archives makes online newspapers popular. Majority of the teachers respondents' first preference is *Times of India* followed by various vernacular newspapers.

But the popularity and sudden boom of internet and online newspapers have created a tension among the print media entrepreneurs. Even though the circulation figures of major newspapers around the globe have only increased over the years; alternatively, there are thousands of TV channels, even more radio stations,

and the infinite Internet. At this juncture the question that the media industries face today, is print media dying?

TEACHERS' OPINION ABOUT THE DECLINE OF PRINT MEDIA

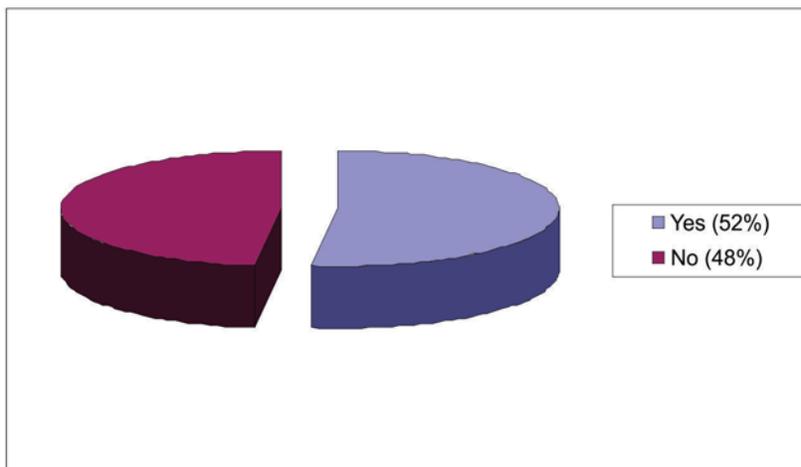


Figure 4

When this question was asked to the teachers 52 per cent of the teachers who were part of the survey said yes, print may become obsolete and 48 per cent said no. In 1930's and 1950's when radio and television came to existence, everybody felt that newspapers would become obsolete. But everyone was wrong. In this deluge of information, every media is fighting for attention and it results in providing better news consumption and adds distinct features, the ease of use and wide reach.

This research also made an attempt to identify the access and usage of online newspapers among the college teachers and its influence on the present teaching learning process. It was found that all the teachers who were part of the survey have had access to online newspapers. Around 20 per cent of the teachers share the news links with students and 32 per cent of them have access to online newspapers almost every day.

Majority of the Teachers (60%) from engineering background read online newspapers almost everyday. Arts, science and commerce teachers have a similar reading habit. Other teaching professionals who are part of various professional courses reported very low. Reasons could be: Majority of the engineering, arts, science and commerce teachers have PC with internet connection in their respective departments.

The second objective of the study is to explore whether online newspapers have replaced the print media and has e reading change the normal reading habits of new generation. And it was found out that online newspapers have not completely replaced the print media among teachers. Where as 76 per cent of the teachers who was part of the survey feels that e - reading have changed the reading habit of new generation, 6 per cent had no idea about it and 18 per cent said there is not much impact. Earlier Researches have proved that online newspapers have less recall value compared to print newspaper.

At this juncture, the new generation's move towards e reading can be considered as a complicated factor. It is true that online newspapers tend to give few cues about a story's importance while print readers are "told" what to read by story placement and prominence. Online news articles often feature ads mid-story or force readers to click additional pages to read more possibly altering the reading experience.

SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

If the Union government evolves easy, quick internet services with affordable packages and internet service providers come out with liberal incentives to avail the internet facilities, the penetration of internet in the country will be faster. Also teaching community should be given special bonanza. So that teachers can be promoted as purposeful netizens.

Teaching faculty should be facilitated to avail Newspaper In Education (NIE) materials through Internet and Dept. of MCJ may organize workshops for teachers and students to maximize the effective use internet resources. Teachers should be trained in the areas of multimedia production, podcasting and citizen journalism and institutions should encourage the teachers to initiate their own blogs, vblogs, databases and websites so that our teachers will become active participants in democracy through its fourth estate.

CONCLUSION

Online and digital news consumption continues to increase, with more and more people getting news on cell phones, tablets and other electronic platforms. Proliferation of these media devices has completely transformed the way producers distribute news and information and the way consumers gather news and information. Therefore be it technological or theoretical advancement, we can say that the news landscape is on a constant change. In India educational institutions and teachers play a vital role in preparing the new generation to adapt new ideas and technologies. Teachers' online newspaper reading habit has got five salient contextual referents including: training; time; money; standardized testing; and use of technology in class room. A teacher who is well trained and well paid will be able to find time to test and adopt the constant changes around him / her. The salient contextual referents of online newspaper reading denotes the teachers' success in creating a community that nurtures, encourages, and supports the learning process.

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EFFECT OF 8 MEV ELECTRON IRRADIATION ON OPTICAL ABSORPTION EDGE OF DIGLYCINE HYDROCHLORIDE AND DIGLYCINE HYDROBROMIDE NONLINEAR OPTICAL SINGLE CRYSTALS

- B. Narayana Moolya and Jayaprakash Gowda

Abstract

The design of devices that utilize photons instead of electrons in the transmission of information has created a need for new materials with unique optical properties. Particularly, materials possessing nonlinear optical (NLO) susceptibility are of great interest. NLO effects occur due to the interaction of strong electromagnetic fields with various media, which, in turn, produce new electromagnetic fields altered in phase, frequency, or amplitude from the incident fields. In this view an attempt has been made to grow various semiorganic NLO crystals, characterise them and engineer their performance parameters. In this paper, effect of electron irradiation on Semiorganic nonlinear optical diglycine hydrochloride and diglycine hydrobromide is reported. UV-vis-IR spectra of the crystals were obtained for graded dosages from 5 kGy to 80 kGy. Optical absorption edge and optical bandgap of the irradiated crystal samples were compared with that of unirradiated crystal samples. From these studies it was found that the absorption edge shifts towards red region and optical band gap decreases. Optical studies of the irradiated sample were conducted after a span of one week, two weeks and a month and the changes were found to be long lasting.

Keywords: *Nonlinear optical (NLO), Electron irradiation, optical edge, direct band gap and indirect band gap.*

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INTRODUCTION

Nonlinear optics deals with the study of phenomena that take place due to the modification of the optical properties of a material in the presence of intense laser light. Due to unprecedented developments that are taking place in the field of telecommunications and data processing, photonics– the field of study which employs the ‘photon’ to acquire, store, process and transmit data – has become a potent field of research. The design of devices that utilize photons instead of electrons in the transmission of information has created a need for new materials with unique optical properties [Bloembergen]. Materials possessing nonlinear optical (NLO) susceptibility are of particular interest [Chemla and Zyss]. Nonlinear optics is concerned with the interaction of strong electromagnetic fields with various media which produce new electromagnetic fields altered in phase, frequency, or amplitude from the incident fields. Harmonic Generation and Self Focusing Effect are the two common examples of NLO process. Second Harmonic Generation (SHG) is the conversion of coherent light of frequency γ into light of frequency 2γ . One practical application of second harmonic generation is the conversion of relatively inexpensive (yet powerful) infrared laser light into visible laser light. Self focussing effect allows one to change the refractive index of a material by applying a DC electric field to the material; thus, can utilize the modulation of an electrical signal to activate an optical switch [M.S .Lyons].

Industrial potential of nonlinear optics was fully appreciated (exploited) with the advent of optical fiber communication in 1970. The discovery of optical bistability in 1975 sparked intense research activity in the field of nonlinear optics and its applications to optical computing. Third order non resonant nonlinearity is expected to play a key role in information processing applications. Though all the hardware elements such as bistable memories, logic switches, limiters etc were demonstrated their realization was not achieved due to the lack of materials having desired nonlinear optical properties [Wenjang Nie]. Hence scientists started working on the development of new materials exhibiting NLO properties. Accordingly, a large number of NLO crystals were invented. Physicists and engineers have been in the look out for new materials which have larger second harmonic coefficients and improved figures of merit.

Irradiation of materials with high energy electron bombardment is a proven method to clean production of Frenkel pair defects (vacancies and interstitials)

without displacement cascades. Controlled production of point defects in materials has been one of the early applications of energetic electron beams in the field of radiation damage and materials science. Irradiation of metals at low temperatures with electron energy 3-4 MeV to typical dose of 10^{19} e⁻/cm² produces a Frenkel pair concentration of a few hundred ppm. Post-irradiation characterization using defect structure techniques has led to unambiguous understanding of different defect reactions [Kanwar Krishan et al].

II. EXPERIMENTAL

Microtron is an electron accelerator capable of accelerating electrons to few MeV. The variable energy accelerator microtron setup at Mangalore University is capable of accelerating electrons up to 8MeV. In a microtron electrons are accelerated by r.f field of constant frequency in a uniform magnetic field (1285-1927 Gauss). Electrons move in circular orbits all the orbits having common tangent at the axis of accelerating r.f cavity. Synchronization of electron motion with accelerating r.f field is achieved by making the period of each succeeding orbit to be larger than the former by an integral multiple of the r.f period. The electron emitter is LaB₆ single crystal. The electrons after achieving the required energy are made either to hit the internal target or pass through a magnetic channel and extracted. The microtron can be used as a source electrons, Bremsstrahlung radiation and neutron of moderate flux. The beam size is 3mmx5mm with an average beam power of 250 to 375W. Electrons of 8MeV energy with a fluence of 5.7×10^9 /cm² and beam current 16 mA is made to incident on NLO crystals.

Single crystals of Diglycine hydrochloride(DGHCl) and diglycine hydrobromide (DGHBr) are grown by the evaporation of their aqueous solution [Narayana Moolya et al] . These were cut in to slices of dimension around 10x10x1 mm³. The UV-vis spectrum of the sample was recorded. This is taken as reference. These samples were exposed to electron beam of dosage 5kGy. When the exposure was over, the sample was removed and UV-vis spectrum was recorded. The experiment was repeated for graded dosages 10, 20, 40, 60 and 80 kGy. From the spectrum the shift of absorption edge and the optical band gap for various dosages of electron beam was studied. The sample was stored in a desiccator and the spectra were recorded after a span of one week, one month and three months. Variation of optical edge for different dosages is depicted in figures 1 and 2.

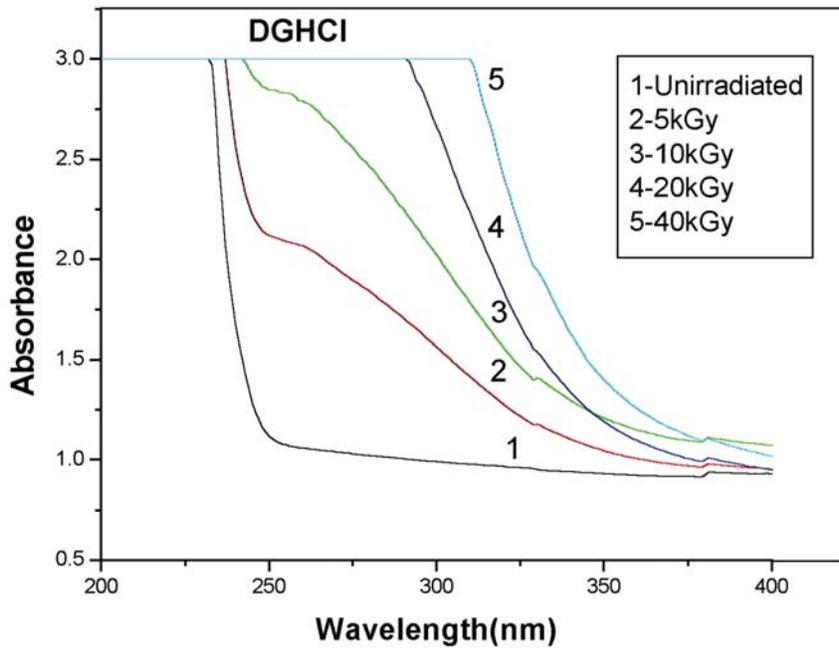


Figure1. Comparison of Absorption edge of DGhCl

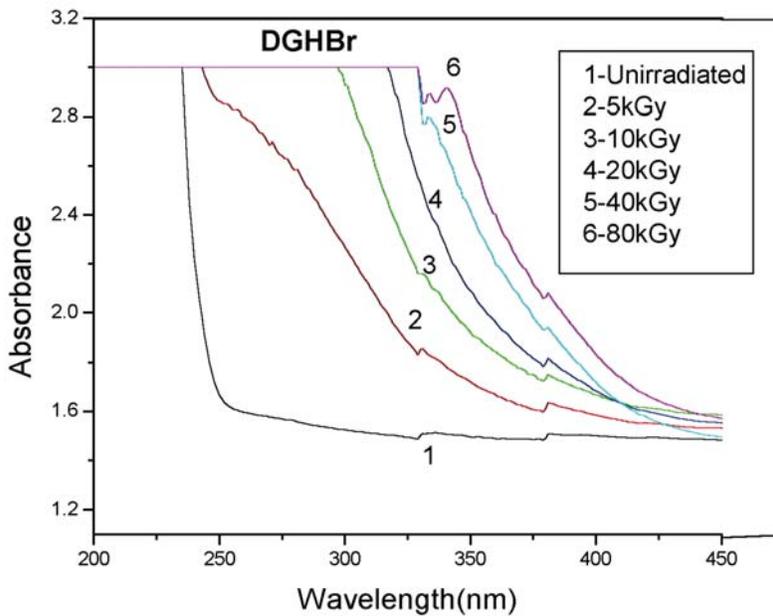


Figure2. Comparison of Absorption edge of DGhBr

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The band gap of the material E_g , sets the limiting cut off wavelength λ_c defined by $\lambda_c = hc/E_g$ where h is Planks constant and c is the velocity of light. The optical band gap E_g is given by Tauc's expression [Tauc et al]

$$\omega^2 \epsilon_2 = (h\omega - E_g)^2$$

where, $\epsilon_2(\lambda)$ is the imaginary part of the complex refractive index i.e. the optical absorbance and λ is the wavelength. E_g is usually derived from the plot $\epsilon_2^{1/2} / \lambda$ vs $1/\lambda^{1/2}$. The intersection of the extrapolated spectrum with abscissa gives the gap wavelength λ_g , from which the gap energy is derived to be $E_g = hc / \lambda_g$.

The interpretation of experimental results, viz, the dependence of absorption coefficient α in terms of the direct and indirect transition, is most often performed with the help of formula derived for three dimensional (3D) crystals. Their simplest form is as follows

$$\alpha h\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^r, \text{ for direct band gap}$$

$$\alpha h\nu = \sum_j A(h\nu - E_g^1 \pm E_{pj})^r, \text{ for indirect band gap}$$

Here α is the absorption coefficient, calculated as a function of photon energy, E_g the energy gap for direct transition, E_g^1 the energy gap for indirect transition and E_{pj} the energy of the phonons assisting at indirect transition. A and B are parameters depending in the more complicated way on the temperature, photon energy and phonon energies E_p . Specifically the power $r=1/2$ for direct allowed transition and $r=2$ indirect allowed transitions $r=3/2$ for direct forbidden and $r=3$ for indirect forbidden transitions

From the graph of $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ vs. $h\nu$ and $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ vs. $h\nu$ it is possible to calculate the indirect as well as direct band gap between the valence band and the conduction band respectively. It is quite possible that they represent indirect interband transition involving the emission or absorption of photons. The energy band gap is obtained by extrapolating the linear part to zero.

Table 1: Comparison of absorption edge and band gap of DGHCl crystals for graded dosages

DOSE kGy	Absorption edge (nm)	Bandgap (eV)	
		Indirect	Direct
Unirradiated	237	4.64	5.15
5	266	2.64	4.93
10	300	3.01	3.67
20	316	2.5	3.54
40	329	2.52.	3.50

Table 2: Comparison of absorption edge and band gap of DGHBr crystals for graded dosages

DOSE kGy	Absorption edge (nm)	Bandgap (eV)	
		Indirect	Direct
Unirradiated	240	4.725	5
5	302	3	3.5
10	327	2.9	3.4
20	343	2.87	3.3
40	359	2.65	3.15
80	371	2.65	3.1

A perfect crystal may be defined as one in which all the atoms are at rest on their correct lattice positions in the crystal structure. At all real temperatures, crystals are imperfect. Apart from the fact that atoms are vibrating, which may be regarded as a form of defect, a number of atoms are inevitably misplaced in a real crystal. Crystals are imperfect because the presence of defects up to a certain concentration leads to a reduction of free energy hence causing for the increase in entropy. Schottky defect and Frenkel defects are commonly found defects in ionic crystals. Point defects such as Schottky defect and Frenkel defects are responsible for the optical and electrical properties of ionic crystals. Hence a study of electrical conduction in crystals can help in understanding the defects in crystalline solids. Electrical conduction in solids occurs due to long range migration of either electrons or ions. Usually conduction by one or other type of charge carrier predominates but in some materials both ionic and electronic conduction are appreciable in the same material. Migration of ions does not occur to any appreciable extent in most ionic and covalent solids. Rather, the atoms tend to be essentially fixed on their lattice sites and can only move via crystal defects.

On irradiation the optical absorption edge of the crystal sample was found to increase as depicted in figure 2. The reason for the increase may be the creation of additional defects due to electron irradiation. As the radiation dose is increased the band gap decreases as shown in tables 1 and 2. But for higher dosages the sample becomes yellow and measurements could not be conducted.

IV. CONCLUSION

Nonlinear optical DGHCl and DGHBr single crystals grown by solution growth method were irradiated with 8MeV electron beam obtained from the Microtron. The UV-vis absorption spectra of the samples were rerecorded before and after irradiation. Increase in optical absorption edge and decrease of band gap was observed due to irradiation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT : Authors gratefully acknowledge Dr Ganesh Sanjeev and the staff of Microtron centre Mangalore University for extending the facilities for irradiation and to carry out the measurements.

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A MULTIDISCIPLINARY IMPLEMENTATION METHODOLOGY FOR KNOWLEDGE ENGINEERING WITH RULE BASED CLASSIFICATION

- Santhosh Rebello

Abstract

Database Systems and Knowledgebase Systems share many common principles. Data & Knowledge Engineering stimulates the exchange of ideas and interaction between these two related fields of interest. The major aim of the paper is to identify, investigate and analyze the underlying principles in the design and effective use of these systems. Though Data Mining play a vital role in concerning with data engineering, knowledge engineering, and the interface of these two fields. Databases are rich with hidden information that can be used for intelligent decision making. Classification and prediction are two forms of data analysis that can be used to extract models describing important data classes which can be used to predict future data trends. Data analysis provides us with a better understanding of the data at large. Many classification and prediction have been proposed. This paper addresses multi disciplinary implementation methodology with a search technique known as rule based classification to extract knowledge from databases.

Keywords: Knowledge, Rule, Attributes, Condition, Classification, databases.

INTRODUCTION

Machine learning is described by Witten and Frank as the acquisition of knowledge and the ability to use it. Classification is a fundamental problem in machine learning. It is one of the most developed and applied techniques in data mining (Piatetsky-Shapiro, WJ Frawley, eds ,2002). Given a collection of records each containing a set of attributes, a classification model is used to assign each of the records to specific classes based on some of the values of some of their attributes. The model or classifier is constructed to predict categorical labels,

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such as "treatment A", "treatment B" or "treatment C" for a medical data set. The individual tuples making up the training set are referred to as training tuples or instances and are selected from the database under analysis. This first step of the classification process can be viewed as the learning of a mapping or function, $y = f(X)$, that can predict the associated class label y of a given tuple X . In this step we determine a mapping or function that is used to classify the data sets into different classes.

An algorithm that implements classification is called a classifier. The term "classifier" sometimes also refers to the mathematical function, implemented by a classification algorithm that maps input data into different categories. In terms of machine learning, classification is considered to be an instance of supervised learning that learns to classify new data sets based on the knowledge learnt from a previously classified training set of data. Classification rules are a popular alternative to decision trees

Classification (Duch W, 2000) may be of two types based on the number of classes:

1. Binary classification
2. Multiclass classification

In binary classification, the data set is divided into two classes. Many classification methods have been developed for binary classification since it is a simple method.

Multiclass classification involves dividing the data set to one of several classes. It often requires multiple binary classifiers to be combined.

RULE BASED CLASSIFICATION

In rule based classification (Arnaud Giacometti, 2008), the model is represented as a set of IF-THEN rules. Rules are a good way of representing information or bits of knowledge. First we examine how such rules are used to classify data sets. Then we study the ways in which we can generate such rules, either from a decision tree or from the training data itself using an algorithm known as sequential covering algorithm.

Rules represent function mapping which is described by a set of attributes to its respective classes. They are expressed in the form: if P then Q, where P is the condition part formed by conjunction of simple conditions, which is nothing but the tests to be performed on the attributes. Q is the decision part of the rule, it indicates the assignment of the data which satisfies the condition to a specific class.

Rule based classification (Duch W, Blachnik M, 2004) algorithm uses a set of IF-THEN rules for classification. An IF-THEN rule is an expression of the form

Rule: (Condition) \rightarrow y
IF condition THEN conclusion.

There are 2 parts of the rule:

1. Rule antecedent / precondition
2. Rule subsequent

LHS part (the condition part) is the rule antecedent. It can contain one attribute test or a series of attribute tests that are joined by the logical AND operator. The tests evaluate to either true or false.

RHS part (the conclusion part) is the subsequent part. It contains the class predictions. It represents the consequences, if the condition is true or assigns the data set to particular class based on the condition.

Example:

If temperature $<50^{\circ}\text{F}$ Then weather = cold.

If temperature $\geq 50^{\circ}\text{F}$ AND temperature $\leq 80^{\circ}\text{F}$ Then weather = warm.

If temperature $\geq 80^{\circ}$ Then weather = hot.

2.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF RULE BASED CLASSIFIERS

1) Mutually exclusive rules

- The classifier contains mutually exclusive rules if the rules are independent of each other

- Every record is covered by at most one rule

2) Exhaustive rules.

- If the classifier accounts for every possible combination of attribute values then the classifier is said to be exhaustive.
- Each record is covered by at least one rule.

2.2 HOW TO SPECIFY CONDITIONS?

1.) Depending on attribute type:

- Nominal attributes

Example: CarType attribute may contain values {Family car, Sports car, luxury car}

- Ordinal attributes

Example: Size attribute may contain values {Small, Medium, Large}

- Continuous attributes

The attribute may contain numerous values. Example: Taxable_income may be 10% of the salary or 20% or 30% etc depending on the salary amount. It can be of any value.

2) Depending on number of ways to split:

- Binary split

The attribute values may be split into 2 classes. It is also known as 2-way-split. Example: Is_Student attribute may contain either 2 values true or false

- Multi-way split

Divides a particular value into numerous number of sets or classes. Example: Size attribute may contain many values like small, medium, large etc.

2.3 EVALUATION OF CLASSIFICATION RULE

Quality of a classification (Jiawei Han, Micheline Kamber ,2009) rule can be evaluated by:

Coverage:

Fraction of records that satisfy the antecedent (Condition part) of the rule

$$\text{Coverage (R)} = \frac{|\text{LHS}|}{N}$$

N is the total number of records in the training data set.

Accuracy:

Fraction of records that are covered by the rule that belong to the class on the RHS

$$\text{Coverage (R)} = \frac{|\text{LHS} \cap \text{RHS}|}{|\text{LHS}|}$$

Error rate:

$$\text{Error rate} = 1 - \text{Accuracy}$$

3. SEQUENTIAL COVERING ALGORITHM

The name comes from the notion that the rules are learned sequentially (one at a time). Sequential covering algorithm (Duch W, Setiono R, Zurada J.M, 2004) is the most widely used approach to mining disjunctive sets of classification rules.

Covering algorithm follows 3 steps:

1. Generate rule R on training data set S.
2. Remove the training data covered by the rule R.
3. Repeat the process

A sequential covering algorithm generates only one rule per iteration when it processes through the entire data set. It conducts many iterations until the threshold is met, and eventually generating a set of rules.

3.1 APPROACHES TO DERIVE THE RULES

1. *Direct method*

Directly learn the rules from the training data set provided. These can be obtained by observing the data set. Ruleset is obtained using sequential algorithm

2. *Indirect method*

Under indirect method there are two ways:

- Learn the decision tree or construct the decision tree, then convert into rules. (Rokach L, Maimon O, 2009)
- Learn neural networks or construct a network and then extract the rules.

3.2 ALGORITHM

The sequential search (Mitchell T, 2007) performs a greedy search to formulate a sequence of rules without backtracking. At each step we heuristically select a rule which appears to be the best choice among the others at the moment. It begins with an empty learned rule set, and it then goes through the training data set to generate one best rule. It continuously and iteratively generates one rule per iteration and adds the rule to the learned rule set. The set of learned rules are then sorted according to a certain criteria. The sorted learned rule set (Gróbczewski K, Duch W, 2002) is then returned as the learning result.

Pseudo code of sequential covering algorithm:

Inputs: labeled training dataset D

Outputs: Ruleset R that covers all instances in D

Algorithm:

Initialize R as the empty set

```
for each class C {  
  while D is nonempty {
```

Construct one rule r that correctly classifies some instances in D that belong to class C and does not incorrectly classify any non- C instances

Add rule r to ruleset R

Remove from D all instances correctly classified by r

}

}

Return R

Function Sequential_covering (Target_attribute, Attributes, Examples, Threshold)

{

Rule set = {}; // initial set of rules learned is empty

for each class c **do**

repeat

Rule \leftarrow Learn One Rule(Target_attribute, Attributes, Examples);

//remove tuples covered by Rule

Examples \leftarrow Examples - {Examples correctly classified by the Rule}

until terminating condition;

Rule_set \leftarrow Rule_set +Rule; // add new rule to rule set

end for

Rule_set \leftarrow sort Rule_set according to Performance over Examples

return Rule Set;

}

The Learn One Rule procedure finds the "best" rule for the current class, given the current set of training tuples. The sequential covering algorithm proceeds by repeatedly removing portions of the training data set containing all

the instances covered by the decision rule at every stage.

Stopping criterion:

First compute the gain for the given rule. If the gain is not significant then discard the new rule

3.3 IMPLEMENTATION

Problem definition:

The database contains details about various species. The data present is used as training set to obtain the rules to classify the species into different classes like birds, fishes, mammals, reptiles, amphibians.

Name	Blood type	Give birth	Can fly	Lives in water
Python	Cold	No	No	No
Salmon	Cold	No	No	Yes
Whale	Warm	Yes	No	Yes
Frog	Cold	No	No	Sometimes
Bat	Warm	Yes	Yes	No
Pigeon	Warm	No	Yes	No
Eagle	Warm	No	Yes	No
Turtle	Cold	No	No	Sometimes
Eel	Cold	No	No	Yes
Owl	Warm	No	Yes	No
Dolphin	Warm	Yes	No	Yes
Cat	Warm	Yes	No	No
Platypus	Warm	No	No	No

Rules:

Rule 1: (Give birth = no) ^ (Can fly = yes) → Birds

Rule 2: (Give birth = no) ^ (Lives in water = yes) → Fishes

Rule 3: (Give birth = yes) ^ (Blood type = warm) → Mammals

Rule 4: (Give birth = no) ^ (Can fly = no) → Reptiles

Rule 5: (Lives in water = sometimes) → Amphibians

Solution:

Name	Blood type	Give birth	Can fly	Lives in water	Class
Python	Cold	No	No	No	Reptile
Salmon	Cold	No	No	Yes	Fish
Whale	Warm	Yes	No	Yes	Mammal
Frog	Cold	No	No	Sometimes	Amphibian
Bat	Warm	Yes	Yes	No	Mammal
Pigeon	Warm	No	Yes	No	Bird
Eagle	Warm	No	Yes	No	Bird
Turtle	Cold	No	No	Sometimes	Reptile
Eel	Cold	No	No	Yes	Fish
Owl	Warm	No	Yes	No	Bird
Dolphin	Warm	Yes	No	Yes	Mammal
Cat	Warm	Yes	No	No	Mammal
Platypus	Warm	No	No	No	Mammal

Turtle triggers both Rule 4 and Rule 5 → So to resolve conflict the rule with the highest priority or highest order is selected.

3.4 DRAWBACKS OF SEQUENTIAL COVERING ALGORITHM

Overfitting:

Covering algorithm (Nauck D, Klawonn F, Kruse R, 2007) suffers from overfitting the training data. It makes their application to independent (noisy) data sets difficult. Overfitting is likely to occur whenever an attribute has large number of possible values. It causes insufficient generalization thus making it difficult to process new data sets. Overfitting is mainly due to insufficient examples

Missing values:

If an attribute contains missing values and the classification is based on that attribute, then the classification of the data becomes difficult.

Speed:

Evaluating every tuple in the database may be time consuming if the database contains large amount of data, which increases the time taken to construct the model.

3.5 OVERCOMING THE DRAWBACKS

Pruning:

Pruning is one way of dealing with these problems. It approaches the problem by learning a general concept from the training set to improve the prediction of unseen classes.

Classify instances:

The instances can be classified into the possible classes for the missing attributes.

3.6 APPLICATIONS OF SEQUENTIAL COVERING ALGORITHM

Covering algorithm is widely used to derive classification rules which can be applied in various fields.

Example:

1. In the medical field for diagnosing illnesses.

2. Business planning
3. In banking sectors.
4. Government sectors

4. ADVANTAGES OF RULE BASED CLASSIFIERS

1. It is as expressive as decision trees
2. Performance is better and faster compared to decision trees.
3. New instances can be classified rapidly.
4. It is easy to generate.
5. It is easy to interpret.
6. Missing values and numeric attributes can be easily handled.
7. Each rule represents an individual nugget of knowledge.

5. CONCLUSION

The Multi disciplinary implementation methodology which is presented in this paper, has mainly been motivated by the fact that it is a long term goal in the data mining (and especially in the inductive database) applications so that different pattern types can be uniformly specified taking into account both structural and operational aspects. It is also interested to provide a formal and generic framework such that different approaches and methods for the extraction of global patterns (of one or more types) can be uniformly represented. Despite many and diverse classification approaches and methods, there is not a framework for the classification problem. So, the rule-based classification (Duch W, 2000) respecting the two aspects - i.e. in the structural aspect it is desirable to formally specify data objects and patterns in a uniform and language-based manner. For the operational aspect, some primitives, basic operators, and compositional operators are needed for the construction of a classification model. In this paper all the concepts of our approach are specified in a formal framework. The generality of the representation interpreted from different viewpoints. First, we present a definition for data-dependent order over rules and classifiers as well as basic operators. In fact, we provide a set of operators for rule extraction

(Diederich J, 2008), construction and composition of classifiers, and class prediction of data objects. Second, the approach is in the sense that it encompasses, if not most, many of the existing classification approaches. In other words, the rule-based approach is a conceptual integration of rule-induction, associative, and instance-centric approaches.

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