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KARAIKUDI – 630 003

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

M.A. (SOCIOLOGY)

III – SEMESTER

35131

INDIAN SOCIAL PROBLEMS

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INDIAN SOCIAL PROBLEMS

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UNIT- I SOCIAL PROBLEMS: DEFINITION, NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS

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Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Social Problems
 - 1.3.1 Meaning of Social Problems
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- 1.5 Nature of Social Problems
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

India emerged as an independent nation-state on 15th August 1947, after a long struggle against the British colonial yoke. The country is a Sovereign, Socialist, Secular and Democratic Republic with a parliamentary system of government. Though India has shown tremendous growth in all spheres of national life in the years after independence, yet many problems plague the everyday social life; the problems, many a time, are interrelated.

What might be considered a social problem in one society may be considered as such in another society? The perception is dependent on the norms and values in a society. In some societies divorce would be considered a social problem. The social problem such as Poverty, Population, Pollution, Illiteracy, Corruption, Inequality, Gender discrimination, Terrorism, Communalism, Lack of Infrastructure, Unemployment, Regionalism, Casteism, Alcoholism, Drugs Abuse, Violence against Women are the major ones. Similarly, social problems in India have changed with different historical phases. The major social problems in each of these phases reflect the existing social norms and values.

In this unit you will learn meaning and definition of Social Problems. You will know the nature of Social Problems and Characteristics of Social Problems.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

- After going through the unit you will be able to;
- ✓ understand the meaning, definitions of Social Problems
 - ✓ gain the knowledge about the nature of Social Problems
 - ✓ know the Characteristics of Social Problems

NOTES

1.3 SOCIAL PROBLEMS

1.3.1 MEANING OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

All societies have certain situations which affect them adversely. In a commonsense way, social problems are considered as conditions which are widespread and have harmful consequences for the society. However, it is not quite as simple. What may have been considered as not harmful, at one time, may be considered harmful at other times. Smoking was not considered a serious social problem for over a long time. In contemporary times because of growing awareness of health hazards, it has become matter of great concern. It seems easy to understand social problem but when an effort is made to deal with them the complexities to the social problems become evident.

A social problem is a condition that at least some people in a community view as being undesirable. What might be considered a social a social problem in one society may be considered as such in another society? The perception is dependent on the norms and values in a society. In some societies divorce would be considered a social problem. The major social problems in the early phase of the Indian civilization were increasing rigidity of social hierarchy, continuous conflicts between the Aryans and the Dasas, emphasis on the observance of rituals, sacrifice of animals etc. With the advent of the Muslim rule in India, new social problems like sati, purdah, introduction of caste system among the Muslims, etc. emerged.

Contemporary Indian society is flecked with numerous issues that are labelled as social problems. Some of them are age-old, and some are of recent origin that has erupted owing to the change in global socio-political order. A social problem, in general, is the condition which is not ideal and disrupts the balance of a society. A dictionary of sociology defines social problems as, “any undesirable condition or situation that is judged by an influential number of persons within a community to be intolerable and to require group action toward constructive reform”.

Another widely used definition specifies that “no condition, no matter how dramatic or shocking to someone else, is a social problem unless and until the values of a considerable number of people define it as a problem”.

In the contemporary phase, India is facing several social problems. We have the problems of terrorism, violence, offences against women, children and minorities, drug addiction, corruption, migration and displacement, environmental degradation, population explosion, casteism, untouchability, regionalism, linguism and communalism, beggary, unemployment, poverty, labour problems, rural problems, problems of industrialization and urbanization, prostitution, crime, suicide, juvenile delinquency, youth tensions and student unrest and finally the problems of democracy, HIV/AIDS, etc. These problems are the result of various factors that include economic, political, legal, cultural as well as historical.

1.4 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Horton and Leslie

It is often defined as the condition which many people consider undesirable and wish to correct.

Lindbergh

It is any deviant behaviour in a disapproved direction of such a degree that it exceeds the tolerance limit of the community.

L.K. Frank

It is defined as any difficulty of misbehaviour of a fairly large number of persons which we wish to remove or correct.

Fuller and Mayer

A social problem starts with the awakening of people in a given locality, with the realisation of certain cherished values that are threatened by the conditions which have become acute.

Merton and Nisbet

They define social problem as “a way of behaviour that is regarded by a substantial part of society as being in violation of one or more generally accepted or approved norms”.

Carr

According to Carr, “a social problem exists whenever we become conscious of a difficulty, a gap between our preference and the reality”.

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1.5 NATURE OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

The social problem is connected to majority of the members of society. According to Bernad, the repressive and tense condition consequent of social problems may be involving three types of elements “(i) Tension factors which challenges some values of society, (ii) Social values which are being challenged and (iii) intense reaction of individuals and groups to challenge.

The following characteristics exhibit the nature of social problems

i) Disintegrative

Social problems, directly or indirectly disintegrate social system. Social problem causes dissatisfaction, suffering and misery. It seriously affects the values of the society. It is always disintegrating and disorganizing. It is pathological. It is harmful for the society.

ii) Multiple Causes

The social problems have no single or simple cause. Each problem has a complex history and is usually not due to one but too many causes. War, poverty, unemployment or crimes do not offer single or simple explanation of their occurrences. Sometimes one problem is so interwoven with other problems that it cannot be solved apart from them.

iii) Inter-Connected

Social problems are inter-connected due to which these become serious. For example, unemployment, poverty and crime are inter-connected.

iv) Many Remedies

Hence the solution of the complex social problem requires various multisided remedies.

v) Relative Concept

Social problem is relative concept. What we call a social problem in our society may not be a problem in other society.

Similarly, a social problem today may not be a problem tomorrow.

vi) Functional Value

Social problem, though disintegrative, has functional value since its cure leads to social problem and social development.

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What is called social problem?
2. Name some social problems faced by India.
3. What are the elements involved in the social problem given by Bernad?

1.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Now, let us try to understand the characteristics of social problems. They are as follows:

i) A social problem is caused by many factors

Earlier, it was indicated that there is a cause-effect relation with regard to a social problem. This does not however mean that a social problem can be explained or understood by one cause only. Illiteracy is caused by many factors, such as attitude of people to education, lack of schools in many areas, status of girl child, care of the younger children by older children, malnutrition and poverty to name a few. To solve the problem of illiteracy, all these problems have to be taken into consideration.

ii) Social problems are interrelated

Often there is a relation between various social problems. Ill-health is related to poverty, lack of education, attitude of sickness, unemployment, non-availability of medical care, status of women. It is not very difficult to see relations between all the 'causes' and the 'effects'.

iii) Social problems affect individuals differently

If there is inflation some people are affected by it more than others. People who are poor or who have fixed income will feel the problem more than those that are well-off and who have ways and means of increasing their income. Dowry is more a problem for the poor than for the rich. The families with a large number of daughters have a bigger problem in dowry than a family which has only sons. The problem of unemployment is more severe for those who are less educated and lack skills. It is also possible that some groups are affected more than others; for example—women, weaker sections, minorities, rural and urban poor.

iv) Social problems affect all people

The people in a society are interdependent. What affects one group will affect most members of the society also over time. Few persons are able to protect themselves fully against many of the social problems – violence, unemployment, inflation, communal riots and corruption etc.

Kenneth Henry (1978) rightly considers social problems as a Sociological process, as ideologically interpreted and as subject to different theoretical approaches.

1.6.1 TYPES OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Merton classifies social problems in the following two categories:

1. social disorganisation
2. deviant behaviour

In all social problems, some elements of disorganization refer to two conditions:

i) **Social Disorganisation**

- ❖ inadequacies in the social system,
- ❖ ineffective working of status and roles.

There are certain sources of social disorganisation. In all societies, there are some consensus on values and interests. Whenever this degree of unanimity is disturbed by conflicting interests, we find trends of disorganisation in that particular society. Similar is the case with status and roles. Every individual occupies multiple statuses such as father, husband, member of a political party, practicing a profession and member of his professional organisation. He performs his roles accordingly. He decides his priorities of roles and acts accordingly in social life. But if there is a conflict between the different status and roles and a group of people are not in a position to decide their priorities or to reconcile between the conflicting roles, it is bound to lead to social disorganisation. The process of socialisation helps people to learn language, customs, traditions, culture and values of the group. If the process of socialisation either at the level of family or school and the peer group is defective, it will adversely affect the personality of the member of a group and the organised functioning of the group itself. Society develops informal and formal mechanism of social control to regulate behaviours of its members. Whenever, these mechanisms do not work in a effective manner, the trends of disorganisation are visible in the society.

The social disorganisation is manifested in the breakdown in the effective institutional functioning, disorganisation of family, marital breakdown, poverty, collective violence, population explosion, community disorganisation and urban problems such as slums and inhuman living conditions.

ii) **Deviant Behaviour**

The concept of deviant behaviour is used by Sociologists to include serious crimes as well as the violation of moral codes. In every society, there is a commonly agreed idea of normal behaviour. Whenever someone moves away from the accepted norm and behaves differently that behaviour may be regarded as abnormal or deviant behaviour.

The crimes, juvenile delinquencies, mental disorders, drug addiction and alcoholism are some of the examples of deviant behaviour.

NOTES

NOTES

Check your progress – 1I

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. Give an example for social problems are interrelated.
5. List down the examples of deviant behaviour.
6. Mention the classification of social problems.

1.7 LET US SUM UP

The chapter starts with an introduction to the social problems and then attempts to define what a social problem is. Based on it, the characteristics of social problems have been deduced and social problems in Indian context have been examined. Then an attempt has been made to Nature of social problems on the basis of causative and systemic factors. Social problems can be due to social, cultural, economic, political, legal, and ecological factors. Systemic factors leading to social problems can be due to social disorganisation or due to the deviant behaviour of the individual. We have also learnt about the approaches to study social problems.

In this unit you have learnt meaning and definition of social problems. The Nature and Characteristics of social problems also have been discussed.

1.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Define - Social Problems
2. Enumerate the Nature of Social Problems
3. Write down the Characteristics of Social Problems
4. What is social problem? Discuss its nature.

1.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. A social problem is a condition that at least some people in a community view as being undesirable.
2. terrorism, violence, offences against women, children and minorities, drug addiction, corruption, migration and displacement, environmental degradation, population explosion, casteism, untouchability, regionalism, linguism and communalism, beggary, unemployment, poverty, labour problems, rural problems, problems of industrialization and urbanization, prostitution, crime, suicide, juvenile delinquency, youth tensions and student unrest and finally the problems of democracy, HIV/AIDS, etc.
3. (i) Tension factors which challenges some values of society, (ii) Social values which are being challenged and (iii) intense reaction of individuals and groups to challenge.
4. There is a relation between various social problems. Ill-health is related to poverty, lack of education, attitude of sickness,

unemployment, non-availability of medical care, status of women. It is not very difficult to see relations between all the 'causes' and the 'effects'.

5. The crimes, juvenile delinquencies, mental disorders, drug addiction and alcoholism are some of the examples of deviant behaviour.

6. a) social disorganisation b) deviant behaviour

NOTES

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UNIT - II FUNCTIONALISM

Structure

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- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Functionalism
 - 2.3.1 Examples of Functionalism
 - 2.3.2 Functionalist Perspective
- 2.4 Conflict theory
 - 2.4.1 Conflict Perspective
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- 2.5 Interactionism
 - 2.5.1 Definition of Interactionism
 - 2.5.2 Symbolic Interactionist Perspective
 - 2.5.3 Limitations
- 2.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.7 Unit- End- Exercises
- 2.8 Answer to check your Progress
- 2.9 Suggested Readings

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The Three Main Sociological Perspectives from Mooney, Knox, and Schacht, 2007. Understanding Social Problems, 5th edition Theories in sociology provide us with different perspectives with which to view our social world. A perspective is simply a way of looking at the world. A theory is a set of interrelated propositions or principles designed to answer a question or explain a particular phenomenon; it provides us with a perspective. Sociological theories help us to explain and predict the social world in which we live.

Sociology includes three major theoretical perspectives: the functionalist perspective, the conflict perspective, and the symbolic interactionist perspective (sometimes called the interactionist perspective or simply the micro view). Each perspective offers a variety of explanations about the social world and human behavior.

Functionalism is one of the key sociological perspectives and is known as a consensus theory as it is characterised by the idea that society requires shared norms and values in order for it function properly. Institutions in society (such as the family, education, the media, etc.) have clear social functions, which ensure there is a broad consensus about the norms and values of society and which enable organic and orderly social change.

Functionalists use the human body or organic analogy to explain how the different aspects of society are all interconnected and interdependent and problems in one area of society might be symptoms of disfunction elsewhere. Functionalists are greatly influenced by Emile Durkheim, and famous functionalists include Talcott Parsons and Robert Merton.

Interactionist theory has grown in the latter half of the twentieth century and has become one of the dominant sociological perspectives in the world today. George Herbert Mead, as an advocate of pragmatism and the subjectivity of social reality, is considered a leader in the development of interactionism. Herbert Blumer expanded on Mead's work and coined the term "symbolic interactionism".

Interactionism – or symbolic interactionism - is a broad sociological perspective. It is a micro action theory rather than a macro structuralist one and is interpretivist rather than positivist. Associated with George Herbert Mead and Max Weber, it is a perspective that sees society as the product of human interactions, and the meanings that individuals place on those interactions. Instead of trying to explain human behaviour in the context of large social structures or fundamental conflicts or cleavages in society, they look on a smaller level, acknowledging that humans have agency and are not swept away by forces outside their control and create their own meanings. Weber recognised that small-scale interactions and social structures influenced human behaviour.

In this unit, you will learn Functionalism. You will learn Conflict theory. You will study Interactionism in detail.

2.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to:

- ✓ discuss about the Functionalism
 - ✓ acquire the knowledge in Conflict theory
 - ✓ gain the knowledge about Interactionism
-

2.3 FUNCTIONALISM

The functionalist perspective, also called functionalism, is one of the major theoretical perspectives in sociology. It has its origins in the works of Emile Durkheim, who was especially interested in how social order is possible or how society remains relatively stable. As such, it is a theory that focuses on the macro-level of social structure, rather than the micro-level of everyday life. Notable theorists include Herbert Spencer, Talcott Parsons, and Robert K. Merton.

Social institutions have a specific function for the welfare of the entire society, in much the same way that the body's organs have specific functions that contribute to the overall welfare of the body. Functionalists believe that it is stable social relations or structures that influence human behaviour; these structures arise from shared values, and can either contribute to, or detract from the social stability. Functionalists believe that restoring equilibrium and increasing social cohesion can solve most social problems. In the late 40s, Robert Merton made a significant contribution to functionalist thought with his theories of manifest and latent functions. That is, a social structure can have both intentional functions, and unintentional functions respectively. Merton also believed that social structures can have a varying impact on different groups.

Example: The functionalist approach to deviant behaviour takes the position that a certain amount of deviance or crime is necessary in society. At the correct balance, deviance has latent functions that contribute to the health of society. When the balance is disrupted, social cohesion deteriorates. More specifically, latent functions of deviance include providing an example of unacceptable conduct to other members of society. Criminals and others demonstrate unacceptable conduct by incurring sanctions from other formal structures, such as the courts, or mental health institutions.

Auguste Comte saw the science of society as essentially similar to natural science. His positivist approach was based on the principle of direct observation, which could be explained by theoretical statements based on establishing causal, law-like generalizations. The task of sociology, according to Comte, was to gain reliable knowledge of the social world in order to make predictions about it, and, on the basis of those predictions, to intervene and shape social life in progressive ways. Comte's positivist philosophy was clearly inspired by what he saw as the fabulous predictive power of the natural sciences. Comte's ideas were extremely influential and his theory of the development of the sciences was an inspiration to other thinkers working with theories of evolutionary social development.

Auguste Comte, the "Father of Positivism", pointed out the need to keep society unified as many traditions were diminishing. He was the first person to coin the term sociology. Comte suggests that sociology is the product of a three-stage development:

1. **Theological stage:** From the beginning of human history until the end of the European Middle Ages, people took a religious view that society expressed God's will.^[1] In the theological state, the human mind, seeking the essential nature of beings, the first and final causes (the origin and purpose) of all effects—in short, absolute knowledge—supposes all phenomena to be produced by the immediate action of supernatural beings.
2. **Metaphysical stage:** People began seeing society as a natural system as opposed to the supernatural. This began with enlightenment and the ideas of Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau. Perceptions of society reflected the failings of a selfish human nature rather than the perfection of God.¹
3. **Positive or scientific stage:** Describing society through the application of the scientific approach, this draws on the work of scientists.

Auguste Comte divided sociology into two major parts – **static and dynamic sociology**. The idea of this division is borrowed from biology that is in keeping with his notions of a hierarchy of sciences. Biology is a science that precedes sociology and thus shares common features with this science.

The static sociology studies the conditions of the existence of society while **the dynamic sociology studies** the continuous movement or laws of the succession of individual stages in society.

Auguste Comte's ideas have influenced several major sociologists like Sorokin, J.S Mill, Max Weber, Emile Durkheim and several others. His laws of three stages have been more or less rejected by the contemporary sociologists. But the essential notion of stages of development in ideas and culture in a modified form has been accepted.

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English philosopher and sociologist Herbert Spencer (1820- 1903) drew on Comte's ideas and argued that, just as the world of nature was subject to biological evolution, so societies were subject to social evolution. This took the form of structural differentiation through which simple societies develop over time into more and more complex forms with an increasingly diverse array of separate social institutions; and functional adaptation the way that societies accommodate themselves to their environment. Spencer argued that it was through structural differentiation that societies became functionally better adapted, and the industrial societies of the nineteenth century were essentially demonstrating a form of social evolution, emerging out of the more static and hierarchical societies that preceded them. Spencer also thought that the principle of 'survival of the fittest' applied in social as well as biological evolution, and he was not in favor of state intervention to support the vulnerable or disadvantaged.

Spencer tried to apply in his investigation of all fields of knowledge his idea of social evolution. In comparing human society with an organism that is essentially what organic analogy means. He noted the differences between the biological organism and society. He maintained that a society as an entity is something more than and other than an organism even though human organisms are members of it. It is a total system of elements of social organization and their interdependent functions. It is a super –organic entity an organizational entity over and above the level of the organism. Spencer accepted the ideas that a society was more than a collective nature for a number of individuals. That is it is not a collection of several individuals but is a distinct entity. The whole is more than its parts. Thus a house is more than a mere collection of bricks, wood and stone. It involves a certain ordering of parts. He believed that unlike biological organisms where the parts exist for the benefit of the whole, in society it is the whole that exists for the benefit of the parts. Spencer told people through sociology that human beings should not interfere with the natural processes in societies.

He had great faith in the innate instinct of freedom and believed any interference with this instinct to be harmful. His concept of society as a super –organic system had several problems. He was unable to see culture as part of an integrated whole. His explanation regarding the social evolution of societies from simple to compound and so on was also full of errors. However he formulated an integral theory of all reality. His law of evolution is a cosmic law and his theory is a philosophical theory rather than sociological. His ideas became popular because they served the need of his time the desire for unifying knowledge and the need to explain in a scientific manner the *laissez faire* principle.

Functionalism holds that society is a complex system whose various parts work together to produce stability and solidarity. According to this

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approach, the discipline of sociology should investigate the relationship of parts of society to each other and to society as a whole. We can analyze the religious beliefs and customs of a society, for example, by showing how they relate to other institutions within it, for the different parts of a society develop in close relation to one another.

To study the function of a social practice or institution is to analyze the contributions which that practice, or institution, makes to the continuation of society. Functionalists including Comte and Durkheim have often used an organic analogy to compare the operation of society to that of a living organism. They argue that the parts of society work together, just as the various parts of the human body do, for the benefit of society as a whole. To study a bodily organ like the heart, we need to show how it relates to other parts of the body. By pumping blood around the body, the heart plays a vital role in the continuation of the life of the organism. Similarly, analyzing the function of a social item means showing the part it plays in the continued existence and health of a society. Functionalism emphasizes the importance of moral consensus, in maintaining order and stability in society. Moral consensus exists when most people in a society share the same values. Functionalists regard order and balance as the normal state of society this social equilibrium is grounded in the existence of a moral consensus among the members of society. For instance, Durkheim argued that religion reaffirms people's adherence to core social values, thereby contributing to the maintenance of social cohesion.

Talcott Parsons and Robert K. Merton drew extensively on Durkheim, were two of its most prominent adherents. Merton's version of functionalism has been particularly influential. Merton distinguished between manifest and latent functions. Manifest functions are those known to, and intended by, the participants in a specific type of social activity. Latent functions are consequences of that activity of which participants are unaware. Merton also distinguished between functions and dysfunctions. To look for the dysfunctional aspects of social behavior means focusing on features of social life that challenges the existing order of things.

2.3.1 EXAMPLES OF FUNCTIONALISM

- ❖ **Aging** (disengagement theory): As people age they gradually withdraw from society and are relieved of responsibilities, providing an orderly transition between generations. This shift justifies the discrimination (ageism) older people experience as they now less useful to society.
- ❖ **Deviance**: Creates social solidarity by branding some behaviors as deviant, those that are labelled deviant will develop a collective identity.
- ❖ **Education**: Transmits knowledge to the next generation, teaching good citizenship, and preparation for future work.
- ❖ **Family**: Provides reproduction and protection of children; as a primary agent of socialization fosters understanding of expected behaviors, norms, and values;
- ❖

2.3.2 FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVE

The functionalist perspective is based largely on the works of Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, Talcott Parsons, and Robert Merton. According to functionalism, society is a system of interconnected parts that work together in harmony to maintain a state of balance and social equilibrium for the whole. For example, each of the social institutions contributes important functions for society: Family provides a context for reproducing, nurturing, and socializing children; education offers a way to transmit a society's skills, knowledge, and culture to its youth; politics provides a means of governing members of society; economics provides for the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services; and religion provides moral guidance and an outlet for worship of a higher power.

The functionalist perspective emphasizes the interconnectedness of society by focusing on how each part influences and is influenced by other parts. For example, the increase in singleparent and dual-earner families has contributed to the number of children who are failing in school because parents have become less available to supervise their children's homework. As a result of changes in technology, colleges are offering more technical programs, and many adults are returning to school to learn new skills that are required in the workplace. The increasing number of women in the workforce has contributed to the formulation of policies against sexual harassment and job discrimination.

Functionalists use the terms functional and dysfunctional to describe the effects of social elements on society. Elements of society are **functional** if they contribute to social stability **and dysfunctional** if they disrupt social stability. Some aspects of society can be both functional and dysfunctional. For example, crime is dysfunctional in that it is associated with physical violence, loss of property, and fear. But according to Durkheim and other functionalists, crime is also functional for society because it leads to heightened awareness of shared moral bonds and increased social cohesion.

Functionalists believe that society is held together by **social consensus**, or cohesion, in which members of the society agree upon, and work together to achieve, what is best for society as a whole. Emile Durkheim suggested that social consensus takes one of two forms:

- **Mechanical solidarity** is a form of social cohesion that arises when people in a society maintain similar values and beliefs and engages in similar types of work. Mechanical solidarity most commonly occurs in traditional, simple societies such as those in which everyone herds cattle or farms. Amish society exemplifies mechanical solidarity.

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- In contrast, **organic solidarity** is a form of social cohesion that arises when the people in a society are interdependent, but hold to varying values and beliefs and engage in varying types of work. Organic solidarity most commonly occurs in industrialized, complex societies such those in large American cities like New York in the 2000s.

Sociologists have identified two types of functions:

1. Manifest and
 2. Latent (Merton 1968).
1. **Manifest functions** are consequences that are intended and commonly recognized.
 2. **Latent functions** are consequences that are unintended and often hidden.

For example, the manifest function of education is to transmit knowledge and skills to society's youth. But public elementary schools also serve as babysitters for employed parents, and colleges offer a place for young adults to meet potential mates. The baby-sitting and mate-selection functions are not the intended or commonly recognized functions of education; hence they are latent functions.

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Who is the "Father of Positivism?"
2. What are the two major parts in sociology?
3. What is called Mechanical solidarity?

2.4 CONFLICT THEORY

Karl Marx's theoretical perspective is referred to as historical materialism. Marx argues that the dominant ideas and ideals of an age are reflections of the dominant way of life, specifically of a society's mode of production. Marx's historical studies led him to argue that there had been a very long, but structured historical development of human societies.

In the ancient past, small-scale human groups existed with no developed system of property ownership. Instead, all the resources acquired were communally owned and no class divisions were present. Marx called this a form of primitive communism. As the production of these groups increased, this mode of production was effectively outgrown and a new mode emerged, this time with some private property ownership such as in ancient Greece and Rome. From here, societies developed based on settled agriculture and feudal property relations.

The European system of feudalism was based on a class division between landowners and landless peasants and tenant farmers, who were forced to work for the landowners in order to survive. But the feudal mode of

production also reached its productive limitations and the system gave way to the capitalist society.

The first capitalists began to invest in workshops and manufacturing in the sixteenth century; by the time of the French Revolution in 1789, they had grown numerous and powerful enough to become a revolutionary force in history. Under capitalism, class antagonisms were greatly simplified, with society' splitting into two great camps' - the property owners and the workers. The capitalist revolution broke the bounds of traditional feudal production systems, demanding a new discipline and long hours from workers so that capitalists could extract a profit from using their labor power.

Marx expected capitalism itself to give way to another mode of production, communism, brought about by disaffected workers who develop class-consciousness in which private property is abolished and communal social relations are established. Modern communism would have all the benefits of the highly productive capitalist system at its disposal. Marx theorized the inevitability of a workers' revolution which would overthrow the capitalist system and usher in a new society in which there would be no classes - no large-scale divisions between rich and poor. He did not mean that all inequalities between individuals would disappear. Rather, society would no longer be split into a small class that monopolizes economic and political power and the large mass of people who benefit little from the wealth their work creates. The economic system would come under communal ownership, and a more humane society would be established. Marx argued that, in the society of the future, production would be more advanced and efficient than production under capitalism.

In his classic work, *Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society* Dahrendorf argues that functionalist thinkers only consider one side of society those aspects of social life where there is harmony and agreement. Just as important, or more so, are areas marked by conflict and division. Conflict, Dahrendorf says, comes mainly from different interests that individuals and groups have. Marx saw differences of interest mainly in terms of classes, but Dahrendorf relates them more broadly to authority and power. In all societies there is a division between those who hold authority and those who are largely excluded from it between rulers and ruled.

2.4.1 CONFLICT PERSPECTIVE

The functionalist perspective views society as composed of different parts working together. In contrast, the conflict perspective views society as composed of different groups and interest competing for power and resources. The conflict perspective explains various aspects of our social world by looking at which groups have power and benefit from a particular social arrangement. For example, feminist theory argues that we live in a patriarchal society—a hierarchical system of organization controlled by men. Although there are many varieties of feminist theory, most would hold that feminism

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“demands that existing economic, political, and social structures be changed” (Weir and Faulkner 2004,).

The origins of the conflict perspective can be traced to the classic works of Karl Marx. Marx suggested that all societies go through stages of economic development. As societies evolve from agricultural to industrial, concern over meeting survival needs is replaced by concern over making a profit, the hallmark of a capitalist system. Industrialization leads to the development of two classes of people: the bourgeoisie, or the owners of the means of production (e.g., factories, farms, businesses); and the proletariat, or the workers who earn wages.

The division of society into two broad classes of people—the “haves” and the “havenot’s”—is beneficial to the owners of the means of production. The workers, who may earn only subsistence wages, are denied access to the many resources available to the wealthy owners. According to Marx, the bourgeoisie use their power to control the institutions of society to their advantage. For example, Marx suggested that religion serves as an “opiate of the masses” in that it soothes the distress and suffering associated with the working-class lifestyle and focuses the workers’ attention on spirituality, God, and the afterlife rather than on such worldly concerns as living conditions. In essence, religion diverts the workers so that they concentrate on being rewarded in heaven for living a moral life rather than on questioning their exploitation.

2.4.2 LIMITATIONS

Not surprisingly, the primary limitation of the social-conflict perspective is that it overlooks the stability of societies. While societies are in a constant state of change, much of the change is minor. Many of the broader elements of societies remain remarkably stable over time, indicating the structural-functional perspective has a great deal of merit.

As noted above, sociological theory is often complementary. This is particularly true of structural-functionalism and social-conflict theories. Structural-functionalism focuses on equilibrium and solidarity; conflict-theory focuses on change and conflict. Keep in mind that neither is better than the other; when combined, the two approaches offer a broader and more comprehensive view of society.

Check your progress– 1I

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. The division of society into two broad classes of peopleand

5. Whose theoretical perspective is referred as historical materialism?

6. The origins of the conflict perspective can be traced to the classic works of

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2.5 INTERACTIONISM

2.5.1 DEFINITION OF INTERACTIONISM

Interactionism in sociology is a theoretical perspective in which society is thought to be a product of the everyday social interactions among millions of people. Instead of looking at a social system on a larger scale, such as the entire population of a country or third world countries, interactionism focuses on smaller-scale social interactions, such as the interactions between individuals or small social groups. George Herbert Mead, Max Weber, and Herbert Blumer have all made several contributions to the interactionism theory.

Interactionism in sociology focuses on the way that we act, or make conscious choices regarding our behavior that proceed from how we interpret situations. In other words, humans are not simply reacting to social stimuli: we are social actors and must adjust our behavior based on the actions of other social actors.

Interactionism in sociology examines how different social actors make sense of or interpret the behavior of those around us. This information can be used to understand the social construction of the world, which is focused on not only the meanings that we give to behavior, but also how we interpret the meanings of behavior.

For example, suppose that we were driving along a road when a truck speeds by us going 20 miles per hour over the speed limit. We would interpret that behavior as being wrong and illegal since the car was breaking the speed limit. Now let's say that we heard a siren and saw that the truck was actually a red fire truck going to put out a fire. Then we would interpret this behavior as acceptable given the fact that the fire truck has a good reason for breaking the speed limit.

Interactionism is also concerned with the social context in which our interactions take place. The social context not only plays an important role in the way in which we interpret others' behavior but also how we choose to behave ourselves at any given moment.

Psychologically, interactionism refers to the theory that the mind is composed of two separate entities, mind and body, each of which affects the

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other. For instance, the mind can visualize actions (such as a sports performance) that the body can then emulate. Likewise, exercise activates endorphins that can cause a mental "high" that is similar to drug use and causes a person can feel good. In sociology, interactionism becomes a theoretical perspective that tries to derive social processes from human interactions. These processes (such as conflict, cooperation, or identity formation) are examined as a study of how individuals can shape their society and are likewise shaped by society.

In sociology, interactionism is a theoretical perspective that understands social processes (such as conflict, cooperation, identity formation) as emerging from human interaction. Scholars of this perspective study how individuals act within society and believe that meaning is produced through the interactions of individuals. According to interactionists, gender stratification exists because people act toward each other on the basis of the meanings they have for one another. Interactionists believe that these meanings are derived through social interaction and that these meanings are managed and transformed through an interpretive process that people use to make sense of, and handle, the objects that constitute their social worlds.

Goffman and Control

Social interaction is a face-to-face process that consists of actions, reactions, and mutual adaptation between two or more individuals. The goal of social interaction is to communicate with others. Social interaction includes all language, including body language and mannerisms. Erving Goffman, one of the forefathers of this theoretical perspective, emphasized the importance of control in social interactions. According to Goffman, during an interaction, individuals will attempt to control the behavior of the other participants, in order to attain needed information, and in order to control the perception of one's own image. If the interaction is in danger of ending before an individual wants it to, it can be conserved through several steps. One conversational partner can conform to the expectations of the other, he or she can ignore certain incidents, or he or she can solve apparent problems.

Symbolic Interactionism

Symbolic interactionism aims to understand human behavior by analyzing the critical role of symbols in human interaction. This is certainly relevant to the discussion of masculinity and femininity, because the characteristics and practices of both are socially constructed, reproduced, and reinforced through daily interactions. Imagine, for example, that you walk into a bank, hoping to get a small loan for school, a home, or a small business venture. If you meet with a male loan officer, you might state your case logically, listing all of the hard numbers that make you a qualified applicant for the loan. This type of approach would appeal to the analytical

characteristics typically associated with masculinity. If you meet with a female loan officer, on the other hand, you might make an emotional appeal, by stating your positive social intentions. This type of approach would appeal to the sensitive and relational characteristics typically associated with femininity

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.Gender as Performance

The meanings attached to symbols are socially created and fluid, instead of natural and static. Because of this, we act and react to symbols based on their current assigned meanings. Both masculinity and femininity are performed gender identities, in the sense that gender is something we do or perform, not something we are. In response to this phenomena, the sociologist Charles H. Cooley's developed the theory of the "looking-glass self" (1902). In this theory, Cooley argued that an individual's perception of himself or herself is based primarily how society views him or her. In the context of gender, if society perceives a man as masculine, that man will consider himself as masculine. Thus, when people perform tasks or possess characteristics based on the gender role assigned to them, they are said to be doing gender (rather than "being" gender), a notion first coined by West and Zimmerman (1987). West & Zimmerman emphasized that gender is maintained through accountability. Men and women are expected to perform their gender to the point that it is naturalized, and thus, their status depends on their performance.

2.5.2 SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONIST PERSPECTIVE

Both the functionalist and the conflict perspectives are concerned with how broad aspects of society, such as institutions and large social groups, influence the social world. This level of sociological analysis is called macro sociology: It looks at the big picture of society and suggests how social problems are affected at the institutional level.

Micro sociology, another level of sociological analysis, is concerned with the social psychological dynamics of individuals interacting in small groups. Symbolic interactionism reflects the micro-sociological perspective, and was largely influenced by the work of early sociologists and philosophers, such as George Simmel, Charles Cooley, George Herbert Mead, and Erving Goffman. Symbolic interactionism emphasizes that human behavior is influenced by definitions and meanings that are created and maintained through symbolic interaction with others.

Sociologist W.I. Thomas (1966) emphasized the importance of definitions and meanings in social behavior and its consequences. He suggested that humans respond to their definition of a situation rather than to the objective situation itself. Hence Thomas noted that situations that we define as real become real in their consequences.

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Symbolic interactionism also suggests that our identity or sense of self is shaped by social interaction. We develop our self-concept by observing how others interact with us and label us. By observing how others view us, we see a reflection of ourselves that Cooley calls the “looking glass self.”

2.5.3 LIMITATIONS

The most significant limitations of symbolic interactionism relate to its primary contribution: it focuses on the ongoing construction and contestation of meanings in society (e.g., norms, rules, cultures, and interpersonal experiences), which can only be grasped via examination of small groups or individual beings. As a result, Symbolic Interactionism typically focuses on "how" things are done (e.g., the ways people accomplish things that can be observed in real time and in the natural world) rather than "why" things are done (e.g., hypotheses that can only be examined within mathematical and / or experimental settings disconnected from the natural world). As a result, Symbolic Interactionism is more adequately suited to explaining how the world is, but is unable to demonstrate and document predictions about how the world might differ, if circumstances were hypothetically altered.

Check your progress– III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

7. Define - Interactionism

8. What is the aim of symbolic interactionism?

9. Which theory was developed by Charles H. Cooley?

2.6 LET US SUM UP

Functionalism has its origins in the works of Emile Durkheim, who was especially interested in how social order is possible or how society remains relatively stable. It focuses on the macro-level of social structure. Notable theorists include Herbert Spencer, Talcott Parsons, and Robert K. Merton. Functionalism holds that society is a complex system whose various parts work together to produce stability and solidarity. According to functionalism, society is a system of interconnected parts that work together in harmony to maintain a state of balance and social equilibrium for the whole. Functionalists use the terms functional and dysfunctional to describe the effects of social elements on society.

Karl Marx's theoretical perspective is referred to as historical materialism. The origins of the conflict perspective can be traced to the classic works of Karl Marx. The primary limitation of the social-conflict perspective is that it overlooks the stability of societies.

In sociology, interactionism is a theoretical perspective that understands social processes (such as conflict, cooperation, identity formation) as emerging from human interaction. Scholars of this perspective study how individuals act within society and believe that meaning is produced through

the interactions of individuals. Symbolic interactionism aims to understand human behavior by analyzing the critical role of symbols in human interaction. West & Zimmerman emphasized that gender is maintained through accountability. Men and women are expected to perform their gender to the point that it is naturalized, and thus, their status depends on their performance. The most significant limitations of symbolic interactionism relate to its primary contribution: it focuses on the ongoing construction and contestation of meanings in society.

In this unit you have learnt Functionalism. Conflict theory and Interactionism have been discussed in detail.

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2.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. What is called manifest and latent function?
2. Discuss Functionalism
3. Enumerate Conflict theory
4. Define Interactionism.
5. Explain the perspective of Interactionism.

2.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Auguste Comte
2. static and dynamic sociology
3. Mechanical solidarity is a form of social cohesion that arises when people in a society maintain similar values and beliefs and engages in similar types of work. Mechanical solidarity most commonly occurs in traditional, simple societies such as those in which everyone herds cattle or farms
4. “haves” and “havenots”
5. Karl Marx's
6. Karl Marx
7. Interactionism in sociology is a theoretical perspective in which society is thought to be a product of the everyday social interactions among millions of people.
8. Symbolic interactionism aims to understand human behavior by analyzing the critical role of symbols in human interaction.
9. Looking – glass self

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UNIT- III SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Social Disorganization
- 3.4 Meaning
 - 3.4.1 Concept of Social Disorganization
 - 3.4.2 Definition of Social Disorganization
- 3.5 Characteristics
- 3.6 Types
 - 3.6.1 Personal Disorganization
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 - 3.6.4 Symptoms of Social Disorganisation
 - 3.6.5 Causes of Social Disorganisation
- 3.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.8 Unit- End- Exercises
- 3.9 Answer to check your Progress
- 3.10 Suggested Readings

NOTES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Social disorganisation is the process opposed to social organisation. Social disorganization may thus be more or less, when the forces of social change create a threat to social stability and as a result of which there arise social problems. Just as a disease is known by its symptoms the nature of social disorganisations can be understood by means of its characteristics. Every society has its own mores and institutions which regulate the social life of its members. Due to the dynamic nature of society some of these functions either undergo radical change or get transferred to other groups or agencies. In any instance of social disorganisation the following conditions may be present in one way or another either individually or collectively. In most of the cases, they are found in a combined form. Elliot and Merrill have spoken of three types of disorganisation which are, of course, interrelated. They are as follows: Personal Disorganization, Family Disorganization, and Community Disorganisation.

In this unit you will learn Meaning of Social Disorganization. You will know the Characteristics of Social Disorganization and Types of Social Disorganization.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

- After going through the unit you will be able to;
- ✓ Discuss about Social Disorganization
 - ✓ understand the meaning of Social Disorganization
 - ✓ know the Characteristics of Social Disorganization
 - ✓ gain the knowledge about the types of Social Disorganization

3.3 SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

Social disorganization, as part of a theory of urban ecology, presented by Robert E. Park and Ernest Burgess (1925), proposed that society functions like a super organism. This organism can grow and change, but as population and stressors grow "disorganization" follows which causes society to make changes in order to regain stability and to repair the "disorganization." This disorganization can take the form of crime and other disruptions that can affect a segment of society. The theory of social disorganization suggests that the ecological and environmental characteristics of a locale directly influence the characteristics of the individuals in that community. So there is a correlation between disadvantaged areas and higher rates of crime because of lack of resources, environmental stressors, and subcultures that approve delinquent and criminal behaviors.

Social Disorganization is disruption or breakdown of the structure of social relations and values resulting in the loss of social controls over individual and group behavior, the development of social isolation and conflict, and a sense of estrangement or alienation from the mainstream of one's culture; the condition or state of anomie

3.4 MEANING

3.4.1 CONCEPT OF SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

So far we have discussed the concept of social organization. Let us understand the meaning of social disorganization.

The term 'social disorganization' is a relative concept. There is nothing like perfect social organization. Social organization implies a certain degree of social disorganization. As there may be various degrees of social organization, so is the case with social disorganization. Social disorganization may thus be more or less, when the forces of social change create a threat to social stability and as a result of which there arise social problems.

Social disorganization implies some breakdown in the social organization, which may be more or less according to the forces of social change operating at a particular time. In the words of Elliott and Merrill (1940), "social disorganization" represents a breakdown in the equilibrium of forces, decay in the social structure, so that old habits and forms of social control no longer function effectively'. Mowrer (1943) defines social disorganization as "whereas social organization consists of individual responses as a consequence of the operation of conventionalized patterns of consensus and control, any change in the cultural context, which impedes or destroys the functioning of the patterns of coordination which constitute the social order represents social disorganization. Gillin and Gillin (1951) points out "social disorganization means such serious maladjustment between the various elements in the total cultural configuration as to endanger the survival of the group, or as to endanger the survival of the group or as seriously to interfere with the satisfaction of the fundamental desires of its members, with the result that social cohesion is destroyed.

Social disorganisation is the process opposed to social organisation. Social organisation, Some Fundamental Concepts', is an orderly relationship of parts. The significance of this orderly arrangement lies in what it does. When the parts of social structure do not perform their functions efficiently and effectively or perform them badly, there occurs an imbalance in society.

NOTES

3.4.2 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

The social equilibrium is disturbed and society gets out of gear. Emile Durkheim defined social disorganisation as "a state of disequilibrium and a lack of social solidarity or consensus among the members of a society." W.I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki conceived of social disorganisation as "a decrease of the influence of existing rules of behaviour upon individual members of the groups."

According to Mowever, social disorganization is "the process by which the relationships between members of a group are shaken." Stuart A. Queen, Walter B. Bodenhafer, and Ernest B. Harper described social disorganisation in their book 'Social Organisation and Disorganisation' as the counterpart of social organisation.

According to them, just as social organisation provides the means by which a society maintains its unity and cohesion through effective control of its members, and, hence, functions smoothly; social disorganisation causes a weakening of group solidarity, loss of control over its members, and, therefore, conflict and disintegration.

According to Ogburn and Nimkoff when the harmonious relationship between the various parts of culture is disturbed, social disorganisation ensue. According to R.E.L. Faris, "Social disorganization is a disturbance in the patterns and mechanisms of human relations. According to Elliott and Merrill, "Social disorganisation is the process by which the relationship between members of the group are broken or dissolved."

Thus on the basis of these definitions it may be said that social disorganisation refers to serious mal-adjustments rather than un-adjustments in society so that they fail to satisfy the needs of the individuals satisfactorily. Society, as we know, is the web of social relationships. In an organised society social relations have some patterns and mechanisms. When the relations become disordered or disintegrated there is social disorganisation.

In a well organised society the various institutions are in a harmonious adjustment or, in other words, there exists functional balance between the various elements of the social structure. When there is a lack of adjustment and balance and institutions do not function in a manner that satisfies all the individuals, we can speak of social disorganisation.

Social disorganisation, therefore, is to be considered in terms of functional disequilibrium, it is disequilibrium within customs, institutions, groups, communities and societies. Comparing social disorganisation with social organisation Queen and Harper write, “If social organisation means the development of relationships which persons and groups find mutually satisfactory, then disorganisation means their replacement by relationships which bring disappointment, thwarted wishes, irritation and unhappiness.” Social disorganisation often brings personal disorganisation, since a person is a social creation and his “self” a social product.

It may be, however, noted that no objective criteria for measuring the degree of disorganisation are available; whether a situation represents organisation or disorganisation is largely a matter of subjective judgment. For example, divorce may be thought of as signifying family disorganisation. Actually it may be due to a better knowledge of the divorce laws and altered attitudes towards marriage.

Social disorganisation means breaking or dismantling or dispersing of the social system, social institutions and social relationships.

- It increases when there is no general agreement and individuals define the important interests of the society in purely individualistic terms.
- When there is a change in the equilibrium of forces or a breakdown of the social structure.

CAUSES OF SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

- ❖ Psychological factors include the social processes like imitation, conflict, competition, accommodation.
- ❖ Cultural factors: maladjustment in the existing institutions, cultural lag, cultural conflict.
- ❖ Biological factors: include population explosion, interracial marriages, inter caste marriages.
- ❖ Physical factors include storms, earthquake, sea currents, tsunami etc.
- ❖ Social Problems include unemployment, corruption.
- ❖ Degeneration of values includes wars, criminality suicides etc
- ❖ Others causes includes confusion of roles, lack of proper planning etc
- ❖ Social and cultural factors
 - ✓ Sheer poverty
 - ✓ Business Reverses
 - ✓ Economic independence of the wife
 - ✓ Occupational tensions
 - ✓ Difference in cultural background
 - ✓ Disparity in age
 - ✓ Ill- health
 - ✓ Parent child relationship

✓ Interference of in-laws

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Define social disorganisation.
2. Write down the biological factors which cause social disorganisation.
3. Differentiate social organisation and social disorganisation.

3.5 CHARACTERISTICS

Just as a disease is known by its symptoms the nature of social disorganisations can be understood by means of its characteristics

1. Conflict of Mores and of Institutions

Every society has its own mores and institutions which regulate the social life of its members. With the passage of time some of these mores and institutions may become obsolete. New ideals and new institutions may arise to suit new needs.

The existing mores and institutions instead of giving place for the new ones may come in conflict with them. This conflict between the old and new may destroy the social consensus. With the destruction of consensus, the organisation is disrupted.

For example, in India, such conflicts may be found very often with regard to social practices, ideals, and institutions relating to divorce, female education, joint family, family control, widow remarriage, intercaste marriage, dowry system, untouchability family planning, etc.

2. Transfer of functions from one group to another

In an organised society the functions of different groups are relatively well defined and almost predetermined. Due to the dynamic nature of society some of these functions either undergo radical change or get transferred to other groups or agencies.

As a result of this, social disorganisation may set in even if it is for a temporary period. For example, the joint family in India is no more performing some of its traditional functions for these have been transferred to some external agencies.

Hence the joint family system is facing a crisis now. Some say, it is in a state of severe disorganisation and this may even lead to its extinction as it is happening in big cities. Similarly, the functions of caste and religious

organisations have been transferred to other organisations or agencies leading to crisis.

3. Individuation

The modern age places a high premium on individualism or individualistic tendencies. Now everyone is more prone to think of himself and in terms of his own pleasures and wishes and expectations. Important issues such as education, occupation, marriage, recreation morality, etc., have almost become matters of individual decisions.

Individuals often fail to think in terms of the expectations and wishes of the groups or organisations of which they are a part. This tendency is, of course, caused by the changing social values. But it may shatter the social organisation and may drive it towards a state of disorganisation.

4. Inconsistency between expectations and achievements

In a disorganised society considerable inconsistency is visible between the expectations embodied in the social role and the extent to which these expectations can be realised by most persons. When a large number of people in the society try to achieve goals in an anti-social manner there is a clear indication of the society being in a state of social disorganisation.

For instance, if a large number of students take part regularly in strikes and indulge in violence and resort to malpractices in examination, we have no hesitation to say that the college education system has become a disorganised one.

According to Cottrell, "In a disorganised society there is a considerable discrepancy between what is given verbally and which is demonstrated in practice. An organised society has greater congruity between expectation and realisation but such is not the case in a disorganised society where the expectations do not come upto their full realisation".

5. Inconsistency between status and role

In an organised society the status and role of each individual are well defined and hence the possibility of a conflict taking place between the two is comparatively less. Changing social values and social conditions may bring about some conflicts between status of the individuals and their roles. Due to this disorganisation may set in.

Thus, a disorganised society is characterised by an extreme uncertainty and ambiguity of social roles. Example: Due to the change in her status, a modern housewife in an advanced society is not sure whether she should play

the role of mother, or an employee, or a light-hearted companion, a social leader, and so on.

She may try to perform all roles assigned to her, but not successfully. Her failure to perform the roles successfully may lead to personal dissatisfaction, frustration and insecurity which may disrupt the family life.

NOTES

Finally, it may be said that in any instance of social disorganisation the following conditions may be present in one way or another either individually or collectively. In most of the cases, they are found in a combined form.

Those conditions are : (1) diversity of opinions; (2) heterogeneity of population; (3) mutual distrust; (4) uncertainty and insecurity; (5) individuality and variety in interests and attitudes; (6) emphasis on rights rather than on duties; (7) contradiction between status and function; (8) lack of clarity in status and roles; (9) conflict of mores and conflict between institutions; (10) absence of or decreased social control; (11) conflict between society and individual, and (12) disregard of values, norms and laws.

Check your progress – II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. Mention the inconsistency between expectations and achievements in a disorganised society.

5. Enumerate the conditions found in any instance of social disorganisation.

3.6 TYPES OF SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

Elliot and Merrill have spoken of three types of disorganisation which are, of course, interrelated. They are as follows:

(i) Personal or Individual disorganisation which includes crime, insanity, or mental derangement, prostitution, juvenile delinquency, alcoholism, drug addiction, gambling and suicide.

(ii) Family Disorganisation which consists of divorce, desertion, separation, broken home, unmarried mothers, illegitimate births and venereal disease.

(iii) Community Disorganisation which comprises of poverty, beggary, unemployment, overpopulation, lawlessness, political corruption, crime and so on.

1. Personal Disorganization

2. Family Disorganization
3. Community Disorganisation

3.6.1 PERSONAL DISORGANIZATION

- ❖ Personal disorganization represents the behavior of the individual which deviates from the social norms.
- ❖ Any various behavior which disturbs the integration of the attitude system within the personality represents called personal disorganization.
- ❖ It means that the individual is out of adjustment with society, who has failed to organize the chief goals of his life.
- ❖ It may be mild or violent.
- ❖ When the parts of social structure do not perform their functions efficiently and effectively or perform them badly, there occurs an imbalance in society.
- ❖ The social equilibrium is disturbed and society gets out of gear because of personal disorganization.
- ❖ Personal disorganization refers to breakdown in institutional control and group consensus.
- ❖ A disorganized person is one who is unbalanced, uncoordinated and one sided.

STAGES OF PERSONAL DISORGANIZATION

- ❖ **First Stage:** In the first stage there is a problem and the individual attempts to find a solution. But if the individual fails to find a solution, he loses his stability.
- ❖ **Second Stage:** If there is no satisfactory solution, the individual will enter the second stage of disorganization. Here the individual remains permanently unadjusted.
- ❖ **Third Stage:** This stage lead to insanity or suicide.

CAUSES OF PERSONAL DISORGANIZATION

- ❖ **Biological factors:** These include difficulties arising out of functional disorder e.g physical illness, injury, mental deficiencies.
- ❖ **Environment factors:** This includes situations like economic distress, confusion.
- ❖ **Insecurity of status and role:** when there is lack of recognized and accepted status this further result in disorganization.
- ❖ **Social Crises:** It includes loss of property, death of bread winner etc.

EFFECTS OF PERSONAL DISORGANIZATION

- ❖ It gives rise to frustration
- ❖ The people may get alcoholic
- ❖ Criminal activities

- ❖ Drug addiction
- ❖ Family disorganization
- ❖ Community disorganization
- ❖ Job discrimination

SUGGESTIONS

- ❖ Adjust according to the norms and standards of society.
- ❖ Stick with you organizes.
- ❖ Take control of your life.
- ❖ People should satisfy with what they have.

NOTES

3.6.2. FAMILY DISORGANIZATION

- Family disorganization includes any type of non- harmonious functioning within the family.
- Family disorganization thus comprises not only the tensions between husband and wife but also between the siblings and parents and children and husband and wife.
- When the intimate relationships between the family members breaks down.
- When misunderstandings and incompatibilities are growing up among family members lead to disruption, disturbance and anxiety which causes family disorganization.
- Family disorganization refers to social disorganization, there are many factors which cause social disorganization but family disorganization is the most common factor among the youth.

CAUSES OF FAMILY DISORGANIZATION

- ❖ Incompatibility like in age, mentality etc.
- ❖ Conflict, including abuse / neglect
- ❖ Lack of privacy
- ❖ Strength of communication
- ❖ Less time given to family
- ❖ Change in attitude Lack of mutual understanding

EFFECTS OF FAMILY DISORGANIZATION

- ❖ Stress and mental illness
- ❖ Sense of un-security
- ❖ Divorce
- ❖ Criminals/ social evils
- ❖ hopelessness
- ❖ Attempt suicide
- ❖ Emotionally un-satisfaction/ disturbance

RECOMMENDATIONS / SUGGESTION

- ❖ To improve the family organization
- ❖ It is necessary to learn three R's of order which are: rules, roles and rights.

- ❖ Explain the family members about our view points.
- ❖ Better and smooth communication among the family members.
- ❖ Every member should give time to their family.

NOTES

3.6.3 COMMUNITY DISORGANISATION

Community Disorganisation, which comprises of poverty, beggary, unemployment, overpopulation, lawlessness, political corruption, crime and so on.

3.6.4 SYMPTOMS OF SOCIAL DISORGANISATION

Social disorganisation is an indication of the existence of diseased or disruptive elements in society. Mabel, A. Elliot and Francis E. Merrill have pointed out that social disorganisation may be of three types i.e., disorganisation of the individual, the family, and community. Among the symptoms of personal disorganisation they included juvenile delinquency, various types of crime, insanity, drunkenness, suicide and prostitution.

Among the symptoms of family disorganisation they included divorce, illegitimate births, desertion and venereal disease. Among the symptoms of community disorganisation they included poverty, unemployment, crime and political corruption. It may be, however, noted that no definite distinction can be made among the three types of disorganisation because they are interdependent.

Calvin F Schmid listed the following symptoms of disorganised communities: high rate of population mobility, high rates of divorce, desertion, illegitimacy, dependency, delinquency and criminality, a disproportionately high rate of males, a low rate of home ownership, high rates of suicides, commercialized vice and death from disease and alcoholism.

Herbert A. Bloch divided the symptoms of social disorganisation into two categories:

- (1) The sociological, and
- (2) The literary-ideological. He divided the sociological symptoms into three classes: individual, family, and community. By literary-ideological symptoms he meant certain tendencies appearing in literary and artistic works which indicate a disturbed state of mind. Among these tendencies he mentioned nostalgic themes and themes dealing with personal frustration and rebellion or protest. Queen, Bodenhafer and Harper were included in their list of social disorganisation, unemployment, poverty, sickness, homelessness, insanity, and feeble-mindedness.

Faris has enumerated the following symptoms of social disorganisation

- (1) Formalism;
- (2) The decline of sacred elements;
- (3) Individuality of interests and tastes;
- (4) Emphasis on personal freedom and individual rights;
- (5) Hedonistic behaviour;

- (6) Population heterogeneity;
- (7) Mutual distrust;
- (8) Unrest phenomena.

3.6.5 CAUSES OF SOCIAL DISORGANISATION

Social disorganization has been and is always present in every society. As indicated above man since the dawn of civilization has been confronted with social problems of diverse nature. A society in which each structural element is functionally equilibrated with all the others is purely a hypothesis. If social disorganization is a widely prevalent phenomenon, then the question arises as to what leads to it.

NOTES

(i) Division of Labour

According to Emile Durkheim, extreme division of labour is the cause of social disorganization. Division of labour is generally productive of social solidarity; but when it becomes excessive and complex then solidarity diminishes or disappears and social equilibrium is disturbed. Extreme division of labour gives rise to economic crises of all kinds, class struggles, and industrial strife, and leads to the demoralization of individuals, the family, and the community. "In short" as Koenig puts, "it produces an abnormal, anomalous situation in which the different parts do not integrate but are at cross purposes with each other and a state of normlessness."

(ii) Violation of Social Rules

According to W.I. Thomas and Znaniecki, when the rules and regulations of society fail to keep individuals under control, social disorganisation sets in. In society there are always individuals who violate social rules. This has a disorganizing effect upon social institutions, and unless the violations are checked; they may eventually lead to the death of institutions. According to Elliot and Merrill, "Without social values neither social organisation nor social disorganisation would exist."

The changes in social values come into conflict with old values. The new values take time to adjust themselves in society. In the meantime social disorganisation spreads. The Traditional social values in Indian society have undergone a major change. As a result a major conflict between the old and new values has been created. Consequently, one sees the process of social disorganisation working rapidly.

(iii) Industrialization

Industrialization creates conditions leading to social disorganisation. Industrialization affects family structure and relationships. Industrialization as seen in system had led to capitalism, exploitation and class conflicts. It has also contributed to unemployment, crime, immorality, family disorganisation, urbanisation and its evils.

(iv) Cultural Lag

Ogburn maintained in Social Change that disorganisation is caused primarily by the unequal rates of change in the different parts of culture, resulting in a conflict between them. The disproportionate rates of change in various elements of the functionally interdependent component system of a changing social structure produce a condition of disequilibrium. This uneven

change is due to the fact that inventions and discoveries are made more frequently in certain parts of culture, usually the material parts, than in others.

Science and technology, while bringing a more efficient material culture, more knowledge, and a higher standard of living, produce social disorganisation as well. Thus Ogburn says, "When 10,000 musicians are thrown out of jobs as a result of 'canned' music through the sound film introduced in cinemas, the result is the disorganisation of orchestras, and musicians who cannot find employment."

Modern technology is changing at a rapid rate and creating important social changes with which our institutions have not yet caught up. Ogburn by analysing various social problems such as unemployment, poverty, crime, race conflict, family disorganisation and labour problems has shown that social disorganisation issues from the irregular changes of our culture.

(v) Natural Catastrophes

According to Ogburn, technological inventions, however, must not be considered the only cause of social disorganization, Ecological disturbances, i.e., disturbances in the relationship of man to his environment, including such natural phenomena as disease, earthquakes, floods, volcanic eruptions and various other catastrophic phenomena of nature, may also have a disorganizing effect on society.

When the Black Death visited England in 1348, it is said, it destroyed between a third and a half of the entire population in a little over a year. The effect of natural catastrophes on social organisation was great in the past; at present such catastrophes are more easily controlled.

We now have more knowledge with which to control or check epidemic, to build earthquake proof houses and to dam rivers against floods. However, recent experiences with floods in India suggest that the influence of geographic factors on social organisation should not be under-estimated.

Besides natural catastrophes there may be other types of crisis too which can cause social disorganisation. Thus the sudden death of a leader may create a crisis and throw the society out of gear. The murder of Mahatma Gandhi created such a crisis for India. A crisis may become cumulative as a result of a series of events taking place from time to time, the partition of India was a cumulative crisis.

The differences between the Congress and Muslim League went on increasing, hatred between Hindus and Muslims went on aggravating and communal clashes took place from time to time. The fire of communalism gradually spread. In the end the country had to be partitioned. Both the Indian and Pakistani societies were faced with serious problems which could not be solved even to this day.

(vi) War

While war is the result of social disorganisation, it is also its cause. War disturbs the economy of a country and introduces confusion and disorder in society. War leads to scarcity. There is economic crisis during the war period. It inflates the prices and the people resort to hoarding and black-marketing.

Further, war consumes the young men of the country. As a result young women are widowed. They are left with none to support them. That tends to weaken the sexual ties. War also affects the male-female ratio. Social values are also injured.

(vii) Maladaptation of Inherited Nature to Culture

Ogburn mentions another cause of social disorganisation and it is the lack of adaptation of man's inherited nature to the environment of group and culture. Man's nature is modified very slowly through changes in the germ plasm, whereas culture is altered with comparative rapidity.

Group life implies cooperation and respect for the rights of others, yet the aggressive, acquisitive tendencies of man are not readily accommodated to the restrictions imposed by the group. The social environment may thus impose requirements on man which he finds most difficult to fulfill. The life in modern urbanised society is highly competitive and very taxing causing many individuals to become demoralized or to suffer breakdowns.

It may also be noted that in modern societies, whereas the epidemic diseases have been brought under control, other physical disabilities, circulatory disorders, cancer and various degenerative conditions have become more common. The increase in these diseases is a product of the modern way of life.

Nervous tensions that are induced by the stresses and strains of social change are thought to be primarily responsible for much of the high blood pressure, faulty heart action and gastric ulcers. The mental disorders are also considered to be directly related to the modern way of life. It may be said that these diseases are the price that men pay for social change.

At the end, it may be said that social disorganisation is a process prevailing all over the world. In actual fact no society is completely organised. Some elements or the other of disorganisation are to be found in every society. When these elements grow more numerous their disorganised character becomes more apparent than others.

All societies are changing rapidly accumulating numerous cultural lags at every point. In the family, in the industry, in the government, in the school and in the church a number of cultural lags can be seen.

The traditional informal controls have failed to regulate the behaviour of individuals in modern society. Many people fail to internalize a coherent system of values and behaviour controls. They become disorganised and are diagnosed as mentally ill.

It may also be referred that some sociologists regard social disorganisation as a natural process than as a malady. Maladjustment or non-adjustment of different parts of social structure may prepare a way for a new social structure to emerge. Social disorganisation may thus prove beneficial to erase the old edifice and construct a new one.

But the new structure should be erected before social disorganisation can destroy the entire social fabric. Social disorganisation is a disease of society which must be treated rapidly and effectively before it becomes chronic and destroys the social organism.

NOTES

Check your progress – 1II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

6. What is called community disorganisation?
7. What are the symptoms of personal disorganisation?
8. Comment on industrialisation as a cause of social disorganisation.

3.7 LET US SUM UP

Social disorganisation means breaking or dismantling or dispersing of the social system, social institutions and social relationships. Social disorganization implies some breakdown in the social organization, which may be more or less according to the forces of social change operating at a particular time. Personal or Individual disorganisation which includes crime, insanity, or mental derangement, prostitution, juvenile delinquency, alcoholism, drug addiction, gambling and suicide. Family Disorganisation, which consists of divorce, desertion, separation, broken home, unmarried mothers, illegitimate births and venereal disease. Community Disorganisation, which comprises of poverty, beggary, unemployment, overpopulation, lawlessness, political corruption, crime and so on. Herbert A. Bloch divided the symptoms of social disorganisation into two categories: The sociological and literary-ideological. Division of labour, violation of social rules, industrialisation, cultural lag, natural catastrophes, war and maladaptation of inherited nature to culture are the causes of social disorganisation. Social disorganization has been and is always present in every society.

In this unit you have learnt meaning and Characteristics of Social Disorganization. The Types of Social Disorganization and causes of Social Disorganization also discussed in detail.

3.8UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. What is the Meaning of Social Disorganization?
2. Explain the Characteristics of Social Disorganization.
3. Enumerate the Types of Social Disorganization.

3.9ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. According to R.E.L. Faris, “Social disorganization is a disturbance in the patterns and mechanisms of human relations.
2. Population explosions, interracial marriages, inter caste marriages.
3. Social organisation means the development of relationships which persons and groups find mutually satisfactory, then disorganisation

means their replacement by relationships which bring disappointment, thwarted wishes, irritation and unhappiness.

4. In a disorganised society there is a considerable discrepancy between what is given verbally and which is demonstrated in practice and the expectations do not come upto their full realisation.
5. (1) diversity of opinions; (2) heterogeneity of population; (3) mutual distrust; (4) uncertainty and insecurity; (5) individuality and variety in interests and attitudes; (6) emphasis on rights rather than on duties; (7) contradiction between status and function; (8) lack of clarity in status and roles; (9) conflict of mores and conflict between institutions; (10) absence of or decreased social control; (11) conflict between society and individual, and (12) disregard of values, norms and laws.
6. Community Disorganisation, which comprises of poverty, beggary, unemployment, overpopulation, lawlessness, political corruption, crime and so on.
7. Juvenile delinquency, various types of crime, insanity, drunkenness, suicide and prostitution.
8. Industrialization creates conditions leading to social disorganisation. Industrialization as seen in system had led to capitalism, exploitation and class conflicts. It has also contributed to unemployment, crime, immorality, family disorganisation, urbanisation and its evils.

NOTES

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UNIT- IV APPROACHES: PATHOLOGY

Structure

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 - 4.3 Approaches
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4.1 INTRODUCTION

Social problems are described most simply as perplexing questions about human societies proposed for solution. Concern with social problems has been singularly American or Anglo-Saxon. The more immediate forerunners of what came to be the social problems approach emerged from writings, reports, essays, and surveys by Protestant clergymen, philanthropists, and middle-class humanitarians, in the United States as well as England, who were dedicated to a variety of social reform activities. Social pathology as a concept appeared late in the 19th and early in the 20th century, when sociologists classified as social pathology all human actions that contradicted with ideals such as residential stability, moderation, training to work, sexual maturity, family unity, neighborliness and discipline of the will. The study of social pathology is important to the maintenance of social health. The social pathology perspective is rooted in the organic analogy. It may be, however, noted that no objective criteria for measuring the degree of disorganisation are available; whether a situation represents organisation or disorganisation is largely a matter of subjective judgment. Deviance is defined as the recognized violation of cultural norms. One group of sociologists, following Durkheim,

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Parsons and Merton, has concentrated on sources of deviation in discontinuities, anomie, or strain within the structure of a society that is assumed to be more or less an integrated system. Within the sociology of deviance and crime, there are four key theoretical perspectives from which researchers study why people violate laws or norms, and how society reacts to such acts.

In this unit you will learn the Approaches of Pathology. You will know the meaning and Definition of social disorganization. You will learn the Approaches of Social Deviance

4.2 OBJECTIVES

- After going through the unit you will be able to;
- ✓ acquire the knowledge about Approaches of Pathology
 - ✓ gain the knowledge about Social Disorganization
 - ✓ identify the Approaches of Social Deviance
-

4.3 APPROACHES

The historical development of sociological work on social problems and deviance can be broken down into four relatively distinct periods: (1) the *social pathology* period, (2) the *social disorganization* period, (3) the *normative or functionalist* period, and (4) the *relativistic or constructionist* period (cf. Rubington & Weinberg, 1981). A distinct, specialized field of deviance did not exist in American sociology during the social pathology and social disorganization periods, which date from the turn of the 20th century to World War I and from the early 1920s to the middle 1930s, respectively. Instead, deviant phenomena were studied as only part of a more general area of sociological interest in urban social problems. The early conceptions of pathology and disorganization were applied to broad social issues such as urban poverty and community instability as well as to various forms of deviant behavior. Nonetheless, particularly during the social disorganization period, some important contributions by early sociologists set the stage for later, more specialized approaches to deviance.

Social problems are described most simply as perplexing questions about human societies proposed for solution. The distinctiveness of such questions as a separate object of sociological study rests upon their topicality, currency, and pragmatic derivation. Social problems are part of the climate of opinion in society which centers on expressed needs for public policies and anticipated requirements for social control. Social problems study or research consists of the ordering of perspectives and social facts in relation to the ends and means of collective action.

Proceeding beyond this general statement to a more precise definition of social problems poses a complicated task of sorting out the wide diversity of views held by sociologists as to the nature of the subject matter and the perspectives from which it should be studied (Merrill 1948). These conflicting

viewpoints, as well as salient misgivings shared by many as to whether social problems is a “field,” or can validly be included with sociology, are in part understandable in the context of the origins and history of sociology itself.

4.3.1 History of Social Problems Approach

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Concern with social problems has been singularly American or Anglo-Saxon. Antecedents can be found in the literature of socioeconomic criticism and reform which was directed at many of the consequences of commerce, industrialism, and urban growth in Western Europe, particularly eighteenth-century and nineteenth-century England. The more immediate forerunners of what came to be the social problems approach emerged from writings, reports, essays, and surveys by Protestant clergymen, philanthropists, and middle-class humanitarians, in the United States as well as England, who were dedicated to a variety of social reform activities. These included prison reform, settlement work, and child rescue, promotion of temperance, housing betterment, and improvement of conditions of employment of women and children; by the middle of the nineteenth century many of these had crystallized into organized actions or associations.

The roots of the intellectual orientation toward social problems as an academic subject are more precisely located in the broadly based American reform movement from which, in 1865, there issued the American Social Science Association. This represented a merger of a variety of local and regional associations, whose constituted objectives were clearly meliorative (Bernard & Bernard 1943). In large part it was responsible for the introduction of social science courses in American colleges and universities, beginning in 1865 and reaching a peak between 1885 and 1895. Many, if not most, of these courses, however titled, dealt with topics subsequently recognized as the substance of social problems courses in sociology with possibly somewhat greater attention paid to education and law.

The development of such courses reflected motivations of persons both within and outside the universities who were seeking to arouse and prepare students for careers of legislative reform. The courses attained quick popularity with students, many of whom were repelled by limitations of the classical or science curricula and who were fired by the social ferments of the post-Civil War period. Toward the end of the nineteenth century, when sociology began to receive formal departmental recognition in colleges and universities, many of those recruited to teach it came from backgrounds of the ministry and welfare work. The lineal ties of their versions of sociology to the older social science movement are attested by the substantial numbers of these early sociologists who were members of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections and of the American Prison Congress (Sutherland 1945).

4.3.2 Theoretical Issues

The most sweeping indictment of social problems writings appeared in an article by C. Wright Mills (1943) entitled "The Professional Ideology of Social Pathologists." With slashing phrases he more or less condemned an entire generation of social pathologists for the low conceptual level of their textbooks, the discrete and unrelated nature of their treatments of various social problems, and insertions of rural-biased value judgments in the guise of objective terminology. These observations while undeniably cogent and pointed, were closer to structure than to science, although they were organized around Mills's own brief for structural analysis of social problems data.

Closer study and more sanguine assessment of the field in the past make it less theoretical than it would seem, especially if the textbooks are disregarded in favor of provocative articles by Frank (1925), Waller (1936), and Fuller (1937; 1938; compare Fuller & Myers 1941a). These writers, especially Fuller, both saw and sought to analyze social problems in a general setting of values and value conflict. Fuller's distinction between ameliorative problems and moral problems, implications of which he developed in a paper on morals and the criminal law (1942), bears insightfully on structural questions concerning the relationship of values to norms and the contingency of legal action on variations in this relationship.

Both Frank and Fuller stressed a holistic view frequently repeated by many contemporary sociologists, i.e., that situations or behavior considered to be problems, on finer analysis prove to be expressions of cherished values or institutionalized norms crucial to the operation of society. From this came Fuller's conclusion—dismal to some that solutions to social problems may be or are impossible. This, when fitted with his later effort to demonstrate a natural history of social problems (Fuller & Myers 1941; Lemert 1951a), closely allies his thinking with the laissez-faire philosophy of Sumner, but it is also akin to the political conservatism many sociologists believe to inhere in modern "system" theories of society. In sum, these critics seem to say that putting social problems into a structural context destroys both ideological rationale and the individual motivation for reform, by showing the problems to be "necessary" consequences of a given type of value system or by making clear that values will have to be sacrificed and institutions disrupted if the problems are to be eliminated.

4.3.3 Definition as an issue

The first authors of books on social problems bothered little or not at all about definitions of social problems, uncritically drawing on fairly homogeneous convictions about the aspects of society that needed improvement or reform. Among the first attempts at definition were those of Ellwood (1915), Haworth (1913), Kelsey (1915), and Hart (1923). The prevailing definition, however, came from Case (1924), who was attracted to ideas of Thomas (1909) dealing with generic elements in the process of

cultural origins. Predominant among these was an element of attention, defined as the subjective or reciprocal aspect of social control, which is activated by crises (Thomas [1917-1937] 1951, p. 218). These ideas led Case to propose that social problems are situations impressing a large number of competent observers as needing remedy by collective action. They became for him and many others after him sociopsychological phenomena; social problems, stated most simply, are whatever a goodly number of members of society say they are.

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This definition more or less identifies sociologists with the lay populace and makes public opinion sociological opinion, with implied faith in a democratic process. Its difficulties accrue from recognition of the irrational or spurious qualities in public expressions or collective behavior, which counsels considerable discounting of public reactions or moral indignation as guides for sociological criticism of society or its institutions. Moreover, questions must be faced as to how many or what persons qualify as an acceptable panel for making judgments as to what are social problems. Many issues in modern society are articulated almost exclusively within coterie of specialists in health, medicine, welfare, correction, and education. They reflect technical interests, often couched in esoteric language, which are projected into the arena of public opinion only ephemerally or adventitiously.

Superficially, Fuller's distinction between moral and ameliorative problems seems to reconcile the older conception of social problems with the facts of technical specialization. However, the division between moral and technical problems often becomes vague or disappears, for means may become ends or ends means, depending upon the vantage point of the beholder. The older idea that social problems could be defined by a consensus of professional and welfare experts made little headway with sociologists, largely because judgments of specialists outside their own or adjacent areas of interest can claim no greater validity than those of educated lay persons. Representative specialists often are spokesmen for organized groups, necessarily supporting vested agency values as well as conveying judgments derived from technical knowledge. Finally, it must be noted that the ordering of social problems with respect to priority or importance cannot be determined by consulting specialists who define them distributive.

4.3.4 Future of Social Problems Approach

In some respects social problems is one of the most important branches of sociology, for it provides the testing ground for predictions and the ultimate usefulness of sociology. Yet it remains a theoretically embarrassing area for many sociologists who regard its crucial questions of definition as unanswered. Discussions and research in social problems, particularly those subsumed as deviancy, now can lay claim to a closer alliance with general sociological theory than was true in the past. However, the dilemma between subjective and objective viewpoints persists, reviving with nearly every attempt to formally delimit the field.

There are growing indications that this dilemma may be resolvable with theory and studies of values and valuation, concepts toward which sociologists and other social scientists have been pushed by the dissensus, group conflict, and resistance which seem to be the ubiquitous concomitants of swift change in modern society. Some sociologists, and more anthropologists, have sought to discover the basis of action in a general structural matrix of values delineated by age, sex, occupation, kinship, and other status attributes; others have looked for significant values in derivative, "second order" categories, such as "personality structure." However, these researches bypass the question of how values are aggregated for a pattern of action in any increasingly pluralistic society containing tangles of competing groups and associations.

One consequence of the heightened interest in values and valuation may be the evolution of a science of social action from the more amorphous area of social problems, implemented by studies of conflict resolution and short-term change and emphasizing content as well as forms of group interaction. This requires a different imagery of social problems, one less pointed to crisis and reform and more amenable to the facts of continuous change and policy revision in high-energy societies. The notion of a solution to social problems as a synoptically "best possible" choice from a number of alternatives will prove less useful than knowledge of how decisions are made and executed the "hard way." These decisions, it is to be hoped, will be seen less as "causes" of change in static situations than as strategies for intervention into ongoing processes. If value aggregation through group interaction is an important phase of such processes, it will be no less important to specify who has access to what means of social control and to locate the relevant values of power elites; for these, too, are among the "conditions" of change.

Successful linkage of "subjective" value phenomena with "objective" social structure and technology may come from theoretical extensions of human ecology, widely conceived to show how time, space, energy, and resistance to change intrude into the sociopsychological aspects of action. This necessitates acceptance of the idea that technology can change the order of choice among values, otherwise set by culture and social structure, by altering the costs of their fulfillment. This is not to say that human beings always perceive and respond economically to "costly" ways of acting. Both the definition of social problems and the organization of rational intervention are problematical phenomena to be explained. Insofar as social scientists assume responsibility for supplying critical knowledge for rational intervention, they help to organize it. Consequently, it is doubtful that social problems can be studied from an ethically neutral position.

Check your progress - I

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What are the relatively distinct periods on social problems and deviance?
2. When social problems turned as an academic subject?

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4.4 PATHOLOGY

4.4.1 Meaning and Definition of Social Pathology

Pathos= disease

Pathogen= an agent,that cause disease

Pathological= not reasonable or sensible, a pathological fear, hatred, a pathological liar, (a person who cannot stop himself telling lies)

pathological depression

Meaning of pathology = the scientific study of disease.

Social pathology= the scientific study of social problem (disease)

Pathologist= an expert in pathology.

Social pathology is a term used to describe social factors, such as poverty, old age or crime that support social disorganization. At the same time, the term refers to the study of these factors and the social problems they may lead to.

Social pathology as a concept appeared late in the 19th and early in the 20th century, when sociologists classified as social pathology all human actions that contradicted with ideals such as residential stability, moderation, training to work, sexual maturity, family unity, neighborliness and discipline of the will.

In the social sciences, deviant behaviors and actions, like violent crime, are known as social pathology. In medicine, pathology is the study of the causes and effects of illness, which is usually conducted in a laboratory environment. Applying that same concept to society, modern psychologists and sociologists have started to use the term social pathology to refer to problems or behaviors that violate social norms and often have a negative effect on society.

Often times, social pathology is a technical term used in reference to deviant behaviors, or actions that societies have agreed are immoral or unacceptable. For example, in most cultures, murder is considered a deviant behavior, or social pathology, because it is harmful to society and a transgression against one of the fundamental social boundaries. Additionally, homelessness can be considered a social pathology because it transgresses social norms.

The study of social pathology is important to the maintenance of social health. Similar to pathology in medical science, a more specific knowledge

and deeper understanding of social pathology gives sociologists an insight in to the healthy social organization. The aim of social pathology is to identify the causes of social disease and to find ways to remove them. In the early 20th century, for example, poverty was one of the most discussed and studied forms of social pathology. Sociologists were deeply interested in the effects that poverty had on people.

Social pathology is the study of social problems (as crime or alcoholism) that them as diseased conditions of the social organization. In the 21st century actions often defined as social pathology include

- Substance abuse
- Violence
- Abuses of women and children
- Crime
- Terrorism
- Corruption
- Criminality
- Discrimination
- Isolation
- Human rights violations.

These society problems are relative and usually differ among different cultures. Social pathology also depends on the values and organization of the time that a person lives in. (vine, clubsetc)

(Many contemporary social problems are universal (international) in nature and are share by many countries. For Example ... violence against women is a public health in all countries, An estimated 20% to 50% of women have suffered domestic violence....)

In term of psychology

In term of psychology, Social pathology is defined as a social factor that usually helps to inhibit personal gain or increase social disorganization. Social pathology can also refer to the study of specific factors and they produce certain results. Some of these factors include old age, crime and poverty etc....

Social disorganization is a concept closely related to social pathology. The two terms overlap to certain extend, while social disorganization may also be viewed as supplementing (a thing added to something else to improve or complete it) social pathology. Social disorganization is defined as a state of disequilibrium and lack of consensus among the members of a society. American sociologists William Fielding Ogburn (1886- 1959) and Meyer F Nimkoff 1904-1965) explain social disorganization as a disturbance of the harmonious relationship between the various parts of culture.

Social Organization and Disorganization

Social organization and social disorganization represent the dual aspects of the functioning of society. Both terms are relative as they are never fixed. Social organization is focused on the unchanging patterns, although the process of change is always found in every society. Social disorganization can be described as a kind of rot in the social structure so that old habits and forms of social control cannot keep functioning effectively. In other words, social

disorganization represents a decline in the influence of the existing social rules of behavior upon individual members.

4.4.2 Major factors for social change

Sociologists have outlined five major factors for social change. These include: psychological, biological, physical, technological factor and culture. Sometimes the changes in social structure triggered (to be the cause of a sudden, often a violation reactions; to start something) by these factors may be so disturbing that the present institution and other means of social control can no longer work effectively. These events result in social disorganization. Factors of social disorganization at a particular period are usually highly interrelated; making it difficult to find which factor is the predominant one. More specific events that may lead to negative social change may include the changing structure of the family, the increasing importance of the central government and the lowering standards of morality.

4.4.3 Aim of social pathology

The aim of social pathology is to identify the causes of social diseases and to find ways to remove them. For example

- ❖ Crime
- ❖ poverty
- ❖ corruption
- ❖ gender discrimination
- ❖ sectarian violence
- ❖ human right violation
- ❖ terrorism
- ❖ environmental abuse
- ❖ water pollution and air pollution

Example

In late 20th century, for example poverty was one of the most discussed and studied forms of social pathology, sociologists were deeply interested in the effects that poverty had on people.

4.4.4 Roots of the social pathology perspective

The social pathology perspective is rooted in the organic analogy [Analogy: with some a similar feature, condition, state, etc.]

Organic Analogy

- ❖ Functionalists use an organic analogy to compare society to the human body. They think that all parts of society need to work together in order for society to maintain consensus i.e., if one body part stops functioning correctly then the rest of the human body will be affected. An example in society, if the education system were failing, it would affect many other parts of society for instance the work place.
- ❖ Organic analogy refers to a structural-functionalist view of society in which different institutions such as military, economy, religion, family, politics, etc. are interrelated as organs in the organism of society. If one

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organ is damaged in some way the analogy assumes that all other organs would be impacted, leading to some changes in society as a whole structural – functionalist are concerned with stability of society. They tend to focus on concepts such as: norm, sanctions)

Herbert Spencer

- ❖ In his view, society is like an organism in that it has group, a complexity of structure that increases with its growth, interdependent parts, and a life that exceed the life of any part.
- ❖ Organic analogy, person or situations were considered to be social problems to the extent that they interfered with the “normal” working of the social organism.
- ❖ Organic analogy, such interference was viewed as a form of illness, or pathology.
- ❖ Since society is made up of individuals bound together in social relationships, social pathology refers to the maladjustments in social relationships. The phrase is based on the analogy of bodily maladjustment of function in organ...if carefully protected....The term “social pathology” may be used to identify the social conditions with result (1) from failure of individuals so to adjust themselves to social life that they function as independent self-supporting members of society, who contribute their fair share to its stability and progressive development; and (2) from the lack of adjustment of social structure, including ways of doing things and institutions, to the development of social personality.
- ❖ Pathological conditions in society may result from (1) natural lack of ability in individuals to keep speed with changing ideals and institutions of society; or from the failure of society to keep speed in its functional machinery with the changing conditions in the world in which it lives.
- ❖ The early sociologists, saw both individual maladjustment (such as economic dependency) and institutional malfunctioning (such as economic depression) as obstacles in the forward march of social progress. They thought that such maladjustments, whether individual or institutional, should be rooted.
- ❖ Two sociologists who helped to establish the basic outline of the social pathology perspective were Charles Henderson and Samuel Smith.

4.4.5 Characteristics of the social pathology perspective

Definition

Desirable social conditions and arrangement are seen as healthy, while persons or situations that deviate from moral expectations are regarded as “sick” therefore bad. Thus, from the social pathology perspective, a social problem is a violation of moral expectations.

Cause

The ultimate cause of social problem is a failure in socialization, society through its socializing agents, has the responsibility of transmitting moral norms to each generation. Sometimes, the socialization effort is ineffective. An early defective, dependent, or delinquent, Defective cannot

be taught; dependents are handicapped (often considered offensive) in receiving instruction; and delinquents reject the teachings. For later pathologists, social problems are the result of wrong values being learned. Social pathology perspectives “tender” (demand) mood, who contribute to the social problem are viewed as “sick”; in its “tough” mood, they are as “criminal” behind both moods, is the notion that the person or situation is immoral.”

Conditions

The early social pathologists considered some people to be inherently defective, the defective, dependent, delinquent, classes tended to perpetuate themselves through inbreeding. Later, social pathologists began to see the social environment as the important condition contributing to social pathology.

Smith himself wrote, social disease so prevalent as to create a social problem is rarely found without a bad environment of some sort or other. Students are compelled to study the causes of social disease, whereas earlier pathologists tended to focus on the immoral properties of individuals, contemporary.

Pathologists have tended to focus on the immoral properties of societies and to see problem as developing from societal forces such as technology and population density.

Consequences

In the early pathology view, social disturbance increase the cost of maintaining a legitimate social order. The early did believe, however, that ultimately the healthiest would survive. The more recent pathologists, in contrast, are morally angry about the defects of society and are less optimistic in the prediction. The angriest see societal pathology as total, spreading, and likely to dehumanize the entire population.

Solutions

- ❖ Both the early and the recent versions of the social pathology perspective suggest what form the solutions to social problems might take. The early sociologists who dwelt on the troubles caused by “genetically” defective individual, for example, turn to the eugenics movement as a solution.
- ❖ Other sociologists the solution to social problem put in educating the troublemakers in middle-class morality.
- ❖ Rousseau an view of human nature. Individual are good; their institutions, on the other hand are bad. So far even the social pathologists see the remedy to “sick” institution as a change in people values. Hence according to this perspective, the only real solution to social problems is moral education.

Check your progress– II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. What is called social pathology?

4. Enumerate the five major factors for social change.

5. Write the aim of social pathology.

4.5DISORGANIZATION

4.5.1 Meaning and Definition of social disorganization

A state of society is characterized by the breakdown of effective social control resulting in a lack of functional integration between groups, conflicting social attitudes, and personal maladjustment.

Social disorganisation is the process opposed to social organisation. Social organisation, Some Fundamental Concepts', is an orderly relationship of parts. The significance of this orderly arrangement lies in what it does. When the parts of social structure do not perform their functions efficiently and effectively or perform them badly, there occurs an imbalance in society. The social equilibrium is disturbed and society gets out of gear. Emile Durkheim defined social disorganisation as "a state of disequilibrium and a lack of social solidarity or consensus among the members of a society." W.I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki conceived of social disorganisation as "a decrease of the influence of existing rules of behaviour upon individual members of the groups."

According to Mowever, social disorganization is "the process by which the relationships between members of a group are shaken." Stuart A. Queen, Walter B. Bodenhafer, and Ernest B. Harper described social disorganisation in their book 'Social Organisation and Disorganisation' as the counterpart of social organisation.

According to Ogburn and Nimkoff when the harmonious relationship between the various parts of culture is disturbed, social disorganisation ensue. According to R.E.L. Faris, "Social disorganization is a disturbance in the patterns and mechanisms of human relations. According to Elliott and Merrill, "Social disorganisation is the process by which the relationship between members of the group are broken or dissolved."

Thus on the basis of these definitions it may be said that social disorganisation refers to serious mal-adjustments rather than un-adjustments in society so that they fail to satisfy the needs of the individuals satisfactorily. Society, as we know, is the web of social relationships. In an organised society social relations have some patterns and mechanisms. When the relations become disordered or disintegrated there is social disorganisation.

In a well organised society the various institutions are in a harmonious adjustment or, in other words, there exists functional balance between the various elements of the social structure. When there is a lack of adjustment

and balance and institutions do not function in a manner that satisfies all the individuals, we can speak of social disorganisation.

Social disorganisation, therefore, is to be considered in terms of functional disequilibrium, it is disequilibrium within customs, institutions, groups, communities and societies. Comparing social disorganisation with social organisation Queen and Harper write, "If social organisation means the development of relationships which persons and groups find mutually satisfactory, then disorganisation means their replacement by relationships which bring disappointment, thwarted wishes, irritation and unhappiness." Social disorganisation often brings personal disorganisation, since a person is a social creation and his "self" a social product.

It may be, however, noted that no objective criteria for measuring the degree of disorganisation are available; whether a situation represents organisation or disorganisation is largely a matter of subjective judgment. For example, divorce may be thought of as signifying family disorganisation. Actually it may be due to a better knowledge of the divorce laws and altered attitudes towards marriage.

4.5.2 Approaches of Social Disorganization

Society is dynamic in nature when the various parts of society are properly adjusted, we have a well organised society but when they fail to adjust themselves to the changing conditions the result is social disorganisation leading to social problems.

Emile Durkheim defined social disorganisation as a state of disequilibrium and lack of social solidarity or consensus among the members of a society." According to R.E.L. Faris, "Social disorganisation is a disturbance in the patterns and mechanism of human relations, according to Elliott and Merrill "Social disorganization is the process by which the relationships between the members of the groups are broken or dissolved." Thus, Social disorganization can be said as the process by which the relationship between the members of social group, whether a family, a society or a nation are broken down or dissolved.

1. The Social Problem Approach

According to this approach, maladjustment is a cause for delaying the human progress and happiness. Social problems were regarded as 'the disease of society' which threatened the welfare of the groups. This approach also suggests that social problems existed in those societies where individual and collective deviation considered society desirable.

2. The Bio-Psychological Approach

The theory is given by Gobineau and his followers. According to them the decay of all societies is the result of social admixture of races not equal in capability. The social problem arises out of the lack of capabilities of the members of inferior classes. They were of the opinion that disorganization of the society was the direct outgrowth of deficiencies in the biological make up passed on from generation to generation through heredity.

3. The Geographical Approach

The geographical approach assumes that the superiority of culture or the backwardness of the peoples is due to geographical factor of which the

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most important are the land and water resources, climate, soil, minerals, natural flora and fauna temperature, natural change of seasons, phenomena of gravitation, storms, earthquakes, sea current rainfall etc. Geographical factors have brought about crime, illiteracy, suicide, divorce and insanity.

4. The cultural approach

The fourth approach to the study of social disorganization is cultural because it explains social problems in terms of cultural processes. Thus the different forms of social-organization show institutional are malfunctioning.

5. The cultural lag approach

This approach of social disorganization is known as cultural lag approach of Ogburn. According to this approach social problems develop in the area of lag between the adoption of material changes and the formulation of appropriate social institution. The process of social change in which current social institutions do not satisfy human needs and different aspects of culture are not synchronized is thus, called 'disorganization'. We can understand various forms of social disorganisation like unemployment, depression, poverty crime through cultural lag theory. The term cultural lag explained by Ogburn is based upon the distinctions between material and non-material cultural. Rapid changes takes place in material cultural. Whereas slow changes in non-material culture. According to this approach the disorganisation of modern family system is the result of lag in the continued functioning of a failure to develop suitable substitute for the old folkways and moral governing family relations.

Check your progress– III
Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.
b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.
6. Define social disorganization.
7. List out the approaches of social disorganization.

4.6 DEVIANCE

4.6.1 Meaning and Definition of Deviance

Since 1940 a sizable portion of the traditional subject matter of social problems, such as crime, delinquency, prostitution, drug addiction, and physical handicaps, has been categorized as deviance, deviation, or deviant behavior. The moral, statistical, or descriptive implications of the terms carry a strong appeal, although they tend to acquire morally invidious connotations. Generally, deviance is defined as violations of norms, or departures from social expectancies, but beyond this minimal agreement the ideas projected for its analysis differ considerably.

One group of sociologists, following Durkheim, Parsons and Merton, has concentrated on sources of deviation in discontinuities, anomie, or strain within the structure of a society that is assumed to be more or less an integrated system. The analysis of deviation in this theoretical context is voluntaristic, in contrast with deterministic or strictly causal versions of functionalism. Deviation originates from permutations of choice by

individuals motivated by culturally given ends and confronted with means of varying accessibility. The most cogent statement or theoretical design derived from these ideas appeared in Merton's widely influential article "Social Structure and Anomie" (1938).

In sociology, deviance describes an action or behavior that violates social norms, including a formally enacted rule (e.g., crime), as well as informal violations of social norms (e.g., rejecting folkways and mores).

Deviance is defined as the recognized violation of cultural norms. Learn more about the definition and some of the major theories attached to deviance and test your knowledge with a quiz.

Sociologists define deviance as behavior that is recognized as violating expected rules and norms. It is simply more than nonconformity, however; it is behavior that departs significantly from social expectations. In the sociological perspective on deviance, there is a subtlety that distinguishes it from our commonsense understanding of the same behavior. Sociologists stress social context, not just individual behavior. That is, deviance is looked at in terms of group processes, definitions, and judgments, and not just as unusual individual acts. Sociologists also recognize that not all behaviors are judged similarly by all groups. What is deviant to one group may not be considered deviant to another. Further, sociologists recognize that established rules and norms are socially created, not just morally decided or individually imposed. That is, deviance lies not just in the behavior itself, but in the social responses of groups to behavior by others.

When most of us think of deviant behavior, we think of someone who is breaking the law or acting out in a negative manner. 'Different' or 'unexpected' are words often used to describe deviance from a sociological perspective. For our purposes, deviant means departing from the norm, and to a sociologist, that can be biased toward the positive or negative. While there are crimes that are certainly deviant because they are outside the norm (such as murder, rape, etc.), there are also crimes that are not deviant. Take speeding for example. It isn't at all unexpected to see someone speeding. From a sociological perspective, speeding would not be considered deviant in most cities in the United States. Speeding is not generally considered deviant.

4.6.2 Theories and example of deviance

Sociologists define deviance as behavior that is recognized as violating expected rules and norms. It is simply more than nonconformity, however; it is behavior that departs significantly from social expectations. In the sociological perspective on deviance, there is a subtlety that distinguishes it from our commonsense understanding of the same behavior. Sociologists stress social context, not just individual behavior. That is, deviance is looked at in terms of group processes, definitions, and judgments, and not just as unusual individual acts. Sociologists also recognize that not all behaviors are judged similarly by all groups. What is deviant to one group may not be considered deviant to another. Further, sociologists recognize that established rules and norms are socially created, not just morally decided or individually

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imposed. That is, deviance lies not just in the behavior itself, but in the social responses of groups to behavior by others.

4.6.3 Four Theoretical Approaches

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Within the sociology of deviance and crime, there are four key theoretical perspectives from which researchers study why people violate laws or norms, and how society reacts to such acts. We'll review them briefly here.

Deviant behavior is any behavior that is contrary to the dominant norms of society. There are many different theories that explain how behavior comes to be classified as deviant and why people engage in it, including biological explanations, psychological explanations, and sociological explanations. Here, we review four of the major sociological explanations for deviant behavior.

1) Structural Strain Theory

American sociologist Robert K. Merton developed structural strain theory as an extension of the functionalist perspective on deviance. This theory traces the origins of deviance to the tensions caused by the gap between cultural goals and the means people have available to achieve those goals.

According to this theory, societies are composed of both culture and social structure. Culture establishes goals for people in society while social structure provides (or fails to provide) the means for people to achieve those goals. In a well-integrated society, people use accepted and appropriate means to achieve the goals that society establishes. In this case, the goals and the means of the society are in balance. It is when the goals and means are not in balance with each other that deviance is likely to occur. This imbalance between cultural goals and structurally available means can actually encourage deviance.

2) Conflict theory

Conflict theory is also used as a theoretical foundation for the sociological study of deviance and crime. This approach frames deviant behavior and crime as the result of social, political, economic, and material conflicts in society. It can be used to explain why some people resort to criminal trades simply in order to survive in an economically unequal society.

3) Labeling Theory

Labeling theory is one of the most important approaches to understanding deviant and criminal behavior within sociology. It begins with the assumption that no act is intrinsically criminal. Instead, definitions of criminality are established by those in power through the formulation of laws and the interpretation of those laws by police, courts, and correctional institutions. Deviance is therefore not a set of characteristics of individuals or groups, but

rather a process of interaction between deviants and non-deviants and the context in which criminality is defined.

Those who represent forces of law and order and those who enforce the boundaries of proper behavior, such as the police, court officials, experts, and school authorities, provide the main source of labeling. By applying labels to people, and in the process creating categories of deviance, these people reinforce the power structure and hierarchies of society. Typically it is those who hold more power over others, on the basis of race, class, gender, or overall social status, who impose rules and labels on others in society.

Finally, **labeling theory** serves as an important frame for those who study deviance and crime. Sociologists who follow this school of thought would argue that there is a process of labeling by which deviance comes to be recognized as such. From this standpoint, the societal reaction to deviant behavior suggests that social groups actually create deviance by making the rules whose infraction constitutes deviance, and by applying those rules to particular people and labeling them as outsiders. This theory further suggests that people engage in deviant acts because they have been labeled as deviant by society, because of their race, or class, or the intersection of the two, for example.

4) Social Control Theory

Social control theory, developed by Travis Hirschi, is a type of functionalist theory that suggests deviance occurs when a person's or group's attachment to social bonds is weakened. According to this view, people care about what others think of them and conform to social expectations because of their attachments to others and what others expect of them. Socialization is important in producing conformity to social rules, and it is when this conformity is broken that deviance occurs.

Social control theory focuses on how deviants are attached, or not, to common value systems and what situations break people's commitment to these values. This theory also suggests that most people probably feel some impulse toward deviant behavior at some time, but their attachment to social norms prevents them from actually participating in deviant behavior.

Check your progress– IV

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

8. Who developed structural strain theory?

9. Short note on conflict theory.

4.7 LET US SUM UP

Social problems are part of the climate of opinion in society which centers on expressed needs for public policies and anticipated requirements for social control. Social problems study or research consists of the ordering of

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perspectives and social facts in relation to the ends and means of collective action. The roots of the intellectual orientation toward social problems as an academic subject are more precisely located in the broadly based American reform movement from which, in 1865, there issued the American Social Science Association. Social pathology is a technical term used in reference to deviant behaviors, or actions that societies have agreed are immoral or unacceptable. The aim of social pathology is to identify the causes of social disease and to find ways to remove them. Sociologists have outlined five major factors for social change. These include: psychological, biological, physical, technological factor and culture. Social organisation means the development of relationships which persons and groups find mutually satisfactory, then disorganisation means their replacement by relationships which bring disappointment, thwarted wishes, irritation and unhappiness. In sociology, deviance describes an action or behavior that violates social norms, including a formally enacted rule as well as informal violations of social norms. Deviant behavior is any behavior that is contrary to the dominant norms of society. There are many different theories that explain how behavior comes to be classified as deviant and why people engage in it, including biological explanations, psychological explanations, and sociological explanations.

From this unit you have been studied Approaches of Pathology. In this unit we have discussed Approaches of Disorganization and Deviance in detail manner.

4.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. What is called Social Pathology?
2. What is Social disorganization?
3. Discuss the approaches of Deviance.
4. Enumerate the Approaches of Social Pathology and Social Disorganization.

4.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. (1) the social pathology period, (2) the social disorganization period, (3) the normative or functionalist period, and (4) the relativistic or constructionist period
2. In 1865. It reached peak between 1885 and 1895.
3. Social pathology is a term used to describe social factors, such as poverty, old age or crime that support social disorganization. At the same time, the term refers to the study of these factors and the social problems they may lead to.
4. Psychological, biological, physical, technological factor and culture.
5. The aim of social pathology is to identify the causes of social diseases and to find ways to remove them.

6. According to Elliott and Merrill, “Social disorganisation is the process by which the relationship between members of the group are broken or dissolved.”
7. Social problem approach, Bio-psychological approach, Geographical approach, Cultural approach and Cultural lag approach.
8. American sociologist Robert K. Merton
9. Conflict theory is also used as a theoretical foundation for the sociological study of deviance and crime. This approach frames deviant behavior and crime as the result of social, political, economic, and material conflicts in society. It can be used to explain why some people resort to criminal trades simply in order to survive in an economically unequal society.

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4.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT - V PROBLEM OF SOCIAL ORDER

Structure

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- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objectives
- 5.3 Problem of Social Order
 - 5.3.1 Definition of Social Order
 - 5.3.2 Social Contract
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 - 5.5.4.1 Informal Means of Social Control
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 - 5.5.5 Agencies of Social Control
- 5.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 5.7 Unit- End- Exercises
- 5.8 Answer to check your Progress
- 5.9 Suggested Readings

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Social order refers to the way in which a society is organized along with certain rules and standards that are set forth in order to maintain that organization. The term social order can be used in two senses. In the first sense, it refers to a particular set or system of linked social structures, institutions, relations, customs, values and practices, which conserve, maintain and enforce certain patterns of relating and behaving. Social order is maintained by people with the greatest political, economic and social resources. According to political theorist Karl Marx, power is unevenly distributed in society, which means that social order is directed by an elite few at the expense of the majority. Social order can be constructive when achieved through voluntary participation of the majority class. It is oppressive when administered through an authoritarian government.

Social change refers to the modifications which take place in the life patterns of people. It does not refer to all the changes going on in the society. The changes in art, language, technology; philosophy etc., may not be included in the term 'Social change' which should be interpreted in a narrow

sense to mean alterations in the field of social relationships. Social relationships are social processes, social patterns and social interactions. Thus social change will mean variations of any aspect of social processes, social patterns, social interactions or social organisation. It is a change in the institutional and normative structure of society.

Social control which implies the social intercourse is regulated in accordance with established and recognised standards, is comprehensive, omnipotent and effective to stimulate order, discipline and mutuality; and to discourage, and if need be, to punish the deviance. Social control works always and all the time. But in view of the fact that society is subject to external impact, and internal revulsions, that continuity and change is the character of social system, the enforcement of social control is not simple. The effectiveness of social control would therefore depend on the appropriate coordination of the accepted means of social control.

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In this unit, you will learn the Problem of Social Order. You will learn Social Change and the nature Social Change, theories Social Change and factors of Social Change. You will study the formal and informal means of Social Control in detail

5.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ Explain the problem of Social Order
 - ✓ gain the knowledge about the Social Change
 - ✓ Describe the formal and Informal means of Social Control
 - ✓ Explain the agencies of Social Control
-

5.3 PROBLEM OF SOCIAL ORDER

Social order is a fundamental concept in sociology that refers to the way the various components of society work together to maintain the status quo. They include:

- social structures and institutions
- social relations
- social interactions and behavior
- cultural features such as norms, beliefs, and values

5.3.1 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL ORDER

Outside the field of sociology, people often use the term "social order" to refer to a state of stability and consensus that exists in the absence of chaos and upheaval. Sociologists, however, have a more complex understanding of the term.

Within the field, it refers to the organization of many interrelated parts of a society. Social order is present when individuals agree to a shared social contract that states that certain rules and laws must be abided and certain standards, values, and norms maintained.

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Social order can be observed within national societies, geographical regions, institutions and organizations, communities, formal and informal groups, and even at the scale of global society.

Within all of these, social order is most often hierarchical; some people hold more power than others so they can enforce the laws, rules, and norms necessary for the preservation of social order.

Practices, behaviors, values, and beliefs that are counter to those of the social order are typically framed as deviant and/or dangerous and are curtailed through the enforcement of laws, rules, norms, and taboos.

5.3.2 Social Contract

The question of how social order is achieved and maintained is the question that gave birth to the field of sociology.

In his book *Leviathan*, English philosopher Thomas Hobbes laid the groundwork for the exploration of this question within the social sciences. Hobbes recognized that without some form of social contract, there could be no society, and chaos and disorder would reign.

According to Hobbes, modern states were created to provide social order. People agree to empower the state to enforce the rule of law, and in exchange, they give up some individual power. This is the essence of the social contract that lies at the foundation of Hobbes' theory of social order.

As sociology became an established field of study, early thinkers became keenly interested in the question of social order.

Founding figures such as Karl Marx and Émile Durkheim focused their attention on the significant transitions that occurred before and during their lifetimes, including industrialization, urbanization, and the waning of religion as a significant force in social life.

These two theorists, though, had polar opposite views on how social order is achieved and maintained, and to what ends.

5.3.2.1 Durkheim's Theory

Through his study of the role of religion in primitive and traditional societies, French sociologist Émile Durkheim came to believe that social order arose out of the shared beliefs, values, norms, and practices of a given group of people.

His view locates the origins of social order in the practices and interactions of daily life as well as those associated with rituals and important events. In other words, it is a theory of social order that puts culture at the forefront.

Durkheim theorized that it was through the culture shared by a group, community, or society that a sense of social connection—what he called solidarity—emerged between and among people and that worked to bind them together into a collective.

Durkheim referred to a group's shared collection of beliefs, values, attitudes, and knowledge as the "collective conscience."

In primitive and traditional societies Durkheim observed that sharing these things was enough to create a "mechanical solidarity" that bound the group together.

In the larger, more diverse and urbanized societies of modern times, Durkheim observed that it was the recognition of the need to rely on each other to fulfill different roles and functions that bound society together. He called this "organic solidarity."

Durkheim also observed that social institutions—such as the state, media, education, and law enforcement—play formative roles in fostering a collective conscience in both traditional and modern societies.

According to Durkheim, it is through our interactions with these institutions and with the people around us that we participate in the maintenance of rules and norms and behavior that enable the smooth functioning of society. In other words, we work together to maintain social order.

Durkheim's view became the foundation for the functionalist perspective, which views society as the sum of interlocking and interdependent parts that evolve together to maintain social order.

5.3.2.2 Marx's Critical Theory

German philosopher Karl Marx took a different view of social order. Focusing on the transition from pre-capitalist to capitalist economies and their effects on society, he developed a theory of social order centered on the economic structure of society and the social relations involved in the production of goods.

Marx believed that these aspects of society were responsible for producing the social order, while others—including social institutions and the state—were responsible for maintaining it. He referred to these two components of society as the base and the superstructure.

In his writings on capitalism, Marx argued that the superstructure grows out of the base and reflects the interests of the ruling class that controls it. The superstructure justifies how the base operates, and in doing so, justifies the power of the ruling class. Together, the base and the superstructure create and maintain social order.

From his observations of history and politics, Marx concluded that the shift to a capitalist industrial economy throughout Europe created a class of workers who were exploited by company owners and their financiers.

The result was a hierarchical class-based society in which a small minority held power over the majority, whose labor they used for their own financial gain. Marx believed social institutions did the work of spreading the values and beliefs of the ruling class to maintain a social order that would serve their interests and protect their power.

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Marx's critical view of social order is the basis of the conflict theory perspective in sociology, which views social order as a precarious state shaped by ongoing conflicts between groups that are competing for access to resources and power.

5.3.2.3 Merit in Each Theory

- ❖ While some sociologists align themselves with either Durkheim's or Marx's view of social order, most recognize that both theories have merit. A nuanced understanding of social order must acknowledge that it is the product of multiple and sometimes contradictory processes.
- ❖ Social order is a necessary feature of any society and it is deeply important for building a sense of belonging and connection with others. At the same time, social order is also responsible for producing and maintaining oppression.
- ❖ A true understanding of how social order is constructed must take all of these contradictory aspects into account.

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What do you mean by "social order"?
2. Who founded by the functionalist perspective?
3. Who is German philosopher?

5.4 SOCIAL CHANGE

5.4.1 Meaning of Social Change

The word "change" denotes a difference in anything observed over some period of time. Social change, therefore, would mean observable differences in any social phenomena over any period of time.

5.4.2 Definition of Social Change

1. **Jones.** "Social change is a term used to describe variations in, or modifications of, any aspect of social processes, social patterns, social interaction or social organisation."
2. **Mazumdar, H. T.** "Social change may be defined as a new fashion or mode, either modifying or replacing the old, in the life of a people, or in the operation of a society."
3. **Gillin and Gillin.** "Social changes are variations from the accepted modes of life; whether due to alteration in geographical conditions, in cultural equipment, composition of the population or ideologies and whether brought about by diffusion or inventions within the group."

4. **Davis.** By “Social change is meant only such alterations as occur in social organisation, that is, structure and functions of society.”
5. **Merrill and Eldredge.** “Social change means that large number of persons is engaging in activities that differ from those which they or their immediate forefathers engaged in some time before.”
6. **Maclver and Page.** “...Our direct concern as sociologists is with social relationships. It is the change in these relationships which alone we shall regard as social change.”
7. **M. D. Jenson.** “Social change may be defined as modification in ways of doing and thinking of people.”
8. **Koenig, S.** “Social change refers to the modifications which occur in the life patterns of a people.”
9. **Lundberg and others.** “Social change refers to any modification in established patterns of inter human relationships and standards of conduct.”
10. **Anderson and Parker.** “Social change involves alteration in the structure or functioning of social forms or processes themselves.”
11. **Ginsberg, M.** “By social change, I understand a change in social structure e.g., the size of a society, the composition or balance of its parts or the type of its organisation.”

On the basis of these definitions it may be concluded that social change refers to the modifications which take place in the life patterns of people. It does not refer to all the changes going on in the society. The changes in art, language, technology; philosophy etc., may not be included in the term ‘Social change’ which should be interpreted in a narrow sense to mean alterations in the field of social relationships.

Social relationships are social processes, social patterns and social interactions. Thus social change will mean variations of any aspect of social processes, social patterns, social interactions or social organisation. It is a change in the institutional and normative structure of society.

5.4.3 NATURE OF SOCIAL CHANGE

The main characteristics of the nature of social change are as follows

(i) Social change is a universal phenomenon

Social change occurs in all societies. No society remains completely static. This is true of all societies, primitive as well as civilized. Society exists in a universe of dynamic influences.

The population changes, technologies expand, material equipment changes, ideologies and values take on new components and institutional structures and functions undergo reshaping. The speed and extent of change may differ from society to society. Some change rapidly, others change slowly.

(ii) Social change is community change

Social change does not refer to the change in the life of an individual or the life patterns of several individuals. It is a change which occurs in the life of the entire community. In other words, only that change can be called social change whose influence can be felt in a community form. Social change is social and not individual.

(iii) Speed of social change is not uniform

While social change occurs in all societies, its speed is not uniform in every society. In most societies it occurs so slowly that it is often not noticed by those who live in them. Even in modern societies there seems to be little or no change in many areas. Social change in urban areas is faster than in rural areas.

(iv) Nature and speed of social change is affected by and related to time factor

The speed of social change is not uniform in each age or period in the same society. In modern times the speed of social change is faster today than before 1947. Thus, the speed of social change differs from age to age.

The reason is that the factors which cause social change do not remain uniform with the change in times. Before 1947 there was less industrialization in India, after 1947 India has become more industrialized. Therefore, the speed of social change after 1947 is faster than before 1947.

(v) Social change occurs as an essential law

Change is the law of nature. Social change also is natural. It may occur either in the natural course or as a result of planned efforts. By nature we desire change. Our needs keep on changing. To satisfy our desire for change and our changing needs social change becomes a necessity. The truth is that we are anxiously waiting for a change. According to Green, ‘The enthusiastic response of change has become almost a way of life.’

(vi) Definite prediction of social change is not possible

It is difficult to make any prediction about the exact forms of social change. There is no inherent law of social change according to which it would assume definite forms. We may say that on account of the social reform movement untouchability will be abolished from the Indian society; that the basis and ideals of marriage will change due to the marriage laws passed by the government; that industrialization will increase the speed of urbanisation but we cannot predict the exact forms which social relationships will assume in future. Likewise it cannot be predicted as to what shall be our attitudes, ideas, norms and values in future.

(vii) Social change shows chain-reaction sequence

A society’s pattern of living is a dynamic system of inter-related parts. Therefore, change in one of these parts usually reacts on others and those on additional ones until they bring a change in the whole mode of life of many people. For example, industrialism has destroyed the domestic system of production.

The destruction of domestic system of production brought women from the home to the factory and the office. The employment of women meant their independence from the bondage of man. It brought a change in their attitudes

and idea. It meant a new social life for women. It consequent affected every part of the family life.

(viii) Social change results from the interaction of a number of factors

Generally, it is thought that a particular factor like changes in technology, economic development or climatic conditions causes social change. This is called monistic theory which seeks to interpret social change in terms of one single factor.

But the monistic theory does not provide an adequate explanation of the complex phenomenon of social change. As a matter of fact, social change is the consequence of a number of factors. A special factor may trigger a change but it is always associated with other factors that make the triggering possible.

The reason is that social phenomena are mutually interdependent. None stand out as isolated forces that bring about change of themselves. Rather each is an element in a system. Modification of one part influences the other parts and these influences the rest, until the whole is involved.

(ix) Social changes are chiefly those of modification or of replacement

Social changes may be broadly categorized as modifications or replacements. It may be modification of physical goods or social relationships. For example, the form of our breakfast food has changed. Though we eat the same basic materials which we ate earlier, wheat, eggs, corn, but their form is changed. Ready-to-eat-cornflakes, breads, omelets are substituted for the form in which these same materials were consumed in yester years.

There may also be modifications of social relationships. The old authoritarian family has become the small equalitarian family; the one room school has become a centralized school. Our ideas about women's rights, religion, government and co-education stand modified today.

Change also takes the form of replacement. A new material or non-material form supplants an old one Horses have been replaced by automobiles. Similarly, old ideas have been replaced by new ideas. The germ theory of medicine has replaced older views of the cause of disease. Democracy has replaced aristocracy.

5.4.4 Theories of Social Change

Theory of Deterioration:

Some thinkers have identified social change with deterioration. According to them, man originally lived in a perfect state of happiness in a golden age. Subsequently, however, deterioration began to take place with the result that man reached an age of comparative degeneration. This was the notion in the ancient Orient.

It was expressed in the epic poems of India, Persia and Sumeria. Thus, according to Indian mythology man has passed through four ages—Satyug, Treta, Dwapar and Kaliyug. The Satyug was the best age in which man was honest, truthful and perfectly happy.

Thereafter degeneration began to take place. The modern age is the age of Kaliyug wherein man is deceitful, treacherous, false, dishonest, selfish and consequently unhappy. That such should be the concept of history in early

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times is understandable, since we observe deterioration in every walk of life today.

1. Cyclic Theory

Another ancient notion of social change found side by side with the afore-mentioned one, is that human society goes through certain cycles. Looking to the cyclic changes of days and nights and of climates some sociologists like Spengler believe that society has a predetermined life cycle and has birth, growth, maturity, and decline.

Modern society is in the last stage. It is in its old age. But since history repeats itself, society after passing through all the stages, returns to the original stage, whence the cycle again begins. This concept is found in Hindu mythology, a corollary to which Satyug will again start after Kaliyug is over. J.B. Bury in his *The Idea of Progress* pointed out that this concept is also found in the teachings of stoic philosophers of Greece as well as in those of some of the Roman philosophers, particularly Marcus Aurelius.

The view that change takes place in a cyclical way has been accepted by some modern thinkers also who have given different versions of the cyclical theory. The French anthropologist and biologist Vacher de Lapouge held that race is the most important determinant of culture. Civilization, he maintained, develops and progresses when a society is composed of individuals belonging to superior races and declines when racially inferior people are absorbed into it.

Western civilization, according to him, is doomed to extinction because of the constant infiltration of foreign inferior elements and their increasing control over it. The German anthropologist Otto Ammon, the Englishman Houston Stewart Chamberlain and American Madison Grant and Lothrop Stoddard also agreed with the view of Lapouge which may be called the theory of biological cycle.

Spengler developed another version of cyclical theory of social change. He analysed the history of various civilizations including the Egyptian, Greek and Roman and concluded that all civilizations pass through a similar cycle of birth, maturity and death. The western civilization is now on its decline which is unavoidable.

Vilfredo Pareto propounded the theory that societies pass through the periods of political vigour and decline which repeat themselves in cyclical fashion. The society according to him, consists of two types of people—one, who like to follow traditional ways whom he called rentiers, and those who like to take chances for attaining their ends whom he called as Speculators.

Political change is initiated by a strong aristocracy, the speculators who later lose their energy and become incapable of vigorous role. Thus ruling class eventually resort to tricks or to clever manipulations and they come to possess individuals characterized by the rentier mentality. The society declines, but at the same time speculators arise from among the subjugated to become the new ruling class and overthrow the old group. Then the cycle begins.

F. Stuart Chapin gave another version of cyclical change. He made the concept of accumulation the basis for his theory of social change. According

to him, cultural change is “selectively accumulative in time.” He wrote, “The most hopeful approach to the concept of cultural change would seem to be to regard the process as selectively accumulative in time and cyclical or oscillatory in character.” Thus, according to Chapin, cultural change is both selectively accumulative and cyclical in character. He postulated a hypothesis of synchronous cyclical change. According to him, the different parts of culture go through a cycle of growth, vigour and decay.

If the cycles of the major parts, such as government and the family, coincide or synchronize, the whole culture will be in a state of integration, If they do not synchronize, the culture will be in a disintegrated condition. Growth and decay, according to Chapin, in cultural forms are as inescapable as they are in all living things.

Relying upon data drawn from the history of various civilizations, Sorokin concluded that civilizations fall into three major types namely, the ideational, the idealistic and the sensate. In the ideational type of civilization reality and value are conceived of in terms of a “supersensory and super-rational God”, while the sensory world appears as illusory.

In a word, ideational culture is god-ridden. In the idealistic type of culture, reality and value are regarded sensory as well as supersensory. This is a synthesis of ideational and the sensate. The thought and behaviour of man are partly anchored in the materialistic and are partly anchored with the other world.

In the sensate type of culture the whole way of life is characterized by a positivistic, materialistic outlook. Reality and value are merely what the senses perceive and beyond sense perception there is no reality. The western civilization, according to Sorokin, is now in an “overripe” sensate phase that must be supplanted by a new ideational system.

In recent times Arnold J. Toynbee, the noted English historian, has also propounded a cyclical theory of the history of world civilization. He maintained that civilizations pass through three stages, corresponding to youth, maturity and decline. The first is marked by a “response to challenge”, the second is a “time of troubles,” and the third is characterized by gradual degeneration.

He was also of the view that our civilization, although in the state of final downfall, can still ‘be saved by means of proper guidance by the “creative minority” by which he meant a select group of leaders who withdraw from the corrupting influences, commune with God, become spiritually regenerated and then return to inspire the masses.

The above concepts of the cyclical nature of social change may be called theories of cultural cycles. They are as a matter of fact the result of philosophical rather than scientific studies. The authors of these concepts begin with presumptions which they try to substantiate by marshalling a mass of data from history.

They are philosophical doctrines, spun from the whole cloth, however heavily documented and illustrated by distorted historical evidences. Barnes, while appraising Toynbee’s work, wrote, “It is not objective or even interpretative history. It is theology, employing selected facts of history to

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illustrate the will of God as the medieval bestiaries utilized biological fantasies to achieve the same results.... Toynbee's vast materials throw far more light upon the processes of Toynbee's mind than upon the actual process of history..... He writes history as he thinks it should be to further the cause of salvation, rather than as it has really been.”

2. Linear Theory

Some thinkers subscribe to the linear theory of social change. According to them, society gradually moves to an even higher state of civilization and that it advances in a linear fashion and in the direction of improvement. Auguste Comte postulated three stages of social change: the Theological, the Metaphysical and the Positive.

Man has passed through the first two stages, even though in some aspects of life they still prevail, and is gradually reaching the Positive stage. In the first stage man believed that supernatural powers controlled and designed the world. He advanced gradually from belief in fetishes and deities to monotheism.

This stage gave way to the Metaphysical stage, during which man tries to explain phenomena by resorting to abstractions. On the positive stage man considers the search for ultimate causes hopeless and seeks the explanatory facts that can be empirically observed. This implies progress which according to Comte will be assured if man adopts a positive attitude in the understanding of natural and social phenomena.

Herbert Spencer, who likened society to an organism, maintained that human society has been gradually progressing towards a better state. In its primitive state, the state of militarism, society was characterized by warring groups, by a merciless struggle for existence. From militarism society moved towards a state of industrialism. Society in the stage of industrialism is marked by greater differentiation and integration of its parts. The establishment of an integrated system makes it possible for the different groups—social, economic and racial, to live in peace.

Some Russian sociologists also subscribed to the linear theory of social change. Nikolai K. Mikhailovsky opined that human society passes through three stages; (1) the objective anthropocentric, (2) the eccentric, and (3) the subjective anthropocentric. In the first stage, man considers himself the centre of the universe and is preoccupied with mystic beliefs in the supernatural. In the second stage, man is given over to abstractions; the abstract is more “real” to him than the actual. In the third stage, man comes to rely upon empirical knowledge by means of which he exercises more and more control over nature for his own benefit. Solo-view conceived of the three stages as the tribal, the national governmental, and the period of universal brotherhood.

Pitrim Sorokin in his concept of variable recurrence has attempted to include both cyclical and linear change. In his view culture may proceed in a given direction for a time and thus appear to conform to a linear formula. But eventually, as a result of forces that are internal within the culture itself, there will be a shift of direction and a new period of development will be ushered in. Perhaps the new trend is also linear, perhaps it is oscillating, perhaps it

conforms to some particular type of curve. At any rate, it also reaches limits and still another trend takes its place.

The description given by Sorokin makes room for almost any possibility, deterioration, progress or cyclical change and, therefore, sociologists find little quarrel with his description. But at any rate, Sorokin's variable occurrence is an admission that the present state of sociological knowledge does not warrant the construction of theories regarding the long-run trend or character of social change.

Whether contemporary civilization is headed for the scrap-heap via internal disintegration or atomic warfare, or is destined to be replaced by some stabler and idealistic system of social relationships cannot be predicted on other than grounds of faith. The factual evidence which is available to us can only lead us to remark that whatever direction social change takes in future, that direction will be determined by man himself.

5.4.5 Factors of Social Change

Some of the most important factors of social change are as under:

1. Physical Environment

Certain geographic changes sometimes produce great social change. Climate, storms, social erosion, earthquakes, floods, droughts etc., definitely affect social life and induce social change. Human life is closely bound up with the geographical conditions of the earth.

Human history is full of examples that flourishing civilisations fell prey to natural calamities. The distribution of population over various regions, the variations in the population densities, the agricultural production, flora and fauna, the joys and hardships—all indicate a change when a change in the physical environment occurs.

What to talk of rise and fall of civilisations, even our day-to-day life—our clothes, eating material and habits, shelter design etc., all are influenced by the geographical conditions. Generally, changes in physical environment force migration of people in large numbers and this brings major changes in social life and cultural values also. Migration itself encourages change, for it brings a group into a new environment, subject to its new social contacts, and confronts it with new problems.

Though physical environment is an important factor which deeply affects social life, still it cannot be regarded as the only factor responsible for the growth of human society. This extreme approach was laid down by some geographical determinists (Buckle, Huntington, Miss Sample, J. Huxley etc.), who held that geographical setting ultimately governs the form of society (family, marriage, economy, religion, government) and explains social change. But this is not true today.

Now man is in the position to affect change in his physical environment. Men adapt themselves to their environment but they have the capacity to transform their physical environment according to their needs and requirements. Bennett and Tumin (1949) aptly remarked: "It is perhaps as reasonable, if not more so to insist that man modifies his physical environment rather than the environment modifies man."

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2. Demographic (biological) Factor

Broadly speaking, demography is concerned with the size and structure of human population. The social structure of a society is closely related with the changes in the size, composition and distribution of population. The size of the population is based mainly upon three factors—birth rate, death rate and migration (immigration and emigration).

The composition of population depends upon variables like age, sex, marital status, literacy etc. Changes in demographic structure, which may be caused by changes in mortality rates, will produce changes in the ratio of breadwinners to dependents.

Such a change can have consequences for the structure of family, kinship, political and other institutions. The size of population affects each of us quite personally. Whether we are born into a growing or a shrinking population has a bearing on our education, the age at which we marry our ability to get a job, the taxes we pay and many other factors.

Population analysis shows that there is a relationship between population changes and economic, social and cultural variables like poverty, illiteracy, ill-health, family structure, forms of marriage, work etc. Population growth is the most important factor in poverty.

Poverty is related with health and the size of the family also. Nations with large population (e.g., China and India) are more poverty-stricken than the countries which have not much population. Sex imbalance affects the forms of marriage (monogamy or polygyny). It is seen that communities, which have more males than females, resorted to polyandry system. Polygyny was generally found in such communities where females were in more numbers than males.

The population of every society is always changing both in numbers as well as in composition. Population changes have occurred all through human history because of migration, war, pestilence, changing mores etc. In modern times, adoption of two artificial ways to population growth, viz., birth control and abortion are also affecting the number and composition of population structure.

The decline of both the birth rate and the death rate bring social transformation. With changes in size go changes in composition. While the birth rate is falling, the proportion of younger people in the proportion of youth's declines and that elders advances significant social changes occurs.

3. Cultural Factor

It is an established fact that there is an intimate connection between our beliefs and social institutions, our values and social relationships. Values, beliefs, ideas, institutions are the basic elements of a culture. Certainly, all cultural changes involve social change.

Social and the cultural aspects are closely interwoven. Thus, any change in the culture (ideas, values, beliefs etc.) brings a corresponding

change in the whole social order. Social institutions cannot live on life shells within which life is extinct.

Social systems are directly or indirectly the creations of cultural values. The history of culture offers many evidences which confirm the role of culture. A religious doctrine, which persisted with variations throughout many centuries, has affected the course of society. For instance, a certain attitude toward sex formulated by the Church Fathers in the early Middle Ages still hold good in the Catholic sect.

Culture gives speed and direction to social change and determines the limit beyond which social change cannot occur". (Dawson and Gettys, 1948). If we choose to travel by a ship, the direction in which we travel is not predestinated by the design of the ship but it is the culture that decides the direction and the destination both. The port we sail to remains a cultural choice. Cultural factor is not only responsive to technological change but also acts back on it so as to influence its direction and its character.

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Cultural change in society has two major aspects:

- (a) Cultural change by discovery and invention, and
- (b) Cultural change by diffusion and borrowing.

The first comes from within a society and culture, and the second from another culture outside of the society. A discovery or an invention adds to the fund of our verified knowledge which later on becomes a factor of social change. Knowledge of bacterial infection brought about many changes in the behaviour of people in the form of prevention and cure of disease.

Socio-cultural changes are also brought about by people from other cultures all over the world. Diffusion is the spread of cultural traits or patterns from group to group. Borrowing refers to the adoption of a cultural trait by people whose culture did not have that cultural trait. We have borrowed many cultural traits (such as use of knife and fork in eating) from Western culture.

Culture operates not only directly as a source of change but also indirectly, by its impact on the utilitarian order. This idea was best exemplified by a German sociologist Max Weber in his study of sociology of religion.

In his study 'The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism' (1930), he saw that there is a direct relationship between the practical ethics of a religion and the character of its economic system, but he refused to accept the position that the letter determines the former as argued by Karl Marx. (Marx believed that the nature of a society is determined by the manner in which economy is owned and organised.) Though Weber too appreciated the importance of economic factors, but he did not ascribe to them the importance that they have in Marxian theory. For Marx economic influences were paramount and determined all the rest, including religion, whereas for Weber economic phenomena themselves rest upon a broad ideological base and particularly upon religion.

In his above mentioned study, Weber asserted that the development of modern capitalism could be attributed to Protestant reformation, particularly Calvinism. Protestantism emphasised the autonomy and independence of the individual rather than dependence on the church, priesthood and ritual. Weber

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argued that Calvinist Protestantism motivated men to seek worldly success. It laid emphasis on rational calculation, the willingness to accumulate for long-term profit and success and the emphasis on entrepreneurial success as a virtue.

Weber maintained that the ideas, ideals and attitudes towards work (work is virtue, time lost, money lost etc.), savings and life played an important role in the economic development of Western Europe and USA. Protestantism provided much of the cultural content of early capitalism—individualism, achievement motivation, hostility to inherited wealth and luxury, legitimating of entrepreneurial vocations, opposition to tradition and superstition, a commitment to organisation and calculation in personal and public life.

In brief, Protestantism provided an element in the rationalisation (an important requirement of capitalism) of Western society. Weber did not simply explain capitalist development in terms of religious belief, but argued that the religious factor, if combined with others, of a political, economic and social nature, can produce a certain type of social change.

4. Ideational Factor

Among the cultural factors affecting social change in modern times, the development of science and secularisation of thought have contributed a lot to the development of the critical and innovative character of the modern outlook. We no longer follow many customs or habits merely because they have the age-old authority of tradition. On the contrary, our ways of life have increasingly become on the basis of rationality.

Some writers have interpreted social change at ideational level and asserted that all social change is ideational. They argued that ideas could influence the course of social change. For them, ideational changes are important contributory factors to many or most types of social change. Ideas and ideologies together are powerful motivating forces in social change.

For instance, after independence, the directive principles—equality, fraternity, liberty and justice laid down in our constitution—have not only revolutionised the Indian society but it has even affected greatly the relations between the members of the family. Social philosophers, who believed in the force of ideas, argued that no material or social factors can produce change unless there is also a change in ideas within society or ideas about society and nature.

In modern times, not only the way we think, but the contents of ideas have also changed. Ideals of self-betterment, freedom, equality and democratic participation are largely creations of the past two/ three centuries. Such ideals have served to mobilise processes of social and political change, including reformation movements and revolutions.

5. Economic Factor

Of economic influences, the most far-reaching is the impact of industrialisation. It has revolutionised the whole way of life, institutions, organisations and community life. In traditional production systems, levels of production were fairly static since they were geared to habitual, customary needs. Modern industrial capitalism promotes the constant revision of the technology of production, a process into which science is increasingly drawn.

The impact of industrialisation (science and technology) we can easily see on Indian family system (joint family) and caste system. (For detailed analysis of the influence of economic factor, see Marx's views discussed in Economic Theory of Social Change).

6. Political Factor

State is the most powerful organisation which regulates the social relationships. It has the power to legislate new laws, repeal old ones to bring social change in the society. Laws regarding child marriage, widow remarriage, divorce, inheritance and succession, untouchability are some of the examples which have brought many changes in the social structure of Indian society.

The type of political leadership and individuals in power also influences the rate and direction of social change. In many societies the political leadership controls the economy also. Scientific-technological and non-technological change are also dependent on political development which indirectly affects social change.

There is a direct relationship between the type of political organisation and social change. In hunting and gathering societies, there were no political organisation capable of mobilising the community, as such; there were minimum changes in the societies. In all other types of society, however, the existence of distinct political agencies, such as chiefs, lords, kings and governments strongly affects the course of development of society takes. A ruler may choose to channel resources into building up his castle, for example, even when this impoverishes most of the population.

Political development in the last two or three centuries (in India especially after independence) has certainly influenced economic change as much as economic change has influenced politics. Governments now play a major role in stimulating (and sometimes retarding) rates of economic growth. In all industrial societies there is high level of state intervention in production.

Check your progress – II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. Define Social Change according to Jones.

5. What are the factors involved in Social Change?

5.5 SOCIAL CONTROL

5.5.1 MEANING OF SOCIAL CONTROL

Generally speaking, social control is nothing but control of the society over individuals. In order to maintain the organisation and the order of the society, man has to be kept under some sort of control. This control is necessary in order to have desired behaviour from the individual and enable him to develop social qualities.

Society in order to exist and progress has to exercise a certain control over its members since any marked deviation from the established ways is considered a threat to its welfare. Such control has been termed by sociologists as social control.

Social control is the term sociologists apply to those mechanisms by which any society maintains a normative social system. It refers to all the ways and means by which society enforces conformity to its norms. The individual internalises social norms and these become part of his personality. In the process of socialisation the growing child learns the values of his own groups as well as of the larger society and the ways of doing and thinking that are deemed to be right and proper.

But every social group makes errors, great or small, in the socialising the young, says Lapiere. Even at best, the internalisation be so the social norms can scarcely have complete that a person's own desires exactly coincide with the social expectations of his group.

Hence, there are some deviations from group norms in every group. But any deviation beyond a certain degree of tolerance is met with resistance, for any marked deviation from the accepted norms is considered a threat to the welfare of the group.

Hence sanctions – the rewards or punishments- are applied to control the behaviour of the individual and to bring the nonconformists into line. All these efforts by the group are called social control, which is concerned with the failures in socialisation. Social control, as says Lapiere, is thus a corrective for inadequate socialisation.

For the smooth functioning of any society, it is essential that its members conduct themselves in a manner that is acceptable to other members of that society. Our behaviour in everyday life is quite orderly and disciplined. We normally do not wish to antagonise people we interact with; we do try to stick to various rules and to observe discipline in schools etc. Those who do not obey these norms of society are criticized or looked down upon.

Social control is a general method or regulating the behaviour of individuals in a society through accepted social norms. It is a way to channelize the behaviour of individuals in society so that they conform to the accepted coded of conduct. Social control is defined as “the way in which the entire social order coheres and maintains itself, operates as a whole, as a changing equilibrium”.

This Social Control refers to the way society controls our behaviour, either through norms and practices or through the state and its compelling

force. The regulation of behaviour in society, whether of individuals or of groups is undertaken in two ways-:

- a) By adhering to established norms and values of society; and
- b) By the use of force.

The term “Social Control” is generally used by sociologists to refer to this first kind of regulation.

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5.5.2 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL CONTROL

According to E.A. Ross, the individual has deep-rooted sentiments that help him to cooperate with other fellow members to work for social welfare. These sentiments are sympathy, sociability and a sense of justice. But these sentiments by themselves are not enough to suppress the self-seeking impulses of the individual.

Society has to make use of its mechanism to accomplish the necessary order and discipline. This mechanism is called social control. As Ross defines, “Social control refers to the system of devices whereby society brings its members into conformity with the accepted standard of behaviour.

Ogburn and Nimkoff have said that social control refers to the patterns of pressure which society exerts to maintain order and established rules”.

As Gillin and Gillin say, “Social control is the system of measures, suggestions, persuasion, restrain and coercion by whatever means including physical force by which society brings into conformity to the approved pattern of behaviour, a subgroup or by which a group moulds into conformity its members”.

According to Maclver,” Social control is the way in which entire social order coheres and maintains itself – how it operates as a whole, as a changing equilibrium.”

5.5.3 NEED AND PURPOSE OF SOCIAL CONTROL NEED

The need and importance of social control has been recognized by all social thinkers. Individuals differ in their interest and capabilities. If each individual is allowed unrestricted freedom to act and behave, it may lead to anarchy and disorder in the society. The resultant conflicts, frequent and persistent, would be a constant drain on society’s energy and efficiency.

As an analogy, we could consider traffic movement on roads in the absence of any traffic rules and traffic signals, etc. It is easy to imagine the chaos that would rule the roads and the unending traffic jams that would follow. If we add to it the frustration of the drivers and their heated tempers. It is easy to understand that the end result is totally undesirable. The fact that traffic rules help to maintain order and efficient movement of vehicles is only due to the presence of control.

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The situation in society would be no different if there was no accepted mode of behavior. Individuals, therefore, have to be made to co-exist in a manner that benefits them as well as the groups they comprise of social control becomes a necessity for the following reasons:-

- i) To maintain the old order- For continuity and infirmity of a social group, it is important that the old social order is maintained. This function is fulfilled by the family. The old members of the family initiate and socialize the young ones into their traditions, value patterns and accepted forms of behavior.
- ii) To regulate individuals behavior – individuals vary in their ideas, interests, attitudes and habits, etc. Even children of the same parents think and behave differently. Thus their behavior needs to be regulated in accordance with the established norms which would lead to uniformity and solidarity of the group.
- iii) To check cultural maladjustment – Society is changing at a rapid pace. The changes threaten to uproot the existing social system and replace it with a new good and bad and to retain one's sense of balance and judgement.

PURPOSE

Sociologists attribute many purposes of social control. The aim of social control is to bring about conformity in a particular group society.

At times, out of sheer ignorance, individuals could act in a manner that may or may not benefit them. But certainly society's interests lie at the collective level. There are other situations when the individual is perfectly aware of the ill effects of his actions on the society but he continues with his behaviour because it increases his welfare. For instance, in an industry where the owner is fully aware of the harmful effects of pollution but does not install pollution control device because he wants to maximise his profits at the cost of safeguarding the collective interests. Society seeks to regulate the individual behaviour. The purpose of social control is to regulate the interests of both the individual and the group in a way that is beneficial to both.

5.5.4 MEANS OF SOCIAL CONTROL – FORMAL AND INFORMAL

At all times, all societies have had some means of maintaining order and control in their respective situation.

Individuals and groups comply with social norms through a network of social institutions, like family, kin groups, caste, village, education, state religion and economic institutions, etc.

Sociologists have classified the mechanisms of social control into:

- a) The informal means of social control and
- b) The formal means of social control.

5.5.4.1 INFORMAL MEANS OF SOCIAL CONTROL

In primary groups, the relationships are close, direct and intimate. Social control is often maintained by informal mechanisms, i.e. customs, traditions, folkways, mores and religion. These are adopted means by informal groups.

Informal mechanisms of social control include established and accepted institutions relating to socialisation, education, family, marriage and religion etc.

It is executed through informal sanctions which may be positive or negative. Positive sanctions included smile, a nod of approval, rewards and promotion, etc. For instance, good performance in an examination may be rewarded with a bicycle or a watch by the parents.

Negative sanctions; include a frown, criticism, physical threats and punishments. The unruly behaviour in school may result in detention or severe punishment is an example of negative sanction.

Informal Means of Social Control are

- i) Folkways
- ii) Mores
- iii) Customs
- iv) Religion

It must be mentioned here that with the variety in our ways of living, the means of social control also vary. Social control is specific to the groups or the society in which it is exercised. Informal mechanisms of control vary accordingly. Besides family, informal social control is also exercised by other social institutions like neighbourhood, kin group, clan and village, etc.

i) Folkways

Folkways are norms to which individuals conform. It is customary to do so. Conformity to folkways is not enforced by law or any other agency of the society. It is the informal acceptance of established practices in each group or society. Folkways are manifested in matters of dress, food habits observance of rituals, forms of worship and method of greeting, etc. For instance, the food habits in north and south India are different and these habits persist even when the person has moved to a different location away from his earlier surroundings.

ii) Mores

Mores refer to moral conduct as distinct from the customary practice of folkways. They influence the value system of a society and are in the form of social regulations which aim to maintain social order. Mores seek to regulate the relationship between individuals in defined situations, e.g. between husband and wife, parents and children and siblings, etc. They may also refer to general social relationships in terms of honest, truthfulness, hard work and discipline, etc. Since more are consciously designed and created with a view

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to preserve them. Violations of these often entail penalties. They are perhaps the strongest mechanisms of informal social control.

iii) Customs

Customs are the long established practices of people, which occur spontaneously but gradually. Along with regulation social life, they also bind them together. In primitive societies customs were powerful means of social control but in modern time,s they have weakened due to rise in the forces of individualism and diversity.

iv) Religion

Religion exercises a powerful influence on its adherents. Emile Durkheim defines religion as the unified system of beliefs and practices related to sacred things. Those who have common beliefs and practices are united into one single moral community through religion. Religion occupies a significant place in the life of an individual and fulfils the spiritual, social and psychological needs of an individual.

Religion helps in the process of social control in the following ways:

- a) Every religion has the concept of sin and virtue. Since early childhood, individuals are exposed to these concepts and to the notions of good and bad. These become ingrained in the individual's personality and guide his decision making during his life.
- b) Religious conventions and practices determine marriage, mural relations among family members, property relations rule of succession and inheritance, etc.
- c) Religious leaders regulate the behavior of individuals by exhorting them to follow a prescribed code of conduct.
- d) By organizing community activities, prayer meetings and by celebrating religious events and festivals, religious institutions too contribute to this process by bringing believers together and strengthening the common belief systems-thereby, regulating individual behavior.

5.5.4.2 FORMAL MEANS OF SOCIAL CONTROL

The formal means of social control come from institutions like the state, law, education, and those that have legitimate power. The apply coercion in case of deviance. For instance, a person convicted of having stolen someone's property may be sentenced to imprisonment. In other words, these institutions exercise the legal power to control the behaviour of the individual and the group. We shall now deal with the various forms of informal and formal means of social control.

Formal Means of Social Control are

- i) Law
- ii) Education
- iii) State

i) Law

In primitive societies, the groups followed similar occupations and individuals shared a direct, personal and intimate relation among themselves. These folkways, mores and customs sufficed in controlling the individual behaviour. There was almost unquestioned compliance with the informal mechanism of social control.

In contrast, the modern societies are characterised by immense diversity, individualism, division of labour and differentiation in terms of work, ethics and lifestyle. Urbanisation and accelerated movement of people striving for more and more has changed the character of social groups. Relationships have become formal. Customs and folkways seem insufficient to control diverse population groups. Simultaneously, the state has grown stronger and more specialised in nature. It is now necessary and possible to regulate individual behaviour by formulating a set of common laws which are backed by the legal, administrative and political machinery of the state. Laws and enforcement agencies are replaced by customs and mores as the regulators of behaviour and ensure social order and control.

Law has been defined in two ways. Some theorists have defined it in terms of “ideal behaviours norms”, while others have referred to it as rules that are promulgated by the state, which are binding in nature.

Individuals obey laws due to two prime reasons;

1. **Fear of punishment**- Punishment by the state results in curtailment of essential freedoms of individuals and hence acts as a deterrent.

2. **Rule conforming habit**-Many individuals believe that adherence to laws is necessary for their own well-being and prosperity as also for social stability and progress. This is called the “rule conforming habit”. The family, educational institutions and religious preachers all play a role in inculcating and sustaining this behaviour.

ii) Education

Along with laws, education has been an important agency of social control. It prepares the child for social living and teaches him the values of discipline, cooperation, tolerance and integration. Education institutions at all levels, (i.e. school, college and university) impart knowledge as well as ethics through formal structured courses as well as behavioural inputs.

The different pace of the educational system in different societies depends upon changing social mores, level of development and social needs. Thus, in ancient Indian society, the emphasis was on religious scriptures, philosophy and metaphysics. The focus shifted as social development has

resulted in an increased demand for knowledge in other areas and managerial skills.

At schools, the ideas of democracy, secularism, equality and national goals are communicated to students in addition to the emphasis on our shared history, culture, heritage, norms and values. By inculcating the concepts of good moral behaviour, morality, discipline and social etiquettes, the educational system serves its role as an agent of formal social control.

iii) STATE

State has a vital role in administering social control. Sociologists have defend the state as “an association designed primarily to maintain order and security, exercising universal jurisdiction with in territorial boundaries, by means of law backed by force and recognized as having sovereign authority”. State functions through the government. Modern nation states strive to be welfare states, i.e. they seek to provide to the citizens a wide range of social services like education, medical care, old age pension and unemployment allowance. These are achieved by means of the co-operation of individuals and through collective efforts of the media, the NGOs and other social institutions. For example, the pulse polio programmes of the government are extensively supported by the use of television, posters NGOs and educational institutions, all of which try to educate the public on the advantages of the government measures. In the above mentioned context, the state acts as an informal agency of social control, eschewing coercion.

However, certain functions, like maintenance of law and order, defence, foreign relations and currency, require the state to intervene in a formal and sometimes in a coercive manner.

India has a federal polity and government manifests itself at various levels- village, block, district, state and at the national level. At all these levels, its functionaries can enforce rules and laws. In modern societies, states become increasingly important as an agent of social control.

5.5.5 AGENCIES OF SOCIAL CONTROL – FAMILY, NEIGHBOURHOOD AND PUBLIC OPINION

1. FAMILY

A child is product of its genes and environment. He is born with certain inherent capabilities, which either grow or are stunted depending upon the environmental stimuli. In this, his situation is akin to that of a flower. With proper nourishment and care, it will bloom. If denied, it will decay.

Family is the most important agency of social control. Every child leans form his immediate environment, which is first provided by the family. Etiquettes, habits and attitude are first learnt from the immediate role models. (i.e. parents, siblings, kin groups, etc). The family socialises the child into the

norms, values, traditions, and customs of the group. Thus, family has a predominant role in shaping the personality of the child.

In villages an individual gets his status from his family. The elders have a dominant role in shaping the personality of the individual. This is manifested in the individual attitudes, interests and lifestyle, etc. Marriages are mostly arranged by the elders and seen as an alliance between families rather than between two individuals.

In cities, the family continues to play a predominant role in shaping an individual's personality. However, industrialisation, limited income and the paucity of space have contributed to the prevalence of nuclear family. This is very different from what is encountered in villages. Hence, families tend to focus upon themselves. This results in an increased accent on individualism as opposed to collectivism common in villages. The function of socialization that a family carries out is complemented by other secondary institutions such as the classroom, playground, peer group and the media. Unlike in a rural surrounding, the individual derives his social status partly from his family but more importantly from his personal achievements. Parents and elders still largely arrange marriages in cities. However, the consent of the boy and the girl is sought. Marriages, outside caste and religion are also on increase. Thus, we see that individual choice is becoming increasingly important. However, due to the absence of the strong family support on both sides, individual disagreements are more likely to lead to separation and divorce as opposed to the rural setting where the family network provides a readily available conflict resolution mechanism.

2. NEIGHBOURHOOD

Neighbourhood in villages comprises people normally belonging to the same kin group or caste. Hence, relationships that exist are intimate and informal. Beyond the immediate neighbourhood, the bonds are strong, as is evident from the fact that the son-in-law of a family is regarded as the son-in-law of a much larger group, sometimes, of the entire village.

In contrast, relationships between neighbours in the urban environment are characterised formally. They are marked by intermittent interactions and hence are far weaker than what is seen in the rural environment. In big cities, the ties of neighbourhood are almost relegated to the backseat. This is hardly any interaction between neighbours.

Thus, the village neighbourhood is an enthusiastic participant in many daily activities of a family. It thereby fulfils its role as a medium of social control. It ensures uniformity and corrects deviant behaviour. For instance, in a village neighbours would subject a son not looking after his aging parents to sharp disapproval and even sarcasm.

In cities, while not controlling individual behaviour so closely, individual actions that affect community are monitored by the neighbours, e.g.

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a person throwing trash in the open would be pulled up by his neighbours for spoiling the ambience of the neighbourhood.

3. PUBLIC OPINION:

Public opinion is commonly used to denote the aggregate views that individuals hold regarding matters that affect the interest of community.

Newspapers, radio, television, motion pictures, legislations, pamphlets and even the word of mouth mould public opinion.

Remote village communities, which do not have access to television and newspapers, rely on “gossip” for information about the happenings around them and to express their opinion on these subjects. However, radio, has increasingly become an important source to obtain news about events in distant place. There are group readings of newspapers too. Of late, television has also been introduced in the villages. In independent India, the introduction of adult franchise, panchayat raj institutions and planned development processes have all contributed to bringing villages in the mainstream of Indian polity and economy.

In cities, the print and visual media play a dominant role in shaping public opinion. As the audio visual medium is more powerful, television has slowly gained ascendance over newspapers. However, newspapers continue to influence opinions among the educated group.

Check your progress - III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

- 6. Define Social Control.
- 7. What are the two ways in which individual control can be regulated?
- 8. What are folkways?
- 9. What are mores?
- 10. What is Public Opinion?

5.6 LET US SUM UP

Social order refers to the way in which a society is organized along with certain rules and standards that are set forth in order to maintain that organization. Durkheim referred to a group's shared collection of beliefs, values, attitudes, and knowledge as the "collective conscience." German philosopher Karl Marx took a different view of social order. Focusing on the transition from pre-capitalist to capitalist economies and their effects on society, he developed a theory of social order centred on the economic structure of society and the social relations involved in the production of goods.

Social change occurs in all societies. No society remains completely static. This is true of all societies, primitive as well as civilized. Society exists in a universe of dynamic influences. Social change does not refer to the change

in the life of an individual or the life patterns of several individuals. It is a change which occurs in the life of the entire community. The speed of social change is not uniform in each age or period in the same society. Change is the law of nature. Social change also is natural. It may occur either in the natural course or as a result of planned efforts. Generally, it is thought that a particular factor like changes in technology, economic development or climatic conditions causes social change.

Social and the cultural aspects are closely interwoven. Thus, any change in the culture (ideas, values, beliefs etc.) brings a corresponding change in the whole social order. Social control is the term sociologists apply to those mechanisms by which any society maintains a normative social system. Sociologists attribute many purposes of social control. The aim of social control is to bring about conformity in a particular group society. Sociologists have classified the mechanisms of social control into : (a) The informal means of social control and (b) The formal means of social control. Agencies of Social Control are Family, Neighbourhood and Public Opinion.

In this unit you have learnt the Problem of social order. The factors involved in social change are discussed. Informal and formal means of social control also discussed in detail.

5.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Enumerate the theory of social order.
2. What is social change?
3. What are the factors involved in social change?
4. Explain the nature of social change.
5. Distinguish between informal and formal means of social control.
6. Highlight the role of state in maintaining social control.

5.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. The term "social order" to refer to a state of stability and consensus that exists in the absence of chaos and upheaval.
2. Emile Durkheim
3. Karl Marx
4. Social change is a term used to describe variations in, or modifications of, any aspect of social processes, social patterns, social interaction or social organisation.
5. Physical Environment, Demographic (biological) Factor, Cultural Factor, Ideational Factor, Economic Factor, Political Factor
6. Social control is the way in which entire social order coheres and maintains itself – how it operates as a whole, as a changing equilibrium.
7. (a) By adhering to established norms and values of society; and (b) By the use of force.
8. Folkways are norms to which individuals conform to in every society.

9. Mores refer to moral conduct as distinct from the customary practice of folkways.
10. Public opinion is commonly used to denote the aggregate views that individuals hold regarding matters that affect the interest of community.

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UNIT- VI JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

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- 6.9 Unit- End- Exercises
- 6.10 Answer to check your Progress
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6.1 INTRODUCTION

Delinquency involves a pattern of behaviour which deviates from the normal and is forbidden by the laws and sanctions of society. Hence juvenile delinquency is both a social and a legal concept. If we look at drug and alcohol production we find that in almost all countries, drug and alcohol production has risen in spite governmental control. Prostitution is the business or practice of engaging in sexual activity in exchange for payment. Prostitution is sometimes described as sexual services, commercial sex or, colloquially, hooking. Unemployment occurs when a person who is actively searching for employment is unable to find work. Unemployment is often used as a measure of the health of the economy. A crime is an act which the public regards as dangerous and condemns and punishes the perpetrator of such an act. Crime thus represents a specialised portion of the totality of undesirable behaviour. Due to the increasing disparities in the urban areas of India, particularly the million plus cities, urban crime has been on the rampant in most of the areas.

In this unit you will learn meaning and definition of Juvenile Delinquency. You will understand the Alcoholism and Drug Addiction. You will know the Problem of Prostitution. You will study about the Unemployment. You will study about Crime and cyber crime elaborately.

6.2 OBJECTIVES

- After going through the unit you will be able to;
- ✓ Identify Juvenile Delinquency
 - ✓ understand the Alcoholism and Drug Addiction
 - ✓ know the Problem of Prostitution
 - ✓ acquire the knowledge about the Unemployment
 - ✓ discuss the Problems of Crime and cyber crime

6.3 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Juvenile Delinquency has been defined as “some form of antisocial behaviour involving personal and social disorganisation”. It is a form of conduct that goes against the norms and laws of society and that tends to affect people adversely. Some think that delinquency is any act, course of conduct or situation which might be brought before a court and adjudicated”. Therefore, delinquency involves a pattern of behaviour which deviates from the normal and is forbidden by the laws and sanctions of society. Hence juvenile delinquency is both a social and a legal concept.

Delinquency is a kind of abnormality. When an individual deviates from the course of normal social life, his behaviour is called “delinquency”.

Juvenile delinquents are simply under-age criminals constitute crimes when committed by adults between the age group of 7 to 16 or 18 years, as prescribed by the law of the land.

When a juvenile, below an age specified under a statute exhibits behaviour which may prove to be dangerous to society and/or to him he may be called a 'Juvenile delinquent'. Each state has its own precise definition of the age range covered by the word 'juvenile'.

Crime committed by children under statutory age is known as juvenile delinquency. As per statistics released by the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB), juvenile criminals between 16 and 18 years accounted for more than 60% of the crimes registered against minors in India in 2013.

6.3.1 DEFINITION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

1. According to **Reckless** (1956), the term 'juvenile delinquency' applies to the "violation of criminal code and/or pursuit of certain patterns of behaviour disapproved of for children and young adolescents".
2. **Cyril Burt** defines delinquency as occurring in a child "When his antisocial tendencies appear so grave that he becomes or ought to become the subject of official action".
3. **Friedlander** says, "Delinquency is a juvenile misconduct that might be dealt with under the law".
4. **The Second United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders** (1960) states, "By juvenile delinquency should be understood the commission of an act which, if committed by an adult, would be considered a crime."
5. **C.B. Mamoria** writes, "The phrase 'juvenile delinquency' may be loosely used to cover any kind of deviant behaviour of children which violates normative rules, understanding or expectations of social system".

In simple words, it can be said that juvenile delinquency is a type of abnormal or antisocial behaviour by a juvenile who is below an age specified by statute.

6.3.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

On the basis of these studies and on the basis of data compiled by National Crime Records Bureau, 1998, following characteristics of juvenile delinquency in India may be given:

1. The delinquency rates are many times higher for boys than girls, that is, girls commit fewer delinquencies than boys.
2. The delinquency rates tend to be highest during early adolescence (12-16 years age group).
3. Juvenile delinquency is more an urban than a rural phenomenon
4. Children living with parents and guardians are found to be more involved in the juvenile crimes.
5. Low education background is the prime attribute of delinquency.
6. Poor economic background is another important characteristic of juvenile delinquency in India.

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7. Nine out of 10 juvenile delinquents are first-offenders and only one-tenth is recidivists or past-offenders.
8. Not many delinquencies are committed in groups. In India, it appears, a large number of delinquencies are committed all alone.
9. Though some delinquencies are committed in groups yet the number of juvenile gangs having support of organised adult criminals is not large in our country.

6.3.3 FACTORS IN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Individual factors

1. Submissiveness
2. Disobedience
3. Lack of sympathy
4. Irresponsibility
5. Feeling of insecurity
6. Fear
7. Emotional conflicts
8. Lack of self-control

Situational factors

Family, Movies, Peer group relations, School environment

Family

1. Parents' discipline
2. Parents' affection
3. Cohesiveness of family
4. Conduct-standards of home
5. Replacement parents
6. Father's work habits
7. Economic conditions of family
8. Conjugal relations of parents
9. Broken homes

School environment

1. Adjustment to school mates
2. Attitudes toward school
3. Failure in classes or academic interests

6.3.4 PREVENTIVE PROGRAMMES

General improvements in the institutional structure of the society, for example, family, neighbourhood, school

1. Raising the income levels of poor families
2. Providing job opportunities to children
3. Establishing schools
4. Improving job conditions
5. Providing recreational facilities in neighbourhoods
6. Improving marital relations through family counselling services
7. Imparting moral and social education

6.3.5 TYPES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Howard Becker (1966: 226-38) has referred to four types of delinquencies:

- (a) individual delinquency,
- (b) group-supported delinquency,
- (c) organised delinquency, and
- (d) Situational delinquency.

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(a) Individual delinquency

This refers to delinquency in which only one individual is involved in committing a delinquent act and its cause is located within the individual delinquent.

(b) Group-supported delinquency

In this type, delinquencies are committed in companionship with others and the cause is located not in the personality of the individual or in the delinquent's family but in the culture of the individual's home and neighbourhood.

(c) Organised delinquency

This type refers to delinquencies that are committed by formally organised groups. This concept refers to the set of values and norms that guide the behaviour of group members encourage the commission of delinquencies, award status on the basis of such acts and specify typical relationships to persons who fail outside the groupings governed by group norms.

(d) Situational delinquency

Situational delinquency provides a different perspective. Here the assumption is that delinquency is not deeply rooted, and motives for delinquency and means for controlling it are often relatively simple.

6.3.6 CORRECTIVE MEASURES AGAINST DELINQUENCY

In the discussion of juvenile delinquency, age is an important factor. The legal age for maturity, according to the Indian Maturity Act, has been fixed as 18 years. According to the Indian Penal Code, no act committed by a child under 7 years of age is an offence. However, there is a general tendency to regard all children between the age of 7 to 21 years as juveniles. But according to the Juvenile Justice Act 1986, a boy who has not attained the age of 16 or a girl who has not attained the age of 18 years is considered a juvenile in India. However, earlier according to Children Act this age was different in different states.

It is felt that juvenile delinquents need to be treated in a manner different from that of adult offenders. If a juvenile is punished and imprisoned in the same manner as the adult, he or she might come out of the prison as a confirmed criminal, whereas if we help him/her to live in different environment it is possible to change and save him/her from becoming a criminal. In view of this, laws have been enacted for taking up preventive and corrective measures. The Provisions made under these Acts are described below.

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- ❖ Juvenile courts have been formed to treat juvenile cases in very informal and simple atmosphere. These courts are headed by full time special magistrates, preferably women. The juvenile is brought before the court not in chains or handcuffs. Their cases are not pleaded by lawyers, but by special officers known as Probation Officers.
- ❖ Persons who have had training in social work and correctional administration are appointed Probation Officers. Every Probation Officer is entrusted with a few juvenile delinquents. He/She investigates their cases by visiting their homes, schools, parents, friends and neighbours. He/She collects information for understanding their environment. He/She plans for corrective measures and rehabilitation of the children.
- ❖ There are Remand Homes where juvenile delinquents are kept till the cases are decided, by the court. During their stay they remain under close supervision and adequate measures are taken to keep up their mental, physical and moral conditions. There are separate Remand Homes for boys and girls.
- ❖ After the decision by the court Children with minor offence are handed over to parents and those who need constant supervision, are kept in approved schools or institutions for care, treatment, education and training. It is expected that by the time they would come out of the schools, their criminal tendencies would disappear and they would have inculcated the qualities of good citizenship.

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Define the term 'juvenile delinquency'
2. What do you mean by individual delinquent?

6.4 ALCOHOLISM AND DRUG ADDICTION

Alcohol, opium and cannabis are the main drugs abused. Men, more than women are their addicts. Over the last few years, addiction to heroin in particular is rising rapidly. Taking drugs by injection exposes the individual to a high risk of developing other diseases and health problems like AIDS (Acquire Immune Deficiency Syndrome) as well as of death due to some of these problems and due to taking an over-dose.

If we look at drug and alcohol production we find that in almost all countries, drug and alcohol production has risen in spite governmental control. To fight the problem, (i) governments have begun strict vigilance, (ii) have often ordered destruction of poppy fields and laboratories, (iii) passed harsh laws against trafficking (i.e. dealing in drugs for financial profit), and (vi) have offered international co-operation on all matters related to drug use.

Governments are also encouraging preventive education programmes. Public awareness programmes are being taken up by governmental and non-governmental agencies for prevention of addiction. Such strong efforts, however, are not noticed in the case of alcohol which is a more socially accepted drug and has become a part of the daily life of people. Other than high taxes, in most countries, no curbs are placed on its production, sale and use. Alcohol continues to be a major income-earner for many countries.

Alcoholism affects a larger section of society than drug addiction and affects all socio-economic sections. Today there is a strong demand to view alcoholism as a serious social problem along with drug addiction.

Legalisation of some drugs is being seriously considered in some nations. This is because of the havoc caused by the substance to which one is addicted. An addict is one

- i) who cannot function physically and psychologically without drugs or alcohol,
- ii) who takes alcohol/drugs beyond the socially or culturally accepted level and at times even on an inappropriate place and time,
- iii) Who faces harmful consequences on his/her personal, family, work and social life.

Strangely this phenomenon only affects some persons who consume alcohol and drugs and not all. It is viewed as a deviation in most countries. It is necessary to understand why alcoholism and drug addiction occur. But first, let us understand the substance itself, viz. alcohol and other drugs.

6.4.1 FACTS ABOUT ALCOHOL

There are many types of alcohol. Only one can be consumed, viz. ethyl alcohol (which is used in beer, wine, toddy, whisky, brandy, rum, arrack or locally prepared liquor). When alcohol enters the blood-stream, it circulates all over the body. Its effects depend on the quantity taken. They vary depending on the speed at which a person drinks. His/her weight and the presence of food in the stomach also make a difference. The percentage of alcohol in the drink and to some extent, some psychological factors like who one is drinking with are also important. Past experience of drinking and attitude to drinking is another pair of important variables. Alcohol affects the brain directly showing down its activities as well as those of the spinal cord. It acts as a depressant, i.e. it slows down responses. It gives the false impression of being a stimulant because it lowers inhibition and makes people lively. Contrary to popular conceptions, alcohol contains only empty calories, without any nutritive value.

Alcohol leads to dependence in the case of several people. This causes serious difficulties in occupational and family life. It also causes problems in financial areas, social interaction and physical and mental health of the addict and his/ her family.

The short-term effects of alcohol consumption in small quantity can lead to a lowering of inhibition. It also leads to increased anger, forgetting of unpleasant events and a feeling of relaxation,. Regular, frequent, excessive and inappropriate use of alcohol leads to moodiness and loss of judgment. It leads to lack of control over body movements, and absence of alertness. It also creates loss of clarity of speech, absence of judgment and even chronic illness and death.

6.4.2 What is Drug?

Any substance (usually chemical) which influences our bodies or emotions when consumed may be called a drug, i.e. it is a chemical substance, that, when put into your body can change the way the body works and the

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mind thinks. These substances may be medicinal i.e. prescribed by a doctor for reducing minor ailments or problems, e.g. lack of sleep, headache, tension, etc. but are also

- i) used without medical advice,
- ii) used for an excessively long period of time,
- iii) used for reason other than medical ones.

The use of such drugs is usually legal.

Some drugs may be nonmedicinal in nature. Their use is illegal e.g. heroin. Another group of drugs are those that are legal, but are harmful for the person if consumed in excess, regularly, e.g. alcohol. There are other substances like cigarettes, coffee, tea etc. which can be termed as socially accepted legal drugs. But these are not seen as harmful. Some drugs like alcohol, brown sugar, etc. are dangerous and addictive. It is these drugs that will be discussed in the next subsection.

6.4.3 Drug Use and Abuse

Using drugs to cure or prevent an illness or improve one's health may be called drug 'use'. Using drugs (medicinal/non-medicinal) in quantity, strength, frequency or manner that damages the physical or mental functioning of an individual, is termed as drug abuse. This means that even taking medicines in excess or too often or too long or for the wrong reasons or in the wrong combination implies drug 'abuse'.

6.4.4 FACTS ABOUT NARCOTIC DRUGS

A drug is a substance that affects feelings, thinking or behaviour, initially due to chemical reactions in the brain. Alcohol is also a drug in that sense. Drugs are consumed by eating, smoking, inhaling, sniffing, drinking or by injections. Excluding alcohol, drugs can be classified as follow:

- i) Stimulants—Drugs that increase the activity of the brain.
- ii) Depressants—Drugs that slow down the activity of the brain.
- iii) Hallucinogens—Drugs that change the way we see, hear and feel.
- iv) Cannabis—Drugs like Ganja, Hashish and Bhang produced from the hemp plant.
- v) Opiates or drugs obtained from opium or artificially produced substitutes which have opium like effects.

6.4.5 THE PROCESS OF ADDICTION

It is generally recognised today that addiction is a disease and not simply a sign of moral weakness or of a lack of will power. In this section, the process of addiction to alcohol and drugs are examined separately, though the general path is similar.

6.4.5.1 Addiction to Alcohol

Alcoholism has been described as chronic illness which is characterised by repeated drinking of alcoholic drinks, to the extent that it

- i) exceeds customary use and social standards of a community.
- ii) interferes with the drinker's health and social or economic functioning and leads to continuing problems.

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An alcoholic is unable to take note of these problems or if he/she takes note, is not able to stop drinking completely.

Alcoholism has been described in the following way:

- i) It is a disease by itself and not just a symptom of a psychological problem. The disease itself causes psychological and physical problems, which can be handled, only if the alcoholism itself is treated.
- ii) It is a progressive disease, i.e. in the absence of treatment, it worsens.
- iii) It can be a terminal illness, i.e. if untreated for medical problems like cirrhosis, the person can die.
- iv) It is a treatable disease, i.e. it can be checked or its progress stopped with proper treatment, which aims at totally giving up alcohol. An alcoholic thus cannot drink one in a while, i.e. he/she cannot become a 'social drinker'. This is so even if he/she has remained sober, i.e. without alcohol, for many years. Even if he/she takes a small quantity of alcohol he/she will return to frequent drinking.

As a progressive disease, it goes through various phases. The signs of these phases are described below:

i) **Early Phase**

- a) Need for more alcohol for the same effects, as earlier.
- b) Avoid talk about alcohol due to guilt.
- c) 'Blackouts', i.e. forgetting all that one did under the influence of alcohol.
- d) Preoccupation with drinks, i.e. thinking of how, when and where one can get the next drink.

ii) **Middle Phase**

- a) Loss of control over the quantity, time and place of consumption.
- b) Giving excuses for one's drinking to others and self.
- c) Grandiose behaviour, i.e. doing things beyond one's capacity, e.g. spending too much or showing off.
- d) Aggression through words and action.
- e) Guilt and regret.
- f) Temporary periods of giving up drink.
- g) Changing the drinking pattern, e.g. changing the type of drink, the time/place of drinking, etc, to limit one's drinking, which does not give any positive results.
- h) Problems in social relationships and increase of problems in family, job and financial matters.

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- i) Morning drinking in some cases in order to handle the hangover i.e. the feeling of illness and unpleasant physical symptoms the morning after an evening of heavy drinking.
- j) At times, the alcoholic may seek help for alcoholism at this stage

iii) **Chronic Phase**

- a) Decreased tolerance i.e. now get 'drunk' even with a very small quantity.
- b) Physical complaints.
- c) Binge drinking, i.e. continuous drinking for days together.
- d) Keeping a constant watch over the quota of one's drinks, due to fear of being without a drink.
- e) Criminal behaviour to get alcohol and ethical breakdown, i.e. unable to live up to social values.
- f) Paranoia or suspicious feelings that everybody is against him/her.
- g) Loss of sexual desire/functioning in men which increases their suspicion about their wife's fidelity.
- h) Fears of simple things, e.g. being alone.
- i) Lack of motor coordination, i.e. shakes and tremors, prevent him from performing simple acts.
- j) Hallucinations, e.g. imagining voices speaking, seeking what does not exist, or feeling sensations in the absence of external stimuli.
- k) If alcohol is discontinued, severe physical discomfort and pain follows.
- l) Either death or mental illness at the final stage.

6.4.5.2 Addiction to Drugs

Addiction to drugs is similar to alcohol addiction, in terms of its characteristics. The stage of addiction to drugs are also similar and are described below.

a) **Early Phase**

- a) The amount of drug and the number of times it is taken, goes up.
- b) The person begins to spend more time and money on drugs and less on other activities in life.
- c) Thoughts about drugs and the need to have them become important.

ii) **Middle Phase**

- a) The person needs the drug in larger quantity than before to feel well, i.e. addiction occurs.
- b) Loss of control over drug use in spite of repeated efforts and decisions to stop or reduce the taking of drug.
- c) Begins to hide drug supplies.
- d) Problems in all areas of life, e.g. educational, work, family, etc.
- e) Neglect of personal hygiene.
- f) Staying away from friends and earlier interests.
- g) Change in personality.

iii) **Chronic Phase**

- a) Total loss of control over drug use.

- b) Almost constantly under the influence of drugs.
- c) Needs people to attend to own needs, e.g. eating.
- d) Remains only with other drug taking persons.
- e) Possibility of early death.

Drug addiction thus leads to changes and deteriorations in behaviour, and social life, as well as in mental faculties like judgment, thinking and emotions.

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6.4.6 CAUSES OF ADDICTION

6.4.6.1 Physiological Causes

It has been found that if both parents of a child are addicted, the child has greater chances of developing addiction. While this does not mean that children of all addicts will become addicts, it suggests a greater possibility. Alcoholism, in particular, tends to run in the family, suggesting that the predisposition to be an addict may be inherited. However, several other factors may also effect the development of the problem, viz.

- i) amount of drug taken and frequency
- ii) the route of intake (injected drugs and more addicting)
- iii) the availability, access and price
- iv) the influences in one's environment, other than familial.

Several other physiological factors are believed to contribute towards the development of addiction, e.g. in the case of alcoholism, nutritional deficiency, dysfunction of different body system, e.g. endocrine system, etc. However none of these have been conclusively proved.

6.4.6.2 Individual or Psychological Causes

For several years, addiction has been viewed as a mental abnormality, caused by individual problems. Studies have indicated that addicts are insecure people. Many addicts report symptoms that range from mild to severe mental disturbance. However, it is not clear whether mental disturbance causes addiction or addiction causes mental problems. Whatever the relationship, there is enough evidence to indicate that addicts suffer from deep personality problems, feelings of inadequacy, dependency, powerlessness, isolation and low sense of self-respect—Childhood-related problems are observed among addicts as well as current stresses before the setting in of addiction.

It is also argued that addiction is the result of learning. After taking drugs initially, there is a pleasurable feeling or experience. This acts as a reward, and may lead to a continuous increase in the intake. Thus, initial experience, if pleasant, may lead to addiction. However, the generally believed theory is that some personalities are more prone to addiction than others.

6.4.6.3 Sociocultural /Environmental Causes

Several theories are offered today which claim that addiction has sociocultural origins. People in societies that view that consumption of drugs and/or alcohol a acceptable, and where drugs are easily and cheaply available are likely to have high consumption of drugs/alcohol. In some tribal societies, the consumption of alcohol is a part of religious rituals and ceremonies. Such regular consumption may cause some people to become addicted. This does not mean

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that only availability and acceptance encourages addiction. In societies where this consumption is not accepted, some people turn to drugs/ alcohol because they suffer normlessness. Youth often take drugs as a rebellion against adult norms and values. The cultural defiance theory thus, indicates that drug addiction develops because of these emotional and social ties, with a nonconventional group.

Among young people, growing up is a stage of proving oneself to one's peer i.e. those in the same age group, who help to shape one's sense of identity. Since ability to tolerate alcohol is equated with one's manhood, boys often begin to consume alcohol and at times drugs at a young age, due to peer pressure.

As in the case of age and cultural background, occupation too has been found to be related to addiction. Persons in jobs that create stress—physical and/or mental are known to become addicted. Those prone to addiction thus include:

- i) persons in conservancy jobs, morticians and morgue workers, ragpickers, etc. whose job is associated with unpleasant activities,
- ii) those performing excessively exhausting, monotonous, laborious work e.g. load-carriers and porters, drivers, etc.
- iii) persons in competitive target-oriented jobs, where many deals may be struck around alcohol, like marketing and sales, etc.

Family influence is believed to be another important environmental factor in addiction. Imitation may occur if the family has an adult addict. Other factors that operate are:

- i) the aggravating of stress by the family at periods of transition, e.g. adolescence,
- ii) the absence of reasonable parental control.
- iii) a disunited and dysfunctional family.

Peer group influence in initiating drug abuse and encouraging it to the point of addiction is even more decisive, as mentioned earlier. Socialisation determines the extent to which people choose to conform to the larger social norms or to break the social bonds and choose deviance, living a life of addiction.

Different cultures provide diverse means to their members of gaining satisfaction and of handling tensions. If a culture provides many healthy ways of reducing tensions, and of gaining pleasure, e.g. sports, creative arts, rituals and ceremonies, etc., especially to young people and those under physical or mental stress, they are less likely to turn to alcohol or other drugs and thus be less prone to addiction.

Sociological theorists offer other explanations as well. The theory of strain conditions holds that people turn to drugs and alcohol because social in their environment do not provide them adequate opportunity for achievement. This is particularly so for lower socio-economic groups and other socially disadvantaged groups. It is also believed that people, because of their consumption of alcohol and other drugs and life-style become labeled as "deviants", tend to become dependent on drugs and/ or alcohol, as these become the most important aspects of their lives.

It, therefore, is clear that several sociocultural, psychological and physical factors can contribute towards alcoholism, often in combination, rather than singly.

6.4.7 INTERVENTION: TREATMENT, REHABILITATION AND PREVENTION

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It is fortunate that addiction is a treatable disease. Like a physical illness, it requires some medication. However, this medication does not cure addiction. It can be used to encourage appetite, build up stamina and strength, handle withdrawal symptoms and recover from other illnesses developed due to the addiction. The aim of treatment is basically to give up alcohol or drugs totally (abstinence) over a period when relapse (or a slip into taking alcohol or other drugs) will occur at sometime or the other as a natural event.

Various methods and resources are being used for the above phases. Physical management may be organised in hospitals (special/general), special centers or even at homes, under guidance. Psychological help is provided in :

- i) professionally run places like hospitals, general hospitals, mental hospitals, private hospitals, or units specially meant for de-addiction, i.e. moving away from addiction.
- ii) institutions (day-care or residential) run by recovering addicts and/or professionals,
- iii) by Alcoholics Anonymous/Narcotics Anonymous fellowships of recovering. Addicts that help others and self to stay sober and to help others to achieve and retain sobriety or to remain 'dry' i.e. stay away from the addicting substance.

The entire process of helping addicts to physically, psychologically and socially cope with situations that are likely to be encountered after detoxification to find one's place in society, so as to take up one's duties and fulfil one's rights may be described as the process of rehabilitation. Vocational placement or integration thus, forms an important aspect of this process, which may be organised via income-generating projects, and job placement services.

To sum up, the goals of rehabilitation may be defined as follows:

- i) total abstinence
- ii) improving one's physical condition
- iii) taking up responsibility for one's behaviour
- iv) developing faith in oneself, others, and a higher spiritual power
- v) learning to develop a healthy self concept and understanding oneself
- vi) developing socially acceptable and meaningful goals in life
- vii) developing internal control
- viii) resuming one's education, job and social roles
- ix) re-entering the family.

All of these goals and stages are difficult ones. In view of the number of known addicts and the large number that remain camouflaged, the available therapeutic services in most countries are inadequate. Just as identification and building the motivation of an addict is a difficult task, so is handling relapse

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(which is very common) and providing aftercare. Vocational placement is even more difficult, especially in view of the social stigma and, in many countries, limited resources.

The task of preventing drug abuse, thus, becomes a matter of paramount importance. For this, one needs to reduce both the supply and demand, i.e. ensure that drugs and alcohol are not sold or are not available easily (supply) as well as convince people to stay away from them (demand). Adequate facilities to keep people away from drugs are needed on the one hand, e.g. recreation facilities, employment services etc.

On the other hand, uniform and strict laws against the sale of drugs and their implementation are needed. Education of vulnerable groups (i.e. those most likely to turn to drugs) on the problems of addiction and life-skills (i.e. abilities to cope with life's regular and special problems), can help to keep them away from drugs. Time, effort and money spent on preventive programmes will be of immense value in curbing addiction.

Check your progress – II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. What is Drug?

4. What is Drug Use and Abuse?

6.5 PROSTITUTION

Prostitution devalues women's dignity and stigmatises her as a 'fallen' woman in the society. The commodisation of woman's sexuality begins with the subordination of women. Women's identity as an individual is undermined by the objectification of her sexuality and the sale of sexual experience. In the urban context, where single male migration from rural areas is high the business of prostitution is rampant.

Prostitution is the business or practice of engaging in sexual activity in exchange for payment. Prostitution is sometimes described as sexual services, commercial sex or, colloquially, hooking. It is sometimes referred to euphemistically as "the world's oldest profession" in the English-speaking world. A person who works in this field is called a prostitute and is a type of sex worker.

6.5.1 MEANING OF PROSTITUTION

Prostitute is derived from the Latin prostituta. Some sources cite the verb as a composition of "pro" meaning "up front" or "forward" and "stituere", defined as "to offer up for sale". Another explanation is that prostituta is a composition of pro and statuere (to cause to stand, to station, place erect). A literal translation therefore is: "to put up front for sale" or "to place forward". The Online Etymology Dictionary states, "The notion of 'sex for hire' is not inherent in the etymology, which rather suggests one 'exposed to lust' or sex 'indiscriminately offered.'"

The word prostitute was then carried down through various languages to the present-day Western society. Most sex worker activists groups reject the word prostitute and since the late 1970s have used the term sex worker instead. However, sex worker can also mean anyone who works within the sex industry or whose work is of a sexual nature and is not limited solely to prostitutes.

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The English word whore derives from the Old English word *hōra*, from the Proto-Germanic **hōrōn* (prostitute), which derives from the Proto-Indo-European root **keh-* meaning "desire", a root which has also given us Latin *cārus* (dear), whence the French *cher* (dear, expensive) and the Latin *cāritās* (love, charity). Use of the word whore is widely considered pejorative, especially in its modern slang form of ho.

Correctly or not, use of the word prostitute without specifying a sex may commonly be assumed to be female; compound terms such as male prostitution or male escort are therefore often used to identify males. Those offering services to female customers are commonly known as gigolos; those offering services to male customers are hustlers or rent boys.

6.5.2 DEFINITION OF PROSTITUTION

1. Merriam Webster defines prostitution as “the work of a prostitute: the act of having sex in exchange for money” or “the use of a skill or ability in a way that is not appropriate or respectable”. However, users of Urban Dictionary define prostitution slightly differently. The following are some examples of their personal definitions:
2. “The world’s oldest and most successful profession.” –AYB
3. “The act of paying money for the sexual favors of a member of the opposite sex or the same sex. It is illegal in most of the USA unless you film it or photograph it, then it’s art, it’s legal, and it’s an \$8 billion dollar a year industry.” –benny the chicken killer
4. “The practice of exchanging sex for money, goods or favours – by people who have the integrity to admit what they are doing.
5. Contrary to popular stupidity very few whores are coerced and most are self-employed, or work through agencies.
6. “The most honest transaction that ever takes place between men and women.” –Reiki Man
7. “Only thing better than porn if you don’t have a girlfriend.” –ggg666
8. “how dreams are made.” –Drama_King
9. “The easiest solution to fixing unemployment.” –bg

6.5.3 TYPE OF PROSTITUTION

Street: The prostitute solicits customers while waiting at street corners and park and walking alongside a street. It is serviced in side streets, vehicles, or short stay premises (KambizAkhavan 2005).

Escort: Clients contact sex worker directly by phone or via hotel staff. It is relatively expensive because of low client turnover. Services are provided at client’s home or hotel room.

Sex tourism: Sex tourism is trips organized from within the tourism sector, or from outside this sector but using its structures and networks, with the primary purpose of effecting a commercial sexual relationship by the tourist with residents at the destination (World Tourism Organization n.d.). Author Nils

Ringdal (2004) stated that three out of four men which are between the ages of 20 and 50 who have visited Asia or Africa have paid for sex.

Other types of prostitution: Prostitution can be demand through various media including noticeboard, magazines, newspaper advertisements, 'sex worker catalogues' with mobile phone numbers and the internet via virtual brothels. Services are delivered mostly in brothels and other indoor venues such as apartments.

6.5.4 CAUSES OF PROSTITUTION

- ❖ Ill treatment by parents.
- ❖ Bad company.
- ❖ Family prostitutes.
- ❖ Social customs.
- ❖ inability to arrange marriage,
- ❖ Lack of sex education, media.
- ❖ Prior incest and rape.
- ❖ Early marriage and desertion.
- ❖ Lack of recreational facilities, ignorance, and acceptance of prostitution.
- ❖ Economic causes include poverty and economic distress.
- ❖ Psychological causes include desire for physical pleasure, greed, and dejection.

6.5.5 ADVANTAGE OF LEGALIZATION OF PROSTITUTION

Prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases (STD's)

Health problems associated with prostitution, such as STD's and HIV/AIDS, are commonly assumed to be 'risks of the trade'. In the first instance, this has led many people to assume that prostitutes bear the primary responsibility for the propagation of STDs in the general population. However, legalization of prostitution can definitely help to decrease the chances of spreading HIV/AIDS and STD's. In Nevada, where prostitution is legal, not one (as of 1989) of the state-licensed prostitutes has ever tested positive for AIDS. A legalized system that shared the responsibility for safe sexual practices with male clients and management as well as sex workers could facilitate the role of health education. Furthermore, a regular monthly check-up and the use of condoms will be enforced to increase the public awareness so as to prevent the spread of the diseases. Besides, brothel owners can be held accountable if a customer contracts HIV and the prostitute tests positive for it (Matthew 2007). Medical reports are required for prostitutes to certify the condition of their health.

Economic advantage

The ILO report called for prostitution and sex industries to be officially recognized as a legitimate economic sector because they are already integrated into the economic, social and political life of countries and contribute in no small measure to employment, national income, and economic growth. A recent study highlighted the fact that the international sex industry's turnover can be conservatively estimated to be worth at least US\$20billion a year. By multiplying the average number of transactions each prostitute has per day times the available workdays per year times the average bill the ability of generating foreign exchange cannot be underestimated (Thomas & Bob 2003). Legalization of prostitution can promote tourism industry. This is because sex tourism is in high demand where sex tourist may travel to a country specifically for sex. Thomas and Bob (2003) also stated that it cannot be denied that the sex industry can and has contributed to the attractiveness of certain tourist destinations. When sex tourist arrived

at their destination, they are also attracted to the local tourism places apart from sex affair. Furthermore, this will increase the flow of foreign currencies into the country as sex tourist will spend for sex services, food and accommodation. As prostitution is legalized, it is considered a job. Therefore, government can earn large amount of revenue by taxing on the prostitutes' income.

Ensure prostitutes' workers' rights

Sex workers should enjoy the same labor rights as other workers and the same human rights as other people. Sex workers can only gain the same rights as other workers when the debate is moved from a moral framework and placed in the framework of labor rights. As prostitution is legalized, prostitutes will pay regular taxes on the same basis as other independent contractors and employees, and should receive the same benefits. A prostitute should have a consistent working hours, retirement pension and regular holidays, equal protection under the law and improved working condition. The World Charter for Prostitutes' Rights(1985) stated that prostitutes should be guaranteed "all human rights and civil liberties," including the freedom of speech, travel, immigration, work, marriage, and motherhood, and the right to unemployment insurance, health insurance and housing (Wikipedia 2009).

Reducing crime rate

Legalization of prostitution would be a better way to protect people in sex industry from rape and violence. If prostitution is illegal, prostitutes are unable to report such crimes of abuse committed against them out of fear of being prosecuted themselves for the crime of prostitution. Clients and pimps are aware that prostitutes are defenseless under the law, so they are free abuse the prostitutes as they please. If prostitution were legalized, these women could be protected under the law from such violence (Matthew 2007). It is estimated that if prostitution were legalized in the United States, the rape rate would decrease by roughly 25% for a decrease of approximately 25,000 rapes per year. There is strong indication from the interview, document analysis, and ethnographic data presented that legal brothels generally offer a safer working environment than their illegal counterparts. Regulated brothels offer particular ways of dealing with pragmatic safety issues and minimizing actual violence. Nevada brothels also offer specific mechanisms to protect workers via the ways transactions are organized, the ways technology is ordered, the visibility of customers, the bureaucratic relationships among customers, managers, and workers, and the cooperation with police based on the mere fact of their legality. All of these mechanisms work to eliminate systematic violence and to discourage an atmosphere of danger and risk.

Classify prostitution as a legal career

The stigma that is largely attached to women in prostitution only mirrors the low status and opinion society confers on all women in general. Sex workers will receive some of the most extreme forms of degradation, abuse and violence that all women are vulnerable to. Much of women's work in the domestic and reproductive spheres has been invisible and devalued. As such, there is an urgent need to recognize the reproductive labor of women as work in various sites. The acceptance and recognition of prostitution as work is to recognize and validate the reality of women who are working in prostitution. Therefore, legalization of prostitution can classify prostitution as a legal career where prostitutes can be treated equally as other workers.

6.5.6 DISADVANTAGE OF LEGALIZATION OF PROSTITUTION

Encourage the spread of HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases (STD's)
When prostitution is legalized, regular check-ups are needed. Even if a prostitute is being tested every week for HIV, she will test negative for at least the first 4-6 weeks and possibly the first 12 weeks after being infected. If we assume that he or she takes only 4 weeks to become positive, because there is an additional lag time of 1-2 weeks to get the results back, there will be at best a window period of 6 weeks for a prostitute. The average prostitute services between 10-15 clients per day. This means that while the

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test is becoming positive and the results are becoming known, that prostitute may expose up to 630 clients to HIV. The legalization of prostitution also protects women through enforceable condom policies. But the fact is that, prostitutes claimed that men will try not to use condom. In one of CATW's studies, U.S. women in prostitution interviewed reported the following: 47% stated that men expected sex without a condom; 73% reported that men offered to pay more for sex without a condom; 45% of women said they were abused if they insisted that men use condoms. Prostitutes have increased risk of exposure to HIV/AIDS and yet these diseases will be spread to another partner.

Brings physical and emotional harm to prostitutes

The health consequences to women from prostitution are the same injuries suffered by women who are subjected to other forms of violence against women. The physical health consequences include injury such as bruises, broken bones, black eyes, concussions (Janice 1999). A report in the British Medical Journal about client violence towards women in prostitution stated that of the 125 women in indoor prostitution contacted, 48% had experienced client violence. The types of violence experienced included: slapped, punched, kicked, robbery, attempted robbery, beaten, threatened with weapon, held against will, attempted rape, strangulation, kidnapped, attempted kidnap, forced to give client oral sex, vaginal rape and anal rape (Women's support project 2008). Violence will also bring emotional health effects to prostitutes. Sheila (1997) stated that these effect included feelings of humiliation, degradation, defilement and dirtiness. The prostituted women experienced similar difficulties in establishing intimate relationships with men. They suffer negative effects on their sexuality, flashbacks and nightmares, as well as lingering fears and deep emotional pain that often resembled grieving. An international survey establishes that 67% of prostitutes show symptoms of post-traumatic stress syndrome (Therese 2002). Although the women are agreeing to sexual activity, this is unwanted sexual activity. In order to be able to do it, the women need to learn to dissociate. Dissociation can cause lasting psychological harm.

Economics issues

If prostitution is legalized, business will lose customers who refuse to shop in area due to prostitution. The presence of prostitutes negatively affects the area economy, reducing property values and limiting property use. It will also bring financial burden to businesses that have to clean up after prostitutes and their clients have gone there, purchase surveillance equipment, or pay for extra security (Wynfred 2007). Woman support project (2008) stated that tax evasion may also occur due to legalization of prostitution. Pimps are simply not going to hand over the massive profits that are a part of the industry. Prostitutes do not wish to register as a prostitute and pay tax on money earned through unwanted sex. In addition, legalization has resulted in expensive legal challenges because no one wants prostitution zoned into their neighborhood or near their children's school, as has happened in New Zealand in the past few years.

Causes human trafficking problem

Owners of brothels and escort agencies want to earn money. They do not care if someone is illegal or trafficked. Prostitution is a market based on demand and if there is a demand for illegal activity, then prostitution will be provided. In New South Wales, brothels were legalized in 1995. In 1999, the number of brothels had increased exponentially to 400-500. The vast majority had no license

to operate (Women support project 2008). Where prostitution is tolerated, there is a greater demand for human trafficking victims and nearly always an increase in the number of women and children trafficked into commercial sex slavery. Although there was a belief that legalization would make possible control of the sex industry, the illegal industry is now out of control.

All human are equal and free. Regardless of the status and the wealth of the people, everyone's body is still as important as the others. Human body is priceless and precious. One should not disgrace prostitutes' body. They should not satisfy their own sex desire without considering other's feelings.

Prostitution is a serious and complex problem, which cannot be explained simplistically. Nobody joins it just for the fun of it. For there is no fun in it. Allowing every person to mutilate and violate your body, so many times a day round the year; year after year till one gets old is not a frivolous matter. It is humiliating and agonising. One is torn physically and mentally to such an extent that joining and knitting the threads and shreds of one's life anew is not only difficult but traumatically long and arduous.

Despite the Act several minor girls and women from rural areas and poor families are forced into the profession of prostitution, in which their living and working conditions are deplorable. They do not have control over their body, their earnings, their health deteriorates. Their children lack the support to receive education and other services. In the city of Bombay, certain non-governmental agencies are running crèche facilities for the right care of these children and high schools for the working children. There are no governmental programmes to alleviate the problems of prostitutes.

Check your progress – III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. Define Prostitution.

6. What are the types of prostitution?

6.6 UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment occurs when a person who is actively searching for employment is unable to find work. Unemployment is often used as a measure of the health of the economy. The most frequent measure of unemployment is the unemployment rate, which is the number of unemployed people divided by the number of people in the labour force.

Unemployment, also referred to as joblessness, occurs when people are without work and are actively seeking employment. During periods of recession, an economy usually experiences high unemployment rates.

6.6.1 DEFINITION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

1. **C.B Mamoria** define "Unemployment is a state of work less for a man fit and willing to work, that is , it is a condition of involuntary and not voluntary idleness"

2. "Unemployment is defined as a condition in which an individual is not in a state of remunerative occupation despite his desire do so"--
-- **D. Mello**
3. "Unemployment is often described as a condition of involuntary idleness"----**Nava Gopal Das**

6.6.2 TYPES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

1. Seasonal Unemployment

Normally when we talk of employed people we mean those who have work throughout the year. But this may not possible for all. In agriculture, work is seasonal even though agricultural activities are performed throughout the year. During the peak agricultural seasons (when the crop is ready for harvesting) more people are required for work. Similarly in the sowing, weeding and transplantation period more labour is required. Employment therefore increases at this time. In fact we will find that there is hardly any unemployment in rural areas during these peak agricultural seasons. However, once these seasons are over the agricultural workers, especially those who do not own land or whose land is not sufficient to meet their basic requirement (these are landless labourers and marginal farmers respectively), remain unemployed. This type of unemployment is known as seasonal unemployment. This also means that the persons who get seasonal employment are unemployed for the rest of the year. Seasonal employment results in large scale migration of the agricultural labourers from agriculturally backward regions to that of the developed regions.

2. Disguised Unemployment

There are also instances where we find too many people working when so many are not required. In agriculture we may find that all members of the family work. It is possible that 3-4 people can do a given work in the farm, but we find that the whole family of say 10 people doing the job. This may be because the excess people are not able to find employment elsewhere, so rather than remain unemployed they prefer to do the work along with others. This is known as disguised unemployment. This occurs when more than the necessary numbers of people are employed for the specified work. Disguised unemployment is found in agriculture because of the lack of employment opportunities elsewhere. Similarly disguised unemployment can be found in industry and offices as well. It is not uncommon to find a lot of staff in some offices who have very little or no work to do. In some factories also we find that many more people than required are employed.

3. Educated Unemployed

The problem of educated unemployed is serious in our country. There are a large number of young educated people who are unable to find employment or even if some of them do they are engaged in work which requires less qualification. This means that these people accept work which does not give them the income which persons with similar qualifications get elsewhere. For example a person is holding a Ph.D degree works as a lower division clerk in an office, or a highly trained engineer working as a sales

assistant in a shop. We find though the overall picture of employment in India has shown an improvement, the situation among the educated unemployed has remained the same.

4. Extent of Unemployment

There has been enormous increase in the rate of unemployment among the educated in India. The number of graduate unemployed increased from 9 lakhs in 1965 to 5.6 million in 1977 with an annual growth rate of 21%. During 1980-88 there has been an annual growth rate of 23% of the graduate unemployed. The number is much larger for matriculate, higher secondary, and undergraduates. However, one has to take into account that many of these people may not be looking for employment as they would be engaged in higher studies. It seems strange that in a country like India where only a fraction of its population has had college education there should be difficulty in finding employment for these people. Let us try and find out the reasons.

Growth in education is linked with economic development. As a country develops it requires larger number of educated people to meet its requirements for running the administration, for work in industry at different levels. As the services sector (also known as the tertiary sector) expands, and the requirement for educated, trained personal also increases. Graduates are required for work in offices of these various organisations. Moreover the teaching profession expands as there is a greater number of schools and colleges. Education therefore contributes to production as it supplies the requisite manpower. However, problems arise mainly because of the slowing down of economic growth that results in the surplus supply of the trained/educated manpower. This results in a situation where there is educational development but the growth in the economy does not keep pace with it. This results in unemployment among the educated.

There is also a lacuna with the education system in contemporary India. Our education system is not producing the required manpower as per the need of our society. Thus it is producing a large number of educated manpower whose knowledge and skill are not fully used at the present juncture of the transition of the society. They have remained as surplus educated manpower, unemployable and unemployed. The Kothari Commission (1964-66) pointed that there is a wide gap between the contemporary education system and practical need of the nation at present.

6.6.3 CONSEQUENCES OF EDUCATED UNEMPLOYMENT

The social consequences of the educated unemployed are quite serious. We will find that people with superior qualifications are doing jobs which could be done by less qualified people. This results in under-utilisation of one's capacity. We can find graduate engineers doing jobs which could be performed by diploma holders. Similarly there may be clerks and typists with post-graduate qualifications where perhaps matriculates could do the work. This is because people with lesser qualifications (matriculates) are unable to find jobs so they go for higher education with the hope that they will be in a better position to qualify for the same jobs. We therefore find that there are over qualified job seekers. This ultimately leads to the devaluation of education. An eminent educationist,

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A.R.Kamat, sums up the situation: "Education here is not so much an investment in human capital as a quest for a credential which will yield preference to its holder over those who do not possess it".

Apart from this, the educated unemployed become more frustrated than the uneducated unemployed because their aspirations are higher. An uneducated unemployed person may be willing to do any type of manual work but a graduate would not be willing to do this even if such work is freely available. In fact doing a job which is not suitable for one's qualification is not only frustrating but it is also a waste of national resources. An engineer working as a clerk because he is unable to find a job in his profession will make him frustrated.

In addition it also means that the investment made in making him an engineer has been wasted. Similarly a graduate working as a coolie or as a taxi-driver does so in most cases not because he prefers the work but because he has no other option. This makes him feel frustrated. It also means that the resources spent on his education have been wasted because one does not need such high qualifications for these jobs.

As mentioned earlier, unemployment makes the person feel insecure. He may out of frustration take to anti-social activities. Many thieves, pickpockets, smugglers, drug traffickers etc. take up these activities because they are unable to find gainful employment. What is worse is that once they are in these professions it is very difficult for them to take up respectable work later even if it is available. They have been branded as anti-socials and no employer would like to offer them jobs.

The increase in educated unemployed is therefore a threat to the harmonious working of the economic system and to the political system. The social impact of educated unemployed results in deviant behaviour. As mentioned earlier, educated people have higher ambitions for work and rightly so. If these are not fulfilled they may take to drugs, crime etc. The drug problem among the youth in our country is largely due to the bleak employment prospects. The unemployed youth are frustrated and they take recourse to drugs or alcohol to overcome their frustrations. Even the students when they find that jobs will not be available for them when they pass out try to overcome their depression through narcotics and drinks.

The frustrations of unemployed youth can also lead to terrorism. The highly educated unemployed have anger against society for their state of affairs. They feel that if this system cannot meet their aspirations for getting proper jobs it should be destroyed. This leads them to take to organised violence against the state.

Therefore the need to provide proper jobs to the educated is not just an economic problem. It is also a social problem which perhaps is more dangerous than the economic dimension of waste of resources.

6.6.4 GOVERNMENT POLICIES ON UNEMPLOYMENT

We have seen how unemployment is a severe restraint in our economy and society. In order to overcome some of the problems created by unemployment, the government has tried to formulate some programmes. These are directed towards creating avenues for gainful employment for the unemployed.

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1 Scheme for Educated Unemployed

There are mainly two approaches to help the educated unemployed. Some states such as West Bengal, Kerala etc. provide stipends for unemployed for a limited period. In most cases the minimum qualification is matriculation. The amount varies from Rs.100 to Rs.200 per month for three years. It is expected that persons availing of this scheme will be able to find employment within this period.

The other scheme is aimed at promoting self-employment among unemployed graduates. This is known as the Graduate Employment Programme. Here the government provides loans to graduates to start small industries or business with the help of the District Industries Centre. Preference is given to groups of graduates (3-5) who come together with a viable scheme. One can find a large number of them in the transport sector. The state government usually gives them priority in allotting route permits and license to set up industries. Unemployed engineers, both graduates and diploma holders, are encouraged to set up small industries or take up civil contract work after they form cooperatives. They are able to get loans at low rates of interest and they are given priority in getting government contracts. Various training centers have also been open by the government to promote the entrepreneurship and self-employment among the youth.

2. Schemes for Rural Areas

The educated are not the only ones who face the problem of unemployment in the urban areas. There are large numbers of people in the rural areas who do not have a high level of education and who are unemployed. There are two main schemes for tackling this problem. These are the National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and the JawaharRozgarYojana (JRY). Under these schemes the government creates public works programmes such as road building, construction, land reclamation, irrigation work etc. which provide employment to the rural poor. The advantages of such schemes are that firstly they are located in or near the villages of the unemployed so that they do not have to migrate out of their villages to seek work. Secondly they help overcome the problem of disguised unemployment and seasonal unemployment. The excess workers in agriculture can be drawn out and given work in these schemes.

There is another scheme for rural youth known as Training of Rural Youth for Self-employment (TRYSEM). This operates in selected development blocks. It imparts skills to rural youth so that they can start employment generating activities. These include weaving, training as mechanics, fitters etc.

3. Schemes for Women

Apart from the above schemes which cover both males and females, there are schemes which are directed mainly towards women. These schemes attempt to provide self-employment to women through home-based work. The Khadi and Village Industries Corporation (KVIC) provides various schemes for this purpose. These include spinning and weaving, making papads, agarbattis and other consumer products. The raw material is supplied to the women and they make the final products in their homes. The KVIC pays them their labour costs and markets the products. These schemes help increase the family income of the rural poor.

6.6.5 RIGHT TO WORK AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

The growing rate of unemployment in our country is a serious problem which has been the focus of government policy. In order to ensure that government takes this up seriously it has been argued that the right to work should be included as a fundamental right to work for its citizens. In other words the right to work is like an employment guarantee scheme. In order to achieve the right to work it will be necessary to go in for large scale rural employment. This would essentially mean that our investments have to be directed to this sector. It would mean ensuring that artisans, craftsmen and the small farmers get enough inputs in the form of credit and raw materials so that they do not have to leave their work in the villages and join the unskilled unemployed in the cities. This will help reduce urban unemployment. In order to achieve this goal the infrastructure in the rural areas has to be improved. There has to be irrigation facilities so that there is water for land cultivation. The communication network has to be built up, roads have to be constructed and transport improved so that the farmers and the artisans can get a wider market for their product.

Other facilities have to be improved as well. People can work hard and produce more only if they are healthy. Therefore health facilities and proper nutrition has to be ensured. Moreover the vast section of illiterates can be made to learn new skills only if their illiteracy is removed. Hence education and schooling facilities must be expanded to cover the entire population.

These are some of the requirements for ensuring that all able bodied people get work. To achieve this it requires not only ore investment in the rural sector but also a change in the orientation of our planning. Perhaps this is why most governments promise to take steps to ensure the right to work but do not translate this into reality.

Check your progress – 1V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

7. Define – Unemployment.

8. Give the expansion of TRYSEM

6.7 CRIME AND CYBER CRIME

The sociology of crime (criminology) is the study of the making, breaking, and enforcing of criminal laws. Its aim is to understand empirically and to develop and test theories explaining criminal behaviour, the formation and enforcement of laws, and the operation of criminal justice system.

Every society, in the process of growth, develops certain values and norms for expected behaviour. Some of these norms later get codified into laws. Their violations become punishable by the state.

The term 'crime' means a form of anti-social behaviour that violates public sentiment to such an extent that is forbidden by law. A crime is an act which the public regards as dangerous and condemns and punishes the perpetrator of such an act. Crime thus represents a specialised portion of the totality of undesirable behaviour.

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6.7.1 DEFINITION OF CRIME

1. Tappan has defined crime as "an intentional act or omission in violation of criminal law committed without defence or justification".
2. Thorsten Sellin has described it as "violation of conduct norms of the normative groups"
3. Mowrer had defined it as "an anti-social act".

6.7.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF CRIME

Hall Jerome (1947), according to him, no action is to be viewed as crime unless it has five characteristics

- ✓ It is legally forbidden
- ✓ It is intentional
- ✓ It is harmful to society
- ✓ It has criminal objective
- ✓ Some penalty is prescribed for it.

6.7.3 CONFINEMENT OF CORRECTION OF CRIMINALS

- Two methods are mainly used in our society in punishing/treating the criminals.
- Imprisonment and release on probation

Prisons

- The conditions in Indian jails were horrible up to 1919-20.
- It was after recommendations of 1919-20 Indian Jails Reform committees that changes like classification, segregation of prisoners, education, recreation, assigning productive work and opportunities for maintaining contacts with family and society were introduced in maximum-security prisons.
- That is central jail, district jails and sub-jails

Probation

- ❖ Probation is an alternative to a prison.
- ❖ It is suspension of sentence of an offender by the court and releasing him on certain conditions to live in the community with or without the supervision of a probation officer.
- ❖ The system was introduced in India in 1958 by passing the Central Probation Act.
- ❖ Through section 562 in 1898 IPC permitted release of an offender on probation but it applied only to juvenile delinquents and first offenders.

6.7.4 CRIME IN CITIES

Indian Penal Code (IPC)

Due to the increasing disparities in the urban areas of India, particularly the million plus cities, urban crime has been on the rampant in most of the areas. The common types are theft of property, crime against women, crime against children, crime against the aged and cyber crimes.

A total of 297679 cognizable crimes under the IPC (Indian Penal Code) were reported from the 35 million plus cities in 2002, (National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, 2002), as compared to 289775 crimes during 2001, thereby reporting an increase of 2.7 percent compared to the national scenario on a marginal increase of 0.6 percent. The Indian metropolises witnessed an increase of Murder (5.9 percent), attempt to commit murder (6.2 percent), dacoit (37.1), riots (1.3) and dowry deaths (10.1). In addition, the metropolitan centers, had also contributed to 45.9 percent of the total Auto thefts cases in the country, 31.5 percent cheating cases and 28.6 percent of counterfeiting cases of the nation's total crime.

Crimes under Special and Local Laws (SLL)

The 35 metropolitan cities reported 1625689 cases of SLL crimes in 2002 compared to 1763759 cases in the previous year. Contrary to the National level increase of 4.9 percent, cities reported a decrease of reported cases of 7.8 percent over 2001.

Despite this, the 35 million plus cities contributed significantly towards the nation's share for cases under Copyright Act (36.9 percent), Indecent Representation of Women Prohibition Act (22.4 percent), Immoral Traffic (P) Act (17.9 percent) and Arms Act (19.9 percent). Ludhiana reported the highest percentage of 78.2 percent, followed by Varanasi 72.3 percent. In addition, Kolkata and Vijaywada also reported much higher incidences of cases under SLL.

6.7.5 CYBER CRIMES

In recent years Cyber Crimes have also increased in the Indian Cities. The Information technology (IT) Act of 2000, specifies, the criminal acts under the broad head of Cyber Crimes. Of the total 70 cases registered under IT Act 2000, around 47 percent cases pertain to obscene publication and transmission in electronic form. 38 persons were taken in custody for such offences during 2002. Other such cases include hacking, signature fraud,

breach of confidentiality etc. The urban centers of Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, and Delhi reported the maximum number of these cases.

6.7.6 CONCEPT OF CYBER CRIME

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The term cybercrime is nowhere defined, this concept is vary because the crime which is going to committed by using any means of communication or internet can be called as a cybercrime. The misuse of the computer or the internet is not specific therefore; it is not possible to define the cyber crime specifically. To understand the concept of cyber crime, it is necessary to see the concept of crime, which is, attach with the computer and the internet. The concept of cyber crime is not radical different from the concept of conventional crime. Both include the conduct whether act or omission which causes breach of rules of law and counterbalance by the state.

The cyber crime, which is the new term, the cyber, is also newly generated term. When by using the internet, anything going to be done in that cyber space, this is not found in physically existence that is called a cyber space. When anyone uses this cyber space to commit the crime, it is called a cyber crime. Cyber crime is not new but it is as like the conventional crime .Basically the crime means any act, which is going to commit against the society and create an alarm in the mind of society, or create a fear in society. So cyber crime means when any person by using the internet or computer performs the criminal activity as provided in any criminal law, that crime can be called as a cyber crime. When the word cyber comes, it deals always with the computer or any network. When this computer or internet is used to commit a crime, it is cyber crime. In cyber crime computer is an instrument to commit the crime or it may be a target.

The cyber world is the non-physical and the boundary less. Although, the computer world may exist only in intangible form, it affects the physical and real environment. The shift of crime to intangibles has a staggering impact on society, both socially and economically. This Social and economical impact is all over the world because, due to internet and information technology, the world becomes a global village. The internet is not subject to any particular state, therefore, the cyber law and the cyber crime cannot be subject to any particular country or State. Therefore, it is necessary to see the global perspective of the cyber crime. Being an international subject all Nations has try to enact the laws regarding cyber crime and tries to define the concept , thought it is not possible to define the cyber crime, but it is necessary to define the cyber crime for the execution of the cyber laws.

6.7.7 DEFINITIONS OF CYBER CRIME

The words cyber crime and computer crime are use inter changeably in common parlance. The word computer crimes has wider ambit as it entails not only crimes committed on the internet but also

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offences committed in relation to or with the help of computers. Don B Parker distinguishes between the concepts of computer crime and cyber crime, and gives the definitions of the terms in the following words.

Computer crime: A crime in which the perpetrator uses special knowledge about computer technology.

Cyber Crime: A crime in which the perpetrator uses special knowledge of cyber space.

A computer crime defined by the U S department of Justice's "As an illegal act requiring knowledge of computer Technology for its perpetration, investigation or prosecution". However, the definition is not exhaustive as there are many acts, which can be called abusive activities concerning the computer but they are often not clearly illegal. Moreover, most of the cyber crimes are committed via internet but the definition has no reference to it.

Cyber crimes can be plainly defined as "Crimes directed at a computer or computer system" But the complex nature of cyber crimes cannot be sufficiently expressed in such simple and limited term.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) recommended the working definition of cyber crime "computer related crime is considered as any illegal, unethical or unauthorized behavior relating to the automatic processing and the transmission of data."

In 2001, The Council of Europe Convention defines cybercrime in Articles 2-10 in four different categories: 1) offences against the confidentiality, integrity and availability of computer data and systems; 2) computer- related offences; 3) content-related offence; 4) offences related to infringements of copyright and related rights.

This is not definition but it explanation of the cyber crime, which cover four limb in the illegal use of the computer and the internet. The council has broadly cover all the activities in which the privacy of some once going too violated by using the computer or related network. It also covers the integrity. It use the computer related crime means it use same word which cannot give any precise meaning .This definition is very broader in sense cannot give any precise meaning of the term cyber crime.

The information Technology bill, 1999 defines the cyber crime as, "Whoever knowingly or intentionally council, destroy, or alter or intentionally or knowingly causes another to conceal, destroy, or alter any computer source document use for a computer, computer program, computer system, or computer network, when computer source code is require to be kept or maintain by law the time being in force shall be punishable with a fine which may extent up to rupees two lakhs or with imprisonment up to three years, or with both."

Some of the commonly spelt out definitions of cyber crime are:

- ❖ A criminal activity that involve unlawful access to or utilization of computer system.
- ❖ Any illegal action in which a computer is use as a tool or object of a crime; in other words, any crime, the means or purpose of which is to influence the functions of a computer
- ❖ Any incidents associated with computer technology in which a victim suffered or could have suffered loss and a perpetrator, by intention made or could have made a gain. Any violation of the law in which computer is a target of or the means for committing crime.
- ❖ Any activity, which involves the unauthorized and unlawful access to or utilization of computer system or network in order to tamper with the help of computers and the internet, can broadly be called as cyber crime.

The important aspect in the definition is that, the act committed through the computer is basic, and very few definitions refer the internet, but the cyber crime is products of the internet and not merely a computer. Therefore, the mere computer or the internet is not subject of the cyber crime, but both things are part of the cyber crime. Therefore it is difficult to define the cyber crime .Basic reason behind it is that, it is not different that the conventional crime and it cannot be subject to any particular way of misusing of computer or the internet.

6.7.8 TYPES OF CYBER CRIME

The cybercrime is generic term that can be use by various illegal activates where in computer or computer network is going to use. The computer crime and cyber-crime are literally different but that cannot separate from each other by the legal system. Therefore, it is not easy to classify the cyber crime. There are various modes and manner by with the cyber crime can be committed. Even the traditional crime is going to be committed by using the computer or internet. The concept of crime is itself dynamic, and in case of cyber crime, it is more dynamic. Therefore, the cyber crime can be classified in various ways. It may classify on the use of computer or mode of using of computer in any crime. The role of computer in every cyber crime is different so it can classify on that basis also, it can classify on the basis of perpetrator. Role of computer means insider and outsider. However, the mode or role is not subject matter of criminal law but the result is more important, therefore on the basis of result of illegal act, Thus the cyber crime can be classified on the basis of victims in the manner as following

- ✓ Crime affecting Individual
- ✓ Crime affecting economy
- ✓ Crime affecting national security

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a) Crime affecting Individual

Cyber crime has started to take place by this kind. Maximum cyber crimes are committed which affect the individual. In this cyber crime, the victim is the user of the computer or someone who used the computer by the name of the victim. The criminal gets access to the computer or account of the other and uses the private access by violating the privacy right of the victim. The computer is a common and important source of preserving personal data or information. Internet and the computer develop the techniques to restore the huge data of a person in minimum time. Due to the capacity and the easy manner, this technique is going to be used everywhere from school to hospital and business enterprises to governmental and nongovernmental banking also make use or abuse of it. In this form of cyber crime, criminals made identity theft and committed the offence of fraud and misrepresentation. The word cyber stalking is used to refer only the use of electronic communications, such as internet, e-mail, SMS, MMS, etc. as a device to do stalking.

b) Crime affecting economy

Information technology is rapidly growing and used in all sectors of the economy including industry, commerce and services. The use of internet for the use and development of business and commerce is the need of the hour. The use of internet and computer in business is called e-commerce. This e-commerce provides various speedy and less expensive procedures in the high-tech business. Thus e-commerce has removed the national boundaries without any problem. Due to this, less expensive process attracted the traders and businessperson to use this mode for transferring the huge amount of money. However, this process is also not without disadvantages.

The businessman and common man uses this technology to save their time, but criminals use the technology which is unknown to the general user of the internet and the technology is more sophisticated technology which is more easier way to commit the criminal activities. The criminal activity as like hacking and IP spoofing are the common offences, which are going to be committed against the economy. Generally, the frauds are going to be committed by using internet. Software piracy is the common offence in a day, the object behind software piracy is nothing but to save the money. Cyber squatting is another mode to commit the cyber crime. The main object behind these offences is nothing but to gain wrongfully. This is a new mode to commit conventional crime though, it is known as a cyber crime.

c) Crime affecting National Security:

When the illegal activity in the cyber space, that affects the society and nation at large are called cyber crime against the national security. Now a day the internet is going to be used for spreading the ideas. When such use is made by the terrorist organization to spread their ideology, it will threaten the national security. Apart from this, there is also a major threat of terrorist attempting to disrupt the telecommunication and information technology apparatus itself.

This mode of the cyber crime threatens the national and international perspective. Cyber terrorism is best example of this offence. Terrorists are using the recent information technology to formulate the plans, raise funds, create propaganda, and to communicate message among themselves to execute a plan. Cyber warfare is another mode to commit the cyber crime which affects the national security. Computer and internet is integral part of military strategies of various countries in the world. By using the technology when one country collects the information of enemy country, it creates the threat to that country as well as the peace and security of the world is going to be affected by this kind of activities.

6.7.9 CYBERCRIMES IN INDIAN PENAL CODE

a) Cyber Stalking

There is no universally accepted definition of cyber Stalking, it is generally defined as the repeated acts of harassment or threatening behavior of the cyber criminal towards the victim by using Internet services. Stalking in General terms can be referred to as the repeated acts of harassment targeting the victim such as following the victim, making harassing phone calls, killing the victims pet, vandalizing victims property, leaving written messages or objects. Stalking may be followed by serious violent acts such as physical harms to the victim. It all depends on the course of conduct of the stalker. It is made punishable under section 354D of IPC.

b) Cyber squatting

Cyber squatting is the obtaining of a domain name in order to seek payment from the owner of the trademark, (including business name, trade name, or brand name), and may include typo squatting (where one letter is different). A trademark owner can prevail in a cyber squatting action by showing that the defendant, in bad faith and with intent to profit, registered a domain name consisting of the plaintiff's distinctive trademark. Factors to determine whether bad faith exists are the extent to which the domain name contains the registrant's legal name, prior use of the domain name in connection with the sale of goods and services, intent to divert customers from one site to another and use of false registration information and the registrant's offer to sell the domain name back to the trademark owner for more than out-of-pocket expenses.

c) Data Diddling

This kind of attack involves altering the raw data just before a computer processes it and then changing it back after the processing is completed.

d) Cyber Defamation

Cyber defamation is not too much different than the defamation provided in Sec.499 of IPC .it is nothing but any derogatory statement, which designed to injure a person's business or reputation, constitutes

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cyber defamation. Defamation can be accomplished as libel or slander. Cyber defamation occurs when defamation takes place with the help of computers or the Internet, as like, someone publishes defamatory matter about someone on a website or sends e-mails containing defamatory information to all of that person's friends.

(e) Trojan Attack

A Trojan, the program is aptly called an unauthorized program which functions from inside what seems to be an authorized program, thereby concealing what it is actually doing.

(f) Forgery

Counterfeit currency notes, postage and revenue stamps, mark sheets etc can be forged using sophisticated computers, printers and scanners. It is very difficult to control such attacks. For e.g. across the country students buy forged mark sheets for heavy sums to deposit in college.

(g) Financial crimes

This would include cheating, credit card frauds, money laundering etc. such crimes are punishable under both IPC and IT Act. Therefore when such crimes takes place, both laws can be attracted. A leading Bank in India was cheated to the extent of 1.39 corers due to misappropriation of funds by manipulation of computer records regarding debit and credit accounts.

(h) Internet time theft

It is nothing but one kind of cheating, where the internet is tool for committing this crime. This can notes the usage by an unauthorized person of the Internet hours paid for by another person. This kind of cyber crime was unheard until the victim reported it. This offence is usually covered under IPC and the Indian Telegraph Act.

(i) Virus/worm attack

Virus is a program that attaches it selves to a computer or a file and then circulates to other files and to other computers on a network. They usually affect the data on a computer, either by altering or by deleting it. Worms, unlike viruses do not need the host to attach themselves They merely make functional copies of themselves and do this repeatedly until they eat up all the available space on a computer's memory. This is one kind of trespass in the conventional crime. Though it is purely a cyber crime, It covers under the Indian Penal code.

(j) E-mail spoofing

It is a kind of e-mail that appears to originate from one source although it has actually been sent from another source. Such kind of crime can be done for reasons like defaming a person or for monetary gain etc. E.g. if A sends email to B's friend containing ill about him by spoofing B's email address, this could result in ending of relations between B and his friends.

(k) Email bombing

Email bombing means sending large amount of mails to the victims as a result of which their account or mail server crashes. The victims of email

bombing can vary from individuals to companies and even the email service provider. This is one kind of the mischief, where in the account or server is subject to destructs.

(l) Salami attack

This is basically related to finance and therefore the main victims of this crime are the financial institutions. This attack has a unique quality that the alteration is so insignificant that in a single case it would go completely unnoticed. E.g. a bank employee inserts a program whereby a meager sum of Rs 3 is deducted from customers account. Such a small amount will not be noticeable at all. However, due such merger from all the account holders collect huge amount. This is purely a criminal breach of contract.

(m) Web Jacking

This term has taken from the word hijacking. Once a website is web jacked the owner of the site loses all control over it. The person gaining such kind of an access is called a hacker who may even alter or destroy any information on the site. As it is one kind of hacking, but the IT Act has not use the word hacking specially, but deals with the various kind of unauthorized access or tampering with the computer resources, IT Act cannot cover all kind of hacking therefore IPC is generally applicable to such kind of the unauthorized access.

These are the offences, which are subject to the Indian Penal code and without the general principles of criminal law and specially Indian Penal Code; cyber law cannot work in India. However, the nature of offences changes, the base of the crime is quite same. Therefore, IPC is having wider scope even in conventional crime and the cyber crime in India.

6.7.10 CYBER LAWS IN INDIA

Apart from the Information Technology Act and Indian Penal Code, there are certain laws and regulations, which deal with the cyber crime. Even certain civil laws are relevant in certain misuse in cyber space. However, generally the fraud is there in cyber crime, therefore it concerns with the criminal law, otherwise even Law of Tort is also relevant and can provide the remedy to unauthorized use of the computer and internet. Apart from The Information Technology Act 2000 and Indian Penal Code 1860, there are various other laws relating to cyber crime in India. They are as following.

- ❖ Common Law (governed by general principles of law)
- ❖ The Bankers' Book Evidence Act, 1891
- ❖ The Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934
- ❖ The Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008 and 2009
- ❖ The Information Technology (Removal of difficulties) Order, 2002
- ❖ The Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000
- ❖ The Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Regulations, 2001
- ❖ The Information Technology (Securities Procedure) Rules, 2004

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❖ Various laws relating to IPRs.

Thus, the Indian legal system is having various laws concerning the cyber crimes. But the nature of the cyber crime is technical, therefore it require the technical process to execute the criminal law in proper sense. The technical process is lacking in Indian legal system, therefore though the substantive criminal law is sufficient, but due to lacking in procedural aspect its unable to execute it in India. The basic problem in the cyber crime is that, there is specific manner by which the internet can be misuse; it is on the criminals, that they always misuse it in different manner, therefore it is not possible to the legal system to meet with the need. Apart from this, the nature of cyber crime is transnational, therefore it required the international co-operation. Mere making laws is not sufficient, cyber law cannot work without the international co-operation. The Information Technology Act 2000 and all the related laws having provision regarding the transnational jurisdiction, but execution is possible when all countries in the world recognized that act as a crime, and allow the proceeding on that aspect.

Check your progress - V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

9. Define – crime.

10. Define - cyber crime.

6.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed Juvenile Delinquency. Juvenile Delinquency has been defined as “some form of antisocial behaviour involving personal and social disorganisation”. It then described in detail what drug and alcohol mean and explained the difference between key concepts like abuse, addiction, alcoholism, dependence, tolerance and withdrawal. The details of different drugs and the process of alcoholism and addiction were then explained. Then we have discussed about Prostitution.

In this unit we have covered various aspects relating to unemployment in our country. We have first of all discussed the meaning of unemployment and its dimensions. There are separate schemes for the educated, for the unemployed rural poor and for women. Lastly, we have also examined the meanings and implications of right to work in Indian context.

Due to the increasing disparities in the urban areas of India, particularly the million plus cities, urban crime has been on the rampant in most of the areas. The common types are theft of property, crime against women, crime against children, crime against the aged and cyber crimes.

From this unit you have been studied the problem such as Juvenile Delinquency, Alcoholism and Drug Addiction, Prostitution, unemployment, Crime and cyber crime in a detail manner.

6.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. List out the characteristics of juvenile delinquency
2. Define - 'juvenile delinquency'.
3. Enumerate the causes of addiction.
4. Explain the type of prostitution.
5. Describe government policies on unemployment.
6. What are the causes of crime?

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6.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. According to **Reckless** (1956), the term 'juvenile delinquency' applies to the "violation of criminal code and/or pursuit of certain patterns of behaviour disapproved of for children and young adolescents".
2. This refers to delinquency in which only one individual is involved in committing a delinquent act and its cause is located within the individual delinquent
3. Any substance (usually chemical) which influences our bodies or emotions when consumed may be called a drug, i.e. it is a chemical substance, that, when put into your body can change the way the body works and the mind thinks.
4. Using drugs to cure or prevent an illness or improve one's health may be called drug 'use'. Using drugs (medicinal/non-medicinal) in quantity, strength, frequency or manner that damages the physical or mental functioning of an individual, is termed as drug abuse. This means that even taking medicines in excess or too often or too long or for the wrong reasons or in the wrong combination implies drug 'abuse'.
5. The practice of exchanging sex for money, goods or favours – by people who have the integrity to admit what they are doing.
6. Street, Escort Sex tourism
7. "Unemployment is defined as a condition in which an individual is not in a state of remunerative occupation despite his desire do so"---- **D. Mello**
8. Training of Rural Youth for Self-employment
9. Tappan has defined crime as "an intentional act or omission in violation of criminal law committed without defence or justification".
10. Cyber crimes can be plainly defined as "Crimes directed at a computer or computer system" But the complex nature of cyber crimes cannot be sufficiently expressed in such simple and limited term.

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UNIT-VII PERSONAL DISABILITIES: CONCEPT, TYPES

Structure

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Personal Disabilities
 - 7.3.1 Concept
 - 7.3.2 Types
 - 7.3.3 Legislation
- 7.4 Physical and Mental Differently Abled
 - 7.4.1 Helping Physically Handicapped Children
 - 7.4.2 Mentally Differently abled
 - 7.4.2.1 Intellectual disability
 - 7.4.2.2 Signs of intellectual disability in children
 - 7.4.2.3 Symptoms of intellectual disability
 - 7.4.2.4 Levels of intellectual disability
 - 7.4.2.5 Other intellectual disability
 - 7.4.2.6 Unspecified intellectual disability
- 7.5 Health Problems
- 7.6 AIDS
 - 7.6.1 Difference between HIV and AIDS
 - 7.6.2 Antibody/antigen tests
 - 7.6.3 Antibody tests
 - 7.6.4 Nucleic acid test (NAT)
- 7.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 7.8 Unit- End- Exercises
- 7.9 Answer to check your Progress
- 7.10 Suggested Readings

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7.1 INTRODUCTION

Disability is a complex term that includes multiple definitions, approaches and perspectives, each with its own distinct angle and purpose, ranging from the very narrow to very broad boundaries, and looks very differently from the point of view of various models- from the medical to the social and from the cultural to the local. There is no universally agreed way of defining and understanding disability. In this module we will learn about the term disability, its concepts and its various modes.

7.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ understand the meaning and definitions of Personal Disabilities
- ✓ gain the knowledge about the nature of Disabilities
- ✓ know the modes of overcoming disabilities and health issues

7.3 PERSONAL DISABILITIES

The term **disability** means, with respect to an **individual**: (a) a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more of the major life activities of such **individual**; (b) a record of such an impairment; or (c) being regarded as having such impairment. Disabilities are an umbrella term, covering impairments, activity limitations, and participation

restrictions. Impairment is a problem in body function or structure; an activity limitation is a difficulty encountered by an individual in executing a task or action; while a participation restriction is a problem experienced by an individual in involvement in life situations. Disability is thus not just a health problem. It is a complex phenomenon, reflecting the interaction between features of a person's body and features of the society in which he or she lives. Overcoming the difficulties faced by people with disabilities requires interventions to remove environmental and social barriers. People with disabilities have the same health needs as non-disabled people – for immunization, cancer screening etc. They also may experience a narrower margin of health, both because of poverty and social exclusion, and also because they may be vulnerable to secondary conditions, such as pressure sores or urinary tract infections. Evidence suggests that people with disabilities face barriers in accessing the health and rehabilitation services they need in many settings.

Literature identified six main themes regarding disability identity: communal attachment, affirmation of disability, self-worth, pride, discrimination and personal meaning. We briefly define each theme.

Communal attachment: A recurring theme in the formation of disability identity is the importance of community, where people with disabilities are actively engaged with their peers due to common experience. Some research suggests that a sense of *communal attachment*, a community-based form of identity integration, is like “coming home” for many people with disabilities.

Affirmation of disability: A second personal identity factor is that many people are disposed towards the affirmation of disability. Personal *affirmation of disability* is a way to feel included in society by having the same rights and responsibilities as other citizens, to be recognized and treated like everyone else within a group or society more generally.

Disability identity politics and activism: Three themes are relevant to disability identity as understood within psychological contexts where politics and activism emerge: self-worth, pride and awareness of discrimination. *Self-worth*, the idea that one values oneself, is dependent on an individual's ability to perform activities or tasks viewed as important to the self, others and society more generally (e.g., performing activities of daily living). A sense of self-worth enables people with disabilities to see themselves as possessing the same worth as individuals who have not experienced a disability. Distinct from self-worth, *pride* refers to being proud of one's identity and, in the process, acknowledging possessing a socially-devalued quality, such as a mental or a physical disability. Pride encourages people with disabilities to “claim” rather than deny or mask disability. The third domain, *discrimination*, entails awareness and recognition of the reality that people with disabilities are often the targets of biased, prejudiced and unfair treatment within daily life. In the short run, such negative attitudes are “invisible barriers” during rehabilitation, whereas in the long run such prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behaviours serve as ongoing disruptions to daily living.

Personal meaning and disability: Finding meaning, entailing searching for significance and finding benefits associated with disability, is an important aspect of disability identity because it can represent personal

acceptance. Constructive acceptance of one's life situation, then, can solidify the meaning of disability while promoting a favourable disability identity. Searching for meaning following the onset of disability often results in the discovery of a "silver lining".

The definition of disability is continuously changing, and it varies greatly not only from country to country but also within each country. Disability is also seen and dealt with differently from the perspective of the various intellectuals, groups and organizations dealing with various kinds of disabilities. Defining disability is also difficult because there are several kinds of disabilities from the one intended to integrate in society to the one for exclusion and segregation. Hence there are bound to be differences in the understanding of an individual or group who looks at disability from the point of view of its integration and inclusion in the society and another who, for certain reasons, believes in its exclusion and elimination. There are differences of perception and approach within the disabled individuals and groups themselves which should not be surprising since there are so many different kinds and degrees of disabilities ranging from physical to mental and developmental levels, not excluding the various kinds of invisible disabilities, some of which are not even seen and recognized as disabilities. Notwithstanding all these differences and, in fact, duly taking into consideration the concerns of each of them, certain common parameters, definitions and integrated understanding would have to be reached for the purposes of analysis and discussion.

A general definition of disability, according to World Health Organization manual relates to "any restriction or lack (resulting from an impairment) of ability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being". A disability may be physical, cognitive, mental, sensory, emotional, and developmental or sometimes a combination of these. In the broadest sense of the term, people are labelled as disabled or handicapped because they look different from the rest of the society on account of their appearance or behaviour or capacity to learn and develop.

International Labour Organization (ILO) looks at a disabled person as an individual "whose prospects of securing, retaining and advancing in suitable employment are substantially reduced as a result of a duly recognized physical or mental impairment" (Ramesh and Singh 36). Taking physical appearance and behavioural factors into consideration, Rehabilitation Council of India, (1992), defines a disabled person as one "who in his/her society is regarded as disabled, because of a difference in appearances and/or behaviour, in combination with a functional limitation or an activity restriction" (Ramesh and Singh 34). It says that a functional limitation disability may be defined as "specific reductions in bodily functions that are described at the level of the person". In the definition given by the Planning Commission of India, a disabled person means a person who is "blind, deaf, having orthopedic disability; or having neurological disorder, mentally retarded." The definition includes "any person who is unable to ensure himself/herself, wholly or partly, the necessities of a normal individual or social life including work, as a result of deficiency in his/her physical or mental capability"

A disability is defined as a condition or function judged to be significantly impaired relative to the usual standard of an individual or

group. The term is used to refer to individual functioning, including physical impairment, sensory impairment, cognitive impairment, intellectual impairment mental illness, and various types of chronic disease.

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Disability is conceptualized as being a multidimensional experience for the person involved. There may be effects on organs or body parts, and there may be effects on a person's participation in areas of life. Correspondingly, three dimensions of disability are recognized in ICF: body structure and function (and impairment thereof), activity (and activity restrictions) and participation (and participation restrictions). The classification also recognizes the role of physical and social environmental factors in affecting disability outcomes.

Disabilities can affect people in different ways, even when one person has the same type of disability as another person. Some disabilities may be hidden, known as invisible disability. There are many types of disabilities, such as those that affect a person's:

- ❖ Vision
- ❖ Hearing
- ❖ Thinking
- ❖ Learning
- ❖ Movement
- ❖ Mental health
- ❖ Remembering
- ❖ Communicating
- ❖ Social relationships

The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health, also known as ICF, is a classification of the health components of functioning and disability. The World Health Assembly on May 22nd, 2001, approved the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health and its abbreviation of "ICF." This classification was first created in 1980 and then called the International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities, and Handicaps, or ICIDH by WHO to provide a unifying framework for classifying the health components of functioning and disability. The World Health Organization (WHO) published the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) in 2001 that covers;

- ❖ Activity
- ❖ Participation
- ❖ Body Structures
- ❖ Body Functions
- ❖ Personal Factors
- ❖ Health Conditions
- ❖ Activity Limitations
- ❖ Functional Limitations
- ❖ Environmental Factors
- ❖ Participation Restrictions

7.3.1 Concept

In 1955, when the Listing of Impairments was originally conceived and implemented, persons with disabilities were considered to be handicapped by their disease or impairment. Conceptually, disability was

based on a medical model, in which disability is caused by a disease, injury, or other severe impairment for which the remedy, if any, is medical treatment. The Listings were accordingly based on body systems and severity of impairment. The nine examples of Listing-level impairments that the Social Security Administration (SSA) originally provided to guide decision making included the loss of vision, hearing, or speech; loss of use of two limbs; progressive diseases such as diabetes, multiple sclerosis, and heart and lung conditions that have resulted in major loss of physical function; terminal cancers; and neurological or mental impairments requiring institutionalization or constant supervision.

Subsequently, the concept of disability has changed in recognition that disability, as distinct from impairment, is not just inherent in the individual and his or her medical condition but is the result of the interaction between the person with impairments and features of the socioeconomic environment in which the person lives, such as the presence or lack of access.

Disability is part of the human condition. Almost everyone will be temporarily or permanently impaired at some point in life, and those who survive to old age will experience increasing difficulties in functioning. Most extended families have a disabled member, and many non-disabled people take responsibility for supporting and caring for their relatives and friends with disabilities (1–3). Every epoch has faced the moral and political issue of how best to include and support people with disabilities. This issue will become more acute as the demographics of societies change and more people live to an old age (4). Responses to disability have changed since the 1970s, prompted largely by the self-organization of people with disabilities (5, 6), and by the growing tendency to see disability as a human rights issue (7). Historically, people with disabilities have largely been provided for through solutions that segregate them, such as residential institutions and special schools (8). Policy has now shifted towards community and educational inclusion, and medically focused solutions have given way to more interactive approaches recognizing that people are disabled by environmental factors as well as by their bodies. National and international initiatives – such as the United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities of Persons with Disabilities (9) – have incorporated the human rights of people with disabilities, culminating in 2006 with the adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). This World report on disability provides evidence to facilitate implementation of the CRPD. It documents the circumstances of persons with disabilities across the world and explores measures to promote their social participation, ranging from health and rehabilitation to education and employment. This first chapter provides a general orientation about disability, introducing key concepts – such as the human rights approach to disability, the intersection between disability and development, and the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) – and explores the barriers that disadvantage persons with disabilities.

7.3.2 Types

The NSSO undertook a comprehensive survey of disabled persons for the first time in its 36th round during the second half of 1981, the International Year of the Disabled Persons. After a gap of ten years, a second survey on the disabled was carried out in the 47th round during

July-December 1991 at the request of Ministry of Social Welfare, Govt. of India. In these surveys, the objective was to provide the database regarding the incidence and prevalence of disability in the country and the basic framework of these surveys viz., the concepts, definitions and operational procedures were kept the same. Prior to 1981, NSS surveys were restricted to only the physically handicapped persons. Since NSS 36th round (1981) an extended definition was used to cover all persons with one or more of the three physical disabilities – visual, communication (i.e. hearing and/ or speech) and loco-motor. The particulars of disability of the disabled persons, such as, the type of disability, degree of disability, cause, age at onset of disability, type of aid/appliance used, etc. were collected along with some socio-economic characteristics. Also, data on developmental milestones and behavioural pattern of all children of age 5-14 years were collected, regardless of whether they were physically handicapped or not. The third and the latest comprehensive survey on the disabled persons was carried out in the NSS 58th round (July-December 2002), where the coverage was extended to include mental disability also, keeping all other concepts, definitions and procedures for physical disability same as those of the 47th round. The broad definitions adopted for collection of data pertaining to this survey on disability were as follows:

Disability: A person with restrictions or lack of abilities to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being was treated as having disability. It excluded illness/injury of recent origin (morbidity) resulting into temporary loss of ability to see, hear, speak or move. The NSS definition of disability was much closer to the social model. However, the scope of the definition was not translated in questionnaire designing in compliance with CRPWD and as a result of that, could not fully capture the population that the core definition meant to cover.

Mental disability: Persons who had difficulty in understanding routine instructions, who could not carry out their activities like others of similar age or exhibited behaviours like talking to self, laughing/ crying, staring, violence, fear and suspicion without reason were considered as mentally disabled for the purpose of C5 the survey. The “activities like others of similar age” included activities of communication (speech), self-care (cleaning of teeth, wearing clothes, taking bath, taking food, personal hygiene, etc.), home living (doing some household chores) and social skills.

Visual disability: By visual disability it was meant loss or lack of ability to execute tasks requiring adequate visual acuity. For the survey, visually disabled included (a) those who did not have any light perception - both eyes taken together and (b) those who had light perception but could not correctly count fingers of hand (with spectacles/ contact lenses if he/ she used spectacles/ contact lenses) from a distance of 3 metres (or 10 feet) in good day light with both eyes open. Night blindness was not considered as visual disability

Hearing disability: This referred to persons’ inability to hear properly. Hearing disability was judged taking into consideration the disability of the better ear. In other words, if one ear of a person was normal and the other ear had total hearing loss, then the person was judged as normal in hearing for the purpose of the survey. Hearing disability was judged without taking into consideration the use of hearing aids (i.e., the position for the person

when hearing aid was not used). Persons with hearing disability might be having different degrees of disability, such as profound, severe or moderate. A person was treated as having 'profound' hearing disability if he/she could not hear at all or could only hear loud sounds, such as, thunder or understands only gestures. A person was treated as having 'severe' hearing disability if he/she could hear only shouted words or could hear only if the speaker was sitting in the front. A person was treated as having 'moderate' hearing disability if his/her disability was neither profound nor severe. Such a person would usually ask to repeat the words spoken by the speaker or would like to see the face of the speaker while he/she spoke or would feel difficulty in conducting conversations.

Speech disability: This referred to persons' inability to speak properly. Speech of a person was judged to be disordered if the person's speech was not understood by the listener. Persons with speech disability included those who could not speak, spoke only with limited words or those with loss of voice. It also included those whose speech was not understood due to defects in speech, such as stammering, nasal voice, hoarse voice and discordant voice and articulation defects, etc.

Loco-motor disability: A person with - (a) loss or lack of normal ability to execute distinctive activities associated with the movement of self and objects from place to place and (b) physical deformities, other than those involving the hand or leg or both, regardless of whether the same caused loss or lack of normal movement of body – was considered as disabled with loco-motor disability. Thus, persons having locomotor disability included those with (a) loss or absence or inactivity of whole or part of hand or leg or both due to amputation, paralysis, deformity or dysfunction of joints which affected his/her "normal ability to move self or objects" and (b) those with physical deformities in the body (other than limbs), such as, hunch back, deformed spine, etc. Dwarfs and persons with stiff neck of permanent nature who generally did not have difficulty in the normal movement of body and limbs were also treated as disabled. C6 In NSS surveys since the data are collected by the non-medical investigators, it is imperative to define disability in a very careful and guarded way to minimize the bias of the investigators and respondents. To minimise these difficulties and to involve feasible and practical concepts and definitions of disability, the experts from the relevant medical disciplines were consulted. Moreover, besides the socio-economic characteristics, information on cause of disability, age at onset, degree of disability, treatment undergone, aids/ appliances acquired etc. was collected for each of the disability separately for the persons suffering from one or multiple types of disability. In the case of loco motor disability, a person suffering from multiple types of loco motor disability was considered to have multiple disabilities.

- ❖ Blindness.
- ❖ Low-vision.
- ❖ Leprosy Cured persons.
- ❖ Hearing Impairment (deaf and hard of hearing)
- ❖ Locomotor Disability.
- ❖ Dwarfism.
- ❖ Intellectual Disability.
- ❖ Mental Illness.

7.3.3 Legislation

In India different definitions of disability conditions have been introduced for various purposes, essentially following the medical model and, as such, they have been based on various criteria of ascertaining abnormality or pathologic conditions of persons. In absence of a conceptual framework based on the social model in the Indian context, no standardisation for evaluating disability across methods has been achieved. In common parlance, different terms such as disabled, handicapped, crippled, physically challenged, are used inter-changeably, indicating noticeably the emphasis on pathologic conditions. Persons with Disability Act, 1995: Through the Act is built upon the premise of equal opportunity, protection of rights and full participation, it provides definitions of disabled person following the medical C2 model.

According to the Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act, 1995, "Person with disability" means a person suffering from not less than forty per cent of any disability as certified by a medical authority (any hospital or institution, specified for the purposes of this Act by notification by the appropriate Government). As per the act "Disability" means - (i) Blindness; (ii) Low vision; (iii) Leprosy-cured; (iv) Hearing impairment; (v) Loco motor disability; (vi) Mental retardation; (vii) Mental illness, which were defined as below.

- ❖ "Blindness" refers to a condition where a person suffers from any of the following conditions, (i) Total absence of sight. (ii) Visual acuity not exceeding 6/60 or 20/200 (snellen) in the better eye with correcting lenses; (iii) Limitation of the field of vision subtending an angle of 20 degree or worse;
- ❖ "Person with low vision" means a person with impairment of visual functioning even after treatment or standard refractive correction but who uses or is potentially capable of using vision for the planning or execution of a task with appropriate assistive device;
- ❖ "Leprosy cured person" means any person who has been cured of leprosy but is suffering from- (i) Loss of sensation in hands or feet as well as loss of sensation and paresis in the eye and eye-lid but with no manifest deformity; (ii) Manifest deformity and paresis; but having sufficient mobility in their hands and feet to enable them to engage in normal economic activity; (iii) Extreme physical deformity as well as advanced age which prevents him from undertaking any gainful occupation, and the expression "leprosy cured" shall be construed accordingly;
- ❖ "Hearing impairment" means loss of sixty decibels or more in the better ear in the conversational range of frequencies;
- ❖ "Loco motor disability" means disability of the bones, joints muscles leading to substantial restriction of the movement of the limbs or any form of cerebral palsy;
- ❖ "Mental retardation" means a condition of arrested or incomplete development of mind of a person which is specially characterized by sub normality of intelligence;
- ❖ "Mental illness" means any mental disorder other than mental retardation; However, these definitions were not found to be useful even for enumerating the disabled population, particularly in Population Census process for a large population like that of India.

Census of India 2001 document mentioned "Defining and measuring disability is a complex issue and it is not easy to communicate these concepts during the census process, in which only a limited amount of questioning time is possible to be spent with a household for obtaining detailed information on every individual." With regard to definitions adopted by PWD Act, Census of India stated "the concepts and definitions of disabilities coupled with measuring its extent and its types contained in the PWD Act, 1995 were found to be extremely difficult to canvass even in normal circumstances assuming people had time, were willing and forthcoming to share this information and there was an expert investigator to elicit this information." Census therefore used its own version of definitions of disabilities.

Census of India 2001 defined five types of disabilities:- (i) seeing, (ii) speech, (iii) hearing, (iv) movement, and (v) mental.

- i. **Seeing disability:** A person who cannot see at all (has no perception of light) or has blurred vision even with the help of spectacles. A person with proper vision only in one eye was also treated as visually disabled. A person may have blurred vision and had no occasion to test whether her/his eyesight would improve by using spectacles - such persons were treated as visually disabled.
- ii. **Speech disability:** A person who is dumb or whose speech is not understood by a listener of normal comprehension and hearing, was considered to have speech disability. Persons who stammer but whose speech is comprehensible were not classified as disabled by speech.
- iii. **Hearing disability:** A person who cannot hear at all (deaf), or can hear only loud sounds was considered to have hearing disability. A person who is able to hear using hearing aid, was not considered as disabled under this category. If a person cannot hear through one ear but her/his other ear is functioning normally, she/ he was still considered to have hearing disability.
- iv. **Movement Disability:** A person, who lacks limbs or is unable to use the limbs normally, was considered to have movement disability. Absence of a part of a limb like a finger or a toe was not considered as disability. However, absence of all the fingers or toes or a thumb make a person disabled by movement. If any part of the body is deformed, the person was also treated as disabled and covered under this category. A person, who cannot move herself/himself without the aid of another person or without the aid of stick, etc., was treated as disabled. Similarly, a person who is unable to move or lift or pick up any small article placed near her/him was also treated as disabled in movement. A person who may not be able to move normally because of problems of joints like arthritis and has to invariably limp while moving, too was considered to have movement disability.
- v. **Mental disability:** A person who lacks comprehension appropriate to her/his age was categorised as mentally disabled. This would not mean, however, that if a person is not able to comprehend her/his C4 studies appropriate to her/his age and is failing to qualify her/his examination, she/ he was considered mentally disabled. Mentally retarded and insane persons were treated as mentally disabled. A mentally disabled person generally has to depend on her/his family

Types

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members for performing daily routine. In Population Census, if a person suffered from two or more types of disability, only one of them was recorded. In all such cases it was left to the respondent to decide as to under which type of disability the person should be categorised. The definitions, concepts and instructions were designed in such a manner that the question on disability can be canvassed appropriately without hurting the sentiments or feelings of the informant with a view to have good chances of netting the disability characteristics of the population.

The Persons with Disability (PWD) Act, defines disability in terms of extent of impairment of body structure and body function. The context in which the definitions of disability and categories therein are being examined here relates to the classification of person, as disabled or not, by an enumerator who is given a short training in concepts and definitions. Therefore, the definitions under PWD Act need to be converted into definitions, which are simple and tangible from the point of view of the enumerator as well as the respondents. The NSS definition of disabled person i.e. ‘A person with restrictions or lack of abilities to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being’ seems to be in order provided the deviation from normal manner is defined in a manner suitable to the above context.

Check your progress - I

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What is Loco motor disability?
2. What is the meaning of Person with disability?
3. The World Health Organization (WHO) published the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) in the year of

7.4 PHYSICAL AND MENTAL DIFFERENTLY ABLED

The term *differently abled* are sometimes used as a substitute for *disabled* or *handicapped*. *Differently abled* emphasizes the fact that many people with disabilities are quite capable of accomplishing a particular task or performing a particular function, only in a manner that is different from or takes more time than that of people without the disability. On the other hand, *differently abled* is often criticized as an awkward euphemism and in some cases may be taken as offensively condescending by disabled people themselves. Like *challenged*, it is used most frequently in academic, government, and social service environments; its use outside those contexts may be problematic.

7.4.1 Helping Physically Handicapped Children

Physically handicapped children face many challenges on a daily basis. Playing sports, participating in school, riding the bus and playing children’s games are just a few of the activities that present challenges for disabled children. Fortunately, it is becoming easier for physically

challenged kids to engage in normal activities thanks to innovative designs, new technology and organizations that help disabled kids succeed. Consider the important ways to help physically disabled children.

Instructions:

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- Educate yourself on the challenges facing physically handicapped children today. The CDC offers an online program, Kids' Quest, to help educate adults and children on how physical disabilities affect everyday life at home and in the classroom. Visit government-supported websites that provide reliable information on helping kids with disabilities.
- Provide emotional support for the physically disabled child without displaying pity. According to the National Information Center for Children and Youth with Disabilities, showing pity toward a disabled child is actually disabling for him and can damage a child's self esteem. Keep a positive attitude and focus on the tasks the child is able to do.
- Offer support to families that have physically challenged children. Work schedules, frequent doctor's appointments and around-the-clock care can cause burnout for parents, resulting in irritability, exhaustion and depression. Spending time with a physically challenged child provides new stimulation for the child and offers the parents a chance to run errands or simply take a break.
- Plan a special day centered around activities the child can participate in to improve motor skills and increase involvement in physical activities. Most children enjoy playing with toys, blowing bubbles, splashing in water or painting funny pictures. Choose sensory toys with bright colours, funny noises and different textures to stimulate senses such as sight, sound and touch.
- Encourage independence for everyday jobs that disabled children can perform on their own. Kids Health reports that kids with special needs often need extra help with physical tasks, but physically disabled children also need achievable goals to help them feel more independent. Offer rewards for goals reached to celebrate his achievements and accomplishments.
- Modify sports games to include physically challenged children. Children in wheelchairs need not be excluded from sports when they can bounce a basketball or pass a football back and forth. Choose hand balls that have bells inside for children with visual impairments, so they can be included in sports activities as well.
- Volunteer for local programs that cater to physically handicapped children. Most state health departments and YMCA facilities offer programs for children with disabilities and are often in need of volunteers. Many communities also have local programs that need volunteers to work with physically challenged children.
- Differently-abled persons It has been felt that differently-abled persons need special arrangements in the environment for their mobility and independent functioning. It is also a fact that many institutes have architectural barriers that disabled persons find difficult for their day-to-day functioning. The colleges are expected to address accessibility related issues as per the stipulations of the Persons with Disabilities Act 1995, and ensure that all existing structures as well as future construction projects in their campuses are made disabled friendly. The institutes should create special facilities such as ramps, rails and special

toilets, and make other necessary changes to suit the special needs of differently-abled persons. The construction plans should clearly address the accessibility issues pertaining to disability. Guidelines on accessibility laid out by the office of the Chief Commissioner of Disabilities.

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- Providing Special Equipment to augment Educational Services for Differently abled Persons
- Differently-abled persons require special aids and appliances for their daily functioning. These aids are available through various schemes of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment. In addition to the procurement of assistive devices through these schemes, the higher education institute may also need special learning and assessment devices to help differently-abled students enrolled for higher education. In addition, visually challenged students need Readers. Availability of devices such as computers with screen reading software, low-vision aids, scanners, mobility devices, etc., in the institutes would enrich the educational experiences of differently-abled persons. Therefore, colleges are encouraged to procure such devices and provide facility of Readers for visually challenged students.

7.4.2 Mentally Differently abled

The problem with all such terms is that they tend to suffer from what I'll call 'euphemism rot'. In other words, what was once politically correct gradually comes to be thought of as offensive and a replacement term has to be invented. Also, the phrases differ in different countries.

Intellectual disability (ID), once called mental retardation, is characterized by below-average intelligence or mental ability and a lack of skills necessary for day-to-day living. People with intellectual disabilities can and do learn new skills, but they learn them more slowly. There are varying degrees of intellectual disability, from mild to profound.

7.4.2.1 Intellectual disability

Someone with intellectual disability has limitations in two areas. These areas are:

- ❖ **Intellectual functioning.** Also known as IQ, this refers to a person's ability to learn, reason, make decisions, and solve problems.
- ❖ **Adaptive behaviours.** These are skills necessary for day-to-day life, such as being able to communicate effectively, interact with others, and take care of oneself.

IQ (intelligence quotient) is measured by an IQ test. The average IQ is 100, with the majority of people scoring between 85 and 115. A person is considered intellectually disabled if he or she has an IQ of less than 70 to 75.

To measure a child's adaptive behaviours, a specialist will observe the child's skills and compare them to other children of the same age. Things that may be observed include how well the child can feed or dress himself or herself; how well the child is able to communicate with and understand others; and how the child interacts with family, friends, and other children of the same age.

Intellectual disability is thought to affect about 1% of the population. Of those affected, 85% have mild intellectual disability. This means they are just a little slower than average to learn new information or skills. With the right support, most will be able to live independently as adults.

7.4.2.2 Signs of intellectual disability in children

There are many different signs of intellectual disability in children. Signs may appear during infancy, or they may not be noticeable until a child reaches school age. It often depends on the severity of the disability. Some of the most common signs of intellectual disability are:

- ❖ Rolling over, sitting up, crawling, or walking late
- ❖ Talking late or having trouble with talking
- ❖ Slow to master things like potty training, dressing, and feeding himself or herself
- ❖ Difficulty remembering things
- ❖ Inability to connect actions with consequences
- ❖ Behaviour problems such as explosive tantrums
- ❖ Difficulty with problem-solving or logical thinking

In children with severe or profound intellectual disability, there may be other health problems as well. These problems may include seizures, mood disorders (anxiety, autism, etc.), motor skills impairment, vision problems, or hearing problems.

7.4.2.3 Symptoms of intellectual disability

Symptoms of ID will vary based on your child's level of disability and may include:

- ❖ failure to meet intellectual milestones
- ❖ sitting, crawling, or walking later than other children
- ❖ problems learning to talk or trouble speaking clearly
- ❖ memory problems
- ❖ inability to understand the consequences of actions
- ❖ inability to think logically
- ❖ childish behaviour inconsistent with the child's age
- ❖ lack of curiosity
- ❖ learning difficulties
- ❖ IQ below 70
- ❖ inability to lead a fully independent life due to challenges communicating, taking care of themselves, or interacting with others

The individual with intellectual disability may experience some of the following behavioural issues:

- ❖ aggression
- ❖ dependency
- ❖ withdrawal from social activities
- ❖ attention-seeking behaviour
- ❖ depression during adolescent and teen years
- ❖ lack of impulse control
- ❖ passivity
- ❖ tendency toward self-injury
- ❖ stubbornness

- ❖ low self-esteem
- ❖ low tolerance for frustration
- ❖ psychotic disorders
- ❖ difficulty paying attention

Some people with ID may also have specific physical characteristics. These can include having a short stature or facial abnormalities.

7.4.2.4 Levels of intellectual disability

ID is divided into four levels, based on your child's IQ and degree of social adjustment.

Mild intellectual disability

Some of the symptoms of mild intellectual disability include:

- ❖ taking longer to learn to talk, but communicating well once they know how
- ❖ being fully independent in self-care when they get older
- ❖ having problems with reading and writing
- ❖ social immaturity
- ❖ increased difficulty with the responsibilities of marriage or parenting
- ❖ benefiting from specialized education plans
- ❖ having an IQ range of 50 to 69

Moderate intellectual disability

If your child has moderate ID, they may exhibit some of the following symptoms:

- ❖ are slow in understanding and using language
- ❖ may have some difficulties with communication
- ❖ can learn basic reading, writing, and counting skills
- ❖ are generally unable to live alone
- ❖ can often get around on their own to familiar places
- ❖ can take part in various types of social activities
- ❖ generally having an IQ range of 35 to 49

Severe intellectual disability

Symptoms of severe ID include:

- ❖ noticeable motor impairment
- ❖ severe damage to, or abnormal development of, their central nervous system
- ❖ generally having an IQ range of 20 to 34

Profound intellectual disability

Symptoms of profound ID include:

- ❖ inability to understand or comply with requests or instructions
- ❖ possible immobility
- ❖ incontinence
- ❖ very basic nonverbal communication
- ❖ inability to care for their own needs independently
- ❖ the need of constant help and supervision
- ❖ having an IQ of less than 20

7.4.2.5 Other intellectual disability

People in this category are often physically impaired, have hearing loss, are nonverbal, or have a physical disability. These factors may prevent your child’s doctor from conducting screening tests.

7.4.2.6 Unspecified intellectual disability

If your child has an unspecified ID, they will show symptoms of ID, but their doctor doesn’t have enough information to determine their level of disability.

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Check your progress - II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. The term is sometimes used as a substitute for disabled or handicapped.

5. The average IQ is

7.5 HEALTH PROBLEMS

The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) defines disability as an umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions. Disability is the interaction between individuals with a health condition (e.g. cerebral palsy, Down syndrome and depression) and personal and environmental factors (e.g. negative attitudes, inaccessible transportation and public buildings, and limited social supports).

Over a billion people are estimated to live with some form of disability. This corresponds to about 15% of the world's population. Between 110 million (2.2%) and 190 million (3.8%) people 15 years and older have significant difficulties in functioning. Furthermore, the rates of disability are increasing in part due to ageing populations and an increase in chronic health conditions.

Disability is extremely diverse. While some health conditions associated with disability result in poor health and extensive health care needs, others do not. However all people with disabilities have the same general health care needs as everyone else, and therefore need access to mainstream health care services. Article 25 of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) reinforces the right of persons with disabilities to attain the highest standard of health care, without discrimination.

People with disabilities report seeking more health care than people without disabilities and have greater unmet needs. For example, a recent survey of people with serious mental disorders, showed that between 35% and 50% of people in developed countries, and between 76% and 85% in developing countries, received no treatment in the year prior to the study.

Health promotion and prevention activities seldom target people with disabilities. For example women with disabilities receive less screening for breast and cervical cancer than women without disabilities. People with intellectual impairments and diabetes are less likely to have their weight checked. Adolescents and adults with disabilities are more likely to be excluded from sex education programmes.

People with disabilities are particularly vulnerable to deficiencies in health care services. Depending on the group and setting, persons with disabilities may experience greater vulnerability to secondary conditions, co-morbid conditions, age-related conditions, engaging in health risk behaviours and higher rates of premature death.

Secondary conditions

Secondary conditions occur in addition to (and are related to) a primary health condition, and are both predictable and therefore preventable. Examples include pressure ulcers, urinary tract infections, osteoporosis and pain.

Co-morbid conditions

Co-morbid conditions occur in addition to (and are unrelated to) a primary health condition associated with disability. For example the prevalence of diabetes in people with schizophrenia is around 15% compared to a rate of 2-3% for the general population.

Age-related conditions

The ageing process for some groups of people with disabilities begins earlier than usual. For example some people with developmental disabilities show signs of premature ageing in their 40s and 50s.

Engaging in health risk behaviours

Some studies have indicated that people with disabilities have higher rates of risky behaviours such as smoking, poor diet and physical inactivity.

Higher rates of premature death

Mortality rates for people with disabilities vary depending on the health condition. However an investigation in the United Kingdom found that people with mental health disorders and intellectual impairments had a lower life expectancy.

Barriers to health care

People with disabilities encounter a range of barriers when they attempt to access health care including the following.

Prohibitive costs

Affordability of health services and transportation are two main reasons why people with disabilities do not receive needed health care in low-income countries - 32-33% of non-disabled people are unable to afford health care compared to 51-53% of people with disabilities.

Limited availability of services

The lack of appropriate services for people with disabilities is a significant barrier to health care. For example, research in Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu states of India found that after the cost, the lack of services in the area was the second most significant barrier to using health facilities.

Physical barriers

Uneven access to buildings (hospitals, health centres), inaccessible medical equipment, poor signage, narrow doorways, internal steps, inadequate bathroom facilities, and inaccessible parking areas create barriers to health care facilities. For example, women with mobility difficulties are often unable to access breast and cervical cancer screening

because examination tables are not height-adjustable and mammography equipment only accommodates women who are able to stand.

Inadequate skills and knowledge of health workers

People with disabilities were more than twice as likely to report finding health care provider skills inadequate to meet their needs, four times more likely to report being treated badly and nearly three times more likely to report being denied care.

Check your progress - III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

6. People with disabilities encounter a range of barriers when they attempt to access

7. Article 25 of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) reinforces the right of persons with disabilities to attain the

7.6 AIDS

HIV stands for Human Immunodeficiency Virus. HIV is the virus that causes AIDS. While the immune system can control many viruses, HIV targets and infects the same immune system cells that protect us from germs and illnesses. These cells are a type of white blood cell called CD4 cells (sometimes called T-cells).

Without medication to control the virus, HIV usually takes over CD4 cells and turns them into factories that produce millions of copies of the virus. As the virus makes copies, it damages or kills the CD4 cells, weakening the immune system. This is how HIV causes AIDS.

There are many different strains of HIV that are grouped into two main types:

- ❖ HIV-1: most common type worldwide
- ❖ HIV-2: found mostly in West Africa, Asia, and Europe

It is possible for one person living with HIV to carry several different strains of HIV in their body at the same time.

AIDS stands for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. AIDS is the most advanced stage of HIV infection.

HIV causes AIDS by attacking CD4 cells, which the immune system uses to protect the body from disease. When the immune system loses too many CD4 cells, you are less able to fight off infections and can develop serious, often deadly, infections. These are called opportunistic infections (OIs).

When someone dies of AIDS, death is usually due to OIs or other long-term effects of HIV. AIDS refers to the weakened state of the body's immune system, which can no longer stop opportunistic infections

7.6.1 Difference between HIV and AIDS

The definition of AIDS was established before there was effective treatment for HIV. It indicated that a person was at higher risk for illness or death. In countries where HIV treatment is readily available, AIDS is no

longer as relevant as it once was. This is because with access to effective HIV treatment, people can stay healthier even at low CD4 counts. Also, someone could have received an AIDS diagnosis year ago, but their immune system has recovered since then. They may still have that diagnosis, but no longer have a low CD4 count.

The US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) identifies someone as having AIDS if she or he is living with HIV and has one or both of these conditions:

- ❖ At least one AIDS-defining condition (see our list of AIDS-Defining Conditions)
- ❖ A CD4 cell count of 200 cells or less (a normal CD4 count is about 500 to 1,500)

People with AIDS can rebuild their immune system with the help of HIV drugs and live a long, healthy life. Even if your CD4 cell count goes back above 200 or an OI is successfully treated, you may still have a diagnosis of AIDS. This does not necessarily mean you are sick, or will get sick in the future. It is just the way the public health system counts the number of people who have had advanced HIV disease.

Several different tests can be used to diagnose HIV. Healthcare providers determine which test is best for each person.

7.6.2 Antibody/antigen tests

Antibody/antigen tests are the most commonly used tests. They can show positive results typically within 18–45 days Trusted Source after someone initially contracts HIV.

These tests check the blood for antibodies and antigens. An antibody is a type of protein the body makes to fight an infection. An antigen, on the other hand, is the part of the virus that activates the immune system.

7.6.3 Antibody tests

These tests check the blood solely for antibodies. Between 23 and 90 daysTrusted Source after transmission, most people will develop detectable HIV antibodies, which can be found in the blood or saliva.

These tests are done using blood tests or mouth swabs, and there's no preparation necessary. Some tests provide results in 30 minutes or less and can be performed in a healthcare provider's office or clinic.

Other antibody tests can be done at home:

- ❖ **OraQuick HIV Test.** An oral swab provides results in as little as 20 minutes.

- ❖ **Home Access HIV-1 Test System.** After the person pricks their finger, they send a blood sample to a licensed laboratory. They can remain anonymous and call for results the next business day.

If someone suspects they've been exposed to HIV but tested negative in a home test, they should repeat the test in three months. If they have a positive result, they should follow up with their healthcare provider to confirm.

7.6.4 Nucleic acid test (NAT)

This expensive test isn't used for general screening. It's for people who have early symptoms of HIV or have a known risk factor. This test doesn't look for antibodies; it looks for the virus itself. It takes from 5 to 21 days for HIV to be detectable in the blood. This test is usually accompanied or confirmed by an antibody test.

Check your progress - IV

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

8. takes from 5 to 21 days for HIV to be detectable in the blood.

9. is the virus that causes AIDS.

7.7 LET'S SUM UP

Albert Einstein, the famous physicist and Thomas Edison, believed to be the greatest inventor, both had a learning disability and were unable to speak and read during initial years of their childhood. Franklin D. Roosevelt, the President of the United States for four terms, had polio. George Washington, too, had a learning disability and could barely write. Helen Keller who devoted all her life to the cause of the disabled was blind, deaf and mute and was the first deaf blind person to earn a Bachelor's degree. She was a prolific author, a lecturer and a political figure who campaigned for women's suffrage, workers' rights and socialism. Along with her teacher Anne Sullivan she visited 39 countries to propagate the cause of the disabled. John Milton, an English poet, became blind at the age of 43 and still could create the most celebrated epic Paradise Lost. Beethoven, who was completely deaf for the last 25 years of his life, is regarded as one of the greatest composers in history. Virginia Woolf, one of the most representative Modernist writer, too, suffered from mental illness and bouts of acute depression. Frida Kahlo, a renowned painter who indulged in making self-portraits which reflected her pain and sorrow and her caged existence, had polio. John Forbes Nash, a Nobel laureate American Mathematician, whose work in game theory, differential geometry and partial differential equations, is considered ground breaking, was diagnosed with paranoid schizophrenia. An Academy Award winning film named A Beautiful Mind was inspired by and loosely based upon his biography. Stephen Hawking, British theoretical Physicist, whose world renowned scientific career spans over 40 years, is severely affected by motor neuron disease and is almost in a complete paralytic stage. Most recently in May, 2013, a 26 year old woman from Uttar Pradesh, Arunima

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„Sonu“ Sinha, created history by becoming the first female amputee in the world to climb Mount Everest, the highest peak in the world. SudhaChandran, an Indian actress who lost her leg in an accident, did not give up her passion for dancing and continued doing so with Jaipur foot. Anita Ghai, an Associate professor in University of Delhi, who is confined to wheelchair, is very actively working in the field of disability rights in the areas of education, health, sexuality and gender. MaliniChib, currently a Senior Events Manager in Oxford Store, Mumbai and co-chairperson of the ADAPT(Able Disabled All People Together) Right group, defied all odds to emerge victorious in spite of a crippling disability and an indifferent society. Her autobiography entitled One Little Finger narrates her search for autonomous identity and her determination to live a meaningful life. NavinGulia, who has turned his disability into a life-affirming force, writes in his book, In Quest of the Last Victory, that the bodies and minds of the disabled have infinite ability. In his own words:

All these examples related to defying disability and attaining one's goal clearly establish the fact that various kinds of disabilities, rather than being restrictions, make them 'able' in different ways, and goad them on to realize their dreams with greater vigour and determination. This applies equally to the daily struggles of millions of people faced with various kinds of disabilities, belonging to different caste, class and gender, whose contributions and achievements largely go unnoticed.

Thus this course module helps to attain a concrete knowledge about Personal Disabilities its concept, types, legislation, Physical and Health Problems including AIDS.

7.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Explain the types of Personal Disabilities
2. Give the various test for diagnosing HIV
3. Define the term Disability

7.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. "Loco motor disability" means disability of the bones, joints muscles leading to substantial restriction of the movement of the limbs or any form of cerebral palsy
2. "Person with disability" means a person suffering from not less than forty per cent of any disability as certified by a medical authority
3. 2001
4. *differently abled*
5. The average IQ is 100
6. health care
7. highest standard of health care, without discrimination.
8. Nucleic acid test (NAT)
9. HIV

7.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT - VIII FAMILY PROBLEMS

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- 8.7.4.1 Assessment of the child abuse
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8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we introduce you to the definition of the family, family as a social institution and variations in the family form. Important features such as social functions of the family, roles and the importance of the family in industrial society are also brought out in this unit. The basic unit of the social structure in every society is the family. This is as true among simple societies as within the complex, modern societies. However, it varies in internal organisation, in its degree of autonomy and in the sanctions and taboos by which it is protected and perpetuated. Its universality, its persistence through time and under widely variant cultures, and its necessity for biological and social reasons should be an effective reply to the 'prophets of doom' who fear that the family is of less significance today than in earlier times. The specific pattern of family life in any given social structure is the product of the mores and varies with time and place and peoples. Therefore, the family has been seen as a universal social institution, as an inevitable part of human society. It is built around the needs of human beings to regularise sexual behaviour and protect and nurture the young ones.

The social organisation is associated with such emotive issues as love, marriage, home and child bearing. It is the family that gives us our principal identity our social status and even our very name, which is the label of this identity in the larger society of which we are a part. This unit will give you an idea about the family as a social institution, the discussion will be kept at a sociological level.

Marriage is one of the universal social institutions established to control and regulate the life of mankind. It is closely associated with the institution of family. In fact both the institutions are complementary to each other. It is an institution with different implications in different cultures. Its purposes, functions and forms may differ from society to society but it is present everywhere as an institution.

Marriage and divorce are both common experiences. Divorce is a negotiating tool for women who seek change in their relationships. In countries with greater acceptance of divorce, there is a more equal division of

household work. Men risk losing their wives if they refuse to shape up and help out around the house.

The child abusing practices have been part and parcel of the human society since its inception. Infanticide, ritual mutilations, physical battering, sexual exploitation, slavery and abandonment were some of the common abusive acts practiced in the ancient times. These acts continue to exist in the present time in varying degree and forms, By and large, children are considered parental property, and are treated according to their parent's wish for rearing, discipline and using them. These days child abuse is recognized as a social issue, both nationally and internationally, & many attempts have been made to define child abuse and child neglect.

In this unit you will learn Family Problems, meaning and definition of Family and Marriage. You will know the characteristics and function of Family and Marriage. You will learn the problem and cause of divorce. This unit will help you to learn the definition and of child abuse, the nature of this problems and its cause, effects of child abuse, its management and the role of the nurses. You will study the child abuse and child neglect in detail.

8.2 OBJECTIVES

- After going through the unit you will be able to;
- ✓ Describe the of Family Problems of marriage and divorce
 - ✓ Explain the classification of family
 - ✓ Know the characteristics and significance of marriage
 - ✓ Discuss the problem and causes of Divorce
 - ✓ define child abuse and child neglect
 - ✓ describe types of child abuse;
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8.3 FAMILY PROBLEMS

The family is one of the most important institutions in any society. It is critical to the socialization of each generation and to the stability and functioning of the larger society. Family systems vary across cultures and have changed dramatically in the United States in recent decades. Family change is reflected in demographic patterns through its impact on fertility, marriage, divorce, migration, and mortality. Population processes also respond to technological factors, economic change and social policy.

8.3.1 MEANING AND DEFINITION OF FAMILY

The word 'family' is derived from Latin Word "*Famulus*" which means a servant. In Roman law the word denotes a group of producers and slaves and other servants as well as members connected by common descent or marriage. Thus originally, family consisted of a man and woman with a child or children and servants. Sociologists have defined the family in a number of ways.

MacIver and Page defined “family is a group defined by a sex relationship sufficiently precise and enduring to provide for procreation and upbringing of children”.

According to M.F. Nimkoff; “Family is a more or less durable association of Husband and Wife with or without child, or of a man or women alone, with children”.

Burgess and Locke “Family is a group of persons united by ties of marriage, blood or adoption constituting a single household interacting and intercommunicating with each other in their respective social roles of Husband and wife father and Mother, son and daughter, brother and sister, creating a common culture”.

Eliot and Mervill “Family is a biological social unit composed of husband, wife and children”.

Ordinarily, a family, particularly an elementary family, can be defined as a social group consisting of father, mother and their children. But in view of the variety as found in the constituents of a family, this definition is rather inadequate. Bohannan (1963), in his definition of the family, emphasised the functional as well as the structural roles of family. According to him, “a family contains people who are linked by sexual and affinal relationships as well as those linked by descent who are linked by secondary relationships, that is, by chains of primary relationships”.

In other words, families are groups in which people come together to form a strong primary group connection, maintaining emotional ties to one another over a long period of time. Such families could potentially include groups of close friends as family. Critical sociology emphasizes that the forms that define the “typical” family unit are not independent of historical changes in the economic structures and relations of power in society.

In addition, the functionalist perspective views families as groups that perform vital roles for society—both internally (for the family itself) and externally (for society as a whole). Families provide for one another’s physical, emotional, and social well-being. Parents care for and socialize children, a function that prepares new members of society for their future roles. While interactionism helps us to understand the subjective experience of belonging to a “family” and critical sociology focuses on how families configure themselves in response to political-economic pressures and changes, functionalism illuminates the many purposes of families and their role in the maintenance of a balanced society (Parsons and Bales 1956).

The early and classical definitions emphasised that the family was a group based on marriage, common residence, emotional bonds, and stipulation of domestic services. The family has also been defined as group

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based on marital relations, rights and duties of parenthood, common habitation and reciprocal relations between parents and children. Some sociologists feel that the family is a social group characterised by common residence, economic co-operation and reproduction.

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A family is also viewed as an adult male and female living together with their offspring in a more or less permanent relationship such as marriage which is approved by their society. These definitions point out the basics or the minimum essentials of the family as a special kind of social grouping: (i) it involves a sexual relationship between adults of opposite sexes; (ii) it involves their cohabitation or living together, (iii) it involves at least the expectation of relative permanence of the relationship between them; and (iv) most important of all, the relationship is culturally defined and societally sanctioned-it is a marriage. Marriage and the family are not just something people become involved in on their own. Some of the ways in which they must relate to each other are decided for them by their society. It is a well-known and recognised fact that marriage is the basis for the family. Since reproduction and control over it has been the concern of all societies, marriage as a legal institution becomes a crucial factor. Marriage is recognised as a special kind of relationship since it is the one in which families are created and perpetuated, and the family is the ultimate basis of human society.

8.3.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF FAMILY

For a comprehensive understanding of what the family stands for today, William J. Goode (1989) suggests the following characteristics:

- a) At least two adult persons of opposite sex reside together.
- b) They engage in some kind of division of labour i.e., they both do not perform exactly the same tasks.
- c) They engage in many types of economic and social exchanges, i.e., they do things for one another.
- d) They share many things in common, such as food, sex, residence, and both goods and social activities.
- e) The adults have parental relations with their children, as their children have filial relations with them; the parents have some authority over their children and both share with one another, while also assuming some obligation for protection, cooperation, and nurturance.
- f) There are sibling relations among the children themselves, with a range of obligations to share, protect, and help one another.

8.3.3 FAMILY AS AN INSTITUTION

There are various forms of family found all over the world; but most sociologists and anthropologists agree that universally the most common features of a family is that it is composed of individuals related to each other by blood, marriage, or adoption.

Family, like any other institution of society forms around complex, socially significant problems, solving the problems of social existence is critical to collective living in all societies. George Murdock (1949; 4- 11) lists four important functions served by the nuclear family, these functions serve to resolve four major problems of society. According to him the nuclear family along with other social institutions, serves to:

- ❖ regulate sexual relations;
- ❖ account for economic survival ;
- ❖ controls reproduction; and
- ❖ socialises children

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8.3.4 CLASSIFICATION OF FAMILY

Though family is a universal institution, its structure or forms vary not only from one society to another but also from one class to another within the same society. Sociologists have spoken of different forms or types of families and they have taken into consideration different factors for the purposes of making such classifications. A few types of family classifications are discussed as follows:

On the basis of marriage, family has been classified into two major types:

- ❖ Monogamous
- ❖ Polygamous
 - (i) Polyandrous
 - (ii) Polygynous
- ❖ Monogamy is a system of marriage in which one man marries one woman. In almost all the modern societies, marriages are monogamous and such families are known as monogamous families.
- ❖ Polygamy is a system of marriage that permits the marriage of one man with more than one woman or the marriage of one woman with more than one man. Polygamous marriages or families are rarely seen in the modern societies.

On the basis of nature of residence, family can be classified into three major types:

- ❖ Family of matriarchal residence
- ❖ Family of patriarchal residence
- ❖ Family of changing residence

When the wife goes to stay with her husband in his house after marriage, the residence is known as patriarchal residence. Such families are known as patriarchal families. Most of the families in all modern societies are of this type.

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In cases where the husband stays in the wife's house after marriage, the residence type is known as matriarchal residence. Such families are known as matriarchal families and are predominantly found in tribal societies. In India, such families can be seen amongst the Khasi, Jaintia and Garo tribes of Meghalaya.

A third type of residence system is the one where both the husband and wife stay in a new house after marriage and start a family. This kind of family is known as a family of changing residence.

On the basis of ancestry or descent, family can be classified into two main types:

- ❖ **Matrilineal family:** When descent is traced through the mother, we have the system known as the matrilineal system. Families that trace their descent through this system are known as matrilineal families. In such families, lineage and succession are determined by the female line.
- ❖ **Patrilineal family:** When descent is traced through the father or the male line, we have the patrilineal system. Families that follow this system are known as patrilineal families. Most of the families in the world belong to the patrilineal system and the lineage and succession in such families are determined through the father.

On the basis of the nature of authority, family can be classified into two main types:

- ❖ **Matriarchal family:** The matriarchal family is also known as the mother-centred or mother-dominated family. In such families, the mother or the woman is the family head and she exercises authority. She is the owner of the family property and controls the household. The Khasis of North-Eastern India may be called mother-right people. Amongst them, descent is traced through the mother, not the father. Inheritance passes from mother to the daughter.
- ❖ **Patriarchal family:** A patriarchal family is also known as father centered or father-dominated family. The head of the family is the father or the eldest male member and he exercises authority. He is the owner and administrator of the family property. His voice is final in all family matters.

On the basis of nature of relationship amongst its members, a family can be classified into two types:

- ❖ **Conjugal:** Ralph Linton has given this classification. He is of the view that a family based on blood relationship is known as **consanguine** family. For example, the relationship between a father and a son.
- ❖ **Consanguine:** On the other hand, a family in which there exists sex relationship between the members on the strength of marriage is known as a conjugal family. The sexual relationship between the husband and wife is a basic ingredient of the conjugal family.

On the basis of the in-group and out-group affiliation, family can be classified into two types:

- ❖ **Endogamous:** It is one where the social norms make it compulsory for members of the family to marry within the larger social group to which it belongs. For example, a Brahmin family in India would be in the nature of an endogamous family because the rigid caste system does not allow inter-caste marriages. Therefore, an Indian family is usually endogamous.
- ❖ **Exogamous:** In societies where there is no such restriction of marrying within one's own group, families are usually exogamous. For example, members of a family belonging to one class can marry members Family belonging to another class in an open society.

On the basis of size, family can be classified into three types:

- ❖ Nuclear or individualistic family
- ❖ Extended family
- ❖ Joint family

Nuclear or individualistic family

In nuclear families, the members comprise the husband, wife and their children. This type of family has become more common with the advent of industrialization and urbanization, which has forced people to move out to new urban centers and seek employment. Further, factors like individualistic ideology, economic aspirations and housing problems in urban areas have strengthened the nuclear family.

Murdock has further sub-divided the nuclear family into the following two types:

- ❖ The family of orientation
- ❖ The family of procreation

The family of orientation is the family in which an individual is born and in which his parents and siblings reside. He grows up in this family of orientation and stays in it till his marriage.

Extended family

The extended family comprises members belonging to three or more generations. For example, a man living with his parents, his wife and their

children is said to be living in an extended family. According to Murdock, an extended family 'consists of two or more nuclear families affiliated through an extension of the parent-child relationship, i.e., by joining the nuclear family of a married adult to that of his parents.' Thus, the nuclear family of an individual and the nuclear family of his parents can combine together to form an extended family. This type of extended family can be seen in India, China, etc. The joint family of India is also a type of extended family.

An extended family can also be formed when an individual and his several wives live together with the families of his several sons. This kind of extended family is seen in some African and Arab societies.

Joint family

A joint family, though a type of extended family, is an important social unit of Indian society. Smt. Iravati Karve says that 'a joint family is a group of people who generally live under one roof, who eat food cooked at one hearth, who hold property in common and who participate in common worship and are related to each other as some particular kind of kindred.'

In brief, a joint family consists of members spanning horizontally (siblings) and vertically (generations) and living together with common goals and common assets.

This discussion should have given you a broad picture of the existing family structure in India.

8.3.5 SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OF THE FAMILY

The reasons for the endurance and universality of the family are largely grounded in the functions that it performs for individuals and for society. The major functions the family accomplishes are discussed below:

1. Member replacement and physical maintenance

In order to survive, every society must replace members who die and keep the survivors alive. The regulation of reproduction is centered in the family as are cooking and eating and care of the sick. Once children are born, they will be nurtured and protected within the family. It is the family that feeds clothes and shelters them.

2. Regulation of sexual behaviour

The family regulates sexual behaviour. Each and every member's sexual behaviour is influenced to some extent by what is learned in the family setting. The sexual attitudes and patterns of behaviour we learn in the family reflect societal norms and regulate our sexual behaviour. The sociological notion of sexual regulation should not be confused with repression. The norms, on the other hand, specify under what conditions and with what partners sexual needs may be satisfied.

3. Socialisation of children

The family carries out the serious responsibility of socialising each child. Children are taught largely by their families to conform to socially approved patterns of behaviour. If the family serves society as an instrument for the transmission of culture, it serves the individual as an instrument of socialisation. A family prepares its children for participation in the larger world and acquaints them with the larger culture.

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4. Status transmission

Individual's social identity is initially fixed by family membership by being born to parents of a given status and characteristics. Children take on the socio-economic class standing of their parents and the culture of the class into which they are born, including its values, behaviour patterns and definitions of reality. In addition to internalising family attitudes and beliefs, children are treated and defined by others as extensions of the social identity of their parents. In short, family acts as a vehicle of culture transmission from generation to generation.

5. Economic activity

Until recent times, the family was an important unit of both production and consumption. The family produced most of the goods it consumed and consumed most of the goods it produced. But today, modern families mainly earn incomes. Thus, their principal function is that of the consumption of goods and services which they purchase. Because of the production of income the provision of economic support for family members is a major function of the modern family.

6. Social emotional support

The family as a primary group is an important source of affection, love and social interaction. Caring for family members does not end with infancy and childhood. It is seemingly the nature of human beings to establish social interdependencies, not only to meet physical needs, but also to gratify emotional and psychological needs for response and affection as well as.

7. Inter-institutional linkage

Each baby is a potential participant in the group life of the society. Family membership in religious, political, economic, recreational and other kinds of

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organisations typically gives individuals an opportunity to participate in activities that might otherwise be closed to them. The family, then, not only prepares the individual to fill social roles and occupy a status in the community, but also provides the opportunities for such activity. Some institutions depend also on the way the family functions in this regard to insure their own continuity and survival.

8.3.6 ROLE OF FAMILY IN INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

Many sociologists feel that the family has lost a number of its functions in modern industrial society. Institutions such as business, political parties, schools, welfare and recreational organisations, crèche and play schools, now specialise in functions earlier performed only by the family. This reduces the dependency of the individual on his or her family and kin. The high rate of geographical mobility in industrial society decreases, the frequency and intimacy of contact among members of the kin-family network. The: relatively high level of social mobility and the importance of 'achieved' status in modern society have weakened the importance of family and its extended form since it has less to offer to its members.

8.3.7 IMPORTANCE OF FAMILY

However, this does not mean that the family is declining in importance. It has in fact become more specialised and its role is still vital. By structuring the personalities of the young and stabilising the personalities of adults, the family provides its members with the psychological training and support necessary to meet the requirements of the social system of fact; the loss of certain functions of the family has made its remaining functions more important. The family's responsibility for socialising the young remains important ever. Even though the family has largely lost its functions as a unit of production, it still maintains a vital economic function as a unit of consumption. Parents of today are expected to do their best to guide, encourage and support their children in their education and occupational choices and careers. Compared to the past, parents are Ignore preoccupied with their children's health and emotional wellbeing. State health and welfare provisions have provided additional support for the family and made its members more aware of the importance of health and hygiene in the home. In a nutshell, the family has adapted and is adapting to a developing industrial society. It remains as a vital and basic institution in society.

Across the span of history, the form and organisation of the family have varied, but in every social structure it has been a primary group and the basic unit of social organisation. Through the family the individual is a person with status, and children are reared and guided, and the cultural heritage is transmitted to succeeding generations. Families may be organised in an

amazing variety of ways. Although the family is rooted in the biological nature of human beings, in human experience it is always a social institution which is governed by cultural norms.

With the growth of industry and the rise of cities, family life and family patterns have changed the economic functions are largely transferred to outside agencies. Increasing emphasis, however, placed on psychological values such as affection, companionship and emotional security.

The present is a period of transition. The family withstood the sweeping changes in the cultural pattern and found ways to adjust to each new situation. It will continue to survive, whatever further changes the future may bring.

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8.3.8 SOCIAL PROCESSES AFFECTING FAMILY STRUCTURE

A host of inter-related factors, viz., economic, educational, legal and demographic like population growth, migration and urbanisation, etc., have been affecting the structure of the family in India. We shall take care of these factors while discussing the changes, in the following sections.

1. INDUSTRIALISATION

There are innumerable published accounts demonstrating that changes have taken place in the structure of the family due to exposures to the forces of industrialisation. Nuclearisation of the family is considered as the outcome of its impact. Such an interpretation presupposes existence of non-nuclear family structure in such societies. Empirical evidence sometimes does not support this position. Further, industrial establishments have their own requirements of human groups for their efficient functioning. As a result, people are migrating to industrial areas, and various kinds of family units have been formed adding extra-ordinary variety to the overall situation. It is, nevertheless, important to note down in this context that despite definite visible trends in the changing structure of the family due to industrialisation, it is not yet possible to establish any one-to-one relationship.

2. URBANISATION

In most of the discussions on impact of urbanisation on the family structure, one specific observation is fairly common: that, due to the influence of urbanisation, the joint family structure is under severe stress, and in many cases it has developed a tendency toward nuclearisation. When there is no disagreement on the authenticity of such a tendency, the traditional ideal joint family was perhaps not the exclusive type before such influence came into

existence. Nevertheless, various accounts demonstrate how both nuclear and joint structures have evolved innumerable varieties due to the influence of urbanisation.

3. MODERNISATION

Both industrialisation and urbanisation are considered as the major contributing factors toward modernisation. In fact, modernisation as a social-psychological attribute can be in operation independent of industrialisation and urbanisation.

With the passage of time, through exposures to the forces of modernisation, family structure underwent multiple changes almost leading to an endless variety. There are instances too, where family structure has become simpler due to its impact. There are also contrary instances indicating consequent complexity in family structure.

8.3.9 CHANGE IN THE FAMILY STRUCTURE: A PERSPECTIVE

One of the important features of the family studies in India has been concerned with the question of whether the joint family system is disintegrating, and a new nuclear type of family pattern is emerging. "It seems almost unrealistic", Augustine points out, "that we think of a dichotomy between the joint and nuclear family. This is especially true given the rapidity of social change, which has swept our country." In the context of industrialisation, urbanisation and social change, it is very difficult to think of a dichotomy between the joint and the nuclear family in India. In the present contexts, these typologies are not mutually exclusive. Social change is an inevitable social process, which can be defined as observable transformations in social relationships. This transformation is most evident in the family system. However, because of structures of our traditionality, these transformations are not easily observable (Augustine 1982:2).

Against this backdrop, to understand the dimensions of changes taking place in Indian family system, the concept of transitionality may be used. This concept, according to Augustine, has two dimensions: retrospective and prospective. The retrospective dimension implies the traditional past of our family and social system, while the prospective one denotes the direction in which change is taking place in our family system. Transitionality is thus an attempt to discern the crux of the emergent forms of family (Augustine 1982:3).

Keeping in mind this perspective, we shall examine the emerging trends of change in the family system in contemporary India. However, at the outset, we are to make it explicit that, within the given space, it would not be possible for

us to document the changes individually taking place in the family system of various castes or ethnic groups spread over diversified socio-cultural regions of this country. Hence for your broad understanding, we shall concentrate on three broad areas of our enquiry: change in the traditional extended family, rural family and urban family. Let us begin with change in the traditional extended family.

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Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Define – Family.
2. What is called Monogamy?
3. What are the classifications of family on the basis of the nature of authority?

8.4 MARRIAGE

Marriage is one of the universal social institutions established to control and regulate the life of mankind. It is closely associated with the institution of family. In fact both the institutions are complementary to each other. It is an institution with different implications in different cultures. Its purposes, functions and forms may differ from society to society but it is present everywhere as an institution.

Marriage as a legally recognized social contract between two people, traditionally based on a sexual relationship and implying a permanence of the union. In practicing cultural relativism, we should also consider variations, such as whether a legal union is required (think of “common law” marriage and its equivalents), or whether more than two people can be involved (consider polygamy). Other variations on the definition of marriage might include whether spouses are of opposite sexes or the same sex and how one of the traditional expectations of marriage (to produce children) is understood today.

8.4.1 DEFINITION OF MARRIAGE

1. **Westermarck** in 'History of Human marriage' defines "marriage as the more or less durable connection between male and female lasting beyond the mere act of propagation till after the birth of offspring".
2. According to **Malinowski** "marriage is a contract for the production and maintenance of children".

3. **Robert Lowie** describes "marriage as a relatively permanent bond between permissible mates".
4. **Horton and Hunt** "marriage is the approved social pattern whereby two or more persons establish a family".

8.4.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF MARRIAGE

The general characteristics of marriage are as follows:

1. **Universality:** Marriage is more or less a universal institution. It is found among the pre-literate as well as literate people. It is enforced as a social rule in some of the societies. Among the Hindus, marriage is a sacrament which is regarded as more or less obligatory. According to the Chinese philosopher Confucius, an individual who remains unmarried throughout his life commits a great crime.
2. **Relationship between man and woman:** Marriage is a union of man and woman. It indicates relationship between one or more men to one or more women. *Who should marry whom? One should marry how many?* - are the questions which represent social rules regarding marriage which differ significantly.
3. **Marriage bond is enduring:** Marriage indicates a long lasting bond between the husband and wife. Hence, it is not coextensive with sex life. Marital relationship between man and woman lasts even after the sexual satisfaction is obtained. The Hindus, for example, believe that marriage is a sacred bond between the husband and wife which even the death cannot break.
4. **Marriage requires social approval:** A union of man and woman becomes a marital bond only when the society gives its approval. When a marriage is given the hallmark of social approval, it becomes a legal contract.
5. **Marriage is associated with some civil or religious ceremony:** Marriage gets its social recognition through some ceremony which may have its own rites, rituals, customs, formalities, etc. It means marriage has to be concluded in a public and solemn manner. Sometimes it receives as a sacrament the blessings of religion. Marriage among the Hindus is connected with rituals such as—*Homa, Saptapadi, Panigrahana, Mangalya-Dharana*, etc.
6. **Marriage creates mutual obligations:** Marriage imposes certain rights *Marriage* and duties on both the husband and wife—both are required to support each other and their children.

8.4.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF MARRIAGE

The importance of marriage reflects in the following functions that it performs:

1. **Regulation of sex life:** In conservative societies, it is considered that marriage an important method to regulate the sex life of man. Sexual impulse in considered to be, very powerful in man. He is exposed to its influence throughout his life. This impulse must be controlled and regulated in a proper manner to avoid chaos and confusion in society. Marriage has come to be such a regulative means. In fact, it is often called the 'licence for sex life'.
2. **Regulation of sex relations:** Marriage prohibits sexual relations between father and daughter, mother and son, brother and sister, etc. Such a kind of prohibition is called 'incest taboo'. Marriage also puts restrictions on the pre-marital and extra-marital sexual relations.
3. **Marriage leads to the establishment of family:** Sexual satisfaction offered by marriage results in self-perpetuation i.e., marriage insists on the couple to establish a family of procreation. It is marriage which determines the lineage of the newborn individual. Inheritance and succession follow the rule of descent.
4. **Provides for economic cooperation:** Marriage makes division of labour possible on the basis of sex. Partners of marriage distribute work among them and perform them. In the modern industrial societies, we find husband and wife working outside the family to get more income to elevate their economic status.
5. **Marriage contributes to emotional and intellectual inter-stimulation:** Marriage brings life-partners together and helps them to develop intense love and affection towards each other. It deepens the emotions and strengthens the companionship between the two.
6. **Marriage aims at social solidarity:** Marriage is not only a union of two individuals of the opposite sex, but also their respective families, groups and kindred. Friendship between groups is reinforced through marriage. It has been said that by encouraging marriage between different groups, castes, races, classes, religious, linguistic and other communities, it is possible to minimize the social distance between groups and strengthen their solidarity.

8.4.4 TYPES OF MARRIAGE

Polygyny:

It is a form of marriage in which one man marries more than one woman at a given time. It is of two types --- Sororal polygyny and non sororal polygyny

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1. **Sororal polygyny:** It is a type of marriage in which the wives are invariably the sisters. It is often called sororate.
2. **Non-sororal polygyny:** It is a type of marriage in which the wives are not related as sisters.

Polyandry:

It is the marriage of one woman with more than one man. It is less common than polygyny. It is of two types---- Fraternal Polyandry and non fraternal polyandry.

1. **Fraternal polyandry:** When several brothers share the same wife the practice can be called alephic or fraternal polyandry. This practice of being mate, actual or potential to one's husband's brothers is called levirate. It is prevalent among Todas.
2. **Non - fraternal polyandry:** In this type the husband need not have any close relationship prior to the marriage. The wife goes to spend some time with each husband. So long as a woman lives with one of her husbands; the others have no claim over her.

Monogamy:

It is a form of marriage in which one man marries one woman .It is the most common and acceptable form of marriage.

1. **Serial monogamy:** In many societies individuals are permitted to marry again often on the death of the first spouse or after divorce but they cannot have more than one spouse at one and the same time.
2. **Straight monogamy:** In this remarriage is not allowed.

Group Marriage:

It means the marriage of two or more women with two or more men. Here the husbands are common husbands and wives are common wives. Children are regarded as the children of the entire group as a whole.

8.4.5 TRADITIONAL FORMS OF HINDU MARRIAGE

The Hindu scriptures admit the following forms of marriage:

Brahma marriage: Here, the girl, decorated with clothes and ornaments, is given in marriage to a learned and gentle bridegroom. This is the prevalent form of marriage in Hindu society even today.

Prajapatya marriage: Here, the daughter is offered to the bridegroom by blessing them with the enjoyment of marital bliss and the fulfillment of Dharma.

Aarsh marriage: Here, a *rishi* used to accept a girl in marriage after giving a cow or bull and some clothes to the parents of the girl. These articles were not the price of the bride, but indicated the resolve of the *rishi* to lead a household life.

Daiva marriage: Here, the girl, decorated with ornaments and clothes, was offered to the person, who conducted the function of a *Purohit* in *yajna*.

Asura marriage: Here, the bridegroom gets the bride in exchange for some money or articles given to the family members of the bride.

Gandharva marriage: This form of the marriage is the result of mutual affection and love between the bride and the bridegroom. An example of this type of marriage is the marriage of the King *Dushyanta* with *Shakuntala*. In this form of marriage, the ceremonies can be performed after sexual relationship between the bride and the bridegroom.

Rakshas marriage: This type of marriage was prevalent in the age, when women were considered to be the prize of a war. In this type of marriage, the bridegroom takes away the bride from her house forcibly after killing and injuring her relatives.

Paishach marriage: This type of marriage has been called to be the most degenerative form. In this type, a man enters into sexual relationship with a sleeping, drunk, or unconscious woman. Such acts were regularized after the performance of marriage ceremony, which took place after physical relationship between the man and woman.

According to D. N. Majumdar, 'Hindu society now recognizes only two forms, the Brahma, and the Asura, the higher castes preferring the former, the backward castes the latter, though here and there among the higher castes the Asura practice has not died out'. This view rightly describes the present position of the traditional forms of Hindu marriage.

Among the Hindus, marriage is of great individual and social significance. It is a socially approved union of man and woman aiming at procreation, pleasure, and observance of certain social obligations. The Hindu marriage has undergone changes in the last few decades. Three significant changes in the Hindu marriage may be noted as:

- ❖ The Hindu young men and women today marry not very much for performing religious ties but for lifelong companionship.

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- ❖ The marital relations are no longer treated as unbreakable, or irrevocable, as divorce is socially and legally permissible.
- ❖ The ideal of *pativratya* has lost its significance for there is *Marriage* legal provision for widow remarriage and divorce.

Endogamy

Endogamy is the form of marriage in which one must marry within one's own caste or other group. This rule does not permit marriage of close kin. Endogamous marriage is that which is confined within the group. As a matter of fact, endogamy and exogamy are relative words. That which is endogamous from one viewpoint is exogamous from another viewpoint. In the sub-caste exogamy of Hindus, the marriage is contracted outside the sub-caste but the same marriage would be endogamous from the viewpoint of the race or nation.

In India, the following kinds of endogamy can be found:

- ❖ **Divisional or tribal endogamy:** Here, no individual can marry outside his own tribe or division.
- ❖ **Caste endogamy:** Here, the marriage is contracted within the caste.
- ❖ **Class endogamy:** Here, the marriage can take place between people of only one class or of a particular status.
- ❖ **Sub-caste endogamy:** Here, the choice for marriage is restricted to the sub-caste.
- ❖ **Race endogamy:** Here, one can marry in the race.

Advantages of endogamy

Following are the advantages of endogamy:

- ❖ Purity in the group is maintained.
- ❖ Other people do not gain authority over the group's wealth.
- ❖ It tends to maintain the sense of unity within the group.
- ❖ Women are happier within their own group.
- ❖ The business secrets of the group are kept intact.

Disadvantages of endogamy

Following are the disadvantages from which endogamy suffers:

- ❖ It shatters the national unity because the nation is divided into small endogamous groups.
- ❖ The scope for choice of a life partner is limited due to which malpractices such as unsuitable marriages, polygamy, dowry system, bride price, etc. are fostered.
- ❖ It generates hatred and jealousy for other groups. This is the main root cause of casteism in India.

Exogamy

It is the opposite of endogamy. In exogamy, marriage in one's group is not permitted and brides are sought from other groups. While endogamy exhibits conservative attitude, exogamy is progressive. Exogamy is also approved of from the biological viewpoint as it leads to healthy and intelligent offspring. But, this fact applies only to marriages outside the wider group. In the Indian society, more harm than benefit has resulted from exogamous marriages. Most people do not intentionally approve of marriages within groups but do so only when the group is considered as limited only to the children of one's parents or to two of their future generations. There can be no benefit in declaring marriage within group unlawful, when the group includes a greater number of people.

Forms of exogamy

The following forms of exogamy are found in India:

- **Gotra exogamy:** Among the Brahmins, the prevailing practice is to marry outside the *Gotra*. People who marry within the *Gotra* have to repent and treat the women like a sister or mother. This restriction has been imposed since people of one *Gotra* are believed to have similar blood.
- **Parivar exogamy:** Besides the *Gotra*, the Brahmins also forbid marriage between persons belonging to the same *parivar*. People who utter the name of a common saint at religious functions are believed to be from the same *parivar*. Thus, *parivar* is a kind of religious and spiritual bond. Marriages within the *Gotra* and *parivar* have been forbidden from the time of *Dharmasutras*.
- **Gotra of Purohit exogamy:** Among the *Kshatriyas* and *Vaisyas*, it is the *Gotra* of the *purohit* which is taken into consideration for the purpose of exogamy. In these, the ancestry is carried on not through the saint but some follower. Sometimes, the *Gotra* takes the name of the village where this first person lived. In this way, thousands of *Gotras* have come into being.
- **Village exogamy:** Among many Indian tribes, it is the recognized custom to marry outside the village. This restriction is prevalent in the Munda and some other tribes of Chhota Nagpur. Among some tribes of Baroda, marriage is forbidden within the village. For example, the Naga tribe of Assam is divided into *Khels*. 'Khel' is the name given to the residents of the particular place, and people of one *Khel* cannot marry each other. The Garo tribe is divided into two *Katchis* or *Phratries* called *Marak* and *Sangama*; between them inter-marriage is prohibited.
- **Pinda exogamy:** In Hindu society, marriage within the *pinda* is prohibited. According to Brahaspati, offspring from five maternal generations and seven

paternal generations are *sapinda* and thus, they cannot marry. However, in several parts of India, the generation of the mother is not considered to be *sapinda*. At some places, the prohibition extends over three maternal and five paternal generations. According to the *Baudhayana Dharmasutra*, marriage with the offspring of the maternal uncle or father's sister is improper. Among the Brahmins in the South, with the exception of Namboodari Brahmins, it is considered good to marry the daughter of one's maternal uncle. The Velum caste of Madras does not forbid marriage with one's niece, while in the Telugu-Tamil districts and among the lowly Brahmins, this union can be contracted with the daughter of one's sister-in-law.

8.4.6 MATE SELECTION

The process whereby people choose marriage partners is called mate selection. While in some societies, individuals are relatively free to choose their mate from the 'field of eligible', in some other societies those getting married have almost no say regarding whom they wish to marry. Even in the former situation individuals are not entirely free to choose their mates. Culture and social pressures, in subtle or explicit ways, do influence choice.

In all societies there is some notion of a 'good match'. Further, within endogamous limits also, certain relationships are preferred. Thus, mate selection is usually influenced by considerations of 'good match' and preferential mating.

In India, considerations of caste, religious and family background have traditionally been of great importance in to selection of mates. In addition, looks of the girl and her competence as housewife are also considered to be important. In urban middle class families, the earning capacity of the girl is also given considerable weightage, these days, in the selection of a bride.

8.4.6.1 Preferential Marriage

While some societies prohibit marriage between certain categories of relations (kins), other societies permit or even require certain kind of relatives to get married to. Thus marriage with particular cross cousins (father's, sister's or mother's brother's offspring) are approved or permitted in many societies. Among Arabs and Muslims in India, marriage between parallel cousins (child of father's brother or mother's sister) is common. Possible reasons for permitting or preferring cousin marriages are: (a) family wealth is not dispersed as it remains within related family groups; and (b) relationships do not fade away as they are constantly renewed among offsprings of related families.

i) Marriage arrangements

In some societies, the decisions regarding mate selection are made by parents/ relatives; in some other societies individuals are relatively free to

choose their own mates. Marriage arrangements thus tend to follow two patterns, namely, parent arranged (arranged marriage) and self-choice (love marriage)

ii) **Arranged marriage**

Traditional societies like India, where extended family network has been crucial, arranging marriage has been the concern of parents and elders. In additions, gains in terms of family prestige, economic prosperity and power (especially in affluent families) have also been sought through 'proper' marriage alliances. Consequently, marriage has been considered to be a serious matter which could not be left to the 'fancies' of the immature. As such, in traditional societies 'arranged' marriages have been the norms. Such marriages have also been unavoidable because in these societies there used to exist rigid sex-segregation, due to which marriageable young girls and boys could not come together and know one another. Even today, heterosexual intermingling is not widely prevalent, and young people especially girls, themselves, seem to prefer arranged marriages, which saves them from many psychological tensions which modern youth undergo in many of the western societies.

However it should be remembered that arranged marriages are rarely forced marriages; the needs and preferences of the young people getting married are not entirely ignored.

8.4.6.2 Love Marriage

In the western urban-industrial method of mate selection, individuals go through the process of dating and courtship, they make selections, based on the consideration of feelings for one another. This is termed as 'love marriage' by Asians/ Indians. For, in such marriages, mate choice is done by the individuals concerned on grounds of mutual affection and love, rather than on pragmatic considerations of social status, wealth or other familial advantages. These 'love marriages' stress the individual's supreme right to love and be loved in a romantic-sensual sense. Such love is considered as the essence of happiness in marriage.

There is an important difference between love marriage and arranged marriage. Whereas in the latter at the individual's level one has vague expectations from marriage (in fact, individuals enter into it primarily for performing their social duty), in self-choice marriage there are great expectations of happiness and companionship from one's partner in marriage. However, these are not very easy to attain and retain in day-to-day life after marriage, where practical problems of existence confront the couple. Mature personalities are able to adjust to this gap between dream and reality. The less mature find it difficult to adjust. At times the gap between fantasy of romantic love and exigencies of practical life is so wide that the strain becomes impossible to bear and marriage ends in a failure.

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Evidently such marriages involve a risk, and since the partners entering such a union had not done so for familial or social reasons, the love marriage tends to be more fragile than the arranged marriage. Many of the love marriages become unstable not so much because of the mistaken selection but because of non-fulfilled expectations in marriage.

8.4.7 CHANGES IN MARRIAGE

Industrialisation and urbanisation have ushered in changes which have profoundly affected the institution of marriage all over the world. While different societies, and within each society different groups, have responded differentially to industrialisation and urbanisation, nonetheless certain common trends in the changes affecting marriage are discernible.

8.4.7.1 Changes in the Forms of Marriage

Societies with traditions of plural marriages are turning towards monogamy. Due to the general improvement in the status of woman and her gradual emancipation from the clutches of male dominance, even in those societies where polygamy is permissible, incidences of polygamous marriages, and plurality of wives, are on the decrease. In India, the Hindu Marriage Act has banned both polygynous and polyandrous marriages. Even in a Muslim country like Pakistan, legislation was introduced making it necessary for the kazi to solemnize plural marriages only if the first wife gave her written consent. The trend towards monogamy has also been encouraged by the new idea of romantic love as the basis for marriage propagated by the western societies. It is a marriage in which one specific individual is considered to be the ideal partner.

However, it would perhaps be wrong to assume that this trend towards monogamy is also towards straight monogamy. While conditions in modern society have made marriage unstable and the marriage bond is revocable, individuals are willing to risk another marriage in order to find happiness. Parents and friends too are sympathetic in this matter. Hence, societies are likely to move towards the condition of serial monogamy, rather than maintain straight monogamy.

8.4.7.2 Changes in Mate Selection

In traditional societies like India, where mate selection was entirely a prerogative of parents and elders, a dent has been made. Young men and women are increasingly being given some say in the matter of mate selection. From a position in which they had no say whatsoever concerning whom they were to get married to, a stage has now come in which the concerned individuals are consulted and their consent obtained. In urban middle class families, sons and daughters have even come to enjoy the right to veto marriage proposals initiated by others. In the more advanced and enlightened urban families, parents are now giving opportunities to their children to

become acquainted with prospective mates. "Dating" a practice in which a boy and a girl meet each other to get to know each other and enjoy themselves with relative freedom is a phenomenon which can be seen in different colleges and universities of predominantly metropolitan cities in India. It is again an imitation of the Western Society and is the result of exposure of people to Western culture to a far greater extent than it was earlier.

In India, mate selection through newspaper advertisement has become quite a popular practice among urban middle classes and the latest development is the reported harnessing of the services of computers in bringing potentially compatible mates together.

8.4.7.3 Changes in Age of Marriage

In India where, traditionally, child marriages were prescribed, preferred and encouraged, various efforts were made by social reformers to bring this practice to an end; accordingly, the Child Marriage Restraint Act, popularly known as the Sarda Act, was passed in 1929. However, early marriage continues, in spite of the impact of modern industrialisation and urbanisation, especially among the rural people. In urban areas, too, there was a strong tendency to get a daughter married off as soon as possible.

But with increasing enrolment of girls in schools and colleges, and their desire to take up employment, along with the problems of 'settling down' in life for the vast majority of boys, the age at marriage is being pushed up. Further, as part of its population policy, the Government has now prescribed the minimum age of marriage as 18 years for girls and 20 years for boys. In urban areas, however, marriages are now generally taking place beyond these prescribed minimum ages.

8.4.7.4 Changes in Marriage Rituals and Customs

Contemporary changes in India present us with a paradoxical situation. With greater intrusion of technology and science, it was expected that a secular-scientific outlook would emerge and, consequently, the non-essential rituals and customs have always pleaded for avoiding of wasteful expenditures on meaningless customs and rituals.

But observation indicates that, contrary to the expectations of enlightened people, marriages in India are tending to become more traditional insofar as the ritual-custom complex is concerned. Today, there is a revival of many rituals and customs, which, soon after independence, appeared to have become weak. To an extent, this revival is a function of affluence. Many people in society have a lot of money to spend lavishly on weddings, and there is a tendency among the not-so affluent to imitate the affluent.

8.4.8 Changes in Marriage: Goals and Stability

It was seen earlier that procreation has been the most important function of marriage in traditional societies. In all communities, a large number of children, bestowed higher status upon parents and among Hindus sons were particularly desired. Thus, a large sized family was one of the

cherished goals of marriage, and the blessings showered upon the bridal couple included good wishes for several children.

But modern conditions of life have made a large family burdensome; in fact, even those with three or four children are being disfavoured.

Several developing Countries are seized of the problems that exploding populations can cause and are, therefore, committed to encouraging the small family norm. Restriction of family size is the declared official policy of many of these. India, in fact, was the first country to adopt an official family planning programme. In those Asian and African countries where there are democratic governments, through vigorous education efforts, citizens are being made to realise and accept the advantages of limited procreation.

China has also adopted a very strict population control programmes which involves certain disincentives and punishments for couples that do not restrict procreation.

All these efforts are gradually influencing the values of people in India, and other countries. It is being realised that it is better to have about two healthy and well-cared for children than a large number who cannot be adequately fed, clothed or looked after.

As procreation, and along with it parenting role, are tending to become less important, other functions like companionship and emotional support from the spouse and children are becoming the more important goals of marriage. In fact, the younger people today are entering matrimony for happiness and personal fulfilment.

The conditions causing marital instability are likely to worsen rather than improve in the future. Our outlook, values and ideals pertaining to marriage are also undergoing change. What then is the future of marriage? Predictions concerning social life are difficult and risky. But, there appears to be little chance that marriage, as a major event in individual and social life will ever be given up and abandoned. If evidence from western societies is any guide, high rates of divorce will not automatically deter people from getting married. Notwithstanding marital instability, the individual's quest for finding happiness in marriage will continue.

Check your progress – II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. Define Marriage - According to **Malinowski**
5. What is meant by incest taboo?
6. What is Sororal polygyny?

8.5 DIVORCE

Divorce is a negotiating tool for women who seek change in their relationships. In countries with greater acceptance of divorce, there is a more

equal division of household work. Men risk losing their wives if they refuse to shape up and help out around the house. Thus, while divorce has helped many women leave unhealthy marriages in which they are at risk of great physical and mental harm, the ability to get a divorce easily may also strengthen marriages.

All marriages are impacted by problems. Couples who are able to work together in resolving conflict are more likely to be able to save their marriage. Couples who lack the proper conflict resolution skills may find themselves in divorce court for problems that could have easily been solved.

Marriage and divorce are both common experiences. In Western cultures, more than 90 percent of people marry by age 50. Healthy marriages are good for couples' mental and physical health. They are also good for children; growing up in a happy home protects children from mental, physical, educational and social problems. However, about 40 to 50 percent of married couples in the United States divorce. The divorce rate for subsequent marriages is even higher.

8.5.1 MEANING OF THE TERM 'DIVORCE'

Divorce is the socially and legally recognized dissolution of a marriage. Like marriage, it is governed by a variety of cultural and legal regulations that show how difficult it is to accomplish and the social and personal consequences it produces. Sometimes, the dissolution is by stages, for example, in a sequence of avoidance, suit for separate maintenance, legal separation, and finally an absolute divorce. A couple with high expectations of marital bliss, but relatively little marital disorganization, may seek divorce as an exit from marriage. The demographic approach stresses the changing prevalence of divorce in various countries. In a finding by M. Le Balance in 1997, it was found that youths were more violent than thirty years ago and one reason for that was the breaking down of the family unit.

Sociologists have pointed out the similarities in the process of adjustment that are required by divorce or bereavement. In both, a set of role relations has been found to be disrupted and adjustments are required throughout the family network.

Each marriage relationship is unique in many ways. It is not always possible to find an appropriate replacement for the missing partner. Apparently, in all societies, the death of spouse creates an obligation for kinfolk and friends to help the bereaved person, to offer solace, to make small or large gestures of support. In divorce, even when one spouse is very unhappy about the divorce, only a few very close friends may feel any obligation to offer emotional solace.

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8.5.2 DIVORCE IN VARIOUS CULTURES AND TRIBES

Obtaining divorce varies from culture to culture. Among Muslims, divorce is only the husband's privilege; and he can have it even without assigning a cause. Divorce can be obtained by merely repeating three times the formula of repudiation (Talaq) in the presence of at least two witnesses. A husband has to pay 'meher', which is a settlement, to the wife out of his property to compensate her in the event of divorce. Under certain circumstances, Islamic law does give a wife the permission of unilateral action.

Are you interested in knowing about the process of divorce among the tribes?

In the case of Khasis, a tribe from Meghalaya, divorce is permitted for reasons of adultery, barrenness and incompatibility of temperament. The separation can take place only after mutual consent. There is no possibility of remarriage between two such people who have separated by divorce. The divorce is obtained in a public ceremony.

Among the Gonds (tribe), divorce can be obtained on grounds of marital infidelity, carelessness in household work, barrenness and quarrelsome disposition. The initiative may be taken either by a husband or wife.

The Kharias (tribe) allow divorce on grounds of marital infidelity, sterility, laziness, refusal of the wife to live with her husband and theft.

Among the Hindus, divorce can be obtained with the help of law--the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955. Among the Christians, there are two popularly known denominations, namely the Catholics, who owe allegiance to the Pope and the Protestants. Catholics do not officially accept the possibility of divorce, though they accept the possibility of declaring a marriage annulled. This means that the marriage was right from the beginning null and void due to certain reasons like prior impotence, serious deception, etc. Protestants are more lenient with regard to the question of divorce and remarriage.

8.5.3 CAUSES OF DIVORCE

After having read about divorce, let us try to find out the causes of divorce.

Some people are less tied to marriage than others. Family functions, religious taboos or life-long commitment to parental roles may simply have less meaning for them. The door of divorce is more open to certain couples than to others because of lenient laws, encouragement of relatives, opportunities for remarriage and, in general the prospect of freedom without the economic, religious and psychological penalties, which pose a threat for others. Let us analyse some of the major causes.

1) **Modernization**

The disintegration of the family has been hastened by free sex relations made possible by changing notions about morals and by birth control

techniques. The religious sanctions behind family and marriage are becoming diminished/have vanished, making dissolution easier.

In the past, the marriage ceremony used to be a family function, where the bond was between the two families. With modernization, the concept of couples going in for marriages by their own choice is becoming increasingly prevalent. With this type of marriage, though parents ultimately give their consent, the natural bond between the families do not always take place. This type of selecting one's own partner has its advantages and disadvantages with regard to the stability of marriage.

2) **Growing Acceptance of Change**

Priorities have shifted even in a country like India where hidebound traditions exist. Where the priority was the husband, it has now shifted to careers as far as the woman is concerned. Previously, the gender roles were defined and it was easier to conform to a pattern. The inevitable liberation by the woman, her economic independence and western influences have given marriage a new outlook, especially among the educated urban dwellers.

3) **High Personal Aspirations**

In modern industrial society, people are more ambitious than the people of traditional societies. At the cost of their family life, they pursue their career. Thus, family has taken a back seat. There has been a tremendous growth in individualism (happiness of oneself) at the cost of the family.

4) **Growth of the Nuclear Family**

As a result of urbanization and industrialization, the nuclear family came into existence. In the Indian perspective, the concept of family was always thought to be in terms of a joint family system. In the joint families, children were given better attention. The attitude towards parents was mostly of respect and regard and the younger looked towards their elders for guidance. All the family members were consulted on all important family matters. The joint family did not allow the neglect or disregard of elders. Individualism was not preferred and in this context, taking the option of divorce was not a hurried and individualized one. The parents played the role of a mediator between the husband and wife. The beginning of the dissolution of the joint family system has brought about many larger issues and divorce is one of them.

5) **Declining Values**

There has been a noted decline in the value system among the people. You have already studied about Moral, Ethical and Personal values in some of the previous blocks of this programme of study.

6) **Physical Separation**

With more and more job opportunities abroad, people are giving up the village life and migrating to big cities within and outside the country. It is well known that housing facilities is a big problem in the big cities and people cannot afford to take their families along with them. To satisfy their sexual urges, men tend to take the help of other services like visiting brothels, which are easily available.

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8.5.4 DIVORCE AND ITS EFFECTS

Any change from the present situation to another situation creates disruptions in life. Divorce is a devastating situation for both the partners. The partners, who got united because of a shared goal or for proximity, when faced with the actual situation of divorce, take some time to adjust to the new situation. While the divorce process is in progress, and for some time afterward, both parties are likely to feel personally rejected, cheated in the economic arrangements, misrepresented legally, bitter about the co-partner arrangements, lonely because they have lost a friend, and afraid of living alone.

This disrupting process gives rise to many behavioural changes among the partners and those who are also affected directly or indirectly by it. Let us analyze some of these effects one by one.

1) Stress

Stress can be defined as a bodily reaction that can occur in response to either internal, cognitive stimuli or external environmental stimuli. A stimulus that causes stress is known as a stressor. The stress, which is experienced, consists of bodily responses, increased heart rate and blood pressure, dry mouth, rapid breathing and so forth. The stressors producing these responses are our own internal reactions or comments of our friends and neighbours. Significant events, such as marriage, death of a family member and divorce disrupt normal life and cause more stress. These stressful life events may have negative effect on health. In a scale developed for ranking the stressful life events, divorce acquires the second rank; it has been rated as a chronic stressor.

As stated earlier, stressful events lead the body to undergo several minor or major physiological changes. These changes are very important to understand because they can lower the body's resistance to disease. The fact that many diseases are either caused by or made far worse by stress, has been accepted by the medical practitioners as well. Even before the divorce is legalized, the partners have to undergo much legality, which are painful for them. All the more, it is a human tendency that after the process has been initiated, there's no turning back because it hurts the ego of the partners. The process of divorce somehow makes the partners think about their past in which they remember the happy times as well. It creates mental stress among the partners, which is sometimes followed by physical stress.

2) Low Self-esteem and a Feeling of Failure

The divorce sometimes leaves a negative effect of reduced self-esteem on the partners. It can affect one's performance in day-to-day activities.

3) Rise in Aggressiveness or Anger

Many a times, the negative emotions may lead to mental imbalance of the people, which can result in raised anger or aggression in the temperament.

4) Depression

Divorce has been rated as the second main cause of stress for the partners and their children. The process tires a person mentally as well as physically, sometimes resulting in depression and sense of regret.

5) **Rise in Delinquency**

It has been found through various studies that the major percentage of the delinquents and rise in crime among the young people result from children coming from broken homes or a single parent family.

Marriage is strongly institutionalized, not just in India but everywhere in the world and is a preferred context for intimate relations. It is the cornerstone of family life. Marriage offers stability, providing an atmosphere of love, encouragement, acceptance and trust. With the practice of divorce, all of these lose their meaning as well as leave a negative impact on the partners as well as the children. The close relatives of the partners also get affected by its negative impact.

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8.5.5 EFFECTS OF DIVORCE

We will discuss the effects of divorce under the three broad headings given below:

- i) Effect on the children
- ii) Effect on the partners
- iii) Effect on the family

i) **Effect on Children**

Children are the direct sufferers by the dissolution of the marriage. The incapability of the adults to get along well affects the child negatively. Single parenting is a difficult situation for the child in all the stages of his/ her growth. In the infancy stage, the child misses the affection of both the parents, as one of the parents is not present and one parent may not be able to substitute the other. Children are distressed when their parents divorce. Children under the age of five may react with rage and grief. The older children grasp the situation better, but sometimes tend to blame themselves. The adolescents, who themselves are in a situation of identity crisis; feel socially embarrassed by the breakup.

This deprivation of an affectionate relationship is most damaging in early childhood. Deprivation can ruin the self-concept of the child in childhood. It can show its implication in late adulthood too. Like a person who is hungry for food, a person starving for affection becomes irritable and unreasonable. Sometimes, these emotional behaviours vary from mild irritability to severe psychoses.

The specific effects of emotional deprivation have been reported to be:

Physical – The physical symptoms are restlessness, loss of appetite, quietness, general apathy and psychosomatic illness.

Social – The social behaviour of the child gets affected, which results in handicaps in learning how to get along with people, lack of responsiveness to the advances of others, lack of co-operation and hostility towards others.

Emotional – The children of the divorced parents lack emotional responsiveness. They sometimes develop deep related feelings of insecurity, anti-social behaviour, restlessness, anxiety, temper tantrums and many other forms of maladaptive behaviours. Apart from these, many delinquents were and are found to be children from broken homes.

ii) Effect on Partners

As stated earlier, divorce causes a devastating experience for both the partners. The two persons, who have been hitherto sharing a common goal, separate, which gives an emotional as well as social shock to both of them. Emotional shock in terms of the habit of staying together, fulfilling the needs of each other, caring and the bond of love, which suddenly comes as a shock. Though the capability of adjusting oneself to a particular situation is a typical feature of the human species, divorce takes time and many a times, the vacuum remains for a lifetime.

In Indian society, divorce is not welcomed whole heartedly by most people. The process of divorce for a middle class family becomes socially intolerable. Among the lower socio-economic strata of the Indian society, divorce is not very common. Usually, people do not face the society's disapproval even if one leaves his/her present partner and starts living with another. Very often, they do not go for the legal process to obtain divorce.

For middle class people, informal sanction of the society becomes very important. Queries about partner and children can be a source of mental tension for some time.

iii) Effect on the Family

Divorce is predominantly an urban phenomenon. Regarding marriage, Kirkpatrick says, "The essence of the contract is consent with full expectation of exclusiveness and indissolubility". In other words, the idea of marriage as sacred made it dissoluble. Though divorce takes place between the two partners, who united as a result of marriage, the family is also affected in the process.

The growing rate of divorce and the breaking down of the family unit is posing as a societal threat. Family, which is the basic unit of the society, is negatively affected by the quitting of the partners from the marriage bond.

Children, an important part of the family, are the worst sufferers of divorce. Even the parents of the divorced partners also face difficulty to cope up with the situation.

Other than the causes discussed above, some other factors like migration and subsequent separation also lead to divorce. In the following subunits, we will examine these factors.

Check your progress – III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

7. What is called Divorce?

8. What are the causes of Divorce?

9. What is the second main cause of Divorce?

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8.6 CHILD RELATED PROBLEMS

Despite India ratifying the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Children in 1992 to work towards child rights, we still have a long way to go. India needs to use aggressive corrective measures to address malnutrition, infant mortality, low school enrollment and other issues. Identifying these issues with their complexities enables civil society, governments, and individual strategies to resolve them. With socially conscious corporations and citizens who donate to charity, child rights are today a cause for everyone.

1. Health issues

Diarrhoea and malnutrition are two of India's biggest killers of children under the age of 5. Along with poor access to nutritious foods, both these issues are linked to poor hygiene, as infections trigger mineral depletion and loss of appetite. India finds prominent mention in the annual global tally of deaths of children under the age of 5. For every 1,000 live births, 42 die, and every 20 seconds a child dies from preventable causes like pneumonia, preterm and birth complications, new born infections, diarrhoea and malaria. National Family Health Survey (NFHS) India 2006 estimates show that 61 million children under the age of 5 are stunted, and 53 million are underweight. Another 25 million have a low weight to height ratio. One-third of the world's 'wasted' children live in India, and rampant in rural areas, among scheduled tribes.

2. Survival issues

India leads the global tally of child (ages 0 – 5) deaths – 1.2 million deaths were reported in 2015, a quarter of 5.9 million child deaths worldwide. Another finding reported that 1.83 million children die every year before their fifth birthday (of 26 million children born annually). Children from India's poorest communities are at a higher risk of death before 5. There are sharp inequities in mortality rates across India - under 5 mortality rate in Kerala is much lower (14 deaths per 1000 live births) than Madhya Pradesh (92 per 1000). At 1.83 million, India has the highest child deaths in the world.

3. Lack of education

A UN report recently revealed that India is home to the world's largest population of illiterate adults (287 million), and contributes 37% of the global total. While the latest data shows that literacy rose from 48% (1991) to 63% (2006), population growth cancelled out these gains, meaning no effective change in the number of illiterates. Primary education spending is a decider in literacy, as seen in Kerala, one of India's most literate states of the country, where education spending per pupil was about \$ 685. Educational disparities are noticed in richer and poorer states. However, girl child education requires not only investment but also social awareness that educated girls are a valuable asset. Today, India ranks 123 among 135 countries in female literacy.

4. Exploitation in the form of child labour

India has the world's most number of people under 'modern slavery' – 14 million. This includes slave labour conditions like bonded labour, sex trafficking, child labour, domestic 'help' etc. Children today continue to be employed in hazardous occupations - over 12 million children (aged 5 – 14) work in construction, manufacturing of beedis, bangles and fireworks industry. A 2016 amendment to Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 hasn't established a blanket ban, instead legalising a form of child labour by allowing children to work in family enterprises, creating scope for misuse.

5. Violence and abuse

In 2013, India was among the top 5 countries with the highest rate of child sexual abuse. A 2013 report by the Asian Centre for Human Rights revealed that sexual offences against children in India were at an "epidemic" level – citing, over 48,000 rape cases between 2001 to 2011, and a 337% increase in child rape cases from 2001 (2,113 cases) to 2011 (7,112 cases). Child sex abuse (CSA) occurs across geographies, economic levels, and even across relationships – strangers, friends, family members had all been perpetrators. In 2012, 9500 child and adolescent murders were reported, making India the third largest contributor to child homicide (WHO 2014, Global Health Estimates). One in 3 adolescent girls experiences violence (physical, sexual or emotional), from significant others.

8.7 CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT

8.7.1 CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

We shall discuss about various aspects related to child abuse as given below.

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Child abuse and child neglect

The 1988 National Seminar on Child Abuse in India organized by the National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development, states that child abuse and neglect is the intentional, non-accidental injury, maltreatment of children by the parents, care-takers, employers or others including those individuals representing government all non-governmental bodies which may lead to temporary or permanent impairment of their physical, mental and psychosocial development, disability or death.

This definition is very comprehensive and covers all forms of child abuse. The abuse caused by the siblings and the family members may also be considered as child abuse. It is encouraging to know the recognition given to varied kind of injustice done to crores of children in the country.

Child abuse in India

The child abuse in India is not very well documented. Some social scientists suggest that the prevalence of physical and emotional abuse and neglect may not be widespread because of the strong support of the extended family. However, with the decline in social obligation by extended family members towards children who become orphaned, the breakdown of families and the absence of support to single parent woman headed households have increased the problem of child neglect and child abuse. Although, there is no reliable data about the child abuse but the magnitude of the problem, its increasing visibility, especially in urban areas in the form of street children, child labour, child beggary and vagrancy, sexual abuse of children is a pointer.

Extent of Child Abuse, Problem

Many children in this country are abused every year physically, psychologically or both. Numbers of reported cases represent only the tip of iceberg, and are probably only a fraction of the total number of cases. Many of abuser neglect cases are reported as accidents. It has been estimated that there are more than one million children involved annually, with 20% permanently injured, Children ranging in age from birth to 6 years seem to be at greater risk. Both sexes are equally victimized. Abuse and neglect are known to occur

in families regardless of race, religion, education or socio-economic status, though statistics indicate a higher incidence in lower socio-economic classes.

Child abuse is a complex and difficult form of family dysfunction with which abusive parents belongs to a family of origin in which the use of physical punishment was when crisis situation occurs and their usual coping methods fail, or when their needs for support are not met by the spouse, such parents may turn to the child for gratification. The expectations and demands made on the child in such circumstances are usually inappropriate for his development stage and therefore he is unable to meet parents expectations and provide the needed gratification. As a result of increased frustration the child is then excessively punished or abused.

8.7.2 TYPES OF CHILD ABUSE

There are various types of child abuse in our country.

8.7.2.1 Social Abuse

Culture and values Examples of societal abuse are infanticide child marriage, child labour, child prostitution and child beggary. These abusive acts are more often associated with poor socio-economic condition. They involve exploitation of the children by adults for personal gain and deprive children of their rights and liberties meant for their growth and development. Societal abuse exposes these children to physical, mental, emotional and social injuries.

Let us discuss the societal abuses as follows:

i) Infanticide

Killing of infants especially of the fairer sex was very prevalent in many states of India like Rajasthan, U.P. Andhra Pradesh. Though infanticide is on the decline, sex, determination of the foetus in the early weeks of pregnancy and illegal abortion especially for a female foetus is on the increase. There is law strictly prohibiting sex determination, however, the practice is still on.

ii) Child Marriage

Child marriage was very prevalent in olden times, At times marriages were decided soon after the birth of the children and goona (going to husbands' house) took place as soon as the girl attained puberty. This led to early pregnancy, which further resulted in high rates of maternal mortality and infant mortality. Another problem associated with child marriages was child widows, a very common feature in Calcutta. These child widows were social

outcasts. With the spread of education and awareness and legal in position the age of marriage has increased.

iii) Child Prostitution

Flesh trade is on the rise and a number of the girls taken to prostitution are children. Most of them are of tender age and are taken away from their homes in the pretext of jobs or a better life in the city.

iv) Child Beggary

Orphans, children who have run away from home generally land up in beggary. Sometimes the economic condition of the parents may also force the children into beggary.

v) Child Labour

Child labour is a problem rampant in India; India has the largest number of child labourers in the country. The 1981 census reported about 13.6 million child workers, which constitutes about 5.17 per cent of total child population. It is predicted that at present their number may be as high as 60 million and is on the rise. This is despite constitutional guarantees and prohibitive laws like the Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act 1976, the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 and international convention on the subject.

Besides agriculture, child labourers exist in industries like match box, leather, lock making, carpet, stone quarries, brick kilns, diamond cutting and polishing etc. The main factors for prevalence of child workers are poverty, dropping out from school and the interest of employers in getting docile workers of a cheap rate. Pulling children to work deprives them of the opportunities of education and training. In certain industries children are subjected to long hours, poor working conditions, low wages, insecurity of employment and occupational hazards, which affect them adversely.

8.7.2.2 Physical Maltreatment

Physical Maltreatment includes physical abuse, sexual abuse, benign neglect, failure to provide and physical neglect.

i) Physical Abuse: Acts of commission such as beating, scolding or burning and poisoning etc., could result in physical injury, disability or death. In fact, it is difficult to identify physical abuse until there is resultant serious injury, disability or death, because corporal punishment is generally accepted in India and other countries like the USA for the discipline of children. Physical abuse also results in emotional impairment in children, but it is often gradual, and may not be associated with this. In the USA corporal punishment is banned. In

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India, corporal punishment is banned in the schools. It is suggested that health and social welfare professional be trained to recognize non-accidental injuries inflicted by the parents, caretakers and teachers, and to activate the implementation of the Children's Act.

ii) **Physical Neglect:** Acts of omission or inadequate parenting abilities such as medical neglect, lack of cleanliness, nutritional neglect, poor housing conditions, and lack of supervision resulting in malnutrition, ill health, other physical and emotional damage. Physical neglect is often associated with poverty, ignorance, lack of resources, life style, tendency to favour the male child, etc. This requires improvement in the socio-economic conditions, health education, provisions of resources, parental counseling and guidance.

iii) **Benign Neglect:** Benign neglect occurs when the family resources are very scarce, the female and disabled children are considered as a liability, and the limited family resources are utilized for the male and healthy children for the viability of the family. The problem is mostly known to the community. Though the community does not sanction such abusive behaviour, it takes no action about the same and accepts the problem. This problem requires education of the people and specific programmes for care of disabled children and female children.

iv) **Sexual Abuse:** It means the exploitation and assault of the children through such actions as genital fondling and masturbation, urogenital contact, and contact, genital viewing, intercourse, molestation and rape. The abuse can be homosexual or heterosexual. Incest is the sexual abuse that occurs between the relatives and their society because of the changes in the family life, increasing divorce rate, more tolerant view of sexual acts between non-related household members, who come from divorced or previously separate homes. The sexual abuse in India is in increase. Incidents are being reported in the mass media every now, and then and the problem is much more widespread. This problem is usually associated with alcoholism, drug addiction, overcrowding, industrialization, and mutual disrespect, lack of communication and strained relation between the parents. .

8.7.2.3 Non-physical Maltreatment

This category of child abuse includes emotional abuse, verbal abuse, educational neglect, fostering delinquency, parental sexual mores and alcohol/drug abuse. Non-physical maltreatment causes anti-social behaviour in

the children, and develops, psychosocial maladjustment, which may lead to delinquency and criminal behaviour.

1. **Emotional Abuse and /or Neglect:** It is a chronic pattern of behaviour, and the child is continually terrorized, berated or rejected. Often, parents have high development of self-image and self-esteem. Emotional abuse or neglect is almost always present when other forms of abuse occur.
2. **Verbal Abuse:** This occurs as a result of verbal battering. It causes the same kind of psychological impact as in emotional abuse or neglect.
3. **Educational Neglect:** Education is given a lower priority. Even in the developed countries increasing number of school-going children are working, and both parents and children give less emphasis to meet the expected educational requirements in the school, In India 62 per cent of children in the age group of 5-9 years, 50 per cent in the age group of 10-14 years are out of school, and join hands with the family .to work in the field, dhobi Ghats and small scale industries. Educational neglect hampers the child's advancement and personality development, and could not be ignored by society.
4. **Fostering delinquency, parental sexual, more particularly where there is lack of privacy in urban slums and with alcohol/drug abuse:** This kind of non-physical abuse refers to the parental behaviour, which has direct or indirect impact on the child.
 - ❖ **'Fostering delinquency'** is that when the parent encourage children to perform anti-social activities.
 - ❖ **Parental sexual** mores refer to the involvement of the parents in extramarital relations or involvement in prostitution.
 - ❖ **Alcohol/drug Abuse:** the parental involvement in alcohol/drug abuse is linked with the moral behaviour of the children.

8.7.3 CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

The occurrence of child abuse is decided by few contributing factor which can be grouped under those belonging to the perpetrator and those of the child. Besides these few factors may be related to the situation.

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Perpetrator

The perpetrator refers to the abuser, i.e., one who commits the abuse. Mostly, it is a parent, but it could be the care giver, employer of anyone who deals with children. A number of studies have been done abroad to describe the characteristics of the perpetrator. Behavioural indicators of abusing parents may include some of the following traits:

- ❖ Lack of concern about the child,
- ❖ Attempt to conceal the child's injury or protect the identity of the abuser,
- ❖ Routine use of harsh, unreasonable and age inappropriate punishment to a child,
- ❖ Inability to provide emotionally for himself as an adult,
- ❖ Expectations that his children will fill his emotional need, and
- ❖ View of the child as a small adult capable of meeting his need.

Earlier research in the area of child abuse characterized abusing parents by particular personality deficits and distinguished the battering as controlled or uncontrolled. The psychotic personality, the inadequate personality, the passive aggressive personality and the sadistic personality were included in the classification of *uncontrolled battering*. *Controlled battering* was classified into two additional categories - the displacement of aggression, and the cold, compulsive disciplinarian.

Fulfillment of the parenting role is different in abusive and non-abusive parents. Abusers are more likely to report stress-related symptoms, such as health problem or depression that are linked to the parenting role. Abusers display reciprocal patterns of behaviour to both children and spouse that are more aversive and less prosocial than non-abusers.

The Child

Certain infants have been identified as susceptible or vulnerable to later child abuse.

These include the following:

- ❖ Low birth-weight infants
- ❖ Infants' of unwanted pregnancies
- ❖ Infants of drug-using or alcohol using parents
- ❖ Infants of a multiple birth
- ❖ Infants with birth defects
- ❖ Children who take on characteristics of a disliked parents or traits the parent dislikes himself, and
- ❖ Premature infant who experience little maternal-infant contact

The Situation

Several studies have shown a relationship between the situation of the family, i.e., its social-economic and psychological environment and the incidence of child abuse and child neglect. Abuse seems to be more in families and communities with a high level environmental stress and frustration due to socio-economic conditions, dominant social philosophies, cultural practices, values and norms, competitions and expectation of the changing system, etc.

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8.7.4 ASSESSMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF CHILD ABUSE

Let us discuss about assessment and management of child abuse in following sub-sections.

8.7.4.1 ASSESSMENT OF THE CHILD ABUSE

i. Screening families for possible child abuse

It includes following.

- ❖ Generational abuse (history of abuse/attitude of violence)
- ❖ Prenatal characteristics
 - Parental over concern about infant sex
 - Parental over concern about infant performance
 - Denial of pregnancy
 - Severe maternal depression
 - Lack of support for the expectant mother from the family, and
 - An earlier wish to terminate the pregnancy that was not carried out.

ii. Parental Characteristics

- ✓ Over concern about sex, and infants, performance
- ✓ Maternal depression
- ✓ Lack of family support

iii. Maternal Characteristics

Parents anxiety stress and apprehension regarding physical and financial burden during Ante Natal, Natal and Post Natal period.

iv. Child Characteristics

Children with physical and mental retardation are commonly victim of child abuse. Parents over expectations and child's inability to cope with expectations will lead to abusive behaviour.

v. Family Characteristics

The family structure or behavioural patterns known to foster maltreatment of some children are classified as follows.

❖ Four types of family structures or behavioural patterns known to foster maltreatment of some children are classified as follows:

a. Radar alert-1: Parents are authoritarian, highly structured, and inflexible. Disciplinary techniques, attempts at family-staff interaction are either suppressed or rechanneled into superficial conversation.

b. Radar alert-2: Drug or alcohol use of parent (s).

c. Radar alert-3: Psychiatric disturbances of documented psychosis or deficiency of parent (s).

d. Radar alert-4: Emotional immaturity of parent(s) and loose or ill define family structure.

- ✓ Social isolation
- ✓ Stress and life crisis

Investigating Child Abuse

Once a report of suspected abuse or neglect is made, an investigation of the family commences. An assessment of the level of danger to the abused child is required. This is accomplished by examining the following issues:

- ✓ Are there weapons available to the abuser?
- ✓ Is there use of alcohol or a history of abuse of alcohol?
- ✓ Is there talk of murder or suicide?

An assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the family is also done.

Evaluating the Child's Health

The nurse is responsible for physical assessment of the child. Necessary investigations and referrals can be made. The nurse should try to obtain parental explanation of the child's injury and assess whether the

explanation correlates with the type of injury and the child's history of previous trauma or health problems.

The child's nutritional status is assessed through his dietary history and the age appropriation and adequacy of his diet.

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Child's Psychosocial Status

Information about the child's social history, family support, composition of the household and economic status is gathered. The nurse should ask about the child's typical daily activities, the parent's description of the child, the child's school performance, extracurricular activities and developmental level of functioning. The nurse must pay particular attention of the parent child interaction.

Diagnosis of Abuse

The nurse and other health care providers should consider several factors when formulating a diagnosis of child abuse. Do they present a contradictory history? Is the cause of injury protected onto another person? Did the parents appear to wait for an unduly long period of time before seeking attention for the child's injury? Is there poor maternal or parental attachment? Is a history provided that does not adequately explain the injury? Are the parents reluctant to share information with medical personnel? Have the parents "Shopped around" from one hospital to another? Are the parents difficult to locate after the child's admission to the hospital?

The diagnosis categories that most often reflect problems evident in abusive families may include:

- i) Dysfunction in self-concept (parent or child) such as anxiety or self-esteem disturbance.
- ii) Disturbance in role relationship such as conflict regarding dependence, alteration in parenting, social isolation, potential for abuse or neglect.
- iii) Dysfunctional (ineffective) family or individual copying.

Common Clinical Findings of Child Abuse

Skin: Burns, old scars, ecchymoses is soft tissue swelling, human bites

Fractures: Skull, rib, limb, presence of old fractures on x-ray films, epiphysal separation

- ❖ Subdural hemorrhage
- ❖ Intestinal injuries
- ❖ Trauma to genitals
- ❖ Growth retardation

- ❖ Poor hygiene

Whiplash: Shaken infant syndrome, caused by manual shaking of trunk or extremities, resulting in interlobular and intracranial hemorrhage.

- ❖ Abnormal genital findings
- ❖ Abnormal anal findings

8.7.4.2 MANAGEMENT OF CHILD ABUSE

The early years are a very delicate period. Physical and mental trauma during this stage can lead to permanent retardation in physical and mental growth. The facts that children have neither a voice nor a political constituency assign a greater responsibility to adults to plan for child development.

The Indian Constitution contains several provisions for protection, development and welfare of children.

- ❖ It protects the employment of children from any factory or mine or any another hazardous occupation. The Child Labour Protection and Regulation Act was enacted in 1986.
- ❖ The State shall direct its policy in such a manner that the tender age of children is not abused, children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner, and childhood is protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment.
- ❖ National Policy on Education (1986) emphasized universal enrolment and universal retention of children at elementary school stage.
- ❖ Crèche services to children of poor working women in unorganized sector were expanded. ,
- ❖ Adoption services were promoted. ,
- ❖ The Juvenile Justice Act was enacted in 1986, repeating the then existing children act to deal effectively with the problem of neglected or juvenile: delinquents.\

Management can be discussed under three levels of preventions:

Prevention is the primary goal in regard to child abuse. Nurses have the responsibility to use their knowledge and skill to identify potentially abusive situations. Risk screening should be implemented prenatally and postnatal and periodically throughout well child care. If a family at risk is identified, additional supportive measures need to be implemented in the interest of prevention

Managing a situation of child abuse is difficult and will require a multidisciplinary approach. Nurses can be an integral part of this team by offering support to the parents and the child, teaching parents how to nurture, and investigating community services available to the family. Both child and parents will require health case interventions. The goal of management is directed toward the protection of the child, support and rehabilitation of

parents, and the return of the child to the home when deemed safe. In addition, it should be mandatory that all cases of suspected abuse and neglect be reported to appropriate authorities.

8.7.5 PREVENTION OF CHILD ABUSE

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Primary Level Prevention

The major intervention which might be considered is:

- ❖ Creating general awareness among the people about the extent and nature of the problem through the mass media.
- ❖ Education of the general public about the causes of the problem and its prevention and control.
- ❖ Encouraging family support system, interpersonal communication equal distribution of family resources to all the members.
- ❖ The nurse can teach the parents acceptable and workable way to discipline children so that the limits are maintained without causing the child emotional or physical harm.
- ❖ Developing self-care services like day care facilities for normal and physically and mentally handicapped children for their care and supervision, dedication centre etc.
- ❖ Special care to the mothers, who are predisposed to hysterical or emotional illness such as the teenage mothers, and those having several children or family discord.
- ❖ Improving general health status and socio-economic status by encouraging the female literacy and prenatal training, family welfare services to prevent unwanted pregnancies, income generating activities etc.
- ❖ Training of health social welfare personnel to recognize child abuse and activate the implementation of the Children's Act.

Secondary and Tertiary Levels of Prevention

Secondary and tertiary levels of prevention aim at modification of three factors responsible for child abuse. The interventions are as given below:

- Recognition of child abuse cases, reporting to the authorities and diagnosis by the doctor.
- Establishing rapport and investigating the associated factors.
- Providing specific care according to the kind of trauma, good physical care and love to the abused child.
- Encouraging parents to participate in the care of the children.

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- Individual counseling and psychotherapy of the parents and children to deal with specific psychosocial and physical problems.
- Group therapy in the form of self-help groups, like the "parents anonymous" group in the U.S.A., which is an association of abusive mothers, and community day care centers, where battering parents and their children can interact and gain support from each other. The main goal of such group session is to establish a positive parent-child relationship, and to restore the - parent's self-confidence by changing old habits of their child gradually. The self-help groups need to have the support of professionals.
- When the child abuse is very sever, and the life of the child is in danger and/or the parents also feel incapable to cope with the situation, the child should be kept at a foster home. Both the parents and the child are given the treatment with ultimate aim to send the child to his own house.
- At times, the abuser is imprisoned, when the abuse is life-taking, sexual assault and rape.

It is advisable to protect the right of the child as established by the U.N. The Children's Act passed by the Central Government in 1960, and extended to all the States, calls for the protection of the children against cruelty and indignity or willfully being neglected. The Juvenile Justice Act of 1986 also calls for the protection and care of the children who are destitute and neglected. These acts need to be explicit, more specific, and objective. More than this, these acts need to be implemented, something which requires public awareness and support.

It is also needed to launch a child abuse control programme at the national level.

8.7.6 NURSING INTERVENTION

Child abuse or neglect is reported to local or State Govt. child protection agencies. Abused children are usually removed from the home until family situation stabilizes and parents have demonstrated a willingness to continue care as well as a positive caring attitude towards child.

Assessment: Community Health Nurses and Paediatric Nurses are most likely to confront the problems of child abuse, and they are ethically morally and legally bound to report the appropriate authorities. Nurses must be able to identify child abuse and neglect. In many instances it may remain hidden, nurse must be alert to intervene and protect the child from further suffering. She must recognize the physical

and behaviour indicators of child abuse and is useful guide to assess the family system. Nurse's own personal attitude and feelings about child abuse will affect the intervention. A nurse who harbors feelings of disgust or anger or who is judgmental towards the parent, should not attempt to try to be therapeutic with the person because such negative feelings are invariably transmitted and block all movements towards transaction.

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Assessment **of child** abuse: a) Screening families for potential child abuse by identifying the following characteristics:

1. **History of Family violence:** Abusive parents own childhood experiences are viewed as being highly contributory to parenting behaviours. A child who experiences violence in his own childhood has a high potential of becoming a violent member of society at sometime of his life. Around 30% to 60% of parents who were battered as children themselves treat their own children in the same violent way.
2. **Role Reversal:** The concept of role reversal may also play a part in child abuse. There is reversal of the dependency role in which the parent turns to the child for nurturing and protection. The child is also perceived as having adult powers to deliberately displease or judge the parent.
3. **Rigidly Prescribed Role Expectations:** As a child, the abusive parent may have felt demands on himself to behave in expected manner that were beyond his abilities. Being unable to line up to such demands resulted in his frequently being criticized and inevitably feeling involved.
4. **Child Viewed as a Cause of Parent Hardship:** The parents in such cases, may perceive that child is the root of a hardship they are experiencing. Parents may punish the child because of added financial burdens. A child thus perceived as clearly more open to abuse than a pleasure or joy to his parents.
5. **Child's Behavioral Pattern:** In some situations child is more prone to be abused if the parent perceives him as persistently misbehaving or acting which is consistently a typical when compared with other children in the family
6. **Lack of Mothering:** "Mothering" is a behavior that a very small child learns as he is nurtured by his parents and that he later carries over into his relationship with others, e.g., friends siblings. The imprint of this mothering behaviour is carried by the child as he matures and begins his own parenting cycle. If the imprint of mothering was inadequate or negative the likelihood of abuse by the parent is increased.
7. **Family Isolation:** Families that are socially isolated from support system because of motility patterns, characteristics that alienate others and stress that cut families off from potential and actual support are known to have higher potential for child abuse than families that have an adequate support network.

Implementation

Building and maintaining therapeutic relationship with an abusive family can be a very challenging part of the entire nursing process. Abusive parents often try to give the impression of trying to do well and make the situation appear positive in order to please others. CHN must be open and honest with the parents, meeting with them jointly, maintaining the focus on them and their needs rather than on child. Never place the parents in a position of feeling blamed or criticized. The only real cure for child abuse is to help the parents to achieve enough self respect and dignity to develop the deep human relationship that they need to help them come out of their self-imposed isolation and learn to trust others.

Specific behavioural habits of toddlers and preschooler that evoke parental concern may include or involve biting, hitting, masturbation, sleep and eating disturbances, negativism, temper tantrums, toilet training, discipline and limit setting.

Role: Nurses have the responsibilities of educating parents in understanding the normalcy of these behaviours, assisting parents to identify effective coping behaviours when dealing with the behaviour of concern, identifying with parents appropriate approaches to handling the child and the behaviour, and providing support and reassurance to parents. Appendix provides information pertinent to the nursing assessment and management of the common problems.

A plan of follow-up is essential to any circumstances of child abuse. Nurses can contribute in this follow-up by assisting parents to deal with the frustrations of parenthood, teaching parenting approaches, providing support and encouragement, and facilitating the identification and use of community resources. Appropriate community services may include the following:

- ✓ Crisis hotlines
- ✓ Parents Anonymous
- ✓ Single parents' groups
- ✓ Lay community organization
- ✓ Crisis nurseries or child care
- ✓ Day care centers
- ✓ Parent education groups
- ✓ Health visitor groups
- ✓ National Center for Missing and exploited children

8.7.7 FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNITY HEALTH NURSE

A community health nurse has varied roles, like teacher, guide, counselor, helper, advocate, sensitive observer and care providers, etc. Her functions could be as follows:

- ❖ Creating mass awareness about the problem, and education regarding causes, prevention and control of the problem.
- ❖ Helping the family develop the family support system and coping abilities to deal with the family situation and limited resources.
- ❖ Guidance and counseling of teenage mothers, mothers with many children, mothers having family discord.
- ❖ Identification of child abuse cases, participating in their diagnosis and treatment as prescribed.
- ❖ Providing specific care according to the trauma, good physical care and love to the abused child, and encouraging the parental participation in the care, and
- ❖ Participating in the individual and group psychotherapy sessions, and activating the implementation of the Acts.

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Check your progress – 1V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

10. What is meant by child abuse and child neglect?

11. What is called '*Fostering delinquency*'?

12. What is the assessment of child abuse in Maternal Characteristics?

8.8 LET US SUM UP

The family is one of the most important institutions in any society. It is critical to the socialization of each generation and to the stability and functioning of the larger society. Marriage is one of the universal social institutions established to control and regulate the life of mankind. It is closely associated with the institution of family. In fact both the institutions are complementary to each other.

Marriage might include whether spouses are of opposite sexes or the same sex and how one of the traditional expectations of marriage (to produce children) is understood today. Horton and Hunt "marriage is the approved social pattern whereby two or more persons establish a family".

Divorce is a negotiating tool for women who seek change in their relationships. In countries with greater acceptance of divorce, there is a more equal division of household work. Men risk losing their wives if they refuse to

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shape up and help out around the house. Thus, while divorce has helped many women leave unhealthy marriages in which they are at risk of great physical and mental harm, the ability to get a divorce easily may also strengthen marriages.

Children, an important part of the family, are the worst sufferers of divorce. Even the parents of the divorced partners also face difficulty to cope up with the situation. Child abuse and neglect is a socio-economic problem, which has physical, emotional and social manifestations. Its solution is, therefore, beyond medical boundaries.

In this unit we have discussed Family Problems, meaning and definition of Family and Marriage. The characteristics and function of Family and Marriage have also touched upon briefly. The causes of divorce have been discussed. In this unit the definition and of child abuse, the nature of this problems and its cause, effects of child abuse, its management and the role of the nurses, the child abuse and child neglect are discussed in detail.

8.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Define – Family
2. List out the characteristics of family.
3. Explain the social functions of the family
4. Define – Marriage
5. Enumerate the significance of marriage
6. Define – Divorce
7. Explain the causes of divorce
8. Enumerate the types of child abuse

8.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Family is a more or less durable association of Husband and Wife with or without child, or of a man or women alone, with children.
2. Monogamy is a system of marriage in which one man marries one woman. In almost all the modern societies, marriages are monogamous and such families are known as monogamous families.
3. Matriarchal family, Patriarchal family
4. Marriage is a contract for the production and maintenance of children
5. Marriage prohibits sexual relations between father and daughter, mother and son, brother and sister, etc. Such a kind of prohibition is called ‘incest taboo’

6. Sororal polygyny is a type of marriage in which the wives are invariably the sisters. It is often called sororate.
7. Divorce is the socially and legally recognized dissolution of a marriage
8. Modernization, Growing Acceptance of Change, High Personal Aspirations, Growth of the Nuclear Family, Declining Values, Physical Separation
9. Stress
10. Child abuse is intentional, non-accidental injury and maltreatment of children by parents, caretakers, employers or others, including representatives of the governmental bodies and non-governmental bodies. It may lead to temporarily or permanent impairment of physical, mental psychosocial development. Child neglect is an intentional act of not providing for meeting the physical, emotional or educational needs of the children by their parents, caretakers, etc.
11. '*Fostering delinquency*' is that when the parent encourage children to perform anti-social activities.
12. Parents anxiety stress and apprehension regarding physical and financial burden during Ante Natal, Natal and Post Natal period.

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UNIT – IX WOMAN RELATED PROBLEMS

NOTES

Structure

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Objectives
- 9.3 Woman Related Problems
 - 9.3.1 Social Problems Faced by Indian Women
- 9.4 Abuse
 - 9.4.1 Forms of Abuse
- 9.5 Violence
 - 9.5.1 Defining Violence Against Women
 - 9.5.2 Forms of violence against women
- 9.6 Problems of Working Women
 - 9.6.1 The impacts and costs of workplace violence
 - 9.6.2 Problems Faced by Working Women In India
 - 9.6.2.1 Reasons of occupational stress
- 9.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 9.8 Unit- End- Exercises
- 9.9 Answer to check your Progress
- 9.10 Suggested Readings

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The status of women in India has been subject to many great changes over the past few millennia. From equal status with men in ancient times through the low points of the medieval period, to the promotion of equal rights by many reformers, the history of women in India has been eventful. The condition of women in India has always been a matter of grave concern. Since the past several centuries, the women of India were never given equal status and opportunities as compared to that of their male counterparts. However, women in India continue to face atrocities such as rape, acid throwing, dowry killings, and the forced prostitution of young girls.

Abuse is the improper usage or treatment of a thing, often to unfairly or improperly gain benefit. Abuse can come in many forms, such as: physical or verbal maltreatment, injury, assault, violation, rape, unjust practices, crimes, or other types of aggression.

Violence against women is a significant health and social problem affecting virtually all societies, but often it goes unrecognised and unreported and in many countries it is still accepted as part of normal behaviour. Until modern times, legal and cultural practices, combined with the inertia of longstanding religious and educational conventions, restricted women's entry and participation in the workforce. In women Occupational stress is stress involving work. Work and family are the two most important aspects in women's lives.

In this unit you will learn Woman Related Problems. You will know the Abuse and Violence. You will learn the Problems of Working Women.

9.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ Discuss the various Woman Related Problems
- ✓ Explain the Problems of Abuse, Violence
- ✓ Analyse the Problems of Working Women

9.3 WOMAN RELATED PROBLEMS

The status of women in India has been subject to many great changes over the past few millennia. From equal status with men in ancient times through the low points of the medieval period, to the promotion of equal rights by many reformers, the history of women in India has been eventful. In modern India, women have held high offices including that of the President, Prime Minister, Speaker of the Lok Sabha and Leader of the Opposition. However, women in India continue to face atrocities such as rape, acid throwing, dowry killings, and the forced prostitution of young girls.

Traditions such as Sati, Jauhar, and Devadasi among some communities have been banned and are largely defunct in modern India. However, some instances of these practices are still found in remote parts of India. Child marriage remains common in rural areas, although it is illegal under current Indian law.

The condition of women in India has always been a matter of grave concern. Since the past several centuries, the women of India were never given equal status and opportunities as compared to that of their male counterparts. The patriarchal nature of Indian society, which even though gives respect to women as they are our mothers and sisters, has greatly hampered both the independence as well as the safety of women. Women in India continue to face violence from womb to the tomb. While in womb they face the ever looming threat of feticide and after birth, they are subject to various forms of violence and harassment at different points of their lives, at the hands of different actors, ranging from their parents to their husbands to the members of general public to their employers.

This state of affairs exists even when the Constitution of India guarantees to all Indian women equality (Article 14), no discrimination by the State (Article 15(1)), equality of opportunity (Article 16), and equal pay for equal work (Article 39(d)). In addition, it allows special provisions to be made by the State in favour of women and children (Article 15(3)), renounces practices derogatory to the dignity of women (Article 51(A) (e)), and also allows for provisions to be made by the State for securing just and humane conditions of work and for maternity relief (Article 42).

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Despite all these constitutional and legal measures there is lot of atrocities and injustices prevailing in India. It is an irony that, a country where religious and cultural traditions keep women in high esteem, and women are worshiped in the form of many deities, atrocities against them are on the rise. According to 1992-93 figures, only 9.2% of the households in India were headed by females. However, approximately 35% of the households below the poverty line were found to be headed by females.

Every single day single women, young girls, mothers and women from all walks of life are being assaulted, molested, and violated. The streets, public transport, public spaces in particular have become the territory of the hunters. While the ones already hunted down weep in silence or in disdain, the rest fight their way to a basic life with dignity. There is an unspoken war on the streets. Young school and college going girls use books to shield themselves, other women wear full-covered attire to protect their bodies, and others avoid the mere glance of the roving gaze.

We don't need to look at statistics to confront the horrid truth. News stories of women from all over India being raped, beaten, killed are flashed across us day after day – and we all are aware of it. The fatal Nirbhaya gang rape saw an outpouring on the streets of Delhi – protests decrying the fragile status of women in India. Candle light marches, editorials examining the patriarchal and sexist traditions of our country, an awakening on social media – even conversations on streets revolve around the night they cannot forget: the night that took Nirbhaya.

9.3.1 SOCIAL PROBLEMS FACED BY INDIAN WOMEN

In India,

Selective abortion and female infanticide

It is the act of aborting a fetus because it is female. Foetal sex determination and sex selective abortion by medical professionals has today grown into a Rs. 1,000 crore industries (US\$ 244 million). Social discrimination against women and a preference for sons have been promoted. According to the decennial Indian census; the sex ratio in the 0-6 age group in India went from 104.0 males per 100 females in 1981, to 105.8 in 1991, to 107.8 in 2001, to 109.4 in 2011. The ratio is significantly higher in certain states such as Punjab and Haryana (126.1 and 122.0, as of 2001).

1. Dowry and Bride burning

Marriage very often is a financial transaction in India. With economic prosperity our greed has only grown. Rich and poor alike expect to make a small fortune when they get their sons married. Demands are often made on the bride's family with not the least amount of compunction. It is no surprise then that this is one of the main reasons why families prefer to put girls to sleep in the womb. The cavernous greed of the groom's family is sometimes not even satiated with the booty it acquires on marriage and iterative demands are made thereafter. The worst casualty in this is the dignity of the young woman as well as

her family. Non fulfillment of demands sometimes spells death for the woman. According to the Indian National Crime Bureau reports there were about 6787 dowry death cases registered in India in 2005, a 46% jump over 1995 level of 4,648, which was 10-fold more than the figure of 400 deaths a year in the 80s.

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2. Domestic violence

It is endemic and widespread. Around 70% of women in India are victims to domestic violence according to Renuka Chowdhury junior minister for women and child development. National Crime Records Bureau reveal that a crime against a women is committed every three minutes, a women is raped every 29 minutes, a dowry death occurs every 77 minutes and one case of cruelty committed by either the husband or relative of the victim.

3. Disparity in education

Girl education is another area that is languishing in our country. According to last census held in 2001, female literacy in the country stood at 54.16%, the highest ever. However the figure is still a good 20 percentage points less than that of their male counterpart. The disparity is even higher in rural areas where over 63% or more women remain unlettered.

4. Child Marriages

Many people marry their daughters off as children to escape dowry. In rural India, 70% girls are married before 18 and 56% of those married bear children before 19.

5. Inadequate Nutrition

One of most understated problems facing the Indian girl child is that of poor nutrition. Girls belonging to the lower middle class and poor families suffer the most. Because of limited incomes it is an unsaid rule that while the male siblings are provided with milk, fruit and eggs, the girl but has to make do with the regular rice and lentil or sometimes even less. It is for this reason that girls are more susceptible to poor health and disease. Various surveys indicate that women's caloric content is about 100 calories (per women per day) less than they spend, whereas men show an 800 caloric surplus intake. Women expend a great deal of energy working inside and outside the house, whereas they often have insufficient food. It has also lead to many cases of **Death during Childbirth.**

6. Sexual harassment

Among the worst countries in crime, India has an abhorrent track record in all forms of sexual exploitation. In homes, on streets, in public transports, at offices, even on vacations. No place is safe. And the most terrible fall out of this is the lack of self-worth and feeling of degradation following the emotional and physical trauma that constant

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harassment creates. Such is the recurrence of these incidents that Delhi has earned the ignoble nickname of the 'Rape Capital'. While most cases go unreported as it is considered an act that puts one to shame, only 20% of the registered cases for sexual harassment reach actual conviction. In every 10 rape cases, 6 are of minor girls. Every 7 minutes, a crime is committed against women. Every 26 minutes, a woman is molested. Every 34 minutes, a rape takes place. Every 42 minutes, a sexual harassment incident occurs. Every 43 minutes, a woman is kidnapped. Every 93 minutes, a woman is burnt to death over dowry. A shameful plight!!!

7. Domestic violence and status in the family

Marital bliss, certainly not. A study conducted in 2004 across spectrum showed that 60-80% women face some sort of abuse or violence in marriage. Worse still, over half the women in India feel this to be perfectly normal. Physical abuse immediately relegates a wife to an inferior status where her main purpose is to serve than to be a partner. A paper published in International Journal of Criminology and Sociological Theory shows that in 2007 there were 20,737 reported case of rape, 8,093 cases of death due to dowry, 10,950 cases of sexual harassment with total crime of 185312. A U.N. Population Fund report claimed that up to 70 percent of married women aged 15-49 in India are victims of beatings or coerced sex.

8. Status of widows

The genesis of the problem lies in the culture of our country where a widow is considered worthless and inauspicious. While the practice is on the decline, women who have lost their husbands are still forced to don only white garments and shave their heads etc. They are treated poorly, hardly given proper food and sometimes altogether abandoned as one can witness in the streets of Vrindavan and Varanasi.

9. Military Service

Women are not allowed to have combat roles in the armed forces. According to a study carried out on this issue, a recommendation was made that female officers be excluded from induction in close combat arms, where chances of physical contact with the enemy are high. The study also held that a permanent commission could not be granted to female officers since they have neither been trained for command nor have they been given the responsibility so far.

10. Equal pay for equal work

While there have been several court rulings guaranteeing the right of earning the same pay for the same amount of work, it remains a distant reality in practice. This is particularly true of the unorganized sector especially dealing with manual labour where the Minimum Wage Act

norms are often violated. Besides these women get no maternity leave, or proper transportation facilities especially in the night shifts. Unequal pay for the same job happens to be one problem that men sometimes face as well.

11. Property rights

While the law of the land enshrines equal property distribution to the family of the deceased in the absence of a will irrespective of the sex, this is again normally just on paper. In practice most families leave daughters out of property rights and payment or dowry is symbolic of the girl's disinheritance vis-à-vis finance. Besides different religions have different takes on the matter.

12. Female foeticide and infanticide

Female foeticide is the practice of killing a fetus after determining the sex of the fetus after a sonography. Though determining the sex on an unborn child is illegal and punishable under the Pre-Conception and Pre-Natal Diagnostic Techniques Act, the practice is widespread by the means of illegal screenings. It's estimated that a 100,000 abortions take place every year solely because the fetus is female.

Female infanticide is the intentional killing of infant girls within one year of their births. Both, foeticide and infanticide can be attributed to the fact that a large number of parents prefer a male child, either because of personal desire or for various socio-economic reasons. A few of these reasons might be:-

1. Female children are seen as a burden by parents who fear spending on their dowry.
2. Male children are said to stand by their parents in their old age.
3. Male children are also considered as a good investment, for their grow up to earn for the family and bring in a bride and dowry into the household.
4. Male children carry the family name to the next generations.

13. Lack of formal education

A lot of girls aren't enrolled to schools and a lot of the ones that are, drop out. Proper formal education will lead to girls having better jobs and being financially independent, but the literacy rate of females is 65.46% compared to males which are 82.14%.

There are various causes for this, some being

1. Fear of safety whilst going to school.
2. Lack of toilets.

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3. Girls are expected to stay home and raise a family, whereas men are expected to work. Given this a lot of parents don't see the need to send their girl children to school.

4. Girls who do happen to work will not support their parents after they are married into another house, ergo; their education isn't a priority to a lot of parents. On the other hand, investing on their male child's education will be beneficial in the future because he'll one day start to run the household and look after his parents.

5. In poor households girl children are expected to help with chores instead of throwing away time in school.

6. Learning household chores is a priority because it increases the girl's value in the marriage market, thus, a lot of parents prefer their girl child stay home and learn what will really be of any use to her.

14. *Female genital mutilation*

It refers to all procedures involving partial or total removal of the external female genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for cultural or other non-medical reasons.

It has serious implications on the health of girls and women. Immediate complications include severe pain, shock, hemorrhage, tetanus or infection, urine retention, ulceration of the genital region and injury to adjacent tissue, wound infection, urinary infection, fever, and septicemia. Hemorrhage and infection can be severe enough to cause death. Long-term consequences include complications during childbirth, anemia, the formation of cysts and abscesses, keloid scar formation, damage to the urethra resulting in urinary incontinence, dyspareunia (painful sexual intercourse), sexual dysfunction, hypersensitivity of the genital area and Female Genital Mutilation has serious implications for the sexual and reproductive health of girls and women.

Some of the causes of Female Genital Mutilation are:-

- ❖ In certain society's anyone who doesn't follow it may face condemnation and ostracism.
- ❖ It's said to lead to a loss of libido; ensuring virginity before marriage.
- ❖ It is also said to ensure fidelity after marriage.
- ❖ To increase male sexual pleasure.
- ❖ It is said to promote aesthetic appeal of the genitalia.
- ❖ In some communities it is a prerequisite for marriage.

16. Crime

- a. Sexual Harassment
- b. Rape
- c. Domestic Violence
- d. Acid Attacks

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What are the problems continue to face in Indian women?
2. Which article denoted the women equality?

NOTES

9.4 ABUSE

Abuse is the improper usage or treatment of a thing, often to unfairly or improperly gain benefit. Abuse can come in many forms, such as: physical or verbal maltreatment, injury, assault, violation, rape, unjust practices, crimes, or other types of aggression. To these descriptions, one can also add the Kantian notion of the wrongness of using another human being as means to an end rather than as ends in themselves. Some sources describe abuse as "socially constructed", which means there may be more or less recognition of the suffering of a victim at different times and societies.

Abuse, while defined by the goal of power and control, consists of both tactics and patterns. Understanding the patterns is essential to understanding abuse since, apart from more extreme acts; it is in the pattern that the coerciveness and control resides.

Social Gerontology (Toronto Declaration): Elder abuse is defined as “a single or repeated act, or lack of appropriate action, occurring within any relationship where there is an expectation of trust which causes harm or distress to an older person. It can be of various forms: physical, psychological, emotional, sexual, and financial, or simply reflect intentional or unintentional neglect.” (WHO, 2002).

Adult Protection (National Research Council - NRC): Abuse of vulnerable older adults refers to “intentional actions that cause harm or create a serious risk of harm (whether or not harm is intended) to a vulnerable elder by a caregiver or other person who stands in a trust relationship to the elder, or failure by a caregiver to satisfy the elder’s basic needs or protect the elder from harm” (NRC, 2003, p. 40).

Intimate Partner Violence (CDC): Intimate partner abuse is defined as violence against women that “incorporates intimate partner violence (IPV), sexual violence by any perpetrator, and other forms of violence against women, such as physical violence committed by acquaintances or strangers” (Saltzman and others. 2002).

NOTES

Psychological abuse is defined – apart from the threat of physical or sexual abuse – to include humiliating the victim, controlling the victim’s behaviour, withholding information from the victim, getting annoyed if the victim disagrees with the perpetrator, deliberately doing something that makes the victim feel diminished, using the victims’ money, taking advantage of the victim, disregarding what the victim wants, isolating the victim from family or friends, prohibiting the victim’s access to transportation or telephone, getting the victim to engage in illegal activities, using the victims’ children to control the victims’ behaviour, threatening loss of custody of children, smashing objects or destroying property, denying the victim access to money or other basic necessities, and disclosing information that would tarnish the victims’ reputation. Psychological abuse also includes consequences such as impairment, injury and disability and those requiring the use of health care, mental health or substance-abuse services (Saltzman and others, 2002).

9.4.1 FORMS OF ABUSE

Neglect, abuse and violence against older adults, also referred to as mistreatment of older adults, or elder abuse, is defined further by different forms of abuse, categorized for research, policy and practice purposes. Main forms used to categorize abuse of older women include: neglect, physical abuse, sexual abuse, psychological (also called emotional, verbal and non-physical) abuse, and financial (also called material) abuse or exploitation (Luoma and others, 2011).

Different conceptual frameworks use a combination of different forms to operationalize abuse. The Social Gerontology and Adult Protection frameworks use most of the forms cited above.³ The Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) framework uses physical, sexual, and psychological forms of abuse, but not neglect and usually not financial exploitation (unless included in a measure of psychological abuse) (Saltzman, 1992; Stöckl and others, 2012).

A. Neglect

Neglect is defined as the refusal or failure of responsible caregivers to provide a caredependent older adult with assistance in daily living tasks or essential support such as food, clothing, shelter, health and medical care. This can also include desertion of a care-dependent older adult, also called abandonment (WHO, 2002).

B. Physical abuse

Physical abuse includes actions intended to cause physical pain or injury to an older adult, such as pushing, grabbing, slapping, hitting, or assaulting with a weapon or thrown object.

C. Sexual abuse

Sexual abuse can include offensive sexual behaviours as well as physical contact of a sexual nature (INPEA/WHO, 2002). Some studies of older women and abuse categorize sexual abuse as a subset of physical abuse.

D. Psychological abuse

This form of abuse includes verbal and non-verbal emotional abuse, which may be defined further as active or passive. This describes actions intended to inflict mental pain, anguish or distress on an older person (Luoma and others, 2011).

E. Financial abuse and exploitation

This form of abuse describes actions of illegal or improper use of an older person's money, property or assets (MetLife, 2011).⁴

F. Self-neglect

This form of abuse does not include a perpetrator, but rather, refers to an older person who—wilfully or inadvertently, due to diminished capacity or mental impairment— neglects to meet their own basic needs and often refuses the assistance offered by others.

NOTES

Check your progress– II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. Define neglect.

4. What is called Physical abuse?

9.5 VIOLENCE

Violence against women is a significant health and social problem affecting virtually all societies, but often it goes unrecognised and unreported and in many countries it is still accepted as part of normal behaviour. The manifestations and forms of violence vary in different settings, but most of the violence against women takes place within families and the perpetrators are almost exclusively men who are or have been in a close relationship with the woman.

Violence against women is any act of gender based violence that causes or could cause physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of harm or coercion, in public or in private life.

Violence against women (VAW) may include violence carried out by individuals as well as communities and states. Forms of VAW include; pre-natal sex selection, female infanticide, psychological and emotional abuse, domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment, workplace harassment, economic violence, honour killings, forced marriages, sexual slavery, trafficking and mob-violence.

Violence against women – particularly intimate partner violence and sexual violence – is a major public health problem and a violation of women's human rights. Global estimates published by WHO indicate that about 1 in 3 (35%) of women worldwide have experienced either physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence in their lifetime. Most of this violence is intimate partner violence. Worldwide, almost one third (30%) of women who have been in a relationship report that they have

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experienced some form of physical and/or sexual violence by their intimate partner in their lifetime. Globally, as many as 38% of murders of women are committed by a male intimate partner.

Violence can negatively affect women's physical, mental, sexual, and reproductive health, and may increase the risk of acquiring HIV in some settings. Men are more likely to perpetrate violence if they have low education, a history of child maltreatment, exposure to domestic violence against their mothers, harmful use of alcohol, unequal gender norms including attitudes accepting of violence, and a sense of entitlement over women.

Women are more likely to experience intimate partner violence if they have low education, exposure to mothers being abused by a partner, abuse during childhood, and attitudes accepting violence, male privilege, and women's subordinate status. There is evidence that advocacy and empowerment counselling interventions, as well as home visitation are promising in preventing or reducing intimate partner violence against women. Situations of conflict, post conflict and displacement may exacerbate existing violence, such as by intimate partners, as well as and non-partner sexual violence, and may also lead to new forms of violence against women.

Violence against women (VAW), also known as **gender-based violence** and **sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV)** are violent acts the victims of which are primarily or exclusively women or girls. Such violence is often considered a form of hate crime, committed against women or girls specifically because they are female, and can take many forms.

VAW has a very long history, though the incidents and intensity of such violence has varied over time and even today varies between societies. Such violence is often seen as a mechanism for the subjugation of women, whether in society in general or in an interpersonal relationship. Such violence may arise from a sense of entitlement, superiority, misogyny or similar attitudes in the perpetrator, or because of his violent nature, especially against women.

The UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women states, "violence against women is a manifestation of historically unequal power relations between men and women" and "violence against women is one of the crucial social mechanisms by which women are forced into a subordinate position compared with men."

Kofi Annan, Secretary-General of the United Nations, declared in a 2006 report posted on the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) website:

Violence against women and girls is a problem of pandemic proportions. At least one out of every three women around the world has been beaten, coerced into sex, or otherwise abused in her lifetime with the abuser usually someone known to her.

9.5.1 DEFINING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

The term violence against women encompasses a multitude of abuses directed at women and girls over the life span. The UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (defines violence against women as: "...any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life". This statement defines violence as acts that cause, or have the potential to cause harm, and by introducing the term "gender based" emphasises that it is rooted in inequality between women and men.

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The term gender based violence has been defined as "acts or threats of acts intended to hurt or make women suffer physically, sexually or psychologically, and which affect women because they are women or affect women dis-proportionally". Thus, gender based violence is often used interchangeably with violence against women. Both these definitions point at violence against women as a result of gender inequality. This inequality can be described as discrimination in opportunities and responsibilities and in access to and control of resources that is rooted in the sociocultural ascribed notion of masculinity as superior to femininity.

Intimate partner violence refers to behaviour by an intimate partner or ex-partner that causes physical, sexual or psychological harm, including physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviours.

Sexual violence is "any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, or other act directed against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting. It includes rape, defined as the physically forced or otherwise coerced penetration of the vulva or anus with a penis, other body part or object."

9.5.2 FORMS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Violence against women can fit into several broad categories. These include violence carried out by individuals as well as states. Some of the forms of violence perpetrated by individuals are: rape, domestic violence, sexual harassment, acid throwing, reproductive coercion, female infanticide, prenatal sex selection, obstetric violence, and mob violence; as well as harmful customary or traditional practices such as honor killings, dowry violence, female genital mutilation, marriage by abduction and forced marriage. There are forms of violence which may be perpetrated or condoned by the government, such as war rape; sexual violence and sexual slavery during conflict; forced sterilization; forced abortion; violence by the police and authoritative personnel; stoning and flogging. Many forms of VAW, such as trafficking in women and forced prostitution are often perpetrated by organized criminal networks. Historically, there have been

forms of organized WAV, such as the Witch trials in the early modern period or the sexual slavery of the Comfort women.

The World Health Organization (WHO), in its research on VAW, has analyzed and categorized the different forms of VAW occurring through all stages of life from before birth to old age.

Violence against women occurs in multiple forms. Among the main ones are:-

(i) Domestic Violence

Domestic violence is where one person tries to control and assert power over their partner in an intimate relationship. It can be physical, emotional, financial or sexual abuse. These often overlap. Any woman can be affected and it can happen in any home. 25% of all violent crimes reported involve a man assaulting his wife or partner.

The main types of abuse perpetrated against women experiencing domestic violence are

- ❖ **Physical abuse** - This is perhaps the most recognisable form of abuse. It can result in physical injury, and in some cases it can be life threatening or fatal. Examples of this type of abuse are when women are punched, slapped, stabbed, beaten and raped, and even thrown down stairs while pregnant.
- ❖ **Emotional abuse** - This is a means of establishing a power imbalance within a relationship and can be as harmful as physical violence. It often involves threats of physical or sexual abuse, being put down, constantly criticised, controlled and monitored.
- ❖ **Financial abuse** is a form of domestic violence in which the abuser uses money as a means of controlling his partner. It is designed to isolate a woman into a state of complete financial dependence. It includes controlling the family finances and not being allowed to have independent income. It can also involve destruction of property including passport or other important documents.
- ❖ **Sexual Violence** occurs where there is a dynamic of control and abuse in an intimate relationship. It is difficult for women who are being abused by their partner to negotiate a free and equal sexual relationship with that partner. Women experience being repeatedly raped and beaten, being told that it is their duty to have sex with their partner and being raped in front of the children. Sexual degradation also includes the enforced use of graphic and hard core pornography.

(ii) Rape and Sexual Assault**NOTES**

- ❖ Rape or sexual assault occurs if a woman is forced to participate in a sexual act without her consent. This may take the form of threats, coercion, or physical violence. Rape and sexual assault are particularly distressing crimes for the victim and the effects can last for a long time. Women who have been raped are severely traumatised and in most cases suffer from acute stress, anxiety and intense emotions. In fact, rape and sexual assault are among the most common causes of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder in women. In addition to psychological harm resulting from the act, rape may cause physical injury, or have additional effects on the victim, such as acquiring a sexually transmitted infection or becoming pregnant.
- ❖ Myths and misconceptions about sexual assault and rape contribute to the fear which women experience causing them to hesitate in reporting attacks. Often they feel stigmatised, can find the intimate facts of the experience difficult to talk about, are afraid they will not be believed or will be blamed for provoking the attack. Often, incidences of rape are treated as taboo and are shrouded in silence. Rape is considered to be the most underreported violent crime and research at European level indicates that only between 2% and 10% of rapes are reported to the authorities.
- ❖ Rape can also occur between two people who know each other. 'Date rape' or intimate partner rape may occur in relationships that have an existing pattern of violence. In 2011, there were 28,615 helpline contacts to Rape Crisis services, a 10% increase on 2010. The statistics for that year also show that where sexual assaults took place, 90% of perpetrators were known to the survivor.
- ❖ While women, men and children can be victims of rape and sexual assault, the perpetrators are predominantly men. There are clear differences in female and male vulnerability to sexual violence. Where male vulnerability to sexual violence decreases as they age, female vulnerability does not decrease to the same extent.
- ❖ One in five women and one in ten men have experienced sexual assault in adulthood
- ❖ Rape is a physical violation of the individual and research shows that the motivation in rape and sexual assault is not the meeting of sexual needs necessarily but the need for power, control and domination. The World Health Organization (WHO) states that one of the principal factors that lead to the perpetration of sexual violence, including rape, is a belief in ideologies of male sexual entitlement.

(iii) Prostitution and Trafficking

Involvement in prostitution is rarely a freely entered choice for a woman. Most women involved in prostitution have backgrounds of poverty, abuse and low self-esteem which limit a woman's capacity to identify alternative income generation opportunities. As well as the physical harm caused by prostitution with mortality rates as much as twelve times the national average, there is emotional and psychological harm which is the result of being sexually objectified. Being in prostitution erodes self-esteem and self-confidence and is a serious cause of depression. Women in prostitution experience terrifying and degrading treatment and extremely high levels of violence such as beatings, rape and sexual assault. They face constant subjection to humiliations of all kinds as well as the serious health risks from very frequent, rough sex and at times the requirement to have unprotected sex.

Prostitution, and the social and cultural attitudes which sustain it, are deeply rooted in gender inequality and social marginalisation. As well as the harm to each individual, there is the social and cultural impact – the damage to the social position and perception of women both nationally and globally, the proliferation of sex tourism and trafficking and the normalisation of all forms of violence against women. The sexual exploitation of prostitution is harmful to all women. If one woman is perceived as being for sale, the implication is that all women and girls are potentially for sale.

Women and children are exploited. On average, 1000 women are available for sale on any given day and the vast majority of them are migrant women and girls. The strong link between prostitution and trafficking for sexual exploitation has been well documented.

Human trafficking is the trade of people as commodities for various purposes including forced labour, trafficking for begging, criminal activities and sex slavery. Trafficking is a contemporary form of slavery with a distinctly gendered bias. Women are most likely to be used for prostitution, domestic labour and forced marriages. Most victims of trafficking are women, (www.unodc.org) from impoverished backgrounds who are sometimes abducted, but more usually duped into exploitation. It is not necessary to cross a border to be trafficked. In Ireland women seeking asylum who are trapped in poverty in asylum reception centres are also susceptible to prostitution. In addition, poor and marginalised migrant women are vulnerable to recruitment by prostitution organisers, lured by promises of lucrative contracts here. The 200 women supported through casework in Ruhama during 2011 came from 36 different countries.

“There is a link between prostitution and trafficking. The European Commission recognises this.” – Myria Vasilliadou

(iv) Female Genital Mutilation

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) involves the partial or total removal of the external female genitalia of a girl for cultural or other non-therapeutic reasons. It is common practice in at least 28 countries, in Africa, Middle East and Asia. FGM is considered an act of violence against women and children because it can cause irreparable harm to female genitalia and reproductive organs. A huge number of women die needlessly throughout the world both as a direct result of FGM, and from related infections and complications. FGM leaves psychological and emotional scars too. Up to 140 million girls and women around the world have undergone genital mutilation, (www.globalpovertyproject.com). It is widely documented that women can suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder as a result of FGM which can result in traumatic flashbacks to the event²¹. It is estimated that 3,780 women living in Ireland have undergone FGM although the actual number may be higher. The Criminal Justice (Female Genital Mutilation) Act 2012 has made it a criminal offence for someone in Ireland to perform Female Genital Mutilation

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(v) Forced Marriage

A number of instances have occurred in recent years in Ireland of marriages where the authorities suspect there may not have been consent to marriage. In 2007 the National Garda Immigration Bureau stated that Gardaí were investigating a number of cases of forced marriage involving migrant children as young as 12. There are very few remedies available to a person forced into marriage under Irish law. Another more clandestine form of abuse appears in the so called sham marriages, whereby vulnerable women who are EU citizens, are offered money to enter into fake marital arrangements with a male migrant. In some cases women have found themselves deceived and subject to sexual and other forms of abuse by ‘agents’ and/or prospective ‘spouses’.

(vi) Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment occurs when unwanted conduct has the purpose or effect of violating a person’s dignity and creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for the person. It can take the form of actions, gestures, spoken or written words, pictures etc. It can involve text messages, email, phone calls or other electronic or social media communication. Sexual harassment can also include offering preferential treatment in exchange for sexual favours.

Harassment directed against women, reinforces the subordination of women to men in society, violates women’s dignity and creates a health and safety hazard.

(vii) Acid throwing

Acid throwing, also called acid attack, or vitriolage, is defined as the act of throwing acid onto the body of a person "with the intention of injuring or disfiguring [them] out of jealousy or revenge". The most common types of acid used in these attacks are sulfuric, nitric, or hydrochloric acid. Perpetrators of these attacks throw acid at their victims, usually at their faces, burning them, and damaging skin tissue, often exposing and sometimes dissolving the bones. The long term consequences of these attacks include blindness and permanent scarring of the face and body. Women and girls are the victims in 75-80% of cases. Acid attacks are often connected to domestic disputes, including dowry disputes, and refusal of a proposition for marriage, or of sexual advances. Such attacks are common in South Asia, in countries such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, India and in Southeast Asia, especially in Cambodia

(viii) Violence by the police and other authority figures

When police officers misuse their power as agents of the state to physically and sexually harass and assault victims, the survivors, including women, feel much less able to report the violence. It is standard procedure for police to force entry into the victim's home even after the victim's numerous requests for them to go away. Government agencies often disregard the victim's right to freedom of association with their perpetrator. Shelter workers are often reduced themselves to contributing to violence against women by exploiting their vulnerability in exchange for a paying job.

Police abuse in this context has been linked to a wide range of risky behaviors and health outcomes, including post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), and substance abuse. Extortion of sexual services and police sexual abuse have been linked to a decrease in condom use and an elevated risk of STI and HIV infections among vulnerable groups.

(ix) Sport-related

- ❖ Sport-related violence against women refers to any physical, sexual, mental acts that are "perpetrated by both male athletes and by male fans or consumers of sport and sporting events, as well as by coaches of female athletes".
- ❖ The documenting reports and literature suggest that there are obvious connections between contemporary sport and violence against women. Such events as the 2010 World Cup, the Olympic and Commonwealth Games "have highlighted the connections between sports spectatorship and intimate partner violence, and the need for police, authorities and services to be aware of this when planning sporting events".
- ❖ Sport-related violence can occur in various contexts and places, including homes, pubs, clubs, hotel rooms, the streets.

(x) Cyberbullying

Cyberbullying is a form of intimidation using electronic forms of contact. In the 21st century, cyberbullying has become increasingly common, especially among teenagers in Western countries. On 24 September 2015, the United Nations Broadband Commission released a report that claimed that almost 75% percent of women online have encountered harassment and threats of violence, otherwise known as cyber violence. Misogynistic rhetoric is

prevalent online, and the public debate over gender-based attacks has increased significantly, leading to calls for policy interventions and better responses by social networks like Facebook and Twitter.

Check your progress– III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. Define - violence against women.
6. What is meant by Emotional Abuse?
7. What do you mean by Obstetric Violence?
8. What is Cyberbullying?

NOTES

9.6 PROBLEMS OF WORKING WOMEN

Women in the workforce earning wages or a salary are part of a modern phenomenon, one that developed at the same time as the growth of paid employment for men, but women have been challenged by inequality in the workforce. Until modern times, legal and cultural practices, combined with the inertia of longstanding religious and educational conventions, restricted women's entry and participation in the workforce.

However, over the past three decades, workplace has become a much more diverse environment. With women representing 24.4 per cent of the total workforce in India, personal security has become central to their physical, intellectual, emotional, economic and spiritual well-being.

Violence against women in the work place takes place in all countries throughout the world and takes many forms, including sexual harassment and bullying. It affects all professions and sectors and particularly women living in poverty as they are more likely to be exposed to exploitation and abuse in informal labour settings like, for example, women migrant workers.

Small surveys in Asia-Pacific countries indicate that 30 to 40 per cent of women workers report some form of harassment – verbal, physical or sexual.

Workplace violence against women is understood to include physical assault, threatening behaviour, bullying, verbal abuse, and various forms of harassment. Workplace violence usually occurs in a workplace setting; however it may also occur outside of the work setting. Violence may be perpetrated by a colleague or supervisor, a client or customer. When gender is incorporated in analyses of workplace violence, important issues emerge. These include:

- ❖ Women have difficulty in labeling their experiences as violence and harassment;
- ❖ Women are over-represented in low paid, low status and precarious jobs;

- ❖ Occupational health and safety research has often viewed women's work as safe work;
- ❖ Men are more likely to be the perpetrators of violence against women in the workplace (although women also perpetrate violence against other women);

9.6.1 The impacts and costs of workplace violence

The negative consequences of workplace violence and harassment for women include leaving their jobs, developing psychological disorders, experiencing relationship breakdowns and developing substance abuse problems. Additional costs to industry include costs associated with staff turnover, absenteeism, reduced efficiency, decline in work quality, early retirement costs, counselling program costs, mediation or grievance proceedings and anti-discrimination action.

Why violence against women at workplace violence is so prevalent?

Despite such widespread occurrence of workplace harassment and violence, women do not report the matter. As a result the perpetrators do not face any credible deterrence. There have been allegations of sexual assault even against the members of higher judiciary in India. Several reasons for why women do not report workplace violence were identified including:

- ❖ Women see violence as a 'normal' part of the workplace, it is unavoidable and there is nothing that can be done about it;
- ❖ They don't know what to do about it;
- ❖ They can be silenced by the experience of workplace violence as it is seen as integrally connected with the shame associated with other types of men's violence against women;
- ❖ Some women fear they will lose their jobs if they report violence;
- ❖ Some women lack faith in the system, often believing the violence is already known to and condoned by managers; and
- ❖ Some fear that the process of reporting is likely to be traumatic.
- ❖ Many a times, workplaces simply do not have effective mechanisms for addressing violence.

Providing safe environment and preventing violence against women in the workplace

A. Apart from the harassment and violence faced by women, there are other dimensions of safety at the workplace. In this context, the guidelines for the safety for women at the workplace can be broadly categorized under four heads:

(a) **Physical:** This focuses on the physical security of women employees in an organization. It ascertains the safety of female employees, whilst they are on the job/ inside office premises – the workplace needs to be secured and women assured of basic safety on the job and in office.

(b) **Environmental:** The environmental aspect complements the physical aspect of security and helps maintain a safe and secure standard in any premises. This plays a vital role in ensuring the basic yet critical aspects of safety of employees.

(c) **Organizational:** It is for the employer to create a positive atmosphere at the workplace where a woman is encouraged to come to work, secure in the knowledge that she will be treated with dignity, respect and will be protected from harassment.

(d) **Educational:** The awareness of women employees of their company policies on sexual harassment and gender discrimination and the more they are encouraged to report all instances of discrimination without fear, the greater would be their feeling of security and empowerment.

B. The sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition, and redressal) Act, 2013:

Prevention of Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace is a legislative act in India that seeks to protect women from sexual harassment at their place of work. It was passed by the Indian Parliament in 2013. This statute superseded the Vishakha Guidelines for prevention of sexual harassment introduced by the Supreme Court of India. The law contains legal requirement that any workplace with more than 10 employees need to implement it. It also contains strict measures against the employers who fail to comply with its provisions.

However, it was reported by the International Labour Organization in a study (conducted by ILO in early 2014) that, very few Indian employers were compliant to this statute. In specific terms, over 90% of Indian businesses are unable to comply with the new law. Even as employee awareness campaigns and training workshops are under way in companies both big and small, the number of reported harassment cases has gone up. Thus, there are implementation gaps with must be overcome.

9.6.2 PROBLEMS FACED BY WORKING WOMEN IN INDIA

Occupational problems as stress

In women Occupational stress is stress involving work. Work and family are the two most important aspects in women's lives. Balancing work and family roles has become a key personal and family issue for many societies. There are many facets in working mother's lives that subject to stresses. They deal with home and family issues as well as job stress on a daily basis.

World Health Organization's (WHO) definition

Occupational or work-related stress "is the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope."

9.6.2.1 Reasons of occupational stress

Imbalance between work and family leads to occupational stress. Imbalance between work and family life arises due to a number of factors. Various factors are following.

1. Mental harassment

It is an age old convention that women are less capable and inefficient in working as compared to men. The attitude which considers women unfit for certain jobs holds back women. In spite of the constitutional provisions, gender bias creates obstacles in their recruitment. In addition to this, the same attitude governs injustice of unequal salaries for the same job. The true

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equality has not been achieved even after 61 years of independence. Working in such conditions inevitably puts strain on women to greater extent as compared to men, thus making them less eager in their career.

2. Sexual harassment

Today, almost all working women are prone to sexual harassment irrespective of their status, personal characteristics and the types of their employment. They face sexual harassment on way on transports, at working places, educational institutions and hospitals, at home and even in police stations when they go to file complaints. It is shocking that the law protectors are violating and outraging modesty of women. Most of the women tend to be concentrated in the poor service jobs whereas men are in an immediate supervisory position, which gives them an opportunity to exploit their subordinate women.

3. Discrimination at Workplace

However, Indian women still face blatant discrimination at their workplaces. They are often deprived of promotions and growth opportunities at work places but this doesn't apply to all working women. A majority of working women continue to be denied their right to equal pay, under the Equal Remuneration Act, 1976 and are underpaid in comparison to their male colleagues. This is usually the case in factories and labour-oriented industries.

4. No Safety of Working Women While Traveling

Typically, the orthodox mind set in the Indian society makes it difficult for a working woman to balance her domestic environment with the professional life. In some families, it may not be acceptable to work after six o'clock. Those families that do accept these working hours may experience considerable anxiety every day about a woman's safety while traveling. So many issues affect a working woman because she is closely protected or watched by her family and the society.

5. Lack of Family Support

Lack of proper family support is another issue that working women suffers from. At times, the family doesn't support women to leave the household work and go to office. They also resist for women working till late in office which also hampers the performance of the women and this also affects their promotion.

6. Insufficient Maternity Leaves

Insufficient maternity leave is another major issue that is faced by a working mother. This not only affects the performance of women employees at work, but is also detrimental to their personal lives.

7. Job insecurity

Unrealistic expectations, especially in the time of corporate reorganizations, which sometimes puts unhealthy and unreasonable pressures on the employee, can be a tremendous source of stress and suffering. Increased workload extremely long work hours and intense pressures to perform at peak levels all the time for the same pay, can actually leave an employee physically and emotionally drained. Excessive travel and too much time away from family also contribute to an employee's stressors.

8. Workplace Adjustment

Adjusting to the workplace culture, whether in a new company or not, can be intensely stressful. Making oneself adapt to the various aspects of workplace culture such as communication patterns of the boss as well as the co-workers, can be lesson of life. Maladjustments to workplace cultures may lead to subtle conflicts with colleagues or even with superiors. In many cases office politics or gossips can be major stress inducers.

9. Other reasons

it include Personal demographics like age, level of education, marital status, number of children, personal income and number of jobs currently had where you work for pay and Work situation characteristics like job tenure, size of employing organization, hours worked per week.

Now a day's women workers are improved and promote in their workplace and in technological work. Trade Union should try to improve the conditions for woman's workers in many parts for example maternity leave is easily give to women and help the woman for achieve higher post actually women's nature is promotion to gain high quality in every field but if the condition is not ready then the reduction of promotion and optimization in work will be occur and etc...

Women workers are often subject to sexual harassment then the Government should put strict rules for these types of crimes , also public transport system sometimes danger for woman and Government should put more Inspection. Traditionally people think that men should only work and gain money and women should work as house hold, but The financial demands on the Indian families are increasing that's why women also should company in gaining income for families. Therefore a fundamental change is required in attitudes of employees, family members and public.

Check your progress– 1V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

9. Define - Occupational or work-related stress.

10. The year of Equal Remuneration Act

9.7 LET US SUM UP

The status of women in India has been subject to many great changes over the past few millennia. In modern India, women have held high offices including that of the President, Prime Minister, Speaker of the Lok Sabha and Leader of the Opposition. However, women in India continue to face atrocities such as rape, acid throwing, dowry killings, and the forced prostitution of young girls.

Abuse is the improper usage or treatment of a thing, often to unfairly or improperly gain benefit. Abuse can come in many forms, such as: physical or verbal maltreatment, injury, assault, violation, rape, unjust practices, crimes, or other types of aggression. Violence against women is a serious violation of women's human rights and of direct concern to the public health sector because of the significant contributions that public health workers could do if

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properly trained, as they are placed close to the victims, and possibly well acquainted with the community and its inhabitants. Thus, local health services and communities could play a central part in raising awareness among the public to prevent this violence. To openly debate this subject is a way to reduce society's tolerance towards violence against women.

Now a day's women workers are improved and promote in their workplace and in technological work. Women workers are often subject to sexual harassment then the Government should put strict rules for these types of crimes, also public transport system sometimes danger for woman and Government should put more Inspection. Therefore a fundamental change is required in attitudes of employees, family members and public.

In this unit we have discussed Woman Related Problems. Abuse and Violence have also touched upon briefly. Problems of Working Women also discussed in detail.

9.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Enumerate the Woman Related Problems.
2. Explain the impact of the Problems of Working Women.
3. What are the Forms of Violence against Women?
4. Explain the Forms of Abuse.
5. Explain the type of Domestic Violence.

9.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Rape, acid throwing, dowry killings, and the forced prostitution of young girls
2. Article 14
3. Neglect is defined as the refusal or failure of responsible caregivers to provide a care dependent older adult with assistance in daily living tasks or essential support such as food, clothing, shelter, health and medical care.
4. Physical abuse includes actions intended to cause physical pain or injury to an older adult, such as pushing, grabbing, slapping, hitting, or assaulting with a weapon or thrown object.
5. "...any acts of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life".
6. This is a means of establishing a power imbalance within a relationship and can be as harmful as physical violence. It often involves threats of physical or sexual abuse, being put down, constantly criticised, controlled and monitored.

7. "Obstetric violence" refers to acts categorized as physically or psychologically violent in the context of labor and birth.
8. Cyberbullying is a form of intimidation using electronic forms of contact.
9. Occupational or work-related stress "is the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope."
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UNIT – X ELDERLY RELATED PROBLEMS

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Structure

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- 10.12 Suggested Readings

10.1 INTRODUCTION

The world is facing a situation without precedent: We soon will have older people than children and more people at extreme old age than ever before. As both the proportion of older people and the length of life increase throughout the world, key questions arise. Will population aging be accompanied by a longer period of good health, a sustained sense of well-being, and extended periods of social engagement and productivity, or will it be associated with more illness, disability, and dependency? How will aging affect health care and social costs? Are these futures inevitable, or can we act to establish a physical and social infrastructure that might foster better health and wellbeing in older age? How will population aging play out differently for low-income countries that will age faster than their counterparts have, but before they become industrialized and wealthy. A better understanding of the changing relationship between health with age is crucial if we are to create a future that takes full advantage of the powerful resource inherent in older populations. To do so, nations must develop appropriate data systems and research capacity to monitor and understand these patterns and relationships, well-being. And research needs to be better coordinated if we are to discover the most cost-effective ways to maintain healthful life styles and everyday functioning in countries at different stages of economic development and with varying resources.

According to world demographic projection, 80 per cent of developing countries will be elderly by 2050. In mid-1995, the world's

elderly population was estimated at 542.7 million, almost equal to Africa's population in 1985. The percentage of older persons is currently higher in developed region as compared to developing region. Elderly faces many socio-economic, psychological health problems. This unit care for elderly population will cover various aspects of elderly including the health care aspect.

In this unit the students will learn Elderly Related Problems of Abuse and Avoidance. You will learn Intergenerational Conflict and Marital Conflict. You will study the Family Dissolution and legislation in detail.

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10.2 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the concept of elderly and its features
 - analyse the changing demographic composition, as well as the role and status of elderly population
 - discuss major health problems and challenges faced by elderly population
 - describe the important measures to promote elderly care and national policy developed for older people
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10.3 ELDERLY RELATED PROBLEMS

Elderly life or the period of ageing has many important aspects especially its relationship to life, to itself, that is, its particular attributes, and to society, and its attractiveness or otherwise as a subject for scientific study and practice. Certain quotations emphasize these aspects: SOCRATES: From the day your baby is born you must teach him to do without things. Children to-day love luxury too much. They have execrable manners, flaunt authority, have no respect for their elders. They no longer rise when their parents and teachers enter the room. What kind of awful creatures will they be when they grow up?

10.3.1 Elderly: Concepts and Feature

Senescence or the state and period of ageing are an essential, integral, physiological, or normal period of life. Following the first period of childhood and youth when growth and development predominate over degeneration, there follows maturity or adulthood when relative stability exists between growth and degeneration and finally the period of senescence when degeneration predominates over growth. Senescence will therefore be experienced by many people. It must be regarded as inevitable and normal. It must not be considered as a pathological or abnormal state of maturity. It must not be feared as being synonymous with decrepitude or mental infirmity. In other words, senescence is not synonymous with senility, the latter in modern scientific thought implying a condition of abnormality. Explanation of the characteristics of senescence and preparation for it however are necessary.

Senescence can be defined and is different biologically, psychologically, sociologically, and clinically from the period of maturity. If senescence is a normal period of life, different from the preceding period of maturity or adulthood, then it must have certain distinguishing characteristics. Being different implies either the possession of qualities not found in others, or the absence of qualities found in others, or a marked difference in the nature of the qualities or characteristics already present in

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others. An elderly person is defined as someone who has completed 60 years or more. The United Nations generally uses the age 60 as the lower limit to define someone in the category of elderly population. National practices vary in defining the aged. In developed countries where considerable ageing in populations has occurred, and where people are healthier and where life expectancy is very high (75 years and above), the elderly are defined as persons of age 65, and over. The Census of India considers the elderly as one who is 60 years and above. Elderly, in humans refers to a multidimensional process of physical, psychological, and social change. Some dimensions of being elderly grow and expand over time, while others decline. Demographers and sociologists sometimes categorize the elderly in three groups: young old (aged 60-69), old aged (70-79 year), and, oldest old (80 years and above). In developed countries the elderly are generally categorized in age segments: aged 55-65 as young old, aged 66-85 as old, and, aged 85 years and above, oldest old

The important features of the elderly follow.

- ❖ There are more elderly in rural areas. There is also movement of the elderly from urban to rural areas.
- ❖ Old age dependency is higher in rural areas than in urban areas.
- ❖ The age of elderly is increasing.
- ❖ There are more females than males among the aged, and in contrast to the general sex ratio, the elderly sex ratios are rising.
- ❖ The elderly are much less literate and educated than the general population.
- ❖ There are considerable numbers of single elderly of whom a majority are widows. However, the proportion of widows is on decline.
- ❖ About 94 per cent of the elderly in India have children surviving them, but a large number of the elderly are without any children.
- ❖ The elderly generally live with their spouses/children and other relatives, however more and more elderly are now living without their children.
- ❖ The elderly are still working for a living in the absence of any suitable social security. Majority of aged depend on others for their day-to-day maintenance. The situation is far worse for elderly females, and compared to male more female are dependent on others.
- ❖ By and large, the elderly are still supported by their children. Interestingly, every sixth elderly person is supported by his/her spouse.
- ❖ More elderly men than women are supported by their family.
- ❖ A majority of the elderly is not supported by any retirement benefits and the problem is compounded in rural areas.
- ❖ Though the aged own financial assets and housing many of them do not have any management rights or control over them.
- ❖ The prevalence of chronic disease among the aged is quite high, and it is higher still in urban areas. Problems of the joints and throat are the most common.
- ❖ The prevalence of disability among the aged is also very high.

- ❖ A great majority of the elderly participates in social and religious matters and in household chores, though a large number of them cannot participate in household activities

10.3.2 Scenarios of Elderly: World and India

Elderly or old age consists of ages nearing or surpassing the average life span of human beings. The boundary of old age cannot be defined exactly because it does not have the same meaning in all societies. People can be considered old because of certain changes in their activities or social roles. Also old people have limited regenerative abilities and are more prone to disease, syndromes, and sickness as compared to other adults. The medical study of the aging process is called gerontology and the study of diseases that afflict the elderly is geriatrics.

The United Nations World Assembly on Ageing, held at Vienna in 1982, formulated a package of recommendations which gives high priority to research related to developmental and humanitarian aspects of ageing (United Nations, 1987). The plan of action specifically recommended that “International exchange and research cooperation as well as data collection should be promoted in all the fields having a bearing on ageing, in order to provide a rational basis for future social policies and action. Special emphasis should be placed on comparative and crosscultural studies in ageing”. The phenomenon of population ageing is becoming a major concern for the policy makers all over the world, for both developed and developing countries, during last two decades. But the problems arising out of it will have varied implications for underdeveloped, developing and developed countries. In India with majority of its population aged less than 30, the problems and issues of its grey population has not been given serious consideration and only a few studies on them have been attempted in our country. To reap the advantage of demographic dividend, the focus is mainly on the children and the youth and fulfilment of their basic needs for proper development. Also the traditional Indian society and the age-old joint family system have been instrumental in safeguarding the social and economic security of the elderly people in the country. However, with the rapid changes in the social scenario and the emerging prevalence of nuclear family set-ups in India in recent years the elderly people are likely to be exposed to emotional, physical and financial insecurity in the years to come. This has drawn the attention of the policy makers and administrators at central and state governments, voluntary organizations and civil society.

In view of the increasing need for intervention in area of old age welfare, Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, Government of India adopted ‘National Policy on Older Persons’ in January, 1999. The policy provides broad guidelines to State Governments for taking action for welfare of older persons in a proactive manner by devising their own policies and plans of action. The policy defines ‘senior citizen’ as a person who is 60 years old or above. It strives to ensure well-being of senior citizens and improve quality of their lives through providing specific facilities, concessions, relief, services etc. and helping them cope with problems associated with old age. It also proposes affirmative action on the part of Government Departments for ensuring that the existing public services for senior citizens are user friendly and sensitive to their needs. It provides a comprehensive picture of various facilities and covers many areas like financial security, health care, shelter education, welfare, protection of life and property etc.

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Ageing of population is affected due to downward trends in fertility and mortality. Low birth rates coupled with long life expectancies, push the population to an ageing humanity. It is observed that percentage of aged 60 or more is rapidly swelling and even the percentage of persons above age 80 is going up over the years. Simultaneously, the ratio of people of “working age” (15–59 years) to those of elderly population is shrinking — and even within the working age group average age is also increasing. For the developing countries like India, the ageing population may pose mounting pressures on various socio economic fronts including pension outlays, health care expenditures, fiscal discipline, savings levels etc. By 2026, North India population would be younger compared to the South. In India another paradoxical problem will arise in due course of time – by the year 2026 Kerala will have highest educated working people with average age hovering above (median age) 35 years whereas Uttar Pradesh will have uneducated and less educated working population with average age below 30 years. Although projections indicate that India’s population above 60 years will be double in size between 2001 and 2026, the elders will account for 12.17 percent of overall population in 2026, and being a vast country India may face the problems differently at rural and urban part. India will have another kind of a problem as despite of rapid and consistent economic growth, it will have a huge ageing population who may be far poorer than their counterpart in the West.

In India, most of those who have worked in organized sector get pension and other retirement benefits after attaining the age of superannuation varying between 60 to 65 years. But for others, Government of India and State Governments, at present, have very nominal old-age pension coverage. It varies from Rs. 75/- to 150/- in a month. In addition some other additional benefits for the elderly are also being provided by the Central and State Governments. But much is to be done as at the old age their medical expenses go up and dependency on children / relative goes up for physical, mental and economic support. Thus in India, though percentage wise greying is not very rapid, but due to its mammoth size planning for the elderly is a huge challenge for the policy makers.

The problems faced by the females are more critical compared to that of men due to low literacy rate, customary ownership of property by men and majority of women being not in labour force during their prime age with only very few in the organized sector. Therefore, the policy for elderly may also keep a realistic achievable gender component. It is to be remembered that sensitizing the issue and deliberate public action can dilute some of the adverse consequences of ageing. Educating the mass with high investment in human resource development can overcome these problems up to a great extent. To develop requisite policy programmes for the elderly population, there is a need for a study of elderly persons on various aspects and initiate social, economic and health policy debate about ageing in India. But there is a serious dearth of datasets and analyses to identify the emerging areas of key concern and immediate intervention.

As a by-product of the decadal Population Census operation, some important information are obtained on the share of elderly people in total population and its change over time and across states, the size of the grey population and its sex ratio for various sub-populations, their literacy and activity patterns. The Sample Registration System also undertaken by the

Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India gives valuable data on life expectancy, age-specific death rates etc. The last few rounds of the National Family Health Surveys provided data on the socio-economic and health condition of the elderly persons at the national and state level in India.

The National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) for the first time, conducted a survey on the elderly (persons of age 60 years and above), along with the survey on social consumption in its 42nd round (July 1986 – June 1987), to assess the nature and dimensions of the socio-economic problems of the aged. Again NSSO repeated the survey on social consumption in its 52nd round (July 1995 – June 1996) and in 60th Round (January – June, 2004). Information on the socio-economic condition of the aged, data on some chronic diseases and physical disabilities were also collected during these rounds of the NSS surveys where the main objective was to focus on the socio-economic and health conditions of the current aged population, and the emerging policy issues for elderly care in India in the coming years.

10.3.3 Health Problems of the Elderly

Getting older can seem daunting—greying hair, wrinkles, forgetting where you parked the car. All jokes aside, aging can bring about unique health issues. With seniors accounting for 12 percent of the world's population—and rapidly increasing to over 22 percent by 2050—it's important to understand the challenges faced by people as they age, and recognize that there are preventive measures that can place yourself (or a loved one) on a path to healthy aging.

1. Chronic health conditions

According to the National Council on Aging, about 92 percent of seniors have at least one chronic disease and 77 percent have at least two. Heart disease, stroke, cancer, and diabetes are among the most common and costly chronic health conditions causing two-thirds of deaths each year. The National Centre for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion recommends meeting with a physician for an annual check-up, maintaining a healthy diet and keeping an exercise routine to help manage or prevent chronic diseases. Obesity is a growing problem among older adults and engaging in these lifestyle behaviours can help reduce obesity and associated chronic conditions.

2. Cognitive health

Cognitive health is focused on a person's ability to think, learn and remember. The most common cognitive health issue facing the elderly is dementia, the loss of those cognitive functions. Approximately 47.5 million people worldwide have dementia—a number that is predicted to nearly triple in size by 2050. According to the National Institute on Aging, other chronic health conditions and diseases increase the risk of developing dementia, such as substance abuse, diabetes, hypertension, depression, HIV and smoking. While there are no cures for dementia, physicians can prescribe a treatment plan and medications to manage the disease.

3. Mental health

According to the World Health Organization, over 15 percent of adults over the age of 60 suffer from a mental disorder. A common mental disorder among seniors is depression, occurring in seven percent of the elderly population. Unfortunately, this mental disorder is often underdiagnosed and undertreated. Older adults account for over 18 percent

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of suicides deaths. Because depression can be a side effect of chronic health conditions, managing those conditions help. Additionally, promoting a lifestyle of healthy living such as betterment of living conditions and social support from family, friends or support groups can help treat depression.

4. Physical injury

Every 15 seconds, an older adult is admitted to the emergency room for a fall. A senior dies from falling every 29 minutes, making it the leading cause of injury among the elderly. Because aging causes bones to shrink and muscle to lose strength and flexibility, seniors are more susceptible to losing their balance, bruising and fracturing a bone. Two diseases that contribute to frailty are osteoporosis and osteoarthritis. However, falls are not inevitable. In many cases, they can be prevented through education, increased physical activity and practical modifications within the home.

5. HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases

While sexual needs and ability may change as people age, sexual desire doesn't disappear completely. Seniors are unlikely to use condoms, which, when combined with a weakened immune system, makes the elderly more susceptible to contracting HIV. Late diagnosis of HIV is common among older adults because symptoms of HIV are very similar to those of normal aging, making it more difficult to treat and prevent damage to the immune system.

6. Malnutrition

Malnutrition in older adults over the age of 65 is often underdiagnosed and can lead to other elderly health issues, such as a weakened immune system and muscle weakness. The causes of malnutrition can stem from other health problems (seniors suffering from dementia may forget to eat), depression, alcoholism, dietary restrictions, reduced social contact and limited income. Committing to small changes in diet, such as increasing consumption of fruits and vegetables and decreasing consumption of saturated fat and salt, can help nutrition issues in the elderly. There are food services available to older adults who cannot afford food or have difficulty preparing meals.

7. Sensory impairments

Sensory impairments, such as vision and hearing, are extremely common for older over the age of 70. One out of six older adults has a visual impairment and one out of four has a hearing impairment. Luckily, both of these issues are easily treatable by aids such as glasses or hearing aids. New technologies are enhancing assessment of hearing loss and wearability of hearing aids.

8. Oral health

Often overlooked, oral health is one of the most important issues for the elderly. The CDC's Division of Oral Health found that about 25 percent of adults over the age of 65 no longer have their natural teeth. Problems such as cavities and tooth decay can lead to difficulty maintaining a healthy diet, low self-esteem, and other health conditions. Oral health issues associated with older adults are dry mouth, gum disease and mouth cancer. These conditions could be managed or prevented by making regular dental check-ups. Dental care, however, can be difficult for seniors to access due to loss of dental insurance after retirement or economical disadvantages.

9. Substance abuse

Substance abuse, typically alcohol or drug-related, is more prevalent among seniors than realized. According to the National Council on Aging, the number of older adults with substance abuse problems is expected to double to five million by 2020. Because many don't associate substance abuse with the elderly, it's often overlooked and missed in medical check-ups. Additionally, older adults are often prescribed multiple prescriptions to be used long-term. The National Institute on Drugs finds that substance abuse typically results from someone suffering mental deficits or taking another patient's medication due to their inability to pay for their own.

10. Bladder control and constipation

Incontinence and constipation are both common with aging, and can impact older adults quality of life. In addition to age-related changes, these may be a side effect of previous issues mentioned above, such as not eating a well-balanced diet and suffering from chronic health conditions. It is suggested to maintain a healthy weight, eating a healthy diet and exercising regularly to avoid these elderly health issues. There are often effective medical treatments, and older adults should not be embarrassed to discuss with their physicians.

10.3.4 Challenges and Measures to Promote Care for Elderly

Elderly are facing a lot of challenges and a few important challenges are discussed below.

i) Changing Values for Elderly

It appears that society as a whole, particularly in urban areas, is heading towards a self-centric society. The concern for others, as a hallmark of Indian society is decaying. The impersonal approach of current society possesses enormous danger at all levels. This feature affects family as a potential unit of society; and elderly persons are sufferer. A number of elderly persons are gradually deprived of family care. The value attach to the elderly is changing fast among the younger generation of the 20th and 21st century. The decaying bondage towards elderly has resulted in problems for elderly such as economic insecurity, financing for health care, psychological caring, etc.

ii) Growing Scarcity of Care Givers

Care givers are becoming scarce because of increased mobility and migration of the young population to cities. Changing roles and expectations of women, their concepts of privacy, career, ambition and employment outside home implies considerably reduced time for care giving. Millions of older persons are left without essential care.

iii) Scarcity of Space and Needs

The limited space in the house and increased number of family members has given rise to new need patterns amongst the aged. These needs can broadly be classified into six categories. These are nutrition needs, psychological needs, social needs, needs of special groups, economic needs, health needs, safety and security needs and spiritual needs. All these needs represent a broader category. Under each category, there is a long list of needs to be taken up for the care of elderly population. Healthy aging depends on the fulfilment of these needs.

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iv) Old Age Planning

Given current circumstances, planning old age needs to be visualized differently from the past. Everyone needs to be given proper education on planning for the requirements of old age. Economic sufficiency, sustainability, and the ability to buy qualitative care are key areas of concentration. Planning for future in current circumstances has yet to take root in this country. Old age planning is of great importance, and a lot of scientific and empirical literature has to be developed to advocate the concept of old age planning.

v) Institutional Support for the Elderly

Regardless of economic status, people from all walks of life need institutional support, in case their caregivers have migrated and settled elsewhere, and fail to provide the required support. The nature of support cannot be the same for all sections of the society. For example, for those who are economically well off, only the service of well-trained caregiver is needed. However, those who are poor and not able to bear the cost of caregivers; and their children have migrated to cities and hardly able to meet their own requirements and essential needs. A lot has to be done for them. The percentage of such categories of persons is increasing. Such people definitely need institutional support from the Government.

vi) Planning for Productivity in Old Age

The aged people who are not gainfully engaged are considered as unproductive. These unproductive elderly particularly belonging to the unemployed son become further miserable. Some of them even want immediate separation and share from the property. Therefore, proper planning for productive during old age is important for elderly. This will ensure respectful life to the elderly.

10.3.5 National Policy for Older Persons

Elderly or old age consists of ages nearing or surpassing the average life span of human beings. The boundary of old age cannot be defined exactly because it does not have the same meaning in all societies. Government of India adopted 'National Policy on Older Persons' in January, 1999. The policy defines 'senior citizen' or 'elderly' as a person who is of age 60 years or above.

- ❖ The elderly population (aged 60 years or above) account for 7.4% of total population in 2001. For males it was marginally lower at 7.1%, while for females it was 7.8%. Among states the proportion vary from around 4% in small states like Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Nagaland Arunachal Pradesh, Meghalaya to more than 10.5% in Kerala.
- ❖ Both the share and size of elderly population is increasing over time. From 5.6% in 1961 it is projected to rise to 12.4% of population by the year 2026.
- ❖ The sex ratio among elderly people was as high as 1028 in 1951 but subsequently dropped to about 938 in 1971 and finally reached 972 in 2001.
- ❖ The life expectancy at birth during 2002-06 was 64.2 for females as against 62.6 years for males. At age 60 average remaining length of life was found to be about 18 years (16.7 for males, 18.9 for females) and that at age 70 was less than 12 years (10.9 for males and 12.4 for females).

- ❖ There is sharp rise in age-specific death rate with age from 20 (per thousand) for persons in age group 60-64 years to 80 among those aged 75- 79 years and 200 for persons aged more than 85 years.
- ❖ The old-age dependency ratio climbed from 10.9% in 1961 to 13.1% in 2001 for India as a whole. For females and males the value of the ratio was 13.8% and 12.5% in 2001.
- ❖ About 65 per cent of the aged had to depend on others for their day-to-day maintenance. Less than 20% of elderly women but majority of elderly men were economically independent.
- ❖ Among economically dependent elderly men 6-7% was financially supported by their spouses, almost 85% by their own children, 2% by grandchildren and 6% by others. Of elderly women, less than 20% depended on their spouses, more than 70% on their children, 3% on grandchildren and 6% or more on others including the non-relations.
- ❖ Of the economically independent men more than 90% as against 65 % of women were reported to have one or more dependants.
- ❖ Among the rural elderly persons almost 50% had a monthly per capita expenditure level between Rs. 420 to Rs. 775 and among the urban elderly persons; almost half of aged had monthly per capita expenditure between Rs. 665 and 1500 in 2002.
- ❖ Nearly 40% of persons aged 60 years and above (60% of men and 19% of women) were working. In rural areas 66% of elderly men and above 23% of aged women were still participating in economic activity, while in urban areas only 39% of elderly men and about 7% of elderly women were economically active.
- ❖ Even in 2007-08 only 50% men and 20% of women aged 60 years or more were literate through formal schooling.
- ❖ In rural areas 55 % of the aged with sickness and 77 % of those without sickness felt that they were in a good or fair condition of health. In urban areas the respective proportions were 63 % and 78 %.
- ❖ The proportion of elderly men and women physically mobile decline from about 94 % in the age-group 60 – 64 years to about 72% for men and 63 to 65% for women of age 80 or more.
- ❖ Prevalence of heart diseases among elderly population was much higher in urban areas than in rural parts.
- ❖ About 64 per thousand elderly persons in rural areas and 55 per thousand in urban areas suffer from one or more disabilities. Most common disability among the aged persons was loco motor disability as 3% of them suffer from it.
- ❖ In age-groups beyond 60 years, the percentage of elderly women married was markedly lower than the percentage of men married.
- ❖ More than 75% of elderly males and less than 40% of elderly females live with their spouse. Less than 20% of aged men and about half of the women live with their children.

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Check your progress - 1**Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.****b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

1. The medical study of the aging process is called
2. The United Nations World Assembly on Ageing, held at in 1982.
3. Give the expansion of NSSO
4. Government of India adopted in January, 1999.

10.4 ABUSE AND AVOIDANCE OF ELDERLY

It is generally agreed that abuse of older people is either an act of commission or of omission (in which case it is usually described as “neglect”), and that it may be either intentional or unintentional. The abuse may be of a physical nature, it may be psychological (involving emotional or verbal aggression), or it may involve financial or other material maltreatment. Regardless of the type of abuse, it will certainly result in unnecessary suffering, injury or pain, the loss or violation of human rights, and a decreased quality of life for the older person. Whether the behaviour is termed abusive, neglectful or exploitative will probably depend on how frequently the mistreatment occurs, its duration, severity and consequences, and above all, the cultural context. Among the Navajo people in the United States, for instance, what had appeared to an outside researcher to be economic exploitation by family members was regarded instead by the tribal elders concerned as their cultural duty, and indeed privilege, to share material belongings with their families. “Elder abuse is a single or repeated act, or lack of appropriate action, occurring within any relationship where there is an expectation of trust which causes harm or distress to an older person.” Such abuse is generally divided into the following categories:

- ❖ **Physical abuse** – the infliction of pain or injury, physical coercion, or physical or drug induced restraint.
- ❖ **Psychological or emotional abuse** – the infliction of mental anguish.
- ❖ **Financial or material abuse** – the illegal or improper exploitation or use of funds or resources of the older person.
- ❖ **Sexual abuse** – non-consensual sexual contact of any kind with the older person.
- ❖ **Neglect**– the refusal or failure to fulfil a caregiving obligation. This may or may not involve a conscious and intentional attempt to inflict physical or emotional distress on the older person

The impact that physical and psychological violence have on the health of an older person is exacerbated by the ageing process and diseases of old age. It is more difficult for the elderly to leave an abusive relationship or to make correct decisions because of the physical and cognitive impairments that usually come with old age. In some places, kinship obligations and the use of the extended family network to resolve difficulties may also lessen the ability of older people, particularly women, to escape from dangerous situations. Often, the abuser may be the abused person’s only source of companionship. Because of these and other considerations, preventing elder abuse presents a whole host of problems

for practitioners. In most cases, the greatest dilemma is how to balance the older person's right to self-determination with the need to take action to end the abuse.

10.4.1 Physical abuse

Some forms of elderly physical abuse may involve assault, battery, hitting, punching, shoving, or using restraints inappropriately to keep the individual from moving. This form of abuse can occur at any age and may happen regularly, or just once. Physical elder abuse can be hard to recognize, given the nature of assisted living facilities and nursing homes. There are several different types of physical abuse that can happen to an elderly person. This can include the following:

- Cigarette burns
- Scratching the elder
- Biting the elder
- Being slapped
- Being shoved
- Being struck
- Being pushed
- Using restraints inappropriately
- Threatening the elder with weapons, such as knives, guns or blunt objects

The typical behavioral indicators that an elderly person is being abused include the following:

- Scalding burns
- Cigarette burns
- Burns from appliances
- Rope, strap burns or abrasions
- Internal injuries
- Evidence that the elder is treating their injuries alone
- Bruises that go around the elder's arms
- Bruises at different stages
- Tooth loss
- Traumatic hair loss from having hair pulled out
- Broken bones
- Sprains
- Dislocated joints

The main physical signs that the elderly person is being abused include the following:

- A past history of hospitalizations, often for injuries that are the same or similar to other injuries
- A delay in receiving medical care for an injury the elder receives
- Trips to various emergency rooms to avoid detection of abuse
- Unreasonable explanations as to how the elder received an injury
- Strained relationships between caregiver and elder
- Elder withdrawal from usual activities or social activities the elder usually enjoys

The elder's physical condition should be monitored so that the risk of physical abuse is diminished. It is okay to talk with the elder in order to find out their concerns. Family members should also pay attention to any

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medications the elder is taking. The elder can also prevent abuse against themselves. They should stay in touch with family and friends and keep track of their finances as much as possible. If the individual feels that he or she is being abused, it is important to talk to someone about it or to report it to the authorities or Adult Protective Services. Some elders suffer from Alzheimer's disease or other forms of dementia that make it difficult to self-report incidences of abuse. It is therefore important for family members and friends to report incidences of abuse if they believe it is happening.

10.4.2 Psychological or emotional abuse

Psychological abuse is believed to be the most common of all types of elder abuse, with a reported incidence rate of 54.1%. Psychological abuse is the most difficult form of abuse to detect because it lacks clear evidence and concrete assessment criteria. It can occur as the only type of abuse an older adult experiences or in conjunction with other types of abuse.

Psychological abuse wreaks mental anguish by means of threats, humiliation, fear, manipulation, or other cruel conduct. It can be inflicted via verbal or nonverbal communication cues. It is the systematic perpetration of malicious and explicit nonphysical acts against an elder. Examples include harassment, scolding, insults, denigration, and stalking. Perpetrators of psychological abuse against older adults often take advantage of elders' vulnerability in ways that control or humiliate.

Threatening an elder with physical punishment or the deprivation of basic needs is a particularly heinous form of this type of abuse. Such actions may include denying or creating long waits for food, medication, heat, or basic care. Additional acts calculated to create an oppressive atmosphere include placing the individual's walker, cane, glasses, dentures, or other necessary items out of reach or in inaccessible locations.

Psychological neglect deprives elders of healthy mental well-being. Prolonged periods of solitude and failure to provide adequate companionship contribute to such neglect. A caregiver may provide sufficient essentials such as food, water, and shelter but neglect to provide the elder with satisfactory social stimulation. Likewise, interfering with decision making, making false accusations, and controlling the individual's freedom can effectively destabilize the elder and lead to isolation, feelings of low self-esteem, and psychological pain. Psychological abuse and neglect can exacerbate clinical depression from which an older adult may already suffer and may aggravate other mental health issues as well.

Discovering some types of elder abuse may be as simple as looking at an obviously no accidentally injured elder or reviewing his or her financial statements. But this is not the case with psychological abuse. Abuse may not be apparent, even to those who experience it. It is important to consider an individual's cultural norms and traditions. Factors such as language barriers, cultural views that fail to uphold women's basic rights, and beliefs that what happens at home is private tend to make identifying abuse difficult. It is important to not ignore abuse based on cultural differences but to be culturally sensitive about what the individual's beliefs are.

The following list of indicators offers a useful guide in cases of suspected abuse. Although the presence of any one indicator doesn't constitute proof, it should prompt further, more comprehensive exploration

of an elder's current living situation and care providers. This is especially true in light of the incidence of psychological abuse co-occurring with other types of abuse.

The typical behaviours demonstrated by a victim of psychological abuse may include the following:

- passivity, withdrawal, or increasing depression;
- evasiveness or reluctance to talk openly;
- avoidance of eye contact or verbal contact with a caregiver;
- cowering in the presence of the abuser;
- Hopelessness, helplessness, anxiety, or feelings of powerlessness (Anxiety and powerlessness are the most commonly expressed warning signs in grandfathers in the custodial role.);
- fear;
- confusion that is unrelated to any medical condition;
- change in sleeping or eating habits;
- contradictory statements;
- missing appointments; and
- Isolation from friends or other family.

When assessing whether abuse has occurred, it is also helpful to observe the behaviour of and interaction with caregivers or significant others involved in the elder's immediate situation. The following have been identified as characteristics of perpetrators of psychological abuse:

- tired or stressed appearance;
- history of substance abusers or abusing others;
- exaggerated concern or lack of concern;
- blaming the elder for acts such as dropping an item or incontinence;
- aggressive behaviours;
- treating the elder like a child or in a dehumanizing way;
- not allowing the elder to be interviewed alone;
- responding defensively when questioned or becoming hostile or evasive; and
- Providing care over an extended period of time.

Elder abuse presents a complex range of issues that cannot be dealt with successfully by a single profession in isolation. In most cases, multiagency networking is essential. It is important to recognize that overburdened caregivers may harm elders unintentionally. Screening for caregiver stress and unmanageable burdens may help prevent further destructive incidents by offering referrals to social services or community agencies to assist with caregiving needs.

Many stressors face families and their aging members, but a disparity currently exists between the money allocated to child protective services and that allocated to adult protective services. It is important to review the issues related to elder care and be a political advocate, encouraging policy makers and Congress to provide appropriate funding to make the needed services available.

10.4.3 Financial or material abuse

The National Centre on Elderly Abuse defines financial or material exploitation as the illegal or improper use of an elder's funds, property or assets. Common signs of financial exploitation may include:

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- Unexpected changes in bank account balances or banking practices
- Allowing a new friend or trusted acquaintance to make decisions on the elderly person's behalf
- Unauthorized or unexplained financial account withdrawals
- Disappearance of funds or valuable possessions
- Unanticipated transfer of assets to a family member or friend
- Sudden changes to a will or other important financial documents

While it's important to understand the signs of elder abuse, it may be more productive to take steps to prevent abuse from occurring in the first place. Before these warning signs appear, one of the best safeguards against financial elder abuse is to create a strong support system to keep an eye on elderly family members and loved ones. A family conversation—or, more likely, a series of conversations over time—can help you gain insight into your loved one's affairs and mental state.

However, if you recognize warning signs or suspect someone you know is being exploited, addressing the issue immediately, whether that means getting the proper authorities involved or confronting the abuser directly, is often the best way to prevent additional abuse. If you are concerned that an elderly family member may have been the victim of fraud or other abuse, ask him or her directly. One of the reasons elder abuse is underreported is that well-meaning onlookers are afraid to act unless they're certain that abuse is occurring.

10.4.4 Sexual Abuse

Sexual abuse against the elderly is a part of the overall maltreatment of the elderly. There are several forms of sexual abuse, just as there are several forms of other forms of abuse perpetrated against the elderly. Elder sexual abuse includes any sexual contact with an elder who, because of mental illness or dementia, cannot communicate their disapproval of the behaviour against them or cannot communicate consent for the activity. The typical signs and indicators of sexual abuse against the elderly can be either behavioural or physical. They include the following:

- Sustaining a pelvic injury
- Having problems walking or sitting
- Developing a sexually transmitted disease or STD
- Torn, bloody or stained underwear
- Bruises of the genitals or inner thigh
- Bleeding from the anus or genitals
- Irritation or pain of the anus or genitals
- Panic attacks
- Signs of Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)
- Symptoms of agitation
- Social or emotional withdrawal from others
- Engaging in inappropriate, unusual or aggressive sexual activities
- Suicide attempts

- Engaging in unusual or inappropriate actions that appear to be from a sex role relationship between the perpetrator of elder sexual abuse and the victim

10.4.5 Neglect

Neglect is a type of abuse in that it can be inflicted either by the caregiver or oneself. Signs of neglect include malnutrition and dehydration, poor hygiene, noncompliance to a prescription medication, and unsafe living conditions.

In addition to observing signs in the elderly individual, abuse can also be detected by monitoring changes in the caregiver's behavior. For example, the caregiver may not allow them to speak to or receive visitors, exhibit indifference or a lack of affection towards the elder, or refer to the elder as "a burden." Caregivers who have a history of substance abuse or mental illness are more likely to commit elder abuse than other individuals.

Abuse can sometimes be subtle, and therefore difficult, to detect. Regardless, awareness organizations and research advise to take any suspicion seriously and to address concerns adequately and immediately.

Depriving a person of proper medical treatment, food, heat, clothing or comfort or essential medication and depriving a person of needed services to force certain kinds of actions, financial and otherwise. Neglect can include leaving an at-risk (i.e. fall risk) elder person unattended. The deprivation may be intentional (active neglect) or happen out of lack of knowledge or resources (passive neglect).

- Unusual weight loss, malnutrition, dehydration
- Untreated physical problems, such as bed sores
- Unsanitary living conditions: dirt, bugs, soiled bedding and clothes
- Being left dirty or unbathed
- Unsuitable clothing or covering for the weather
- Unsafe living conditions (no heat or running water; faulty electrical wiring; other fire hazards)
- Desertion of the elder at a public place

Check your progress– II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. What is meant by Financial or material abuse?
6. Mentionsome forms of elderly physical abuse
7. What is Sexual Abuse?

10.5 INTERGENERATIONAL CONFLICT

Ask a youth what comes to your mind when you think of the old and young generations, chances are the term 'generation gap' will be one common association. There is little doubt that generational segregation has increasingly become a norm in today's modern industrialized societies. The social structuring of age has contributed to an extent the gap among generations. One important dimension of age segregation is 'institutional age segregation' where different age groups are isolated from the socially constructed division according to chronological age, such as the channelling of the young into day care and schools and expecting seniors to

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live separately in age-homogenous retirement communities. Among the various social institutions, the family is probably the only institution that is 'truly age integrated' however, the advent of nuclear families, more instances of divorces, singlehood, migration and so forth have increasingly limited the capacity of the family to provide cross-age understanding and connections. To effectively promote mutual understanding across generations, it is important to create opportunities for the generations to meet and interact. Generally, such initiatives are classified according to the direction of the service such as the following

- ❖ initiatives from the young where youth/children provide a service for the elderly, such as school visits to old folks' homes to serve as volunteers and provide companionship to the older residents, and intergenerational projects for school children and youth to initiate understanding of the older generation.
- ❖ initiatives from older persons, such as projects by the RSVP to provide mentoring program to latchkey children after school and host programs for young international students
- ❖ To include courses on understanding across the life course in school curriculum at all levels so as to increase awareness of the need for generational understanding and bonding among the youth.
- ❖ To create opportunities for intergenerational engagement through intergenerational initiatives that promotes mutual understanding. This includes encouraging schools to open up for interaction with other generations in the community, enhance the teachers' knowledge on connecting youth with other generations for intergenerational understanding through the incorporation of an intergenerational perspective in teachers' training, and include intergenerational service learning in the curriculum.
- ❖ To create intergenerational interactive space in the public domain, such as to design playgrounds alongside exercising grounds for older adults so that different ends of generations have opportunity to meet in the community.
- ❖ To provide incentives for private spaces, such as retirement community, nursing homes, childcare centres to attract other generations to its compound. This may include building a children's library inside a retirement community, a playground in the open compound of nursing home, and regular visits from senior's clubs to childcare centres for concerts, joint handicraft activities and others. The older persons should be recognized for their potential in bridging the generations through their volunteer efforts, such as mentoring.
- ❖ Community services among youth to older generations should include presentations about youth culture and perceptions to enhance understanding of differences and similarities across age.

Check your progress – III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

8. Intergenerational engagement through intergenerational initiatives that promotes

9. One important dimension of age segregation is

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10.6 MARITAL CONFLICT

Conflicts and disagreements are inevitable in every close relationship, including marital relationship. While every marriage relationship is as unique as the individuals it contains, some degree of conflict is actually necessary to keep a marriage dynamic rather than static (Ashford, LeCroy, & Lortie, 2006).

Perceptions of marital quality between spouses in conflict vary. Similarly, the approaches which partners take towards handling differences vary but are crucial in determining marital satisfaction. Adjustments can be challenging because it includes adapting to myths and expectations of marriage, learning how to effectively communicate with a spouse, deriving satisfaction from the relationship and learning to deal with conflict. According to Gottman (1994), what is critical in a marriage is a balance between the couple's positive and negative interactions that determines their satisfaction. Studies have shown that failure to do so can bring detrimental effects on the mental health involving both couples and their children. As such, social support measures are extremely vital in buffering the effects of marital conflict.

Definition – Marital Conflict

Buehler et al. (1998) defines marital conflict as the existence of high levels of disagreement, stressful and hostile interactions between spouses, disrespect, and verbal abuse while Cummings (1998) interprets it as “any major or minor interpersonal interaction that involved a difference of opinion, whether it was mostly negative or even mostly positive.” Cummings further elaborates that everyday marital conflict refers to daily interactions, whether major or minor, in which couples have a difference of opinion. Thus, everyday marital conflict includes a range of tactical and emotional expressions, both positive and negative. Marital aggression is on the negative extreme of a continuum of marital conflict which includes varying degrees of violent behaviours, including both verbal and physical acts.

Definitions of conflict that assume the interdependence of individuals make note of the presence of differences between the two parties. Donohue and Kolt define conflict as “a situation in which interdependent people express (manifest or latent) differences in satisfying their individual needs and interests, and they experience interference from each other in accomplishing these goals”. Likewise, Jordan states that “conflict arises when a difference between two or more people necessitates change in at least one person in order for their engagement to continue and develop. The differences cannot coexist without some adjustment”. In sum, based on these definitions, differences between partners may not “coexist” without resolution. It is based on the premise that conflict is an inevitable and valuable aspect of all human association with the use of coercion,

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including force and violence, as a tactic for resolving conflicts being harmful.

Biophysical decline occurs with old age and can act as a physical isolator. For example, limitations in physical mobility, sensory losses, diminishing physical vigour and endurance, changes in physical appearance and symptoms of specific diseases can all alter, reduce, or prevent social participation. Sensory losses influence the elder's ability to communicate fully. Cognitive losses associated with organic brain syndrome often lessen interaction skills, sometimes to a point where it is impossible for the elderly to have meaningful interaction with friends and family. As the couples aged, most aspects of their demand-withdraw communication stayed the same, but both spouses showed a greater tendency to avoid the subject of a conflict. Older husbands and wives demonstrated more of a tendency to change the subject or draw attention away from it. Normally, avoiding a conflict is considered harmful to relationships — especially in younger couples — because the conflicts go unresolved. Older couples, on the other hand, have been dealing with disagreements for decades, so if both partners avoid so-called "toxic" areas, it could steer the conversation to a more neutral subject. Husband's agreeable personality and good health appear crucial to preventing conflict among older couples who have been together a long time, according to a study from University of Chicago researchers. The report found that such characteristics in wives play less of a role in limiting marital conflict, perhaps because of different expectations among women and men in durable relationships.

Though marriage is often thought to be the "happily ever after" phase of a relationship, don't be fooled into believing that married couples don't face their fair share of challenges. While some of these challenges may easily be resolved, other issues may be too tough to tackle and could even be the means to an end.

Since the future of most marriages depends largely on how couples deal with issues as they arise, it's helpful to have a heads up on the most common issues that come with marriage territory.

Take a peek at these 12 common issues married couples face and how you can overcome them before it's too late:

1. Overstepping Boundaries

Once couples are married, it's not uncommon for one spouse to try and change their partner. Whether it's their fashion sense or their fundamental beliefs, trying to change your spouse is a personal invasion, and when it happens, the victimized spouse will feel disrespected, hurt, or even angry. Often times overstepping someone's personal boundaries is done intentionally, with a mission in mind. This type of behavior stomps on the very idea of mutual respect, and the end result will likely be retaliation or withdrawal from the attacked spouse. In turn, it makes it hard for spouses to communicate, love, and be open with one another.

It's also possible to unintentionally overstep personal boundaries, especially if this happens while genuinely trying to help your spouse. To avoid invasion, know where to draw the line when it comes to pushing for change.

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2. Lacking Complete Communication

Though the phases "talking" and "communicating" are often used interchangeably, it's important to understand that the two differ greatly from one another. Talking is about giving information without the need of a response, and it leaves plenty of room for complaining and criticism. Communication, however, is a verbal and nonverbal exchange of information that requires a response. Because it takes more than one person to communicate, it's focused on a connection between people where it's safe to openly share ideas and information free of judgment.

When spouses fail to practice proper communication, it's easy for them to fall into a habitual way of ineffectively speaking to one another. What's worse is that if poor communication skills are not dealt with, it's possible for more serious problems to arise. Couples should learn how to communicate with one another to keep their love life on track and also prevent these unnecessary issues.

3. Declining Occurrences of Sexual Intimacy

While there are many reasons why couples lose interest in sexual intimacy or struggle with physical affection, it's important for spouses to find ways to keep their sex life fresh and fulfilling. Sex may seem like a small piece of the marriage puzzle, but it's actually rare to have a healthy relationship without it.

Unfortunately, there's a vicious cycle when it comes to sex: It's hard to want to have it when you feel emotionally detached, but it's hard to feel emotionally attached without physical intimacy. To get past a dry spell couples need to identify problem areas in their marriage and work through them to become physically comfortable with each other.

4. Wandering Focuses

A common issue couple's face is a shift in focus after marriage. When either spouse redirects their attention from the relationship to other interests - be it career, children, friends, or other social activities or hobbies - it's common for their partner to feel the brunt of the situation, and for the relationship to suffer from a loss of attention. In these types of situations spouses may even begin to feel more like roommates than lovers, which is why it's so important to find a balance between personal interests and being an attentive partner. It's perfectly acceptable (and even encouraged) for spouses to have their own separate interests and goals, so long as they manage their schedules to fit in quality time with one another.

A common mistake married people make when this happens is to overreact, because in doing so they're more or less telling their spouse they cannot have a life without them. Instead, understand that your partner has won you and is now pursuing other challenges in life. Find a happy medium for your relationship to grow and support one another's ambitions.

5. Emotional Infidelity

As unfortunate as it may be, once couples get married it's not uncommon for them to become emotionally disconnected from one

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another. When this happens, it's likely that at least one spouse's needs will become unmet, and so they may start looking elsewhere to feel fulfilled. This is where emotional infidelity has the opportunity to slip into the marriage.

Often times, spouses agree that emotional infidelity is worse than physically cheating because it's about more than just sex; it's about connecting with another person on an intimate level. In order to prevent infidelity, couples must be clear on what they both consider cheating to be. Initially partners may not have the same feelings towards what does and doesn't count as cheating, but getting on the same page will lessen the chances of them allowing it to happen. It's also important that spouses remain supportive of one another's emotional needs, because when these are met, they won't have as much interested in looking elsewhere.

6. Fighting About Money

When couples bond, it's common for their bank accounts to follow suit. While this may not always be the case, even married couples that decide to keep their finances separate still face issues when it comes to money.

Discussing finances with your spouse can be stressful and tense, especially if the couple has different spending habits or ways of managing money. In these types of edgy situations, it's common for the conversation to become less about money and more about personal values and habits. For example, when one spouse is stressed about money they may be less patient and more irritated in general. They may even pick fights with their partner about unrelated things without realizing it.

To avoid this issue, be sure that you and your spouse are on the same page when it comes to dollars and cents, make a financial plan together and skip any unnecessary disagreements by staying focused on the situation at hand.

7. Waning Appreciation

When appreciation between married couples is low, conflict tends to rise. Since both men and women crave positive recognition, when spouses stop acknowledging one another's efforts or fail to express gratitude for loving gestures, it's likely their partner will stop doing those once appreciated actions. When this happens couples tend to become bitter or agitated with one another.

When small, yet loving gestures become expected they lose their magic and become a chore rather than a choice. Whether you've been with your spouse for 12 months or 12 years, it's important to keep appreciating one another for the things you both do.

8. Technology Interference

In a world that's largely run by technology, it can be tough not to get caught up with electronic gadgets. This is why more and more couples are reporting that their spouse's obsession with technology is interfering with their marriages. Allow me to explain.

Let's say for example a wife becomes so wrapped up with her smartphone that she's texting her pals at the dinner table instead of engaging in conversation with her husband. Or, perhaps a husband is so fixed on his tablet that all he wants to do after dinner is play games on it and browse Facebook. These situations can replace healthy communication and even intimacy. It may sound bizarre, but they're real life issues. Every day you see people glued to their phones and computers, so if technology is taking over your marriage, then it's time to snap back to reality.

9. Selfishness

If one spouse acts selfishly and consistently places their own needs and desires ahead of their spouse's, then it'll only be a matter of time until the neglected spouse feels unworthy and unloved. When couples get married they're promising to love one another for better or worse, and part of that promise means not acting selfishly. While this may sound easy enough, the green-eyed monster comes in many sneaky shapes and forms. At its worst, selfishness is controlling, manipulative, jealous, possessive and abusive. In milder forms, it can be seen in a lack of consideration and respect. In order to prevent issues of selfishness in marriage, spouses must learn how to act with empathy and create a balance between both their own and their spouses needs.

10. Lacking Trust

Trust is the very basis of love, and without it a healthy marriage cannot exist. When a spouse cheats, lies, or breaks a promise, it can really hurt the relationship. Restoring trust in a marriage where someone has been betrayed is no easy task, and both spouses must be committed to fixing the relationship in order to have any success on moving past the issue. If the issues are not dealt with, the betrayed spouse will continue to feel hurt, anger, and suspicious.

11. Losing Control of Anger

While it's normal for married couples to get angry with each other from time to time, it's important that both spouses act appropriately when these types of situations arise. Instead of reacting explosively with outburst or fits of rage, couples need to address the issue at hand (stay on topic), keep calm, and consider one another's feelings. It's also important that couples listen, openly express their opinions, and avoid defensive behaviors.

12. Changing Future Ambitions

Most times when couples decide to get married they're on the same path and have discussed their wants for the future. That said, a common issue between spouses is for one or both partners to change their minds and come up with new plans or ambitions as time passes. Take for example a couple who has agreed to get married, buy a house and start their family. If after the honeymoon either partner decides that they would rather travel for a year, go back to school, or aren't ready for kids, then the couple could have some major issues on their hands. While there's no reason to harass

your spouse or worry that they will change their mind down the road, it's important to keep communication lines open to avoid these kind of shocking surprises.

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Check your progress – 1V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

10. What is marital conflict?

11. Define– Conflict.

10.7 FAMILY DISSOLUTION

The term *dissolution of marriage* refers to the ending of a marriage through legal proceedings, the same as divorce. In many jurisdictions, a couple may file a petition for the court to terminate their marriage pursuant to a written agreement between the parties. Such an agreement must cover all issues pertaining to the dissolution, allowing the matter to be concluded without a hearing or trial. To explore this concept, consider the following dissolution of marriage definition. In most jurisdictions, divorce and dissolution of marriage is the same thing, each requiring the same legal proceedings to finalize. The proceedings may be adversarial, or the parties may work together to come to an agreement regarding all issues of distribution of marital assets, and payment of spousal support, as well as child custody and child support, if applicable.

If an agreement is reached, it is documented in a Marital Settlement Agreement, and presented to the court for approval and a final divorce order or decree. Any issues not settled between the parties may continue to trial, during which both parties will present argument, testimony, and other evidence to make their case. Leaving these things for the court to decide is a more expensive avenue for most litigants. The process of obtaining dissolution of marriage by Marital Settlement Agreement is easier, faster, and less expensive for the parties. Without the need for the parties to engage in discovery, prove what each owned prior to the marriage, argue about how the marital assets should be divided, and argue over the care and custody of their children, getting a divorce without an attorney becomes a possibility for many people, especially in jurisdictions that offer the help of a family law facilitator.

Coming to an agreement on issues related to dissolution of marriage means less emotional conflict and stress for all parties, including children and extended family. Submitting a Marital Settlement Agreement to the court also eliminates the stress of not knowing what the judge will order regarding the final divorce. Many couples find that giving up a few things in order to meet in the middle for such an agreement is well worth it, in that the divorce can usually be finalized much more quickly, and they can get on with their lives.

Each state has specific requirements that must be met before filing for dissolution of marriage or divorce. These include residency requirements that the couple has resided in the state for a specified minimum period of time. The time varies by jurisdiction, often between 6

months and 1 year. Some states require the couple be officially separated for a minimum period of time before filing, yet others allow filing, but require a minimum separation time before the final divorce decree may be issued.

A petition for dissolution of marriage or divorce must be filed with the family court in the county where the couple has established residency, then served on the opposing party in person. This may be done by process server, sheriff, constable, or any adult person who is not a party to the divorce. These documents, as well as other documents needed in a dissolution proceeding, such as child custody documents, are available at the court clerk's office for individuals filing for dissolution of marriage without the assistance of an attorney. Once the petition for dissolution of marriage has been served, the other party, the "respondent," must file an answer with the court. Following this, the parties may submit a Marital Settlement Agreement with the court. If these documents satisfy the judge as to the equitable distribution of marital assets, and that the best interests of the children are being met, the agreement will become the order of the court, and the marriage will be terminated on a specified date. If the parties are unable to agree, the matter will proceed to trial.

In many states, couples may file a "no-fault" divorce or dissolution of marriage, in which they state they have separated by agreement, and neither is claiming the other is at fault for the failed relationship. In some states, including California, no-fault divorce is the only option, individuals being able to choose only between "irreconcilable differences" and "incurable insanity" as the reasons for the dissolution. In a "fault" divorce, one spouse claims some wrongdoing of the other spouse caused the breakup, and this may entitle the wronged spouse to a greater share of the marital assets. In a "no-fault" divorce, the assets are divided equally with no regard for the reason behind the divorce. To prove fault in a divorce, the wronged spouse must prove an issue such as:

- Adultery
- Emotional or physical abuse
- Failure to help support the family
- Continued absence from the family home for one year or longer
- Habitual drug or alcohol use

In states that allow fault divorces, the couple is not usually required to endure a minimum separation period before the divorce will be granted.

Check your progress –V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

12. What is dissolution of marriage?

13. How many days reside in the married couple before jurisdiction of dissolution?

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10.8 LEGISLATION

In general, the rights stipulated for the older persons in international instruments stem from the principles of dignity and non-discrimination. The rights of older persons can be divided into three main categories: protection, participation and image. Protection refers to securing the physical, psychological and emotional safety of older persons with regard to their unique vulnerability to abuse and ill treatment. Participation refers to the need to establish a greater and more active role for older persons in society.

10.8.1 Human Rights of Older People

- ❖ Right to life shall be protected by law.
- ❖ Right not to be subjected to inhuman treatment “No-one shall be subjected to torture or to inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment”.
- ❖ Right to liberty “Everyone has the right to liberty and personal security.
- ❖ Right to a fair hearing “In the determination of his civil rights and obligations... everyone is entitled to a fair and public hearing within a reasonable time by an independent and impartial tribunal established by law”.
- ❖ “Civil rights and obligations”.
- ❖ The right to respect at home, within family and in private life
- ❖ The right to freedom of thought and conscience.
- ❖ The right not to be discriminated against age
- ❖ The right to property - everyone is entitled to the peaceful enjoyment of his possessions
- ❖ The right to education

10.8.2 Governmental Protections

The Government of India approved the National Policy for Older Persons on January 13, 1999 in order to accelerate welfare measures and empowering the elderly in ways beneficial for them. This policy included the following major steps:

- A. Setting up of a pension fund for ensuring security for those persons who have been serving in the unorganized sector,
 - B. Construction of old age homes and day care centers for every 3-4 districts,
 - C. Establishment of resource centers and re-employment bureaus for people above 60 years,
 - D. Concessional rail/air fares for travel within and between cities, i.e., 50% discount in train and Indian Airlines.
 - E. Enacting legislation for ensuring compulsory geriatric care in all the public hospitals
- ❖ The Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment has set up of a National Council for Older Persons in the process to make life easier for older persons.
 - ❖ Attempts to sensitize school children to live and work with the elderly. Setting up of a round the clock help line and discouraging social ostracism of the older persons are being taken up.

- ❖ The government policy encourages a prompt settlement of pension, provident fund (PF), gratuity, etc. in order to save the superannuated persons from any hardships. It also encourages to make the taxation policies elder sensitive.
- ❖ The policy also accords high priority to their health care needs.
- ❖ According to Sec.88-B, 88-D and 88-DDB of Income Tax Act there are discount in tax for the elderly persons.
- ❖ Life Insurance Corporation of India (LIC) has also been providing several scheme for the benefit of aged persons, i.e., Jeevan Dhara Yojana, Jeevan Akshay Yojana, Senior Citizen Unit Yojana, Medical Insurance Yojana.
- ❖ Annapurna Yojana” for the benefit of aged persons was launched. Under this yojanaunattended aged persons are being given 10 kg foods for every month.
- ❖ It is proposed to allot 10 percent of the houses constructed under government schemes for the urban and rural lower income segments to the older persons on easy loan. The policy mentions.
- ❖ The layout of the housing colonies will respond to the needs and life styles of the elderly so that there is no physical barriers to their mobility; they are allotted ground floor; and their social interaction with older society members exists

Protection of life and property of Senior citizen

If a senior citizen after the commencement of this Act, has transferred his property either moveable or immovable, by way of gift or otherwise, subject to the condition that the transferee shall provide him basic amenities and physical needs and thereafter such transferee reuses or fails to provide such promise, such transfer of property shall be deemed to have been made by fraud, coercion or undue influence and the Tribunal can declare such transfer as void. Before the enactment of this law, a senior citizen's only remedy in such a case was to approach the court for maintenance from the children to whom he had given the property by way of gift or otherwise and such property would be the exclusive property of the transferee and the senior citizen had no right in such property. But after the enactment of this Act, a senior citizen can reclaim his property from the transferee the concerned police personnel will also ensure priority in dealing with these types of cases. Abandoning a senior citizen in any place by a person who is having the care or protection of such senior citizen is a criminal offence and such person shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to three months or fine which may extend to five thousand rupees or both. This Act also provides that state governments may establish old age homes at least one in one district to accommodate indigent senior citizens. State governments may also ensure proper medical care for senior citizens.

Check your progress - VI

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

14. Which year The Government of India approved the National Policy for Older Persons?

15. What are the schemes provided by LIC to aged persons?

16. What is the benefit of Annapurana Yojana?

10.9 LET US SUM UP

Like other members of the human race the basic and essential needs of the elderly such as food, adequate housing, healthcare, security, love and access to income in old age must be provided for the problems of elder to be solved. Policies should be formulated and resources allocated to provide for the wellbeing of older persons. Ageing is a natural process and the right to live in dignity, free from all forms of abuse and exploitation are all that are required from the society. The isolated, lonely life troubled probably by illness makes the elderly vulnerable as targets for fraudulent schemes and violent crime. Therefore, an enabling environment where the older person can feel free from fear, abuse, violence, neglect and abandonment must be created. It is not a crime to grow old. It is even 26 more of a privilege with the life expectancy of Nigerians put at 49 years for men and 53 years for women. The need to capitalize on the skills, wisdom, experience and resourcefulness of our elderly cannot be overemphasized. They remain the source of wise counselling and our link to the past. Without them the future is not secure. For there to be continuity in the human race the elderly should be accorded the proper respect and put in the right position. They should therefore live in dignity without fear, abuse and exploitation. The problem of elder abuse cannot be properly solved if the essential needs of older people – for food, shelter, security and access to health care – are not met. The nations of the world must create an environment in which ageing is accepted as a natural part of the life cycle, where anti-ageing attitudes are discouraged, where older people are given the right to live in dignity – free of abuse and exploitation – and are given opportunities to participate fully in educational, cultural, spiritual and economic activities.

In this unit we have discussed Elderly Related Problems of Abuse and Avoidance. Intergenerational Conflict and Marital Conflict have also touched upon briefly. In this unit the Family Dissolution and legislation are discussed in detail.

10.10 UNIT END EXERCISE

1. Discuss Elderly Related Problems of Abuse and Avoidance.
2. Explain the Intergenerational Conflict.
3. Enumerate the Marital Conflict.
4. Explain the Health Problems of the Elderly.

10.11 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Gerontology
2. Vienna
3. National Sample Survey Organisation
4. National Policy on Older Persons

5. the illegal or improper exploitation or use of funds or resources of the older person
6. assault, battery, hitting, punching, shoving
7. non-consensual sexual contact of any kind with the older person
8. mutual understanding
9. institutional age segregation
10. marital conflict as the existence of high levels of disagreement, stressful and hostile interactions between spouses, disrespect, and verbal abuse
11. Definitions of conflict that assume the interdependence of individuals make note of the presence of differences between the two parties.
12. The term *dissolution of marriage* refers to the ending of a marriage through legal proceedings, the same as divorce.
13. between 6 months and 1 year
14. On January 13, 1999
15. Jeevan Dhara Yojana, Jeevan Akshay Yojana, Senior Citizen Unit Yojana, Medical Insurance Yojana
16. Unattended aged persons are being given 10 kg foods for every month

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10.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT- XI COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

Structure

- 11.1 Introduction
 - 11.2 Objectives
 - 11.3 Community Problems
 - 11.3.1 Suicide- A Community Problem
 - 11.3.2 Domestic Violence –A community Problem
 - 11.3.3 Poverty- As a Community Problem
 - 11.3.4 Unemployment- As a Community Problem
 - 11.3.5 Deciding to Solve the Problem
 - 11.4 Social Disabilities
 - 11.4.1 Social Determinants of Health and Development
 - 11.5 Social Exclusion
 - 11.5.1 Social Norms of Acceptance of Particular Behaviours
 - 11.6 Group Conflicts
 - 11.7 Inter-caste Conflicts
 - 11.8 Let Us Sum Up
 - 11.9 Unit- End- Exercises
 - 11.10 Answer to check your Progress
 - 11.11 Suggested Readings
-

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Problems are part of life -- they go together with being alive. And every community has problems, too; they go together with being a community. That's just a fact of community life. We've all had our share of problems - more than enough, if you come right down to it. So it's easy to think that this section, on defining and analysing the problem, is unnecessary. "I *know* what the problem is," you think. "I just don't know what to *do* about it."

Not so fast! A poorly defined problem - or a problem whose nuances you don't completely understand - is much more difficult to solve than a problem you have clearly defined and analysed. The way a problem is worded and understood has a huge impact on the number, quality, and type of proposed solutions.

In this unit you will learn meaning and definition of Community Problems. You will know the Social Disabilities. You will learn Social Exclusion and Group Conflicts. You will study the Inter-caste Conflicts in detail.

11.2 OBJECTIVES

- After going through the unit you will be able to;
- ✓ understand the Nature of of Community Problems
 - ✓ gather knowledge about the Group conflicts
 - ✓ discuss about the Social Disabilities and Social Exclusion
 - ✓ Identify the reasons for Inter-caste conflicts

11.3 COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

The concept of community has been an enduring and forceful theme in modern social science but nevertheless represents an elusive and somewhat intractable term with regard to its actual definition and meaning. There are many compelling reasons for the difficulties associated with its definition, not least because communities are intrinsically linked with deep-seated emotions, sentiments and beliefs. "A community can be a collection of people who share something in common - as in "the artistic community" - without necessarily living in a particular place. It can be a feeling of connection to others, of belonging and identification, as in "community spirit" or "sense of community." It can be a collection of people who do related kinds of work, as in "the health community" or "the academic community." And, in perhaps its most common and concrete sense, it can be a collection of people who share a geographical territory and some measure of interdependency that provides the reason for living in the same place. There are exceptions to this, such as hunter-gatherer bands that move from place to place in search of food. In general, however, geographically based communities involve living, working, and carrying out the basic activities of life within a territory defined by residents as having geographic identity, most notably reflected in the assigning of place names and the drawing of boundaries."

Max Weber, Nisbet delineates the emphasis on community. In Weber's distinctions between the "communal" and the "associative" there is similarity to Tonnies' typologies of *Gemeinschaft* and *Gesellschaft*. The "communal" is identified by total involvement of the individual in the group. It is exemplified by combat soldiers, devoted religious, the traditional parish. But the "associative" is less emotional, less fixed, and usually less sustained. It is marked by interest and the community is prior to the individual in that it is the communal that shapes the individual's reason. Thus the community inevitably has a powerful influence, and truly an unbreakable hold, on the individual. This influence is most convincingly demonstrated by Durkheim in his famous study of suicide. Periods of social decay and atomization bring on increased suicides, according to Durkheim. The chief forms of suicide encouraged by communal disintegration Durkheim calls "egoistic suicide" and "anomic suicide." The first form is associated with the decline of communal life to the point that it no longer gives the individual ego sufficient support. Closely related to egoistic suicide in its connection with social disintegration is "anomic suicide" which is "caused by the sudden dislocation of normative systems, the breakdown of values by which one may have lived for a lifetime, or the conflict between ends desired and abilities to achieve them."

11.3.1 Suicide –A Community Problem

In recent years, suicides have risen as a major public health problem contributing to significant number of deaths, hospitalization and socioeconomic losses in India. Suicides, attempted suicides and suicidal ideations/ behaviours are commonly seen in every part of India, even as the numbers vary in different places. Some studies reveal that for every person who dies from suicide, at least ten to fifteen more have attempted suicide, while a hundred more have thought about it. Since we as a population do not

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pay serious attention to such thoughts and behaviours, it largely goes unnoticed and undetected, leaving several others vulnerable to attempt or die by suicide. This places the onus of preventing suicides not only with the medical fraternity and the government, but also with society. Provided we are equipped with the skills to identify persons with suicidal thoughts around us. Since suicides are still considered to be medico-legal issues, they are underreported due to fear of police, courts and the stigma. Attempted suicides is another point in the spectrum. Studies in India and outside have shown that for every person who dies by suicide, at least ten to fifteen persons have attempted suicide with or without receiving adequate healthcare. Thus, it is estimated that nearly 1,500,000 – 2,000,000 suicide attempts occur every year in India. The number of persons with a suicidal behaviour or ideation is only a guess as there are no large scale population based studies done in India to quantify the problem. The central question of 'why do people die by suicide or attempt it' is a complex one. The official reports indicate that causes were not known in 15.6 percent of suicides. General and vaguely mentioned causes like family problems, illness, economic factors, dowry deaths do not form the basis for specific and targeted interventions.

Alcoholism, domestic violence, acute crisis situations and mental health conditions such as depression contribute to the list of causes as well. These, coupled with the lack of support from family, friends and society during a crisis situation are also seen to be contributory factors. Over time, research across the world from several organizations has revealed that suicides are due to a complex interaction of social, cultural, economic and health related factors and are often due to risk factors that are present in individual, family or in society. This complex interaction ultimately drives an individual to a state of helplessness, hopelessness and worthlessness, culminating in suicidal acts. Despite the ongoing debates on what causes suicide, it has clearly become obvious that suicides are predictable and preventable. Some major interventions have significantly contributed for suicide reduction. These range from restricting the easy availability of pesticides and drugs, timely and appropriate medical care for persons with attempted suicides, access to health professionals and suicide helplines to early recognition of suicidal behaviours and time management. Early recognition can be facilitated with the help of public awareness programs in educational institutions, workplaces and in communities for stigma reduction and others. Undoubtedly, better media reporting practices that stress on how individuals can cope in difficult situations has been helpful. With a good mix of suicide prevention policies and programs along with public participation, it is possible to reverse this growing trend of voluntarily ending lives in difficult situations.

11.3.2 Domestic Violence –A Community Problem

Domestic violence (also named domestic abuse or family violence) is violence or other abuse by one person against another in a domestic setting, such as in marriage or cohabitation. It may be termed intimate partner violence when committed by a spouse or partner in an intimate relationship against the other spouse or partner, and can take place in heterosexual or same-sex relationships, or between former spouses or

partners. Domestic violence can also involve violence against children, parents, or the elderly. It takes a number of forms, including physical, verbal, emotional, economic, religious, reproductive, and sexual abuse, which can range from subtle, coercive forms to marital rape and to violent physical abuse such as choking, beating, female genital mutilation, and acid throwing that results in disfigurement or death. Domestic murders include stoning, bride burning, honour killings, and dowry deaths. Domestic violence is not physical violence alone. Domestic violence is any behaviour the purpose of which is to gain power and control over a spouse, partner, girl/boyfriend or intimate family member. Abuse is a learned behaviour; it is not caused by anger, mental problems, drugs or alcohol, or other common excuses.

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Globally, the victims of domestic violence are overwhelmingly women, and women tend to experience more severe forms of violence. They are also likelier than men to use intimate partner violence in self-defence. In some countries, domestic violence is often seen as justified, particularly in cases of actual or suspected infidelity on the part of the woman, and is legally permitted. Research has established that there exists a direct and significant correlation between a country's level of gender equality and rates of domestic violence, where countries with less gender equality experience higher rates of domestic violence. Domestic violence is among the most underreported crimes worldwide for both men and women. Due to social stigmas regarding male victimization, men who are victims of domestic violence face an increased likelihood of being overlooked by healthcare providers.

Domestic violence can be physical or psychological, and it can affect anyone of any age, gender, race, or sexual orientation. It may include behaviours meant to scare, physically harm, or control a partner. While every relationship is different, domestic violence generally involves an unequal power dynamic in which one partner tries to assert control over the other in a variety of ways. Insults, threats, emotional abuse and sexual coercion all constitute domestic violence. Some perpetrators may even use children, pets, or other family members as emotional leverage to get the victim to do what they want. Victims experience diminished self-worth, anxiety, depression, and a general sense of helplessness that can take time and often professional help to overcome. A clinician who works with victims of domestic violence may be able to help an individual extract her or himself from the situation, as well as offer psychological support.

Domestic violence often occurs when the abuser believes that abuse is an entitlement, acceptable, justified, or unlikely to be reported. It may produce an intergenerational cycle of abuse in children and other family members, who may feel that such violence is acceptable or condoned. Many people do not recognize themselves as abusers or victims because they may consider their experiences as family conflicts that got out of control. Awareness, perception, definition and documentation of domestic violence differs widely from country to country. Domestic violence often happens in the context of forced or child marriage.

11.3.3 Poverty- As a Community Problem

More than 10% of the world's population lives in extreme poverty. Currently, more than 2 billion people don't have access to clean water at home, while over 800 million suffer from hunger. You might think that poverty causes hunger and prevents people from accessing clean water (and you would be right!), but hunger and water insecurity are also big reasons why people struggle to escape extreme poverty. If a person doesn't get enough food, they simply don't have the strength and energy needed to work, while lack of access to food and clean water can also lead to preventable illnesses like diarrhea. And when people must travel far distances to clinics or spend what little money remains on medicine, it drains already vulnerable populations of money and assets, and can knock a family from poverty into extreme poverty. Even if clean water sources are available, they're often located far from poor, rural communities. This means that women and girls collectively spend some 200 million hours every day walking long distances to fetch water. That's precious time that could be used working, or getting an education to help secure a job later in life. Issues like hunger, illness and thirst are both causes and effects of poverty. Not having access to water means that you are poor, and being poor also means that you may not be able to afford water or food either. In other words, poor health, lack of water or housing, child abuse or violence fuel a cycle of poverty in which so many end up trapped for life. The causes and effects of poverty are often interrelated in such a way that one problem hardly ever occurs alone. Bad sanitation, for example, makes it easier to spread around old and new diseases, and hunger and lack of water make people more vulnerable to them. Impoverished communities often suffer from discrimination and end up caught in cycles of poverty. Let's find out just what this means concretely. Crime varies over time and space; it's high in specific areas and low in others, usually with huge differences in wealth. This has always led experts to study why and what happens in those places where there is a concentration of crime. It's unquestionable that crime ranks high among the effects of poverty, and those impoverished neighbourhoods or entire cities show the same problems with uneducated adults and kids that nurture more unemployment and crime, and then leading to chronic, long-lasting poverty. But to solve these issues, it's fundamental to have a more detailed and in-depth vision of the poverty cycle here, and what the precise impact of poverty on crime are in different communities and environments.

For example it's been proved that unemployment is a bigger factor for specific types of crime than income inequality is. Low incomes on the other side tend to spur property-related crimes (burglary and all that) but reduce violence. Overall studies have shown very different effects of poverty, for different types of poverty: from income inequalities, to social exclusion and unemployment.

11.3.4 Unemployment – As a Community Problem

Unemployment means a person willing to work but unable to find a qualified job. Our country is facing many problems but one of the serious problem is of unemployment. Many graduates, doctors, engineers, scientist are

unemployed or working underemployed. Due to unemployment we are wasting our country's human resource. The unemployed rate in between age group 15- 29 has been increased since 2009-2010. According to the Global Employment Trends 2014 the unemployment rate has raised to 3.8%, last year it was 3.7%. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has said in the recent report that India has shown rise in the unemployment in the last two years. If the problem of unemployment is solved it will help in development of the country. With Population of **1.20 billion** in our country the unemployment rate is increasing day by day. The problem of unemployment is rising but still many industries are facing the problem of skilled candidate for their company. There is a boom of software companies, Outsourcing companies in India, but still facing the problem of unemployment.

Here are some of the reasons why there is unemployment in India

- ❖ There are employment opportunities in India, but the rising population problem creates the unemployment. If the population grows in the same rate the next generation will face more problems of unemployment. If there is vacancy for 1 position 100 or 1000 apply for the position and only one gets the job and others remain unemployed.
- ❖ Inflation
- ❖ Indians don't take jobs which are below their grades. Many find it difficult to work at the below qualification level job.
- ❖ Low wages or salary below the market rate.
- ❖ Many big industries look for the skilled candidate only, for their company.
- ❖ Recession
- ❖ Many Employers give preference to the experienced candidates only and not the fresher.
- ❖ Not enough or new jobs: As per the experience & analysis from Get SarkaiNaukri, number of new government jobs is decreasing every year. Government is not able to create enough jobs keeping in mind the Indian population.
- ❖ Slow business expansion
- ❖ Advanced Technology: Earlier for a task hundreds or thousand people were required to do a work but now due to the advanced technology only one person can do many people's work. With the advanced technology companies are hiring few persons to operate the machine. Give a command on computer and the work is done this has cut off the employment of many.
- ❖ Corruption: In Government sector and in some private sector people get the job by giving the bribe. Even though the candidate is not that qualified but if he gives the bribe he gets the job. So to get a government job give a bribe. The qualified candidate remains unemployed as no money to give the bribe.

Problems caused due to unemployment

- ❖ Unemployment and poverty goes side by side. The problem of unemployment gives rise to the problem of poverty.

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- ❖ Young people after a long time of unemployment find the wrong way to earn money.
- ❖ To get rid from the unemployment stress, they accept alcohol or drugs.
- ❖ Unemployed youths accept suicide as the last option of their life
- ❖ Lower economic growth
- ❖ Increase rate in Crimes. As the employed youth don't have anything to do they start doing robbery, murder etc.
- ❖ Health issues i.e it affects mentally as well as physically

11.3.5 Deciding to Solve Community Problems

Community Problem Solving is a teaching and learning strategy that helps students learn to participate actively in addressing local community concerns, with a view to creating a more sustainable future. There are eight major steps for guiding students through the process of Community Problem Solving, but they do not have to be followed in a strict order. For example, as student develop confidence in Community Problem Solving, the need to assess and develop their skills will diminish. And often, new issues for investigation will arise as you progress through the steps, requiring a recycling backwards and forwards through the steps. What is important is that the steps be used flexibly and be adapted to local circumstances, to your own students, and to your own approach to teaching.

1. Exploring Community Problem Solving

This first step involves providing students, teachers and school administrators with information about the nature and purpose of Community Problem Solving. Other community and educational groups who have used Community Problem Solving may be invited to explain the process and give examples of how it was used in their context. An important part of this step involves teachers and administrators consciously deciding to use Community Problem Solving as a teaching and learning strategy because it acknowledges the importance of students working in their local community.

2. Selecting problems

In this step the problem to be solved is chosen. Problems can be selected in many ways. For example, a tour of the school grounds or local community may provide the impetus for students to generate a list of problems they would like to investigate. Students could then decide on one problem, as a class, or a number of problems in small groups. An important consideration when selecting a problem is to ensure sufficient resources are available and that the problem is manageable within the time frame for the students involved. Students and teachers may need to consider questions such as:

- Why is this important to our community?
- Are my students able to tackle this problem?
- Do we have time to undertake the entire Community Problem Solving process? or should we choose a smaller problem?

3. Evaluating and developing student skills

Students will need to draw upon a range of problem solving, investigation and group work skills as they work through the Community Problem Solving process. Teachers should evaluate which skills are needed and check that their students have these skills before proceeding. They should

continuously monitor students skill levels and provide opportunities as part of classroom activities for ongoing skill development. The level of teacher guidance throughout the Community Problem solving process will depend on the students' past experiences with the process and the specific problem solving, group work and investigation skills of the students in this step. Teachers may need to consider questions such as:

- What skills do my students need to undertake Community Problem Solving?
- What kind of guidance do I need to provide?

4. Investigating the problem

This is the step where students explore the full scope of the problem. This includes understanding the current situation and the reasons why the problem developed. Teachers and students might consider questions such as:

- What is the current situation in our community and how significant is this to me, the local community, nation, and for the world?
- What changes have led to the development of the problem?
- Are there any conflicts of interest among groups in our community?
- How can decisions be made to resolve this issue?

5. Developing visions of alternative futures

In this very important step, teachers encourage students to develop visions of how they would like the current situation to look in the future. Students and teachers could consider questions such as:

- What are our visions for the future?
- What are the alternatives?
- Which vision do we prefer and why?

6. Planning actions

This step involves students developing an action plan to achieve their selected vision for the problem being investigated. An essential component of this step is the evaluation of the action and careful consideration of whether those actions will result in the desired changes. Teachers and students may need to consider questions such as:

- What changes will bring us closer to the vision of sustainable futures?
- What barriers must be overcome to allow these changes to take place?
- List the steps that need to be taken to make these changes.
Note: This is the plan of action
- How can this action plan be evaluated?

7. Taking actions

This is the step where the action plan is implemented by the students and teachers. In order for the Community Problem Solving process to be truly democratic, it is important that students are allowed to freely choose to take actions that address the community problem identified. These actions may be within their own lifestyles and families and/or in the wider community. Teachers and students may need to ask questions such as:

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- How will the planned actions solve the problem?
- What is the role of students in deciding on these actions?

8. Evaluating actions and changes

It is important that this step follows the action-taking phase. It is at this point that teachers and students review the actions and identify the changes that have taken place. They then compare these changes against their vision for the future for the community problem they have been working on. This evaluation may lead the groups to revise their vision from Step 5 or develop a revised action plan for Step 7. Students and teachers may need to consider questions such as:

- What actions did we take?
- What changes resulted?
- To what extent are these changes the same as in our vision?
- How were barriers overcome?
- What did we learn from Community Problem Solving?

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. A community can be a collection of
2. Unemployed youths accept as the last option of their life

11.4 SOCIAL DISABILITIES

A social disability can refer to any disorder that leads to the inability to make progress socially and emotionally meaning the impact of the disorder degrades a person's quality of life. Some social disabilities are recognized federally under the IDEA- they can include autism, other health impairment, intellectual disability, emotional disturbance, among others. When the impact is so great, an individual might qualify for services through a school district if they are school age, or if they are an adult, they may qualify for federal or state disability insurance to support any services they need to treat their disability and lead a productive life. The social model of disability is a way of viewing the world, developed by disabled people. The model says that people are disabled by barriers in society, not by their impairment or difference. Barriers can be physical, like buildings not having accessible toilets. Or they can be caused by people's attitudes to difference, like assuming disabled people can't do certain things. The social model helps us recognise barriers that make life harder for disabled people. Removing these barriers creates equality and offers disabled people more independence, choice and control.

11.4.1 Social Determinants of Health and Development

Social determinants" refer to broader social factors, such as income inequality or social exclusion, that lead to or influence health and development outcomes. In Section 4 of this chapter, for instance, a development worker in Mexico tells of realizing that one of the major causes of malnutrition in the area where he was working was not that there simply wasn't enough food.

Sharecropping farmers were able to grow enough to feed their families, but had to borrow seed from the landowner to plant their crops. The terms of the loan were that, for every litter of maize borrowed at planting time, three litters had to be repaid from the harvest. With this high interest rate, peasants went deeper and deeper into debt, and had to use more of their crop each year to pay the landowner. Without power, group solidarity, and influence, the farmers were unable to create conditions that assured the health and well-being of their families.

There is a great deal of research on the social determinants of health. Most of it points to three overarching factors:

Income inequality. Once a country has reached the point of development where most deaths come not from infectious diseases (tuberculosis, dysentery, cholera, malaria, flu, pneumonia, etc.), but from chronic diseases (heart disease, diabetes, cancer), the economic and social equality within the society is a greater determinant of death rates and average lifespan than the country's position with regard to others. The United States, for instance, lags behind Japan, Sweden, Canada, and many other less affluent countries in the life expectancy of its citizens. The difference seems to be the size of the gap between the most and least affluent segments of the society.

Social connectedness. Many studies indicate that "belonging" – whether to a large extended family, a network of friends, a social or volunteer organization, or a faith community – is related to longer life and better health, as well as to community participation.

Sense of personal or collective efficacy. This refers to people's sense of control over their lives. People with a higher sense or stronger history of efficacy tend to live longer, maintain better health, and participate more vigorously in civic life.

Many of the social determinants listed below are specific forms of or contributors to these three categories. At a community level, it may be difficult to influence income inequality directly, but a non-governmental or community-based organization may be able to approach it through addressing a particular issue. A small organization may be able to have more effect on social connectedness and the sense of efficacy, since collective action can influence both social ties and the experience of changing communities and systems.

The World Health Organization, in its publication *The Solid Facts*, recognizes the need to break these factors down into more manageable pieces. It lists ten factors that affect health and life expectancy, and advocates addressing each within a comprehensive program of social protection that addresses all of them within a society. These ten factors are:

The social gradient (extent of equity or the difference in wealth and opportunity between those with the most and those with the least)

- Stress
- Early life experience
- Social exclusion (the opposite of social connectedness)
- Work
- Unemployment
- Social support

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- Addiction
- Food
- Transport

The social determinants of a particular community health or development issue may be unique to a particular community or group, or may be part of the larger society. People from different immigrant cultures, different social classes, or with different levels of education might experience the same issue very differently because of different social factors.

There are three major ways in which social determinants may affect specific populations. These can also be viewed as levers – points of intervention – that can be used to address those social determinants and lessen their effects.

1. Differences in exposure. Certain population groups, because of economics, geography, or other factors, may be more likely than others to encounter particular health risks. People in poverty, for example, are likely to be exposed to higher levels of stress, economic uncertainty, and unhealthy conditions than their wealthier countrymen.

2. Differences in vulnerability. Because of their poverty, their exposure to stress and uncertainty, or other factors, those same population groups might find themselves more vulnerable than others to health problems. The inability to pay for regular health care or medical treatment increases the possibility of chronic illness. In the example of the village above, poor nutrition, as a result of poverty, could increase villagers’ vulnerability to water-borne disease, as would the inability to organize to finance a village well.

3. Differences in consequences. Differences in wealth, social standing, connectedness, and other factors can lead to very different outcomes where health issues are concerned. For a middle- or upper-class family in many countries, a minor health problem – missing a few days of work, paying a modest sum for treatment – might be just an annoyance. For a poor family, it might be the difference between a roof over their heads and homelessness, or between children attending school and dropping out to go to work. Discrimination, high stress levels, employment conditions, and other factors can result in disparities in health and health care among different groups.

The unemployment rate, for example, has a great influence on such issues as domestic violence, substance abuse, depression, or physical illness. Economic inequality affects people’s stress levels, exposure to violence and toxins, educational prospects, access to services, high-risk behaviour, and mortality rates

Check your progress – II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. A social disability can refer to any disorder that leads to the.....

4. Social determinants refer to

11.5 SOCIAL EXCLUSION

Social exclusion is defined as social process which involves denial of fair and equal opportunities to certain social groups in multiple spheres in society, resulting in the inability of individuals from excluded groups to participate in the basic political, economic and social functioning of the society. Social Exclusion is mainly a group concept, Amartya sen say the situation were some people are kept out, and were some people are being included and describes two situations as unfavourable exclusion and unfavourable inclusion. The acts of exclusion which excludes people from having an access and entitlement to certain social groups that are based on the recognized and accepted principles, rules, norms, practices of fairness can be considered as unfair exclusion, similarly the inclusions which provide access and entitlement to persons from certain social groups but on different terms and conditions can be termed as unfair inclusion. (sen) there is a differentiation in individual exclusion and group exclusion. A groups which are wholly or partially excluded on the base of their identity from full participation in society and having a two dimension as “societal relations” causing exclusion and their “out comes” causing deprivation.

Social exclusion is a form of discrimination. It occurs when people are wholly or partially excluded from participating in the economic, social and political life of their community, based on their belonging to a certain social class, category or group. In India, social exclusion occurs on the basis of identities including caste, ethnicity, religion, gender and disability.

The three features of social exclusion

Social exclusion as a concept has three distinguishable features:

1. It involves culturally-defined social categories, with associated cultural perceptions, values and norms that shape social interaction.
2. It is embedded in social relations.
3. It affects people’s rights and entitlements, denying them the opportunities they need to attain and maintain a universally acceptable standard of living and to fulfil their potential.

Social exclusion occurs to different degrees. It can mean the complete denial of access to social services, such as the refusal of being treated at a hospital. Alternatively, it can take the form of selective inclusion, where socially excluded groups receive differential treatment, such as being required to pay different prices for goods and services. Sometimes exclusion is deliberate and explicit – for example, when people from a certain social background are denied access to a particular facility. Sometimes it can be implicit and unintentional, and is simply a result of people adhering to ingrained norms and values, and established forms of social interaction.

11.5.1 Social Norms of Acceptance of Particular Behaviours

Social connectedness and the cohesion of the community have been shown to have a direct relationship to good health and lower mortality rates. These factors can also encourage civic participation in changing conditions that affect group goals. Social exclusion can be the result of prejudice, which results in different access to health care, education, or other services. Social connectedness and the cohesion of the community have been shown to have a direct

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relationship to good health and lower mortality rates. These factors can also encourage civic participation in changing conditions that affect group goals.

CULTURAL FACTORS

There are many elements of culture that might have a bearing on social inclusion, efficacy, and income inequality.

- Gender roles in different cultures may lead to differences in opportunities for men and women, and to disparities in nutrition, health, education, and life opportunities for their children as well.
- Food preferences in different cultures may have profound health effects. For centuries, for instance, the Japanese ate a diet consisting largely of rice, vegetables, and fish, and, at least partly as a result, experienced fewer heart health problems than the meat-and-potato eaters in the United States.
- Religion can have profound effects on both health and development issues.
- Attitudes toward mainstream culture can influence everything from medical care to whether or not high school students can attend dances. This, in turn, affects the type and amount of health care received, the sense of connectedness within a community, and many other factors.
- Language barriers can cut people off from health care and other services, make it difficult for them to find and keep decent jobs, and affect their children’s education.

POLITICS

It is probably fair to say that all community issues are political to some degree. If a factory is poisoning town wells with its effluent, for example, local officials are faced with the choice of not dealing with the actual cause of the problem (the dumping of waste) and endangering citizens’ health, or addressing the dumping and endangering citizens’ jobs. Politicians with larger constituencies, using poll data, may pander to what they perceive as people’s selfishness and prejudice, passing legislation or instituting policies that discriminate against one group or another, or fly in the face of the public interest. Even honest differences of political opinion – over whether the government should be responsible for providing social services or not, for instance – can have enormous consequences in the community.

Check your progress – III
Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.
b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.
5. Exclusion is deliberate and
6.can have profound effects on both health and development issues.

11.6 GROUP CONFLICTS

India is characterized by more ethnic and religious groups than most other countries of the world. Aside from the much noted 2000-odd castes, there are eight "major" religions, 15-odd languages spoken in various dialects

in 22 states and nine union territories, and a substantial number of tribes and sects.

Groups are fundamental to human life. People organize their lives around group identities and derive not only material but also symbolic benefits from being members of groups. Unfortunately, there is also a strong tendency for conflict, prejudice, and violence to occur between groups. *Intergroup conflict* has therefore been the focus of intense study, and this review provides an overview of the many strands of research on the topic. Research has shown a pervasive tendency for relations between groups (i.e., intergroup relations) to be conflict-prone, and for people to treat and view members of their own groups (i.e. in-groups) more favourably than members of out-groups. There are multiple causes of this propensity for intergroup conflict and in-group bias. However, the two chief causes of conflict are the pervasive and automatic tendency of people to categorize themselves and others in terms of in-group–out-group divisions and the role that in-groups play in guiding people’s responses to threats of all kinds. Once conflict exists between two groups, many social and psychological processes come into play that tend to maintain and escalate conflicts once they have begun. Although intergroup conflict seems inevitable, there are also reasons for optimism. Decades of research now provide multiple means of improving intergroup relations, and new research is focused on how to build social movements to prevent conflict and prejudice.

Thus, although intergroup conflict remains a source of much oppression, fear, and violence in the world, these negative outcomes are not inevitable. Intergroup conflict arises when two or more workgroups of any type clash or disagree with each other – but it isn’t always about personality differences. In a nutshell, such a conflict develops when at least one person in a group behaves inappropriately, feels rejected or offended or perceives opposition of any sort from at least one person on another team or side. It’s no secret that this type of strife is ever-present between religious groups and even countries that disagree with or develop a dislike or hatred for each other. In the business world, intergroup conflicts can arise between various levels of employees or management or can flare up when workers naturally gravitate to each other, forming an in-group and causing a divide that offends the out-group.

Like the causes of war between countries, upsets can trigger intergroup conflict in organizations. For starters, workplace disputes or confrontations between groups might stem from misconception, disagreements, intercultural differences, poor negotiations, poor social exchange, a perception of unfairness or various other circumstances or negative types of interaction. And we all know what happens when one person perceives a conflict – real or not. Others often see the conflict as well and then feel pressured or obligated to join forces. Or, they become empowered and eager to fight the imagined, or actual, injustice. The gender factor can play a role at work, such as when men or women flock together out of a feeling of superiority. On the other hand, each gender group might band together if harassment is a hidden or overlooked problem in the organization. It isn’t always about disagreements or injustices. Sometimes people form groups naturally, due to circumstances, preferences or differences, such as culture, gender or personality. But with

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separation, conflict often follows. A lot of what we understand about the effects of intergroup conflict comes from studies and reports, but who hasn't witnessed it first-hand? As many of us know, if a serious issue between two or more groups of employees is not defused early, it can bring down company morale or cause an offended person – and maybe her supporters – to bad-mouth the company or quit. In turn, such instability can cause unhealthy financial stumbling, a poor reputation or other devastating consequences for the company. Fear, mistrust and resentment are just a few of the emotions stirred up by intergroup conflict, depending on the context and severity of the issue. Grudges can develop when higher-ups favour a competing group or member. Guilt might consume people who allow a team member to steal an idea from another group if no one speaks up. As for a slighted group that had a great idea taken from them, they may feel anger, embarrassment and finger-pointing can arise. The consequences of healthy, stress-related conflicts often include company pride, strengthened relationships between opposing teams and team members and the desire to go all out for the employer. On the other hand, unhealthy stressors generate group-wide negativity, relationship breakdown and lower productivity. Stress caused by a higher-up who favours one team over the other could spark jealousy or a feeling of unfairness in the "unloved" team, bringing down their morale and productivity.

Check your progress – 1V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

- 7. There is also a strong tendency for conflict, prejudice, andto occur between groups.
- 8. Stress caused by a higher-up who favours one team over the other could spark

11.7 INTER-CASTE CONFLICTS

In the Caste hierarchy the Scheduled Castes are ascribed the lowest status. They are considered to be ‘unholy’, ‘inferior’ and ‘low’ and are looked down upon by the other castes. They have been suffering from the stigma of ‘untouchability’. Their very touch is considered to be polluting for the higher caste people. The burning problem facing the country's about one fifth of the population is that of the problem of untouchability. It is one of the serious social problems of the Indian society. It is the greatest blot on humanity. It is a stigma attached to some people because of their ritually impure status and are of eternal source of pollution to others. Untouchability implies those disabilities which are imposed upon the scheduled castes by the higher castes.

The untouchable castes are those who suffer from various social, religious, economic and political disabilities many of which are traditionally prescribed and socially enforced by the higher castes. It is estimated that this practice is 271 rooted in the socio-cultural and religious life of the people of India for over two thousand years. It is believed that untouchability was born around 400 A.D. No one knows the origin of untouchability. All the existing theories are based on conjectures. It may be said that the scheduled castes are

socially, culturally and economically distinct from the rest of the population. They were unlawfully brought under the fold of Hinduism and were also reduced to assume the position of untouchables over a period of time. It may be stated that untouchability cannot exist in the absence of either the higher castes or the scheduled castes since it is practised by one group i.e. higher castes over the other i.e. scheduled castes. It is the state of mind in which the higher castes believe strongly that the scheduled castes are unworthy of touching. It is the ways and means by which both the higher castes and the scheduled castes are constantly reminded that the later are unworthy for the former not only for touching but also for even approaching. It is the disease which has corrupted the minds not only of higher castes but also of the scheduled castes and, as a result, they do not look at people objectively, rationally and on the basis of merit as fellow human beings. It directs their minds to determine the status of each individual whom they interact with only on the basis of the particular caste they belong to. They, therefore, accord superior status to the higher castes and lower status to the scheduled castes.

The reduction in social distance between the higher castes and scheduled castes is an important indicator of social mobility. Educational advancement, employment opportunities, participation in social and religious ceremonies, participation in socio-cultural activities, inter-personal interactions, inter-dinning inter-caste marriages, etc. play a significant role in reducing the social distance and bridging the gap between the higher and lower castes. The Harijans were forbidden from taking up to education during the early days. Sanskrit education was denied for them. Public schools and other educational institutions were closed for them. Even today majority of them are illiterate and ignorant. Prevention from the use of Public Places. For a long time the untouchable castes were not allowed to use public places and avail of civic facilities such as—village wells, ponds, temples, hostels, hotels, schools, hospitals, lecture halls, dharamashalas, choultries, etc. They were forced to live on the outskirts of the towns and villages during the early days. Even today they are segregated from others spatially. In South India, restrictions were imposed on the mode of construction of their houses, types of dresses and patterns of their ornamentation. Some lower caste people were not allowed to carry umbrellas, to wear shoes or golden ornaments and to milk cows. They were prohibited from covering the upper part of their body. The services of barbers, washer men and tailors were refused to them.

The first step in dealing with conflict is identifying the specific cause of the conflict. There are several common causes of conflict:

- A lack of common understanding
- Poor communication skills
- Unclear or unfair expectations
- Power plays and manipulations

Being able to identify the specific cause of the conflict you're dealing with will help you better overcome these challenges and remain effective in your organization.

Check your progress - V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

9. Which of the factors plays a significant role in reducing the social distance and bridging the gap between the higher and lower castes?

10. What is the first step in dealing with the conflict management?

11.8 LET US SUM UP

This unit introduces about various Community Problems. In this unit we have discussed Social Disabilities. Social Exclusion have also touched upon briefly. Group Conflicts have been discussed. Inter-caste Conflicts are discussed in detail

11.9 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Give the reason for various Community Problems
2. Explain how will you act as a change maker in your community
3. Discuss the Social Determinants of Health and Development
4. Describe the Group Conflicts.

11.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. People
2. suicide
3. Inability to make progress socially and emotionally
4. Income inequality or social exclusion
5. Explicit
6. Religion
7. Violence
8. Jealousy
9. Educational advancement, employment opportunities, participation in social and religious ceremonies, participation in socio-cultural activities, inter-personal interactions, inter-dinning inter-caste marriages, etc. play a significant role in reducing the social distance and bridging the gap between the higher and lower castes.
10. Identifying the specific cause of the conflict

11.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT- XII NATIONAL PROBLEMS

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 - 12.8.2 EXTREMISM
 - 12.8.2.1 Definitions Of extremism
 - 12.8.2.2 Causes of Extremism
 - 12.8.2.3 Types of Extremism
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 - 12.8.2.5 Ways to resolve issue of extremism

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12.8.2.6 Government initiative to decrease extremism

12.9 Let Us Sum Up

12.10 Unit- End- Exercises

12.11 Answer to Check Your Progress

12.12 Suggested Readings

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12.1 INTRODUCTION

In this unit start with the national problem of Illiteracy. Illiteracy is one of the biggest problems that India is facing in contemporary world. Illiteracy is the mother of various other issues like poverty, population explosion, unemployment. The majority of the population in India is still illiterate which is hampering the progress. Next we look into the causes and effect of poverty. You will learn Unemployment. You will study Ethnic/Group Conflicts. You will study about Regionalism and Extremism elaborately.

12.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- know the knowledge about Poverty and Unemployment
- Identify Illiteracy
- gain the knowledge about Ethnic/Group Conflicts
- Identify Regionalism and Extremism

12.3 NATIONAL PROBLEMS

Any issue related to the country that which requires a serious concern, transformation, change and modification should be treated as the National issue. Issues that hinder the nation's growth and development are basically the hurdles and problems which should be dealt immediately. There are various factors which are responsible to determine the nation's progress. A nation has diversified spheres and determinants any problem of which may influence the nation in a big way. Whenever any problem arises in those areas it directly affects the growth and development of the nation and becomes a national issue. Hence to avoid and to rectify the national issues, the problems of those spheres should be rectified. Society, government, economy, culture, security, environment, judiciary, infrastructure, education, politics, governance, health care system, feminine issues, territorial issues, energy issues, is such areas of concern which need to be looked after very carefully, because any problem aroused in these areas would surely affect the nation and its progress. These are the important determinants of the development of any nation and so for the India. Therefore it is deliberately essential for a country to keep a watch over these factors to avoid hurdles and obstructions in its way of growth.

SOCIAL ISSUES: society is an indispensable part of a country. It is a framework and works as a foundation of the same. It represents the people in the country. A society facilitates code of conduct, rules and regulations, patterns and cultures of the people. It can be understood as an internal infrastructure that helps the people of diverse cultures, behaviors and mentality to accommodate to each other and to share their common interests. Issues or problems that relate to the society and have a direct or indirect impact on the

same are called as social issues. Social issues have a deep impact on a nation; there are many social taboos or serious issues still persisting in the Indian society which cease the social progress of India. In this modern era Indian society still reflects a menial picture of its framework and system that directly jinx the country's pride and prestige. The Social issues are Drug abuse, Gender discrimination, Crime against children and juvenile, Beggary, Untouchability and Casticism, Khap Panchayat.

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POLITICAL ISSUES: Since 1947 India has witnessed many political and ethnic upheavals but it is a commendable thing on the Indian Government's part that it has survived till now. Severe problems like the partition of the subcontinent, religious tensions, refugee problems, wars in Hyderabad and Kashmir, communist insurrections, general dislocation in the transfer of power and the assassination of Gandhi strained all the energies and resources and preoccupied the people for an independent, democratic nation. However the immediate issues were resolved but then there are long term problems as well, the nation and Indian politics have to face. In a broad perspective these problems are fourfold—the problem of national unity, cultural integration, fulfilling the expectations and the problem of political stability. Besides these following are the current political issues India is facing: Ethnic conflicts, Regional assertiveness, Separatist Movements, Kashmir Conflict.

ECONOMIC ISSUES: Indian economy has lived a long life of growth and achievements so far. What else would be more appreciable for the Indian economy than to be represented as the fourth-largest economies in the world by purchasing power parity (PPP) and the ninth-largest economy in the world by nominal GDP? Economic experts and various studies conducted in economics assumed that India and China would rule the economic world in the 21st century. India has been asserted to become the third largest economy in the world with 14.3% of share of the global economy by 2015 and to become the growth driver and the 'third pole' by the year 2035. However Indian economy is all set ready to touch the heights but there are still a few issues which need to be looked after and need certain advancements in order to confirm the further economic growth, more employment opportunities and to make the economy globally competitive. Following are the economic issues which the Indian economy surely needs to be solved out: Inflation, Weak Infrastructure, Widened disparity between the poor and rich, Illiteracy, Overgrowth and shortcomings of the Public sector.

CULTURAL ISSUES: the term culture stands for the various patterns of lifestyles, attitudes, and behaviors, code of conduct, customs, traditions, beliefs and practices which the people of a society tend to follow and implement. A culture is a unique commixture of various beliefs and practices that represents the people of the society in the form of an Identity. Culture also represents the materialistic aspect which means even the kind of commodities and materials people tend to use in a society that also represents the culture of that society. Every country possesses its own unique culture that depicts the way of the lifestyle, the attitudes and behavior of the people residing in it. Each culture has a significance attached to it. In the Indian context, Indian culture is versatile since it is an amalgamation of diversified trends, values,

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traditions, fashions, customs, languages, cuisines, religions, beliefs and practices. But despite of all this uniqueness Indian culture is now running into a struggle to survive in the era of globalization and modernization. Indian culture has undergone many changes and modification and has been facing many challenges which are as follows: Struggle with Western cultures, Communalism, Diminished Values.

HEALTH ISSUES: health is wealth and when we are talking about the progress and growth of a nation the health of its people plays a significant role. Health doesn't only refer to the perfect physical care and hygienic conditions but rather it stands for a holistic approach that includes physical, mental, psychological and emotional health. To be a progressive country, the people should be enthusiastic, physically sound and mentally stable. Therefore the 'public health' is one of the major areas that a country should deal with carefully. Public health includes the major areas of concern which have to be taken care of while dealing with the health issues of the people. Those areas of concern are; water facilities, sanitation, and hygiene, nutrition and medical facilities. Today public health has become one of the major issues of India. There are many flaws at various levels, facilities are not being provided well and also people aren't able to avail them properly. India is now days facing gigantic health issues which are as follows : Malnutrition, Degraded condition of females and high infant mortality rate, Drinking water, Medical Sector, Sanitation, Infectious Diseases.

WOMEN ISSUES: however women make an essential part of the human life but here in the Indian context the survival of womanhood has not been less than a struggle. It was only during the Vedic ancient times that the women were worshipped as Goddess and had a prestigious status in the society but during the medieval period especially during the times of Mughal's women were began to be treated as Daasi, devadasi and sexual servants who used to provide services to the kings and emperors. In the post independence era women continued to face many problems, exploitations and violence in the Indian society. The present picture of women in the contemporary India has not been changed in fact it has now become worse than earlier. Violence and exploitation have suppressed the value of the women in the Indian society. Following are the problems Indian women are facing in the present society: Domestic Violence, Rape, sexual harassment and Molestation, Female Foeticide, Illegal Trafficking and Dowry Death.

EDUCATIONAL ISSUES: education is one of the basic activities of people in all human societies. It is fundamentally a powerful tool that determines the destiny of human beings. It has immense prolific contributions to make towards society and a nation. Education in very simple terms means to 'bring forth' or to 'bring up' the hidden potential, calibre and talents of a person. Its role is not merely to impart knowledge to the pupil about some subjects but to develop in him/her those habits and attitudes with the help of which he may efficiently face the challenges of the his life. Education also helps a person to grow physically, mentally, socially, emotionally and spiritually. Education has a major role in the continuity of cultural tradition in the society. Education helps in continuing the existence of culture by transmitting it to younger generations. While talking about the education in India, it is much regretful to

say that it has not been planned and organized properly hence being a system it possesses many flaws and weaknesses. Illiteracy has been a big menace for the progress of India. Following are the problems in the Indian Education system: Meagre Budgetary Allotment, Influence of Foreign Education System, Inadequate Employment Potential and Urban Biased Education System.

CORRUPTION: corruption as a phenomenon is both universal and historical. It is one of the social evils found in all the societies of the world. Unfortunately, India is regarded as one of the countries where corruption has become very much widespread during the recent years. The dictionary defines corruption as “an inducement to wrong by bribery or other unlawful means, a departure from what is pure and correct”. Corruption has become deep-rooted in India and its growth is unhindered and unchecked. Corruption involves the abuse of power associated with a public or public life. It involves the practice of receiving bribe not only for getting wrong things done but also getting the right things done at the right time. It has percolated through almost all the fields of our social life. No part of our public life is spared from it. A large number of public servants are guilty of either practicing or supporting corruption. It is one of the factors that have contributed to the degradation of the Indian Politics. Tall claims made by political leaders to fight out corruption have proved to be shallow. Corruption is so much widely spread that businessmen, contractors, bureaucrats, industrialists, journalists, entrepreneurs, teachers, doctors and moreover politicians all come under suspicion. Following are the causes that lead to the increase in India: Economic Insecurity, High Rate of Income Tax, Less Salary to Government Servants, Presence of Black Money and System of Democracy and Modernization.

ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES: environmental pollution has become one of the biggest problems for India. The developed countries are engaged in abusing the limited natural resources while the developing countries are tapping the resources for their existence and to achieve some developments. In all the cases however natural environment is the target of attack. Our ecosystem is rapidly threatened by commercial exploitation, growing population demands and industrial pollution. Rivers and oceans, forests and plain lands, grasslands and wetlands are fighting for their survival. Pollution is causing a great danger to human existence. Modern ecologists in India have pointed out some important factors of environmental pollution such as—human population explosion, rapid industrialization, deforestation, unplanned urbanization, scientific and technological advancement, etc. Air pollution is the greatest threat to our health in the coming future. Air pollution is affecting the health of Indians adversely. It is causing diseases like heart diseases, lung diseases, high blood pressure, nervous debility, eye sore, throat irritation, chronic bronchitis, respiratory allergies etc. It is affecting the weather adversely, raising the temperature, reducing the humidity and adversely affecting the rainfall.

Man is living in an increasing noisy atmosphere today. The previous 20th century has been described as the Century of Noise. Here in India due to the over urbanization and industrialization and technology advancement there has been a rapid increase in industries, factories, automobiles, and air-crafts gadgets etc. which cause a tremendous noise in the atmosphere. Noise levels are particularly acute near railway junctions, traffic roundabouts, bus terminals

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and airports. Under the influence of modernization and westernization use of gadgets, television, radio, mobiles has been increased. Noise pollution or environmental noise is one the new killers of our Indian society. Noise pollution is damaging man's hearing ability, and causing loss of mental peace of the people those results in emotional upsets.

Industrial wastes, agricultural wastes, radioactive wastes, domestic waste, street and market refuse are polluting not only the soil but also air and water. Due to the excessive use of chemical and fertilizers our land is losing its natural capacity to support growth of plants and trees. Land is also becoming the breeding ground of disease-bearing bacteria.

AGRICULTURAL ISSUES: India has been a global agrarian country. It is the world's second largest country that produces rice, cotton, wheat, sugarcane, vegetables and fruits. India is the largest producer of milk, pulses and spices. Almost about 40% of our national income is obtained through agriculture and more than 66.5% of the people still depend on agriculture. However the share of agriculture in the Indian economy has been declined to less than 15% due to the increased growth rates of service and industrial sector but this sector continues to play an important role in India's economy. Currently, there is a need to create a productive and sustainable agricultural sector because of certain reasons; about three-quarters of Indian families are dependent upon rural incomes, about 70% of the Indian poor families are found in rural areas and lastly because India's food security is solely dependent upon the production of cereal crops, fruits, vegetables to meet the demand of the growing population. Following are the current issues that the Indian agricultural sector is facing: The increased population pressure, Meagre irrigation facilities, The agricultural sector is facing the problem of depletion of soil fertility, Agrarian classes face the problem of land holdings, Wastage of food grains.

TERROISM & NAXALISM: terrorism is a social stigma of Indian society and it is not something just arisen in fact terrorism has its roots deeply rooted in the different societies of the world for long ancient times. It is just the matter of time that now it has caught a rapid speed in deteriorating the world's peace and harmony. Terrorism is not only subjected to the United States but it is taking place all over the world in different forms and shapes. India is facing extreme adverse outcomes of the acts of terrorism. India has lost many innocent lives in the past recent years that unwillingly and unknowingly became the prey of the inhumane acts of the terrorist. There many few major reasons for why this terrorism is existing in the society today.

Naxalites have created a strong social base for themselves by attracting the people who have vulnerable livelihood, farmers, labourers, fishermen and bamboo cutters. Due to the government failure to ensure food security to the tribal people then their alienation and also displacement by many projects are also major reasons for the spread of Naxalism. There is a constant problem of poverty and unemployment in the regions and government has failed to look after these problems. On the basis of caste system naxalities organized the marginal and landless farmers to take on the rich landlords. Naxalism is the biggest threat for the future of our country. The Naxalites highlight the social,

political and economic weaknesses of India that make it more vulnerable to the threats from outside.

GOVERNANCE ISSUES: governance means the implementation of those processes by which the rulers are selected; decisions are made and finally applied. It includes the processes by which the administration of the country runs. However governance is to be defined as a state centric system but in the recent years its description has become broader that includes non state actors like public institutions , market forces, civil society, and international donor agencies which play significant role in the decision making and implementation of the processes. United Nations Development Program defines governance as “the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage the country’s affair at all levels. It comprises mechanism, processes and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences”. While talking about the concept of governance in the Indian context; it surely needs to be improved. It refers to the positive responsiveness of the state institutions and the quality of governmental functioning for an effective deliverance of public services with having least discrimination, respect for human right and with tremendous integrity. Good governance ensures that political, social and economic priorities are based on broad consensus in society and that the voice of the poorest and the most vulnerable are heard in decision making over the allocation of development resources”. In Indian context good governance faces following problems: Accountability, The rule of Law and Corruption

Every problem has a solution and requires to be solved. National issues whatever and how many they are they seriously need to be solved out and best steps should be taken in the path of rectifying their status and eradicating the unwanted elements of the system. National issues need to be resolved with the collective efforts of the society, the citizens, law enforcement agencies, social institution and finally with a Good Governance. India is a great country that has survived long despite of various conflicts and outbreaks. No country is perfect we need to work out for the perfection and growth. India has a bright future and being the Indians we need to brighten up our visions and perceptions towards our nation.

Check your progress - I

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. What are the Social issues?
2. What are the health issues facing in India?

12.4 ILLITERACY

12.4.1 MEANING OF ILLITERACY

Illiteracy is a state whereby one is unable to read and write. In its simplest form, it can be defined as lack of any or sufficient education. A person who is unable to sign and unable to read and write, in simple sentences is called illiterate.

Sometimes people who have had very basic education also experience challenges in reading and writing.

Illiteracy can also mean ignorance or the lack of knowledge in a specific subject. For example, a person may have gone to school but does not know how to operate a computer. Such an individual has no literacy in computer and is known as computer illiterate. Nearly every job advertised requires one to have computer literacy due to the digitization of most processes at the workplace.

A mistake in reading or writing that is seen to be characteristic of an illiterate person is also referred to as illiteracy. For this definition, a speech or letter that has several errors can be said to be full of illiteracies.

Functional illiteracy, on the other hand, is used to describe a situation where a person has writing and reading skills considered inadequate to perform employment duties that demand reading and writing skills that go beyond the basic level.

In India, illiteracy is basically categorized as wide gaps between rural and urban populations. The majority of the people are illiterate especially in rural areas, where people are unaware about the ill effects of being illiterate and moreover facilities are also not ample. The enrolment level of students in primary and secondary grades is very low in rural areas. In spite of various schemes and initiatives by the Government to promote literacy the results are not satisfactory.

The challenges of illiteracy cut across:

- ✓ Gender
- ✓ Age
- ✓ Race
- ✓ Geographical location
- ✓ Cultures

12.4.2 DEFINITIONS OF LITERACY

Traditional definitions of literacy consider the ability to "read, write, spell, listen, and speak."

The standards for what constitutes "literacy" vary, depending on social, cultural, and political context. For example, a basic literacy standard in many societies is the ability to read the newspaper. Increasingly, many societies require literacy with computers and other digital technologies.

Being literate is highly correlated with wealth, but it is important not to conflate the two. Increases in literacy do not necessarily cause increases in wealth, nor does greater wealth necessarily improve literacy.

Some have argued that the definition of literacy should be expanded. For example, in the United States, the National Council of Teachers of English and the International Reading Association have added "visually representing" to the traditional list of competencies. Similarly, Literacy Advance offers the following definition:

Literacy is the ability to read, write, speak and listen, and use numeracy and technology, at a level that enables people to express and understand ideas and opinions, to make decisions and solve problems, to

achieve their goals, and to participate fully in their community and in wider society. Achieving literacy is a lifelong learning process.

Along these lines, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has defined literacy as the "ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, to develop their knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in their community and wider society."

12.4.3 TYPES OF ILLITERACY

Ensuring a high level of reading literacy has become a priority of many governments around the world. However, what is often forgotten is that there is more than one type of illiteracy, and not all are addressed during formal education. Many of these can be just as debilitating as an inability to read, but go unnoticed because the wider community is unaware of their existence. A few, such as scientific and functional illiteracy, have even resulted in death for some unfortunate people. These are a global problem because adults generally express some degree of at least one. Work out how many you might have.

1. Agricultural Illiteracy



This is the ability to understand information regarding agriculture. For those who work as farmers, this is rarely a problem, but to a city-dweller, reading that "90% of farmland was lost due to drought" might not seem a serious problem due to an utter lack of understanding of how farming works. People who are agriculturally illiterate fail to understand how important agriculture is, how dependent we all are on it, and make statements like "lack of farmland never causes famines, it's just farmers being unreasonable and complaining" or "if they can grow this food overseas, then we can grow it here just as easily."

2. Computer Illiteracy



Computer illiteracy is a specific form of technological illiteracy. It is the lack of ability to use computers at a basic level, often despite being shown how to use them. Being unable to turn a computer on, thinking that a mouse needs to be fed, or trying to click by snapping one's fingers are real examples of computer illiteracy. People who are computer illiterate, an

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increasingly disabling trait in modern society, say things like “I’ll ring you on your email number” and “I deleted the internet. How do I fix it?”

3. Critical Illiteracy



This form of illiteracy is where someone is able read text and to understand its overall meaning, but lacks the ability to think about it critically and consider the possibility of unreliable or biased information. Gullible people often have critical illiteracy. The statement “all people who were democratic in the nineteenth century are now dead, so democracy kills people!” is taken as fact, and the underlying political agenda or the actuality that the data does not support said agenda is missed. Critical illiteracy is taken advantage of by many forms of media to present opinions as fact.

4. Cultural Illiteracy



Everyone belongs to a culture of some sort. Cultural illiteracy is a lack of familiarity with one’s culture. This often becomes apparent when common sayings are misunderstood, or when references to folklore are completely missed. Although we are all culturally illiterate to many other cultures, those who are illiterate of their own culture lack a feeling of comfort when surrounded by what should be familiar memes. A British person thinking that “porky-pies” require pastry, an Australian thinking that “bogans” are from Bougainville, or a Chinese thinking that “Buddha jumps over the wall” actually involves Buddha are strong examples.

5. Ecological Illiteracy



No matter how far we try to remove ourselves from the natural world, we are still dependent on the Earth’s resources. Ensuring that environments are maintained in turn helps us maintain our own way of living. Ecological illiteracy is the inability to understand this, and the belief that we are not actually dependent on the Earth. People who feel this way are quick to damage the environment for pleasure, and make statements like “the Earth can support as many humans as we want; population control is unnecessary” and “recycling is a waste of time.”

6. Emotional Illiteracy



People who are emotionally illiterate are unable to properly understand the emotions of themselves and of others. They often do not realize when they are behaving erratically due to anger or stress, and thus are less likely to recognize and stop destructive behaviours. They are poor at interpreting the emotions of others and often attribute laughing or crying as deliberate attempts to annoy. These people often have trouble expressing them and seem to respond oddly or even inappropriately in some situations. A person who laughs hysterically when they hear a friend has died, despite feeling sad, may be emotionally illiterate.

7. Financial Illiteracy



People who feel overwhelmed when the topic of budgets comes up may suffer from some degree of financial illiteracy. These include people who spend money irresponsibly, such as using a week's pay to buy a video game when bills are due, or not saving money for future hardships. Frighteningly, many adults when surveyed state that they are financially literate, yet are unable to solve simple finance problems, showing that many suffer from a false sense of security. Although the level varies between countries, between 30% and 50% of adults are financially illiterate, and is a strong predictor of future poverty.

8. Functional Illiteracy



Conservative estimates state that 20% of all adults are functionally illiterate. This means that they can read or hear words and understand their meanings, but cannot properly comprehend the meaning of a sentence as a whole, and are unaware that they lack this perception. At an extreme level, the words in “beware of the dog” are individually understood, but the meaning of required cautiousness is lost. At a more common level, a statement like “genetics is bad” shows that someone lacks a basic understanding of what genetics is yet thinks their knowledge comprehensive enough to make decisive statements.

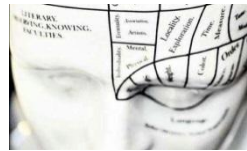
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9. Health Illiteracy



Health illiteracy is the inability to understand basic healthcare facts, causing an inability to make good health decisions. In developed countries about 10% of adults have health illiteracy. These people are eager to believe audacious health claims, despite a massive amount of evidence to the contrary, and will undergo dramatic and often dangerous lifestyle changes as a result. Unfortunately this often affects their trusting children. Beliefs such as “doctors are paid by corporations to kill patients,” “immunizations do more harm than good,” and “vegan diets are healthy for newborns” have lead and continue to cause poor health and even death.

10. Information Illiteracy



Information illiteracy is the inability to realize when one’s own knowledge or understanding has reached its limit. The information illiterate is the person who argues despite having been proven wrong, or the person who does not realize they are making a fool of themselves when speaking to a room of experts about a topic they themselves know little about. Information illiterate people are unable to see their own intellectual faults. It has been said that a truly educated person is aware of the limits of their knowledge, and, sadly, over 60% of adults have some degree of information illiteracy.

11. Media Illiteracy



We rely on a variety of media to provide us with useful information about the wider world. Unfortunately, in order to maximize profits, or to simply stay in business, many media companies sensationalize situations to attract a larger audience. As a result, much of what we hear has been skewed a certain amount. A specific type of critical illiteracy, media illiteracy causes people to interpret everything heard in the media as fact. Statements like “I heard it on

TV, it must be true!” and “the news would never lie” are signs of media illiteracy

12. Mental Health Illiteracy



Mental health illiteracy is a type of health illiteracy. It is an unawareness or misunderstanding of mental disorders, making problems difficult to recognize or treat. This is the husband who interprets his wife’s talk of suicide as meaningless, or the mother who thinks her son’s eating disorder is merely a phase. Negative and incorrect media portrayals of mental disorders and psychiatric care make this illiteracy common. A widespread but much milder expression of mental health illiteracy is the belief that “shyness isn’t a normal mental state, and if you overcome it you’ll be happier.”

13. Numerical Illiteracy



Numerical illiteracy, or a lack of numeracy, is a lack of the basic arithmetic skills that are required in day-to-day life. Simple tasks, like calculating 50% off a price, are very difficult for numerically illiterate people. Although related to statistical illiteracy, numerical illiteracy includes not noticing anything amiss when a merely buying a liter of juice is charged at over one hundred dollars due to a machine error, and may find themselves the victims of extortion without ever realizing it. Although this extreme version of the illiteracy is rare, over half of all adults suffer from mild numerical illiteracy.

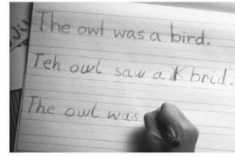
14. Racial Illiteracy



Racial illiteracy is the inability to understand issues connected with race and racism. A student claiming that a teacher failed him purposely “because he’s black” may be suffering from racial illiteracy. Similarly, people who hold incorrect or generalizing beliefs about races also suffer from racial illiteracy. The damaging stereotypical views that “all Asians are smart” or “all white people are rich” are both expressions of not only prejudice and ignorance, but of racial illiteracy.

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15. Reading and Writing Illiteracy

This is what most people think of when they hear the word “illiteracy.” This is the basic inability to understand or produce written information. There are several degrees of illiteracy, such as understanding individual letters but not whole words, understanding some words but not enough to understand a sentence, and not recognizing letters or words at all. Through more widely-available education, world illiteracy has more than halved in the last fifty years. This means that even people living in the poorest countries enjoy better lives as they are able to read medicine instructions or avoid drinking water signposted as “poisonous.”

16. Scientific Illiteracy

Science is a carefully built framework of all known truths to humanity. If a scientific hypothesis is disproved, it is either altered or discarded, and thus up-to-date science is never wrong. Science is self-correcting and reflects the culmination of all knowledge at any point in time. Sadly, 75% of adults are scientifically illiterate. These people make statements like “people who drive expensive cars live longer, so if I buy a nice car I’ll live longer too,” even though the car does not cause a long life span but rather both are probably caused by a higher socioeconomic status. Other illiterate statements include “science has proven it to be good for you” and “it’s only a scientific theory, it might not be true.”

17. Statistical Illiteracy

People who are statistically illiterate fail to grasp that statistics can be presented in ways to mislead. These people feel that if numbers or data support a particular idea, then it must have merit. Closely linked to critical and numerical illiteracy, a person who is statistically illiterate will interpret the statements “10% of people are allergic to peanuts” and “90% of people are not allergic to peanuts” differently, despite the fact that they say the same thing. Believing that gambling is financially beneficial in the long term is unfortunately common for those with statistical illiteracy.

18. Technological Illiteracy



A person who is technologically illiterate has trouble learning to use new technologies as they become available. Learning new things, especially as an adult, can be slow, but these people find themselves baffled by relatively simple items like binoculars despite being patiently taught to use them hundreds of times. Not understanding a technology because of a lack of contact with it is normal, but not understanding it when exposed to it and when taught several times is illiteracy. These people can experience great trouble in keeping up with modern society.

19. Trans-Illiteracy



A trans-illiterate person is unable to transfer information from one form of media to another. For example, they may be able to understand a picture, but have trouble describing it or writing about it. Trans-illiterate people have trouble applying the information they gather from various sources to their daily lives, such as a person who reads that junk food is bad but never thinks to limit their own consumption of junk food. In a society where we are constantly fed information from all kinds of sources, the ability to apply what we know easily and smoothly is becoming increasingly useful.

20. Visual Illiteracy



Visual illiteracy is the inability to understand or process information in visual form. These people struggle to read graphs and info graphics. Specific types of brain damage can cause an innate inability to understand and recognize faces or vision entirely, but most people with visual illiteracy have no such underlying cause. A form of visual illiteracy that all people have at one point but most grow out of is seen in young toddlers. They will tend to think that when a single biscuit is broken in half, the two pieces represent more food than the original biscuit. Similarly, four grapes close together are seen as “more grapes” than the same four grapes spaced far apart.

12.4.4 CAUSES OF ILLITERACY

There are so many reasons why an individual can be illiterate. These are some of the causes of the inability to read or write:

1. Illiteracy among parents

Many illiterate parents do not put much emphasis on the importance of education. Several of those born to parents who can neither read nor write end up being illiterate. This is especially true in remote areas where many people in the older generation have not gone through formal education. The reverse is true for those who have been brought up by parents with an elaborate educational background. They realize the necessity of taking their children to school and therefore ensure that they receive a good education.

2. Lack of family support

This can be the cause of illiteracy more so where a child has difficulty reading or writing because of dyslexia. In a situation where the family does not understand the child's condition, it may simply be assumed that he or she is not a bright person and maybe school is not meant for everyone. Supportive family members help a child overcome reading disability and go through formal education with minimal challenges.

3. Unemployment of the educated

Some people believe that the only reason someone should go to school is so that he or she can get a good job and make a good life. Without the promise of employment, education is not a necessity to them. In a country where many of the educated are unemployed, there may not be enough motivation for the illiterate to go to school. After all, they reckon, why would you spend so much money paying for your education when there is no promise of a return on investment? In countries where those who have gone to school have good jobs and reasonable incomes, there may be sufficient motivating factors for people to get rid of illiteracy.

4. Lack of awareness

In places where several members of the local population do not understand why it is important for them to go to school, the level of illiteracy may be high. Disinterest in the benefits of formal learning can also be caused by lack of awareness on the importance of going to school. The number of illiterate people in urban areas tends to be lower than that of those in rural areas. People in towns are more aware of the need to eliminate illiteracy, the challenges that arise from lack of education and the social benefits of being literate compared to those who live in the remote place.

5. Social barriers

Many social barriers such as restrictions on girls' education in some societies lead to illiteracy among the affected segment of the population. Education of the girl child has been an issue in some parts of the world leading to the formation of different organizations focused on championing the education of women. Forcing children into marriage is another social issue that causes illiteracy in the community. Family or social norms where female education is not allowed also causes illiteracy. In societies where the caste system is still in force, those who fall into the wrong caste may not get the opportunity to go to school. They are condemned at birth to remain illiterate.

6. Lack of affordable education facilities

Those who live in very remote areas with few or no education facilities may remain illiterate. The nearest school might be found several miles away. Instead of going through the tiresome process of walking for long distances on a daily basis just to go to school, many choose to stay at home. Lack of access to education facilities in rural areas has contributed a lot to the high number of illiterate people in these places.

7. Poverty

Poor parents with low incomes find it difficult to pay school fees. They are forced to choose between providing basic needs such as food, shelter and clothing and taking their children to school. In countries where basic education is not free, the number of children who do not go to school tends to be higher compared to places where basic education is free and mandatory.

12.4.5 CONSEQUENCES AND EFFECTS ILLITERACY

What are the consequences of Illiteracy? How does illiteracy affect the life of an individual and the society? These are some of the effects and consequences of the inability to read and write:

1. Hinders economic and social progress

Illiteracy greatly inhibits the economic and social progress of an individual as well as that of the country. Education gives one the power to seek opportunities and pursue them. People who have gone to school or are well educated have the expertise and intelligence to make good investment decisions and drive the growth agenda of a nation. Illiteracy, therefore, hinders the development of the country.

2. Poverty

Illiteracy leads to poverty. Education equips one with the right skills and expertise for gainful employment. A person who has not gone to school and is unable to read and write may experience a hard time in finding a job especially in a world where the corporate environment is increasingly in demand for employees who are well-trained and can cope with an industry driven by technology. Without a reasonable source of income, taking care of the dependent family members may prove to be difficult.

3. Child marriage

This is also a problem that may come about due to illiteracy. Parents may fail to recognize the benefits of taking children to school to learn how to read and write. Instead, the girl child may be forced into early marriage. It may also be a means of raising money through dowry payments to support the rest of the family members. In a way, the girl child is viewed as a property in some cultures. They can be traded to help the family make ends meet. The practice is especially rampant in areas where a lot of people have not gone to school.

4. Difficult life

An illiterate person can lead a difficult life in so many ways. The inability to find gainful employment can subject one to a life of poverty with poor living conditions. There can be a lack of basic necessities such as good shelter, clothing and decent meals. Illiteracy can also make one a societal misfit more so in areas where many people have gone to school and have the

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ability to read and write. Such a person can be the center of ridicule and suffer from stress and low self-esteem. Without the ability to read and write, it can be hard to read instructions which in some cases may have dire consequences. They say ignorance is bliss but that is not true when a person's life is on the line.

5. Social crimes

Through education, a person can cultivate some civic sense and develop behavior patterns that are socially acceptable. Illiterate people may engage in unlawful acts in the society due to lack of employment or simply as a result of being uncultured. In countries where the number of those who have not gone to school is high, social crime levels also tend to be high.

6. Underpayment, Underemployment, and Unemployment

We live in a world where the job market favors people who are properly educated with useful skills to drive company growth. Many illiterate people are thus underpaid, underemployed or unemployed. They are unable to earn income and in many cases perform a lot of duties with little pay.

7. Intergenerational Illiteracy

The issue of illiteracy can cut across generations within a family. It can become cyclic in such a way that even the third or fourth generation family members suffer the same fate. Intergenerational Illiteracy mainly comes about because education is given little to no value in the family setup. The children that come along will thus see illiteracy as the norm and not make any effort to learn how to read and write.

12.4.6 THE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS TO STOP OR CONTROL ILLITERACY

1. Free education

The provision of free education in schools, colleges, and universities by the government can play a major role in reducing the level of illiteracy in a country by getting more people to school. Since some people fail to attend school due to lack of money to pay for the fees, offering free education can increase the number of people attending school and subsequently reduce illiteracy levels within a society.

2. Awareness

Creating awareness about the importance of education can help people understand why they need to go to school. Non-governmental organizations, government agencies, and other concerned parties should put in place deliberate measures to create awareness in the society and reduce the number of people who are unable to read and write.

3. Grants

Offering grants, subsidies, and scholarships can reduce the financial burden that parents and students bear in paying for education. It would make it possible for students to learn without interrupting their education due to lack of school fees. Parents would also channel the money that would have been used to pay for school fees towards other income generating projects. The cost of financing education can prove to be too high especially for those who live in poverty.

4. Late night classes

Working people can opt for late night classes. In this way, they can learn even as they earn income through their daytime jobs.

5. Free books

The government and different foundations can offer free books in schools to encourage students to develop a reading culture. Offering free books can also reduce the financial burden placed on parents in the provision of textbooks.

6. Digitization

Since we live in the age of technology and information, creating digital platforms for reading and learning can help reduce illiteracy in the society. It can also help take care of the challenge of shortage of education facilities. Digital libraries can provide a good platform for those who live far away from urban centers to expand their knowledge base and become more informed.

7. Lower educational cost

Even though education has its rewards, it is very costly to finance. Many graduates usually leave school with huge debts in the form of student loans. It makes saving and investing difficult. The cost of university education has been a key political and social issue in many nations. By lowering the cost of education, the government can make it easier for people to study up to the highest level possible.

12.4.7 EFFORTS TO ERADICATE ILLITERACY IN INDIA

The government should introduce new schemes and policies and should allocate special funds to promote literacy. A number of significant programmes have been taken up since Independence to eradicate illiteracy among adults. Some of the important programmes included.

1. **Social Education** - implemented in the First Five-Year Plan (1951-56). The programme gave importance to literacy, extension, general education, leadership training and social consciousness.
2. **Gram Shikshan Mohim** - a movement for literacy in the rural areas started first in Satara district of Maharashtra in 1959 which was later extended to other parts of the state. The programme aimed at imparting basic literacy skills within a period of four months.
3. **Farmers Functional Literacy Project (FFLP)** - started in 1967-68 as an inter-ministerial project for farmers' training and functional literacy. The project aimed at popularisation of high yielding varieties of seeds through the process of adult education in 144 districts. □ " Non-formal education (NFE) - launched in the beginning of Fifth Five Year Plan for the age group of 15-25 years.
4. **Functional Literacy for Adult Women (FLAW)** - started in 1975-76 in the experimental Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) project areas. The scheme included a component which enabled illiterate adult women to acquire functional skills along with literacy, to gain better awareness of health, hygiene, child care practices and in the process

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facilitated attitudinal changes. □ " National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) - launched on October, 2 1978. This was the first programme in India taken up at macro level to eradicate illiteracy through project approach. It was a massive programme aimed at educating 100 million non-literate adults in the age- group of 15-35 years within a time frame of five years.

5. **Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP)** - the objectives of the scheme were: to impart functional literacy to all illiterate persons in 15-35 age group who are living in the rural areas by organising specified number of literacy centres in accordance with the norms and guidelines issued by the then Department of Education, Ministry of HRD from time to time. Mass Programme of Functional Literacy (MPFL) - launched on May 1, 1986 by involving National Service Scheme (NSS) and other students in colleges and universities. During 1987-88, NCC Cadets from senior division were also involved in the programme.
6. **SSA (2002-2003)** Free and compulsory education for all age group up to 14. 2007 – V standard completed successfully 2010 - VIII standard completed successfully
7. **National Policy on Education - 1986** National Policy on Education - 1986 and the Revised Plan of Action - 1992 gave an unqualified priority to the following three programmes for eradication of illiteracy:(a) Universalisation of Elementary Education and universal retention of children upto 14 years of age. (b) Systematic programme of non-formal education in the educationally backward states. (c) National Literacy Mission to impart functional literacy to adults in the age-group of 15 - 35 years.
8. **Illiteracy costs India more than \$ 53billion a year:** New Delhi: Illiteracy is costing Indian economy more than \$ 53 billion a year, a report has estimated. According to the report titled Economic and Social Cost of Illiteracy by World Literacy Foundation, illiteracy costs India an estimated \$ 53.56 billion.
9. **NEW DELHI:** Nearly 70 per cent of the illiterate populations in the country are in eight states of UP, Bihar, Andhra, West Bengal, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Karnataka, Rajya Sabha was informed at parliament (2001).

Literacy is a strong weapon which can root out the social issues like dowry, corruption and child labour. Literate population can contribute manifolds in the economic and social development of a nation. If India wants to be a developed and powerful nation, then literacy is the key. Going to schools plays a major role in the mental as well as social development of a person. The lessons learned and the experiences that a person goes through while in school prepare him or her for life in the society. One can learn problem-solving skills and develop social intelligence necessary to overcome everyday life challenges. Illiteracy, therefore, has no room in the modern

society. The more the number of people who have gone to school, the better the community. Everyone should aspire to be educated and gain knowledge because of the important benefits of being literate.

Check your progress - II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3. What is illiteracy?

4. Expansion of RFLP.

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12.5 POVERTY

Poverty is not only a challenge for India, as more than one fifth of the world poor live in India alone, but also for the world, where more than 260 million poverty are not been able to meet their basic needs. Poverty has many faces, which have been changing from place to place and across time and has been described in many ways. Most often poverty is a situation that people want to escape. In all localities and neighbourhoods, both in rural and urban areas, there are some who are poor and some who are such. There are many people who belong to this category such as push cast vendors, street cobblers, rag pickers; Vendors beggars are some examples of poor and vulnerable groups in urban areas. They possess few assets. They reside in Kutcha helmets; the poorest of them do not have even such dwelling.

A concise and universally accepted definition of poverty is elusive largely because it affects many aspects of the human conditions, including physical, moral and psychological. Different criteria have, therefore, been used to conceptualize poverty. Most analyses follow the conventional view of poverty as a result of insufficient income for securing basic goods and services. Others view poverty, in part, as a function of education, health, life expectancy, child mortality etc. Blackwood and Lynch (1994), identify the poor, using the criteria of the levels of consumption and expenditure.

“Poverty is humiliation, the sense of being dependent on them, and of being forced to accept rudeness, insults, and indifference when we seek help.” — Latvia 1998

In the simplest term, poverty may be defined as a social condition where individuals do not have financial means to meet the most basic standards of life that is acceptable by the society. Individuals experiencing poverty do not have the means to pay for basic needs of daily life like food, clothes and shelter.

Poverty also staves people off from accessing much needed social tools of well-being like education and health requirements. The direct consequences stemming from this problem are hunger, malnutrition and susceptibility to diseases which have been identified as major problems across the world. It impacts individuals in a socio-psychological way with them not being able to

afford simple recreational activities and getting progressively marginalized in the society.

In recent times there has been an acceptance of poverty as a social problem. India with the coming of independence has made some efforts to raise the level of income of people living in poverty. In 1960 the concept of poverty line was emphasised by Dandekar and Rath (1971). Specific programmes of poverty alleviation were initiated in the 4th plan.

Poverty is an economic state where people are experiencing scarcity or the lack of certain commodities that are required for the lives of human beings like money and material things. Therefore, poverty is a multifaceted concept inclusive of social, economic and political elements. The word poverty comes from French word “**poverté**” which means **poor**.

‘Poverty’ is essentially a relative concept, a condition measurable only in terms of the living standards and resources of a given society at a particular time. The concept of poverty can be understood in three ways: (i) in terms of *the amount of money required by a person to subsist*; (ii) in terms of *the life below a minimum subsistence level and ‘living standard’ prevalent at a given time in a given place*, (iii) in terms of *the comparative state of well-being of a few and ill-being of the majority in society*. The first two ways are more economic in nature, while the last one has a social dimension. The last approach explains poverty in terms of relativity and inequality.

12.5.1 DEFINITION OF POVERTY

Gillin and Gillin. “Poverty is that condition in which a person either because of inadequate income or unwise expenditures, does not maintain a scale of living high enough to provide for his physical and mental efficiency and to enable him and his natural dependents to function usefully according to the standards of the society of which he is a member’.

According to Ram Ahuja, there are three precepts to define poverty that are as follows:

- ❖ The amount of money required by a person to subsist.
- ❖ The life below a minimum subsistence level and living standard prevalent at a given time, at a given place.
- ❖ The comparative state of well-being of a few and the ill-being of the minority in society.

The first two definitions refer to the economic concept of absolute poverty, the third definition views poverty as a social concept. The social view refers to poverty as a condition of falling below the minimum standards of subsistence appropriate to each society or ‘the absence of enough money to secure life’s necessities’ or ‘a condition of acute physical want—starvation, malnutrition, disease, and want of clothing, shelter and medical care.’ The latter is measured by comparing the condition of those at the bottom of the society with the other segments of the population.

Such attitude of resentment leads to the problem of poverty, which can be absolute and relative. Absolute poverty means the inability to meet the minimum basic requirements of living. Relative poverty means the inability to meet the needs in relation to those who are able to meet the needs. For

example, a person may be relatively poor among the persons of his own group, who are relatively rich.

12.5.2 TYPE OF POVERTY

On the basis of **social, economical and political** aspects, there are different ways to identify the **type of Poverty**:

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1. Absolute poverty.
2. Relative Poverty.
3. Situational Poverty.
4. Generational Poverty.
5. Rural Poverty.
6. Urban Poverty.

1. Absolute poverty

Also known as extreme poverty or abject poverty, it involves the scarcity of basic food, clean water, health, shelter, education and information. Those who belong to absolute poverty tend to struggle to live and experience a lot of child deaths from preventable diseases like malaria, cholera and water-contamination related diseases. Absolute Poverty is usually uncommon in developed countries.

"It is a condition so limited by malnutrition, illiteracy, disease, squalid surroundings, high infant mortality, and low life expectancy as to be beneath any reasonable definition of human decency." Said by Robert McNamara, the former president of the WorldBank.

2. Relative Poverty

It is defined from the social perspective that is living standard compared to the economic standards of population living in surroundings. Hence it is a measure of income inequality. For example, a family can be considered poor if it cannot afford vacations, or cannot buy presents for children at Christmas, or cannot send its young to the university. Usually, relative poverty is measured as the percentage of the population with income less than some fixed proportion of median income.

3. Situational Poverty

It is a temporary type of poverty based on occurrence of an adverse event like environmental disaster, job loss and severe health problem. People can help themselves even with a small assistance, as the poverty comes because of unfortunate event.

4. Generational Poverty

It is handed over to individual and families from one generation to the one. This is more complicated as there is no escape because the people are trapped in its cause and unable to access the tools required getting out of it.

5. Rural Poverty

It occurs in rural areas with population below 50,000. It is the area where there are less job opportunities, less access to services, less support for disabilities and quality education opportunities.

People are tending to live mostly on the farming and other menial work available to the surroundings.

The rural poverty rate is growing and has exceeded the urban rate every year since data collection began in the 1960s. The difference between the two poverty rates has averaged about 5 percent for the last 30 years, with urban rates near 10–15 percent and rural rates near 15–20 percent (Jolliffe, 2004).

6. Urban Poverty

It occurs in the metropolitan areas with population over 50,000. These are some major challenges faced by the Urban Poor: 1. Limited access to health and education. 2. Inadequate housing and services. 3. Violent and unhealthy environment because of overcrowding. 4. Little or no social protection mechanism.

However, some people are deprived of such basic requirements, and are considered to be poor and the resultant conditions lead to poverty. The conditions of the absence of fulfillment of minimum necessities of life should be called as 'poverty'. The form of these minimum necessities, however, changes according to time and place.

12.5.3 Causes of Poverty in India

Factors contributing to the persistent problem of poverty in the country are many and they need to be identified in order to be addressed properly. They can be categorized under the following heads.

1. Demographic – the main factor that contributes to poverty-ridden state of the country from a demographical point of view is the problem of over population. The growth of population in the country has so far exceeded the growth in economy and the gross result is that the poverty figures have remained more or less consistent. In rural areas, size of the families is bigger and that translates into lowering the per capita income values and ultimately lowering of standard of living. Population growth spurt also leads to generation of unemployment and that means diluting out of wages for jobs further lowering income.

2. Economic – there are a host of economic reasons behind persistence of the poverty problems which are outlined hereunder:-

✓ **Poor Agricultural Infrastructure** – Agriculture is the backbone of Indian economy. But outdated farming practices, lack of proper irrigation infrastructure and even lack of formal knowledge of crop handling has affected the productivity in this sector tremendously. As a consequence there is redundancy and sometimes complete lack of work leading to decreased wages that is insufficient for meeting daily needs of a labourer's family plunging them into poverty.

✓ **Unequal distribution of assets** – with the economy changing directions rapidly, the earning structure evolves differently in different economic income groups. Upper and middle income groups see a faster increase in earnings than lower income groups. Also assets like land, cattle as well as realty are distributed disproportionately among the population with certain people owning majority shares than other sectors of the society and their profits from these assets are also unequally distributed. In India it is said that 80% wealth in the country is controlled by just 20% of the population.

- ✓ **Unemployment** – another major economic factor that is causative of poverty in the country is the rising unemployment rate. Unemployment rates is high in India and according to a 2015 survey data, at the all-India level, 77% of families do not have a regular source of income.
- ✓ **Inflation and Price hike** – the term Inflation may be defined as an increase in prices of commodities coinciding with the fall in the purchasing value of money. As a direct consequence of inflation, effective price of food, clothing items as well as real estate rises. The salaries and wages do not rise as much in keeping up with the inflated prices of commodities leading to effective decrease of the per capita income.
- ✓ **Faulty economic liberalization** – the LPG (Liberalization-Privatization-Globalization) attempts initiated by the Indian Government in 1991 were directed towards making the economy more suited to international market-trends to invite foreign investments. Successful to certain extent in reviving the economy, the economic reforms had detrimental effects on increasing the wealth distribution scenario. Rich became richer, while the poor remained poor.

3. Social – The various social issues plaguing the country that contributes towards poverty are:-

- ✓ **Education and illiteracy** – Education, rather its lack thereof and poverty form a vicious cycle that plagues the nation. Not having enough resources to feed their children, the poor consider education to be frivolous, preferring children to start contributing to the family's income rather than draining them. On the other hand, lack of education and illiteracy prevent individuals from getting better paying jobs and they get stuck at jobs offering minimum wages. Improvement of quality of life gets hindered and the cycle once again comes into action.
- ✓ **Outdated Social Customs** – Social customs like the caste system cause segregation and marginalization of certain sections of the society. Certain castes are considered untouchables still and are not employed by upper caste, leaving very specific and low paying jobs that they can live off. Economist K. V. Verghese put forth the problem in a very lucid language, "Caste system acted as a springboard for class exploitation with the result that the counterpart of the poverty of the many is the opulence of the few. The second is the cause of the first."
- ✓ **Lack of skilled labour** – lack of adequate vocational training makes the huge labour force available in India largely unskilled, which is unsuitable for offering maximum economic value. Lack of education, much less higher education, is also a contributing factor towards this.
- ✓ **Gender inequality** – the weak status attached with women, deep-rooted social marginalization and long embedded perceptions of domesticity renders about 50% of the country's population unable to work. As a result the women of the family add to the number of dependents that need to be fed instead of being able to contribute considerably in the family income which might assuage the poverty situation of the family.
- ✓ **Corruption** – despite considerable efforts from the government in the forms of various schemes to mollify the poverty situation, allegedly

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only 30-35% actually reaches the beneficiaries due to wide-spread practices of corruption in the country. Wealthy people with privileged connection are able to acquire more wealth simply by bribing government officials to maximize their profits from such schemes while the poor remain in a state of neglect for not being able to assert such connections.

4. Individual – individual lack of efforts also contribute towards generating poverty. Some people are unwilling to work hard or even not willing to work altogether, leaving their families in the darkness of poverty. Personal demons like drinking and gambling also leads to draining of the family income inciting poverty.

5. Political – in India, socio-economic reform strategies has been largely directed by political interest and are implemented to serve a choice section of the society that is potentially a deciding factor in the elections. As a result, the issue is not addressed in its entirety leaving much scope of improvements.

6. Climatic – maximum portion of India experiences a tropical climate throughout the year that is not conducive to hard manual labour leading to lowering of productivity and the wages suffer consequently.

12.5.4 Effects of Poverty

1. Effect on Health – one of the most devastating effects that poverty has is on the overall health of the nation. The most prominent health issue stemming from poverty is malnutrition. The problem of malnutrition is widespread in all age-groups of the country but children are most adversely affected by this. Limited income in larger families leads to lack of access to sufficient nutritious food for their children. These children over time suffer from severe health problems like low body weight, mental, physical disabilities and a general poor state of immunity making them susceptible to diseases. Children from poor backgrounds are twice as susceptible to suffer from anemia, nutrient deficiencies, impaired vision, and even cardiac problems. Malnutrition is a gross contributor of infant mortality in the country and 38 out of every 1,000 babies born in India die before their first birthday. Malnutrition among adult also leads to poor health in adults that leaches their capacity for manual labour leading to a decrease in income due to weakness and diseases. Poverty also causes definite decline in the sanitary practices among poor who cannot afford proper bathrooms and disinfectants. As a result susceptibility to waterborne diseases peak among the poor. Lack of access to as well as means to procure appropriate treatment also affects overall mortality of the population which is lower in poor countries than developed nations like the USA.

2. Effects on Society – poverty exerts some gravely concerning effects over the overall societal health as well. These may be discussed along the following lines:-

- ✓ **Violence and crime rate** – incidence of violence and crime have been found to be geographically coincident. In a backdrop of unemployment and marginalization, the poor resort to criminal activities to earn money. Coupled with lack of education and properly formed moral conscience, a poverty ridden society is more susceptible to violence by its people against its own people from a sense of deep-seated discontent and rage.

- ✓ **Homelessness** – apart from a definite drop in the esthetic representation of the country, homelessness affects child health, women safety and overall increase in criminal tendencies.
- ✓ **Stress** – lack of money is a major cause of stress among the middle-class and the poor and leads to decline in productivity of individuals.
- ✓ **Child labour** – one of the hallmarks of a poverty-ridden society is the widespread practices of exploitation and the worst of it comes in the form of child labour. Large families fail to meet the monetary needs of the members and children as young as 5 years are made to start earning in order to contribute to the family income.
- ✓ **Terrorism** – proclivity of youth towards terrorism stems from a combination of extreme poverty and lack of education making them susceptible to brainwashing. Terrorist organizations offer poverty-ridden families money in exchange for a member's participation in their activities which induces a sense of accomplishment among the youth.

3. Effect on Economy –poverty is a direct index indicating success of the economy of the country. The number of people living under the poverty threshold indicates whether the economy is powerful enough to generate adequate jobs and amenities for its people. Schemes providing subsidies for the poor of the country again impose a drain on the economy.

12.5.5 Control Measures / Solutions

1. **Free education:** This opens up opportunities for many people and provides individuals as well as families with a means to escape poverty. It is the ideal way to break the cycle of poverty that has bedeviled several families.
2. **Government grants:** These can be in the form of free mid-day meals or even scholarships. It eases the financial pressure on families and allows them to direct the little money that they have towards business ventures.
3. **Creation of job opportunities:** A high rate of employment reduces the level of poverty in a country. When more people are employed, many households also earn incomes and live comfortably.
4. **Vocation and Technical training:** This is skill based training meant to equip individuals within the society with technical skills to enable them become entrepreneurs or professionally employed even without higher education. Such a move would be key in uplifting the lives of people in rural areas and reducing poverty levels.
5. **Free medical care facilities:** This would ensure that people living in poverty have good healthcare services. It would also help keep them healthy and strong to seek out money making opportunities. Staying healthy and active is very important in fighting poverty and improving living standards.
6. **Education about family planning:** One interesting factor is that a lot of people living in poverty have very large families compared to those who are considered to be well off. Taking care of a big family requires resources. There is thus a need to carry out civic education about the necessity of family planning.

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7. **Increase in earning capacity:** Gradually and systematically increasing the minimum wage should be the objective of every government. This will increase the incomes earned and subsequently reduce poverty levels. There should also be laws that deter employees from paying workers less than they deserve.
8. **Casteism and untouchability need to be abolished:** No one should be condemned to a life of poverty and mediocrity at birth. It hinders the utilization of talents and denies well-deserving people the chance to take a shot at their dreams. To borrow an example from capitalism, everyone should be free to pursue financial success and be rewarded according to efforts.
9. **Women empowerment:** Gender inequality should be abolished if the society is to realize meaningful growth and development. Denying women the opportunity to pursue financial success does the community no good. If anything, it compounds the problems associated with poverty. Statistics has shown that regions with many economically empowered women are more developed than those with glaring gender disparities.
10. **Low-cost loans:** Cheap credit facilities will encourage the growth of small businesses and provide people, especially those in rural areas, with a means to escape poverty. Low-cost loans are essential for spurring economic growth in the local community.

Everyone aspires to attain financial prosperity and live a comfortable life. To realize these aspirations, it is crucial to seek out reasonable opportunities and pursue them. One cannot succeed without working towards a goal. A life of poverty means that an individual is not able to enjoy some of the good things in life. It is, therefore, important to eliminate obstacles to prosperity by controlling poverty and creating an environment where everyone has a fair shot at success. Every individual is bestowed with certain gifts, and the fulfillment of potential can only be possible when the available conditions allow it.

Check your progress – III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. Define Poverty.

6. The word poverty comes from French word

12.6 UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment occurs when a person who is actively searching for employment is unable to find work. Unemployment is often used as a measure of the health of the economy. The most frequent measure of unemployment is the unemployment rate, which is the number of unemployed people divided by the number of people in the labour force.

The unemployment rate in the country during 2012-13 was estimated to be 13.3 percent of the age group 15-29 a government report has revealed. The labour ministry report on youth employment- unemployment

scenario 2012-13 further revealed unemployment rate among the person who cannot read and write any language or are considered illiterate was the lowest with 3.7 percent without work in the 15-29 age group. It said one out of every three persons in the age group 15 to 29 years who have completed at least their graduation has been found to be unemployed. Based on the survey the report said that unemployment rate at all India level was 13.3 percent out of 1000 persons for the age group 15-29 years.

An unemployed person is one who is an active member of labour force and is able to and seeks work but is unable to find work during specified period say a week, a month or a year.

12.6.1 DEFINITION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

- ✓ **C.B Mamoria** define "Unemployment is a state of work less for a man fit and willing to work, that is, it is a condition of involuntary and not voluntary idleness"
- ✓ "Unemployment is defined as a condition in which an individual is not in a state of remunerative occupation despite his desire to do so"--
-- **D. Mello**
- ✓ "Unemployment is often described as a condition of involuntary idleness"----**Nava Gopal Das**

12.6.2 CLASSIFICATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

i. Structural Unemployment

This type of unemployment is associated with the economic structure of the country. When demand for labour falls short of supply of labour due to rapidly growing population and their immobility, the problem of unemployment appears in the economy. Besides, due to growing population, the rate of capital formation falls down which again limits the employment opportunities, this type of structural unemployment is basically related to this category of unemployment.

ii. Under-Employment

Those labourers are under-employed who obtain work but their efficiency and capability are not utilized at their optimum and as a result they contribute in the production up to a limited level. A country having this type of unemployment fails to exploit the efficiency of their labourers.

iii. Disguised unemployment

If a person does not contribute anything in the production process or in other words, if he can be removed from the work without affecting the productivity adversely, he will be treated as disguisedly unemployed. The marginal productivity of such unemployed persons is zero. Agriculture sector of underdeveloped/developing economies possess this type of unemployment at a large scale.

iv. Open unemployment

When labourers live without any work and they don't find any work to do, they come under the category of open unemployment. Educated unemployment and unskilled labour unemployment is included in the open unemployment.

v. Educated unemployment

Even when a person who is educated/trained and skilled, fails to obtain a suitable job suited to his qualifications, he is to be educated unemployed. Presently this type of unemployment has become a problem for developing economies, particularly for India.

vi. **Frictional unemployment**

The unemployment generated due to the change in market conditions is called frictional unemployment. Agriculture is the main occupation in India. The supply condition still depends on weather's mood and similarly demand conditions depend on availability of resources. Any change arising either of any or both creates a diversion from the equilibrium which results in frictional unemployment.

vii. **Seasonal Unemployment**

It is an unemployment that occurs during certain seasons of the year. Agricultural labourers in India rarely have work throughout the year.

viii. **Classical**

It occurs when real wages for jobs are set above the market-clearing level. It causes the number of job seekers to be higher than the number of vacancies.

ix. **Cyclical**

It occurs when there is not enough aggregate demand in the economy to provide jobs for everyone who wants to work. Demand for goods and services decreases, less production is needed, and fewer workers are needed.

12.6.3 CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

- ✓ Large population.
- ✓ Low or no educational levels and vocational skills of working population.
- ✓ Inadequate state support, legal complexities and low infrastructural, financial and market linkages to small/ cottage industries or small businesses, making such enterprises unviable with cost and compliance overruns.
- ✓ Huge workforce associated with informal sector due to lack of required education/ skills, which is not captured in any employment data. For ex: domestic helpers, construction workers etc.
- ✓ **The syllabus taught in schools and colleges, being not as per the current requirements of the industries.** This is the main cause of structural unemployment.
- ✓ Inadequate growth of infrastructure and **low investments in manufacturing sector, hence restricting employment potential of secondary sector.**
- ✓ **Low productivity in agriculture sector combined with lack of alternative opportunities for agricultural worker which makes transition from primary to secondary and tertiary sectors difficult.**

- ✓ **Regressive social norms** that deter women from taking/continuing employment.

12.6.4 IMPACT OF UNEMPLOYMENT

- ✓ The problem of unemployment gives rise to the **problem of poverty**.
- ✓ Young people after a long time of unemployment indulge in illegal and wrong activities for earning money. This also leads to **increase in crime in the country**.
- ✓ **Unemployed persons can easily be enticed by antisocial elements**. This makes them lose faith in democratic values of the country.
- ✓ It is often seen that unemployed people end up getting addicted to drugs and alcohol or attempts suicide, leading losses to the **human resources of the country**.
- ✓ It also affects **economy** of the country as the workforce that could have been gainfully employed to generate resources actually gets dependent on the remaining working population, thus **escalating socioeconomic costs** for the State. For instance, 1 percent increase in unemployment reduces the GDP by 2 percent

12.6.5 STEPS TAKEN BY GOVERNMENT

- ✓ **Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)** was launched in 1980 to create full employment opportunities in rural areas.
- ✓ **Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM)**: This scheme was started in 1979 with objective to help unemployed rural youth between the age of 18 and 35 years to acquire skills for self-employment. Priority was given to SC/ST Youth and Women.
- ✓ **RSETI/RUDSETI**: With the aim of mitigating the unemployment problem among the youth, a new initiative was tried jointly by Sri Dharmasthala Manjunatheshwara Educational Trust, Syndicate Bank and Canara Bank in 1982 which was the setting up of the **“RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND SELF EMPLOYMENT TRAINING INSTITUTE”** with its acronym RUDSETI near Dharmasthala in Karnataka. Rural Self Employment Training Institutes/ RSETIs are now managed by Banks with active co-operation from the Government of India and State Government.
- ✓ By merging the two erstwhile wage employment programme – National Rural Employment programme (NREP) and Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) the **Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY)** was started with effect from April, 1, 1989 on 80:20 cost sharing basis between the centre and the States.
- ✓ **Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA)**:
 - It is an employment scheme that was launched in 2005 to provide social security by guaranteeing a minimum of 100

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days paid work per year to all the families whose adult members opt for unskilled labour-intensive work.

- This act provides Right to Work to people.
- ✓ **Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana (PMKVY)**, launched in 2015 has an objective of enabling a large number of Indian youth to take up industry-relevant skill training that will help them in securing a better livelihood.
- ✓ **Start-up India Scheme**, launched in 2016 aims at developing an ecosystem that promotes and nurtures entrepreneurship across the country.
- ✓ **Stand Up India Scheme**, launched in 2016 aims to facilitate bank loans between Rs 10 lakh and Rs. 1 crore to at least one SC or ST borrower and at least one women borrower per bank branch for setting up a greenfield enterprise.

Check your progress - IV

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

7. Define– unemployment.

8. The problem of unemployment gives rise to the.....

9. Give the expansion of MNREGA

12.7 ETHNIC/GROUP CONFLICTS

In sociology, ethnicity is a concept referring to a shared culture and a way of life. This can be reflected in language, religion, material culture such as clothing and cuisine, and cultural products such as music and art. Ethnicity is often a major source of social cohesion as well as social conflict.

The term "ethnicity" as used today arose in the beginning of 21st century, replacing the terminology of "races" or "nations" used for the concept in the 19th century. Regular warfare was formerly conceived as conflicts between nations, and only with the rise of multi-ethnic societies and the shift to asymmetric warfare did the concept of "ethnic conflict" arise as separate from generic "war" (Center for Systemic Peace. 30 October 2006).

An ethnic group is a set of people that share common racial and cultural characteristics. They may share the same language, religion, territory, or economic and political system. They identify with other members of the group due to their shared ancestry, culture and heritage. While the territory of an ethnic group is important for practical reasons (it gives the group a place to live and sometimes provides the livelihood as well), it also often has symbolic importance as the place where the founders or paragons of the group lived.

People generally belong to whatever ethnic group they are born into, and the group maintains its existence by teaching its beliefs and behaviors to the next generation. Outsiders can sometimes be accepted into the group, through marriage or rites of passage.

While ethnic groups serve to organize life for their members, problems arise when one group decides that another group is inferior and should be eliminated. Another reason for ethnic conflict is if a change in the environment

results in a scarcity of resources and other ethnic groups are perceived as threats to survival.

Ethnic conflict is defined as any episode of sustained violent conflict in which national, ethnic, and religious or other communal minorities challenge governments to seek major changes in status (Smith, 2001, Howrowitz, 1988, 1985, Bruce 2004).

An **ethnic conflict** is a conflict between two or more contending **ethnic groups**. While the source of the conflict may be **political**, social, economic or religious, the individuals in conflict must expressly fight for their ethnic group's position within society. This final criterion differentiates ethnic conflict from other forms of struggle.

Academic explanations of ethnic conflict generally fall into one of three schools of thought: primordialist, instrumentalist or constructivist. Recently, several political scientists have argued for either top-down or bottom-up explanations for ethnic conflict. Intellectual debate has also focused on whether ethnic conflict has become more prevalent since the end of the Cold War, and on devising ways of managing conflicts, through instruments such as consociationalism and federalisation.

Ethnic conflict, a form of conflict in which the objectives of at least one party are defined in ethnic terms, and the conflict, its antecedents, and possible solutions are perceived along ethnic lines. The conflict is usually not about ethnic differences themselves but over political, economic, social, cultural, or territorial matters.

Ethnic conflict is one of the major threats to international peace and security. Conflicts in the Balkans, Rwanda, Chechnya, Iraq, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, India, and Darfur, as well as in Israel, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip, are among the best-known and deadliest examples from the late 20th and early 21st centuries. The destabilization of provinces, states, and, in some cases, even whole regions is a common consequence of ethnic violence. Ethnic conflicts are often accompanied by gross human rights violations, such as genocide and crimes against humanity, and by economic decline, state failure, environmental problems, and refugee flows. Violent ethnic conflict leads to tremendous human suffering.

12.7.1 Ethnic Identity, Ethnicity, and Ethnic Group

The terms *ethnic* and *ethnicity* have their roots in the Greek word *ethnos*, which describes a community of common descent. In ethnic conflict research, the terms *ethnic group*, *communal group*, *ethnic community*, *people*, and *minority* are mostly used interchangeably. Two elements provide the basis to identify ethnic groups: first, the accentuation of cultural traits and, second, the sense that those traits distinguish the group from the members of the society who do not share the differentiating characteristics. Anthony D. Smith, a scholar of ethnicity and nationalism studies, identified ethnic criteria that provide the origins of communal identity. Those include shared historical experiences and memories, myths of common descent, a common culture and ethnicity, and a link with a historic territory or a homeland, which the group may or may not currently inhabit. Elements of common culture include language, religion, laws, customs, institutions, dress, music, crafts, architecture, and even food. Ethnic communities show signs of

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solidarity and self-awareness, which are often expressed by the name the group gives itself.

Ethnic identity is formed by both tangible and intangible characteristics. Tangible characteristics, such as shared culture or common visible physical traits, are important because they contribute to the group's feeling of identity, solidarity, and uniqueness. As a result, the group considers perceived and real threats to its tangible characteristics as risks to its identity. If the group takes steps to confront the threats, its ethnicity becomes politicized, and the group becomes a political actor by virtue of its shared identity. On the other side, ethnicity is just as much based on intangible factors—namely, on what people believe, or are made to believe, to create a sense of solidarity among members of a particular ethnic group and to exclude those who are not members.

12.7.2 TYPES OF ETHNIC GROUPS

Not all ethnic groups are politically active or engage in ethnic conflict. Depending on the political structure of the state (democracy versus authoritarian regimes) and the size and situation of the ethnic minority (large versus small portion of the society, regionally concentrated versus dispersed), ethnic groups will have different claims and will use different means to voice their demands. The Minorities at Risk Project at the University of Maryland began tracking ethnic groups in 1986, and it developed six types for categorizing the groups: ethno nationalists, indigenous peoples, ethnoclasses, communal contenders, religious sects, and national minorities.

- ***Ethnonationalists*** are large, regionally concentrated ethnic groups with a history of autonomy or separatist struggles.
- ***Indigenous peoples*** are original inhabitants, or descendants of the original inhabitants, of a colonized territory. These groups typically have traditional social, economic, and cultural customs that set them apart from the rest of the society. Even though indigenous peoples are often notably different from the dominant group (they usually are set apart not only by physical markers but also by language, religion, traditions, etc.), they tend to be badly organized, have weak connections among group members, and, consequently, are usually unable to voice their claims (mostly to land and access to resources) in a successful manner. As a result, indigenous peoples are among the most-marginalized ethnic groups in the world.
- ***Ethnoclasses*** are physically or culturally distinct groups who are typically descendants of slaves or immigrants. In many cases, these groups perform distinctive economic activities, mostly at the bottom of the economic hierarchy. Ethnoclasses generally strive for equal treatment, economic opportunities, and political participation. Mobilization of these groups varies widely. Ethnoclasses have successfully pursued their interests in many Western democracies, but they remain relatively unorganized in most other places.
- ***Communal contenders*** are culturally distinct groups that have or desire a role in state power. Some of them can also be classified as ethnonationalists opting for separatism and seeking independence. The Minorities at Risk Project distinguishes between dominant, advantaged, and disadvantaged communal contenders. Dominant groups hold both political and economic

power over other groups in their societies. Advantaged groups enjoy political benefits but are not in control of governing power. Disadvantaged communal contenders are the most common, and they often face political or economic discrimination or both. Changes to group relations involving communal contenders are particularly likely if power structures change. Intergroup shifts of relative political influence and economic prosperity can provoke violent reactions, which tend to be particularly long-lasting and disastrous. Power-sharing models that take differences and external changes into account are the only way to deal with these issues. However, as history shows, such power-sharing arrangements are often very difficult to achieve.

- **Religious sects** are ethnic groups that differ from the rest of their society mostly by their religious beliefs and related cultural practices. Religious minorities tend to have high group cohesion because religion is a highly salient trait. In addition, religious groups usually already possess an organizational structure, which makes mobilization of the groups particularly easy and likely. For these politicized religious minorities, their faith is what sets them apart, but their goals are political in nature (e.g., participation in the government, nondiscrimination, or the recognition of the minority).
- **National minorities** are groups with kinfolk in a neighbouring state but who are a minority in the state in which they reside. Most of these groups have a history of political autonomy, which they strive to reinstate.

12.7.3 ORIGIN AND NATURE OF ETHNIC CONFLICT

Conflict describes a situation in which two or more actors pursue incompatible goals. It is not necessarily violent, but the use of tension, dispute, or unease is more common in a nonviolent context. A violent internal conflict is generally called a civil war or armed conflict when casualties and destruction are substantial, the conflict has certain duration, the protagonists are organized, and military operations are used to achieve political goals.

Ethnic conflict, therefore, is a form of conflict in which there is an ethnic dimension. The ambitions of at least one party are defined in ethnic terms, and the conflict, its antecedents, and possible solutions are perceived along ethnic lines. The conflict tends not to be about ethnic differences themselves but over political, economic, social, cultural, or territorial matters.

If the political goal of ethnic mobilization is self-determination, the movement is called nationalism. A nation in this context is a politicized ethnic group with the desire for self-government; that self-government may take a variety of forms, ranging from participation in public affairs to local segmental autonomy to territorial claims, including independence. The use of the word *nation* is problematic. On the one side, *nation* can mean the state as a whole (the way the term is used in *international* or *United Nations*). If *nation* refers to people in this context, it can be understood as the aggregate, permanent population of the state, based on citizenship. On the other side, the word *nation* is also widely used to refer to a politicized ethnic group, in which case the link among people is based on ethnicity rather than citizenship.

Ethnic disputes are common in every multicultural society. Intergroup problems arise in periods of substantial political, economic, and social

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change and lead to uncertainty, emerging opportunities for action, and particularistic interests. Grievances and polarizing leadership lead to mobilization, ranging from political action (conventional politics, strikes, demonstrations, and other nonviolent means) to violent acts such as terrorism, armed uprisings, guerrilla activity, and civil wars.

12.7.4 CAUSES OF ETHNIC CONFLICT

In several scholarly articles, Michael Edward Brown provided a useful approach to understanding the causes of ethnic conflict. In those articles, he distinguished between underlying causes and proximate causes. Underlying causes include structural factors, political factors, economic and social factors, and cultural and perceptual factors. Proximate causes embrace four levels of conflict triggers: internal mass-level factors (what Brown calls “bad domestic problems”), external mass-level factors (“bad neighborhoods”), external elite-level factors (“bad neighbors”), and internal elite-level factors (“bad leaders”). According to Brown, both underlying and proximate causes have to be present for ethnic conflict to evolve. This section first summarizes what Brown described as the “four main clusters of factors that make some places more predisposed to violence than others”—the underlying causes—and then presents the four catalysts, or triggers, that Brown identified as proximate causes.

12.7.4.1 UNDERLYING CAUSES

1. Structural factors

Weak or failed states often serve as an impetus for ethnic conflict. Many times such states are artificial products (e.g., former colonies) that were created without regard for the existing ethnic and political divisions within their borders, and their political and legal institutions tend to be ineffective. Violent conflicts are likely if changes in the economic situation of a state (e.g., cuts in foreign aid, corruption, administrative incompetence, and the inability to promote economic stability) are associated with the deterioration of the political situation in the country and the mobilization of ethnic groups. Group rivalry can lead to military mobilization, which leads to general armament of all ethnic groups within the state. That causes a security dilemma: by making efforts to provide a means with which to defend themselves, ethnic groups often threaten the security of others, whose reactions to that threat may, in turn, increase the threat level faced by the original group or groups. Violent conflicts and internal security dilemmas lead to massive human-rights violations, refugee flows, and spillover effects with the potential to destabilize whole regions.

Ethnic geography—the geographic distribution and territorial concentration of ethnic groups in pluralistic states—also contributes to the likelihood of violent ethnic conflict. Ethnic conflict is particularly common in states with territorially concentrated ethnic groups located near a border or with ethnic kin in an adjacent state. Those groups show high levels of organization and increased group cohesion and are able to use shared homelands as a territorial base for their political struggle.

2. Political factors

Ethnic conflict is particularly likely in states where ethnic groups lack sufficient representation in public and political institutions. Authoritarian one-

party regimes with discriminatory legislation and a lack of opportunities for ethnic groups to participate in state decision-making processes are particularly prone to ethnic conflict. Liberal democracies that focus on the ideals of inclusion, political debate, and the attempt to reach consensus among all participants in the political process facilitate nonviolent ethnopolitical action and are thus less likely to experience rebellion or uprisings.

Exclusionary national ideologies may also serve as a source of conflict. Nationalism and, in an increased form, citizenship based on ethnic distinctions are especially dangerous because such ideologies tend to flourish in situations of political uncertainty and economic collapse. Other forms of exclusionary national ideologies include religious fundamentalism and supremacist fascist expressions.

The existence, or lack of existence, of stable domestic intergroup relations can also have a bearing on whether violent ethnic conflict is likely to occur. Violent conflict is particularly probable if the claims of the various ethnic groups are incongruous, if groups have strength and are organized, if it is possible for groups to take action, if success is a feasible outcome, and if there is a tangible fear of suppression and discrimination on the basis of ethnicity.

The tactics that may be utilized by leaders and elites during political turmoil also affect the likelihood of violent ethnic conflict. Scapegoating, hate speech, and manipulation of the mass media are means that have the potential to heighten existing discord between ethnic groups.

3. Economic and social factors

Economic problems such as slowdowns, stagnation, deterioration, and complete collapse are sources of state destabilization and can lead to increased tensions and competition among ethnic groups. Discriminatory economic systems in which various groups are faced with inequitable options (in terms of economic opportunities, access to land and other resources, standards of living, and the like) generate resentment and also contribute to tensions and destabilization. Fast economic transitions (e.g., from centrally planned to market economies) and development can also aggravate instability by creating favourable conditions for domestic migration, urbanization, and other societal changes to which the existing political and social structures might not be able to adapt. These changes also can raise hopes for economic and political gains that might not come to fruition and might then serve as a source of frustration.

4. Cultural or perceptual factors

Cultural factors such as problematic group histories, stereotypical perceptions, and grievances over cultural discrimination—including limitations on religious and cultural practices, unequal educational opportunities, and restrictions on the use of minority languages—are common causes of ethnic conflict. In addition, a weakening of traditional forms of dispute settlement (such as a council of elders) changes the environment for the resolution of ethnic disputes.

12.7.4.2 PROXIMATE CAUSES

Brown notes that proximate causes can be situated within a matrix that identifies them as being instigated at either an elite level or a mass level and as being instigated by developments that occur internally or externally. He thus

identifies four main types of proximate causes of internal conflict: internal mass-level factors, external mass-level factors, external elite-level factors, and internal elite-level factors.

1. Internal mass-level factors

Internal mass-level factors may include fast-paced economic changes, modernization, patterns of political or economic discrimination, and internal migration. Brown deems those “bad domestic problems.”

2. External mass-level factors

“Bad neighborhoods,” according to Brown, are created when radicalized politics in a region lead to contagion, diffusion, and spillover effects (external mass-level causes). Those effects can also occur when refugees or fighters from neighbouring countries cross the border and bring violence and unrest with them.

3. External elite-level factors

External elite-level factors exist when governments make decisions to provoke conflicts in weak neighbouring states for political, economic, security, or ideological reasons, leading to Brown’s label “bad neighbors.” In addition, in some cases, ethnic minorities decide to wage a violent struggle in the hope of political gains and international support. Ethnic groups assume the willingness of the international community to react and to provide a political forum to support negotiation, arbitration, and the settlement of disputes.

4. Internal elite-level factors

Brown uses the term “bad leaders” to refer to internal elite-level factors. Those include power struggles by leaders of different groups, ideological disputes over the way a country should be organized, and criminal activity directed against a country’s sovereignty by leaders of organized crime. Leaders have the ability to “play the ethnic card”—to invoke ethnicity in situations where it may or may not be relevant—in a manner that can quickly lead to increased tensions between ethnic groups.

12.7.5 Dynamics of ethnic conflict

Once ethnic conflict breaks out, it is difficult to stop. Massive human-rights violations and physical attacks on civilians—such as rape, torture, mass killings, ethnic cleansing, and genocide—lead to tremendous human suffering. Systematic discrimination and exclusion from national and local political decision making, the appropriation of ethnic minorities’ traditional homelands, and policies that marginalize ethnic minorities are common practices accompanying ethnic conflict.

Even if fought at a low level of intensity, protracted ethnic conflicts have a great impact on the affected society. The lack of functional or legitimate political institutions, weak economic performance, a nonexistent or polarized structure of civil society, and antagonized elites lead to polarization and separation, leaving societies deeply divided and prone to further ethnic strife. In addition, ethnic conflicts have very direct effects far beyond their epicentres. Those involve refugee flows, internal displacement, regional instability, economic failures, environmental disasters, diffusion and spillover effects, and conditions favourable to organized crime and terrorism.

Ethnic conflicts spread in two ways. Diffusion occurs when an ethnic conflict in one state stimulates conflict in another state with similar conditions.

Successful movements provide images and moral incentives that result in the motivation and mobilization of other ethnic movements in similar economic and political conditions. Escalation or contagion effects occur when a conflict in one country spreads across borders into neighbouring countries in which an ethnic minority has its kinfolk. That usually involves the engagement of new foreign fighters who are employed by local elites. Ethnic conflicts may start out as intrastate disputes, but they become regional or international crises when foreign powers get involved.

Neighbouring states, regional powers, and international powers are often overwhelmed and unable to deal with international consequences of ethnic conflicts. However, in many cases, those external actors are not passive victims of ethnic crises but actively pursue their own agendas and interests. Foreign sympathizers and diasporas can contribute substantially to a group's cohesion and mobilization by providing financial, military, political, and moral support. External actors in some cases play important roles in inflaming conflicts or prolonging violent struggles. Opportunistic interventions to gain military, economic, or political benefits take advantage of conflict-affected states and contribute to the conflict. At the same time, international involvement can be crucial in preventing and settling ethnic conflict. The international community plays a role in negotiating, organizing, and supervising cease-fires and peace agreements; investigating past human rights violations; implementing the provisions of peace settlements; conducting peace operations including humanitarian, military, and economic assistance; imposing arms embargoes and economic sanctions; and providing mechanisms that build confidence and capacity and support peaceful means of solving future disputes. Neighbouring states and the international community can thus be victims of the troubles in the region or active contributors—sometimes deliberately, in other cases unintentionally—by providing military, economic, or political support to ethnic groups or by engaging in negotiation and peace implementation. Regional instability is as much a source of ethnic conflict as it is a consequence.

Cultural differences and ethnic conflicts are important issues shaping international politics. Because cultural affiliations and ethnic identity are particularly strong factors shaping group relations, these conflicts have led to tremendous human suffering and are a significant threat to international security. Instability, refugee flows, spillover effects, and other international consequences guarantee that ethnic conflict remains an issue on the international political agenda. However, it is not the cultural differences per se that lead to conflict but the political, ideological, and economic goals of international actors, regardless of whether these actors are states or ethnic groups. Given the complexity of ethnic and cultural conflicts, there is no easy solution to related issues.

Check your progress - V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

10. Define— Ethnic conflict.

11. What are internal mass-level factors?

12.8 REGIONALISM AND EXTREMISM

12.8.1 REGIONALISM

Regionalism is a strong attachment to one's own region. For Example, in India people identify themselves based on their states like a Tamilian, a Bengali, a Bihari etc, more than the identity of an 'Indian'.

In current global trade system, regionalism is spreading at great pace. The huge spread of regionalism is encouraged by the explosion of regional institutions that give rise to substantial academic interest in both their sources and consequences. In bulk of academic literature, Regions are described as groups of countries situated in the same geographic space but it is not clear where one region ends and the next begins. According to Russett (1967), a region is based on geographic closeness, social and cultural similarity, shared political attitudes and political institutions, and financial interdependence. Deutsch et al. (1957) stated that high levels of interdependence across multiple dimensions that include economic transactions, communications, and political values as determining whether a group of countries constitutes a region. Thompson (1973) debated that regions comprises of states that are geographically close to each other, interact extensively, and share numerous facts, behaviours and culture.

In Indian perspective, regionalism denotes to proclamation of different ethnic, linguistic or economic interests by various groups within the nation. It has been well documented that the roots of regionalism lie in linguistic, ethnic, economic and cultural identities of the people who stay in particular geographical area.

Regionalism is a topic of debate among theorists. Katzenstein (2006) described regionalism as institutionalized practices and regionalization as "a process that engages actors". According to Fawcett (2004), regionalism is as a policy or a project. Regionalism is basically associated with ideas, identities, and ideologies to a regional project. Munakata (2006) stated that regionalism comprises of institutions established by governments to support regional economic integration but emphasizes the changeable degrees of promise by members.

In Indian context, regionalism is extremely engrossed in its diversity of languages, cultures, tribes, religions, communities. It instigates from the sense of regional awareness, which is often powered by a sense of regional withdrawal. In India, there is huge population of different castes, creeds, customs and cultures and its broad regions are dissimilar from one another. For example, southern India, the home of Dravidian cultures, itself a region of many regions is very different from the north.

12.8.1.1 Major Characteristics of Regionalism

1. Regionalism is accustomed by economic, social, political and cultural inequalities.
2. Regionalism sometimes is a psychic phenomenon.
3. Regionalism is developed as an expression of group identity as well as devotion to particular region.
4. Regionalism assumes the concept of development of one's own region without considering the interest of other regions.

5. Regionalism proscribes people from other regions to be benefited by a particular region.

12.8.1.2 Causes of Regionalism

There are many reasons for the eruption of regionalism in Indian setting.

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- ❖ First is the effort of the national government to execute a particular ideology, language or cultural pattern on all people and groups. People are forced to cultivate the regionalism movements. With these policies of regional groups, the states of the South began to fight the imposition of Hindi as an official languages they feared this may make north more powerful.
- ❖ Second major cause for the development of regionalism is constant negligence of an area or region by the ruling parties and focus of administrative and political power has given rise to demand for decentralization of authority and divide of unilingual states.
- ❖ Thirdly, there is a wish of the various units of the Indian federal system to maintain their sub cultural regions and self-government has promoted regionalism and given rise to demand for greater independence.
- ❖ Fourth reason for the rise of regionalism is the desire of regional leaders to gain power. In Southern state, political parties like DMK, AIADMK, Akali Dal, Telugu Desam, AsomGanaParishad have encouraged regionalism to dominate these regions.
- ❖ Other reason for huge growth of regionalism is the interaction between the forces of modernisation and mass contribution in India. Feeling of regionalism is developed among the people of backward areas as they are being discriminated from other powerful groups. The local political leaders exploited this issue and stimulate people against Central Government for deliberately trying to maintain regional imbalances by neglecting social and economic development of some regions.

12.8.1.3 Types of Regionalism in India

Regionalism in India is of various types that include demand of the people of certain areas for separate statehood, demand of people of certain Union Territories for full-fledged statehood, demand of certain people for favourable settlement of inter-state disputes, and the demand of the people of certain areas for secession from the Indian Union.

1. **Supra-state regionalism** is a manifestation of group identity of numerous states. In this form of regionalism, the group of states unites to make common views on the issue of mutual interest vis-à-vis another group of states or at times against the union. The group identity forged is negative in character and based on specific issue. But it is not permanent unification of state identities in the collective identity. Even at times of inter-group rivalries, tensions and conflicts may tend to continue, concurrently along with their cooperation. North-eastern states in India have the supra-state regionalism.

2. **Inter-state regionalism** is coterminous with local territories and involves contrasting of the identities of one or more states against another. This form of regionalism is issue specific. For example disagreements between Karnataka and Tamil Nadu over the distribution of Kaveri water may be interpreted as inter-state regionalism.
3. **Intra-state regionalism** is a type of regionalism that signifies that wherein a part of the state strives for self-identity and self-development and therefore, it is taken in a positive sense. In negative terms, it affects against the collective interest of the state as well as the nation. For instance there is a feeling of coastal region and western region in Odisha, coastal region and Telangana region in Andhra Pradesh.

12.8.1.4 Factors responsible for Regionalism in India

India is a country with wide diversity and plurality. No other country in the world had existed with a broad unity, peace and tolerance as India does. This unity in diversity of India is praised by many countries around the world. Despite this unity there are sources of regional conflict. The following factors explain the factors that cause regionalism.

1. Geographical Factors

- ❖ India has a very diverse geographical landmass. As a result of geographical differences, there is a huge variation in climate. These differences in climate cause changes in lifestyle and food habits. For example, North India is very cold during winter and very hot during summer. This is not the case in South India which is hot and humid all throughout the year. Thus people's clothing and lifestyle are varied due to this fact.
- ❖ People belonging to hilly region of Himalayas have adopted themselves with high altitude and cold conditions. People living in forests (For example, tribes) depend on it for food, shelter and other needs. Thus they have a lifestyle that is significantly different from the rest of the population.

2. Historical Factors

- ❖ During Ancient phase of history, it was only during the time of Ashoka's rule that India became a single political entity. In the other phases, India was largely ruled by regional kingdoms, for instance, by Cholas and Pandyas of South India and Satavahanas of Andhra.
- ❖ During Medieval India, India was ruled by kings who belonged to various sections of Islam. It was only during Akbar's rule, India again became united. Even though his rule had a central government like character, there were numerous governors who ruled the smaller provinces and had their own autonomy and culture. For example, the Rajputs.
- ❖ India once again become politically united during the British rule. The British however due to their policy of divide and rule, encouraged the regional differences. They gave autonomy and concessions to numerous princely states. They fought wars by pitching one king against another, for example, the Carnatic Wars. This prevented the formation of a unified country.

3. Linguistic Factors

- India has 22 official languages that are recognised by the Constitution. But there are around 1635 mother tongues as per 2001 census. Further, there are 29 languages with more than 10 Lakh native speakers. The mother tongue of a person creates a profound attachment to one's own language and hence the identity of belonging also develops. The change of names of Bombay to Mumbai, Bangalore to Bengaluru, Madras to Chennai shows the affinity of people towards their language.
- This linguistic unity has been a major factor in the formation of states during post independent India. Apart from emotional attachment, it also created ease in communication for day to day activities, administration and establishment of a business.
- Hindi has been envisaged by the constitution to be promoted as a Lingua Franca (connecting language or a common language). Indian Government after independence has made efforts to promote Hindi. But there has been widespread agitation against this move from non-Hindi speaking states.
- In the present day, the unity of our country is threatened due to differences in languages. Linguistic differences discourage people to travel from one area to another. Residing and settling in any part of India is a fundamental right enshrined in the constitution but linguistic differences create discomfort and confusion for taking up jobs and make a living. Thus people prefer more to work and settle in their respective regions. This prevents the intermingling of people from different states.
- Language also plays a role in exposure to a set of ideas and upbringing. For example Bollywood and Hindi TV channels are mostly followed by Hindi speaking states whereas movies, music and shows based on regional languages are followed by people belonging to that region.

4. Religious Factors

Regionalism in India also has a religious dimension. India was united with Pakistan before independence. The differences based on religion have led to the creation of Pakistan. Similarly, the violent demand for an independent country of Khalistan in the 1980s was raised by Sikhs.

5. Political Factors

India's politics and its political parties showcase the regionalism present in our country. They are broadly divided into: National Parties and Regional Parties.

National parties have a strong hold in many states. Their work is based on an all India agenda. For Example, The Congress and Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP)

On the other hand, the **Regional parties** are mostly confined to a single state. They work based on the interest of the state. For Example, Trinamool Congress in West Bengal and Shiv Sena in Maharashtra.

Political aspirations of leaders remain a major source of regionalism. For example, regional political parties have used the regional and linguistic

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identities to secure votes. They have created an imaginary threat from outsiders and promise their vote bank for securing their land for themselves and to eliminate outsiders. Regional parties and fringe elements in various states have campaigned for this agenda.

6. Economic Factors

Economic factors also contribute to the development of regionalism. For example, some states and regions are better in terms of development like infrastructure, healthcare, job opportunities etc. These economic factors cause inequality problems between regions. For example, the formation of states like Jharkhand and Telangana were based on lack of development. The problem of Naxalism has its roots in economic deprivation of people belonging to this region.

7. Ethnic Factors

India has many ethnic differences. This has been proven by anthropological research. India is home to as many as 645 Scheduled tribes as recognised by the constitution. These ethnic differences formed the base for demands for political autonomy and secession. For instance, the Nagas of Nagaland are demanding a nation based on their ethnic identity. Some demands have taken the form of violent armed struggle with established governments. All these factors pose a threat to India's unity.

8. Cultural Factors

Culture of Indian population varies with respect to region. When a citizen from another cultural group offends these traditions or shows cultural insensitivity, there arises conflict.

9. Caste system

Caste system attributed differing social status to different sections of the population. It has also promoted sectarian and sometimes regional aspirations. For example, the Vanniyars of North Tamil Nadu are demanding a separate nation based on caste identity.

Rituals and Festivals: Festivals of both religious and secular nature are celebrated in India. But they are numerous and vary according to the region. Hinduism is followed by a majority of people in India. Even within Hinduism, festivals and rituals vary widely based on region. There are numerous tribal festivals that showcase the tribal way of life. For example, Hornbill festival in Nagaland.

Past Traditions: Cultural unity of a group of people also depends on noble deeds, myths and folklores of local heroes. For example, Shivaji in Maharashtra, Maharana Pratap in Rajasthan, Lachit Borphukan of Assam are revered by the local people.

12.8.1.5 Impact of Regionalism in India

Positive

Scholars believe that regionalism plays an important role in building of the nation, if the demands of the regions are accommodated by the political system of the country. Regional recognition in terms of statehood or state autonomy gives self-determination to the people of that particular region and they feel empowered and happy.

Internal self-determination of community, whether linguistic, tribal, religious, regional, or their combinations, has remained the predominant form in which

regionalism in India has sought to express itself, historically as well as at present time.

Regional identities in India have not always defined themselves in opposition to and at the expense of, the national identity, noticed a democratic effect of such process in that India's representative democracy has moved close to the people who feel more involved and show greater concern for institutions of local and regional governance.

For example, **Tripura Tribal Autonomous District Council (TTADC)**, formed in 1985, has served to protect an otherwise endangered tribal identity in the state by providing a democratic platform for former separatists to become a party of governance, and thereby reduced significantly the basis of political extremism in the state.

In such political setup, there always remains a scope of balanced regional development. The socio-cultural diversity is given due respect and it helps the regional people to practise their own culture too.

Negative

Regionalism is often seen as a serious threat to the development, progress and unity of the nation. It gives internal security challenges by the insurgent groups, who propagate the feelings of regionalism against the mainstream politico-administrative setup of the country.

Regionalism definitely impacts politics as days of coalition government and alliances are taking place. Regional demands become national demands, policies are launched to satisfy regional demands and generally those are extended to all pockets of country, hence national policies are now dominated by regional demands. Example, MSP given to sugarcane, it was helpful for farmers in Maharashtra but it was implemented across all states resulting agitations of farmers belonging to UP, Punjab and Haryana.

Some regional leaders play politics of vote bank based on language, culture, etc., this is certainly against healthy democratic procedures. This always leads to demand for separate state and it has been observed that after creating small states only few political leaders could run efficient government else alliances run government which ultimately makes administration machinery ineffective.

Development plans are implemented unevenly focusing on regions to which heavy weight leaders are benefitted, hence unrest is generated among rest of the regions. Law and order is disturbed, agitations with massive violence take place and ultimately government is compelled to take harsh steps; emitting wrong signals about the government authorities.

Regionalism, also becomes hurdle in the international diplomacy, as in 2013 we saw how Tamil Nadu regional parties were against the Prime Minister of India, attending the Commonwealth heads meeting (CHOGM) in Sri Lanka. These actions have their direct implication on the relation of India with Sri Lanka or other countries of the forums or in case of Mamata Banerjee not agreeing to Land Boundary agreement and Teesta River Water sharing, when the leaders at centre level were ready to do it.

The regionalism induced violence disturbs the whole society, people are killed, students cannot attend the schools & colleges, tourism cannot be promoted, etc. This impacts the development of human resource, governments

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need to deploy extra forces to control the situation and it has direct implication on the economy of the nation. Impacted societies remain aloof from the mainstream development creating further gulf. On the broader front, it harms India's status in global arena and becomes a hurdle in becoming global power or world leader.

12.8.1.6 Process of combating regionalism: Regionalism is considered as significant facet of Indian political system. Sometimes, it poses threat to the harmony of the nation. Therefore, it is imperative to take immediate steps to curb such feeling among Indian populace. Social scholars have recommended numerous measures to reduce the propensity of regionalism. First major step is to promote uniform development of the hitherto abandoned areas so that people feel a part of the national mainstream. Secondly, the central government must not interfere in the matters of the State unless it is unescapable for national interest. Another remedy for reducing regionalism is to resolve Problems of people in a peaceful and constitutional manner. Politicians must not be allowed to misappropriate the issue of regional demands. The states must be given authority to resolve their issues except the major issues that are related to national interest. Some necessary changes must be done in the Central-State relations in favour of the states, and to introduce a system of national education that would assist people to overawed regional feelings and develop patriotic sense towards the country.

It is established in political studies that regionalism has unfavourable impacts which lead to a reduction of world welfare as compared to free trade. A clash between regionalism and global free trade occurs, but these negative effects are lessened by the continuing globalisation process and the efforts for multilateral liberalisation. Regional parties have dominant role for spreading regionalism and generating awareness for regional issues among inhabitants. Since these parties have their political reality in regional support, they give rise to regionalism for their interest and to gain power. It is a recognised strategy of the regional leadership to propagate their agenda against the Centre, such as blaming the opposition party for discriminating against the state with political motives. Alongside, the regional press, which is mainly language-oriented, immensely play lead role in developing the feeling of regionalism.

12.8.2 EXTREMISM

Extremism is the desire to enforce illiberal views which are in a dichotomy to the liberal values that we all adhere to in a Liberal secular democracy.

Extremism means, literally, "the quality or state of being extreme" or "the advocacy of extreme measures or views". It can also be used in an economic context. The term is usually meant to be pejorative. However, it may also be used in a more academic, purely descriptive, non-condemning sense.

12.8.2.1 DEFINITIONS OF EXTREMISM

There have been many different definitions of "extremism". Peter T. Coleman and Andrea Bartoli give observation of definitions: Extremism is a complex phenomenon, although its complexity is often hard to see. Most simply, it can be defined as activities (beliefs, attitudes, feelings, actions, strategies) of a character far removed from the ordinary. In conflict settings it

manifests as a severe form of conflict engagement. However, the labeling of activities, people, and groups as "extremist", and the defining of what is "ordinary" in any setting is always a subjective and political matter. Thus, we suggest that any discussion of extremism be mindful of the following: Typically, the same extremist act will be viewed by some as just and moral (such as pro-social "freedom fighting"), and by others as unjust and immoral (antisocial "terrorism") depending on the observer's values, politics, moral scope, and the nature of their relationship with the actor. In addition, one's sense of the moral or immoral nature of a given act of extremism (such as Nelson Mandela's use of guerilla war tactics against the South African Government) may change as conditions (leadership, world opinion, crises, historical accounts, etc.) change. Thus, the current and historical context of extremist acts shapes our view of them. Power differences also matter when defining extremism. When in conflict, the activities of members of low power groups tend to be viewed as more extreme than similar activities committed by members of groups advocating the status quo.

12.8.2.2 CAUSES OF EXTREMISM

There are numerous of reasons for the development of Extremism in India:

1. **Lack of governance:** Governance is mainly concerned the significant issue as that lack a long term strategic perspective. Priority of Government bodies is to focus on Industrialization and do not give much importance to people living in tribal areas. Tribal have been denied their constitutional rights and justice.
2. **Socio-economic issues:** When considering socio economic issues, education must be the prime involvement and this needs to be addressed with innovation. Once populace is literate and well educated in particular region, they will be able think logically and do not involve violent actions. Most of these people who are entering into the movement of extremism are lacking primary education, basic amenities and infrastructure facilities.

Economic discontent was a prevailing factor which led to the growth of the militant nationalism. Towards the end of the 19th century economic condition of the people became miserable due to unemployment and repressive financial measures of the Government.

In all over worlds, following causes can be observed for growth of extremism:

1. Political deprivation leading to hopelessness or a sense of powerlessness.
2. Long festering political disputes.
3. Lack of Education and poverty.
4. Ideological imperatives may lead to extremism.
5. Socio-economic inequities, unemployment, despair about the future.
6. Dishonest and self-serving dominant groups.
7. Foreign occupations.
8. Sense of victimhood amongst Muslims.
9. Renaissance of Islam phobia in Europe.

12.8.2.3 Types of Extremism

1. Personal Extremism
2. Family Extremism
3. Institutional or Organizational Extremism
4. Group Extremism

5. Social or Cultural Extremism
6. National Extremism
7. International Extremism

12.8.2.4 Determinants of Extremism

Extremism is just like epidemic ailment that spread its arms in various parts of world. There are three important determinants. First the extremism that those in power exhibit. They go in with tanks and bombs where persistent force backed diplomacy can work, seek to destroy what requires careful reconstruction, advance division and hate where understanding and bridging of differences is needed, and abandon the path of justice and fair play for pure partisanship. All this naturally promotes lethal and devastating extremism. Secondly, when political system is not credible and there is no reliable justice structure, political groups often frame their concerns and solutions in an extremist way. When a non-credible political system leads to the illegal imposition of the rule of a specific elite, party, ethnicity or institution over the 'rest', the response of the rest is often cast in extreme ethnic, religious, anti-elite or anti-institution character. Henceforth through overemphasis of their legitimate concerns, they construct a victimhood scenario. In countries where trustworthy political and legal systems do not exist, many would buy into victimhood framing. The causes of dissatisfaction may be plentiful. They could be political, cultural, sociological, economic and moral. Third determinant of extremism is perpetual discontent that develops frustration, irrationality and worry and a mind that will almost naturally take to radicalism. They have almost no stake in the dominant socio-political and cultural milieu. With lots of suffering, people choose path of the anarchistic, nihilistic or messianic route to worldly and heavenly deliverance.

12.8.2.5 Ways to resolve issue of extremism

Land Related Measures

It is necessary to make efforts to continuously implement the land ceiling issues. So that the ceiling excess land obtained should be made available for distribution amongst the most susceptible section of the landless poor people. Land should be acquired by government for special economic zone through giving proper compensation to the agriculturalists.

Basic facilities and Infrastructure

It is observed that when government fails to provide infrastructure and services as per national norms that gives rise extremism affected areas. Basic services to standards among the people in these areas are to be given prime importance.

Governance Issues

There are some government issues that lead to spread of extremism. In central India where disturbance is prevalent such as states like Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Chattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Jharkhand and parts of Maharashtra. State interventions both for development and for law and order are not good. Local populations present in the tribal areas are being dominated by the armed and rich people. Government must take necessary steps to protect these communities. The basic steps to improve the status of poorest section of society is establishment of credibility and confidence of

government, keeping a continuous watch for fulfilment of peoples vision, effective protection, peace and good governance, sustainable development with equity in tribal areas, will make extremism low in tribal areas.

12.8.2.6 Government initiative to decrease extremism

Government must come forward to reduce the expansion of extremism in India through implementing various policies. Military operations have not been uncontrolled and individual states continue to undertake area clearing operations, such exercises appear to form parts of a new clear, hold and develop strategy that uses development as a tool to win back the support of the tribal population, who overpoweringly appear to sympathize with the extremists. In the beginning of 2011, there is a rehabilitated focus to perform development initiatives in areas cleared of Maoist presence. Several flagship projects of the government to improve connectivity of tribal areas with the administrative centres, to provide work to the tribal youth and to make certain health and educational facilities have been launched. It is imperative to ensure that proper execution of these developmental projects and monitor their progress, a new scheme titled Prime Ministers Rural Development Fellows Scheme has also been revealed. Under the scheme, 156 young professionals have been trained and are being stationed in 78 worst-affected districts for two years to help the district administration. Resources have started flowing into the coffers of the district administration with an importance on time bound utilization and execution.

It has been observed in the past that the extremists targeted infrastructure projects or have prevented contractors from completing the projects, security forces are now allocated to protect the planned development ventures in order to ensure their timely completion and security. Government must assure to people of weaker section that they will not harm the tribal community.

The government has also cleared a proposal to raise a combat unit under the para-military Central Reserve Police Force (CRPF) for construction of roads in Maoist-affected areas.

India is currently dealing with an effective response to left-wing extremism. Even though in the last two years, extremist ferocity as well as areas under extremist influence has somewhat reduced, but the problem remains.

To summarize, extremism is entrenched in Indian community. Various authors elaborated this concept as violent activities of certain group of people due to dissatisfaction from government policies and initiatives. It is established that Extremism became a major philosophy of Indian nationalism. There are several grounds for development of extremism in India such as joblessness, ignorance of weaker section of society by government. On one side, there are passionate supporters and, at the other extreme, some others hold the view that the movement should be crushed cruelly. It is difficult to classify the opinion in the middle path. It can be said that some of the demands of the extremists are genuine and cannot be ignored. Therefore, the Government must seriously consider such demands and make policies and execute them, either voluntarily or subsequent to negotiations with the protestors.

NOTES

Check your progress - VI

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

12. What is Regionalism?

13. What is Extremism?

12.9 LET US SUM UP

Illiteracy is a state whereby one is unable to read and write. In its simplest form, it can be defined as lack of any or sufficient education. A person who is unable to sign and unable to read and write, in simple sentences is called illiterate. Illiteracy can also mean ignorance or the lack of knowledge in a specific subject. Illiteracy is one of the biggest problems that India is facing in contemporary world. Poverty is not only a challenge for India, as more than one fifth of the world poor live in India alone, but also for the world, where more than 260 million poverty are not been able to meet their basic needs. In recent times there has been an acceptance of poverty as a social problem. India with the coming of independence has made some efforts to raise the level of income of people living in poverty. A major cause of poverty among India's rural people, both individuals and communities, is lack of access to productive assets and financial resources. High levels of illiteracy, inadequate health care and extremely limited access to social services are common among poor rural people. Micro enterprise development, which could generate income and enable poor people to improve their living conditions, has only recently become a focus of the government.

Unemployment occurs when a person who is actively searching for employment is unable to find work. Unemployment is often used as a measure of the health of the economy. The most frequent measure of unemployment is the unemployment rate, which is the number of unemployed people divided by the number of people in the labour force. Ethnic conflict is defined as any episode of sustained violent conflict in which national, ethnic, and religious or other communal minorities challenge governments to seek major changes in status. An **ethnic conflict** is a conflict between two or more contending **ethnic groups**. While the source of the conflict may be **political**, social, economic or religious, the individuals in conflict must expressly fight for their ethnic group's position within society. This final criterion differentiates ethnic conflict from other forms of struggle.

Regionalism is a strong attachment to one's own region. For Example, in India people identify themselves based on their states like a Tamilian, a Bengali, a Bihari etc, more than the identity of an 'Indian'. The regionalism induced violence disturbs the whole society, people are killed, students cannot attend the schools & colleges, tourism cannot be promoted, etc. This impacts the development of human resource, governments need to deploy extra forces to control the situation and it has direct implication on the economy of the nation.

Extremism is the desire to enforce illiberal views which are in a dichotomy to the liberal values that we all adhere to in a Liberal secular democracy. Extremism means, literally, "the quality or state of being extreme"

or "the advocacy of extreme measures or views". Therefore, the Government must seriously consider such demands and make policies and execute them, either voluntarily or subsequent to negotiations with the protestors.

In this unit we have discussed National problem of Illiteracy and poverty in Indian society. Unemployment has also touched upon briefly. The origin and nature of ethnic conflict have been discussed. In this unit Regionalism and Extremism are discussed in detail

NOTES

12.10 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. What is the meaning of unemployment?
2. Define Poverty.
3. Explain the types of illiteracy.
4. Describe different types of poverty.
5. Enumerate the classification of unemployment
6. What is ethnic conflict?
7. Write down the major characteristics of regionalism
8. What are the types of extremism?

12.11 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Drug abuse, Gender discrimination, Crime against children and juvenile, Beggary, Untouchability and Casticism, Khap Panchayat
2. Malnutrition, Degraded condition of females and high infant mortality rate, Drinking water, Medical Sector, Sanitation, Infectious Diseases
3. Illiteracy is a state whereby one is unable to read and write
4. Rural Functional Literacy Project
5. Gillin and Gillin. "Poverty is that condition in which a person either because of inadequate income or unwise expenditures, does not maintain a scale of living high enough to provide for his physical and mental efficiency and to enable him and his natural dependents to function usefully according to the standards of the society of which he is a member".
6. "**poverté**" which means **poor**
7. "Unemployment is often described as a condition of involuntary idleness"----**Nava Gopal Das**
8. problem of poverty
9. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act
10. Ethnic conflict is defined as any episode of sustained violent conflict in which national, ethnic, and religious or other communal minorities challenge governments to seek major changes in status
11. Internal mass-level factors may include fast-paced economic changes, modernization, patterns of political or economic discrimination, and internal migration. Brown deems those "bad domestic problems."
12. Regionalism is a strong attachment to one's own region.
13. Extremism means, literally, "the quality or state of being extreme" or "the advocacy of extreme measures or views".

12.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT- XIII GLOBAL PROBLEMS

Structure

- 13.1 Introduction
 - 13.2 Objectives
 - 13.3 Global Problems
 - 13.4 Environment Problems
 - 13.5 Displacement and Resettlement
 - 13.5.1 Displacement
 - 13.5.1.1 Development Induced Displacement
 - 13.5.1.2 Causes of Displacement
 - 13.5.1.3 Forced Displacement
 - 13.5.2 Resettlement
 - 13.6 Let Us Sum Up
 - 13.7 Unit- End- Exercises
 - 13.8 Answer to check your Progress
 - 13.9 Suggested Readings
-

NOTES

13.1 INTRODUCTION

Various processes that can contribute to the global problems climate change, poverty and inequality, financial and economic crisis, food crisis, water scarcity, energy security, migration etc. Everything that surrounds or affects an organism during its lifetime is collectively referred to as its environment. The global environmental problems include pollution, global warming, ozone depletion, and acid rain, depletion of natural resources, overpopulation, waste disposal, deforestation and loss of biodiversity. All across the world, people are facing a wealth of new and challenging environmental problems every day. Some of them are small and only affect a few ecosystems, but others are drastically changing the landscape of what we already know. Displacement can be defined as the forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purposes of economic development. - Coercion and violation of Human Right. Development-induced displacement is a social problem affecting multiple levels of human organization, from tribal and village communities to well-developed urban areas. (DIDR) is the forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purposes of economic development. It is a subset of forced migration. Resettlement programmes have predominantly focused on the process of physical relocation rather than on the economic and social development of the displaced and other negatively affected people.

In this unit you will learn Global Problems. You will know the Environment Problems. You will learn about Displacement and Resettlement.

13.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ discuss about the Global Problems
- ✓ identify the Environment Problems

- ✓ gain the knowledge about Displacement and Resettlement

13.3 GLOBAL PROBLEMS

NOTES

‘Global challenges’ will be defined as any major trend, shock, or development that has the potential for serious global impacts and thus to create humanitarian needs and change the environments in which humanitarian actors will operate in coming years. Below is a non-exhaustive list of global challenges we have identified.

Climate change

With a predicted increase in temperature that will indirectly lead to the disappearance of territory, spark widespread (and, in many cases, permanent) displacement (already 20 million people are estimated to have been temporarily displaced by climate related disasters in 2008, a comparable number to the 26 million conflict-related IDPs in the same period), change morbidity disease patterns, and promote a monumental shift in global policies, climate change will fundamentally transform the way humanity approaches global security and livelihood sustainability.

Extreme poverty and inequality

With a marked increase in extreme poverty and profound inequalities of income and wealth plaguing most nations (as approximately half the world’s population lives on less than 1% of its wealth), extreme poverty and inequality continue to leave whole communities and households in an almost irreversibly devastating state of vulnerability and need.

Financial and economic crisis

With the world economy now predicted to contract by 1.7%, remittances which accounted for some 2% of the major developing countries’ GDP in 2007 having decreased to 1.8% in 2008 and falling by an additional 0.9% this year, private capital flows dropping by some \$700 million compared to previous years, and an additional 90 million people being pushed into poverty, the financial and economic crisis is leading to unemployment, an increase in poverty, and the curtailment of critical safety-nets, thereby threatening an even larger caseload in need of humanitarian assistance.

Food crisis

With over 1 billion people worldwide (one-sixth of the world population) suffering from hunger, over 30 cases of food-related unrest having erupted around the world since 2008, 25,000 children dying daily from malnutrition, 2 billion people currently suffering from micro-nutrient deficiencies, local food prices in most developing countries being too expensive for hundreds of millions of people, disputes over depleting land resources, and projections that by 2025 food production will not be able to increase by the necessary 50% over current levels to keep up with population growth, the food crisis will continue to threaten lives and livelihoods worldwide.

Water scarcity

With the number of people who do not have access to safe water rising just over 1 billion to 2 billion by 2025 (roughly one third of the world population), water scarcity represents a major political, economic and human rights issue driving vulnerability and conflict.

Energy security

With the projected one and a half times increase in energy demand by 2030, energy security could cause supply-side gluts stoking fears of scarcity and reigniting geopolitical rivalries, whilst also providing the impetus to invest in renewable energies.

Migration

With the potential for hundreds of millions of people forced to uproot their lives and rebuild them across borders, continents and oceans, migration will be one of the biggest challenges both within and across borders.

Population growth and demographic shift

With a population that will grow from 6.7 billion today to over 8 billion by 2025, and the number of people aged over 65 rising from 390 million now to 800 million in the same time frame, population growth and demographic shifts will put massive strains on global resources and institutions. Localized demographic trends will also be a source of challenges: the number of 15 – 24 year olds in the Middle East and North Africa region is unprecedented and set to rise as a proportion of population. (In an extreme case, the Palestinian Territories are set to see an 84% increase in youth population between 2005 and 2025.) This trend, combined with the MENA region claiming the highest youth unemployment rates in the world, may be a source of further regional insecurities.

Urbanization

With an urban population that will double in Asia and increase by 150% in Africa between now and 2050, urbanization will create massive social inequities and risks as well as tangible health problems, malnutrition rates, unemployment, and income deficits, which represent an almost permanent threat to the security of billions.

Health pandemics and infectious diseases

With projections that any large-scale influenza pandemic could result in from 2 up to 60 million potential deaths, and the discovery that infectious diseases that have been controlled historically are now demonstrating increased virulence, changing incidence, and shifting vectors of transmission, health pandemics and infectious diseases threaten to further degrade the lives of many, potentially increasing feelings of injustice and amplifying the pressures on weak and fragile states.

Ozone Layer Depletion

Earth's atmosphere is divided into three regions, namely troposphere, stratosphere and mesosphere. The stratosphere extends from 10 to 50 kms from the Earth's surface. This region is concentrated with slightly pungent smelling, light bluish ozone gas. The ozone as is made up of molecules each containing three atoms of oxygen; its chemical formula is O_3 . The ozone layer, in the stratosphere acts as an efficient filter for harmful solar Ultraviolet B (UV-B) rays. Ozone is produced and destroyed naturally in the atmosphere and until recently, this resulted in a well-balanced equilibrium. Ozone is formed when oxygen molecules absorb ultraviolet radiation with wavelengths less than 240 nanometers and is destroyed when it absorbs ultraviolet radiation with wavelengths greater than 290 nanometers. In recent years, scientists have measured a seasonal thinning of the ozone layer primarily at the South Pole. This phenomenon is being called the ozone hole.

Global Warming

Before the Industrial Revolution, human activities released very few gases into the atmosphere and all climate changes happened naturally. After the Industrial Revolution, through fossil fuel combustion, changing agricultural practices and deforestation, the natural composition of gases in the atmosphere is getting affected and climate and environment began to alter significantly.

Over the last 100 years, it was found out that the earth is getting warmer and warmer, unlike previous 8000 years when temperatures have been relatively constant. The present temperature is 0.3 - 0.6 °C warmer than it was 100 years ago. The key greenhouse gases (GHG) causing global warming is carbon dioxide. CFC's, even though they exist in very small quantities, are significant contributors to global warming. Carbon dioxide, one of the most prevalent greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, has two major anthropogenic (human-caused) sources: the combustion of fossil fuels and changes in land use. Net releases of carbon dioxide from these two sources are believed to be contributing to the rapid rise in atmospheric concentrations since Industrial Revolution. Because estimates indicate that approximately 80 percent of all anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions currently come from fossil fuel combustion, world energy use has emerged at the sources of greenhouse gases.

Check your progress - I

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Write the role of Climate change in global challenges?
2. Comment on the issue Water scarcity.
3. What is the biggest challenge both within and across borders?

13.4 ENVIRONMENT PROBLEMS

NOTES

Everything that surrounds or affects an organism during its lifetime is collectively referred to as its environment. It comprises both living (biotic) and non-living (abiotic) components. Human civilisation and globalisation are the dominant culprits of constant change in the global environment in present scenario. Various processes that can be said to contribute to the global environmental problems include pollution, global warming, ozone depletion, and acid rain, depletion of natural resources, overpopulation, waste disposal, deforestation and loss of biodiversity. Almost all these processes are the result of the use of natural resources in unsustainable manner. These processes have highly negative impact on our environment. One of the major impacts is the release of large quantities of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in atmosphere as the result of burning of fossil fuels by industries and automobiles. The result is the worldwide pollution problem, temperature fluctuation of our planet, ozone hole and possible change in Earth's climate. Loss of forests, damage to water bodies (lakes and ponds) and their ecosystems by acid rain, over-exploitation of natural resources, massive extinction of species due to habitat destruction and other well-known causes worldwide are connected with environmental issues globally. The rapidly growing demographic structure and globalisation are leading to a number of environmental issues because of the uncontrolled urbanisation, industrialisation, deforestation and loss of useful agriculture land. The global environmental health impact remains profoundly perturbing. Unsafe water, poor sanitation and hygiene conditions, air pollution and global climate change accounts for nearly a tenth of deaths and disease burden worldwide. Due to above-mentioned environmental issues, our planet is facing severe environmental crisis. Current environmental problems lead to disasters and tragedies now, will also be the reason of casualties in future and require urgent attention from the responsible authorities/nations to frame appropriate laws to overcome these issues and also by making people aware to use natural resources in sustainable manner.

Our environment is constantly changing. There is no denying that. However, as our environment changes, so does the need to become increasingly aware of the problems that surround it. With a massive influx of natural disasters, warming and cooling periods, different types of weather patterns and much more, people need to be aware of what types of environmental problems our planet is facing.

Global warming has become an undisputed fact about our current livelihoods; our planet is warming up and we are definitely part of the problem. However, this isn't the only environmental problem that we should be concerned about. All across the world, people are facing a wealth of new and challenging environmental problems every day. Some of them are small and only affect a few ecosystems, but others are drastically changing the landscape of what we already know.

Our planet is poised at the brink of a severe environmental crisis. Current environmental problems make us vulnerable to disasters and tragedies, now and in the future. We are in a state of planetary emergency, with environmental problems piling up high around us. Unless we address the various issues prudently and seriously we are surely doomed for disaster. Current environmental problems require urgent attention.

Environmental Concerns

1. Air Pollution

Pollution of air, water and soil take a huge number of years to recover. Industry and engine vehicle fumes are the most obvious toxins. Substantial metals, nitrates and plastic are poisons in charge of pollution. While water contamination is brought about by oil slicks, acid rain, and urban sprawl; air contamination is created by different gasses and poisons discharged by businesses and manufacturing plants and burning of fossil fuels; soil contamination is majorly created by mechanical waste that takes supplements out of the soil.

2. Water Pollution

Clean drinking water is turning into an uncommon thing. Water is turning into a monetary and political concern as the human populace battles for this need. Wastes from industrial and agricultural activities pollute the water that is used by humans, animals and plants.

3: Soil and Land Pollution

Land pollution simply means degradation of earth's surface as a result of human activities like mining, littering, deforestation, industrial, construction and agricultural activities. Land pollution can have huge environmental impact in the form of air pollution and soil pollution which in turn can have adverse effect on human health.

4. Climate Change

Climate change is yet another environmental concern that has surfaced in last couple of decades. Environmental change has different destructive impacts that include, but are not limited to, the melting of polar ice, change in seasons, new sicknesses, and change in general climate situation.

5. Global Warming

Environmental asset abuse is also an important environmental concern. Fossil fuel utilization brings about discharge of greenhouse gasses, which causes environmental change. However, individuals are taking endeavors to move to renewable energy sources.

6. Deforestation

Our woodlands create new oxygen and additionally help in managing temperature and precipitation. At present, timberlands cover 30% of the area, but wooded areas are being lost on a regular basis because people are looking for homes, food, and materials. Deforestation is a huge problem and will just continue to get worse.

7. Increased Carbon Footprint

Temperature increases, like climate change, are the consequence of human practices, including the use of greenhouse gasses. When the

atmosphere changes and the heat increases, it can cause a number of problems and start to destroy the world we live in.

8. Genetic Modification

Genetic modification utilizing biotechnology is called genetic engineering. Genetic engineering of food brings about expanded poisons and sicknesses as qualities from a hypersensitive plant can exchange to target plant. Some of these crops can even be a threat to the world around us, as animals start to ingest the unnatural chemicals and such.

9. Effect on Marine Life

The amount of carbon in the water and the atmosphere is continuing to be a problem in the world around us. The primary effect is on shellfish and microscopic fish, and it has similar effects to osteoporosis in humans.

10. Public Health Issues

The current environmental concerns represent a considerable measure of danger to well-being of people, and creatures. Dirty water is the greatest well-being danger of the world and poses a risk to the health and lifespan of people and animals.

11. Overpopulation

The number of inhabitants in the planet is arriving at unsustainable levels as it confronts deficiency of assets like water, fuel and food. Overpopulation is one of the most important environmental concerns.

12: Loss of Biodiversity

Biodiversity is yet another casualty due to the impact of human beings on the environment. It is the result of 3.5 billion years of evolution. Habitat destruction is a major cause for biodiversity loss. Habitat loss is caused by deforestation, overpopulation, pollution and global warming.

13. Household and Industrial Waste

The over utilization of assets and formation of plastics are making a worldwide emergency of waste transfer. Developed nations are infamous for creating an unreasonable measure of waste or junk and dumping their waste in the seas and, less created nations.

14. Ozone Layer Depletion: The ozone layer is an undetectable layer of protection around the planet that secures us from the sun's unsafe beams. Depletion of the critical Ozone layer of the air is credited to contamination brought about by Bromide and Chlorine found in Chlorofluro carbons (CFC's). When these poisonous gasses reach the upper parts of the atmosphere, they cause a gap in the ozone layer, the greatest of which is over the Antarctic.

15. Mining

Mining results in extraction of minerals from earth's core. These minerals also bring out harmful chemicals from deep inside the earth to the earth's surface. The toxic emissions from mining can cause air, water and soil pollution.

16: Natural Resource Depletion

Non-renewable resources are limited and will get expired one day. Consumption of fossil fuels at an alarming rate can lead to global warming which can further result in melting of polar ice caps and increase in sea levels.

NOTES

17: Natural Disasters

Natural disasters like earthquakes, floods, tsunamis, cyclones, volcanic eruption can be unpredictable, devastating and can cause irreparable damage. They can cause huge loss of life and property.

18: Nuclear Issues

Radioactive waste is a nuclear fuel that contains radioactive substance and is a by-product of nuclear power generation. The radioactive waste is an environmental concern that is extremely toxic and can have devastating effect on the lives of the people living nearby, if not disposed properly. Radioactive waste is considered to be harmful for humans, plants, animals and surrounding environment.

19. Loss of Endangered Species

Human overpopulation is prompting the elimination of species and environmental surroundings and the loss of various biomes. Environmental frameworks, which took a huge number of years to come into being, are in risk when any species populace is huge.

20. Acid Rain

Acid rain happens because of the vicinity of specific poisons in the climate. Corrosive downpour might be brought about because of use of fossil fuels or volcanoes or spoiling vegetation which discharge sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides into the air.

21: Agricultural Pollution

Modern day agriculture practices make use of chemical products like pesticides and fertilizers to deal with local pests. Some of the chemicals when sprayed do not disappear and infect seeps into the ground and thereby harms plants and crops. Also, contaminated water is used for irrigation by farmers due to disposal of industrial and agricultural waste in local water bodies.

22: Light and Noise Pollution

Noise pollution is another common form of pollution that causes temporary disruption when there is excessive amount of unpleasant noise. Construction activities, industrialization, increase in vehicular traffic, lack of urban planning are few of the causes of noise pollution.

23. Urban Sprawl

Urban sprawl alludes to relocation of populace from high thickness urban ranges to low density provincial zones which bring about spreading of city over more rustic area. Urban sprawl brings about expanded movement, environmental concerns and well-being concerns.

24: Medical Waste

Medical waste is any kind of waste that is produced in large quantity by healthcare centers like hospitals, nursing homes, dental clinics and is considered to be of a bio-hazardous nature. The waste can include needles, syringes, gloves, tubes, blades, blood, body parts and many more.

25: Littering and Landfills

Littering simply means disposal of piece of garbage or debris improperly or at wrong location usually on the ground instead of disposing them at trash container or recycling bin. Littering can cause huge environmental and economic impact in the form of spending millions of dollars to clean the garbage of road that pollute the clean air.

Landfills on the other hand are nothing but huge garbage dumps that make the city look ugly and produce toxic gases that could prove fatal for humans and animals. Landfills are generated due to large amount of waste that is generated by households, industries and healthcare centers every day.

The need for change in our daily lives and the movements of our government is growing. Because so many different factors come into play; voting, governmental issues, the desire to stick to routine, many people don't consider that what they do will affect future generations. If humans continue moving forward in such a harmful way towards the future, then there will be no future to consider. Although it's true that we cannot physically stop our ozone layer from thinning (and scientists are still having trouble figuring out what is causing it exactly,) there are still so many things we can do to try and put a dent in what we already know. By raising awareness in your local community and within your families about these issues, you can help contribute to a more environmentally conscious and friendly place for you to live.

Environmental challenges may increase risks to food, energy and water security on a global scale

Global environmental challenges, such as impacts of climate change, loss of biodiversity, over-use of natural resources and environmental and health issues, are critically linked to issues of poverty and the sustainability of ecosystems, and consequently, issues of resource security and political stability. This adds pressure and uncertainty to the overall competition for natural resources, which might intensify as a consequence of increased demands, decreased supplies and decreased stability of supplies. Ultimately, this further increases pressure on ecosystems globally, and especially their capacity to ensure continued food, energy and water security.

According to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), demand for food, feed and fibers could grow by 70% by 2050. The fragility of global food, water and energy systems has become apparent over recent years. For example, arable land per person declined globally from 0.43 ha in 1962 to 0.26 ha in 1998. The FAO expects this value to fall further by 1.5% per year between now and 2030, if no major policy changes are initiated.

Similarly, the International Energy Agency (IEA) expects global demand for energy to rise by 40% over the next 20 years if no major policy changes are implemented. The IEA has repeatedly warned about an impending global energy crisis due to rising long-term demand. Massive and continuous investments are needed in energy efficiency, renewable energies and new infrastructures to achieve the transition to a low-carbon, resource efficient energy system that is compliant with long-term environmental objectives.

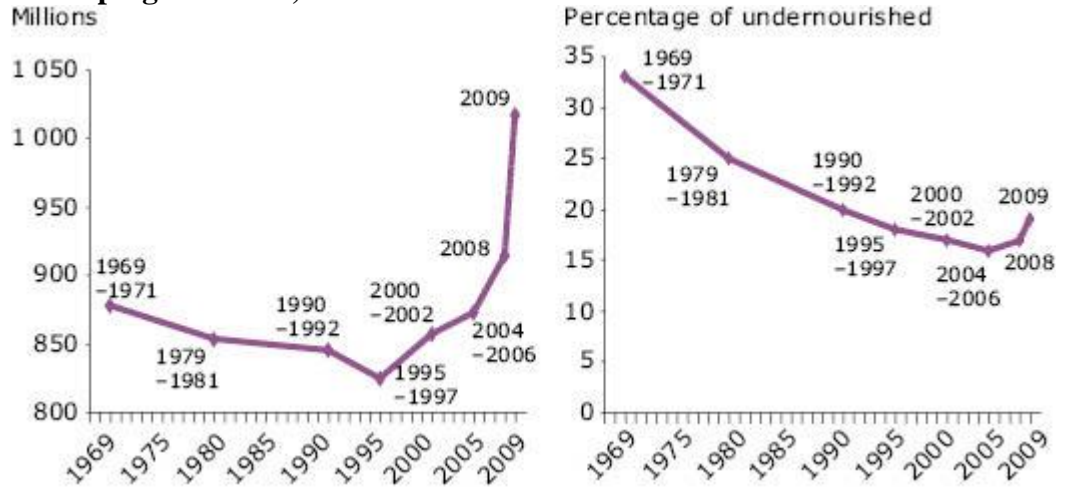
But it could be water shortages that will hit hardest over the coming decades. One estimate suggests that in just 20 years, global demand for water could be 40% higher than today, and more than 50% higher in the most rapidly developing countries. Furthermore, according to a recent estimate prepared by the Secretariat of the Convention of Biological Diversity, the flow in more

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than 60 per cent of the large river systems in the world has been heavily altered. Limits of ecological sustainability of water availability for abstraction have thus been reached, and up to 50% of the world could be living in areas with high water stress by 2030, while more than 60% could still lack improved access to sanitation.

Number of undernourished in the world; percentage of undernourished in developing countries, 1969 to 2009



Water infrastructure systems are often old and there is a lack of information about actual performance and losses. One estimate foresees an average annual investment need of USD772 billion for maintaining water and wastewater services around the world by 2015. Here, potential for ripple effects for food and energy supply exist, for example, cutting agricultural output which could result in decreasing overall social resilience.

Already today, in many parts of the world, non-renewable resource use is close to its limit and potentially renewable resources are being used beyond their reproductive capacity. This kind of dynamics can also be recognised in Europe's neighbouring regions with their comparatively rich natural capital. Water resource over-exploitation, combined with insufficient access to safe drinking water and sanitation, for example, are critical challenges both in Eastern Europe and the Mediterranean.

At the global level, poverty and social exclusion are further exacerbated by ecosystem degradation and changes in the climate. Globally, efforts to alleviate extreme poverty were reasonably effective until the 1990s. However, the recurring food and economic crises throughout 2006 to 2009 have magnified the trend of increasing under-nourishment rates around the world. The number of undernourished rose, for the first time, to more than 1 billion in 2009 and the proportion of undernourished in developing countries, which was declining quite rapidly, has risen in the past few years.

Resource over-exploitation and changes in the climate aggravate threats to natural capital. They also affect quality of life, potentially undermining social and political stability. Furthermore, the livelihoods of billions of people are inevitably linked with the sustainability of local ecosystem services. Combined with demographic pressures, decreasing socio-

ecological resilience can add a new dimension to the environment and security debate, as conflict around scarcer resources is likely to intensify and add to migration pressures.

Check your progress - II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

4. Name some Natural disasters.
5. What is called urban sprawl?
6. Write the abbreviations for FAO and IEA.

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13.5 DISPLACEMENT AND RESETTLEMENT

13.5.1 DISPLACEMENT

Displacement can be defined as the forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purposes of economic development. - Coercion and violation of Human Right

Displacement is defined as the act of moving someone or something from one position to another or the measurement of the volume replaced by something else.

- ❖ *An example of displacement is when war requires people to move from their homes due to the danger.*
- ❖ *An example of displacement is the weight of the water that is replaced by an ocean liner.*

Displacement is seen as the result of a model of development that enforces certain technical and economic choices without giving any serious consideration to those options that would involve the least social and environmental costs.

Most displacement has been involuntary. The displacement literature bears testimony to traumatic forced and delayed relocation, and to the denial of development opportunity for years and often decades due to a long and uncoordinated displacement and resettlement process. The numbers of both directly and indirectly affected people have frequently been underestimated, and there has been an inadequate understanding of the exact nature and extent of the negative effects involved. It has stripped displacement of its political content, the fact that displacement involves the loss of people's rights to land and resources. This has also led to a perception of resettlement and rehabilitation as a reward for the sacrifice rather than as a basic right or entitlement.

Those who view displacement from the point of view of its outcomes would in effect say that though some level of displacement may be inevitable its negative consequences are not. It is acknowledged that displacement causes severe social, economic, and environmental stresses that translate themselves into physiological, psychological, socio-cultural, economic, and ecological damage. At the same time it is maintained that by expanding resettlement objectives beyond merely aiming to improve the standards of living of the people, it would be possible to offset these disabilities. Thus moving towards such a just resettlement and rehabilitation is the focus of this school of

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thought. As a result displacement is large viewed from the perspective of resettlement and rehabilitation and its attendant complexities. The concern of this school of thought is with effective rehabilitation, which it maintains can manage displacement. So much so that very often displacement and resettlement are used interchangeably in this context, typically as involuntary resettlement in the case of the World Bank, for example. The meaning of displacement has come to be more or less taken for granted, particularly in most academic literature. It is very important to understand that displacement is a multidimensional phenomenon of which physical relocation is only one of the most significant outcomes. The displaced people's movements have challenged this view of displacement with physical relocation at its centre and instead have as its core the historical experience of millions of displaced people. This understanding of displacement highlights (i) the alienation of the individual and community legal and customary rights and dislocation of the social and economic organization, and (ii) the politics of legal and policy instruments that sanctions such disenfranchisement. The focus is thus on the experience as well as the structures of displacement. In this context displacement refers not only to those who are forced to physically relocate in order to make way for the project and its related aspects but also includes those who are displaced from their resource base and livelihoods. It is commonly experienced through the loss of land and the disruption of social and economic relationships.

13.5.1.1 DEVELOPMENT INDUCED DISPLACEMENT

Development-induced displacement and resettlement (DIDR) is the forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purposes of economic development. It is a subset of forced migration. It has been historically associated with the construction of dams for hydroelectric power and irrigation purposes but also appears due to many other activities, such as mining and the creation of military installations, airports, industrial plants, weapon testing grounds, railways, road developments, urbanization, conservation projects, forestry, etc. Development-induced displacement is a social problem affecting multiple levels of human organization, from tribal and village communities to well-developed urban areas.

According to BogumilTerminski (2012) approximately fifteen million people each year are forced to leave their homes following big development projects (dams, irrigation projects, highways, urbanization, mining, conservation of nature, etc.). Anthony Oliver-Smith (2009) and Michael M. Cernea (2006) are also estimating that current scale of DIDR amounts to 15 million people per year.

Development-induced displacement or the forced migration in the name of development is affecting more and more people as countries move from developing to developed nations. The people that face such migration are often helpless, suppressed by the power and laws of nations.

The lack of rehabilitation policies for migrants' means that they are often compensated only monetarily - without proper mechanisms for addressing their grievances or political support to improve their livelihoods.

Displaced people often internalize a sense of helplessness and powerlessness because of their encounter with the powerful external world, although there are also several examples of active resistance movements against development-induced displacement. In every category, particularly among marginalized groups, women are the worst hit and pay the highest price of development.

The National Commission for Women in India (NCW) on the impact of displacement on women reveals that violence against women is increased. An increase in alcoholism due to displacement has led to a marked rise in domestic violence in India.

Displacement has made men feel helpless or insecure and turned women and children into scapegoats. Displacement also leads to deterioration in health and high mortality rates as services in those selected areas are the first to be cut. The nutrition and health of women, which is worse than that of men even under normal circumstances, is bound to go down in the event of an overall worsening in health caused by displacement.

Humanitarian aid agencies and government programs should target their efforts when intervening to assist victims of forced economic displacement, to ensure their work does not run counter to processes aimed at addressing the fundamental roots of the conflict. The Overseas Development Institute advocates the search for durable solutions to the recovery of displaced persons which go beyond short-term return, relocation and local integration processes.

The Norwegian Refugee Council, Internal Displacement Monitoring Center, has an online review: Development-Induced Displacement.

13.5.1.2 CAUSES OF DISPLACEMENT

According to Michael M. Cernea the main causes of development-induced displacement include: water supply (construction of dams, artificial reservoirs, irrigation projects), urban infrastructure, transportation (roads, highways, canals); energy (mining, power plants, oil exploration and extraction, pipelines), expansion of agriculture, parks and forest reserves and population redistribution schemes.

13.5.1.3 FORCED DISPLACEMENT

When people or communities are made to leave their homes and lands. Forced displacement often happens because of non-inclusive development.

13.5.2 RESETTLEMENT

Resettlement programmes have predominantly focused on the process of physical relocation rather than on the economic and social development of the displaced and other negatively affected people. This has severely eroded the development effectiveness of resettlement and rehabilitation programmes and heightened the impoverishment risk of the resettles.

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According to Cernea (1998) risks to adversely affected people are not a component of conventional project analysis. The key economic risks to affected people are from the loss of livelihood and income sources such as arable land, common property resources such as forests, grazing land, ground and surface water, fisheries, etc and changed access to and control of productive resources. The loss of economic power with the breakdown of complex livelihood systems results in temporary or permanent, often irreversible, decline in living standards leading to marginalisation. Higher risks and uncertainties are introduced when diversified livelihood sources are lost. Loss of livelihood and disruption of agricultural activity can adversely affect household food security, leading to under-nourishment. Higher incidence of diseases associated with deteriorating water quality can result in increased morbidity and mortality. High mortality rates, immediately after involuntary resettlement in Kariba and High Aswan dams, are cases in point. As Cernea notes (1998), forced displacement tears apart the existing social fabric, leading to socio-cultural disarticulation.

- ❖ The costs of the resettlement programme have invariably been underestimated and under-financed. It is often the case that it is always the resettlement and rehabilitation budget that is reduced whenever the project runs into financial problems.
- ❖ Institutional weaknesses, marked by confusions between various departments and the lack of capacity as well as continuity, have been major problems in ensuring effective resettlement.
- ❖ In the absence of policy and legal instruments and an effective mechanism to monitor compliance, even well-structured institutions with trained staff have failed in consistent implementation of effective resettlement.
- ❖ Generally, participation of the affected people has been superficial or treated as unimportant by those responsible for the project. More often they have been manipulated, co-opted, or directly excluded.
- ❖ Evidence suggests that for a vast majority of the indigenous/tribal peoples displaced by big projects the experience has been extremely negative in cultural, economic, and health terms. The outcomes have included assetlessness, unemployment, debt-bondage, hunger, and cultural disintegration. For both indigenous and non-indigenous communities studies, show that displacement has disproportionately impacted on women and children.
- ❖ Resettlement sites are invariably selected without reference to availability of livelihood opportunities, or the preferences of displaced persons themselves. Sometimes even temporary shelters are unavailable, and the first few months in the new site are spent in the monsoon rains under the open sky. House-sites are often much smaller than those in which the resettled people lived in the village, and temporary structures where they exist are made of tin or other inappropriate material and design.
- ❖ The question of livelihoods is a major issue in resettlement and rehabilitation policy. There is reluctance on the part of governments

and lending agencies to adopt and make operational policies requiring that the loss of agricultural land be compensated with alternative land, especially in the face of increasing pressure on land and the limited availability of arable land as well as its high price. This is despite the fact that most non-land-for-land programmes have failed to foster successful self-employment and other non-land-based livelihood strategies, especially in the critical areas of employment, skills, and capacity building.

- ❖ Forced relocation usually results in people being transplanted from a social ecology in which they were primary actors to one in which they are aliens; they are not only very vulnerable but also end up in most cases as an underclass in their new socio-cultural milieu.
- ❖ Communities of displaced people are invariably fragmented and randomly atomised, tearing as under kinship and social networks and traditional support systems. Communities and often even large families are broken up and resettled over a wide area. The outcomes are psychological pathologies and alcoholism etc, common among displaced populations. It has been documented that this greatly enhanced psychological and psycho-social stress caused by involuntary resettlement heightens morbidity and immorality.
- ❖ The special vulnerabilities and specific needs of indigenous and tribal peoples have been inadequately addressed.
- ❖ Resettlement sites have been under-prepared in terms of basic amenities and essential infrastructures such as health, schooling, and credit.
- ❖ Generally, displacement as result of acquisition is legally sanctioned while, with few exceptions, there is no legal framework that governs the process of displacement itself.
- ❖ The existence of nation-wide norms and legally approved resettlement and rehabilitation policy has played a role in improving outcomes for affected people. However, in the absence of these, the role of multilateral development institutions has assumed significance. In the 1980s, the World Bank played a significant role in influencing the development of resettlement and rehabilitation policies or institutional framework to manage displacement and resettlement.
- ❖ Both in the case of national laws and international agency policies, there has been a wide gap between the laws and policies and their actual implementation. Cases include the Sardar Sarovar Project where apparently progressive state government and World Bank policies have failed to prevent widespread impoverishment and suffering among displaced people, and the Three Gorges Project in China where a national resettlement law has not prevented numerous problems from emerging.

In many cases the focus of resettlement programmes is simply to get people to move out of the way. To the resettlement sites as quickly and smoothly as possible. Once people are relocated or even shifted out the resettlement programme usually fizzles out or loses momentum, with the

displaced people now at their most vulnerable. The resettled people are most vulnerable to be forgotten once the physical relocation is complete, a waning of interest sometimes referred to as developer's fatigue. (Argentina Report 1999).

Forced relocation disrupts, or even destroys, social organization of production, networks of relationships, allocation of resources, and an entire complex of rights, individual and communal. These cannot be restored by the mere provision of alternative land and housing.

Once it becomes known that people are to be relocated, a process of deferred investment sets in on the part of those to be resettled, as well as of outside sources, such as government and entrepreneurs. People in areas from which resettlement are to take place thus become poorer, even before they are moved.

Resettlement in the absence of active development initiatives is thus likely to become impoverishment the opposite of what it is intended to be.

Resettlement of displaced people is thus a process that is acknowledged as entailing several risks. As discussed above, Cernea identifies the risks as landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalisation, increased morbidity and mortality, food insecurity, loss of access to common property and services, and social disarticulation. These risks render resettlement inherently problematic, and indeed impoverishment and disempowerment have been the rule than the exception with respect to resettled people around the world.

Simply restoring the status quo ante in terms of material assets will thus leave people worse off than before. Therefore the main objective of a resettlement programme must be to improve the standard of living and not just restoration of pre-relocation standards of living. While the restoration of pre-relocation standards is still echoed in several resettlement programmes there is enough evidence to indicate that this goal is limited and inadequate (Scudder, T. 1997).

A 'successful' resettlement with development is a fundamental commitment and responsibility of the State. No development project can result in complete alienation of the rights, customary and legal, of people through payment of a one-time compensation or facilitated relocation. On the contrary the process must result in the creation of new rights that will render people direct beneficiaries of the development project. Just as displacement is not an inevitable consequence of infrastructure development resettlement need not necessarily result in impoverishment. Central to positive resettlement and rehabilitation will be the empowering of people particularly the economically and socially marginalised as a result of both the process and outcomes of resettlement with development.

Check your progress - III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

7. What is called displacement?

8. What are the causes of development –induced displacement?

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13.6 LET US SUM UP

Global challenges' will be defined as any major trend, shock, or development that has the potential for serious global impacts and thus to create humanitarian needs and change the environments in which humanitarian actors will operate in coming years. Human civilisation and globalisation are the dominant culprits of constant change in the global environment in present scenario. Our environment is constantly changing. There is no denying that. However, as our environment changes, so does the need to become increasingly aware of the problems that surround it. With a massive influx of natural disasters, warming and cooling periods, different types of weather patterns and much more, people need to be aware of what types of environmental problems our planet is facing. Displacement is defined as the act of moving someone or something from one position to another or the measurement of the volume replaced by something else. Resettlement sites are invariably selected without reference to availability of livelihood opportunities, or the preferences of displaced persons themselves. A 'successful' resettlement with development is a fundamental commitment and responsibility of the State.

In this unit you have studied Global Problems. The Environment Problems are discussed.

Displacement and Resettlement Problems in India also discussed in detail.

13.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Enumerate the Environment Problems
2. Define - Displacement
3. What are the causes Displacement?
4. Resettlement

13.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. With a predicted increase in temperature that will indirectly lead to the disappearance of territory, spark widespread displacement, change morbidity disease patterns, and promote a monumental shift in global policies, climate change will fundamentally transform the way humanity approaches global security and livelihood sustainability.
2. With the number of people who do not have access to safe water rising just over 1 billion to 2 billion by 2025 (roughly one third of the world population), water scarcity represents a major political, economic and human rights issue driving vulnerability and conflict.

3. With the potential for hundreds of millions of people forced to uproot their lives and rebuild them across borders, continents and oceans, migration will be one of the biggest challenges both within and across borders.
4. Earthquakes, floods, tsunamis, cyclones, volcanic eruption
5. Urban sprawl alludes to relocation of populace from high thickness urban ranges to low density provincial zones which bring about spreading of city over more rustic area. Urban sprawl brings about expanded movement, environmental concerns and well-being concerns.
6. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations FAO, International Energy Agency (IEA)
7. The forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purposes of economic development.
8. Water supply (construction of dams, artificial reservoirs, irrigation projects), urban infrastructure, transportation (roads, highways, canals); energy (mining, power plants, oil exploration and extraction, pipelines), expansion of agriculture, parks and forest reserves and population redistribution schemes.

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UNIT - XIV HUMAN AGENCY

Structure

- 14.1 Introduction
 - 14.2 Objectives
 - 14.3 Human Agency
 - 14.3.1 The Nature of Human Agency
 - 14.3.2 Human Agency, Freedom and Determinism
 - 14.3.3 Theories of Human Agencies
 - 14.4 State
 - 14.5 Political parties
 - 14.5.1 Political Socialization and Pressure Groups
 - 14. 6 Movements
 - 14.6.1 Types of Social Movements:
 - 14.7 Activists
 - 14.7.1 Roles of Activists
 - 14.8 Moral Entrepreneurs
 - 14.9 Academics and Social Researchers
 - 14..9.1 Issues and Challenges
 - 14.10 Media
 - 14.11 Helping Professionals
 - 14.12 Let Us Sum Up
 - 14.13 Unit- End- Exercises
 - 14.14 Answer to check your Progress
 - 14.15 Suggested Readings
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14.1 INTRODUCTION

Agency is the capacity of an actor to act in a given environment. The capacity to act does not at first imply a specific moral dimension to the ability to make the choice to act, and moral agency is therefore a distinct concept. In sociology, an agent is an individual engaging with the social structure. Notably, though, the primacy of social structure vs. individual capacity with regard to persons' actions is debated within sociology. This debate concerns, at least partly, the level of reflexivity an agent may possess.

Agency may either be classified as unconscious, involuntary behaviour, or purposeful, goal directed activity (intentional action). An agent typically has some sort of immediate awareness of their physical activity and the goals that the activity is aimed at realizing. In 'goal directed action' an agent implements a kind of direct control or guidance over their own behaviour.

Agency is contrasted to objects reacting to natural forces involving only unthinking deterministic processes. In this respect, agency is subtly distinct from the concept of free will, the philosophical doctrine that our choices are not the product of causal chains, but are significantly free or undetermined. Human agency entails the claim that humans do in fact make decisions and enact them on the world. *How* humans come to make decisions, by free choice or other processes, is another issue.

The capacity of a human to act as an agent is personal to that human, though considerations of the outcomes flowing from particular acts of human agency for us and others can then be thought to invest a moral component into a given situation wherein an agent has acted, and

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thus to involve moral agency. If a situation is the consequence of human decision making, persons may be under a duty to apply value judgments to the consequences of their decisions, and held to be responsible for those decisions.

In this unit, you will learn the Human Agencies of State, Parties, Movements, Activists, Moral entrepreneurs, Academics & social researchers, Media, Helping Professionals in detail.

14.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ understand the various agencies in community
- ✓ gather knowledge about the Humanism and community Participation
- ✓ Identify the types of Social Movements

14.3 HUMAN AGENCY

Human agency is the ability of people to control their own lives. Everyone has the capacity to exert control over the quality and nature of their own lives. Aspects of human agency include intention, foresight, self-regulation and self-reflectiveness.

If humans negotiate rather than receive meaning and are active constructors of knowledge then the human mind has to be viewed in a particular way, a way that is described as agentive. An agentive mind is 'proactive, problem-orientated, attentionally focused, selective, constructional and directed to ends' (Bruner, 1996, p. 93). Human agency, or the ability to act, is the realised potential of people to act on their world purposefully in interactions where different courses of action are possible and desirable, depending on the participant's point of view. In this view of the human mind learners are decision-makers as well as knowledgeable. Many learning theories share this view of the human mind but a feature of a sociocultural view is how human agency is understood and the connection between agency and identity.

Human agency is core to social work. Since the profession's conception, and consistently with practice frameworks and formal definitions, social work has sought to locate and understand human action as an individual interacting with their environment (Hugman, 2009). Through interactions with the environment, social work positions people with the agency 'to make their own history'. Social work theories position human agency as socially mediated. As elaborated below, human agency is defined as an individual's capacity to determine and make meaning from their environment through purposive consciousness and reflective and creative action (Houston, 2010). In line with ecological and person-in-environment perspectives, social work intervenes to change social institutions and systems to enhance the well-being and material circumstances of excluded individuals (Adams *et al.*, 2009; International Federation of Social Workers, 2015). Social work person-in-environment practice frameworks rest on assumptions that individuals possess human agency. Consistently with the broad sociological definition of human agency driving this article, social work theories recognise that the environment determines the person but the person determines the environment (Brekke, 2012). Social work engages at

the interacting person and environment dimension and social work's engagement is predicated on human agency.

Human Agency is about the thoughts and actions taken by people that express their individual power. In sociology, the major concern is to understand the relationship between the existing social structure and the agency. Agency is an intersection of power, from where power is distributed into the different hands and directions. In this context structure refers to the complex and interconnected set of social forces, relationships, institutions and elements of social structure that work together to shape the thought, behaviour and experiences, choices and overall life experiences of the people

Agency is the power held by people to think and act in which shape their experiences. Agency can be in any of the forms individual or collective. Understanding human agencies are the most important to understand poverty, gender, race or any other type of the discrimination. Agencies are like unbreakable chain, the moment when a new person is inducted in a social system, the agency acts to play its role in any of the forms that shapes the behaviour and experiences of the new inducted person.

14.3.1 The Nature of Human Agency

The manner in which human agency operates has been conceptualized in at least three different ways--as either autonomous agency, mechanical agency, or emergent interactive agency. The notion that humans serve as entirely independent agents of their own actions has few, if any, serious advocates. However, environmental determinists sometimes invoke the view of autonomous agency in arguments designed to repudiate any role of self-influence in causal processes. A second approach to the self-system is to treat it in terms of mechanical agency. It is an internal instrumentality through which external influences operate mechanistically on action, but it does not itself have any motivate, self-reflective, self-reactive, creative, or self-directive properties. In this view, internal events are mainly products of external ones devoid of any causal efficacy. Because the agency resides in environmental forces, the self-system is merely a repository and conduit for them. In this conception of agency, self-referent processes are epiphenomenal by-products of conditioned responses that do not enter into the determination of action. For the material eliminativist, self-influences do not exist. People are not intentional cognizers with a capacity to influence their own motivation and action; rather, they are neurophysiological computational machines. Such views fail to explain the demonstrable explanatory and predictive power of self-referent factors that supposedly are devoid of causal efficacy or do not even exist. Social cognitive theory subscribes to a model of emergent interactive agency (Bandura, 1986). Persons are neither autonomous agents nor simply mechanical conveyers of animating environmental influences. Rather, they make causal contribution to their own motivation and action within a system of triadic reciprocal causation. In this model of reciprocal causation, action, cognitive, affective, and other personal factors, and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants. Any account of the determinants of human action must, therefore, include self-generated influences as a contributing factor. Empirical tests of the model of triadic reciprocal causation are presented elsewhere and will not be reviewed here.

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14.3.2 Human Agency, Freedom, and Determinism

The notion of human agency also raises the fundamental issue of its relation to determinism. The term determinism is used here to mean the production of effects by events, rather than in the doctrinal sense that actions are completely determined by a prior sequence of causes independent of the individual. When viewed from the perspective of social cognitive theory, there is no incompatibility between human agency and determinism. Freedom is not conceived negatively as the absence of external coercion or constraints. Rather, it is defined positively in terms of the exercise of self-influence. It has already examined how the exercise of personal agency is achieved through reflective and regulative thought, the skills at one's command, and other tools of self-influence that affect choice and support selected courses of action. Self-generated influences operate deterministically on behaviour the same way as external sources of influence do. Given the same environmental conditions, persons who have developed skills for accomplishing many options and are adept at regulating their own motivation and behaviour are more successful in their pursuits than those who have limited means of personal agency. It is because self-influence operates deterministically on action that some measure of self-directedness and freedom is possible. Those who argue that people do not exercise any control over their motivation and action usually invoke a selective regression of causes in the analysis of self-regulation. They emphasize that external events influence judgments and actions, but neglect the portion of causation showing that the environmental events, themselves, are partly shaped by people's actions. Environments have causes as do behaviours. In the model of reciprocal causation, people partly determine the nature of their environment and are influenced by it. Self-regulatory functions are personally constructed from varied experiences not simply environmentally implanted. Although people's standards and conceptions have some basis in reality, they are not just in grafts of it. Through their capacity to manipulate symbols and to engage in reflective thought, people can generate novel ideas and innovative actions that transcend their past experiences. They bring influence to bear on their motivation and action in efforts to realize valued futures. They may be taught the tools of self-regulation, but this in no way detracts from the fact that by the exercise of that capability they help to determine the nature of their situations and what they become. The self is thus partly fashioned through the continued exercise of self-influence.

14.3.3 Theories of Human Agencies

Theories of human agency Social theory includes ample discussions of the role of structure versus human agency in human behaviour. The central tenets in this sociological discussion are the questions of the extent and the conditions under which actors can exercise agency. In sociological investigations, the term agency is usually “juxtaposed to structure and is often no more than a synonym for action, emphasizing implicitly the undetermined nature of human action, as opposed to the alleged determinism of structural theories”. In psychology the conceptions of agency also capture the capacity for autonomous intentional social action, which is not bound only by structural factors, but also by the psychological and social psychological make-up of the actor. This dualism in the theoretical agency-structure debate has gradually been overcome in recent scholarship. Bourdieu (1977, 1990) has underlined the importance of

cultural capital and habitus (the set of cultural schemas actors use when they act) in actors' behaviour, as well as reflexive thinking underlying action. Alexander (1988, 1992) introduced the notions of reflexive elements (interpretation) alongside instrumental action (strategising), thus extending the instrumentalist logic of social action proposed by Coleman (1991). Giddens (1991) had significant impact on the discussion with structuration theory, according to which structure and agency are intertwined in a way that structure is simultaneously exogenous and endogenous to agency, and they can both constrain and enable agency. Furthermore, Giddens (1984) introduced the concept of "dual structures", proposing that in a dynamic interdependent process actors shape structures and structures shape actors' behaviour. In sum, the contemporary notions of human agency have established notions of "embeddedness", of agency being "situated" and "in context", and of the interdependence of agency and structure, albeit with differing degrees of clarity as to what structure and context actually mean. I have found most helpful conceptualisations of human agency from Bandura in social psychology (1986, 2001) and Emirbayer and Mische in sociology (1998). In his "social cognitive theory" Bandura (1986) subscribes to a model of emergent interactive agency where actors are neither autonomous agents nor simply subject to environmental influences. Unlike the structuralists, the most central mechanism of human agency for Bandura is people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise those behaviours necessary to bring about a desired outcome. In other words, people have "self-efficacy" beliefs which are about the capacity to exercise control over events, and which are different from individual predictions of the likely consequence of their behaviour. Self-efficacy beliefs operate on action through motivational, cognitive and affective intervening processes (such as mastery experience, positioning against equals, encouragement from others, and physical and emotional states). Bandura (2001) takes an agentic perspective assuming that individuals have some ability to control their lives, while recognising the chance encounters which often shape one's life course. When viewed from a social cognitive perspective, the freedom of agents to act is not conceived just passively as the absence of constraints and coercion in the choice of action, but proactively as the exercise of self-influence to realise selected goals and desired outcomes. People who develop their competencies, self-regulatory skills and self-efficacy beliefs can generate a wider array of options that expand their freedom of action. They are also more successful in realising desired futures than those with less developed agentic resources (Bandura 1986). The exercise of freedom involves rights as well as options and the means to pursue them.

Check your progress - 1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

1. Agency can be in forms?
2. The notion of human agency also raises the fundamental issue of its relation to

14.4 STATE

The institution of state came into being when people organised themselves to live a disciplined life. The purpose was to hand over some of the important functions of society to a mega organisation or association which would be invested with the powers to streamline the functions of various splinter social groups for the benefit of society at large. With the passage of time, state has come to be defined in clear cut terms and its functions have come too stated in a comprehensive manner.

State agency means a court, department, institution, office, board, council or other unit of state government located in the legislative, judicial, or executive departments or group of independent agencies, or central appropriations. State agency means all departments, officers, commissions, boards, institutions, and bodies politic and corporate of the State. The term, however, does not mean the judicial branch, including, without limitation, the several courts of the State, the offices of the clerk of the supreme court and the clerks of the appellate court, and the Administrative Office of the Illinois Courts, nor does it mean the legislature or its committees or commissions.

The institution of State has come to be defined by experts. According to Garner, "State is a community of persons, more or less numerous, permanently occupying a definite portion of a territory, independent and so of a foreign control and possessing an organised government to which the inhabitants render a habitual obedience." Kandel defines State "as an organised political community with government recognised by people." In other words, a very well-organised society assumes the shape of a State. Territory, people, government and sovereignty are the essential elements of a State. A State exists for the sake of good life. A democratic State provides opportunities to its citizens to plan and execute such programmes and policies as will lead to a happier and richer life. Education under such a State becomes a unique investment, to utilise human resource for the general good of the people.

The state and society share a dynamic relationship due to new challenges of neo liberalism and nation building. They share a complimentary relationship. Both try to influence and control each other. The government institutions are the major actors in state society interface. The members of society and government institutions interact at various levels. These levels include policy making and social reforms. The demands made by the society are met by the state according to the policy guidelines. The social forces operating at a particular time play a dominant role in deciding whether state society relationship will be on the path of collision or cooperation. Political socialization plays an important role in giving momentum to state society relationship. It encompasses macro level and micro level processes. At macro level the political systems inculcate appropriate norms and values in the citizens and at micro level an individual internalizes the political ideologies and learns about political systems. This helps an individual to participate in the political life of the country. For any democracy to succeed it is essential that the citizens are initiated into political life of the nation and integrated with the needs of the society. The linkage between society and state can be traced through political linkages. "Political Linkages are structured transactions of influence, support and claims between political participants. They can be regarded as transmission channels established between individuals and

groups who share some basis for mutual identity or seek common goals.” The linkages can be between individuals and groups, individuals and leaders. Political Socialization is the determinant of political behaviour and political engagement. Policy formation involves interaction between various actors, the state and civil society. This interaction can be effective only if the individuals have undergone the process of political socialization and the civil society is organized into groups.

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Check your progress – II

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

3.is a community of persons, more or less numerous, permanently occupying a definite portion of a territory

4.plays an important role in giving momentum to state society relationship

14.5 POLITICAL PARTIES

Political Socialization is the process through which internalization of political values, beliefs and attitudes takes place. The social scientists have given varied definitions of Political Socialization. Aberle defined political socialization as “those patterns of social action, or aspects of action, which inculcate in individuals the skills (including knowledge), motives, and attitudes necessary for the performance of present or anticipated roles... (and which continue) throughout normal human life, in so far as new roles must be learned.” Hyman defined political socialization as the “individual learning of social patterns corresponding to his social positions as mediated through various agencies of society.” Easton defined political socialization as “those developmental processes through which persons acquire political orientations and patterns of behaviour.” According to Eisenstaedt “political socialization is ‘a communication with and learning from other human beings with whom an individual, gradually enters into some sort of generalized relationship’” According to Austin and Nelson “a process by which individuals obtain relevant knowledge, skills and dispositions that are enable them to function competently in the social political culture” Ball defines “Political socialization as establishment and development of attitudes and beliefs about the political system”.

Political Socialization helps individuals in the development of awareness of the political world and appreciation, judgments, and understanding of political events. When an individual becomes politically socialized, he /she acquires political orientations and patterns of behaviour which provide him/ her with an opportunity to learn the basic orientations necessary for the maintenance of the democratic system. An individual acquires three types of basic orientations- knowledge, values and attitudes related to functioning of polity during the process of political socialization. “It is the most important link between the social and the political system.” “It includes all formal, informal, deliberate, unplanned learning at every stage of life. Political socialization helps in learning of political attitudes and social preferences which is crucial for stable government and democracy”.

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From the sociological point of view political socialization is an extremely important process by which inter-relationship is established between political system and society and through which individuals become involved in the political process. "It is a long term process through which political culture is transmitted in a society. It is how the individuals learn political ideas and orientations and internalize particular political values and beliefs" The main aim of Political Socialization is the transmission of political values from one generation to another. It shapes and transmits a nations' political culture "It maintains a political culture by successfully transmitting it from an old generation to a new one. It introduces values, norms and orientations in the minds of the individuals so that they develop trust in their political system and leave their imprints on the mind of their successors. The process of political socialization goes on throughout the life of the individuals. Political beliefs and attitudes developed in youth may change in old age on account of contact with new education, changing social environment, new experiences in life and performance of every political party." Political socialization makes the individuals feel that they are not solitary beings but a part of the entire political system, which creates a sense of responsibility in them. Various agents of political socialization facilitate a better understanding of the political system and through the communication process an individual attempt to cherish the ideas, values and beliefs that are considered essential to the political system. It makes possible better interaction among individuals which provides them the knowledge about the role of citizens towards the nation and their political behaviour".

Political socialization is the process by which political culture is transmitted in a society. It occurs at both the individual and community level, and it extends beyond the acquisition of political culture to encompass the learning of more sophisticated political ideas and orientations. A variety of individuals and institutions contribute the shaping of its effect. For e.g. individuals are politically socialized by social units such as their family, peers and social class, and also by existing laws, media, religion, and education. It is a never ending process and the factors which shape it are all encompassing. Those groups and institutions which participate in and contribute to the on-going process of political socialization are known as the agents of socialization. On the basis of the operational period of these agents on individual life, they are divided into primary agents and secondary agents of political socialization. "The primary agents of socialization are those that directly develop specific political orientation. Family, peer group, educational institutions came under the category of primary agents of socialization. The secondary agents of socialization are less personal and involved in the process of socialization in more indirect manner. Mass media, political parties, voluntary organizations, and government come under the category of secondary socializing agents.

The political parties, pressure groups and interest groups also act as agents of political socialization. The rallies and demonstrations organized by these groups orient the people towards political issues, the objectives and ideologies of political parties enhances the understanding of functioning of government. Direct or indirect relationship with these institutions affects the process of political socialization. "As specialized political structure that exists in democratic and non- democratic system,

political parties play an important role in political socialization. Political parties attempt to mould issue preferences, arouse the apathetic, and find new issues to mobilize support. Party leaders and party spoke persons provide the media with a steady flow of information vide the public with a steady flow of information on the political issues of the day. Party organization regularly contacts voters by mail or phone, and in many nations party activists visit voters at home. Election can serve as national civics- lessons, and parties are the teachers. In competitive party system, partisan socialization can also be a divisive force. In their effort to gain support, leaders may appeal to class, language, religion and ethnic divisions and make citizens more aware of these differences. The political parties and other interest groups help in building awareness about various political and social issues and assist in the process of political socialization. Thus political socialization is a continuous process and it requires different agencies of socialization. These agencies have differential impact during various stages of life. These agencies can also bring modification and transformation in political understanding.

14.5.1 Political Socialization and Pressure Groups

“Political socialization is part of the continuous process of social order which is responsible for teaching certain political behaviour’s to the new members of a society in order to make them think in keeping with the changing political system they are living in. A pressure group is an organized group that seeks to influence government policy or protect or advance a particular cause or interest. Groups may promote specific issues and raise their voice for the political agenda or they may have more general political and ideological objectives in mind when they campaign.” Harold Lass well and Abraham Kaplan remark, ‘A group is an organized aggregate and an interest group is an interest aggregate’. A group is recognized as some legitimate and established section of society. ‘An interest group is a voluntary association of citizens who attempt to influence public policy” David Truman has described interest group as ‘a shared attitude that makes certain claims upon or through institutions of government’.³⁸ According to The Blackwell Dictionary of Sociology ‘an interest (or pressure) group is an organization whose purpose is to influence the distribution and use of political power in a society”. An interest group is an association of people having mutual concern about a wide array of economic, social, cultural, political, religious or any other issues. Such associations may have specific and narrowly defined goals which may be moderate or local or national and international in scope. These groups are vital part of the political process. The political process is seen to result from a large number of competing interest groups. Interest groups are occasionally referred to as pressure groups, implying that they attempt to force their will on a resistant public. When an interest group seeks governmental aid in achieving its own ends and succeeds in influencing governmental policy to its advantage, then it becomes a pressure group. Thus pressure groups may be any group attempting to bring about any change in the working of any formal organization, state, government or any other social or economic organization. They are associations to influence mass public policy. Thus achievement of political goals can be facilitated by organization of masses into pressure groups. Orientation of individuals into political system and acquisition of political knowledge through the process of political socialization helps in the formation of pressure groups. The pressure

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groups arise because they either want to preserve or change their status. Groups play a very direct role in the political shaping of the country. In the event of a dissent with the political view-points, people organize interest groups, pressure groups to influence the government. Various cultural, ethnic, religious, racial and other groups work as pressure groups against a government's decision to bring about a balance between the ruler and the ruled. Obviously, these pressure groups, may further be called as balancing groups too so that a harmony is maintained between a government's decision and the general public's acceptance. It is not a political group seeking to capture political power though it may have a political character of its own. These pressure or interest groups interact with the representative of the government and the officials then act as a representative of the interest group to convey to the government the desires of the people, and it is quite likely that the demands being genuine and forceful, a change in the government policies may be a natural transition. As we can see, these interest groups are a powerful tool to bring about a change in political, and as a consequence in the social structure and government decisions. They also launched public campaigns and distribute pamphlets to persuade people at grass-root level to support their political objectives. Such groups, according to Functionalists often play a constructive role preparing grounds for orderly political participation. On the other hand, there are Conflict theorists who argue that only few organizations/group are genuine and work on behalf of the poor and disadvantage. While most pressure groups represent vested interests of the lobbyists' viz. big businessmen, big business houses or some political leaders. These powerful lobbies do not encourage political participation of any individual citizen and have a greater say in democracy compared to that of its totalitarian set-up. In spite of their deficiencies they do become an essential part of the modern democratic system. Interest groups play an important role in decision-making—an indispensable part of the modern governmental process. It allows orderly expression of public opinion and increase political participation.

Check your progress– III

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

5. The political parties, pressure groups and interest groups also act as

.....of political socialization.

6.is the main aim of Political Socialization from one generation to another

14. 6 MOVEMENTS

In the society a large number of changes have been brought about by efforts exerted by people individually and collectively. Such efforts have been called social movements. A social movement may, therefore, be defined as “a collectively acting with some continuity to promote or resist a change in the society or group of which it is a part”. According to Anderson and Parker, social movement is “a form of dynamic pluralistic

behaviour which progressively develops structure through time and aims at partial or complete modification of the social order.” Lundberg and others define social movement as, “a voluntary association of people engaged in concerted efforts to change attitudes, behaviour and social relationships in a larger society.”

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Thus, social movement is the effort by an association to bring about a change in the society. A social movement may also be directed to resist a change. Some movements are directed to modify certain aspects of the existing social order whereas others may aim to change it completely. The former is called reform movements and the latter are known as revolutionary movements. Social movements may be of numerous kinds, such as religious movements, reform movements, or revolutionary movements.

Firstly, Social institutions are relatively permanent and stable elements of a culture, whereas social movements have an uncertain life. Marriage is a permanent social institution but the life of family planning movement is not certain. Secondly, institutions hold institutional status. They are regarded as necessary and valuable aspects of the culture. A social movement lacks institutional status. Some people are indifferent or even hostile to it.

Social movements may also be distinguished from association. Firstly, an association is an organized group, while some social movements may be totally unorganized. Secondly, an association carries the customary behaviour of the society, while the social movement is concerned with some change in behaviour norms.

The following features of the social movement may be marked out:

- a. It is an effort by a group;
- b. Its aim is to bring or resist a change in society;
- c. It may be organized or unorganized;
- d. It may be peaceful or violent;
- e. Its life is not certain. It may continue for a long period or it may die out soon.

The people who are more susceptible to social movements are those who are:

- a. Mobile and have little chance to become integrated into the life of the community,
- b. Not fully accepted and integrated into the group and are termed marginal,
- c. Isolated from the community,
- d. Threatened by economic insecurity and loss of social status,
- e. Free from family responsibilities or are estranged from their families,
- f. Maladjusted.

Thus, the people who are homeless and misfits of society become the supporters of mass movements. It may also be noted that some people join the social movements for reasons unrelated to the movement’s objectives. Some may join it first to fill their leisure time, or they may be

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personally attracted to some of its members. Or, they may join to get an office in the movement with the desire to achieve prestige or exercise power rather than to further the goals of the movement. It may again be emphasized that unless there is deep and widespread social discontent, social movements will not originate and develop.

14.6.1 Types of Social Movements

It is not easy to give a classification of social movements because sometimes a movement is of a mixed nature or is of a different type at different stages of its career.

However, movements have been classified as follows

(i) Migratory Movements

Migratory movements take place when a large number of people leave one country and settle at some other place. The reason for mass migration may be discontent with present circumstances or the allurements of a bright future. Mere migration of people does not mean migratory movement.

There is a migratory social movement only when there is a common focus of discontent, a shared purpose or hope for the future and a widely shared decision to move to a new location. The Zionist movement, the movement of Jews to Israel was a migratory social movement. Similarly, the movement of people from East Germany to West Germany can be called migratory social movement.

(ii) Expressive Movements

When people are faced with a social system from which they cannot flee and which they feel powerless to change, the result is an expressive social movement. In an expressive social movement the individual comes to terms with an unpleasant external reality by modifying his reactions to that reality. He somehow makes life bearable. He tries to ignore the miserable present and fixes his gaze upon a glorious future. The Hippie movement is an expressive social movement.

(iii) Utopian Movement

A Utopian movement is one which seeks to create an ideal social system or a perfect society which can be found only in man's imagination and not in reality. There have been a number of Utopian socialists in the nineteenth century such as Robert Owen and Charles Fourier. Such movements are based on a conception of man as basically good, cooperative and altruistic. The Sarvodaya movement can be called a Utopian movement.

(iv) Reform Movements

The reform movement is an attempt to modify some parts of the society without completely transforming it. Reform movements can operate only in a democratic society where people have freedom to criticize the existing institutions and may secure changes. The movements to abolish untouchability, dowry system, preserve wild life, control population growth are reform movements. The total revolution movement led by J. P. Narayan was a reform movement. The movement led by J. P. Narayan was a reform movement.

(v) Revolutionary Movements:

The revolutionary movement seeks to overthrow the existing social system and replace it with a greatly different one. The reform movement wants to correct some imperfections in the existing social system but a revolutionary movement wants to root out the system itself. Revolutionary

movement's flourish where reform is blocked so that revolution remains the people's only alternative to their present misery. The communist movements in Soviet Russia and China were revolutionary movements.

(vi) Resistance Movements:

The resistance movement is an effort to block a proposed change or to uproot a change already achieved. The revolutionary movement arises because people are dissatisfied with the slow rate of social change whereas resistance movement arises because people consider social change too fast. The D. M. K. movement against Hindi can be termed resistance movement.

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Check your progress– 1V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

7. Social movement aims at partial or complete modification of the

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8. Social movements may also be distinguished from

14.7 ACTIVISTS

Activists need to be seen as responsible citizens in order to win respect, acceptance and legitimacy from the majority of ordinary citizens who must be won over for movements to succeed. Effective citizens say "yes!" to society's core values [assuming that these are morally acceptable]. And activists must also be rebels who say a loud "no!" to social conditions and public policies that violate these values. It is not enough, however, to protest; activists also need to be social change agents who work to educate and involve the general public to oppose present policies and seek positive, constructive solutions. Finally, they must be reformers who work with the official political and judicial structures to get solutions incorporated into laws and governmental policies and accepted as the conventional wisdom of the day. Activists can have difficulty in valuing and playing the four roles because they seem to conflict, and because individuals are instinctively drawn to one or other of them. An awareness of how they relate to the different stages of a social movement is needed.

Secondary groups also work as an agents of political socialization. Their impact varies with the nature of societies. The more highly developed and complex society is, the greater will be the number of secondary groups and more important role they will play in the process of socialization. As the complexity and development increases in society so does the value of secondary groups. There are three types of secondary groups which socialize politically in different ways. Firstly, there are secondary groups with a distinctly political character. Political parties and political youth groups fall in this category. They are established clearly for the purpose of disseminating political values, mobilizing political action and recruiting the political leaders. The second type represents those groups which are instituted for non-political purposes, but which are found to carry on political education and mobilization along with their other activities for example labour union and student's union. These groups aim at collective bargain in their particular field. But even these groups are led by the leaders following particular political ideologies. Some of them are even active members of a particular political party. They impart political education to their followers and take part in active politics from time to time. The third type of secondary groups does not have any political

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character, nor do they ever try to impart political education to their members. But mere participation in their routine affairs gives their members opportunities to develop orientations that have political relevance.

14.7.1 Roles of Activists

1. Citizen

- articulates a vision of the good society
- achieves legitimacy in the eyes of ordinary citizens
- withstands power holder attempts to discredit the movement
- reduces potential for violent attitudes and actions within the movement

Ineffective citizen: ineffective citizens believe the power holders' view of how things are and if they do admit that something is wrong, think it is an isolated phenomenon. They can be super-patriots who believe that their country is the best.

2. Rebel

- puts issues on society's agenda
- causes 'creative tension', ie highlights the gap between what is and what should be
- represents society's moral vanguard
- leads in stage 4 of social change movement

Ineffective rebel: negative rebels use strident rhetoric and aggressive actions against power holders. They promote militant protest actions that are drive by strong feelings of anger, hostility and frustration. They advocate change by any means necessary, including disruption and destruction. At demos they engage in skirmishes with the police and vandalism. Their activities are mostly tactics oriented and often counterproductive. They tend to see themselves as on the margins of society and the movement and view the world as polarised into good (them) and evil (the enemy).

3. Social Change Agent

- nurtures a new public consensus
- acts as an 'open system', ie informs the public while learning from dialogue with the public and the powerholders, so that his/her ideas are open to change
- leads in stage 6
- promotes a long-term perspective Ineffective change agent: promotes utopian ideas without engaging in the hard grassroots struggle to achieve them. They can seek the reform of symptoms without systemic change and a paradigm shift.

4. Reformer

- uses institutional means of getting real change
- leads in dialogue with the power holders
- at the interface between the movement and the public

Ineffective reformer: maintenance of the organisation becomes the prime concern. They can embrace the power holders' outlook and end up promoting only "realistic" minor reforms. They get co-opted by the power holders. They become cut off from the grassroots movement and the general public. They act as if they represent the whole movement.

Check your progress - V

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

9. Activists need to be seen as responsible citizens in order to win

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14.8 MORAL ENTREPRENEURS

The term "**moral entrepreneur**" was coined by sociologist Howard S. Becker. In his view, moral entrepreneurs fall into roughly two categories: *rule creators*, and *rule enforcers*.

Moral entrepreneurs are individuals committed to the establishment and enforcement of rules against behaviour they define as deviant. As such, they are especially visible and active agents of social control. Moral entrepreneurs are people who try to change moral meanings and their applications, an undertaking which Becker has termed a "**moral enterprise**". Although some moral entrepreneurs are depicted as crusading reformers by Becker and Gusfield, they may simply be people who have strong feelings of dissatisfaction over some existing or anticipated condition in society and who move to correct those circumstances.

Moral entrepreneurs may be individuals, groups, or organizations who work toward either instrumental or symbolic goals. Instrumental goals may include enforcing or changing existing rules or creating new rules. Symbolic goals may include changing the climate of opinion surrounding the issue or even giving legitimacy to certain interest groups and denying it to others. Passage of a law may reflect such a symbolic shift in the distribution of power, even if the law is not fully enforced.

Moral entrepreneurs do not necessarily attempt to change the system or institutions within the system, but rather they seek means to solve what they perceive to be social problems. In order to draw attention to their issues, they may use two types of techniques. They may engage in 'politics as usual' and conduct such activities as speech making, lobbying, or political campaigning; or they may engage in disruptive collective actions, such as demonstrations or sit-ins. They may act alone or in conjunction with other like-minded groups.

The sociologist Howard S. Becker coined this term in 1963 in his work *Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance*. In his view, moral entrepreneurs fall into roughly two categories: *rule creators*, and *rule enforcers*. He was concerned mainly with "rule creators" and with moral entrepreneurship in American civil society. Moral entrepreneurs are the "rule creators" who typically argue that their cause is for the betterment of individuals and society and whose vested interest in that cause maintains their political power or position. By creating rules, which they argue reflect proper morality, moral entrepreneurs construct deviance and contribute to the labelling of rule breakers as social "outsiders."

Moral entrepreneurs are those who take the lead in labelling a particular behaviour and spreading this label throughout society. Moral entrepreneurs are those who construct deviant behaviour. Moral entrepreneurs claim that a social phenomenon is a social problem or that what is generally recognized as a problem is serious enough to warrant immediate attention and decisive action. Moral entrepreneurship is the business of persuading the society to make policy from particular moral viewpoints. Sociologists are not interested in the validity of the claims

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made during Moral Panic created by moral entrepreneurs, but are interested in the dynamics of social change and the organizational strategies of moral entrepreneurs. In symbolic interactionism or labelling theory, society is viewed as consisting of a plurality of understandings of what is best.

Moral entrepreneurs create or enforce norms for humanistic reasons. Mothers Against Drunk Driving, the pro-life movement, the gun lobby, Emily Murphy, and the anti-tobacco lobby would all be examples of moral entrepreneurs. A moral entrepreneur is a person who seeks to influence a group to adopt or maintain a norm. These individual or groups are referred to as moral entrepreneurs because they seek to propagate their moral viewpoints. In order for social policy to arise, moral entrepreneurs initiate social movement activism whose task is to articulate a definition of a social problem such that a desired social policy is consistent with this definition of the problem. If society is not a moral order, then we can understand why moral entrepreneurship cannot produce a radical transformation in social relations, and we can begin to theorize the means by which this transformation could be achieved.

Check your progress - VI

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

10. are people who try to change moral meanings and their applications

11. Moral entrepreneurs are those who take the lead in labelling a particular behaviour and spreading this label throughout

14.9 ACADEMICS AND SOCIAL RESEARCHERS

Human agency is core to social work. Practice theories and frameworks position human agency as socially mediated, but assume that people possess human agency to play determining roles in their life circumstances. Some of the discipline's seminal thinkers, however, argue that social work has adopted a disproportionate focus on the individual, whereby the human agency of social work clients and people experiencing marginalisation more broadly is highlighted. The minority of social work literature engaging with human agency presents expressions of human agency, or an identification of the barriers to expressing human agency, in empirically and theoretically meaningful ways. The social work literature that considers human agency highlights the diversity and complexity of people's lives. Moreover, it demonstrates human agency as socially mediated and contingent. The research literature outlines an empirical basis to underpin social work's empowerment, change and emancipation objectives.

Education performs the role of political socialization through the contents of courses in schools and colleges, the process of forming and conducting student associations and through various types of intellectual, cultural and sporting activities organized with the help of students, celebration of regional and national festivals and through the informal relations between students and teachers and among students themselves. Teaching of subjects like history, civics, social sciences, languages, text books etc., also play an important role. Other subjects are also indirectly utilized to this end. A proper performance of this function of political

socialization becomes supportive to the structures of the political system and provides stability and continuity to it, whereas its non-performance raises the possibility of challenges to the structure of the political system and may even disrupt it. “Educational institutions play a pivotal role in political socialization. Even when children are taught civic classes in school, they participate in the political shaping too. While being taught they learn many of the rituals and processes of government edict. College and university education may also bring a new values and help in the formation of radical political attitudes. The educated persons are more aware of the impact of government on their lives and have more information about the political processes. The teachers also help in this process.” Hence school education as well as higher education functions as an important agent of political socialization. Humanist argues that education is the factor that contributes to the preparation of human capital for economic purposes. Humanist view that having balanced human in physical, mental, social, intellectual and spiritual is far more importance than fulfilling utility needs in order to create national unity and integration.

14.9.1 Issues and Challenges

(a) Curriculum Design

A good curriculum design is important as a changing agent towards quality human capital. For that purpose, curriculum has to be prepared an implementation guideline which is based on Outcome Based Learning (OBE), tailored to the needs of human capital market. As the aims are having academic qualified and soft skills equipped graduates, the curriculum should be effective for teaching and learning. OBE has outlined compulsory outcomes that have to be integrated into teaching and learning. With minimal adoption and implementation as the curriculum is still in “testing” stage, the quality and effectiveness of the curriculum is still questionable whether it is going to be successful in producing first class human capital.

b) Teaching Method

Sequencing from the first issue, a good curriculum designed would not be effective if traditional method of teaching is applied. Traditional rote teaching especially which is a teacher centred is seen as ineffective in equipping students especially, the Y-generation with competitive soft skills and balanced character. Master trainers are seen as a changing agent that may improve the teaching method in higher education institutions. It is hope that with SCL, students are being more independent rather that passive and spoon fed, creative and active. These attitudes are important towards having first class human capital for fulfilling job market and also the positive development of human characters.

c) Assessment

The third issue from the learning and teaching perspective is how assessment should be made aligned to the objectives of curriculum designed. Since teaching method shifts from Content Based Learning (CBL) to OBE, assessment should be designed accordingly. Looking back into the scenarios of education system years ago, the system relies heavily on rote teaching where at the end of the day students have to sit for paper-pencil exam and pour everything they learnt. Students are not creative because teaching method applied focused more on remembering facts but not applying. Students are trained repeatedly to

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answers exam questions so that they become familiar with sets of exam questions. This process hinders the learning process as students are forced to score on examinations rather than showing their interest in the intellectual aspect of learning and understanding concepts especially in science based subjects. Examination becomes the focus of learning instead of part of learning process. Therefore, it is a great challenge to align curriculum design, teaching method and assessment so that it able to achieve the objective of having first class human capital.

d) Continual quality improvement

Besides having a strong curriculum design, effective teaching approach and fully aligned assessment method, another issue that seen as a major obstacle in the implementation of strategies to produce first class human capital is to maintain and sustain quality of education itself. A strategy would not work at its best without learning, reassessment and value added. This is another process that requires attention in order to achieve the objective.

e) Academia Professionalism

Another critical success factor of academia is professionalism. Academia professionalism refers to the ability and efficiency of to carry out the task lined up by in order to enhance the quality of higher education in our country as a centre of higher learning. The responsibility includes integration of knowledge, building up expertise and academic practices. Responsibility should be performed by academicians, staff of higher education institutions and management with high ethics and integrity. Up to date, it is observed that Malaysian higher education institutions are still having a lot of aspects to be improved.

Check your progress - VI1

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

- 12. performs the role of political socialization through the contents of \ courses in schools and colleges.
- 13. is core to social.

14.10 MEDIA

For young people – digital natives – using social media for social activism is practically second nature. The contemporary societies are experiencing a convergence of varied forms of mass communication. The new as well as traditional forms of mass media play a crucial role in building and sustaining democracies around the world. As the younger generation grows in the postmodern world they are exposed to a wide range of socializing agents which reproduce or modify the cultural practices and ideologies of the youth. Apart from newspapers and television, internet and social media has emerged as one of the most dynamic aspects of the present century. The changes have occurred in almost all areas of life. Media is a source of information which not only affects daily activities of human life but also provides information about other events like developments taking place on national and international forums. Mass media has probably the strongest influence to socialize people in politics and its influence is expanding constantly through

technology allowing for more interactive media experiences. Instead of a direct access to government, the media is a go-between between the common mass and the government. “Mass Media serve as socializing agents by providing direct linkage to media and contents which are essential for the development of political values, and by contributing to the structuring of social context in which adolescents may exercise such value orientations and reinforce ties with primary socializing agents”. Mass Media is considered to be a powerful agent of political socialization affecting political attitude and behaviours of voters and non-voters. Media are rich sources of information about government; politics and current affairs. The composition of the mass society and the distribution of resources within the society exert an influence on the role played by the media. Most of the times, the mass media represents the views expressed by the economically dominant sections of the society. “A controlled system of media socializes the individually politically, while a free press or media propagate different set of values thus having a tremendous influence on the political behaviour of the individuals. The information first originates at the government level where by the officials or political leaders and the mass media give their own interpretation and provide analysis to the people. Thus mass media not only acts as an agent of political socialization but also as an instrument used by various agents of political socialization. When a major political event occurs in the nation the media is the only source which provides information quickly.

According to Gonzalez “mass media- newspapers, magazines, comic books, movies and especially television presented a very different form of socialization than any other, because they offer no opportunity for interaction. Televisions are an influence on children from a very young age and effect their cognitive and social development. Television is the medium with the greatest socialization effect surpassing all the other media by far its influence on the young child”. In contemporary society apart from television other forms of media are also becoming popular. People can choose to follow politics through a face book group that consists largely of close friends and associate with similar view points. In our contemporary society, television, newspapers and magazines act as agents of the government for general awareness of the social and political constructs to reach common people. Furthermore, the use of computer network has proved to be one of the most effective ways of spreading any form of news, and knowledge in a very short span of time to a huge number of people in India and abroad. According to Hooghe “the political attitudes and behaviour of young people differ significantly from those of earlier generation. There is decline of participation and trust among young people. He argues that the society will have to find ways through education and mass media to adapt to more critical and participant citizens”. Thus apart from other agencies of political socialization mass media is a powerful agent of political socialization.

Check your progress - VIII

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

14. The contemporary societies are experiencing a convergence of varied forms of

15. Televisions are an influence on children from a very young age and effect their

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14.11 HELPING PROFESSIONALS

A helping profession is defined as a professional interaction between a helping expert and a client, initiated to nurture the growth of, or address the problems of a person’s physical, psychological, intellectual or emotional constitution, including medicine, nursing, psychotherapy, psychological counselling, social work, education or coaching. To speak helping professions deal with “the provision of human and social services”. The helping profession is constituted in and through the particular verbal and non-verbal interaction that transpires between the participants. Interaction types, in turn, are (tentatively) defined here as bounded (parts of) conversations with an inherent structuring of opening, core interaction and closing section, in which participants solve complex communicative tasks. It is a profession that nurtures the growth of or addresses the problems of a person's physical, psychological, intellectual, emotional or spiritual well-being, including medicine, nursing, psychotherapy, psychological counselling, social work, education, life coaching and ministry

Helping in and through communication as a means to solve an individual’s problem has always been an endemic purpose of human communication and as such is inherent in its formats and characteristics: Especially the goal-orientation of communication, its overall purpose of solving tasks as well as the possibility to add another’s perspective are central elements of helping professions and thus experience a fundamental productivity in doctor-patient interaction, psychotherapy, counselling, coaching etc. These basal characteristics form the interactive baseline of helping professions. Socio-cultural and technological developments materialize in relatively recent professional formats such as coaching or telephone hotlines, while an ongoing specification and hybridization of communicative tasks like decision-making materialize in similar, yet format-specific, practices for their solution.

Human service workers provide a variety of services aimed at improving clients’ lives. The type of assistance they offer varies by client group, the type of organization that employs these workers, and their role in the organization. Working closely with the client, human service workers identify problems and create a plan for services to help the client solve these problems. This process—which includes evaluating the client’s support system, environment, and values—is tailored to each individual’s needs. Human service workers can’t force help on someone who doesn’t want it, and they can’t take over a client’s life. Instead, they try to help every client make good decisions, find resources to overcome problems, and inspire the client to make improvements. In addition, human service workers coordinate services that are provided by their own or other organizations, including government, for-profit, and non-profit agencies. They help clients by researching types of, and eligibility requirements for, assistance. For example, human service workers might help a client who lives in unsafe housing locate and qualify for low-income apartments in the client’s community. Another way that human service workers help coordinate services is to assist clients with completing necessary

paperwork. However, human service workers are trained to recognize when emotional support and encouragement are not enough. In those cases, human service workers may direct a client toward additional support services to address more serious issues, such as domestic violence.

Check your progress– 1X

Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.

b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.

16. Helping profession is defined as a professional interaction between

and

17. Human service workers may direct a client toward additional support services to

address more serious issues, such as

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14.12 LET US SUM UP

Agency refers to the human capability to influence one's functioning and the course of events by one's actions. There are four functions through which human agency is exercised. One such function is intentionality. People form intentions that include action plans and strategies for realizing them. The second function involves temporal extension of agency through forethought. People set themselves goals and foresee likely outcomes of prospective actions to guide and motivate their efforts anticipatorily. The third agentic function is self-reactiveness. Agents are not only planners and fore thinkers. They are also self-regulators. The fourth agentic function is self-reflectiveness. People are not only agents; they are self-examiners of their own functioning. Through functional self-awareness, they reflect on their personal efficacy, the soundness of their thoughts and actions, the meaning of their pursuits, and make corrective adjustments if necessary. People exercise their influence through three forms of agency: individual, proxy and collective. In agency exercised individually, people bring their influence to bear on what they can control. In proxy agency, they influence others who have the resources, knowledge, and means to act on their behalf to secure the outcomes they desire. In the exercise of collective agency, people pool their knowledge, skills, and resources and act in concert to shape their future.

In this unit we have discussed State and Parties of human agency. Human agencies of Movements, Activists and Moral entrepreneurs have also touched upon briefly. Academics & social researchers of human agency have been discussed. Media and Helping Professionals are also analysed.

14.13 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

1. Write short note on theories of Human Agencies
2. What are the roles of Helping Professionals in promoting Humanism?
3. Differentiate the types of social movements in social development

14.14 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. individual or collective
2. determinism

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3. State
4. Political socialization
5. Agents
6. transmission of political values
7. social order
8. association
9. respect, acceptance and legitimacy
10. Moral entrepreneurs
11. society
12. Education
13. Human agency
14. Mass communication
15. cognitive and social development
16. helping expert and a client
17. domestic violence

14.15 SUGGESTED READINGS

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