



# **ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY**

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**KARAIKUDI-630 003, TAMILNADU**

**DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

**M.A., (SOCIOLOGY)**  
**III Semester**  
**35134**

**RURAL AND URBAN SOCIOLOGY**

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Mapping in Book

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**Model Question Paper**

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# UNIT- I NATURE AND SCOPE OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY

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*Nature and Scope of  
Rural Sociology*

## Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Rural Sociology
  - 1.3.1 Meaning of Rural Sociology
  - 1.3.2 Definition of Rural Sociology
- 1.4 Nature of Rural Sociology
- 1.5 Scope of Rural Sociology
- 1.6 History of Rural Sociology
  - 1.6.1 Origin and development of Rural Sociology
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- 1.7 Let Us Sum Up
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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

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Rural Sociology has taken the shape of an independent social science with its own characteristic standpoint and methods. The subject matter of Rural Sociology, according to Nelson, is the description and analysis of the progress of various groups as they exist in the rural environment.

Similarly, Bertrand has treated Rural Sociology as the study of human relationships in rural environment. This, again, emphasizes the study of all types of social relationships existing in village setting.

It is a branch of sociology which studies rural society. Rural sociology studies the relations of the people who live in the villages. India is basically a land of villages. Rural sociology is the sociology of the village or village society.

In this unit, you will learn the meaning and definitions of Rural Sociology. You will learn nature, scope and history of Rural Sociology.

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## 1.2 OBJECTIVES

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ understand the meaning, definitions of the Rural Sociology
- ✓ understand the nature and Scope of the Rural Sociology
- ✓ understand the History of Rural Sociology
- ✓ gain the knowledge about the concept of Rural Sociology

*Self - Instructional Material*

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## **1.3 RURAL SOCIOLOGY**

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Rural Sociology is a specialized field of sociology. It is the study of life in rural environment, which systematically studies rural communities to discover their conditions and tendencies to formulate the principles of progress. It is limited to various aspects of rural society in the study of rural social relationships.

### **1.3.1. Meaning of Rural Sociology**

Rural sociology is the study of social organization and social processes that are characteristic of geographical localities where population size is relatively small and density is low (Warner 1974). Thus, rural sociology can be defined as the sociology of rural society. Since rural societies do not exist in isolation, rural sociology also addresses the relation of rural society to the larger society. Therefore, it deals also with spatial organization and the processes that produce spatial allocations of population and human activities (Newby 1980; Newby and Buttel 1980).

“Indian rural sociology or the science of the laws governing the specific Indian rural and social organization has still to be created. Such a science is, however, the basic premise for the renovation of the Indian rural society, as indispensable for the renovation of the Indian society as a whole.” — A.R.Desai

Rural sociology is a field of sociology that is connected with the study of social life in rural areas. Rural sociology is centered on the rural community life. Thus, rural sociology has been specially designed to study the rural phenomena and it is a systematic study of the varied aspects of the rural society. It is the study of the rural social networks and how they operate for the smooth functioning of the society. The rural society is generally rooted in the villages, and rural sociology studies the aspects of the villages, the way it functions, the various problems it faces and the how it tackles to face the imminent challenges. Rural sociology offers viable solutions and ways of mitigating the problems that hound over the villages.

### **1.3.2. Definition of Rural Sociology**

Many Western and Indian sociologists have given their definitions regarding rural sociology in their own point of view. Among the sociologists, T.L. Smith, A.R. Desai, Dwight-Sanderson, Chapin etc. are very important.

- a. According to Sanderson, “Rural sociology is the sociology of rural life in the rural environment”.
- b. Bertand says, “Rural sociology is that study of human relationships in rural environment”.
- c. A.R Desai defines rural sociology as, “the science of rural society....It is the science of laws of the development of rural society”.

- d. “The sociology of rural life is a study of rural population, rural social organization and the rural social processes operative in rural society.” —F. S. Chapin
- e. “Such sociological facts and principles as are derived from the study of rural social relationships may be referred to as rural sociology.” —T. L. Smith

The above definitions have given a clear cut idea about rural sociology. The definitions no doubt, include the theoretical as well as applied aspect of rural sociology. Rural sociology clarifies the laws of rural social life and points out the necessary conditions of its progress.

In the words of **N.L.Sims**, “The field of rural sociology is the study of association among people living by or immediately depends upon agriculture. Open country and village groupings and groups behavior are its concern.”

## NOTES

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### **1.4 NATURE OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY**

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In India, rural sociology is treated as a part of sociology. Like sociology it is also considered as a social science. It is precisely a specialized field of sociology. Its nature is scientific. Actually to say, by nature rural sociology is a science. Science in simple words refers to a systematic body of knowledge. In case of rural sociology the rural problems are systematically and logically studied.

The nature of Rural Sociology generally implies whether it can be categorized under natural sciences or under arts. August Comte, the father of Sociology, called *Sociology* as the queen of sciences. Some sociologists have viewed sociology in terms of natural sciences. According to Pierre Bourdieu, “Sociology seems to me to have all the properties that define as science...All sociologists worthy of the name agree on a common heritage of concepts, methods and verification procedures”. Most of the sociologists opine that Sociology has all the characteristics of science and it is, no doubt, a science. Since rural sociology is a specialized branch of Sociology, therefore it is also a science.

Nevertheless, before furthering to elaborate rural sociology as a science, it is essential to know what science is. Science is a method and way of looking at things consisting of systematic steps like observation, collection and classification of data, hypothesis, testing, theory and conclusion. Science possesses six basic ingredients.

Firstly, science employs the scientific method. Secondly; it is a study of facts. Thirdly scientific principles are universal. Fourthly, scientific laws are vertical. Its validity can be examined at any time and it proves true in every place. Fifthly, science discovers the cause-effect relationship in its subject-matter and in this connection provides universal and valid laws. Finally, science can make predictions on the basis of universal and valid laws relating to the cause-effect relationship in any subject. The function of science is based upon a faith in causality.

The nature or Rural Sociology as a science can be examined on the following grounds.

NOTES

1. **Scientific Methodology:** Rural Sociology utilizes scientific methodology and hence, all the methods used in rural sociology are scientific in nature.

2. **Facts Accumulation:** Rural Sociology is always founded on factual study. It studies rural social relationship and activities in a factual manner. It makes a scientific study of facts, general principles and theories involved in them. It is also a known principle that science grows on the data collected from the field and that a sociologist stands on the shoulders of other sociologists as said by Robert Merton.

3. **Empiricism:** Unlike natural sciences that carry out experiments in the closed laboratory for measurement and verification, rural sociology uses the empirical method in the form of fieldwork. For a rural sociologist going to the field carries immense significance as it helps him/her to gather relevant data on the basis of which he will formulate theories and also it provides an occasion for experimentation, observation and verification.

4. **Precision and Accuracy:** Two of the important features of scientific investigation are precision and accuracy. The data that is collected should reflect the exact existing situation at the time of observation. The principles of rural sociology need to be proved true when verified. Their validity can be examined by any one.

5. **Discovery of cause-effect relationship:** Like Sociology, Rural Sociology also discovers a cause effect relationship between the phenomena. For example, in the modern society, the rate of divorce increases rapidly due to the family disorganization. Similarly, due to the swift growth of population the rate of poverty and unemployment increases in the rural society. In these examples, family disorganization and population growth are two causes and divorce as well as poverty and unemployment are their effects. Rural Sociology has discovered a cause effect relation between the phenomena and population growth and divorce. Thus Rural Sociology finds the causal relationship in social disorganization and other incidents, activities and relationship in rural society and then forms laws concerning them.

6. **Predictions:** Eventually, on the basis of cause-effect relationship rural sociology becomes capable of anticipating the future and make predictions concerning social relationship, activities, incidents etc. For example, if disorganization in the families becomes pronounced, it can make predictions concerning the number of divorces and many other things. Knowing the cause-effect relationship, rural sociology can conclude 'what will be' on the basis of 'what is'.

Thus, it is evident from the above analysis that Rural Sociology, by nature, is a science. It possesses all the essential characteristics of science. However, there are plenty of objections against the scientific nature of rural sociology. Some sociologists have raised their views against the nature of Rural Sociology as a science. They have vehemently objected to the scientific nature of rural sociology on the basis of the following grounds:

**7. Lack of Objectivity:** The first objection rose against the nature of rural sociology being called a science is that, an unbiased and objective study cannot be made in it. The chief reason of this is that the sociologists have to play dual role of both the doctor and the patient in society. They are the members of that very society which they studies. From this point of view, they have established a very secure relation with the contents, very commencement of society. The sociologists study religion, family, marriage, economic system etc. But hold their observation lacks the ingredient of objectivity, which is so much indispensable to science.

**8. Lack of experiment:** There was also an objection that rural sociology doesn't use Rural Sociology is not a science just because of the term, science used in it. If science is used for physical sciences, then rural sociology cannot assert to be a science. The term science is used for physical sciences includes the dual process of experimentation and prediction. Rural Sociology, in this context, is not a science because its subject matter, the human relationship and behavior and they are abstract in nature. One can neither see nor touch, neither weigh nor analyze in the laboratory. It does not possess the instruments like the microscope and the thermometer to measure the human behavior as science does. It is not probable to validate and test the theory and the principles of rural Sociology like science.

**9. Lack of measurement:** The third argument against the nature of Rural Sociology as a science is that it is deficient in measurement. In natural sciences, definite and standard measurement is used to measure and weigh. The different measurements like units, grams, meters, centimeters etc, by which the subject matter of natural sciences can be measured the units or Rural Sociology. Due to the lack of measurement, the results of rural sociology differ from time to time which is not in the case of natural sciences.

**10. Lack of Exactness:** The fourth objection is that the discipline doesn't provide exactness. It is not possible to follow the laws and principles of rural sociology universally as the principles of natural science can be followed. Its law and principles vary on the basis of time and place concerned. For example, the rural social problems of one country may be different from the other country. In India untouchability is a serious rural problem but in America it is not so.

**11. Lack of Prediction:** The fifth and final objection against the nature or Rural Sociology being called a science is that it is deficient in accurate prediction. But due to the lack of objectivity and electivity, the principles that are invented by rural sociology are not always acceptable. Consequently, it becomes to predict any occurrence or phenomena or forecast cannot be possible about the laws and principles of Rural Sociology. For instance according to the standing principles of natural science we can predict that the combination of two hydrogen molecules and one oxygen molecule produces water. But such type of prediction is almost impossible in the field of Rural Sociology.

It is evident from the above analysis regarding the nature of Rural Sociology, that it is very difficult to conclude whether, by nature it is

science or not as there are dual and contrasting opinions both in favor and against the scientific nature of rural sociology. There can be no doubt over the question that rural sociology uses scientific techniques like observation, experimentation, classification and tabulation in the collection and interpolation of data systematically. The conclusion derived by the rural sociology is based upon empirical realities. Therefore, rural sociology, no doubt can definitely be a novel branch of science having the subject-matter and methodology of its own.

**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 meant by Rural sociology?
2. Name some Rural sociologists you know.

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## 1.5 SCOPE OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY

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Rural Sociology has taken the shape of an independent social science with its own characteristic standpoint and methods. The subject matter of Rural Sociology, according to Nelson, is the description and analysis of the progress of various groups as they exist in the rural environment.

Similarly, Bertrand has treated Rural Sociology as the study of human relationships in rural environment. This, again, emphasizes the study of all types of social relationships existing in village setting.

There are two schools of thought on the scope of Rural Sociology. According to the first school of thought, Rural Sociology provides only scientific knowledge about rural society. It offers a composite picture of rural life in its multifaceted dimensions.

So far as the second school of thought is concerned, Rural Sociology addresses itself to the study of rural-urban contrast, rural-urban continuum and acts as an instrument for bringing about rural reconstruction.

The two schools of thought, however, have one point in common, that is, they unanimously agree that Rural Sociology studies the various aspects of rural life in a scientific and systematic manner. The scope of Rural Sociology can be described as follows:

### 1. Rural Community

To quote Sanderson, "A rural community consists of the social interaction of the people and their institutions in the local area in which they live....." Rural Sociology is concerned with the study of the characteristics, special features and ecology of the village community.

### 2. Rural Social Structure

Social structure is the most important basis of social life. Rural Sociology studies the various components of rural social structure such as village community, family, caste etc. It also analyses the effect of religion, customs and tradition on rural social structure.

### **3. Rural Social Institutions**

Social, economic, political, educational and religious institutions in the context of rural society constitute the subject matter of rural sociology. Rural Sociology also analyses the sociological significance of these institutions.

### **4. Rural Culture**

Culture is the total way of life shared by members of a society. It can be conceived of as a tool kit that provides us with the ideas and technology to deal with the common problems of everyday life. Rural Sociology studies the various aspects of the cultural life of the ruralites such as rural social customs, beliefs, values, attitudes, drives and interests.

### **5. Rural Social Change**

Consequent upon the forces of industrialization, urbanization, westernization, sanskritization and modernization, rural society is undergoing profound changes. Rural Sociology studies the effect of these processes of social change on rural life.

### **6. Rural Development Programmes**

Rural Sociology evaluates the impact of various rural development programmes such as Community Development Programme, Integrated Rural Development Programme etc. It also studies the effect of various social legislation measures on the life of the ruralites.

### **7. Agricultural Transformation**

An important area of study for Rural Sociology is the process of diffusion and adoption of agricultural technology among the rural farmers and modernization of rural life as a result of improvement in the farming technology.

Rural Sociology also deals with the extent of gains of the various classes of rural community consequent upon the growth in the agricultural economy.

### **8. Rural Demography**

Demography is pre-eminently concerned with the statistical study of the size, distribution and growth of population over a specific period of time. Rural Sociology studies the causes of the growth of population and its impact on rural development, rural to urban and rural to rural migration.

### **9. Rural-Urban differences**

All rural sociologists recognize that the social life of the community is divided into two distinct segments, rural and urban. Though these segments interact among themselves, each is sufficiently distinct from the other. Study of rural-urban differences, therefore, constitutes an important aspect of the scope of rural sociology.

### **10. Rural Social Processes**

Social processes refer to the repetitive forms of behaviour which are commonly found in social life. Rural Sociology studies the various social processes such as cooperation, accommodation, assimilation, competition – and conflict which occur among individuals or groups in the rural context. It also deals with the effect of cooperation or conflict in either uniting or dividing the various groups in the context of rural society.

### **11. Rural reconstruction**

Rural reconstruction signifies radical changes in village life in general and renovation or improvement in the economic system in particular. Most of the scholars today agree that the aim of rural sociologist is to suggest concrete methods for rural reconstruction so that all round development of village life becomes possible.

### **12. Rural religion**

Religion is a system of beliefs and practices related to sacred things that unites believers into a moral community. Rural Sociology studies the characteristics of religion in the rural context and its impact on the rural its impact on the ruralites.

### **13. Land and agriculture**

Rural Sociology studies problems and structure related to land and agriculture. It deals with issues concerning land reforms, land ceiling and agrarian relations at a greater length.

### **14. Rural stratification pattern**

Rural stratification pattern constitutes an important area of the scope of Rural Sociology. Social differentiation occurs in the rural setting in the form of big farmers, small farmers, marginal farmers and landless labourers.

### **15. Rural Politics**

Consequent upon the process of modernization and change in the structure and functions of the Panchayati Raj system, the pattern of rural leadership has undergone considerable changes. Rural Sociology deals with rural leadership and analyses the working of village lobby and caste in the context of local/state/national level politics.

### **16. Rural social control**

Social control consists of the forces and processes that encourage conformity, including self- control, informal control and formal control. Rural Sociology employs informal means of social control in the form of family, neighbourhood, praise, blame, religion, customs, folkways, mores etc. in regulating the behaviour of the ruralites.

### **17. Village development programmes**

Study of rural development programmes forms an interesting theme of the scope of rural sociology. The objective of these programmes is to bring about rural welfare on a holistic note. Secondly, the programmes make the ruralites active agents in the task of nation-building.

### **18. Environmental crisis**

Rural Sociology also deals with environmental decay and erosion of ecology.

### **19. Rural Pathology**

Rural Sociology is concerned with the study of several socio-economic problems such as rural poverty, rural unemployment, illiteracy, rural indebtedness, and incidence of crimes in rural areas etc.-their causes, effects and remedial measures.

In fine, from the above analysis it is evident that the scope of Rural Sociology is both wide and comprehensive. It encompasses all the aspects of rural life in a scientific and systematic manner.

**Check your progress -2**

**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 are the two schools of thought in Rural Sociology?
4. Write note on rural religion.

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## **1.6 HISTORY OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY**

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### **1.6.1 Origin and Development of Rural Sociology**

Rural sociology is relatively novel branch of sociology. It is originated in the United States of America in the form of systematic science in the year 1820.

In the year 1907, rural sociology seems to be started its growth. At that time, American President Roosevelt feared that if no steps were taken to ameliorate the condition of the rural folk, the United States would face deterioration in moral life. He emphasized on the study of rural sociology and rural social problem. He appointed the Country Life Commission (C.L.C.) to study the rural social problems and recommend remedial measures.

In 1911, a Rural Sociology Department was established in American Sociological Society. In 1912, the CLC findings were referred to the American Sociological Society in its annual meeting held in 1912. In 1916 the first text book on sociology was published by J.N Gillettee. In 1917 Rural Sociology Department was opened in American Sociological Institute for survey and research on rural societies. Consequently, huge data on American rural life poured out in the form of dissertations and research monographs.

In 1919, a Rural Sociology Department was established under the auspices of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics under the leadership of Dr. C.J. Golpin. The name was later changed to "Rural Population and Rural Life." A quarterly named "Rural Sociology" was published in 1936. Between 1918 and 1925 several important books were published. A research journal entitled Rural Sociology was brought out in 1935 and John M. Gillette published a text book on rural sociology in 1960.

Eminent sociologists like James Michel Williams, Warren H. Wilson, Newell L. Sims contributed significantly to the study of American rural society. These sociologists used historical data and statistics along field interview to find out empirical reality about American country life.

The efforts of these early sociologists resulted in the emergence of rural sociology as a separate discipline of study. Evaluating the origin and growth of rural sociology in the United States, A. R. Desai observes, "In the USA rural sociology, though, a new science and still in a state of immaturity, is commanding wider and wider interest among social thinkers today. More than 800 professors and research workers are engaged in developing that science in that country."

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The study of rural sociology was also introduced in the American Universities. Reputed scholars like Charles Handerson of Chicago University, Butterfield of Michigan University, H. Giddings of Columbia University, Thomas Nixon Carver of Harvard University made significant contribution in the field of rural sociology. American scholars of rural sociology were sent to different countries for the study of rural problems. The League of Nations sponsored a huge number of studies in the form of monographs. Subsequently the UNO, UNESCO and FAO have profoundly contributed to the rapid development of rural sociology.

A European Society for Rural Sociology was formed in 1957 and similar organisations were started in Japan in 1957 for the study of rural societies and their problems. Apart from the study of rural problems, studies in rural social institutions, rural social change, rural education, rural health and rural-urban relationship came under the scope of rural sociology. In this way rural sociology gradually emerged as an important discipline of sociological study in the USA.

The Second World War caused heavy destruction and damage to human society which needed reconstruction. As a result rural sociology got an impetus in USA.

In response to these critiques of rural sociology a new sub-discipline of sociology emerged. The study of the community life of rural peoples this sub-discipline known as sociology of agriculture. The sociology of agriculture also distinguished itself from peasant studies on the grounds. This conceptual shift during the early 1970s also helped in bringing sociologists working on agrarian issues in the western countries.

### **1.6.2 Development of Rural Sociology in India**

Rural sociology is a new branch of sociology with studies being carried out from 19th century. The prominent scholars engaged in rural sociology during this period were- Sir Henry Maine, Etton, Stemann, Baden Powell, Slater and Pallock etc.

In the middle of nineteenth century society underwent a metamorphic transformation. Rural society and rural economy had been largely affected by urbanisation.

There was large scale migration of rural population to the cities. Social problems rising alarmingly led to serious thinking by scholars. In this regard A.R. Desai rightly observes, "The impact of the capitalist – industrial civilization upon the rural economy and the social structure in various parts of the world forced the attention of scholars to the study of the trends of rural social development."

Serious scholars like Maurer, Maine, Gierke, Elton, Stemann, Baden Powell, Ashley, Pollok, Lewinski, and Guiraud have contributed significantly to the study of rural sociology. Research scholars and university professors published books and research papers on the problems of rural society and made rich contributions to the growth of rural sociology. Before independence, also, many studies were conducted about village life in India. In 1926, Royal Commission on Agriculture was set up.

World War I saw agrarian crisis and began to draw the attention of the scholars towards rural India. George Keating's and Harold Mann in Bombay, Gilbert Slater in Madras and E.V. Lucas in Punjab initiated intensive studies of particular villages.

In the meanwhile, Viswa Bharati set up a Rural Reconstruction Board. In 1932 Scottish Church College, Calcutta published accounts of village life. But all these studies before independence remained isolated. Only after 1947, our nation decided to have planned development.

After independence, during the first five-year plan, strategies were made for the upliftment of the condition of rural people and literature on rural society has been on the increase.

Rural Sociology evolved into a systematic sub-discipline of Sociology only in the middle of the nineteenth century. The pioneering work in this field was *The Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology*, edited by Sorokin, Zimmerman and Galpin.

In the year 1955, prominent village studies by famous sociologists were brought out in India. It was suggested that there was a need of rural reconstruction and welfare. Therefore community development programmes came into the scene. Planning Commission has introduced several projects, land reforms, co-operative movement, five-year plans, Panchayat Raj etc.

These plans and programmes have contributed a lot towards the development of rural sociology in India. Different sociologists have made their original contributions in the field of rural sociology in India. Among them are Dr. D. N. Majumdar, Prof. N. K. Bose, Prof. M.N. Srinivas, S. C. Dube etc. are the pioneers.

In the Indian context Sir Henry S. Maine is the pioneer in the field of rural sociology. The beginning of a systematic study of Indian rural society dates back to the publication of his two significant books on rural life in India, viz, *Ancient Law* (1861) and *Ancient Society* (1877). Maine who first made the systematic study of rural society in India and advanced the theory that kinship is the mainstay of Indian rural society.

During the days of the British East India Company British administrators turned sociologists and anthropologists made substantial contribution to the study of rural society in India. On the basis of data compiled by the East India Company's officials in Madras Presidency, Holt Mackenzie reported about the existence of village communities in Northern India.

Charles Metcalf, a member of the Governor General's Council gave vivid description of Indian village life. The sociological studies of the British officials revealed the village communities as autonomous sociological isolates and highlighted patterns of land tenure, customary laws and the functioning of peasants and artisans.

After the First World War the British Government in India, provoked by recurrent famines, undertook serious studies on the Indian rural life. The report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture proved to be a monumental work on the problems of village communities. Subsequent studies on village communities were on economic perspectives.

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Economists like Gilbert Slater extended the idea of economic survey of villages as a part of the academic activities of the University of Madras in 1916. These villages were resurveyed in 1936 and 1961. Harold Mann and G. Keatings in Bombay and E.V. Lucas in Punjab started intensive survey of several villages and attempted an assessment of their general agricultural problems.

Both sociologists and anthropologists contributed significantly to the rural studies. Notable among them are D. N. Majumdar, N.K. Bose, R. K. Mukherjee, S. C Dude, F. G. Bailey and G.S. Ghurye.

Of late Rural Sociology has been included in the syllabi for undergraduate studies in Agriculture Engineering, Home Science, Economics and Agriculture. It has also been introduced as a major field of specialisation at the P.G. level in some Indian Universities.

**Check your progress - 3**

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

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

5. When and where Rural Sociology was originated?

6. What are the books published by Sir Henry S. Maine?

**1.7 LET US SUM UP**

Rural sociology is a field of sociology that is connected with the study of social life in rural areas. Rural Sociology has taken the shape of an independent social science with its own characteristic standpoint and methods. There are two schools of thought on the scope of Rural Sociology were: A) It provides only scientific knowledge about rural society. It offers a composite picture of rural life in its multifaceted dimensions. B) It addresses itself to the study of rural-urban contrast, rural-urban continuum and acts as an instrument for bringing about rural reconstruction. Rural sociology is relatively novel branch of sociology originated in the United States of America in the form of systematic science in the year 1820. American President Roosevelt emphasized on the study of rural sociology and rural social problem and appointed the Country Life Commission (C.L.C.) to study the rural social problems and recommend remedial measures. It's a landmark in the history of rural sociology. In India, Before independence, also, many studies were conducted about village life in India. After independence, during the first five-year plan, strategies were made for the upliftment of the condition of rural people and literature on rural society has been on the increase. Rural sociology has been introduced as a major field in Indian universities.

In this unit, you have studied the meaning and definition of Rural Sociology. You have discussed the nature and scope of Rural Sociology in a detailed manner. And also the history of Rural Sociology has been discussed.

**1.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

1. Define - Rural Sociology.
2. Write down the Nature of Rural Sociology.
3. Explain the Scope of Rural Sociology.

4. Explain in detail about the History of Rural Sociology.

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### 1.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Rural sociology is a field of sociology that is connected with the study of social life in rural areas. Rural sociology is centered on the rural community life.
2. T.L. Smith, A.R. Desai, Dwight-Sanderson, Chapin
3. According to the first school of thought, Rural Sociology provides only scientific knowledge about rural society. It offers a composite picture of rural life in its multifaceted dimensions. The second school of thought is concerned; Rural Sociology addresses itself to the study of rural-urban contrast, rural-urban continuum and acts as an instrument for bringing about rural reconstruction.
4. Religion is a system of beliefs and practices related to sacred things that unites believers into a moral community. Rural Sociology studies the characteristics of religion in the rural context and its impact on the rural its impact on the ruralites.
5. Rural Sociology is originated in the United States of America in the form of systematic science in the year 1820.
6. Ancient Law (1861) and Ancient Society (1877).

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### 1.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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*Nature and Scope of  
Rural Sociology*

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*Self - Instructional Material*

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# UNIT II - IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY

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## Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Importance of the study of Rural Sociology
- 2.4 Patterns of village settlements
  - 2.4.1 Factors affecting the types of Rural Settlements
- 2.5 Rural Urban contrast
- 2.6 Rurbanism
  - 2.6.1 Philosophy of Rurbanism
- 2.7 Peasant Studies
  - 2.7.1 Peasant: Meaning
  - 2.7.2 Types of Peasants
  - 2.7.3 Peasant Movement
  - 2.7.4 Peasant Movements in India
- 2.8 Agrarian Class Structure
  - 2.8.1 Model of Agrarian Class Structure
  - 2.8.2 Classification of Agrarian Population
- 2.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.10 Unit- End- Exercises
- 2.11 Answer to check your Progress
- 2.12 Suggested Readings

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## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

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The village society is characterized as a highly static society and village people excessively immobile. The importance of rural sociology has assumed greater significance to study and meet the challenges of rural people. Generally the human settlements are considered as points of population concentration. Settlement refers to the grouping of people and houses into hamlets, village's towns, and cities." Daniel,P & Hopkinson.M. Rural and urban areas are generally similar in terms of human interaction but differ most widely when diversity and choice are issues. Rurbanism is a silly buzzword for what one might call the "urban-rural confluence." Peasant movement is a social movement involved with the agricultural policy. It has a long history that can be traced to the numerous peasant uprisings that occurred in various regions of the world throughout human history. In India peasant movements are generally classified into pre-British, British or colonial and post-independence. However, the agrarian social structure is still marked by diversities. The agrarian history of different regions of India has been quite diverse and the trajectories of development have also been varied during post-independence period.

In this unit you will learn the importance of the study of Rural Sociology. You will study the patterns of village settlements, Rural Urban contrast, Rurbanism, Peasant Studies with peasant movements and Agrarian Class Structure in detail.

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## 2.2 OBJECTIVES

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- understand the Importance of the study of Rural Sociology
- understand the Patterns of village settlements in Rural Sociology
- understand the Agrarian Class Structure of Rural Sociology
- Gain the knowledge about the concept of Rural Urban contrast and Rurbanism in Rural Sociology.

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## 2.3 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY

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Some of the significance of rural sociology is as follows:

The village society is characterized as a highly static society and village people excessively immobile. However, this kind of common understanding has undergone a tremendous change with the introduction of Five-Year Plans and the revolution in mass media.

The earlier village life, which did not have any political and economic power, has now acquired adult franchise, democracy and accelerating transformation. During the last five decades, rural societies have witnessed massive changes. The village life today has reached a stage, where the glamour of urban life has made inroads in villages. It is in this context; we shall now evaluate and assess the significance of rural sociology.

### 1. Formation of Class and Transformation of Power

The relevance and significance of rural sociology is largely due to political transformation and the resultant class formation. This uneven development has resulted in conflict and contradiction at village level, besides giving rise to communalism and bringing non-secular into power.

### 2. Impact of Panchayati Raj

Yet another reason for the significance of rural sociology is that of the new power given to Panchayati Raj. The structure and functioning of Panchayati Raj and the policy of reservation to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes have led to transformation in village life. This needs the application of scientific approach to the comprehension of village community.

### 3. Poverty Elimination Programmes

A number of poverty removal programmes, both at the central and state level, require an in-depth understanding of the village community. The programmes introduced the need of new perspective on rural sociology for churning out successful stories of development.

### 4. Changing Eco-system and Environmental Dilemma

The forest and forest land is passing through environmental erosion. The debate on development and sustainable environment has assumed new significance in the country. It is argued that plans of

development should not be made at the cost of environmental degradation and disequilibrium in eco-system.

There is a consensus in the country that development, in all conditions, should be eco-friendly. The significance of rural sociology assumes importance in the present situation of the vast development and environmental decay in rural life. Rural sociology, like scientific social science, uses concepts along with theoretical formats, which can be of substantial importance for the development of rural life.

### **5. Multi-Ethnicities**

Our world is a land of diversities and it is essential here to understand the village life thoroughly. It is here that the branch of rural sociology assumes crucial importance.

### **6. NGOs and their Role**

NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations) occupy a pivotal role in the implementation of developmental plans. With the decentralization of power, the role of NGOs in the developmental process has substantially increased. Though the NGOs are not the professional holders of the knowledge of rural sociology, they definitely apply the perspective of rural sociology for the study of village life.

### **7. Widening Horizons of Rural Sociology**

About 50 years back, rural sociology consisted of the study of rural life and its composition. At present, these features of village life have changed. In its new situation, village life includes agrarian relations, land reforms, agricultural laborers, wage reforms, stratification, rural leadership, environment, peasant movements and struggles. Such a widening zone of rural sociology provides attractive feedback to an attractive rural development.

### **8. Social Science Research as a Major Growth Industry towards Village Economy**

Sociologists and social anthropologists were conducted extensive studies in the field of rural sociology in the beginning of 1950s. The main concern of these studies was the examination of interrelationships between different dimensions of rural organizations. We now have reached a stage where some serious research is required. Whatever rich data we have in the domain of rural sociology, should be put to theoretical construction.

Though, we have certain hypothetical formulations regarding rural life such as caste, mobility, dominant caste, etc., efforts should be made to bring these findings closer to students and social workers. This makes the study of rural sociology all the more significant for developing certain hypotheses and laws for improving the standard of life of rural people. It is in this context people consider social science research as a major growth industry in the world.

### **9. Growth in Urbanization, Industrialization and Migration**

The speedy industrialization and urbanization have pushed the rural people to urban market. The burden on land and unemployment at the rural level has compelled the rural population to migrate to urban areas. The importance of rural sociology has assumed greater significance to study and meet the challenges of rural people.

**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 significance of rural sociology is that of the new power given to -----
2. The speedy industrialization and urbanization have pushed the rural people -----
3. We have certain hypothetical formulations regarding rural life such as -----

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## **2.4 PATTERNS OF VILLAGE SETTLEMENTS**

Generally the human settlements are considered as points of population concentration. Etymologically the word finds its roots in the old English "Self" (Seat) or "Sedan" (to place) and is not a specialized scientific term. It has as many as eleven meanings (Chambers's -1961) of which two important from geographer's point of view, "a settled colony" (Group of houses where people dwell) and "the act of setting" (forming a permanent residence). But as is evident from Stone's review, the term has been employed to mean several things in geographical literatures.

However the human settlements are classified as Urban and Rural on the basis of Socio-Economic characteristics, Occupational Structure, Way of life and Population Size etc. The definitions given by some of the scholars shed light on the meaning of settlements.

According to Brunhes (1952) "Settlement is the topographic expression of the grouping and arrangement of two fundamental elements, houses, and highways." In his statement three things appear to be dominant in defining a settlement viz, topographic expression this means the settlements as a physical entity houses i.e., dwelling for man, highways this appears to a network system for movement of people. This also shows that Brunhes observed such settlements which are / were connected by major roads. Dicken and Pitts said, "Settlement refers to the grouping of people and houses into hamlets, village's towns, and cities." Daniel, P & Hopkinson .M.

The patterns of settlement identified are as given below:

**1. Isolated Farmstead**

In this form the individual lives on his farm with his farmland surrounding him. *"His neighbor may be a few miles from him depending on the size of their respective farms. Adjacent to his dwelling he keeps his livestock, bar, farm equipment, harvested produce and other parts commodities."*

**2. Village**

This pattern of settlement comprises of dwellings of rural people *"concentrated together with their farmland outlying their cluster dwelling of village. The number of dwelling will vary and will indicate the size of the village. Examples, of the village pattern of settlement due to be found in most of the countries of the East, where such predominates."*

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### 3. **Line Village**

In such a type of village houses are located along a road, water way or artery of transportation, each with adjoining strips of farm land belongs in shape extending away from the road. Residences are thus close and easily accessible to one another and at the same time are located on their respective farms. *This pattern of human settlement may be witnessed along canals in Thailand, in certain parts of Canada along the St. Lawrence River, in French Canadian settlement in Maine and Louisiana in the U.S.A. and is characteristic of the French land tenure pattern, many villages in France and Germany are also of this type.*

### 4. **Round Village or Circular Pattern**

In this type *“houses are arranged in a circle enclosing a central area with the houses and yard at the apex of triangular plot. In this way, houses are closer together without creating a corresponding greater length in the tract of farm land.”* Such a pattern can easily be seen in some villages in Israel where irrigated land is very limited.”

### 5. **Cross-Roads and Market Center Settlements**

This pattern of settlement is common in various places through out the world. It is *“based on economic factors of location for simply and distribution of goods, these settlement provide needed products and commodities, such as prepared food stuffs, refreshments services such as petrol station, repair shop, etc. market center settlement, therefore, are predominantly is habited by Merchants who handle agricultural products, bankers, shopkeepers and other.”* In such centers farmers usually do not reside unless their farmland is adjacent. Generally it consists of shops along the line of the road.

### 6. **Hamlets**

Small village located away from villages or on the fringes of larger villages are called hamlets and they do not possess adequate supplies usually and services that may be more available in the larger village.

### 7. **Other Patterns**

In addition to these other types of settlements exist to serve specific function. For, instance, in India at points of religious pilgrimage or a church is usually built along with dwelling places for those who visit and worship. Similarly, there are historical and other places of tourist interest around which settlements have come to exist.

#### **2.4.1 Factors Affecting The Types of Rural Settlements**

There are two factors, physical and cultural, responsible for various settlement types in rural areas. They are also known as agglomerating factors or deglomerating factors. In physical factors relief, fertility of soil, amount of rainfall, dry land and defense are included, while in cultural factors landuse, land tenure, cropping pattern, clan and caste system, social relationships and means of transportation are included.

The compact farm villages are common features of great fertile river valley plains. Similarly in flood affected area, few elevated sites are

also having compact settlements. Settlements are generally found near water bodies. Availability of different sources of water gives rise to compact settlements. In low water table area where the construction of wells is costly, settlements around these wells are compact. However in the high water table area where wells can be dug easily, hamlets, semi-compact settlements are commonly found.

On uniform relief, the settlements tended to concentrate in compact form, while in rugged land dispersed settlements are found. Also in the areas of harsh climate and infertile soil dispersed settlements are more common.

Cultural factors such as land tenure system of agriculture, peaceful conditions, and social customs in relation to untouchable give rise to dispersion. Rail road network attract the settlers to settle in dispersed manner. Similarly modern technology, developments in agricultural, political or administrative decisions, religious or social conditions are also important in the study of settlement types.

The settlements of a region may be classified on the basis of their size, shape, siting, time and function. Rural settlements are usually classified into two extreme types i.e. compact and dispersed with number of intermediate stages. In the former settlement type, houses are piled at one place or well-knit along streets while in the latter every family residence remains scattered in the village in association with its respective form (Metizen, 1895)

**Check your progress - 2**

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

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

4. What is Hamlets?

5. "Settlement refers to the grouping of people and houses into hamlets, village's towns, and cities." Who said?

**2.5 RURAL URBAN CONTRAST**

Many families and individuals find themselves, at least at some point, questioning the advantages of rural versus urban life. Quality of life is one of the central issues to consider in any comparison between rural versus urban living. While a case can be made for either location as being the best place to live, it is worthwhile to consider how these two options, rural versus urban, are similar and different. Important factors such as the capacity to make general choices, diversity, health, and employment concerns all influence both sides of the comparison and although each both rural and urban living offer great benefits, they both have a seemingly equal number of drawbacks. Rural and urban areas are generally similar in terms of human interaction but differ most widely when diversity and choice are issues.

There are a number of positive as well as negative factors that contribute the overall quality of life in urban centers and if there is any general statement to be made about urban living, it is that there is a great deal of diversity and choice. In urban areas, there are many more choices

people can make about a number of aspects of their daily lives. For instance, in urban areas, one is more likely to be able to find many different types of food and this could lead to overall greater health since there could be a greater diversity in diet. In addition, those in urban areas enjoy the opportunity to take in any number of cultural or social events as they have a large list to choose from. As a result they have the opportunity to be more cultured and are more likely to encounter those from other class, cultural, and ethnic groups.

Pollution (noise and atmospheric) is an issue that could impact the overall quality of life. In addition to this, overpopulation concerns can also contribute to a decrease in the standard of living. Parents have a number of choices available for the education of their children and can often select from a long list of both public and private school districts, which leads to the potential for better education. It is also worth noting that urban areas offer residents the possibility to choose from a range of employment options at any number of companies or organizations. Aside from this, urbanites have better access to choices in healthcare as well and if they suffer from diseases they have a number of specialists to choose from in their area. According to one study conducted in Canada, rural populations show poorer health than their urban counterparts, both in terms of general health indicators (i.e. standardized mortality, life expectancy at birth, infant mortality) and in terms of factors such as motor vehicle accidents and being overweight. This could be the result of less reliance on vehicles in urban areas as well as greater emphasis on walking. Despite the conclusions from this study, however, there are a number of drawbacks to urban living as well, although, the life expectancy in cities may be higher.

Rural places do not offer the same level of choice and in very isolated areas and one might be forced to commute long distances to find even a remote selection of the diversity found in urban centers. Still, despite this lack of choice, there are a number of positive sides to rural living in terms of quality of life. For instance, living in a rural area allows residents to enjoy the natural world more easily instead of having to go to parks. In addition, people do not have to fight with the daily stresses of urban life such as being stuck in traffic, dealing with higher rates of crime, and in many cases, paying higher taxes. These absences of stressors can have a great effect on the overall quality of life and as one researcher notes, "People living in rural and sparsely populated areas are less likely to have mental health problems than those living in urban areas and may also be less likely to relapse into depression or mental illness once they have recovered from these in more densely populated areas".

The lack of daily stress found in cities from external factors (traffic, long lines, feeling caged, etc) has much to do with this. While there may not be a large number of stores and restaurants to choose from, those in rural areas have the benefit of land upon which to grow their own food, which is much healthier. Although urban populations have large numbers of social networks and networking opportunities, rural communities offer residents the ability to have long-lasting and more personal relationships since they encounter the same people more frequently. While there are not as many schools to choose from and sometimes rural schools are not funded as well as some others, children can grow up knowing their classmates and experience the benefits of smaller classrooms.

One of the drawbacks to living in a rural area, however, is that unlike urban areas, residents do not have the best opportunity to choose from a range of employment options. While they can commute to larger towns, this gets expensive and is not as convenient as working close to their residence. In general, if there is any statement to be made about the quality of life of rural living, it is that there is a greater ability to connect with people and the landscape. The quality of life in urban areas is similar to that in rural areas in that both involve a high degree of socialization, even if on a cursory level. Where they differ most noticeably is in the availability of choices and diversity, especially when vital factors (healthcare, education, and employment options) are concerned.

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## **2.6 RURBANISM**

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Rurbanism is a silly buzzword for what one might call the “urban-rural confluence.” In other words, it’s what happens when city dwellers leave their metropolitan environments for the country and bring their cultural interests with them.

Belief in or advocacy of the interaction and inseparability of urban and rural life. The New Rurbanism," investigates the dialectical relationship between city and countryside.

The term Rurbanism was coined by Ann Marie Gardner to describe the urban-rural confluence, she saw the new culture merging rural and urban seems to work out fine in food, fashion and interior design.

Conversion of rural to "Rurban" and "peri-urban" settlements is the most rapid form of urbanization in India and other historically rural areas of the world. Rurbanism has the progressive aim of bringing urban amenities to rural people and places; however there is a limited record of successful design accomplishments in this realm.

Rurbanism the concept is based on the idea of being a hybrid between town and country (Rural). According to philosopher Armen Avanesian, to whom this issue’s special feature is dedicated, “Today, city and country (side) must by necessity be thought as technological and computational.” He argues that cities today should be viewed more from the perspective of the countryside, and that this countryside is as far from “natural” as the rest of nature.

The concept of Rurban living or “Rurbanism” evolved with the growing need for developing and living in an environment devoid of all the negative aspects of urbanism such as bad air quality, water quality, heat island effects, green house effects and a disconnect with nature.

### **2.6.1 Philosophy of Rurbanism**

The need for this has arisen because of the urban people's want to enjoy a rural atmosphere while not having to give up on most of the comforts and commodities of their urban life. Rurbanism has evolved as a hybrid solution which connects the positive aspects of both worlds. The enthusiasts of Rurbanism believe that the current model of industrialization and urbanisation is not sustainable. A change in the way of living is

necessary to negate effects such as unnecessary consumerism, stress and unhealthy life styles - just to name a few. They believe that this not only brings people close to nature, but also creates a future for our subsequent generations, making certain that they too can reap the same benefits that we have enjoyed from nature.

A typical rural community strives to attain sustainability in some or all of the following areas without compromising on basic comforts and luxuries of life:

### **Air**

Rurban communities strive to preserve and improve both indoor and outdoor air quality. To improve outdoor air quality, a rurban community design may include lots of plantations and landscape planning without disturbing the natural topography of the surrounding area.

### **Water**

One of the prime facets of Rurbanization is conservation and responsible usage of domestic water. There are typically two sources from which water is collected - underground and rain water. Before designing any Rurban community, its water needs are properly assessed as per local or national building codes. Then, groundwater table assessments are carried out through proper surveying. At the same time, rain water harvesting capacity is also taken into account. Finally, the total rain water harvested and ground water extraction is equated to the total water requirement.

To minimize the total requirement of water needed within the communities, highly efficient plumbing fixtures, plus proper storm water drainage design, Hydroponics combined with systematic techniques for growing plants, and water metering at the source are some of the ways to reduce the demand. But the eventual goal of Rurbanization is to instill the sense of responsibility towards the usage of water in the minds of the community members.

Water sustainability measures may include treating Sewage water with techniques such as bio-remediation or Phytoremediation and using the treated water for agricultural purposes within the community.

### **Earth**

Farming is something that is partly or fully incorporated into the everyday life of the residents in a rurban community. Permaculture is an essential part of Rurbanization and Rurban systems. Farming and agriculture activities are carried out within the site. The agricultural produce may be divided within the residents for consumption. Some communities also incorporate natural or Organic\_farming into their farming techniques.

### **Energy**

Another goal of Rurbanization is Reducing carbon emissions and using Renewable energy to satisfy part or all of the energy needs in the community. To achieve this, an energy analysis is carried out to measure energy requirements and consumption patterns throughout a typical year and renewable energy systems are designed accordingly. Alternative

energy sources such as solar photovoltaic technology, bio-gas generation, wind and hydel power may be used.

### **Shelter**

Shelters in these communities will not necessarily mean it will be in the exact style or use the same materials as a rural home. Remember, this is a "Rurban Community" - a place where both worlds collide and try to adjust as much as possible with each other's' spheres.

Shelters in rurban communities are usually pertain to a proper and appropriate design of living habitats and homes. Appropriate design implies the design of homes to minimize the built up area without compromising on comfort and luxury. It is a type of architectural design which takes into consideration comfort, luxury and expectations factors of the residents yet also other environmental factors such as: sun path, shading design, protecting local landscape and trees to reduce the heat island effect, and building habitats which complement the existing ground features. Usage of Appropriate technology and reducing exaggerated living is what these communities strive to achieve.

### **Food**

This aspect of Rurbanization includes cultivating, harvesting and consumption of agricultural produce of farming by the residents of the community, thereby reducing reliance upon external sources of food, while - at the same time, maintaining the quality of the food by using organic farming methods and appropriate food preservation techniques. Also, domesticating farm animals such as cows and goat for milk is a part of this system.

### **People**

It is believed by the proponents of Rurbanization that, though, there may be many methods of achieving the above mentioned goals, what is needed first and foremost is a change in the mindset of the people. It is people that have to think in a responsible and sustainable way. To achieve this mission, these communities normally conduct workshops and training sessions where community members are informed about technologies and what it means to be responsible and also local farmers and workmen are trained to undertake methods such as organic farming and other technologies that are incorporated into a rurban community.

#### **Check your progress - 3**

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

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

6. In what way rural contrast with urban?
7. What is called rurbanism?

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## **2.7 PEASANT STUDIES**

### **2.7.1 PEASANT: MEANING**

People who depend on agriculture are differentiated in terms of their relationship with the land such as owners of the land, absentee landlords, supervisory agriculturists, owner-cultivators, share-croppers, tenants, and landless laborers. In general, and in local language, they are known as “Kisans”. The word “kisan” is often translated as “peasant” in the academic literature that is published in English.

According to Gough, Peasants are “people who engage in agriculture or related production with primitive means and who surrender part of their produce to landlords or to agents of state”.

From the mid-1980s a few scholars have started using the term “farmer” instead of “peasant”. According to Jan Breman, a peasant is one who tills the land.

### **2.7.2 TYPES OF PEASANTS**

According to Doshi and Jain rural sociologists have given different classification of peasants. The classification varies from situation to situation.

One of the modest categorizations of the peasants is discussed below:

#### **i. On the Basis of Land Ownership**

Daniel Thorner has taken land ownership as the basis for classifying the peasants. The peasants who have the document of land ownership in their name are the Maliks, those who do not own the land ownership document (patta) but cultivate the land are the Kisans and the tillers of the land, i.e., the agricultural laborers, are known as the Mazdoors.

#### **ii. On the Basis of the Size of the Land Holdings**

Some State Governments have classified the types of peasants on the basis of the size of their landholdings.

Accordingly, the classification is as follows:

##### **a. Rich Peasants**

Peasants who own more than 15 acres of land.

##### **b. Small Peasants**

Peasants who possess land between the size of 2.5 and 5 acres.

##### **c. Marginal Farmers**

Farmers who own land which is less than 2.5 acres.

##### **d. Landless Peasants**

These peasants earn their livelihood by working as manual laborers in agricultural lands of others as they do not possess any land. They work as sharecroppers and sub-tenants.

#### **iii. Class-based Classification of Peasants**

According to Utsa Patnaik, class differentiation exists within peasantry. Growth of capitalism in rural peasantry has resulted in the exploitation of peasantry that has taken a class character. According to her, there are two categories of peasants: one the big landlords and the second the agricultural laborers, who also include the sharecroppers.

#### **iv. Peasant Classification on the Basis of Resource Ownership**

Some sociologists have categorized the peasants on the basis of several other resources such as utilization of loans, tenancy, ownership of assets, credit from bank, and repayment capacity of loans.

There are five types of peasant groups according to K.L. Sharma:

- i. Owner-cultivator.
- ii. Largely owner-cultivator.
- iii. Largely tenant-cultivator.
- iv. Tenant-cultivator.
- v. Totally poor peasant.

In addition to the classification of sociologists, there are economists who have classified peasants into (i) landlords, (ii) rich peasants, (iii) middle class peasants, (iv) poor peasants and (v) agricultural peasants. However, in any classification of peasants, land tenancy and land size play an important role. Thus, both these combined together play an important role in determining the criteria for peasant classification.

#### **2.7.3 PEASANT MOVEMENT**

Peasant movement is a social movement involved with the agricultural policy. It has a long history that can be traced to the numerous peasant uprisings that occurred in various regions of the world throughout human history.

Anthony Pereira, a political scientist, has defined a peasant movement as a "social movement made up of peasants (small landholders or farm workers on large farms), usually inspired by the goal of improving the situation of peasants in a nation or territory".

A peasant movement is defined as a relatively organized and continuous collective action involving violence, or the threat of violence for securing more share in the control or ownership of land and its produce and to abolish injustices, which have arisen thereof.

#### **2.7.4 PEASANT MOVEMENTS IN INDIA**

According to Ghanshyam Shah, in India peasant movements are generally classified into pre-British, British or colonial and post-independence. According to Oommen there are certain movements which continue despite the changes in the political power.

These are the movements which started in the pre-independence era and are still continued though with different goals. The classification is also based on time span as the structure of agrarian system also differs from time to time so also the peasant movements.

The economic policies of British adversely affected the Indian peasants the British Govt. used to protect the landlords and money lenders, they exploited the peasants. The peasants rose in revolt against this injustice on many occasions. The peasants in Bengal formed their union and revolted against the compulsion of cultivating indigo.

Peasant movement in India was arose during the British colonial period, when economic policies characterized in the ruin of traditional

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*Self - Instructional Material*

handicrafts leading, change of ownership and overcrowding of land, and massive debt and impoverishment of peasantry. This led to peasant uprisings during the colonial period, and development of peasant movements in the post-colonial period. The Kisan Sabha movement started in Bihar under the leadership of Swami Sahajanand Saraswati who had formed in 1929 the Bihar Provincial Kisan Sabha (BPKS) in order to mobilise peasant grievances against the zamindari attacks on their occupancy rights. Gradually the peasant movement intensified and spread across the rest of India. All these radical developments on the peasant front culminated in the formation of the All India Kisan Sabha (AIKS) at the Lucknow session of the Indian National Congress in April 1936 with Swami Sahajanand Saraswati elected as its first President. D. D. Kosambi and R.S. Sharma, together with Daniel Thorner, brought peasants into the study of Indian history for the first time."

A.R. Desai classified the colonial India into the following areas under the British rule as Ryotwari, the areas under the princely authority as Zamindari and tribal zones. A.R. Desai calls the movements as "peasant struggles" in the colonial period and those of post-independence era as "agrarian struggles". The phrase "agrarian struggles" according to A.R. Desai refers not only to include peasants but also others.

He further divides the post-independence agrarian struggles into two categories—the movements launched by the newly emerging proprietary classes comprising rich farmers, viable sections of the middle peasant proprietors and the streamlined landlords; and second, the movements launched by various sections of the agrarian poor in which the agrarian proletariat have been acquiring central importance.

The post-independent India there was a centralized political authority and a capitalist mode of production acting as driving forces, there has not yet evolved a unified agrarian pattern. The capitalist mode of agriculture has developed in a few states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra, and Punjab. The classification also varies in accordance with the theoretical framework. Kathleen Gough classifies the peasant revolts into five categories.

They are:

1. Restorative rebellions to drive out the British and restore earlier rulers and social relations.
2. Religious movements for the liberation of a region or an ethnic group under a new form of government.
3. Social banditry.
4. Terrorist vengeance with the idea of meting out collective justice.
5. Mass insurrections for the redressal of particular grievances.

This classification is based on the apparent goals of the revolts rather than on the classes of the peasants involved and the strategies that they adopted for attaining their goals. However, it ignores some of the important peasant movements, which were linked to the nationalist movement in some form or the other.

Pushpendra Surana classifies peasant movements into eight types, mainly based on issues such as the movements against forced cultivation of a particular type of crop, exploitation by moneylenders, price rise, outside invaders, and dynasties. The limitation of such a classification is obvious, as more than one issue is often involved in many revolts.

Ranajit Guha looks at the peasant movements in a different way. He examines peasant insurgency from the perspective of peasant consciousness for revolt. He delineates the underlying structural features of tribal consciousness of the peasants, namely, negation, solidarity, transmission, territoriality, etc. This can help us understand how and why the peasants rebel.

**Check your progress - 4**

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

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

8. Define Peasant according to Gough.

9. What is called peasant movement?

**2.8 AGRARIAN CLASS STRUCTURE**

The traditional Indian society was organized around caste lines. The agrarian relations were governed by the norms of jajmani system. However, the jajmani relations began to disintegrate after the colonial rulers introduced changes in Indian agriculture. The process of modernisation and development initiated by the Indian State during the post-independence period further weakened the traditional social structure. While caste continues to be an important social institution in the contemporary Indian society, its significance as a system of organising economic life has considerably declined. Though agricultural land in most parts of India is still owned by the traditional cultivating caste groups, their relations with the landless menials are no more regulated by the norms of the caste system. The landless members of the lower caste now work with the cultivating farmers as agricultural labourers. We can say that, in a sense, caste has given way to class in the Indian countryside.

However, the agrarian social structure is still marked by diversities. As pointed out by D.N. Dhanagare, 'the relations among classes and social composition of groups that occupy specific class position in relation to land-control and land-use in India are so diverse and complex that it is difficult to incorporate them all in a general schema'. However, despite the diversities that mark the agrarian relations in different parts of country, some scholars have attempted to club them together into some general categories. Amongst the earliest attempts to categorize the Indian agrarian population into a framework of social classes was that of a well-known economist, Daniel Thorner (1956).

In the modern period, the British land revenue system propelled a more or less comparable agrarian class structure in villages in India. They were the three classes of the landowners (zamindars), the tenants and the agricultural labourers. The landowners (zamindars) were tax gatherers and non-cultivating owners of land. They belonged to the upper caste groups.

The agricultural labourers were placed in a position of bondsmen and hereditarily attached labourers. They belonged to the lower caste groups. There has been a noteworthy impact of land reforms and rural development programmes introduced after independence. Land reforms led to the expulsion of small and marginal tenants on a large scale. But the intermediate castes of peasants, e.g., the Ahir, Kurmi etc. in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh benefited. Power of the feudal landed families started declining all over the country. The commencement of the Green Revolution in the 1960s led to the emergence of commercially oriented landlords. Rich farmers belonging normally to upper and intermediate castes prospered. But the fortune of the poor peasantry and the agricultural labourers did not improve. This has led to inflection of class conflicts and tensions. Agrarian unrest in India became a common feature in various parts of the country. P.C. Joshi (1971) has summarized in the following manner the trends in the agrarian class structure and relationships:

(i) It led to the decline of feudal and customary types of tenancies. It was replaced by a more exploitative and insecure lease arrangement.

(ii) It gave rise to a new commercial based rich peasant class who were part owners and part tenants. They had resource and enterprise to carry out commercial agriculture.

(iii) It led to the decline of feudal landlord class and another class of commercial farmers emerged for whom agriculture was a business. They used the non-customary type of tenancy.

**The Issue of Village Autonomy:** The Indian village was depicted as a 'closed' and 'isolated' system. In a report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, Charles Metcalfe (1833), a British administrator in India, depicted the Indian village as a monolithic, atomistic and unchanging entity. He observed, "The village communities are little republics, having nearly everything that they want within themselves and almost independent of any foreign relations". Current historical, anthropological and sociological studies have however revealed that Indian village was hardly ever a republic. It was never self-reliant. It has links with the wider society migration, village exogamy, movement for work and trade, administrative connection, interregional market, inter-village economic and caste links and religious pilgrimage were prevalent in the past, connecting the village with the neighbouring villages and the wider society.

**The Jajmani System:** A very significant characteristic of conventional village life in India is the 'Jajmani' system. It has been studied by various sociologists, viz., Willian Wiser (1936), S.C. Dube (1955), Opler and Singh (1986), K. Ishwaran (1967), Lewis and Barnouw (1956). The term 'jajman' refers to the patron or recipient of specialized services and the term 'jajmani' refers to the whole relationship. In fact, the jajmani system is a system of economic, social and ritual ties among different caste groups in a village. Under this system some castes are patrons and others are serving castes. The serving castes tender their services to the landowning upper and intermediate caste and in turn are paid both in cash and kind. The patron castes are the landowning dominant castes, e.g., Rajput, Bhumihaar, Jat in the North, and Kamma, Lingayat and Reddi in Andhra Pradesh and Patel in Gujarat. The service castes comprise Brahmin (priest), barber, carpenter, blacksmith, water-carrier, leatherworker etc. The jajmani

relations essentially operate at family level. A Rajput land-owning family has its jajmani ties with one family each from Brahmin, barber, carpenter etc., and a family of service caste offers its services to specific families of jajmans. However, jajmani rules are enforced by caste panchayats. But the jajmani system also possesses the elements of dominance, exploitation and conflict. There is a vast difference in exercise of power between landowning dominant patrons and poor artisans and landless labourers who serve them. The rich and powerful jajmans exploit and coerce the poor 'kamins' (client) to uphold their supremacy. In fact, there is reciprocity as well as dominance in the jajmani system.

**Changes in Village Power Structure and Leadership:** Marginal changes of adaptive nature have occurred in power structure and leadership in villages after gaining independence due to various factors e.g. land reforms, panchayat raj, parliamentary politics, development programmes and agrarian movements. According to Singh (1986), upper castes now exercise power not by traditional legitimisation of their authority but through manipulation and cooption of lower caste people. The traditional power structure itself has not changed. New opportunities motivate the less powerful class to aspire for power. But their economic backwardness thwarts their desires. B.S. Cohn (1962), in his comparative study of twelve villages of India, found a close fit between land-ownership and degree of domination of groups. Now younger and literate people are found increasingly acquiring leadership role. Moreover, some regional variations also have been observed in the pattern of change in power structure in rural areas.

### **2.8.1 MODEL OF AGRARIAN CLASS STRUCTURE**

Thorner suggested that one could divide the agrarian population of India into different class categories by adopting three criteria. First, type of income earned from land (such as 'rent' or 'fruits of own cultivation' or 'wages'). Second, the nature of rights held in land (such as 'proprietary' or 'tenancy' or 'share-cropping rights' or 'no rights at all'). Third, the extent of field-work actually performed (such as 'absentees who do no work at all' or 'those who perform partial work' or 'total work done with the family labour' or 'work done for others to earn wages'). On the basis of these criteria he suggested the following model of agrarian class structure in India.

1) **Maliks**, whose income is derived primarily from property rights in the soil and whose common interest is to keep the level of rents up while keeping the wage-level down. They collect rent from tenants, sub-tenants and sharecroppers. They could be further divided into two categories, a) the big landlords, holding rights over large tracts extending over several villages; they are absentee owners/rentiers with absolutely no interest in land management or improvement; b) the rich landowners, proprietors with considerable holdings but usually in the same village and although performing no field work, supervising cultivation and taking personal interest in the management and improvement of land.

2) **Kisans** are working peasants, who own small plots of land and work mostly with their own labour and that of their family members. They own much lesser lands than the Maliks. They too can be divided into two sub-categories, a) small landowners, having holdings sufficient to support a family; b) substantial tenants who may not own any land but cultivate a large enough holding to help them sustain their families without having to work as wage labourers.

3) **Mazdoors**, who do not own land themselves and earn their livelihood primarily by working as wage labourers or sharecroppers with others.

### **2.8.2 CLASSIFICATION OF AGRARIAN POPULATION**

Another classification that has been more popular among the students of agrarian social structure and change in India is the division of the agrarian population into five classes. In terms of categories these have all been taken from Lenin-Mao schema, but in terms of actual operationalisation, they are invariably based on ownership of land, which invariably also determines their relations with other categories of population in the rural setting, as also outside the village.

#### **1. Big landlords**

Big landlords still exist in some parts of the country. They own very large holdings, in some cases even more than one hundred acres. However, unlike the old landlords, they do not always give away their lands to tenants and sharecroppers. Some of them organize their farms like modern industry, employing a manager and wage labourers and producing for the market. Over the years their proportion in the total population of cultivators has come down significantly. Their presence is now felt more in the backward regions of the country.

#### **2. Big farmers**

The size of their land holdings varies from 15 acres to 50 acres or in some regions even more. They generally supervise their farms personally and work with wage labour. Agricultural operations in their farms are carried out with the help of farm machines and they use modern farm inputs, they invariably belong to the local dominant castes and command a considerable degree of influence over the local power structure, both at the village level as well as at the state level. While the big landlords command more influence in the backward regions, the power of the big farmers is more visible in the agriculturally developed regions of the country.

#### **3. Middle farmers**

Middle farmers who own relatively are smaller holdings (between 5 acres to 10 or 15 acres). Socially, like the big farmers, they too mostly come from the local dominant caste groups. However, unlike the big farmers, they carry out most of the work on farms with their own labour and the labour of their families. They employ wage labour generally at the time of peak seasons, like harvesting and sowing of the crops. Over the years, this category of cultivators has also begun using modern inputs.

#### **4. Small and Marginal farmers**

Their holding size is small (less than five acres and in some cases even less than one acre). They carry out almost all the farm operations with their own labour and rarely employ others to work on their farms. In order

to add to their meager earnings from cultivation, some of them work as farm labourers with other cultivator. Over the years, they have also come to use modern farm inputs and begun to produce cash crops that are grown for sale in the market. They are among the most indebted category of population in the Indian countryside. As the families grow and holdings get further divided, their numbers have been increasing in most part of India.

### **5. Landless labourers**

A large majority of them belong to the ex-untouchable or the dalit caste groups. Most of them own no cultivable land of their own. Their proportion in the total agricultural population varies from state to state. While in the states like Punjab and Haryana they constitute 20 to 30 percent of the rural workforce, in some states, like Andhra Pradesh, their number is as high as fifty per cent. They are among the poorest of the poor in rural India. They not only live in miserable conditions with insecure sources of income, many of them also have to borrow money from big cultivators and in return they have to mortgage their labour power to them. Though the older type of bondage is no more a popular practice, the dependence of landless labourers on the big farmers often makes them surrender their freedom, not only of choosing employers, but invariably also of choosing their political representatives.

The agrarian history of different regions of India has been quite diverse and the trajectories of development have also been varied during post-independence period.

#### **Check your progress - 5**

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

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

10. Write down the criteria given by Thorner in dividing agrarian population in India.

11. Who are called Mazdoors?

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## **2.9 LET US SUM UP**

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The earlier village life, which did not have any political and economic power, has now acquired adult franchise, democracy and accelerating transformation. The village life could be change in this period; it is need to study the life of rural people. The human settlements are classified as Urban and Rural on the basis of Socio-Economic characteristics, Occupational Structure, Way of life and Population Size etc. Quality of life is one of the central issues to consider in any comparison between rural versus urban living. When city dwellers leave their metropolitan environments for the country and bring their cultural interests with them is called rurbanism. A peasant movement is defined as a relatively organized and continuous collective action involving violence, or the threat of violence for securing more share in the control or ownership of land and its produce and to abolish injustices, which have arisen thereof. Peasant movement in India was arose during the British colonial period, when economic

policies characterized in the ruin of traditional handicrafts leading, change of ownership and overcrowding of land, and massive debt and impoverishment of peasantry. Thorner suggested that one could divide the agrarian population of India into different class categories by adopting three criteria. The agrarian history of different regions of India has been quite diverse and the trajectories of development have also been varied during post-independence period. Caste has given way to class in the Indian countryside.

In this unit, you have learnt the importance of the study of Rural Sociology. You have studied the patterns of village settlements, Rural Urban contrast, Rurbanism, Peasant Studies with peasant movements and Agrarian Class Structure in detail.

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### **2.10 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

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1. State the Importance of the study of Rural Sociology.
2. Enumerate the Rural Urban contrast.
3. Briefly explain the philosophy of rurbanism.
4. Explain the Patterns of village settlements.
5. Write about the essay on Agrarian Class Structure.

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### **2.11 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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1. Panchayati Raj
2. urban market
3. caste, mobility, dominant caste, etc
4. Small village located away from villages or on the fringes of larger villages are called hamlets and they do not possess adequate supplies usually and services that may be more available in the larger village.
5. Dicken and Pitts
6. Education, Health, quality of life, no of choices, culture etc.
7. It is called urban-rural confluence. It's what happens when city dwellers leave their metropolitan environments for the country and bring their cultural interests with them.
8. According to Gough, Peasants are "people who engage in agriculture or related production with primitive means and who surrender part of their produce to landlords or to agents of state".
9. Peasant movement is a social movement involved with the agricultural policy. It made up of peasants usually inspired by the goal of improving the situation of peasants in a nation.
10. a) type of income earned from land b) the nature of rights held in land c) the extent of field-work actually performed
11. Mazdoors, who do not own land themselves and earn their livelihood primarily by working as wage labourers or sharecroppers with others.

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### **2.12 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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*Importance of the Study of Rural Sociology*

NOTES

*Self - Instructional Material*

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## **UNIT III AGRARIAN SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND CHANGE**

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### **Structure**

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Agrarian Social Structure and Change
  - 3.3.1 Agrarian Meaning
  - 3.3.2 Agrarian System
  - 3.3.3 Agrarian Social Structure
  - 3.3.4 Agrarian Structures in India
  - 3.3.5 Rural Stratification Pattern
  - 3.3.6 Characteristics of Agrarian Society
  - 3.3.7 Agrarian Changes during the British Colonial Rule
  - 3.3.8 Agrarian Changes after Independence
- 3.4 Village Social Structure
  - 3.4.1 The Nature of Rural Social Structure
  - 3.4.2 Salient Features of Indian Rural Social Structure
- 3.5 Land ownership pattern in Rural Society
  - 3.5.1 Land Ownership Systems
  - 3.5.2 Land Reforms
  - 3.5.3 Land Reform Legislations
- 3.6 Let us Sum up
- 3.7 Unit- End- Exercises
- 3.8 Answer to check your Progress
- 3.9 Suggested Readings

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### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Agrarian means anything related to land, its management or distribution. The study of peasant societies and cultures is called agrarian system. Agrarian system, have very strongly argued that changes in land relations have affected the stratification pattern of villages. The crucial aspect of agrarian structure is the control over land. Indian rural social structure formed by family, caste system, internal organization, religion and economic system. Various land ownership and transfer systems were introduced by the British. Indian leaders promised landless and marginalised farmers that once the British left the country, there would be equal distribution of land.

In this unit you will learn agrarian social structure and change, village social structure and land ownership pattern in rural sociology in an elaborate manner.

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### **3.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ❖ Identify various elements of rural social structure in India,
- ❖ State and explain the important changes in the Agrarian Social Structure
- ❖ understand the Land ownership pattern in Rural Society
- ❖ Gain the knowledge about the Village Social Structure.

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### **3.3 AGRARIAN SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND CHANGE**

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#### **3.3.1 AGRARIAN MEANING**

The dictionary meaning of 'agrarian' means anything related to land, its management or distribution. Related to land distribution is also the aspect of 'equitable division of land'. It refers to the political movement in favour of change in conditions of propriety in land. It is called 'agrarianism'.

#### **3.3.2 AGRARIAN SYSTEM**

The agrarian problem also dwells on a new ground wherein a movement has been started in some of the Asian countries which stands for the ownership of land in favour of women. Agrarian system also includes land tenure system. Beteille has defined agrarian social structure. To him agrarian system does not mean only peasantry.

The meaning of the phrase (agrarian system) may not be immediately clear but what is implied is something more specific than the study of peasant societies and cultures, as this is generally understood by anthropologists... The term 'peasantry' has variety of referents. But it is most meaningfully used to describe a more or less homogeneous and undifferentiated community of families characterised by small holdings operated mainly by family labour.

The study of agrarian system has been taken up as mentioned earlier by anthropologists, sociologists and economists. On a broader plane, the agrarian system as is conceived by social scientists in general has been related to:

- (i) Land and its utilisation; and
- (ii) Productive purposes.

The study of agrarian systems will centre round the problem of land and its utilisation for productive purposes. In a land-based social and economic system the significance of this kind of study hardly requires emphasis.

#### **3.3.3 AGRARIAN SOCIAL STRUCTURE**

Beteille, to refer to him again, it would be said that the land problem in India and for that matter the study of agrarian social structure revolves round two major issues as under:

- 1. Technological arrangements, and
- 2. Social arrangements.

Technological arrangement means the management of land. It includes landownership, control and use of land. Technological arrangement is discussed in relation to variations in ecological conditions. In other words, land is looked in terms of the geography which surrounds the land. The ecological setting of agriculture in India is highly variable. The diverse nature of ecological conditions in India has been described by Beteille as under:

There are areas of heavy rainfall and areas with hardly any rainfall. There are irrigated and unirrigated areas. Irrigated areas themselves differ

according to the dependability of irrigation.... The different regions show different patterns of diurnal and seasonal variations in humidity, temperature and sunlight. All these factors have a direct bearing on the kinds of crops that can be cultivated and the technology employed in their cultivation.

The technological arrangements, thus, include ecological conditions along with the new agriculture technology, such as water pumps, thresher, chemical manure, improved seeds, etc. Another aspect of agrarian system is that of social management.

It includes land control and landownership. It is found that the Indian agricultural communities have recently been highly stratified. It shows that there is close relationship between the system of stratification and the division of work.

### **3.3.4 AGRARIAN STRUCTURES IN INDIA**

K.L. Sharma has discussed the problem of agrarian stratification and argues that agrarian structures in India have always been uneven. He observes that despite the abolition of intermediaries not much substantive change in agrarian relations has come. The uneven structures of landholdings have also resulted in 'diverse land tenure systems'. The land tenure system, according to Sharma, has greatly affected the social structure. He writes:

The variations in the relationship between land tenure system and social structure created an uneven feudal order in the pre-British and British periods. The shadow of the colonial and feudal inequality is still seen by us in various aspects of society.

Sociologists and anthropologists, who have recently studied agrarian system, have very strongly argued that changes in land relations have affected the stratification pattern of villages. The crucial aspect of agrarian structure is the control over land.

It is the basis of agrarian stratification. When agrarian social structure is discussed invariably we refer to landownership, land control and use of land. Such an approach to land helps us to find out agrarian hierarchy. What has happened so far is that the dominant castes who, have control over major portions of land, suppress and exploit the subordinated classes.

### **3.3.5 RURAL STRATIFICATION PATTERN**

Oliver Mendelsohn and Marika Vicziany, who have discussed the rural land reform with reference to untouchables, argue that the subordinated people have gained nothing out of land reforms. The present social stratification of the village is due to our failure to settle land reforms. The authors observe as under:

Land control is the basis of the agrarian hierarchy and, therefore, the means by which the dominants have subordinated untouchables the village. Small resources like a home site of one's own and even a very

small plot of productive land can affect a powerful liberation of the subordinate untouchables from total and arbitrary dependence on their oppressor.

Yet, another aspect of rural stratification is the pattern of cultivation adopted by the peasantry. If the cultivators take to crops which require hard labour, naturally it would require larger number of agriculture labourers.

In the states of Punjab and Bihar where paddy is grown, larger number of labourers is hired. Even landless labourers migrate from Bihar to Punjab for transplanting paddy. The agrarian hierarchy, therefore, is the resultant of the crops grown by the peasantry.

Beteille has discussed the rural stratification pattern in terms of land control and land management. The productive organisation of land consists of three main patterns: the first is based on family labour, the second on hired labour and the third on tenancy conceived in a broad sense.

The three patterns of production have several variants. And it is interesting to note that the production which requires hard manual labour such as that of transplanting paddy the pattern may change. Beteille has categorised the peasantry on the basis of production system.

For in talking about production based on family labour, wage labour and tenancy, we are talking also about landlords, owner-cultivators, tenants, sharecroppers and the agricultural labourers. These categories and their mutual relations constitute the heart of what may be described as the agrarian hierarchy... the most crucial features of India's rural social system and unless we understand its nature and forms, our understanding of caste itself will remain incomplete.

The rural India's basic problem today is the understanding of agrarian system. Control over land determines the rural hierarchy. What is interesting is that the state does not impose any income-tax on the far production.

As a result of this state policy, those who control larger portions of land, benefit the most. The rural agrarian hierarchy has today become more complicated owing to the land policy adopted by the state. But the state land policy, as we have in India today, has not evolved overnight.

It is the result of the colonial land policy which we have inherited and have carved it in post-independent India in such a way that it has taken a capitalistic mode of production instead of minimising the hiatus between the big farmer and landless labourer. We have intensified the social inequality. We now trace the land policy adopted by the colonial rulers and later, the nationalist government.

### **3.3.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF AGRARIAN SOCIETY**

Agrarian social structure may be thought of as the characteristics of agrarian society. Agrarian class structure in a given society evolves over a long period of time. It is shaped historically by different socio-economic and political factors. These historical factors vary from region to region. Thus though one can use the concept of class to make sense of agrarian

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structures in different contexts, one must also take the specific context into account while doing so.

As mentioned above, the traditional Indian “rural communities” and the agrarian social structures were organised within the framework of ‘jajmani system’. This was a peculiarly Indian phenomenon. The different caste groups in the traditional Indian village were divided between jajmans (the patrons) and kamins (the menials). The jajmans were those caste groups who owned and cultivated lands. The kamins provided different kinds of services to the jajmans. While the kamins were obliged to work for the jajmans, the latter were required to pay a share from the farm produce to their kamins. The relationship was based on a system of reciprocal exchange.

However, participation in this system of reciprocal exchange was not on an equal footing. Those who belonged to the upper castes and owned land were obviously more powerful than those who came from the menial caste groups. The structure of agrarian relations organised within the framework of jajmani system reinforced the inequalities of the caste system. The caste system in turn provided legitimacy to the unequal land relations.

Within this general framework, the actual structures of agrarian relations differed from region to region. While in some parts of the sub-continent, the influence of Brahmanical ritualism was strong; in some other regions the peasant values were stronger. This had a direct influence on the relative position of Brahmins and landowning castes in the given agrarian setting.

Over the years, the jajmani system has disintegrated and rural society has experienced profound changes in its social structure. The agrarian class structure has also changed. These changes have been produced by a large number of factors.

### **3.3.7 AGRARIAN CHANGES DURING THE BRITISH COLONIAL RULE**

The agrarian policies of the British colonial rulers are regarded as among the most important factors responsible for introducing changes in the agrarian structure of the sub-continent. In order to maximize their revenues from land, they introduced some basic changes in the property relations in the Indian countryside. These agrarian policies of the colonial rulers had far reaching consequences. In Bengal, Bihar, and in parts of Madras and the United Province, they conferred full ownership rights over the erstwhile zamindars who were only tax collecting intermediaries during the earlier regimes. The vast majority of peasants who had been actually cultivating land became tenants of the new landlords. Similarly, they demanded revenues in the form of a fixed amount of cash rather than as a share from what was produced on the land. Even when bad weather destroyed the crop, the peasants were forced to pay the land revenue.

These changes led to serious indebtedness among the peasantry. The poorer among them were forced to mortgage their land in order to meet the revenue demands. In the long run it led to peasants losing their lands to moneylenders and big landowners. The big landowners and

moneylenders emerged as a dominant class in the countryside while the ordinary peasants suffered. In the new agrarian class structure that emerged during the colonial rule, peasants had no motivation for working hard to improve their lands. As a result the agricultural production declined. The colonial rulers also enforced changes in the cropping pattern and made the local peasant produce cash crops like cotton rather than food grains as they needed cotton for textile mills in England. All this led to frequent famines and general misery of the peasantry. The big landowners gained at the cost of the small and poor peasants.

### **3.3.8 AGRARIAN CHANGES AFTER INDEPENDENCE**

The nationalist leadership during the struggle for freedom from colonial rule had mobilized peasantry on the promise of a better life. Leaders of the Indian National Congress had started talking about the urgent need of agrarian reforms even before they took over the reins of power from the colonial rulers in 1947.

The process of Land Reforms was initiated almost immediately after Independence. The central government directed the state governments to pass legislations that would abolish intermediary landlords, the zamindars, and would grant ownership rights to the actual tillers of the land. Some legislation was intended to grant security to the tenants. The states also fixed an upper ceiling on the holding size of land that a single household could possess. The surplus land was to be surrendered to the state and was to be redistributed among those who had no land.

However, though the legislations were passed by all the states, only in some parts of the country the desired effects could be achieved. The evaluative studies of Land Reforms have often pointed out that only in those parts of the country where peasants were politically mobilized and the local state government had the right kind of 'political will', the land reforms could be effectively implemented. Similarly, some legislation, such as those on zamindari abolition was much more successful than those on the ceilings (Joshi 1976).

The government of free India also initiated several other developmental programmes intended to encourage the cultivators to increase productivity of their lands. These included the Community Development Programme (CDP), the Co-operatives and the Green Revolution technology. These programmes were designed to introduce modern methods of cultivation in the Indian countryside. The cultivating farmers were provided with new technology, seeds and fertilizers at subsidized rates. The state agencies also provided them cheap credit. Though in principle these schemes were meant for everybody, studies carried out in different parts of India tend to reveal that the benefits of the state support to agriculture were not equally shared by all the sections of rural society. Most of the benefits went to those who were already rich and powerful. However, despite this bias, these initiatives have been able to bring about a significant change in the agrarian economy at least in some parts of the country. This is particularly true about the regions like Punjab, Haryana, Western U.P., Coastal Andhra, and parts of Maharashtra, Gujarat, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu.

Apart from increasing productivity of land, these changes have transformed the social framework of Indian agriculture. Agriculture in most parts of India is now carried out on commercial lines. The old

structure of jajmani relations has more or less completely disintegrated, giving way to more formalized arrangements among the land owning cultivators and those who work for them. Some scholars have argued that these changes indicate that capitalist form of production is developing in agriculture and a new class structure is emerging in the Indian countryside.

**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 the meaning of 'agrarian'?
2. What are the main patterns of productive organization of land?
3. Write down the two major issues related to agrarian social structure.

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### **3.4 VILLAGE SOCIAL STRUCTURE**

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#### **3.4.1 THE NATURE OF RURAL SOCIAL STRUCTURE**

'Social structure' is one of the central and basic concepts of sociology. After World War II, the concept of social structure became popular in social anthropological studies and since then, it is applied to almost any ordered arrangement of social phenomena. Social structure is a pattern or arrangement of elements of a society in an organized and collective way. The interactions and behaviour of the members of a society are stable and patterned. These stable patterns of interaction are called 'social structures'.

Social structure is the framework of society that sets limits and establishes standards for our behaviour. It is, thus, defined simply as any recurring pattern of social behaviour. A social structure includes or is made-up of elements of society, such as institutions, statuses, roles, groups and social classes. Sociologists study social structure by examining the elements or parts that comprise it.

The study of social structure with the principal form of social organization, that is, types of groups, associations and institutions and the complex of these which constitutes societies. – Ginsberg

The term 'social structure' applies to the particular arrangement of inter-related institutions, agencies and social patterns as well as the statuses and roles, which each person assumes in the group. – Talcott Parsons

As now we have discussed about the concept of social structure, let us now proceed with the rural social structure of Indian villages that is unique and maintains a separate culture of their own, away from urban societies. Though the influence of urban areas is felt on rural areas, there are some specific aspects, which occupy a significant place in the rural society. Some of them are caste, kinship, family, marriage, religion, economy and polity.

#### **3.4.2 SALIENT FEATURES OF INDIAN RURAL SOCIAL STRUCTURE**

In Indian Rural Society, different villages are the units and they have geographical, moral and other types of structures. Their behavior pattern, their beliefs, ideas, faiths etc. are also different from one another. The structure formed out of the following units:-

### **1) The family**

Family is the basic unit of Indian social structure. It occupied an important place in the Rural Society. Apart from performing various basic and important tasks, the family also brings about socialisation social control and also performs various basic and important tasks; the family also brings about socialisation, social control and also performs various economic activities. It is the agency that controls the religion activities particularly in the Rural Society. It has the following characteristics:

- ✓ Patriarchal family structure,
- ✓ joint family system,
- ✓ extended family structure.

### **2) Caste-System**

Through the institution, the functions status, occupation role and social position are determined. In fact it is an inverse system or reverse system or traditions. The caste system is based on endogamy and sometimes has common economic position or linkage.

It is a perverts from of old economic classification. The following extract throws light on the origin of the Indian Caste System. The origin of Indian caste sometimes is traced from the penetration of the Aryans, who devised the system for the division of labor in their society. The traditional divisions have long since been complicated over laid by innumerable sub-division into multitude of several thousand different castes which marred the social structure of India.

Indian caste system is the result of different caste units. There is social stratification on the Rural Society which give birth the caste-system. The caste system is based on certain customs and traditions. As a result of those customs and tradition various factors are determined, which in their form determine the Caste System as such is an endogamous group. Normally it has the following characteristics:-

- ✓ Limited to the persons born within that caste.
- ✓ Endogamous group,
- ✓ Determined occupation.

### **3) The internal organisation**

This internal organisation governs and determines the social and individual life of the people living in a particular village. Normally every village has a Panchayat and its head; it is elected with the consent of almost all the adult members of the village. Such as revenue, law and order etc, generally there is a village Panchayat, a village Nyay Panchayat, Panchayat of different castes and certain other social, religious and political group's voluntary groups.

That are indented at helping the villagers are maintaining the religious customs and traditions play a vital role in determining the internal organisation and working of the villagers and village life.

### **4) Religion and religious organisation**

In fact religion means worship of the super natural power. This super natural power means god and other gods and deities, worship of supernatural power and the ditties form an important part of village life. Villages have their own gods and deities.

In fact all those patrons of behaviors that are helpful in removing uncertainties of man's everyday life are known as religion. Indian life represented only by the village life based on religion.

### **5) Economic system**

Economic system has now come to occupy an important place in every social structure. It includes the means and the system of production system of distribution, sharing of profit etc, according to Raymond forth; social and economic activities are inter-related have a mutual relationship.

They are interring dependent. In fact economic system very much determines the social structure. According to economic conditions the activities of a man are determined. This is true of the village society as well. The economic system of the villages is based on the following two factors:-

- ✓ A) Functional specialisation and
- ✓ B) Inter-dependence.

In village society as we have seen earlier different castes have different occupations and functions. In other words their economic activities are determined by their social conditions. A particular social group has performed particular type of economic activities. For example the social group or the caste that is known as washer man is responsible for washing the clothes; no one can be to that profession.

They have monopoly over the washing of clothes and they are prohibited taking to any other thing. In this manner they have a functional specialisation.

But in villages functional specialisation is not free from interdependence of people of a particular caste do a particular thing, members of other castes or social groups have to depend on them for fulfillment of their economic needs of earning their livelihood but also help the member of other social group to do their livelihood but also help members of other social group to do their job. Because of the backwardness of the economic position the social structure of the villages is also backward. It has to be studied in proper prospective so that real progress can be made.

### **Check your progress - 2**

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

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

4. List down the units to form rural social structure.
5. Define social structure.

## **3.5 LAND OWNERSHIP PATTERN IN RURAL SOCIETY**

Before British rule there was no formal individual ownership of land in India. However, during the two centuries of British rule (1757–1947), India's traditional land ownership and land use patterns were changed with the introduction of the concept of "private property".

### **3.5.1 LAND OWNERSHIP SYSTEMS**

Various land ownership and transfer systems were introduced by the British

### **Zamindari system**

It prevailed in most of northern India whereby feudal lords (zamindars) became owners of large tracts of land. They had to pay fixed revenue payments to the government and so peasants became tenant farmers and had to pay rent on the land they farmed.

### **Ryotwari' system**

It was followed in south and west parts of India. Individual cultivators (ryots or raiyats) were proprietors of land against revenue payments. They had rights to sub-let, mortgage and transfer land.

### **Mahalwari system**

It was a third system whereby entire villages had to pay revenue, with farmers contributing their share in proportion to their holdings.

### **The Indian Forest Act**

It was passed in 1920, making all forest land government-owned. This de-legitimised the traditional community ownership systems in adivasi (tribal) societies.

## **3.5.2 LAND REFORMS**

Land distribution under these systems became extremely unequal - rural society was polarised: landlords and rich peasants versus tenants and agricultural labourers. By the time of Independence in 1947, about 40% of India's rural population was working as landless agricultural labour.

### **Post-independence land reforms**

In the lead up to Independence, Indian leaders promised landless and marginalised farmers that once the British left the country, there would be equal distribution of land.

## **3.5.3 LAND REFORM LEGISLATIONS**

India has indeed brought in many land reform legislations including:

**Articles 23, 38 and 39 under the Indian Constitution** – these Articles allow states to make their own Zamindari Abolition Acts, abolish Begari (free labour) and redistribute land and community resources (such as ponds, lakes and forests).

**The Agricultural Land Ceiling Act** - these state-wise Acts limit the maximum area that one landholder can own to minimise inequality in land ownership. All surplus land should be distributed among landless and marginal farmers.

**The Forest Rights Act (2006)** – this Act overrides the 1920 Indian Forest Act, allowing tribal communities and forest dwellers to apply for the rights to forest land that they have been living on and using for generations.

However, this legislation has not led to substantial progress towards equitable land distribution. Most landowners still belong to the upper castes, cultivators to the middle castes and agricultural labourers to the dalit and adivasi (tribal) socially excluded groups.

**Check your progress - 3**

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

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

6. Who are zamidars?
7. What is Mahalwari System?

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**3.6 LET US SUM UP**

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The study of agrarian systems will centre round the problem of land and its utilisation for productive purposes. The agrarian social structures were organised within the framework of 'jajmani system'. The jajmani system has disintegrated and rural society has experienced profound changes in its social structure. The agrarian class structure has also changed. These changes have been produced by a large number of factors. By the time of Independence in 1947, about 40% of India's rural population was working as landless agricultural labour. This legislation has not led to substantial progress towards equitable land distribution. Most landowners still belong to the upper castes, cultivators to the middle castes and agricultural labourers to the dalit and adivasi (tribal) socially excluded groups.

In this unit, we have made an effort to understand rural social structure in India. We have begun with the concept of social structure and then identified the important institutions of rural social structure in India viz., family, caste, class and village. Further, important features and types of family in India have been discussed along with change in them. Then salient features of the caste system have been discussed. Moreover the nature of agrarian structure has been described. Lastly, we have discussed the issue of various land ownership and transfer systems in the rural society.

In this unit you have studied agrarian social structure and change, village social structure and land ownership pattern in rural sociology in detail.

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**3.7 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

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1. Discuss in detail about Agrarian Social Structure and Change
2. Explain about the Village Social Structure
3. Write down the Land ownership pattern in Rural Society

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**3.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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1. 'Agrarian' means anything related to land, its management or distribution
2. a) family labour b) hired labour c) tenancy
3. Technological arrangements and Social arrangements.
4. Family, caste, internal organisation, religion and economic system.

5. The term 'social structure' applies to the particular arrangement of inter-related institutions, agencies and social patterns as well as the statuses and roles, which each person assumes in the group. – Talcott Parsons
6. Feudal lords
7. Mahalwari system means the entire villages had to pay revenue, with farmers contributing their share in proportion to their holdings

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### **3.9 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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## UNIT – IV JAJMANI SYSTEMS

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### Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Jajmani System
  - 4.3.1 Concept of Jajmani system
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### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

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In this chapter deals with Jajmani System, Tenancy Systems, Caste and social structure and changing trends in inter caste relations. The Jajmani System, Jajmani is more than a relationship between families than between castes. Jajmani is sort of mutual give and take form of relationship in which one family is hereditarily entitled to supply goods and render services to the other in exchange of the same. The person rendering the services or supplying the goods is known as kameen or prajan and the person to whom the services are rendered is called a jajman. Thus under jajmani system a permanent informal bond is made between jajman and kameen to meet each other's need for good and services. The Tenancy Systems, Tenant farming is an agricultural production system in which landowners contribute their land and often a measure of operating capital and management. The caste system which emerged out of the Varna system as a form of social stratification is peculiar to India and is an inseparable aspect of the Indian society. There is no comparable institution elsewhere in the world for the caste system.

From this unit, you will learn about Jajmani System, Tenancy Systems, Caste and social structure and changing trends in inter caste relations in a detailed manner.

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### 4.2 OBJECTIVES

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ understand the Jajmani System
- ✓ Identify the Changing trends in inter caste relations
- ✓ understand the Tenancy Systems

- ✓ gain the knowledge about the Caste and social structure.

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### 4.3 JAJMANI SYSTEM

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The notion of the jajmani system was popularized by colonial ethnography. It tended to conceptualize agrarian social structure in the framework of exchange relations. In its classical construct, different caste groups specialized in specific occupations and exchanged their services through an elaborate system of division of labor.

Though asymmetry in position of various caste groups was recognized what it emphasized was not inequality in rights over land but the spirit of community. Wisner argued, each served the other. Each in turn was master. Each in turn was servant. This system of inter relatedness in service within Hindu community was called the Jajmani system. Central to such a construction of exchange is the idea of reciprocity (Gouldner) with the assumption that it was a non-exploitative system where mutual gratification was supposed to be the outcome of the reciprocal exchange.

#### 4.3.1 CONCEPT OF JAJMANI SYSTEM

Inter-caste relations at the village level constitute vertical ties. They may be classified into economic, ritual, political and civic ties. The castes living in a village are bound together by economic ties. Generally peasant castes are numerically preponderant in villages and they need the carpenter, blacksmith and leather worker castes to perform agricultural work. Servicing castes such as priest, barber, and washer man and water carrier cater to the needs of everyone except the Harijans. Artisan castes produce goods which are wanted by everyone. Most Indian villages do not have more than a few of the essential castes and depend on neighboring villages for certain services, skills and goods.

In rural India with its largely subsistence and not fully monetized economy the relationship between the different caste groups in a village takes a particular form. The essential artisan and servicing castes are paid annually in grain at harvest time. In some parts of India the artisan and servicing castes are also provided with free food, clothing, fodder and residential site. On such occasions as birth, marriage and death, these castes perform extra duties for which they are paid customary money and some gifts in kind. This type of relationship is found all over India and is called by different names-jajmani in north, barabatute in Maharashtra, mirasi in Tamil Nadu and adade in Karnataka.

Oscar Lewis defined jajmani system as that under which each caste group within a village is expected to give certain standardized services to the families of other castes. Jajmani is more than a relationship between families than between castes. Jajmani is sort of mutual give and take form of relationship in which one family is hereditarily entitled to supply goods and render services to the other in exchange of the same. The person rendering the services or supplying the goods is known as kameen or prajan and the person to whom the services are rendered is called a jajman. Thus under jajmani system a permanent informal bond is made between jajman and kameen to meet each other's need for good and services.

#### 4.3.2 MAIN FEATURES OF JAJMANI SYSTEM

The jajmani system is characterized by the following features:

### 1. Unbroken relationship

Under the jajmani system the kameen remains obliged to render the services throughout his life to a particular jajman and the jajman in turn has the responsibility of hiring services of a kameen.

### 2. Hereditary relationship

Jajmani rights are enjoyed hereditarily. After the death of a man his son is entitled to work as kameen for the same jajman family of families. The son of a jajman also accepts the son of the kameen as his kameen.

### 3. Multidimensional relationship

Due to the permanency of relationship both the jajman and kameen families become mutually dependent on each other. The relationship becomes very deep. They often take part in the personal and family affairs, family rituals and ceremonies.

### 4. Barter exchange

Under jajmani system the payments are made mainly in terms of goods and commodities. The kameen gets his necessities from the jajmani in return of his services.

The jajmani system has gradually decayed in modern society. There are many reasons responsible for it. Modern economic system that measures everything in terms of its monetary value. The decline of belief in caste system and hereditary occupation has given a strong blow to the system. Growth of better employment opportunities outside the village and introduction of new transport options are also the reason.

### 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 the Jajmani system?
2. What is Barter exchange?

## 4.4 TENANCY SYSTEMS

Tenant farming is an agricultural production system in which landowners contribute their land and often a measure of operating capital and management, while tenant farmers contribute their labor along with at times varying amounts of capital and management.

### 4.4.1 TENANCY SYSTEMS OF LAND

At the time of independence, there existed many types of proprietary land tenures in the country.

#### A. Ryotwari

It was started in Madras since 1772 and was later extended to other states. Under this system, the responsibility of paying land revenue to the Government was of the cultivator himself and there was no intermediary between him and the state. The Ryot had full right regarding sale, transfer and leasing of land and could not be evicted from the land as long as he pays the land revenue. But the settlement of land revenue under Ryotwari system was done on temporary basis and was periodic after 20, 30 or 40 years. It was extended to Bombay Presidency.

### **B. Mahalwari**

This system was initiated by William Bentinck in Agra and Oudh and was later extended to Madhya Pradesh and Punjab. Under this system, the village communities held the village lands commonly and it was joint responsibility of these communities to make payments of the land revenue. The land ownership is held as joint ownership with the village body. The land can be cultivated by tenants who can pay cash / kind / share.

### **C. Zamindari**

Lord Cornwallis gave birth to Zamindari system in India. He introduced this system for the first time in 1793 in West Bengal and was later adopted in other states as well. Under this system, the land was held by a person who was responsible for the payment of land revenue. They could obtain the land mostly free of charge from the government during the British rule and it is called estate. Landlords never cultivated the land they owned and rented them out to the cultivators. The amount of land revenue may either be fixed once for all when it was called permanent settlement or settlement with regard to land revenue may only be temporary and may, therefore, be revised after every 30-40 years, as the practice may be. The Zamindari system is known as absentee landlordism. Under this system the whole village was under one landlord. The persons interested can work in the Zamindar's land as tenant / labourer based on the agreement with the zamindar. The zamindari system was known to be more exploitive, as the zamindar used to fix / hike the prices of land according to his desire.

### **D. Jagirdari**

It is similar to Zamindari system. The jagirdar is powered to control the unproductive masses of village by engaging them in agricultural activities. Because land is controlled by state in India and the relationship between production and land tenure varies from state to state, the national policy recommendations resulted in differing tenancy reform laws in each state.

Tenancy is completely banned in some states but completely free in others. Punjab and Haryana have not forbidden tenancy whereas Karnataka has a near complete ban on tenancy. Some states have discussed ownership rights on tenant cultivators except for sharecroppers, whereas West Bengal chose to provide owner-like rights only to the sharecroppers. Tenancy reforms may have indirect effects in the form of reduced tenancy shares if poorly implemented. Most tenancy reform laws also contained provisions concerning the ability of tenants to surrender the land back to the landlord voluntarily. These provisions were used by landlords to wane the impact of the laws. In most states the surrender of land falls under the jurisdiction of the revenue authorities.

## **4.4.2 TENANCY REFORMS**

Tenancy cultivation is quite common in rural India whereby the land is cultivated by small farmers and share crop with owners as payment of rent for using land. There are two types of tenants prevalent: i) occupancy or permanent tenants' ii) tenants-at-will or temporary tenants. Occupancy tenants enjoy permanent right of cultivation which is heritable i.e. transferred to the next generation. Tenants- at-will can be ejected from the

land at any time at will of landlords. These peasants are subject to insecurity and exploitation in terms of huge rent. The legislative and administrative measures were taken by the Government to provide security tenants and regulated the rent payable by them. Tenancy reforms included the following measures:

**(i) Rent Ceiling**

The maximum rent payable by the tenant has been fixed. It cannot exceed one fourth to one fifth in most states.

**(ii) Tenure Security**

The security of tilling of land is provided whereby the tenants now cannot be ejected at will except for self-cultivation provided the rent is paid.

**(iii) Conferring Ownership Rights to Peasants**

The legislative changes have been made to provide for conferment of ownership rights on all the cultivating farmers on the payment of specified amount to the landlords.

**Critical Appraisal**

Tenancy reforms progressed in a large number of states though with varied degree of success with quite a number of peasants and landless laborers were given ownership rights. However, the reform process suffered from ineffective implementations of enormous legislations due to the following reasons:

**(i) Misuse of Exemptions and Escape Clauses:** In the legislation escape clauses were provided that were misused by big land-owners. For example land-owners resorted to ejection of tenants on the pretext of self-cultivation. In fact, tenancy-at-will with no formal contract was increased. The term self-cultivation was defined very loosely. In this manner the owners were able to resume a substantial part of the land. These owners don't cultivate land but informally lease it out on the basis of sharing of crop. The cultivators under these informal leases are under constant threat of ejection.

**(ii) Fictitious surrender of land by tenants to landowners':** Land-owners on paper showed that the tenants have been voluntarily given up right on the land in favor of landowners.

**(iii) Lack of Information and Economic Support among Poor Tenants:** The policy required the payment of specified amount to the owners to obtain ownership rights but the cultivators lack resources to acquire land from owners.

**(iv) Non-Availability of Updated records of Land-Ownership:** also created problems in proper implementation of land reforms.

**(v) Lack of Political will to rigorously implement Tenancy Reforms:** As large politicians were big land owners so the slow progress of reforms was in their self-interest.

**(vi) Higher Rent:** The efforts were made to fix rent rather than to reduce rents. In many places rents were fixed at a level already prevailing or fixed traditionally.

Thus the implementation of tenancy reforms left much to be desired. The land favored well-off land lords and created greater insecurity of tenure in the form of informal leasing of land. The resource constraint of the tenants also prevented the large transfers of land in their favor.

**Check your progress - 2**

**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 the meaning of Tenant?

4. What is Jamindari system?

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## **4.5. CASTE AND SOCIAL STRUCTURE**

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The social structure of Indian society is characterised by a unique social institution called caste. The Indian caste system is a system of social stratification and social restriction in India in which communities are defined by thousands of endogamous hereditary groups called Jātis. The Jātis were hypothetically and formally grouped by the Brahminical texts under the four well known categories: Brahmins, Vaishyas, Kshatriyas and Sudras. Certain people like foreigners, nomads, forest tribes and the chandalas were excluded altogether and treated as untouchables. The caste system which emerged out of the Varna system as a form of social stratification is peculiar to India and is an inseparable aspect of the Indian society. There is no comparable institution elsewhere in the world for the caste system. Although evidences of caste are to be found in many parts of the world, the most perfect instance is that which exists in India.

### **4.5.1 MEANING OF CASTE**

The word, 'caste' is of Spanish and Portuguese origin. The term, 'caste' originated from the Spanish word 'casta', meaning 'lineage' or 'race' or 'a group having hereditary quality'. It is derived from the Latin word 'Custus', which means pure. The Spaniards were the first to use it, but its Indian application is from the Portuguese, who had so applied it in the middle of the fifteenth century. The current spelling of the word is after the French word 'Caste', which appears in 1740 in the academies, and is hardly found before 1800. Before that time it was spelt as 'cast'. In the sense of race or breed of man it was used as early as 1555 AD. The Spanish word 'Casta' was applied to the mixed breed between Europeans, Indians (American) and Negroes. But 'caste' was not used in its Indian sense till the 17th century. The Indian use is the leading one now, and it has influenced all other uses.

### **4.5.2 DEFINITIONS OF CASTE**

**Andre Beteille** - "Caste may be defined as a small and named group of persons characterized by endogamy, hereditary membership, and a specific style of life which sometimes includes the pursuit by tradition of a particular occupation and is usually associated with a more or less distinct ritual status in a hierarchical system".

**MacIver-** "When status is wholly predetermined, so that men are born to their lot without any hope of changing it, then class takes the extreme form of caste".

**A. Green-** "Caste is a system of stratification in which mobility up and down the status ladder, at least ideally may not occur".

**H. Cooley-** "When a class is somewhat strictly hereditary, we may call it a caste".

**E. A. Gait-** "caste is an endogamous group or collection of such groups bearing a common name, having the same traditional occupation claiming descent from the same source, and, commonly regarded as forming a single homogeneous community".

Caste can be defined as hereditary endogamous group, having a common name, common traditional occupation, common culture, relatively rigid in matters of mobility, distinctiveness of status and forming a single homogeneous community. However, in the changing situation caste has adapted too many new features like having formal organizations, becoming less rigid and having a link with politics.

### 4.5.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF CASTE SYSTEM

#### 1. Segmental division of society

The caste system gives to the Hindu society a segmentary character. The society is divided into various castes, the membership of which is determined by the consideration of birth. The status of a person does not depend on his wealth but on the traditional importance of the caste in which he is born. The caste status is rigidly maintained throughout life and nobody can escape from his caste identity, irrespective of his potentialities or capabilities.

#### 2. Hierarchy

The caste system is hierarchical with a definite scheme of precedence. The whole society is divided into distinct classes with a concept of high and low. Thus Brahmans in India stand at the apex of the social ladder while the Sudras occupied the lowest rank with manifold disabilities.

#### 3. Restrictions on food habits

Taboos are observed by the higher castes with regard to cooking, vessels, food and commensality. They abstain from food cooked by a member of a lower caste and also food cooked and served in vessels which are considered impure. The Brahmans do not accept food or water from any other castes or sub-castes or interline with them during ceremonies and abstain from any kind of drinks and remain teetotalers.

#### 4. Occupational restrictions

Traditionally, specific occupations are assigned to each of the four castes. Members of any caste are not allowed to take to any occupation which are degrading or impure.

#### 5. Religious disabilities

There are many rituals which the lower castes are not allowed to perform. They are also not allowed to study the sacred literature and are not given prasadan (consecrated food) until and unless the high caste members receive it.

## 6. Endogamy

A caste is an endogamous unit in that members of a caste must marry only persons belonging to their caste in order to maintain the purity and identity of the caste. The rule of endogamy is observed not only at the caste level but also at the sub-caste and sub-sub-caste level.

## 7. Maintenance of social distance, untouchability and settlement pattern

A social distance is maintained because of the fear among the higher castes of pollution which results from proximity to or contact with the lower castes. The untouchables are not allowed to use public roads or public wells, to enter Hindu temples or to attend public school. Generally, the impure castes are made to live in the outskirts of the city.

## 8. Concept of purity

The concept of purity is closely linked to caste and is inherently obvious in the caste system. Opposite to the concept of purity is the concept of pollution. Caste groups in the topmost rungs of the caste hierarchy are 'pure' while those at the bottom rungs are 'impure'.

### 4.5.4 ORIGIN OF CASTE SYSTEM

India's caste system is a social structure that divides different groups into ranked categories. Members of "higher" castes have a greater social status than individuals of a "lower" caste. Indian law prohibits discrimination by caste, although caste identities remain of great significance at the local level, especially in relation to marriage. A survey in 2005 found that only 11 per cent of women had married a man of different caste.

The system appears to have had ancient roots. Sanskrit texts from the second millennium BC refer to a practice of dividing individuals into social groups called "varnas"—the term's precise meaning is unclear, but it seems not only to suggest classification, but also colour. The Varnas, which are associated with early Hinduism, are the first recorded manifestation of India's caste system. Four principal classes emerged, in descending order of prestige: the Brahmins, the Kshatriyas, the Vaishyas and the Shudras. Myth holds that these groups were created from the mouth, arms, thighs and feet of an ancient character called Purusha.

#### **Brahmins**

The highest of all the castes, and traditionally priests or teachers, Brahmins make up a small part of the Indian population. The British colonial authorities gave Brahmins influential clerical jobs. They now dominate the key positions in science, business and government.

#### **Kshatriyas**

Meaning "protector[s] of the gentle people," Kshatriyas were traditionally the military class. They are now predominantly a land-owning caste and are diminished in power.

#### **Vaishyas**

A caste that is influential in trade, the Vaishyas were traditionally cattle-herders, agriculturalists, artisans and merchants. They are now associated with the middle-class and social advancement and make up around one fifth of India's population.

### Shudras

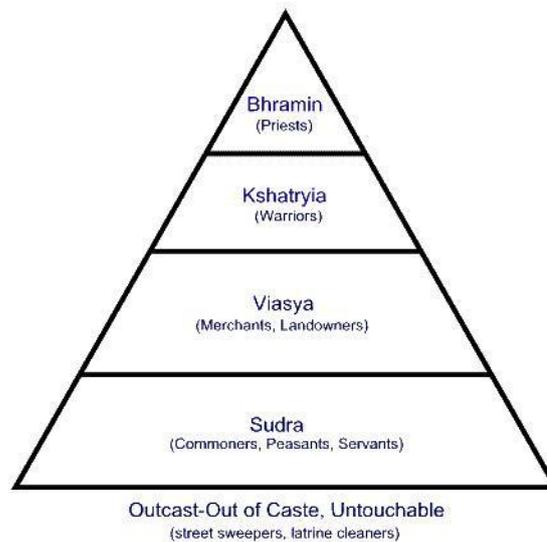
The lowest of the four ancient social classes, or Varnas-, the Shudras were considered so low as to be prohibited from the study of the “Vedas,” the earliest texts of sacred Indian literature. Shudras are now considered to be a “scheduled caste” by the Indian Government, meaning that they are historically disadvantaged. The government’s 2011 census showed that over 200m Indians belong to a scheduled caste.

### Adivasi

The term is used to refer to a collection of ethnic and tribal groups regarded as India’s aboriginal people. More than 95 per cent of Adivasis live in rural areas. Sixty-eight per cent do not reach high school. More than half of all Adivasi are dependent on forest produce, especially the tendu leaf, used in the production of Indian cigarettes, for their livelihoods.

### Dalits

The word “Dalit,” derived from Sanskrit, means “ground,” “suppressed” or “crushed.” Considered the lowliest people of all the castes, Dalits are typically associated with occupations regarded as ritually impure, such as those involving waste or carcasses. They are a people traditionally regarded as “untouchable.”



### 4.5.5 MERITS OF CASTE SYSTEM

- a) **Unity in diversity:** It has achieved a graded racial and cultural harmony in India.
- b) **Co-operation:** It has fostered the spirit of co-operation and fellow-feeling among members of the same caste.
- c) **Economic security:** By guaranteeing different types and fixed types of occupations for every man and social group, the caste system has given economic security and psychological security.
- d) **Defines economic pursuits:** By defining occupations and distributing economic pursuits between different groups, the caste system has ensured for the provision of all functions necessary for life from the social, economic, political, religious and other points of view.

- e) **Racial and ethnic purity:** Through the enforcement of endogamy, the caste system has contributed to the preservation of racial and ethnic purity. It has also fostered the habits of cleanliness by insisting on ritual purity.
- f) **Cultural diffusion:** The customs, beliefs, skills, behaviour and trade are passed on from one generation to another and further, from the upper castes to the lower castes who have also gradually adopted some ritually clean and hygienic practices as well.
- g) **Integration of the country:** Class consciousness develops without breeding class struggle. It has created an efficient organisation of Hindu society without giving any chance to class frictions and factions.

#### 4.5.6 DEMERITS OF CASTE SYSTEM

- a. **Mobility of labour:** By restricting change of occupation, it denies mobility of labour and consequently leads to stagnation.
- b. **Wrong occupation:** An individual may not be skilled or interested in his caste trade but may be talented and capable of some other pursuit which by caste conventions may be prohibited.
- c. **Obstacle to national unity:** Discontentment felt by the lower caste groups at the behaviour meted out to them in society is an obstacle to national unity.
- d. **Undemocratic:** The caste system denies equal rights to all irrespective of their caste, creed or colour.
- e. **Untouchability:** The worst consequence of the caste system is the plight of the 'untouchables' who are shunned, despised and prevented from social intercourse with higher caste groups.
- f. **Promotes casteism:** The members belonging to a caste carry caste feelings and manifest blind and over-riding loyalty to their caste. This makes them ignore the healthy social standards of justice, fair play, equity and brotherhood.

#### 4.5.7 CHANGES IN THE CASTE SYSTEM

The caste system has undergone many changes due to modern education, industrialization, means of communication, new legal machinery provided by the British government for punishing all castes in the same way for similar offences, legalizing inter-caste marriages, political awakening, independence of India, abolition of untouchability, democratic form of government, movements of social emancipation, constitutional guarantees provided for the welfare of the backward castes and ex-untouchable castes. During the initial days of British East India Company's rules, caste privileges and customs were encouraged. However, the British law courts disagreed with the discrimination against the lower castes.

#### Check your progress - 3

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

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

5. Casteis derived from the Latin word .....

6. The caste system which emerged out of the .....system

## 4.6 CHANGING TRENDS IN INTER CASTE RELATIONS

### NOTES

Of late, the pattern of inter-caste relations has undergone profound changes. The mutual rights and obligations characterising inter-caste relations have crumbled down. Members of the low castes no longer obey the orders of the members of high castes. They do not come forward to perform forced labour for the members of the upper caste.

Further, efforts made by the lower castes to rise in the social ladder have annoyed the upper castes. All these factors have led to inter-caste conflicts. Such inter-caste conflicts are gradually increasing. However, these are more for achieving power than on grounds of ritual status.

Caste constitutes both a super-structure and a social reality rooted deep into the social and cultural milieu of Indian society. The latter, however, being in transition, is characterised by both continuity and change, especially when one finds social cleavages based on caste and ethnicity. It may be noted that the most formidable social evil, which a society can have, has been the practice of untouchability, which was rationalized by way of justifications both historical and mythological. To perpetuate the system, the 'Varna System' was invoked. Each of the Varna divisions, although functional in nature, was destined to follow a different social and economic life ordained in Hindu Texts, especially Manu Smriti and Dharamshastra. Later on, with compartmentalization of total social life of different Varnas it developed a rigid caste system, in which the patterns of interaction were restricted first within one's own caste, then between castes described as high low. The ex-untouchable castes were kept outside the four Varnas.

The change in the inter-caste relationships beside the legal enactments was also affected by the increasing social, economic and political actions of the ex-untouchables themselves. The case of Jatava, an untouchable caste of leather workers in the city of Agra, is an evidence of how their social and economic status could change through enhancing skills in the trading in hides and skins, shoe-making etc. Along with shoemaking, taking contracts of constrictor work, stone-cutting, supply of hides and skin etc. (Lynch 1974). The other adding factor was change in the life style under the influence of Arya Samaj. The acquisition of knowledge of Sanskrit symbols following Hindu rites and beliefs.

Jatavas political activities took off with their demand for including one of their caste members into State Legislative Council. The demand was materialised in 1920. In 1944-45, a Scheduled caste federation of Agra was formed which was linked with Ambedkars Scheduled Caste Federation. In 1958, Republican Party was formed by Jatavas at Agra after departure from Congress Party. These developments added to formation of new political structure. It was realised by them that for the achievement of higher social status, political participation is more important as compared to Sanskritization.

Another evidence of change in the inter-caste relations can be cited from Satnamis of Chhattisgarh district of Madhya Pradesh where the scarcity of labour in the last century benefited the Chamars by enabling them to enter the cultivators' class. The betterment of their economic

conditions encouraged them to break the humiliating Hindu caste tradition and raise high in the social hierarchy. This ambition was fostered by Ghasi Das who proclaimed the equality among all men, irrespective of their caste and creed.

Mahars an untouchable caste of Maharashtra seem to have accepted different reference groups in different periods with the intention of acquiring upward social mobility. Vithal cult of Maharashtra followed by Mahar in reality was a Buddhist cult, but because of its adoption by Vedic religion, it lost its distinct Buddhist way of life. However it did propagate equality of all human beings, but it was not practiced. Therefore attempt of Mahars for upward social mobility by adopting what is called Warkari sect did not help them. During medieval period particularly of Peshwa Rule, Mahars were worst oppressed because they were staunch followers of Buddhism which was treated as antagonistic to Vedic religion.

Apart from worker movement in Maharashtra, others socio-religious movement which attracted Mahars were Lingayat and Mahanubhan movement. During 12<sup>th</sup> century, lingayat movement was started by Basaveshware in South of Maharashtra. One of tenet of Lingayat religion was equalities before God, so there was no place for caste discrimination before God. Some of Mahars who were making attempts to achieve upward mobility became Lingayats. But this movement was partly successful. Further, during 13<sup>th</sup> century, Mahanubhav movement was started by Harpal Deo, afterwards known as Chakradhar. Followers of this sect believed in Lord Krishna. They had no faith in caste system. Many Mahars followed it but attempts of Mahars to achieve upward social mobility by way of accepting and following Mahanubhav religion failed.

After Muslim invasion of India, many Mahars were forced to embrace Islam after seeing their elevated social status. Similarly, some cases hold true for Christian of India. After coming to India, Christian missionaries took interest in people belonging to low caste on compassionate ground as well as for converting them into Christianity. Therefore Mahars became Christian.

After having failed in attaining upward social mobility by way of sanskritization, adoption of Brahmanical values and joining various religions and social movements, they realised that they cannot succeed in achieving upward social status in caste hierarchy. In order to get rid of caste hierarchy and oppressive social system they realised that embracing Buddhism in 1956 was the only way left out for them.

Embracing of Buddhism by Mahars has brought about significant social, cultural political, economic transformation among them. They became free from caste liabilities. They declined to be even called as Mahars and protested against anything that was attached to them as Mahars. It leads to many conflicts between Buddhism and Hinduism and consequently they had to pay huge price. Awareness among Mahars, their large scale forced out immigrations to developed region or urban centers, for work, helped them in improving their socio-economic conditions. They adopted norm of modernization through education and discarded profession looked down upon by the societies.

Another systematic attempt of a low South Indian caste to raise its status in the last hundred years is that of Nadars, "toddy tappers" of

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Tamilnadu. Nadars, are generally ranked between the main village castes and other untouchables. The reason being they were distillers at the beginning of nineteenth century a unique resource for a very low caste; a territorial homeland. In this homeland, Nadars formed vast majorities of population; thus they were not accustomed to being treated collectively as near untouchable by powerful higher castes. In this homeland, Nadars were differentiated internally. Two most important internal divisions were between high ranking Nadars, on endogamous division of landowners and tax-officials for royal overlords outside the territory and the lower ranking Shanars or Toddy tappers. Other specialized sub-divisions may be included Priest and Barber. Finally, the main body of Shanars, a group of traders (mobile), who moved around home territory trading the Shanars' products (Country liquor and jaggery sugar) for salt, fish and garden produce.

In early nineteenth century, both the trading and Toddy-tapping Shanars moved to north in large numbers into a region where they were faced with fully developed non Nadar caste hierarchy. The Toddy-tappers were relegated to village hamlets halfway between main caste habitation sites and untouchables sites whereas traders retreated into fortified enclosures, Petrais which became "Six Nadar Towns of Ramnad". Traders prepared enormously and built well financed caste association in these towns. But local dominant castes of these villages i.e. Maravars, Tevars, Kulawais attempted to assimilate them in status with still polluted Toddy-tapping Shanars.

Further Shanars extended the resources of their wealthy caste organization into country side, and send out regular 'touring agents'. Their aim was to organise the poorest members of caste. On behalf of village Shanars they also fought courts cases to win them formerly devoid prerogatives such as entry into certain public places, use of village roads etc. Finally, they carried out successful campaign with British census officials to have the name of their entire caste changed from 'Shanars' to 'Nadar'.

The foregoing brief accounts of caste system and caste relationships from time to time indicate that both have not been static. There has been a definite change in which not one but many factors mattered significantly.

It is noted that as far as developed villages are concerned, in one village, namely Dalan, there were only two castes i.e. Rajputs and Koli in the past which continues to be inhabited by the same castes. Another village namely Shathla had six castes i.e. Rajput, Goldsmith, Carpenter, Blacksmith, Koli and Rehar. One major change that has taken place is that now marriages take place between Rajput and Goldsmith which was not there earlier. Another change is that now a day in many houses carpenters (Badi) are allowed in the kitchen of high caste people but in the past they were not allowed to enter in the kitchen. Rest of the castes is same in Shathla village.

Though changes are taking place in the caste system, it still plays an important role in shaping the Indian societal structure. The system underwent fast changes due to industrialization, urbanization, modernization, education, secularization etc., yet it could neither be weakened nor destroyed and caste practices are still found to be very rigid in the rural areas. Various social reformers have made attempts to stop

discrimination based on caste and because of their movements against this discrimination, there has been an improvement in the status of the so-called untouchables or harijans or dalits.

**Check your progress - 4**

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

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

7. Write about lingayat movement.

8. Who was called Badi?

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### **4.7 LET US SUM UP**

The jajmani system was popularized by colonial ethnography. It tended to conceptualize agrarian social structure in the framework of exchange relations. In its classical construct, different caste groups specialized in specific occupations and exchanged their services through an elaborate system of division of labor. Tenant farming is an agricultural production system in which landowners contribute their land and often a measure of operating capital and management, while tenant farmers contribute their labor along with at times varying amounts of capital and management. The social structure of Indian society is characterised by a unique social institution called caste. The pattern of inter-caste relations has undergone profound changes. The change in the inter-caste relationships beside the legal enactments was also affected by the increasing social, economic and political actions of the ex-untouchables themselves. Various social reformers have made attempts to stop discrimination based on caste and because of their movements against this discrimination, there has been an improvement in the status of the so-called untouchables or harijans or dalits.

From this unit, you have been learnt Jajmani System; Tenancy Systems; Caste and social structure and changing trends in inter caste relations elaborately.

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### **4.8 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

1. Explain the jajmani system.
2. Write short note on Tenancy Systems.
3. Describe Caste and social structure.
4. Explain about Changing trends in inter caste relations.

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### **4.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. This system of inter relatedness in service within Hindu community was called the Jajmani system
2. Under jajmani system the payments are made mainly in terms of goods and commodities. The kameen gets his necessities from the jajman in return of his services.
3. Farming is an agricultural production
4. The jamindari system was known to be more exploitive, as the jaminder used to fix / hike the prices of land according to his desire
5. 'Castus'

6. Varna
7. Lingayat movement was started by Basaveshware in South of Maharashtra. One of tenet of Lingayat religion was equalities before God, so there was no place for caste discrimination before God.
8. Carpenters

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#### 4.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT – V FACTORS ACCOUNTING FOR THE CHANGES

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*Factors Accounting for the Change*

## **Structure**

- 5.1. Introduction
- 5.2. Objectives
- 5.3. Factors accounting for the changes
- 5.4. Dominant caste
  - 5.4.1 Meaning of Dominant Caste
  - 5.4.2 Definition of Dominant Caste
  - 5.4.3 Four Basic Levels of Dominant Castes
  - 5.4.4 Factors on Which Dominant Caste Depends
  - 5.4.5 Functions of Dominant Caste
- 5.5. Ancestral worship
  - 5.5.1 Aspects of Ancestor Worship
    - 5.5.1.1 Conceptual Issues
    - 5.5.1.2 Paradigmatic Issues
- 5.6. Factors of Change
- 5.7. Agrarian Legislation
- 5.8. Land Reform programmes
- 5.9. Green Revolution
  - 5.9.1 Impact of the Green Revolution
  - 5.9.2 Features of the Green Revolution
- 5.10. Rural Development Programmes
  - 5.10.1 Rural Development during pre-independence period
  - 5.10.2 Rural Development since Independence
  - 5.10.3 Community Development Programme
  - 5.10.4 Present Rural Development Paradigm
  - 5.10.5 Impact of globalization on farmers
  - 5.10.6 Emphasis on People's Participation
  - 5.10.7 Role of Non-Government Organisations
- 5.11. Let Us Sum Up
- 5.12. Unit- End- Exercises
- 5.13. Answer to check your Progress
- 5.14. Suggested Readings

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## **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

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In this unit begins with factors accounting for the changes. Many factors responsible for change can be studied rural sociology. The concept of dominant caste has been used for the first time in sociological literature by an eminent sociologist. He defined it as a particular caste economically, spiritually and politically above any other castes. Ancestral spirits that are worshiped also vary in distance of time from the living. In some societies, only the spirits of the recently deceased are worshiped, while in others, all ancestors are included. Indian agriculture has made tremendous strides since Independence. A country with recurring food shortages and dependence on food imports is now not only self-sufficient but a net exporter also. Land reform programmes got the special attraction in the successive Five Year Plans to remove the defects of tenurial system prevailing at the eve of independence. The Green Revolution in India refers to a period when Indian agriculture

*Self - Instructional Material*

was converted into an industrial system due to the adoption of modern methods and technology such as the use of high yielding variety (HYV) seeds, tractors, irrigation facilities, pesticides, and fertilizers. It was mainly found by M.S. Swaminathan. The new methods in agriculture increased the yield of rice and wheat, which reduced India's dependence on food imports. Rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in rural areas, often relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas.

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In this unit the students will learn factors accounting for the changes, Dominant caste, Ancestral worship, factors of change, Agrarian Legislation, Land Reform programmes, Green Revolution Rural Development Programmes.

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## **5.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- Relate the Factors accounting for the changes
- gain the knowledge about dominant caste
- understand the ancestral worship
- Identify the Factors of Change
- gain the knowledge about the Agrarian Legislation
- acquire the knowledge about the Land Reform programmes
- understand the Green Revolution
- discuss the Rural Development Programmes

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## **5.3 FACTORS ACCOUNTING FOR THE CHANGES**

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Many factors responsible for change can be studied under the following heads:

### **Natural Factors**

The factors conditioning place where the rural community exists are treated as natural factors. For instance, a village near a river bears the effects of rivers and similarly the villages prospering in the lap of mountains are even close to the mountains are seen affected by the mountains. In the similar way the social, economic, cultural and religious life of the communities settled in bamboo forests bear the effects of bamboo in their life. Animals and cattle's are employed in their natural places and for other places they are treated strange creatures. Cottage industries developing in a particular region much depend upon the minerals available in that area. In the similar way, the mountains, rivers, animals, minerals and vegetation around a village, are the natural factors that influence the life of people in the villages. Whenever there is a change in these natural factors, rural life around it also experience change.

### **Technological Factors**

Man does not live only with, what nature has provided but substantial part of it is created by him through various means. Technical assistance is taken by man to construct a favorable condition for him, much within the permission of the natural environments. The availability of electricity to the villages has altered many aspects of their life. The invention of radio and other instruments have played a remarkable role in changing the life of the rural people. Ogburn points out those nearly 150

changes were brought into the way of rural life by the invention of radio only. Installation of machines in the villages has changed the taste of the villagers towards their traditional and customary techniques and instruments, steam and electrical power is in no way lagging behind in creating a change in the life of the people. Technological changes have revolution the everyday life of the rural people.

### **Social Factors**

In view of the changes take around, many practices pertaining to social life have either been changed or faced threat to their very existence. British rule has influenced to a very great extent many social practices prevalent among the people living in the rural India. These changes included abolition of sati system, child marriages, regularization of marriage and restoration of rights to women has brought an appreciable change in the rural life. The effects of these changes are apparent form the better conditions of women, in the society. In addition to these, many systems have lost their effect. These include system of joint family, jajmani custom have lost their place in the life of rural India. Caste panchayats are outdated now, and so is the rigidity in the caste-feelings. Backward classes, hitherto treated as downtrodden are being looked after by the special machinery of government and new laws have been made to bring up scheduled caste and scheduled tribe's people. There has been tremendous decline in the influence of the caste system also.

### **Economic Factors**

Increase in population has compelled the rural folks to migrate to industrial and urban area for their livelihood. Agriculture cannot employ and feed everyone and this urgency has been very well noticed which quite clear form pace of migration to urban areas. When the rural youth approaches urban area, his way of thinking, living in influenced by the urban life. This has affected not only the life of the people living in villages but also changed the existing values.

### **Cultural Factors**

Cultural life comprises the beliefs, assumption and taboos of a community. In India, village life is much influenced by the religious contacts. Westernization has changed the attitude of village youth towards their ancient customs and values. In tribal areas, once the dominator dominated the life of tribal youth, but with the impact of westernization brought into by Christianity, the place of dormitory is fading away from the tribal culture. Western beliefs in individualism and materialism have been accepted by the village youth. Because of these changes has been changing attitude of people regarding casteism, family and marriage.

### **Political Factors**

Post independence period has led to the politicization of the village life. Now the villages have become the hub of political activities. Thus the various political forces like party activities, elections and propaganda have caused changes in various communities living in the rural areas. Now the rural people are much aware of their rights and like the urban people the villagers also take part in political processes with due sense of judgment.

## **5.4 DOMINANT CASTE**

The concept of 'dominant caste' was propounded by M.N. Srinivas. It was for the first time appeared in his essay on the social system of a Mysore village. While constructing the concept, perhaps Srinivas was unconsciously influenced by African studies on the dominant clan and dominant lineage. Srinivas developed the concept in his study of Rampura village which is a little away from Mysore city in Karnataka state. Srinivas, in fact, wanted to give a comprehensive study of Rampura.

To write down the details of the village he had gone to Stanford for writing down a monograph on Rampura. But there "by a strange quirk of fate all the three copies of my fieldwork notes, processed over a period of eighteen years" were destroyed when a fire took place in his Stanford office. Everything was destroyed for Srinivas. Whatever he remembered about Rampura, later on came in the form of *The Remembered Village* (1976).

### **5.4.1 Meaning of Dominant Caste**

The concept of dominant caste has been used for the first time in sociological literature by an eminent sociologist. Prof. M.N. Srinivas in his essay "The Social System of a Mysore Village", which was written after his study of village Rampura.

Dumont and Pocock believed that Srinivas has adopted the term from the study of African society where the concepts of dominant clan and dominant lineage were used. The term dominant caste is used to refer to a caste which yields economic or political power and occupies a fairly high position in the hierarchy.

M.N Srinivas defined it as a particular caste economically, spiritually and politically above any other castes. For example in India, Brahmin caste is considered as a dominant caste, thus it is having a superior frame over other castes.

Since 1987 Srinivas definition of dominant caste was of greater impact over societies. This concept given by M.N Srinivas holds that a caste is dominant when it is numerically higher than the other castes. In the Mysore village he described the peasant Okkalinga composed of nearly half of the population made up of nineteenth jati group. The Okkalinga were the biggest land owner. The chief criteria of domination of a caste are

1. Economic strength
2. Political power
3. Ritual purity
4. Numerical strength

The dominant caste also wields economic and political power over the other caste groups. It also enjoys a high ritual status in the local caste hierarchy. The dominant caste may not be ritually high but enjoy high status because of wealth, political power and numerical strength. The presence of educated persons and high occupation rate also play an important role in deciding its dominance over other caste groupings. Sometimes a single clan of dominant caste controls a number of villages in areas. The dominant caste settle dispute between persons belonging to their own and other jati. The power of the dominant caste is supported by a norm discouraging village from seeking justice from area, govt official,

court or police located outside the village. The members of the dominant caste particularly those from the wealthy and powerful families are representative of this village in dealing with the officials.

**Here is a list of dominant castes**

S.No	Name of the state or locality	The Dominant caste
1	In Mysore Villages	Lingayats and Okkaligas
2	In Andhra Pradesh	Reddy and Kamma
3	In Tamilnadu	Gounder, Padayachi and Mudaliar
4	In Kerala	Nayar
5	In Maharashtra	Maratha
6	In Gujarat	Bania, Palidar
7	In Northern India	Rajput, Jat, Giyar and Ahir

#### 5.4.2 Definition of Dominant Caste

“A caste may be said to be dominant when it preponderates numerically over other castes and when it also wields preponderant economic and political power. A large and powerful caste group can be more easily dominant if its position in the local caste hierarchy is not too low.” —M.N. Srinivas

McKim Marriott viewed that the concept of dominant caste in various studies of anthropological research lies on the political power which traditionally called as juridical power in village community and at times yields religious and quasi-divine power and the power to employ physical force.

“A caste to be dominant, it should own a sizable amount of the arable land locally available, have strength of numbers and occupy a high place in the local hierarchy. When a caste has all the attributes of dominance, it may be said to enjoy a decisive dominance.” —M.N. Srinivas

#### 5.4.3 Four Basic Levels of Dominant Castes

1. The ruler
2. The regionally dominant caste
3. The locally dominant caste
4. The village level landed pattern of dominant caste.

David Pocock observes that Sanskritization is outside the pale of pan-Indian culture and it is a manifestation of highly localised process of cultural change. At the micro-structural level of villages and other territorial groups there were functional equivalents of the kingly role represented by what Srinivas called “dominant-castes”.

With the land reforms, big landowning class has ceased to be an important element of dominance. Andre Beteille observes that in place of big landowning class, the strength of numerical support has become a decisive factor in the formation of a dominant caste.

Dominant caste is not always numerically a preponderant caste. D.N. Majumdar observes that the scheduled castes preponderate in many villages. But the people belonging to the upper caste exercise power and authority in such villages.

#### 5.4.4 FACTORS ON WHICH DOMINANT CASTE DEPENDS

1. **ECONOMIC STRENGTH:** The Economic condition of a person played an important role in deciding its Dominance. Suppose a person is not dominant by its ascribed status, but through its economic condition, a person is seen as a dominant figure in society.
2. **POLITICAL POWER:** Political power is getting the power to rule over a clan thus making it's a dominant thing in the society sometimes irrespective of their caste. For example, India's prime minister is a dominant figure in India irrespective of his caste.
3. **RITUAL PURITY:** In India, it is a saying that Brahmin caste is equivalent to God, thus they are ritually the most powerful caste. Thus this factor also plays an important role in deciding Dominant caste.
4. **NUMERICAL STRENGTH:** A specific group of people high in number than any other group or caste will be considered as a dominant caste in society.

#### 5.4.5 FUNCTIONS OF DOMINANT CASTE

1. Dominant castes habits, norms, behavior are seen as the only thing to copy by lower caste inhabitants. This is also seen as transferring the habits of dominant caste to lower castes. Dominant castes are seen as role models for lower castes.
2. Dominant castes safeguard the cultural and social phenomenon of society. Hence they act as a watchman of the cultural development of society. And if anybody is found guilty of breaking the rules is severely punished.
3. As Dominant castes are dominant in society thus they play an important role in expanding their relationship with political parties. They play an important role in the political process of a country.
4. Due to their dominance in the society, they are the pillars of socio-economic development of the society. It is not necessary that their steps are always for the betterment of a society; sometimes they use their power for only their greed. Example the trailing corruption is an example that not every time the dominant castes were fair in every aspect.
5. Due to dominant position in rural society, they control the rural economy in various ways and means.
6. Dominant castes play a greater role in the process of modernisation.

#### 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 factors accounting for the changes?
2. Who was the propounded of 'dominant caste'?

#### 5.5 ANCESTRAL WORSHIP

The term *ancestor worship*, coined in 1885 by the British philosopher and sociologist Herbert Spencer, refers to a ritualized invocation of dead kin. It is based on the belief that the spirits of the dead have the power to influence the affairs of the living. Ancestors who are

respected and remembered by elaborate rites include members of the family, clans, and tribes. Ancestral spirits that are worshiped also vary in distance of time from the living. In some societies, only the spirits of the recently deceased are worshiped, while in others, all ancestors are included.

Two forms of ancestor worship can be identified in the anthropological literature. One is a domestic cult, which is observed by the family in dedication to its recent ancestors rather than remote ones. The other is observed by the descent group in dedication to its common ancestors in the remote past. As a cult of the descent group, ancestor worship functions to prescribe the principle of rights and obligations (jural authority) and the rules of conduct for the living, who form a property-holding corporate group. In short, they serve to keep up the social relations of the living world.

### **5.5.1 Aspects of Ancestor Worship**

#### **5.5.1.1 Conceptual Issues**

Ancestor worship, or “the worship of the Manes,” is no ordinary cult of the dead. It is, for example, not applicable to children who die young or to dead elders who belong to a different kin group, because neither qualify as ancestors.

The concept of ancestor becomes more complicated when parenthood is not based on natural conception and gestation. In adoptions, ancestor hood is created by jural action where natural offspring are lacking. Chinese parents, for example, have the right to manipulate the filiation of their children jurally and put them up for adoption by either partner’s patrilineage in case its continuity of succession and inheritance is tenuous or in danger of a breakdown. It enables close relatives without biological heirs to receive ancestor worship after death and avoid becoming “orphaned ghosts” that would harass the living. In all adoptions, ancestor worship is made to continue on the jural manipulation of filiation.

#### **5.5.1.2 Paradigmatic Issues**

Since the mid-19th century, a number of paradigms have been proposed for the analysis of ancestor worship. Among them are the body-soul model, the psychoanalytical model, the Africans model, the multifunctionalist model, and the divine ownership model.

#### **The Body-Soul Model**

The dichotomy of body and soul dominated the early studies of ancestor worship, as in *Ancient Law*, by Henry Sumner Maine (1861); *La cite antique*, by Fustel de Coulanges (1864); *Primitive Culture*, by Edward B. Taylor (1874); *The Principle of Sociology*, by Herbert Spencer (1875-1876); and so on.

The body-soul paradigm was built on what appeared to be a universal belief, namely, the belief that after the death of the body, the soul continued to exist, as evidenced by its appearance in dream or in an altered state of consciousness. The worship of the ancestral souls turned the family or gens (agnatic kinsmen) into a corporate group perpetuated by the system of collective property holding. With a legal fiction, ancestor worship invested in the patriarch the qualities of a corporation so that he enjoyed rights in governing the family, or gens, but stood under the duty to hold its collective possessions in trust for future generations. For Herbert Spencer, ancestor worship was the root of every religion.

### **The Psychoanalytic Model**

The primacy of the family was reinstated in Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic model (1913). Within its framework, ancestor worship is a ritual of atonement for the "original sin." Presumably driven by the Oedipus complex, the first sons committed the sin against their father for his wives. Then overcome by profound remorse and fear of a vengeful dead father, the sons held the first totemic sacrifice, identifying the animal with the dead ancestor and giving him the status of divinity. Thus, ancestor worship arose in response to deep emotional conflicts and weaknesses. Despite its sheer speculation about the original sin, the psychoanalytic model has been influential in the study of attitudes toward the dead ancestor cross-culturally.

### **The Africanist Model**

This model is intellectually indebted to Radcliffe-Brown, for whom the social needs for continuity are *sui generis*. For society to maintain its existence and stability there must be a formulation of rights over people and things that serve to regulate social relationships. Their conclusion was that ancestor worship is a crucial unifying force in the African segmentary lineage system.

This culture allows for dual descent systems. By farming for his own father, a man obtains the right to the goods he needs for bride wealth payments, but not to the property accumulated by his father. In contrast, he stands to gain property (and possibly wives) from his maternal uncle. It is between these two that the hostility is considerable. Upon the uncle's death, however, guilt prevails, prompting the heir to sacrifice to the dead ancestor, who continues to be perceived as the property holder, capable of trouble making unless the ritual obligations are fulfilled.

### **The Multifunctionalist Model**

With *The Common Descent Group in China and Its Functions* (1948), Hu Hsien-chin was the first to explore the multifunctionality of the Chinese descent group *zu* in sociological terms. She presented it as a descent-based kin group, a property-holding entity, and a body politic. Hu concluded that historically, the development of the *zu* was the strongest where the government control was the weakest.

The multifunctionalist paradigm has impacted the study of the Chinese lineage for decades. Nevertheless, implicit in its analysis is the idea that the significance of corporate land is to be interpreted in economic terms. This is likely to create serious problems for the investigation of ancestor worship. When lineage members are viewed as utilitarian individuals, each seeking to maximize his own gain at the cost of agnatic brothers, ancestor worship becomes merely a perfunctory product of ancestral estates. But such an analysis leaves many questions unanswered. In reality, most lineage members worship their ancestors in the absence of land inheritance.

### **The Divine Ownership Model**

Allen Chun developed his model as a reaction to the Eurocentric utilitarianism of the multifunctionalist paradigm. In his view, the utilitarian analysis of Chinese lineage property betrays a total disregard of the native distinction between "ownership" and "possession" in the traditional Chinese property concepts. The Chinese terms used to describe the

inheritance of property connote neither ownership nor possession, but rather productiveness, as in *chanye* (“productive enterprise”) and *zuchan* (“lineage productive medium”). Because of divine ownership, corporate land has little intrinsic value in itself. What makes land indispensable is its capacity to serve as a means of sustaining production and procuring wealth for the survival of a kin group.

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## **5.6 FACTORS OF CHANGE**

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**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.

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.”

### **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. 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.

### **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.

**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.

#### 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.

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.

#### 5. Economic Factor

Of economic influences, the most far-reaching is the impact of industrialisation. It has revolutionised the whole way of life, institutions, organizations' 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.

#### 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.

#### Check your progress -2

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

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

3. Who was coined by the term *ancestor worship*?

4. What are the geographic changes affect human social life?

#### 5.7. AGRARIAN LEGISLATION

Indian agriculture has made tremendous strides since Independence. A country with recurring food shortages and dependence on food imports is now not only self-sufficient but a net exporter also. The

agriculture has slowly shifted from subsistence to semi-commercial, and the traditional systems have been replaced by improved production systems, which are technology-driven.

This transformation in Indian agriculture has been possible by technology development, adoption, policies, and hard work of farmers, supported by the legislative measures with codified laws for observation in agricultural and allied activities. Although agricultural legislations in the country were the legacy of British, real efforts were commenced only after 1947 to alter the economic condition of farmers and status of farming through legislative measures.

The democratic governments of states and centre had moved in a large way to remove the unhealthiest impediments to the progress of the agrarian sector. Since Five-Year Plans became an integral part of the development process, agricultural legislations also became portion of a purposeful national effort for changing the socio-economic condition of the society.

In the early period, the legislations could be categorized into main four groups such as: Abolition of the intermediaries, Tenancy Reforms, Ceiling of Land holdings and laws relating to Gramdan and Bhoodan. The abolition of Zamindari and similar measures helped actual cultivators to co-ordinate directly with the state. Similarly, the foremost cause of enhanced productivity was reforms in tenancy laws in most states. The land reforms measures in the country adopted the principle of conferring ownership on the tenants, although the laws varied from state to state.

Similarly, to achieve social justice and redistribution of agricultural land, laws were passed in almost all states to restrict the size of agricultural holdings. As a result, more than 1 million ha of agricultural land was declared surplus with the government for distribution to those who needed it the most. For facilitating the implementation of these laws, most of them have been included in the Ninth Schedule of the Constitution of India, to place these laws above challenge in the courts of law, by necessary amendments. In addition to these, the Bhoodan Movement, started in early fifties by Acharya VinobaBhave to collect the donation of land for distribution among the landless was subsequently supported by legislative sanction and approval by states through series of laws and rules.

Act and Laws for Indian Agriculture

The agriculture produce Act-1937.

Relief of agriculture indebtedness act-1989

Protection for plant varieties and farmers right Act-2001.

The national biodiversity Act-2001.

Food, conservation and Energy Act-2008.

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## **5.8 LAND REFORM PROGRAMMES**

Land reform programmes got the special attraction in the successive Five Year Plans to remove the defects of tenurial system prevailing at the eve of independence. Let us now consider briefly the main land reform measures undertaken by the Government of India.

### **They are:**

- A. Abolition of the Zamindari System
- B. Tenancy Reforms.
- C. Fixation of Ceiling of Land Holdings.
- D. Consolidation of Land Holdings.
- E. Co-operative Farming.

### **A. Abolition of Zamindari System (Intermediaries)**

Before independence, intermediary tenures like Zamindari, Talukdaris, Malguzars, Jagirs and Inamdars etc. prevailed in about 40 per cent of the area in the country. This system manifested in the absentee landlordism resulting in high renting, is security of tenure exploitation and backwardness of agriculture. On one side, absentee landlord paid no heed to raise agricultural production.

On the other side, even tenants were disinterested to improve agricultural productivity and failed to cultivate surplus land for economic growth. As a result, landlords and intermediaries, flourished at the cost cultivators while tenants lived a miserable life. Thus, absentee landlordism (Zamindars) was greatly responsible for continuously deteriorating conditions of small cultivators, tenants and share croppers etc.

### **B. Tenancy Reforms**

Tenancy system, in simple words is called the system of cultivation in which the cultivator takes land from landlord or zamindar for the purpose of cultivation under pre-determined conditions.

### **Broadly, this system can be classified into three parts as:**

- Occupancy or permanent tenants,
- Tenants at will and
- Sub-tenants. All these three types of tenants are always at the mercy of landlords.

Under this system, twin problems of insecurity of tenure and exorbitant rents are common. Tenants took no interest to improve the agricultural sector. In this regard Arthur Young Observed, "Give a man the secure possession of black rock, and he will turn it into a garden, give him a nine years lease of a garden and he will convert it into a desert."

This opinion proved true in this case. In fact, land system reduced him to a state of misery. The tenant was the victim of exploitation. Such an injustice breed mass mis-contentment. In order to save the tenants from exploitation, reform became inevitable in different parts of the country.

### **Objectives**

### **The main objectives of tenancy reforms are as under:**

#### **1. Regulation of Rent**

Before 1951, from 50 per cent to 70 per cent of the produce was used to pay the rent. Besides, cultivators had to render certain free services to owners of land (Begar). In most of the places rent was paid in kind and not in cash. In the First Five Year Plan, it laid down a guideline that the

rent should not exceed 20 per cent to 25 per cent of the total produce of land. As a result of different guidelines, all states have enacted laws for regulating the rent payable by cultivating tenants.

But rates of rent vary from state to state. In Gujarat, Maharashtra and Rajasthan, the rate fixed at 1/6th of the total produce while in the states of Assam, Orissa rates vary from 20 per cent to 25 per cent. In Punjab and Haryana, it is 1/3rd of the gross produce. In Tamil Nadu it varies from 33.3 to 40 per cent of the gross produce. In some parts of the country, rents are differentiated on the basis of difference in land revenue.

## **2. Right of Ownership**

Legislations have been passed in all states for providing ownership right on payment of compensation fixed by the state Governments. They were allowed to purchase their holdings at fair prices determined by tribunals on the basis of payment of land revenue.

## **3. Security of Tenure**

The states have enacted legislation to enable the tenants to get security of tenure of land cultivated by them on payment of compensation fixed by the state Govt. This was necessary that tenants would take personal interest to increase productivity.

However, this fixation is not beyond the paying capacity of the tenants. In Punjab, tenant is entitled to retain 5 standard acres unless he is allotted alternative land by the state. In Himachal Pradesh, tenants or owners paying more than Rs. 125 as land revenue have been brought into direct contact with the state.

In Assam, the landlord can resume land up to an area of 33.5 acres provided that a tenant is left with a minimum area of 3.3 acres. Similarly, in West Bengal also, legislation was enacted in 1970 conserving in heritable and permanent rights of cultivation on begars whose position was insecure.

## **4. Compensation**

The State governments have made provision for the compensation to be paid by the owner at the time of resumption of land. This has been done to stimulate the interests of tenant-cultivators in the form of fencing, tube wells, wells, drainage, farm building, reclamation or planting trees etc.

## **5. Remission of Land Revenue**

In case of famines, floods, droughts or any other natural calamity, government provides the relief through the remission of land revenues, certainly the same facility of rent remission is passed on to the tenants and share-croppers as well.

## **6. Exemption**

The Govt., has given the exemption of standing crops, tools, implements and cattle in case of arrears of rent of tenants.

## **C. Ceiling of Land Holding**

Ceiling on land refers to the fixation of the maximum size of a holding that an absolute cultivator may hold. Prof. D.R. Gadgil justified an absolute limit to the land to be held by each individual on the plea that among all resources, the supply of land is the most limited and the claimants for its possession are extremely numerous.

Therefore, it is unjust to allow the exploitation of any large surface of land by a single individual, unless other overwhelming reasons make it

highly desirable. Moreover, in the context of the current socio-political climate, redistribution of land would rather appear to be more imperative.

Similarly, National Commission on Agriculture observed, "Such a measure is urgently called for in view of the acute overpressure on land, the meagre prospect of population transfer from agriculture to non-agriculture and the need for stepping up agricultural output with increasing employment." Thus, it became requisite to impose ceiling in the country like India which provides justice to the downtrodden and poor tenants at large.

### **Objectives**

#### **The ceilings of holding have the under-noted objectives:**

- To reduce inequalities in agrarian structure.
- To enlarge the sphere of self-employment.
- To meet the widespread desire that land must belong to the tiller.
- To eliminate exploitation and to promise of equal opportunities to all.

#### **Types of Ceiling: Ceiling of land holding has two aspects:**

- Ceiling on existing holdings.
- Ceiling on future acquisition of land.

### **D. Consolidation of Land Holding**

The major cause for low agricultural productivity is the sub-division and fragmentation of land holdings. Sub-division of land means distribution of land of an ancestor among his successors. While fragmentation refers to a way in which the land owned by individual is scattered at different places.

In other words, a farmer's land may not have in one compact block but scattered into small pieces at different places. Therefore, the average size of holding can be raised through consolidation of holdings for making it viable unit for cultivation. In our country consolidation has been adopted to restrict sub-division and to prevent fragmentation.

In the pre- independence period also, legislation for consolidation of holdings was made in 1905 on voluntary basis. Later on, similar measures were enacted in Punjab under the Co-operative Societies Act 1912 and United Provinces in 1925-26. During the period 1920 to 1940, many provinces like Central Province, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir also made efforts to consolidate, holdings.

After independence, compulsory consolidation was replaced by voluntary consolidation in almost all states. The National Commission of Agriculture has recommended that consolidation schemes should be made compulsory in all areas of the country.

### **E. Co-Operative Farming**

The term "co-operative farming" is used differently by different economists. In simple words, it implies to an organization of cultivators of land on the basis of common efforts for common interest. For example, a number of small landowners organize themselves into a co-operative society, especially for the cultivation of land.

According to Nijalingappa Committee, "It is a voluntary organisation of the farmers in which the manpower, land and other means of production are pooled in order to put them into a better and fuller

utilization.” Planning Commission of India considers co-operative farming unification of land and joint management. Dr. Otto Schiller explained the term of co- operative farming as often used as form of farm management in which land is jointly cultivated.

**All India Co-operative Planning Committee (1946) has classified it into four categories as:**

1. Co-operative better farming
2. Tenant farming
3. Joint farming and
4. Collective farming.

**Main Features of Co-operative Farming:**

**The following are the main features of co-operative farming:**

1. The land is cultivated as one single unit.
2. The holdings of all member farmers are pooled.
3. Each member remains the owner of the land but the right of cultivation is surrendered by him to the society.
4. Supervision and control over management of the farm strictly remains in the hands of the society.
5. The society is responsible for the sale of the total produce.
6. Each member gets share of profit in accordance to his land.

**New Agency for Land reforms:** Government is planning to establish a separate agency for land reforms & upgradation of wasteland. New agency named; “Jai Prakash Narayan Mission for Land Reforms & Wasteland Management” will work under the ministry of rural development. This body will be authorized for making policies and implementing them for land reforms & wasteland upgradation.

**Check your progress - 3**

**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 are the Act and Laws for Indian Agriculture?
6. What is the Ceiling of land holding?

## **5.9 GREEN REVOLUTION**

The Green Revolution in India refers to a period when Indian agriculture was converted into an industrial system due to the adoption of modern methods and technology such as the use of high yielding variety (HYV) seeds, tractors, irrigation facilities, pesticides, and fertilizers. It was mainly found by M.S. Swaminathan. This was part of the larger Green revolution endeavor initiated by Norman Borlaug, which leveraged agricultural research and technology to increase agricultural productivity in the developing world.

The Green Revolution within India commenced in the early 1960s that led to an increase in food grain production, especially in Punjab, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh. Major milestones in this undertaking were the development of high-yielding varieties of wheat, and rust resistant strains of wheat. However, agricultural scientists like M.S.Swaminathan and social scientists like Vandana Shiva are of the opinion that it caused greater

long term sociological and financial problems for the people of Punjab and Haryana.

The main development was higher-yielding varieties of wheat, for developing rust resistant strains of wheat. The introduction of high-yielding varieties (HYV) of seeds and the increased quality of fertilizers and irrigation technique led to the increase in production to make the country self-sufficient in food grains, thus improving agriculture in India. The methods adopted included the use of high-yielding varieties (HYVs) of seeds with modern farming methods.

The production of wheat has produced the best results in fueling self-sufficiency of India. Along with high-yielding seeds and irrigation facilities, the enthusiasm of farmers mobilized the idea of agricultural revolution. Due to the rise in use of chemical pesticides and fertilizers, there was a negative effect on the soil and the land (e.g., land degradation).

Marginal farmers found it very difficult to get finance and credit at economical rates from the government and banks and hence, fell as easy prey to the money lenders. They took loans from landlords, who charged high rates of interests and also exploited the farmers later on to work in their fields to repay the loans (farm labourers). Proper financing was not given during the Green Revolution period, which created a lot of problems and sufferings to the farmers of India. Government also helped those under loans.

Due to traditional agricultural practices, low productivity, and a growing population, often food grains were imported — draining scarce foreign reserves. It was thought that with the increased production due to the Green Revolution, the government could maintain buffer stock and India could achieve self-sufficiency and self-reliability.

Agriculture was basically for subsistence and, therefore, less agricultural product was offered for sale in the market. Hence, the need was felt to encourage the farmers to increase their production and offer a greater portion of their products for sale in the market. The new methods in agriculture increased the yield of rice and wheat, which reduced India's dependence on food imports.

### **5.9.1 Impact of the Green Revolution**

- **Increase in Agricultural Production:** Food grains in India saw a great rise in output. It was a remarkable increase. The biggest beneficiary of the plan was the Wheat Grain. The production of wheat increased to 55 million tonnes in 1990 from just 11 million tonnes in 1960.
- **Increase in per Acre Yield:** Not only did the Green Revolution increase the total agricultural output, it also increased the per hectare yield. In case of wheat, the per hectare yield increased from 850 kg/hectare to an incredible 2281 kg/hectare by 1990.

- **Less Dependence on Imports:** After the green revolution, India was finally on its way to self-sufficiency. There was now enough production for the population and to build a stock in case of emergencies. We did not need to import grains or depend on other countries for our food supply. In fact, India was able to start exporting its agricultural produce.
- **Employment:** It was feared that commercial farming would leave a lot of the labour force jobless. But on the other hand, we saw a rise in rural employment. This is because the supporting industries created employment opportunities. Irrigation, transportation, food processing, marketing all created new jobs for the workforce.
- **A Benefit to the Farmers:** The Green Revolution majorly benefited the farmers. Their income saw a significant raise. Not only were they surviving, they were prospering. It enabled them to shift to commercial farming from only sustenance farming.

### **5.9.2 Features of the Green Revolution**

- The introduction of the HYV seeds for the first time in Indian agriculture. These seeds had more success with the wheat crop and were highly effective in regions that had proper irrigation. So the first stage of the Green Revolution was focused on states with better infra – like Punjab and Tamil Nadu.
- During the second phase, the HYV seeds were given to several other states. And other crops than wheat were also included into the plan
- One basic requirement for the HYV seeds is proper irrigation. Crops from HYV seeds need alternating amounts of water supply during its growth. So the farms cannot depend on monsoons. The Green Revolution vastly improved the inland irrigation systems around farms in India.
- The emphasis of the plan was mostly on food grains such as wheat and rice. Cash crops and commercial crops like cotton, jute, oilseeds etc were not a part of the plan
- Increased availability and use of fertilizers to enhance the productivity of the farms
- Use of pesticides and weedicides to reduce any loss or damage to the crops
- And finally the introduction of technology and machinery like tractors, harvesters, drills etc. This helped immensely to promote commercial farming in the country.

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## **5.10 RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES**

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**Rural development** is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in rural areas, often relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas.

The United Nations defines “Rural Development is a process of change, by which the efforts of people themselves are united, those of Government authorities to improve their economic, social and cultural conditions of communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to

contribute fully to national programme. Rural Development is a process of bringing change among rural community from the traditional way of living to progressive way of living. It is also expressed as a movement for progress”.

The famous sociologist, James H. Crops has defined rural development as a process through collective efforts, aimed at improving the wellbeing and self-realisation of people living outside the urbanised area. He further contends that the ultimate target of Rural Development is people and not infrastructure and according to him, one of the objectives of rural development should be to widen people’s range of choice.

Rural development is a multi-dimensional process which includes the development of socio-economic circumstances of the people living in the rural areas. According to the 2011 census, India has 1.21 billion population. Out of that 833 million, 68.84% population lives in India’s 6, 40,867 villages. Majority of these people are farmers or rely on agriculture for their livelihood. Since independence, many rural development programmes have been undertaken by the Government of India and various state governments which are implemented through Five Year Plans. Some of these programmes are:

- Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP- Package Programme)
- Intensive Agricultural Area Programme (IAAP)
- High Yielding Varieties Programme (HYVP- Green Revolution)
- Drought Prone Areas Programme (DPAP)
- Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA)
- Hill Area Development Programme
- Operation Flood I, II and III (White Revolution)
- Fisheries Development (Blue Revolution)
- Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)
- JawaharRojgarYojna (JRY).

#### **5.10.1 Rural Development during pre-independence period**

In the pre-independence period, numbers of rural development programmes were started by the Social Reformers. Some of these programmes were gradually disappeared and some merged with Government sponsored schemes later. Here let us see some popular rural development programmes:

##### **1) Sriniketan**

The initial attempts at rural development were initiated by Shri. Rabindranath Tagore in 1908 by establishing youth organization in the Kaligram Prokana of his Zamindari, He tried to generate a class of functionary workers who could be trained to identify themselves with the people. In 1921 he established a Rural Reconstruction Institute at Shantiniketan in West Bengal. A group of eight villages was the centre of the programme.

The programme aimed at:

- To create a real interest in people for rural welfare work.
- To study rural problems and to translate conclusions into action.

- To help villagers develop their resources and to improve village sanitation.

These objectives were preferred to be achieved by generating a spirit of self-help, developing village leadership, organizing village scouts called Brati Balika, establishing training centers for handicrafts and establishing a demonstration centre at Shantiniketan. These demonstration centers organized demonstration or farmer's holding for improved practices.

## **2) Marthandam**

The work was started by Dr. Spencer Hatch an American Agricultural expert in Travancore under the auspicious of young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) in 1921. The primary objective of the project was to fetch copious life for rural people. The vital technique of the centre was 'Self-help with intimate expert counsel'. From the demonstration centre at Marthandam, about hundred villages were enclosed through Y.M.C.A. centers in villages. The extension secretary was appointed to monitor the activities of the group. Marthandam was in a tactical position to serve the villages. It kept prize bulls and goats, model bee-lives, demonstration plots for improving grain and vegetable seeds, poultry runs with prize laying-hens, a weaving shed, etc. Inside the centre, there was equipment like honey extractors, health charts and the items needed for other cottage vocations. At the centre, cottage vocations were taught and agricultural implements tested. The emphasis throughout was on self-help and co-operation. The triumphant yield of this project was the Egg-selling Club, which eventually became a self-governing body. Another co-operative society was honey club, where the villagers were trained the utility of modern bee-hives and extracted honey scientifically. The honey was cured and marketed co-operatively. There were Bull clubs, weaver's club also. The activities conducted at centre could meet the mental, physical and spiritual needs of the villagers. The major deficiencies of the project were insufficient funds and governmental help. The activities were mainly organized the Marthandam and the village workers did not stay in villages. The religious bias of the institution was also a chief obstruction in its activities.

## **3) Gurgaon Experiment**

Rural upliftment movement on a huge scale was first commenced by Mr. F. L. Brayne, Deputy Commissioner in the Gurgaon district of Punjab state. He was quite moved by the backwardness, poverty and desolation of the people. A village guide was posted to serve as a mediating link for flowing any information and advice of the experts in various departments on to the villagers. The programme of introducing improved seeds, implements, the methods of cultivation etc. was started all through the district. As the village guides were not technical men, very modest everlasting value was achieved in fact.

## **4) Gandhian Constructive Programme / Sewagram**

Mahatma Gandhi always dreamt of self-contained and self-sufficient village life in India. He was conscious about the grassroots' problems of India, rural set up and he sought to resolve these tribulations without interference of any exterior group. He wanted to solve these problems by local people and through local resources. People know Gandhiji not only as a Mahatma or political agitator, but also as a social

and economic reformer. He made people to comprehend that India lives in villages and that the common man's upliftment is the upliftment of the country. Concerning development work in the country, he emphasized that the "salvation of India lies in cottage industries." The key-words of his economy are:

1. Decentralized production
2. Equal distribution of wealth
3. Self-sufficiency of Indian villages.

For equal distribution of wealth, cruel process of extermination was not followed but throughout the heart of the owners by persuasion and appeal to the better sense of man. According to him self-sufficiency of Indian villages can be achieved by eliminating middlemen, so that the farmer could get the full price for his produce. He wanted that the tiller should be able to consume his own products like fruits, milk, vegetables etc.

Truly speaking, the Gandhian constrictive Programme became big institutions and simple ideas became philosophies. His emphasis on Khadi became the Charka movement and then, the All India Khadi a Village Industries Board. His thought, against untouchability and caste system, resulted in the organization of Harijan Sewak Sangh and many like this. He created leaders like VinobaBhave, Nehru, Jayaprakash Narayan, Mira Ben etc. who came from common stock, but got inspiration from Gandhi. All the people engaged in reconstructive programme felt that their work was needed in a great programme for their country reconstruction.

#### **5.10.2 Rural Development since Independence**

Without much delay after attainment of independence, the central government had undertaken some important programmes of rural reconstruction. These are: Community Development Programme (1952), National Extension Services (1953) and Panchayat Raj (1959) on the recommendation of Hon'ble Balwant Rai Mehta Committee's report. The objectives of Panchayat Raj are intensely occupied in tradition and culture of rural India and are by no means a new concept. Panchayat Raj offered a system of self-governance at the village level. The objective also aimed mostly alteration of the traditional rural India with self-local governance. The Community Development Programme (CDP) was launched as an educational and organizational programme to reach rural people. It aimed to inspire self-help and public co-operation. But due to several implementation level problems and lack of local organization effectiveness, CDP could not make much away.

Besides these, some social reformers had also launched rural development programmes. These are: (a) The Etawah Pilot Project (b) The Nilokheri Experiment and (C) The Bhoodan Movement. Among these the Bhoodan Movement became popular.

Acharya VinobaBhave, one of the profound social reformers in India was the founder of the Bhoodan Movement. The motivation for Bhoodan came to Vinobaji in 1951 when he was touring the Telangana District of Hyderabad. "The basic objective of Bhoodan Campaign was to avoid the surfacing of bloody revolution by solving the land problem in a peaceful way. The real purpose was to generate the right atmosphere so that progressive land reform could follow".

The various five-year plans have witnessed more investments in rural areas in terms of number of development programmes implemented by the central and state Government. These programmes have assisted rural people to alter their life-styles somehow. These programmes are related with agriculture and allied activities but there are certain other policies which are specially intended to lift the standard of the rural people in the field of health, education, sanitation etc. After the commencement of economic reforms in 1991, the Government has been given exceptional consideration to the rural India by providing certain developmental schemes to augment the existing programmes and to initiate some new schemes for the rural areas. The following are some of the schemes:

### **1) THE INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (IRDP)**

The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is an organised effort to develop the likelihood of developing infrastructural facilities along with emphasized upon growing the earnings of the under-privileged strata of rural India. The commitment of the Government under this programme was to attain the objectives of bringing down the percentage of population below the poverty line to less than 10 percent by 1995. In spite of the achievements made during the Sixth Plan, there continued to exist certain serious lacunae in the implementation of these programmes identified by the various researchers, educationist, government and non-government organizations.

#### **MAIN FEATURES OF IRDP**

The focus of IRDP was also mainly on the same target group as under SFDA, i.e. small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans. There was, however, considerable deviation/difference in its operational strategy. The main features of the programme were:

- ✓ For the first time the concept of Poverty Line Income was applied for the identification of the beneficiaries and therefore land was no more the criteria for the identification and selection of beneficiaries.
- ✓ The Poverty Line Income (for definition see Unit 1) was fixed at Rs. 3500 per year for an average family of five persons. The families with annual incomes below Rs. 3500 were identified as Below Poverty Line (BPL) families and were eligible for benefits under IRDP.
- ✓ The identification of beneficiaries was done through the Base Line Survey of Family Income.
- ✓ The subsidy rates were the same as used for the SFDA beneficiaries, i.e. 25 % for small farmers, 33.33 % for others and 50 % for SC/ST beneficiaries. In addition, the beneficiaries of any category in a group scheme were also eligible for 50 % subsidy.
- ✓ At least 30 percent of the total beneficiaries were supposed to be the SCs and STs. This was later increased to 50 %.
- ✓ Women beneficiaries from all categories were supposed to be 33.33 per cent which was later increased to 40 %.
- ✓ The self-employment projects would cover all the following areas:
  - ❖ Programmes of agricultural development including efficient utilization of land and water resources with the help of technology;

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- ❖ Programmes of animal husbandry as a subsidiary occupation directed mainly to the small peasant and agricultural labour households;
- ❖ Programmes of marine fishery including harvesting of natural resources through trawlers, mechanized boats and country boats;
- ❖ Programmes of inland water and brackish water fisheries to maximize output of fish per unit of water;
- ❖ Programmes of social forestry;
- ❖ Programmes of farm forestry through small peasant households;
- ❖ Village and cottage industries including handlooms, sericulture and bee-rearing as important occupations for the artisan classes of the rural population;
- ❖ Service sector of the rural economy as self-employment for poorer families; and
- ❖ Programmes for skill formation and mobility of labour to meet the needs of organised labour for development works.

For the implementation of IRDP it was made essential to formulate Comprehensive Block Plans. These in turn were proposed to be linked to the district and state plans. In all of the above, people were sought to be actively involved. Also, the help of voluntary agencies was sought.

## **2) SWARNJAYANTI GRAM SWAROZGAR YOJANA (SGSY)**

This programme was started with effect from 01.04.1999 after review and restructuring of the erstwhile IRDP and its allied programmes namely TRYSEM (Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment) DWCRA (Development of Women & Children in rural areas) and GSY (Gramin Samriddhi Yojana). The earlier programmes are no longer in operation with the launching of the SGSY. The SGSY was somewhat intended to provide self-employment to millions of villagers. Poor families living below the poverty line were organised into Self-help Groups (SHGs) established with a mixture of government subsidy and credit from investment banks. The main aim of these SHGs was to bring these poor families above the poverty line and concentrate on income generation through combined effort. The scheme recommended the establishment of activity clusters or clusters of villagers grouped together based on their skills and abilities. Each of these activity clusters worked on a specific activity chosen based on the aptitude and skill of the people, availability of resources and market potentiality. The SHGs are aided, supported and trained by NGOs, CBOs, individuals, banks and self-help promoting institutions. Government-run District Level Development Agencies (DRDA) and the respective State governments also provided training and financial aid. The programme focusses on establishing microenterprises in rural areas. The SHGs created may have a varying number of members based on the terrain and physical abilities of the members. It goes through three stages of creation:

- Group formation
- Capital formation through the revolving fund and skill development and

- Taking up of economic activity for skill generation.

The SHGs are usually created by selecting individuals from the Below poverty-line (BPL) list provided by the Gram sabha. The SHGs are divided into various blocks and each of these blocks concentrated on 4-5 key activities. The SGSY is mainly run through government-run DRDAs with support from local private institutions, banks and Panchayat raj institutions. The Government also assists villagers in marketing their products by organizing melas or fairs, exhibitions, etc. The Swarna Jayanti Swarozgar Yojna (SGSY) has been renamed as National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM). With this scheme will be made universal, more focused and time bound for poverty alleviation by 2014. Government subsidy allocated for SGSY per individual is 30% of the total capital investment if the total investment is less than Rs. 7,500 and 50% of the investment for SC/STs if the investment is less than Rs.10,000. For self-help groups, the government offers a subsidy of 50% if the total investment is less than Rs. 1.25 lakhs. There are no monetary ceilings on subsidy in the case of irrigation projects. The SGSY concentrates on the marginalized sections of society. Accordingly, SC/STs comprise 50 percent, women 40% and the physically challenged make up 3% of the total beneficiaries from the scheme. Government funding for the scheme is divided between the Center and State on a 75-25 basis.

### **3) NATIONAL RURAL EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEES ACT-2005 (NREGA)**

The National Rural Employment Guarantees Act.-2005 was launched by the Govt. of India on 2nd Feb. 2006. This Act guarantees 100 days of employment in a financial year to any rural household whose adult members are wishing to do unskilled manual work. But now a day, reports available from various states, the scheme is not functioning in proper way. The programme was renamed as Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme.

Objective:

The objective of the Act is to enhance livelihood security in rural areas by providing at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in a financial year to every household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work. Strong social safety net for the vulnerable groups by providing a fall-back employment source (when other employment alternatives are scarce or inadequate growth engine for sustainable development of an agricultural economy). Through the process of providing employment on works that address causes of chronic poverty such as drought, deforestation and soil erosion, the Act seeks to strengthen the natural resource base of rural livelihood and create durable assets in rural areas. Effectively implemented, NREGA has the potential to transform the geography of poverty. New ways of doing business, as a model of governance reform anchored on the principles of transparency and grass root democracy. Thus, NREGA fosters conditions for inclusive growth ranging from basic wage security and recharging rural economy to a transformative empowerment process of democracy. The Act was notified in 200 districts in the first phase with effect from February 2nd 2006 and then extended to additional 130 districts in the financial year 2007-2008 (113 districts were notified with effect from April 1st 2007, and

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17 districts in UP were notified with effect from May 15th 2007). The remaining districts have been notified under the NREGA with effect from April 1, 2008. Thus NREGA covers the entire country with the exception of districts that have a hundred percent urban population.

#### **4) THE DISTRICT RURAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY (DRDA)**

The District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) has traditionally been the main organ at the District Level to supervise the implementation of different anti-poverty programmes. But due to infrastructural lacunae of local administration the available report is not satisfactory.

#### **5) NATIONAL BANK FOR AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT (NABARD)**

NABARD is set up as an apex Development Bank with an aim for facilitating credit flow to poor peasants and development of agriculture, small scale industries, cottage and village industries, handicrafts and other rural crafts. It also has the mandate to support all other allied economic activities in rural areas, promote integrated and sustainable rural development & secure prosperity of rural areas.

#### **6) GREEN REVOLUTION PROGRAMME**

The much published Green Revolution Programme of the late-60's had a very holistic design of bringing prosperity to the masses of the rural India but it could not reach up to the mark. No, doubt, it provided some self-reliance in food, yet it was not able to change the overall socio-economic conditions of the Indian mass peasantry.

#### **7) INDIRA AWAAS YOJANA**

Housing is one of the basic requirements for human survival. For a shelter-less person, possession of a house brings about a profound change in his existence, endowing him with an identity, thus integrating him with his immediate social milieu. With a view to meeting the housing needs of the rural poor, Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY) was launched in May, 1985 as a sub-scheme of Jawahar Rozgar Yojana. It is being implemented as an independent scheme since 1 January 1996. The IAY aims at helping rural people below the poverty line belonging to SC/ST, freed bonded labourers in construction of dwelling units and upgradation of existing unserviceable kutcha houses by providing assistance in the form of full grant.

#### **5.10.3 Community Development Programme**

The concept of community development in India was set off well before independence. Even throughout the freedom struggle, under the guidance of Mahatma Gandhi, substantial thought was given to rural upliftment and reconstruction. He emphasized on a nineteen point constructive programme for complete independence by truthful and non-violent means. He often counselled the leaders that real independence could be enjoyed only when the rural economy was reinforced and poverty eradicated. He promoted communal harmony, economic equity, social equality, de-addiction from alcohol and narcotics, promotion of 'khadi' (hand spun and hand woven cloth) and village industries, sanitation, health care, education and empowerment of women. The aim was to generate lucrative employment in rural areas and to perk up the quality of life. The Government of India Act, 1935 under the British Rule, while confirming sovereignty on the provinces, incorporated rural development as an

imperative programme for the welfare of the people. With the outburst of World War II and Bengal Famine of 1943, food supply was a critical problem in the majority parts of the country. Stress on food production was provided through 'Grow More Food Campaign' which incorporated the supply of free seeds, subsidies for construction of wells and embankments, supply of manure, fixing a minimum price for grain, etc. However, there was limited scope under the 'Zamindari' system where a small number of rich farmers owned the agriculture lands and the rest of the villagers worked as labourers.

Post-independence of India in 1947, community development assumed elevated priority. In 1948, a pilot community development project was launched through the Etawah Project. Soon in 1952, the Government of India launched 55 Community Development Projects, each covering about 300 villages or a population of 30,000. Though the programme was multi-dimensional, the chief weight was placed on agricultural production, as the areas selected for launching the project were located in irrigated areas or where rainfall wasn't a deterrent. In 1953, the National Extension Service Project was launched with similar aims to envelop bigger areas, including the rain fed regions. This project of three-year duration, distinguished the blocks of 150-300 villages as convenient units for starting community development programmes. The objectives and activities of the Project were modified from time to time and continued as an enduring multi-function extension agency in each block. These community development blocks were taken care of as usual administrative units for planning and development with standard budgetary allocations.

By the end of the First Five Year Plan (1952-57), 1114 blocks covering 163,000 villages were in function and by the 60s, the CDP covered the entire country. The programme was characterized by the following features:

- Comprehensive in content;
- Economic progress as the core objective;
- Flexible programmes and
- Posting of a multipurpose worker at the village level.

The plan defined the vital objective of planning as creation of conditions in which living standards are rationally high and the citizens have full and equal opportunity for growth and justice. The programme aimed at upliftment of the rural poor, covered agriculture, animal husbandry, roads, health, education, housing, and employment, social and cultural activities. While aiming at economic development through agriculture and cottage industries, efforts were made to improve literacy, health, sanitation, housing, transport and communication. To execute the multi-facet programme, an extension organization, headed by a Block Development Officer (BDO) was established at each block or the revenue tehsil, with a team of subject specialists and village level workers (VLW). Each VLW covered a population of 5000-6000, spread over 5-10 villages to implement various development programmes launched by different departments. The VLWs were expected to meet the farmers and persuade them to take part in various development schemes. The BDO was assisted by eight Extension Officers, one each for agriculture, animal husbandry, Panchayat, cooperation rural industries, rural engineering, social education

and women and child welfare. Additionally, a medical officer with support staff was posted in every block to offer medical assistance. The extension officers reported primarily to the BDO and to their senior as well, in the respective department, based at the district headquarters. The BDOs reported to the District Collector, who is the administrator of the district.

The Development Commissioner, at the state level was responsible for co-ordinating community development through the District Collectors. At the National level, the administration of the community development programme was handed over to the Planning Commission. The resources allotted for community development during 1952-67 were also so low that it worked out to barely Rs.10 per head over this period.

### **Panchayat Raj Institutions**

In 1957, five years after launching the community development programme, the Government appointed the Balvantrai Mehta Committee to propose measures to eliminate obstructions in implementing the programme. The Committee recommended the configuration of a three-tier-system of rural local Government, to be called 'Panchayat Raj' (Rule by Local Councils). These were Gram Panchayat (Village level), Panchayat Samiti (Block level) and Zilla Parishad (District level). The plan was to decentralize the process of decision making and to shift the decision making centre nearer to the people, support their participation and situate the bureaucracy under the local people's control. Under the Fourth and Fifth Five Year Plans (1969-74 and 1974-79), the central government introduced independent administrative hierarchies to carry out special programmes, bypassing the Panchayat Raj institutions. Special programmes like Small Farmers' Development Agency (SFDA), Intensive Agricultural Areas Programme (IAAP), Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP), Tribal Development Agency (TDA), Marginal, Small Farmers and Agricultural Labourers Development Agency (MFAL) and area development agencies such as Command Area Development, Drought Prone Area and Hill area Development Programmes were financed and operated directly by the Central Government.

### **Salient features of the Act**

- A 3-tier system of Panchayat Raj for all States having a population of over 20 lakhs
- Regular Panchayat elections every 5 years
- Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes in proportion to their population and not less than 113 seats for women
- State Finance Commission to make recommendations on financial powers of the Panchayats
- Independent State Election Commissions

### **Powers and responsibilities of Panchayats**

- Preparation of plan for economic development and social justice.
- Implementation of schemes for economic development and social justice in relation to 29 subjects given in Eleventh Schedule of the Constitution.
- To levy, collect and appropriate taxes, duties, tolls and fees.

## Gram Sabha

The 73rd Amendment Act gives Constitutional status to the Gram Sabhas -the general assembly of villagers. In the Gram Sabha the rural poor, women and the marginalized get an opportunity to participate in decision making on matters affecting their lives. Actively functioning Gram Sabhas ensure vibrant grass-roots democracy with transparency, accountability and achievement.

### **The provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to the Scheduled areas) Act, 1996**

This Act extends Panchayats to the tribal areas of nine States, namely, Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan. This law vests Gram Sabhas and Panchayats with significant powers of control over natural resources as well as the social and cultural spheres of their lives.

Panchayat or Panchayat Raj is a system of governance in which gram panchayats are the basic units of administration. It has 3 levels: village, block and district.

The term 'panchayat raj' is relatively new, having originated during the British administration. 'Raj' literally means governance or government. Mahatma Gandhi advocated *Panchayat Raj*, a decentralized form of Government where each village is responsible for its own affairs, as the foundation of India's political system. His term for such a vision was "Gram Swaraj" (Village Self-governance).

It was adopted by state governments during the 1950s and 60s as laws were passed to establish Panchayats in various states. It also found backing in the Indian Constitution, with the 73rd amendment in 1992 to accommodate the idea. The Amendment Act of 1992 contains provision for devolution of powers and responsibilities to the panchayats to both for preparation of plans for economic development and social justice and for implementation in relation to twenty-nine subjects listed in the eleventh schedule of the constitution.

The panchayats receive funds from three sources – (i) local body grants, as recommended by the Central Finance Commission, (ii) funds for implementation of centrally-sponsored schemes, and (iii) funds released by the state governments on the recommendations of the State Finance Commissions.

In the history of Panchayat Raj in India, on 24 April 1993, the Constitutional (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 came into force to provide constitutional status to the Panchayat Raj institutions. This Act was extended to Panchayats in the tribal areas of eight States, namely Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Rajasthan from 24 December 1996. Now panchayat raj system exists in all the states except Nagaland, Meghalaya and Mizoram. Also all the UTs except Delhi.

The Act aims to provide 3-tier system of Panchayat Raj for all States having population of over 2 million, to hold Panchayat elections regularly every 5 years, to provide reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Women, to appoint State Finance Commission to make recommendations as regards the financial powers of the Panchayats and to constitute District Planning Committee to prepare

draft development plan for the district. The 3-tier system of Panchayat Raj consists of a) village level panchayat b) block level panchayat c) district level panchayat.

Powers and responsibilities are delegated to Panchayats at the appropriate level:-

- Preparation of plan for economic development and social justice.
- Implementation of schemes for economic development and social justice in relation to 29 subjects given in Eleventh Schedule of the Constitution.
- To levy, collect and appropriate taxes, duties, tolls and fees.

#### ***Village level panchayat***

It is called a Panchayat at the village level. It is a local body working for the good of the village. The number of members usually ranges from 7 to 31; occasionally, groups are larger, but they never have fewer than 7 members.

The block-level institution is called the Panchayat Samiti. The district-level institution is called the Zilla Parishad. it should provide good security.

#### ***Intermediate level panchayat***

Panchayat samiti is a local government body at the tehsil or Taluka level in India. It works for the villages of the Tehsil or Taluka that together are called a Development Block. The Panchayat Samiti is the link between the Gram Panchayat and the district administration. There are a number of variations of this institution in various states. It is known as Mandal Praja Parishad in Andhra Pradesh, Taluka panchayat in Gujarat, Mandal Panchayat in Karnataka, etc. In general it's a kind of Panchayat raj at higher level.

#### **Constitution**

It is composed of ex-officio members (all sarpanchas of the panchayat samiti area, the MPs and MLAs of the area and the SDO of the subdivision), coopted members (representatives of SC/ST and women), associate members (a farmer of the area, a representative of the cooperative societies and one of the marketing services) and some elected members.

The samiti is elected for 5 years and is headed by the chairman and the deputy chairman.

#### **Departments**

The common departments in the Samiti are as follows:

1. General administration
2. Finance
3. Public works
4. Agriculture
5. Health
6. Education
7. Social welfare
8. Information Technology and others.

There is an officer for every department. A government appointed block development officer is the executive officer to the samiti and the chief of its administration.

#### **Functions**

1. Implement schemes for the development of agriculture.

2. Establishment of primary health centres and primary schools.
3. Supply of drinking water, drainage, construction/repair of roads.
4. Development of cottage and small-scale industries and opening of cooperative societies.
5. Establishment of youth organizations.

### **Sources of income**

The main source of income of the panchayat samiti is grants-in-aid and loans from the State Government.

### ***District level panchayat***

In the district level of the panchayat raj system you have the "zilla parishad". It looks after the administration of the rural area of the district and its office is located at the district headquarters. The Hindi word Parishad means Council and Zilla Parishad translates to District Council. It is headed by the "District Collector" or the "District Magistrate" or the "Deputy Commissioner". It is the link between the state government and the panchayat samiti (local self government at the block level)

### **Constitution**

Members of the Zilla Parishad are elected from the district on the basis of adult franchise for a term of five years. Zilla Parishad has minimum of 50 and maximum of 75 members. There are seats reserved for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, backward classes and women.

The Chairmen of all the Panchayat Samitis form the members of Zilla Parishad. The Parishad is headed by a President and a Vice-President.

### **Functions**

1. Provide essential services and facilities to the rural population and the planning and execution of the development programmes for the district.
2. Supply improved seeds to farmers. Inform them of new techniques of training. Undertake construction of small-scale irrigation projects and percolation tanks. Maintain pastures and grazing lands.
3. Set up and run schools in villages. Execute programmes for adult literacy. Run libraries.
4. Start Primary Health Centers and hospitals in villages. Start mobile hospitals for hamlets, vaccination drives against epidemics and family welfare campaigns.

### **5.10.4 Present Rural Development Paradigm**

India implemented the New Economic Policy in 1991 which was closely associated with Globalization. At this stage, the paradigm of rural development was meant to speed up country's economic growth, but in doing so it was found that the system widened greater socio-economic inequality amongst the people of rural India. The government has incurred a huge expenditure on the long term policies for other including urban development but has inadequately spent on health, education, food, environment which is the fundamental need of the common people, especially for the rural people in India.

The Global Hunger Index, India ranks 66th amongst 88 countries. As per UNDP, Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI), 65 cores of Indian people are Poor. They are mostly rural folk. The report of National Commission for Enterprises in the Unorganised Sector mentions that 77 percent of Indian population live on rupees 20/- or less per day. The poverty ratio in rural areas as found by the Prof. Tendulkar Committee set

up by the Planning Commission and the Prof. N.C. Saxena Committee set up by the Ministry of Rural Development was to 41.8 percent and 50 percent respectively. At present, in India conflicts between peasant sections and the State have become frequent. The government is grabbing their lands, forests, water forcibly and curbing their basic rights. Many a times, these conflicts result in a bloody war as seen in Singur, Nandigram in West Bengal, Kashipur in Orissa and Dantewara in Chhattisgarh etc.

#### **5.10.5 Impact of globalization on farmers**

In India, approximately 80 percent of the rural population is engaged in agriculture. As a result, the cost of agricultural production has amplified because cost of chemical fertilizers, pesticides, irrigation etc. has increased substantially. The capital intensive and import based agricultural activity have eventually started displacing mostly poor, small and marginal peasants from land. Multinational agri-business companies like Cargill, Pepsico, Monsanto, ITC etc. are already in the field to dominate this profitable market. A novel class has appeared in rural India during the period of globalization that has been benefited by this globalization process. These are mainly the rich and high middle class farmers. Majority of the owners themselves do not cultivate the land, they oversee the agricultural activities and such supervising families are basically engaged in services in the government or private sector or business especially related to agribusiness. In some places they also act as moneylenders and lend money to poor peasants at a high interest and control the local political power. Basically, these classes have more purchasing power and are the main customers for durable and other luxurious goods in rural India. Ironically, the residual poor and marginal peasants comprise the large segment in rural areas and have been subjected to unfathomable dilemma in the era of globalization. Small farmers, in particular, are hardly benefited by this globalization epoch while big farmers with their economic and political pressure, are able to harvest the benefits of globalization as they can get best technologies, grow cash crops, negotiate agreements, and market their products.

On the other hand distressed peasants who are feeding the nation are mostly indebted. According to the National Crime Bureau record, in the ten years period between 1998 and 2008 as many as 2 lakh farmers have committed suicide in India. According to Report of the Comptroller and auditor General of India "Out of 89.35 million farmer households, 43.42 million (48.6%) were reported to be indebted. Estimated number of indebted farmer households was highest in Uttar Pradesh (6.9 million), to be followed by Andhra Pradesh (4.9 million) and Maharashtra (3.6 million)".

#### **5.10.6 Emphasis on People's Participation**

In spite of different programmes initiated for rural development, there is yet to be any major advantage to the poor to sustain their livelihood. The two major concerns have been centralization of power and non-involvement of people in the process of development since the introduction of Panchayat Raj.

#### **5.10.7 Role of Non-Government Organisations**

The major reason influencing the thriving implementation of rural development in India is motivation of the poor families to ensure their

active participation. Development of appropriate people's organisations is also essential to access the benefits of various schemes, particularly by the illiterate poor. To ensure people's involvement in the development process and to take them into confidence, they should be involved in the programme, right from the stage of planning.

The voluntary organizations or non-government organisations (NGOs) in general center their voluntary action and service to embark upon the troubles of the common people or to assist them face their challenges. The main characteristic of voluntary agencies is human-touch. During the 1970s the government recognized the crucial role of voluntary agencies in complementing government's effort in rural development. Earlier, the NGOs formed by religious institutions and liberal public were involved in operating hospitals and educational institutions. With assistance from international donor agencies, the Ministry of Agriculture formed an independent organization called 'Freedom from Hunger Campaign' to sustain the voluntary organizations involved in rural development. This organization was re-organized and renamed as 'People's Action for Development-India (PAD-I). PAD-I was merged with Council for Advancement of Rural Technology in 1986 and renamed as Council for Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART). Since then, CAPART has been financially assisting the voluntary agencies involved in rural development.

With better opportunities for promoting self-employment through investment in agriculture and micro-enterprise, services were formed for availing soft loans from banks and other financial institutions. The Reserve Bank of India issued guidelines to all the bankers not to be adamant on collateral security up to Rs.25, 000 drawn by the poor for investment in development activities. As a result, over Rs.250 billion was distributed as rural credit in 1995-96, of which 50% amount was from the co-operatives and the rest from other banking institutions. Nevertheless, as the formal banking operations were not expedient for many villagers because of their inflexibility, distance and high cost of operation, quite a lot of pioneering banking institutions have been established by the NGOs.

**Check your progress - 4**

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

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

7. Who was the founder of Green Revolution?
8. Give the expansion of TRYSEM.

**5.11 LET US SUM UP**

In this unit we have discussed factors accounting for the changes and Dominant caste in Indian society. Ancestral worship and factors of change have also touched upon briefly. The process of Agrarian Legislation and Land Reform programmes is also analyzed. In this unit Green Revolution and Rural Development Programmes are discussed in detail.

**5.12 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

1. What are the functions of dominant caste?
2. Write short notes on ancestral worship.

3. Write an essay on Agrarian Legislation.
4. Explain the impact of Green Revolution.
5. Enumerate the Land Reform programmes?
6. Elucidate the Rural Development Programme of Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana" (SGSY)

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### **5.13 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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1. Natural Factors, Technological Factors, Social Factors, Economic Factors, Cultural Factors, Political Factors
2. M.N. Srinivas
3. Herbert Spencer
4. Climate, storms, social erosion, earthquakes, floods, droughts etc.
5. The agriculture produce Act-1937, Relief of agriculture indebtedness act-1989, Protection for plant varieties and farmers right Act-2001, The national biodiversity Act-2001, Food, conservation and Energy Act-2008.
6. Ceiling on existing holdings, Ceiling on future acquisition of land.
7. M.S. Swaminathan
8. Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment

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### **5.14 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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# UNIT - VI RURAL SOCIAL PROBLEMS

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## Structure

- 6.1. Introduction
- 6.2. Objectives
- 6.3. Rural Social Problems
  - 6.3.1 Social Problems in India
  - 6.3.2 Definition of Social Problem
  - 6.3.3 Characteristics of Rural Problems
  - 6.3.4 Nature of Social Problems
- 6.4. Agrarian Unrest and Peasant Movements
  - 6.4.1 Agrarian Unrest
  - 6.4.2 Peasant Movement
  - 6.4.3 Peasant Movements in India
  - 6.4.4 Agrarian Unrest and Peasant Movements
    - 6.4.4.1 The Tebhaga Movement (1946–47)
    - 6.4.4.2 The Telangana Movement (1946-52)
    - 6.4.4.3 Naxalite Movement (1967–71)
  - 6.4.5 Emerging Agrarian Social and Peasants Movements
- 6.5 Untouchability
  - 6.5.1 Definition of Untouchability
  - 6.5.2 Effect of Untouchability
  - 6.5.3 Fundamental Causes of Untouchable
  - 6.5.4 Efforts to Eradicate Untouchability
  - 6.5.5 Economic Improvement
  - 6.5.6 Non-Governmental Efforts
  - 6.5.7 Suggestions for the Eradication of Untouchability
- 6.6. Rural Violence
  - 6.6.1 Definitions of Violence
  - 6.6.2 Different types of Violence
- 6.7 Landlessness
  - 6.7.1 Marginalisation of Landholding
- 6.8 Rural Indebtedness
  - 6.8.1 Measures of Indebtedness
- 6.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 6.10. Unit- End- Exercises
- 6.11. Answer to Check Your Progress
- 6.12. Suggested Readings

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## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

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The social problem is connected with majority of the members of society. Social problems often involve problems that affect the real world. Peasant movement is a social movement involved with the agricultural policy. It has a long history that can be traced to the numerous peasant uprisings that occurred in various regions of the world throughout human history. The evil practice of untouchability has been a universal phenomenon throughout Indian society. The concept of violence encompasses physical violence, psychological violence and structural violence. Landlessness is increasingly becoming endemic in India's rural belt, as over 56 percent of the rural population has no landholdings.

*Factors Accounting for  
the Change*

NOTES

*Self - Instructional Material*

Indebtedness has been acknowledged as one of the most infamous stumbling blocks in the way of rural prosperity.

In this unit, you will learn the Rural Social Problems, Agrarian Unrest and Peasant Movements. You will learn Landlessness and Rural Indebtedness. You will study the Untouchability and Rural Violence in detail

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## **6.2 OBJECTIVES**

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NOTES

After going through the unit you will be able to;

- understand the Rural Social Problems
- gain the knowledge about Agrarian Unrest and Peasant Movements
- discuss about the Untouchability and Rural Violence
- Identify Rural Indebtedness

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## **6.3 RURAL SOCIAL PROBLEMS**

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Social problems are the general factors that affect and damage society. A social problem is normally a term used to describe problems with a particular area or group of people in the world. Social problems often involve problems that affect the real world. It also affects how people react to certain situations. Examples are include: Anti-social behaviour, Poverty, Drug abuse, Prostitution, Alcohol abuse, Economic Deprivation, Unemployment, Sexual abuse – Rape, Early pregnancy, Female genital mutilation

### **6.3.1 SOCIAL PROBLEMS IN INDIA**

The major social problems in India are: Population problems, 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.

### **6.3.2 DEFINITION OF RURAL SOCIAL PROBLEM**

A more precise, though broad, definition is given by E. Raab and G.J.Selznick. According to them, a social problem is “a problem in human relationship which seriously threatens society itself or impedes the important aspirations of many people.” In regard to the first aspect they say, “A social problem exists when organized society’s ability to order relationship among people seems to be failing; when its institutions are faltering, its laws are being flouted, the transmission of its values from one generation to the next is breaking down, and the framework of expectations is being shaken”. A social problem being thus defined, juvenile delinquency is to be seen “as a breakdown in society itself”.

### **6.3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF RURAL SOCIAL PROBLEMS**

The significant characteristics of the rural areas in India which are associated with certain social problems are:

- (a) People are directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture and a large number of landowners have small and medium-sized landholdings.

- (b) The upper caste people still hold large lands while people of the lower castes own either marginal land or work as landless labourers.
- (c) Rural people are scattered in comparison to the urban people.
- (d) Not only the norms and values but the practices of the rural people too continue to be traditional.
- (e) The price the farmers get for their produces is less in relation to the work they put in.

The standard of living of the rural farmers is very low and their exploitation by big landlords, intermediaries and moneylenders is far greater. The other rural problems are due to the fact that since the rural people do not live in concentrated masses, the availability of specialized services to them is minimal. This is true for medical, market, banking, transport, communication, education, recreation and many other necessary services for modern living. Thus, in a general way, people in the rural areas are at a great disadvantage and have to suffer many social problems.

#### **6.3.4 NATURE OF RURAL 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 challenge 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:

- a. **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.
- b. **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 occurrence. Sometimes one problem is so interwoven with other problems that it cannot be solved apart from them.
- c. **Inter-Connected:** Social problems are inter-connected due to which these become serious. For example, unemployment, poverty and crime are inter-connected.
- d. **Many Remedies:** The solution of the complex social problem requires various multisided remedies.
- e. **Relative Concept:** Social problem has relative concept. What we call a social problem in our society may not be a problem in other society. Similarly, a social problem of today may not be a problem of tomorrow.
- f. **Functional Value:** Social problem, though disintegrative, has functional value since its cure leads to social development.

However, the rural people are also facing some environmental problems due to their ignorance, illiteracy, poverty and superstitions.

**Some environmental problems faced by rural people are outlined below:**

**1. Poor sanitation**

Because of the illiteracy and poverty of the people in rural area, they do not know the importance of sanitation and hygiene. Such an ignorance causes environmental pollution leading to the break out of a number of epidemics like cholera, typhoid etc.

**2. Conversion of Farm land to housing land**

To provide shelter to the increased population in rural areas, more and more agricultural lands are being utilized for housing purposes by rural people. This results in decreased per capita availability of cultivated land which ultimately induces over cultivation.

**3. Lack of drainage facilities**

Lack of drainage facilities and open defecation make the rural areas filthy and unhygienic which directly or indirectly help in spreading of a number of diseases.

**4. Indiscriminate use of pesticides and fertilizers**

To increase the crop productivity for providing food to increased population, the illiterate rural farmers used a number of pesticides and fertilizers, not in proper amount. The excess of pesticides and agrochemicals accumulate in water bodies and soil causing potential health hazards in humans and other aquatic and terrestrial living organisms (animals).

**5. Salination, desertification and degradation of Lands**

The over cultivation of farm lands in rural area and misuse of water meant for irrigation lead to salination, desertification and land degradation.

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**6.4 AGRARIAN UNREST AND PEASANT MOVEMENTS**

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**6.4.1 AGRARIAN UNREST**

The old stable social structure of the village community with its varied institutions had experienced a severe jolt during the British period and is undergoing a very rapid, almost hectic transformation after Independence. The impact of elections based on universal franchise of increasing competitive profit-oriented production by peasants and of the emergence of various new institutions and associations-political, economic, social and administrative. The causes of these great conflicts and tensions have to be located instead in the rapid structural transformation of rural society and the impact it is making on the various strata of the rural people and not in the goodwill or ill will of the individual or the groups. This point has to be emphasised and a profounder analysis of the roots of unrest have to be made because a massive propaganda advocating ethical explanations and panaceas as well as stricter coercive law and order measures by the government have been launched to overcome the growing agrarian unrest. It should be noted here that there are types and types of conflicts.

**6.4.2 PEASANT MOVEMENT**

Peasant movement is a social movement involved with the agricultural policy. It has a long history that can be traced to the numerous peasant uprisings that occurred in various regions of the world throughout human history.

Anthony Pereira, a political scientist, has defined a peasant movement as a "social movement made up of peasants (small landholders

or farm workers on large farms), usually inspired by the goal of improving the situation of peasants in a nation or territory".

A peasant movement is defined as a relatively organized and continuous collective action involving violence, or the threat of violence for securing more share in the control or ownership of land and its produce and to abolish injustices, which have arisen thereof.

### **6.4.3 PEASANT MOVEMENTS IN INDIA**

According to Ghanshyam Shah, in India peasant movements are generally classified into pre-British, British or colonial and post-independence. According to Oommen there are certain movements which continue despite the changes in the political power.

These are the movements which started in the pre-independence era and are still continued though with different goals. The classification is also based on time span as the structure of agrarian system also differs from time to time so also the peasant movements.

The economic policies of British adversely affected the Indian peasants the British Govt. used to protect the landlords and money lenders, they exploited the peasants. The peasants rose in revolt against this injustice on many occasions. The peasants in Bengal formed their union and revolted against the compulsion of cultivating indigo.

Peasant movement in India was arose during the British colonial period, when economic policies characterized in the ruin of traditional handicrafts leading, change of ownership and overcrowding of land, and massive debt and impoverishment of peasantry. This led to peasant uprisings during the colonial period, and development of peasant movements in the post-colonial period. The Kisan Sabha movement started in Bihar under the leadership of Swami Sahajanand Saraswati who had formed in 1929 the Bihar Provincial Kisan Sabha (BPKS) in order to mobilise peasant grievances against the zamindari attacks on their occupancy rights. Gradually the peasant movement intensified and spread across the rest of India. All these radical developments on the peasant front culminated in the formation of the All India Kisan Sabha (AIKS) at the Lucknow session of the Indian National Congress in April 1936 with Swami SahajanandSaraswati elected as its first President. D. D. Kosambi and R.S. Sharma, together with Daniel Thorner, brought peasants into the study of Indian history for the first time.

A.R. Desai classified the colonial India into the following areas under the British rule as Ryotwari, the areas under the princely authority as Zamindari and tribal zones. A.R. Desai calls the movements as "peasant struggles" in the colonial period and those of post-independence era as "agrarian struggles". The phrase "agrarian struggles" according to A.R. Desai refers not only to include peasants but also others.

He further divides the post-independence agrarian struggles into two categories—the movements launched by the newly emerging proprietary classes comprising rich farmers, viable sections of the middle peasant proprietors and the streamlined landlords; and second, the

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movements launched by various sections of the agrarian poor in which the agrarian proletariat have been acquiring central importance.

The post-independent India there was a centralized political authority and a capitalist mode of production acting as driving forces, there has not yet evolved a unified agrarian pattern. The capitalist mode of agriculture has developed in a few states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra, and Punjab. The classification also varies in accordance with the theoretical framework. Kathleen Gough classifies the peasant revolts into five categories.

They are:

6. Restorative rebellions to drive out the British and restore earlier rulers and social relations.
7. Religious movements for the liberation of a region or an ethnic group under a new form of government.
8. Social banditry.
9. Terrorist vengeance with the idea of meting out collective justice.
10. Mass insurrections for the redressal of particular grievances.

#### **6.4.4 AGRARIAN UNREST AND PEASANT MOVEMENTS**

The primary aim of the permanent settlement was to extract maximum public revenue through zamindars. Until the first half of the nineteenth century, no attention was paid to mitigate the deteriorating condition of actual cultivators. Each successive government regulations strengthen the zamindars to realise their demands on the tenants [Ray, S.C., 1915]. The Bengal Tenancy Act of 1885 recognised for the first time some rights of tenants. However, mere declaration of the Act annoyed the zamindars and raised the expectations of the tenants. This sharply increased the agrarian tensions.

The first of the series of 'new' agrarian movements in Bihar was the celebrated "Champaran Satyagraha" of 1917. This marked the beginning of the process whereby, the 'traditional' peasantry was drawn into the vortex of contemporary agitation under the 'modern' leadership. But in this movement, the local peasant elites played a major role and the majority of peasantry remained passive. The movement itself was an attempt by the rich peasantry to remove hurdles which had been imposed on them by the English planters. However, the very nature of the leadership placed limitations on the movement. It remained directed against the European planters and did not touch the local exploitative elements; neither could it take the poor peasantry into its fold. But in the rest of Bihar agrarian tension was brewing over in a wider sphere, which was channelised by the Kisan Sabha.

Agrarian struggles, under the Kisan sabha, were at its peak in the couple of years before and after 1947. Some old issues together with new ones were taken up. *Bakasht* struggle, anti-eviction movement, *taccavi* loans issue, minimum wage struggle, canal rent, were some of the issues which rocked the post-independence agrarian society. Meanwhile, CPI was banned due to its engagement in Telangana struggle. Other parties came under the perview of the Public Safety Act imposed in 1947. However, there was absolute confusion about the character of 'Independence'.

Movement of agricultural labourers sharply increased in the post-war period. From 1946 onwards, CPI waged many struggles of agricultural labourers, encompassing wage demands and the issue of homestead tenancy. In the thirteenth conference of the AIKS in 1953, a call was issued to establish firm unity between *Khet Mazdoors* and the *Kisans*. By uniting local organisations, Bihar State Khet Mazdoor Sabha (later renamed the Bihar Rajya Khet Mazdoor Union) was formed in 1956 by the CPI. In 1958, the National Council of the CPI adopted a resolution to separate agricultural labourers from the *Kisans* and form an organisation separate from the AIKS. The Socialists also formed Khet Mazdoor Panchayat. Congress formed an All India Khetihar Mazdoor Sangha.

The struggle of the agricultural labourers got fillip after the formation of the Khet Mazdoor Union by the CPI. Struggles waged against social oppression and for higher wages. By 1957, struggles had spread throughout Gaya District under the able leadership of Karyanand Sharma. In few places wages had been enhanced. But the movement slackened after 1958 when the CPI changed its policy. Further, drought condition had already set in by 1965 and Karyanand Sharma, the moving spirit of the movement, died in the same year. This movement could last only for a short time.

By the middle of the 1960s, situation took a new turn. Due to enactment of various legislations and number of rights and privileges to the rural poor, expectation of the agricultural labourers was rising higher. But in actuality, neither the minimum wage legislation nor the Homestead Tenancy Act served any purpose. This further heightened the tension of the agrarian proletariat. On the other hand, landlords were becoming more apprehensive and aggressive. To suppress the rising demands of the downtrodden, they acted much in excess of the 'crime'. Vengeance of the landlords was unheard of even during Zamindari Rule. Between 1972-77, the landlords in Nalanda district killed 142 landless labourers and perpetrated innumerable cases of assault, torture, fine, eviction, molestation and rape of women [Sinha, 1977]. In Rupaspur - Chandwa village of Purnea district, the local landlord along with his hundreds of hooligans burnt down all huts of Adivasi bataidars, shot dead everyone including women and children. The landlord was a stalwart of the Congress Party. In yet another incident, landlord of Madhuban village of Monghyr district paraded six harijan women naked and marked their private parts with red hot irons. The ghastly crime was committed in broad day light and in front of villagers, just to teach the agricultural labourers a lesson.

However, prices began to rise sharply after the War with China in 1962. Situation further deteriorated due to severe drought of 1966 in which 13 out of 17 districts of Bihar were officially declared under famine. This further sharpened the agrarian contradiction. The agrarian poor started sporadic struggles. Their apathy and passivity turned into activism. The most striking feature of this phase of the movement, particularly of the 1960s and 1970s, was that the main participants were the lower orders of the peasantry - the poor peasants, sharecroppers, and agricultural labourers belonging mainly to the Harijan-Adivasi section. They were fighting not absentee landlordism as in the zamindari period, but the new rich peasantry. Zamindari abolition had made the erstwhile upper sections of

the tenantry the new exploiters. Many parties were formed to guard the interest of the agrarian poor. Left Parties played significant role, yet they failed to redress the basic economic hardship of the agrarian proletariat. This in turn, prepared ground for rise and development of ultra-left parties in rural India. Let us dwell up on the role of the left parties in the agrarian structure.

Peasant movements led by Marxist and Socialists- such as Telangana Movement (1946-51), Tebagma movement (1946-1949), Kagodu Satyagraha (1951), Naxalbari Movement (1967) and Lalgarh movement (2009).

#### **6.4.4.1 The Tebhaga Movement (1946–47)**

The Tebhaga movement was manifested in the undivided Bengal in mid 1940s centering around a demand for *tebhaga* (two-third shares) by share croppers of their produce for themselves, instead of one-half traditionally given to them by the *jotedars*—a class of intermediary land owners. This movement grew against the backdrop of the flourishing interest of the intermediary class of land owners on the one hand and that of the deterioration of the economic status of the agricultural labourers, share croppers and poor peasants on the other. The deteriorating economic condition of the lowest strata was reflected in the rapid expansion in the number of the share croppers and agricultural labourers in the Bengal agrarian society of the time. Report of the Land Revenue Commission in 1940 observed that of 8,547,004 inquired acres all over the Bengal Province undivided Bengal 592,335 acres were transferred, of which 31.7 per cent was turned over to *barga* (sharecropping) and 24.6 per cent to under-tenants (LRC 1940, Vol. 2: 120). The traders, moneylenders and intermediary landowners exploited to the hilt the poverty of the poor peasant and lent him money at usurious rates of interest. When the poor peasant was unable to repay the debt and lost his land to the creditor, he was resettled on the same land on condition that he handed over half of the produce to the creditor. The peasants who were not settled on it as sharecroppers became agricultural labourers. The Land Revenue Commission pointed out in 1940 that agricultural labourer constituted 22.5 per cent of the total number of families of Bengal.

The exploitative intermediacy systems of land tenure, which was introduced through the Permanent settlement, had furthered the process of downward mobilisation of the peasantry of Bengal. The emerging patterns of exploitation and social oppression, impoverishment and pauperization of the peasantry got institutionalized during the British rule (Rasul 1974). Questions pertaining to the deteriorating economic condition of the peasantry received organized focus since early 1920s with the formation of the Communist Party of India (CPI) 1921, the Workers and Peasants Party (WPP) 1922 and the Krishak Praja Party (KPP) in 1929. The Bengal Kisan Sabha (VKS), a provincial branch of the All India Kisan Sabha (AIKS) was formed in 1936. The KPP won the provincial election with promise to abolish the intermediary system of land ownership. In November 1946, the BKS passed a resolution in Calcutta for '*Tebhaga*' (two thirds share of the produced crops) for the share croppers and '*langal jar janin tar*' (land to the tiller).

North Bengal, especially the Dinajpur district became centre of the BKS activism because of the high intensity of the share cropping system of land cultivation there. The poor peasantry of Khanpur village, who were mostly from the scheduled castes (Rajbansi, Polia, and Mali), the scheduled tribes (the Oroan, ColkamarSantal) and ex-tribes (Mahato) responded spontaneously to this movement. When the movement escalated into mass action, the share croppers began to harvest paddy and carry it to their own *kholan* (courtyard) under the instructions of the local leaders. In a surcharged situation of heightening tension the local landowner filed a FIR against the share croppers. Early on the morning of 20 February 1947 police entered the village and arrested a few share croppers. A vast mass of poor peasants and share croppers from both Khanpur and its neighbouring villages, armed with bows and arrows, *lathis* and axes, surged on the police. They demanded the release of their share croppers. But the police were adamant and ended up firing 119 rounds, injuring hundreds and killing 22 share croppers, including two women.

The episode of Khanpur triggered off the Tebhaga movement very quickly in most part of Bengal. Poor peasants ignoring their conventional ties with the landowners declined to share half of their produce with the land owners.

#### **6.4.4.2 The Telangana Movement (1946-52)**

The Telangana Movement (1946-52) of Andhra Pradesh was fought against the feudal oppression of the rulers and local land owners. The agrarian social structure of Hyderabad emerged to be very oppressive in 1920s and thereafter. The process of the sub-in feudation in the landholding accentuated the insecurity of the tenants and the poor peasants. The Harijans and the tribal were the worst sufferers under this system (Dhanagare, 1983). Besides the unbridled feudal exploitation, the Muslim ruler also maintained the utter isolation of from the vast masses of his Hindu subjects (Sundarayya, 1985).

The Indian National Congress, Andhra Jana Sangam and Andhra Maha Sabha (AMS) raised the issue of poor condition of the peasantry of Telangana since late 1920s. Several resolutions were passed against the *jagirdari* and the *vetti* system by the AMS. Under the auspices of the AMS the JagirRyotu Sangham was formed in 1940 to bring pressure upon the government to solve the problems of the *jagir* peasants working under the *jogirdars*. Significantly the Andhra Communist Party was established in 1934. After the ban on the Communists was lifted in 1942, they captured the leadership of AMS. They raised the issues of 'abolition of *vetti*', 'prevention of rack-renting and eviction of tenants', 'reduction of taxes, revenue and rents', 'confirmation of occupancy (*patta*) rights of the cultivating tenants', and so on. All these processes of mobilisation of the peasantry increased tensions in the rural areas of Telengana, which ultimately culminated into the political consciousness of the peasants, and gradually there was a new awakening.

It was against such forced labour and illegal exaction and against eviction of the poor tenants that the peasantry of the Telangana region of Hyderabad State waged innumerable struggles. The beginnings of the Telangana armed struggles were against the atrocities of Vishnur Ramchandra Reddy, the *deshmukh* in Jangaon tehsil of Nalgonda district, in 1946.

The movement took a new turn with India attaining independence in 1947, and the subsequent refusal of the Nizam to join the Indian Union. The CPI openly called for a guerrilla struggle against the *razakars* (state paramilitary wing) and the government forces by forming village defense committees and by providing arms training to the *dalamas* (armed squads). The administrative machinery of the Nizam came to a standstill in nearly 4000 villages. In its place were established *gram rajyas* (village administrative units). *Vetti* was abolished, and some 1.2 million acres of land was redistributed very quickly. Unpaid debts were cancelled, tenants were given full tenancy rights, toddy tappers got back rights over trees, untouchability was abolished and a new social awareness became visible. Armed women defended themselves against the *razakars*. With the Nizam refusing to merge with the independent Indian Union, the Indian government initiated army action against the Nizam, and subsequently against the CPI in September 1948.

Several lakhs of people in thousands of villages were subjected to police and military raids and to cruel lathi-charges; the people in the course of these military and police raids lost property worth millions of rupees, which were either looted or destroyed; thousands of women were molested and had to undergo all sorts of humiliations and indignities’.

#### **6.4.4.3 Naxalite Movement (1967–71)**

The agrarian society of independent India experienced a new epoch in the history of peasant movements with the peasant uprising of May 1967 under the Naxalbari *thana* of Darjeeling district of West Bengal. Immediately after the country’s independence, the Govt. of West Bengal enacted the West Bengal Estate Acquisition Act (1953) to abolish the *zamindari* and other intermediary systems and the West Bengal Land Reform Act (1955) to put a ceiling on landholdings, to reserve for the share croppers 60 per cent of the produced share, and to put a restriction on the eviction of share croppers. The sharecroppers who constituted 16 per cent of the rural households in 1952-53 came down to 2.9 per cent in 1961- 62. Though because of malafide land transfer proportion of the marginal and the small cultivators increased among the rural population, in real term poor peasantry was undergoing a desperate situation caused by their livelihood insecurity. This was clearly visible from the phenomenal increase of the agricultural labourers from 15.3% in 1961 to 26.2 in 1971 and the decline of the category of cultivators 38.5% to 32 % during the same period (Census of India 1961, 1971). Significantly the All India Credit Committee in its report of 1968 pointed out to the ‘emergence of sharp polarization between classes in the rural areas’ (Govt. of India: 1968)

In this backdrop while the economic condition of the poor peasantry was deteriorating, the political happenings in West Bengal took a new turn. In February 1967 the United Front (dominated by the communal parties viz. CPI, CPI (M) RSP etc.) came to with the promise like ‘land to the tiller’, ‘proletarian rule’, etc. The United Front pledged to implement the land reforms, promising land to all landless households and invited more militant initiatives from the peasantry as an organized force. The Left political parties had initiated rigorous mobilisation of the peasantry in the Naxalbari areas since the early 1960s when the landowners of the Naxalbari region started large-scale eviction of share croppers. The CPI-M

Darjeeling district committee started to organize the peasants on a militant footing after the United Front Government was formed. .

The Naxalite movement spread rapidly in many parts of the country, protracted arm resistance, declaration of liberated area, killing and arrest became a regular phenomenon in the agrarian society of West Bengal. By the end of June 1967 the CPI-M leadership came out against the Naxalbari leaders, calling them ‘an organized anti-party group was advocating an adventuristic line of action’. Nineteen members were then expelled from the party. The rift was complete. Moving through the stages of the Naxalbari Peasant’s Struggle Aid Committee and a Coordination Committee, the CPI-ML was finally formed in May 1969 by the organized militant groups

#### **6.4.5 Emerging Agrarian Social and Peasants Movements**

The agrarian societies of Andhra Pradesh (AP) and West Bengal (WB) have undergone a phenomenal change since the proliferation of the radical peasant movements. Both the states have initiated the elaborated land reform programmes affecting the agrarian social structure there in. A recent report shows that the Government of West Bengal had, till September 2000, distributed 1.045 million acres of land amongst 2.544 million beneficiaries. During this period the names of 1.495 million sharecroppers were recorded involving an area of 1.105 million acres of land (Government of West Bengal. 2002). This process of implementation of land reforms has diversely affected the patterns of land holding and the agrarian relations prevailing in Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal.

#### **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 social problem?
2. What is called peasant movement?
3. What are the peasant movements leads by Marxist?

### **6.5 UNTOUCHABILITY**

The evil practice of untouchability has been a universal phenomenon throughout Indian society. There has been no period in course of her history, which has not experienced this evil. Social rules and regulations concerning this practice also vary from one region to another which prohibits the formulation of a comprehensive and logical definition. According to Gandhi, “Untouchables are those suffering from many social as well as legal disabilities and living at the mercy of the people from higher strata.”

#### **6.5.1 Definition of Untouchability:**

It is extremely difficult to define untouchability. In fact, it implies those disabilities which were imposed upon the scheduled castes by the superior castes. In Untouchability Offences Act 1955, the word untouchability was given this connotation. According to it, it is an offence to prevent any person on the ground of untouchability (a) from entering any place of public worship which is open to other persons, professing the same religion, (b) from worshipping or offering prayers or performing any

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religious service in any place of public worship or bathing in or using the water of any sacred tank, well, spring or water-course in the same manner as is permissible to other persons professing the same religion; and (c) from access to or use of a shop, hotel, public restaurant or place of public entertainment or public conveyance or hospital dispensary or educational institution or charitable trust.” Dr. Bhīma Rao Ambedkar and Mahatma Gandhi have also defined untouchability on the basis of some disabilities. In this way disabilities are a sign of untouchability. Dr. D.N.Majumdar has written, “The untouchable castes are those who suffer from various social and political disabilities many of which are traditionally prescribed and socially enforced by higher castes” In brief, untouchables are those castes which are subject to some disabilities in every walk of life social, religious, economic and political. This definition will be further clarified by a detailed description of these disabilities.

**Disabilities of Untouchables:**

Untouchables suffer from the following disabilities:-

- (i) **Religious disabilities** – In India the Harijans were subjected to various religious disabilities in the society. They were prevented from entering temples, monasteries and cremation grounds, and could not make use of them because it was believed that these places would become impure by their touching them. In this way the Harijans could not worship in the temple. Their presence was considered sufficient to defile the gods, let alone their worshippers.
- (ii) **Social disabilities** : In the social sphere the disabilities of the Harijans are the following :
  - a. **Prevention from the use of public roads**- Hudson has written that the presence of a particular untouchable caste in Tamil Nadu was considered so derogatory that their members were prevented from using the public roads in the day times and consequently they were obliged to do their work at night. Their shadow was enough to defile the members of the higher castes of dalit would adopt a prostrate posture upon the ground so that their shadow may not fall on the member of higher castes.
  - b. **Prevention from the use of public wells** – In almost all Indian villages the dalit were forbidden to use the well for drawing water. In Bengal they were permitted to come near the well but not allowed to draw water from it. Only a higher caste hindu could draw water for them. In some other states the untouchables were not permitted even to approach the well.
  - c. **Prevention from entering schools** – The Dalit children did not have the right to enter the schools because if they sit down to study along with other children, it would have defiled the latter.
  - d. **Other social restrictions** –In marriage the dalit bride and bridegroom were not allowed to sit in the palanquin. The hair dresser would not tend their hair. The washer man would not wash their clothes and the shopkeeper would not supply them food.
- (iii) **Economic disabilities**: Harijans did not have permission to engage in the profession of the higher castes. Their conventional occupations were dirty and soiled and their means for earning their bread and butter

were limited. They are burdened with debt while poverty and famine conditions prevail among them.

### 6.5.2 Effect of Untouchability

In Caste and Class in India, Ghurye has written that in Poona, during the reign of the Marathas the untouchable castes Mahar and Mang were not allowed to enter the gates of towns between 3pm and 9am because the shadows are not their longest at this time and there is the fear of the higher Brahmins being defiled. In Maharashtra the Mahar caste could spit only in small containers tied around their neck because they spit upon the road it might defile some superior Hindu by touching his foot.

### 6.5.3 Fundamental Causes of Untouchable

In 'Caste in India' J.H.Hutton writes, "The origin of the position of exterior castes is partly racial, partly religious and partly a matter of social custom." In this way, the three fundamental causes of untouchability are racial, religious and social factors.

- i. **Racial Factors:** In Garhwala the bride and bridegroom belonging to the artisan and Harijan castes, which had low social status, were not allowed the use of the palanquin or the horse. The cause of this has been explained by some sociologists to be the advent of the higher castes from the plains into the native homeland of the artisans and Harijans.
- ii. **Religious Factors:** Religious beliefs and conventions are also causes of untouchability. In religion much importance is attributed to purity and divinity. Thus it was considered essential to abstain from the people who engage in impure occupations. In the words of Dr. Ghurye, "Idea of purity, whether occupational or ceremonial, is found to have been a factor in the genesis of caste or the very soul of the idea and practice of untouchability." It was the sense of purity which led to the sweepers and cobblers being designated as untouchables in Hindu society.
- iii. **Social Factors-** Social customs and conventions shared the burden of maintaining the untouchability recognised by the religious and racial causes. Social convention is so influential that even the members of the untouchable castes dare not violate the customs of untouchability.

### 6.5.4 Efforts to Eradicate Untouchability

In the paragraph 46 of the Indian Constitution much emphasis has been laid upon the spread of education among the backward castes and the protection of their economic interest. Para 15(1) - The state will not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them.

(2) No citizen shall, on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, place of birth or any of them, be subject to any disability, restriction or condition with regard to :-

(a) Access to shops, public restaurants, hotels and places of public entertainment, or

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(b) The use of wells, tanks, bathing ghats, roads and places of public resort maintained wholly or partly out of state funds, or dedicated to the use of the general public.

Para 16(1) - There shall be equality of opportunity for all citizens in matters relating to employment or appointment to any office under the state.

(2) No citizen shall on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, descent, place of birth, residence or any of them, be ineligible for or discriminated against in respect of any employment or office under the state.

(3) Nothing in this article shall prevent Parliament from making any law prescribing, in regard to a class or classes of employment or appointment to any office under any state specified in the First Schedule or any local or other authority within its territory, any requirement as to residence within that state prior to such employment or appointment.

Para 17- 'Untouchability' is abolished and its practice in any form forbidden. The enforcement of any disability arising out of 'untouchability' shall be an offence punishable in accordance with law.

Article 320 (1) – Seats shall be reserved in the house of the people for:-

(a) The scheduled castes:

(b) The scheduled tribes except the scheduled tribes in the tribal areas of Assam; and

(c) The scheduled tribes in the autonomous districts of Assam.

(2) The number of seats reserved in any state for the scheduled castes or the scheduled tribes under clause (1) shall bear, of as nearly as may be the same proportion to the total number of seats allotted to that state. Article 335- The claims of the members of the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes shall be taken into consideration, consistently with the maintenance of efficiency of administration, in the making of appointments to service and posts in connection with the affairs of the union or of a state.

### **6.5.5 Economic Improvement**

Realising the financial problems of the Harijans, the Government have taken the following steps in the direction of their financial improvement-

- (i) In nearly all the States of India laws have been enacted for defending the untouchables from the Mahajans.
- (ii) In Bihar and Orissa the Harijans had to become slaves of the money lenders in the event of their inability to repay debt. Now this tradition has come to an end due to new laws.
- (iii) In Andhra, Bihar, Orissa, Bombay, Madras, Uttar Pradesh and Saurashtra the Government have turned useless and unoccupied land into cultivable land and distributed it among the Harijans.
- (iv) The government of Andhra, Bihar, Orissa, Assam, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal and Bhopal has enacted laws by virtue of which the Harijan cultivating the land is to be considered the land owner and cannot be deprived of it.

- (v) The Government is giving financial assistance to the Harijans in order that they may be able to buy agricultural implements, animals, manure, superior seeds, modern tools of agriculture etc.
- (vi) Assistance to Agriculture, Cottage Industries and Animal Husbandry is being given to Harijan.
- (vii) The Government of India is also providing aid to non-governmental institutions which are exerting effort for the eradication of untouchability.
- (viii) The educational facilities provided by the Government to the Harijans are in the form of free education, scholarships, books, stationary and other educational materials.
- (ix) According to the Indian Constitution candidature had been reserved in government services for untouchables for a period of ten years. Not only in central government services but also in state government services these seats are reserved even now.

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#### **6.5.6 Non-Governmental Efforts**

Besides the programme for political awakening, the Indian National Congress made efforts for the eradication of untouchability. The attempts made by Gandhiji in this direction are well known. As a result of his efforts the untouchables slowly got rid of their social disabilities. The doors of the universities, temples, public places etc. were opened to them. In the beginning the superior Hindus opposed these improvements but they later agreed to them. Besides the congress many other political parties took part in the emancipation of the Harijans.

#### **6.5.7 Suggestions for the Eradication of Untouchability**

The methods of eradication of untouchability are now known to all educated people. The following suggestions can be made in this direction

1. Education should be spread among the Harijans and this should include both general education as well as technical education. Education should be free, coupled with facilities of scholarship, books, stationary, hostels etc.
2. The Harijans should be provided with land, animals, ploughs, seeds, manure and agricultural tools for agriculture. Financial assistance for cottage industries should be supplemented by technical training.
3. Laws removing the religious disabilities which burden the Harijans should also be enforced.
4. Platform speeches, radio, newspaper, the press and other means of communication should assist in the propaganda against untouchability.
5. In spite of the enforcement of all the above mentioned measures, it will take the Harijans a long time to achieve equality with the superior castes. Thus, until they do so, same places should be reserved for them in the government services.
6. It is necessary that seats should be reserved for the Harijans in the legislatures for some time to come.

7. The eradication of the caste system is very essential for the removal of untouchability.
8. It is necessary that there should be a ever increasing contact between the Harijans and the caste/Hindus.

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## **6.6 RURAL VIOLENCE**

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The concept of violence encompasses physical violence, psychological violence and structural violence. Thus, violence can be any act that threatens a person's physical and psychological integrity and it also can be racism, forced labour and denial of fundamental rights to the citizens. Violence can be caused either by individual, a group of people, the state itself or society as a whole.

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### **6.6.1 DEFINITIONS OF VIOLENCE**

The definition of violence exists. Definitions vary, depending on the perspective of the definer. The dictionary defines violence as "physical force employed so as to violate damage, or abuse." In the literature, violence is variously described as "behaviors by individuals that intentionally threaten, attempt, or inflict physical harm on others" (Reissand Roth, 1993) and as "the use of physical force with the intent of causing injury or death"

(Rosenberg, Stark, and Zahn, 1986). CSAP defines violence as "an act that causes physical, psychological, and emotional harm to an individual, family, or community." Despite the variations, all these definitions have one thing in common: they all define violence as the intentional infliction of some type of harm. CSAP's definition is particularly useful, because it recognizes the psychological and emotional consequences of violence.

Violence can be divided into two broad categories-Direct violence and Structural violence. Direct violence is an act of deliberate attack on physical or psychological integrity of a human being. It is also called as somatic violence. As described earlier, it is a commonly understood form of violence as it is easily observable and often illustrated in the media all over the world. This category includes all forms of homicide like massacre of citizen, civil war and political crimes. It also includes any form of brutal action like torture, rape, kidnapping and forced removal, (inflicting upon the victim) where the victim is inflicted with physical and psychological suffering.

The second form of violence –Structural violence is also called as indirect violence. It is a situation in which there is no necessary direct relationship between the victim and the aggressor. Johan Galtung conducted a pioneering research in structural violence. In the 1960s, he studied various forms of violence and showed that the state could resort to structural violence against its citizens, for him, defining violence purely in somatic terms was incomplete. Violence, for Galtung, was a cause of difference between the potential and the actual. The potential level of realization is that which is possible with a given level of insight and resources. If, however, insight and resources are monopolized by a group, or a class, the actual level falls below the potential level, which Galtung referred to as the level where the perpetuation of violence is a cause of concern. In the case of war, violence is direct and killing or hurting a person

causes 'actual somatic realisation'. In indirect violence, insight and resources are channeled away so as to deny chances for the events to reach a potential level.

Structural violence includes the following three types of violence

- ✓ First-Violence by Omission, when the state fails to provide adequate help and protection to human beings who are in danger like social violence or environment hazards like hurricanes and earthquakes
- ✓ Second-Repressive Violence, when basic rights are denied like participation in day to day social and economic life or right to property.
- ✓ Finally-Alienating Violence, when citizens are deliberately targeted at work, school, and public places etc.

## 6.6.2 DIFFERENT TYPES OF VIOLENCE

### 1. Direct Violence

(Deliberate injury to the physical and psychological integrity of a human being)

#### *Homicide*

Genocide, Massacre, Murder

#### *Brutal Acts*

Torture, Rape, Maltreatment

#### *Restrictions or physical constraints*

Forced removal of population, Kidnapping, Taking of hostages, Imprisonment, Forced labour

### 2. Indirect violations of the rights

Violence *by Omission* (non-assistance to the human being in danger; non-satisfaction of vital material needs)

Lack of protection against social violence (hunger, disease, poverty)

Lack of protection against accidents

Lack of protection against natural violence (hurricanes, earthquakes)

*Mediated Violence* (dangerous modifications *or* the natural and social environment) .

*Repressive Violence* (deprivation of fundamental rights)

#### *Social rights*

Denial of trade unionism, Denial of social equality, Denial of participation in social and economic life, Denial of protection of material, individual and collective property,

*Civil rights*(denial of protection from the state)

*Political rights* (denial of democratic participation in political life)

*Alienating Violence* (Deprivation of higher rights)

Alienating living conditions (at work, home, school)

Social ostracism (hostility against certain members and group of society like women and children)

Ethnocide

- Violence against women is a social, economic, developmental, legal, educational, human rights, and health (physical and mental) issue.
- It is a preventable cause of morbidity and mortality in women
- The relationship between violence against women and mental illness has not been adequately explored.

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- Application of laws related to violence in the setting of mental illness is difficult
- Despite the social and religious sanctions against it in all cultures, it has continued.

### **Sociocultural factors dis favouring women**

The National Commission for Women: It was set up as a statutory body in January 1992 under the National Commission for Women Act 1990.

### NOTES

The Supreme Court guidelines on sexual harassment at work place: For the first time, the Court drew upon an international human rights law instrument, the CEDAW to pass a set of guidelines. The Court defined sexual harassment at work place as any unwelcome gesture, behavior, words or advances that are sexual in nature. "It shall be the duty of the employer or other responsible persons in work places or other institutions to prevent or deter the commission of acts of sexual harassment and to provide the procedures for the resolution, settlement or prosecution of acts, of sexual harassment by taking all steps required."

The legislation relating to violence against women comprises the Indian Penal Code (IPC), civil law and special laws.

### **Dowry and dowry death**

The Dowry Prohibition Act (DPA), 1961 applies to all people, Hindus, Muslims, Christians, Parsis and Jews. Giving, taking or abetting the giving or taking of dowry is an offence, which is punishable. Several states (Bihar, West Bengal, Orissa, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, and Punjab) amended the DPA to give it more teeth. The law was found to fail to stall the evil.

### **Abetment of suicide of child or insane person**

If any person under 18 years of age, any insane person, any delirious person, any idiot, or any person in a state of intoxication, commits suicide, whoever abets the commission of such suicide, shall be punished with death or imprisonment for life or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 10 years and shall also be liable for fine (305 IPC). However, the difficulty is that if it is shown the victim has major mental illness, the benefit of doubt is given to the accused and he is acquitted.

### **Abetment of suicide**

If any person commits suicide, whoever abets the commission of such suicide shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 10 years and shall also be liable for fine (306 IPC). 113-A of Indian Evidence Act, 1872, relates to the presumption as to abetment of suicide. The offences of dowry and abetment of suicide are cognizable, nonbailable and non-compoundable.

## Sexual offences

A man is said to have committed rape if he has sexual intercourse with a woman against her will and consent; or with her consent when the man knows that he is not her husband or when she thinks that he is her lawful husband; or with her consent when she is of unsound mind or is intoxicated by herself or the man. However, sexual intercourse by a man with his own wife, the wife not being under 15 years, is not rape (375 IPC). The latter provision seems deficient as it does not include marital rape.

**The Commission of Sati (prevention) Act, 1987:** This Act is for the prevention and glorification of sati.

Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005: The Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act (PWDVA), 2005 was enacted to provide for more effective protection of the rights of women guaranteed under the constitution who are victims of violence of any kind occurring within the family and for matters connected there to. It recognizes 4 types of domestic violence: Physical, verbal, and emotional (including not having a child or a male child, marrying without consent), and economic (including violence related to stridhan, dowry, property) and sexual (includes sexual abuse and marital rape).

Legislation by itself would not suffice because violence against women is a deep rooted social problem. It is worth quoting late Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru, who remarked: "Legislation cannot by itself normally solve deep rooted social problems. One has to approach them in other ways too, but legislation is necessary and essential and hence that it may give that push and have educative factors, as well as the legal sanctions behind it, which help public opinion to be given a certain shape."

Women cannot solve the problems by themselves. Women should understand men and men should understand women. Both should work together to eradicate the menace.

### Check your progress - 2

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 untouchability according to Gandhi
5. Define - Violence

## 6.7 LANDLESSNESS

*Landlessness is increasingly becoming endemic in India's rural belt, as over 56 percent of the rural population has no landholdings. For decades, there has hardly been any attempt to bring in land reforms in India, even as this critical index affects income, social security, health and education, among other factors that impact households. This two-part series attempts to study the gravity of the situation and suggest ways to address it. This is the first part of the series.*

The farmers may have lifted their siege and gone away but a 25,000-strong group of landless poor are marching towards Delhi from Gwalior with their own set of demands: a national land reform

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policy, implementation of the Forest Rights Act and right to agricultural land, among others.

The word 'landless' conjures up the black and white images of a breathless Balraj Sahni running furiously on the streets of Kolkata as he pulls his cart carrying a young man goading him to run faster and faster to catch up with his love interest. The end is tragic, both in the scene when one of the wheels gives in and at the end of the movie when he and his family bid adieu and walk away from their land, *Do Bigha Zamin* – having lost it to the zamindar and where a mill is coming up.

In 1951, the 'landless agriculture labour' numbered just 27.3 million which went up to 144.3 million (or 14.4 crore) in 2011. The Socio-Economic and Caste Census of 2011, which acknowledged and counted landlessness as a major indicator of poverty, put the 'households with no land' at 56.41 percent of total rural households or 101 million households. With a mean household size of 4.9 in rural India (as per the 2011 Census), the number of landless comes to 494.9 million (or 49.49 crore).

It took quite some time for the enormity of the issue to hit home in the liberalised era. In 2009, the rural development ministry's Committee on State Agrarian Relations and Unfinished Task of Land Reforms pointed out that landlessness had witnessed a phenomenal rise from about 40 percent in 1991 to about 52 percent in 2004-5. It explained why: "While all the enhanced landlessness cannot be attributed to the liberalisation process alone the non-agricultural demands placed on land on account of industrialisation, infrastructural development, urbanisation and migration of the urban rich in the rural areas have certainly contributed to the process."

It also explained why landlessness has gone out of economic consciousness: "The post-liberalisation era has been marked by a debate. There is the view that the possibilities of Land Reforms have exhausted and future growth is only to come from private investment in the rural areas. The protective legislation act as an inhibiting factor to this investment. Accordingly many States are proceeded to revise their legislation. Even within the Government there was the view that distributive justice programmes have been overtaken by development paradigm."

It is useful to remember that this committee was set up when the Maoist violence was at its peak with 220 districts (one-third of the total) declared as 'Maoist-affected' by the then Planning Commission of India.

There is no official assessment of how many became landless because of all the factors listed above but the report quoted eminent sociologist Walter Fernandes' study to peg the figure of people disposed of their land at 60 million during the period of 1947 to 2004, involving 25 million ha of land. The report particularly referred to the alienation of tribal land as "the biggest grab of tribal lands after Columbus" in which the state was held complicit. It considered alienation of land and other critical natural resources to be at the root of the social unrest and violence in the Maoist-affected areas.

The NSSO data shows that the average landholding (including landless) in rural India has gone down from 1.53 ha in 1971-72 to 0.59 ha

in 2013 — it halved between 1992 and 2013 — and 92.8 percent of rural households own less than 2 ha each. It also reflects another disturbing phenomenon -- marginalisation of rural landholdings. The larger landholdings of 1 to 10 ha or more are gradually shrinking since 1971-72 with more and more households falling into the marginal category (0.002-1 ha).

### **6.7.1 MARGINALISATION OF LANDHOLDING**

How does landlessness, or marginalisation of landholding, matter?

The 2013 draft National Land Reform Policy provides the answer: “Landlessness is a strong indicator of rural poverty in the country. Land is the most valuable, imperishable possession from which people derive their economic independence, social status and a modest and permanent means of livelihood. But in addition to that, land also assures them of identity and dignity and creates condition and opportunities for realizing social equality. Assured possession and equitable distribution of land is a lasting source for peace and prosperity and will pave way for economic and social justice in India.”

The landless are, in fact, the “poorest of the poor” -- according to the Government of India’s own admission, for whom, among others, it launched an insurance policy, AamAadmiBimaYojana (AABY), in 2007.

Here are some more sobering facts. The 2018 UNDP-OPHI report, Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), which hailed India for reducing poverty in the last one decade, also said that India “still has the largest number of people living with multidimensional poverty in the world (364 million)” – which is “higher than the combined populations of the most populous Western European countries, including Germany, France, UK, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Netherlands and Belgium”. Of the 364 million MPI poor, 113 million — or 8.6 percent of India’s population — live in “severe poverty”.

Surely, the landless fall within the MPI poor and deserve serious attention of the Delhi’s mandarins.

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## **6.8 RURAL INDEBTEDNESS**

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Indebtedness has been acknowledged as one of the most infamous stumbling blocks in the way of rural prosperity. It is cancerous, self-perpetuating, malignant and maleficent. It abates agricultural production, abashes social psyche, aggravates inequalities in the distribution of socioeconomic opportunities and benefits, arrests social progress and misdirects social efforts.

Within the given institutional structure of the Indian society it is felt that a cure for indebtedness is extremely difficult, if not impossible. It is so because poverty, coupled with unequal distribution of economic resources, breeds indebtedness, which in turn, consolidates the causes of poverty and distributional injustice. This vicious circle can, of course, be broken, but it requires a strong social will and a manifestation thereof in determined efforts to eradicate the problem of rural poverty and indebtedness.

There is a pressing need for identification of the weaker links of the said causal chain that makes the vicious circle. A prudent strategy to break the circle would attack these weaker links. The task of identification of the weaker links necessitates social research to be carried out. We must note that the problem of rural indebtedness is not sociological, economic or

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political problem in isolation; it is a serious and crucial problem that has its roots in the social, political and economic texture of the society.

### **Resolution of Some Conceptual Issues**

We envisage that 'indebtedness' is a term surrounded by several overtones and therefore, the concept must be freed from the penumbra of fuzziness caused by the cacophony. In our context, the cacophony has been mainly due to the discordant overtones, some emanating from the indigenous background and others from the exotic ones.

The lexicographic meaning of 'indebtedness' is the state (of a person, family or organization) of being under obligation (more often financial in nature). This meaning is largely free from overtones, but it is too wide to represent the concept that we intend it to do. We are aware of the fact that many households borrow for enterprise and repay the lender a share of the gains from the enterprise. Depending on the socioeconomic conditions, the dividend or the tribute paid to lender has been acknowledged as a payment or reward for abstinence from consumption, a reward for waiting, a reward for co-operation that has helped the enterprise to accrue gains or a reward for parting with the liquidity with an opportunity cost of speculative gains, that is, a reward for speculative gains foregone.

The optimistic hue may, however, be illusive if we forget that under certain socioeconomic conditions (quite familiar to us) the tribute paid to the lender is a payment made by the victim of the socioeconomic circumstances to those who command coercive powers and the social sanction for exercising those powers.

History teaches us the account of the reproach received by the lenders and users from most of the religious scriptures and social reformers. Indebtedness must be a curse, a plight, and a desolating experience.

In the Indian rural context, therefore, indebtedness should be pre-empted of the overtone of optimism. Indebtedness is not the state of being under the financial obligation undertaken on account of productive utilization of resources promoting economic achievement of the borrower; rather, it is the state of being under the financial obligation undertaken on account of compulsion and being ensnared in the cobweb of usury.

Indebtedness of an Indian rural household often finds its genesis in the borrowing on account of certain exigencies like accident or illness of a member of the household or a pressing need for certain social occasion like marriage, etc. There is no provision for institutional borrowing in such cases, the only source of loan is the local money lender who charges exorbitant interest for such a loan. Now the borrower does not have enough resources or income to enable him repay the debt, the principal multiplies itself rapidly to ensnare him in the cobweb of usury.

A farmer who has financed cultivation by borrowing has a scant chance of paying off his debt. If he has succeeded in raising some production, he is forced to dispose it off to the lender. In the literature on agricultural economics in India we often come across the terms like 'forced surplus' and 'perverse supply of food grains', etc. Indebtedness of the Indian peasantry explains all these 'surprises' and 'paradoxes' of a 'standard economist.' If prices of the agricultural produce increases (during the

period between the current and the next crop season) by a growth rate  $r_1$  and the principal (debt) multiplies itself by a growth rate  $r_2$  such that  $r_1$  is less than  $r_2$ , the current value of the output  $X$  as a means to optimize the debtor's gain is optimal only if  $X$  is sold at the current prices. Hence the farmer sells his produce at the harvest prices and pays his debt off.

We note therefore that indebtedness in the Indian rural context must be resonant with:

- (i). unproductive usage of loan,
- (ii). usurious ensnaring of the borrower,
- (iii). captivation of productive resources,
- (iv). exercise of coercive and exploitative economic and social powers by the lender,
- (v). compulsion, plight, misery and feeling of guilt and helplessness,
- (vi). erosion of social status of the borrower.

Thus viewed, indebtedness is not to be taken lightly and certainly not with an optimistic hue portrayed by the 'standard economics.'

### **6.8.1 MEASURES OF INDEBTEDNESS**

To measure the degree or intensity of indebtedness we must devise an index that represents all the six characteristics. For constructing such an index, we may take a number of indicators that represent one or more of these six dimensions. We propose the following indicators for the same:

1. Amount of unproductive or consumption loans (per capita) incurred by the household,
2. Per capita interest payment by the household,
3. Per capita loan as a ratio to the value of productive assets held by the household,
4. Amount of loan per cultivable area of land owned by the cultivator household,
5. Per capita loan as a ratio to the repaying capacity of the household.
6. Percentage of land holding/labour days made available to the lender on mortgage,
7. Forced sale of produce when prices are low (e.g. in the harvest season)
8. An appropriate measure of the feelings of compulsion, guilt and helplessness,
9. An appropriate measure of the feeling of offense to social status/erosion of social status,
10. An appropriate measure of a feeling about the coercive powers exercised by the lender.

It is obvious that the empirical work on constructing the indicators noted above may face a number of operational difficulties. The last three indicators may invoke the techniques often applied in psychology and attitudinal sociology.

#### **Check your progress - 3**

**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 landlessness?
7. What is the lexicographic meaning of 'indebtedness'?

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## **6.9 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we have discussed Rural Social Problems, agrarian unrest and peasant movements in Indian society. Untouchability and rural violence have also touched upon briefly. The causes of the emergence of radical peasant movement and the form and extent of participations of peasants in these movements have been discussed. The process of Landlessness and Rural Indebtedness is also analyzed. In this unit Rural Social Problems, Agrarian Unrest and Peasant Movements, Untouchability, rural violence, Landlessness and Rural Indebtedness are discussed in detail.

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## **6.10 UNIT- END- EXERCISES**

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1. Describe the characteristics of Rural Social Problems.
2. Explain in detail about Peasant Movements In India.
3. What are the Fundamental Causes of Untouchable?
4. Define - Rural Violence
5. What is called Landlessness?
6. What are the measures of Rural Indebtedness?

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## **6.11 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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1. A social problem exists when organized society's ability to order relationship among people seems to be failing; when its institutions are faltering, its laws are being flouted, the transmission of its values from one generation to the next is breaking down, and the framework of expectations is being shaken.
2. A peasant movement is defined as a relatively organized and continuous collective action involving violence, or the threat of violence for securing more share in the control or ownership of land and its produce and to abolish injustices, which have arisen thereof.
3. Telangana Movement (1946-51), Tebagma movement (1946-1949), Kagodu Satyagraha (1951), Naxalbari Movement (1967) and Lalgarh movement (2009).
4. Untouchables are those suffering from many social as well as legal disabilities and living at the mercy of the people from higher strata.
5. An act that causes physical, psychological, and emotional harm to an individual, family, or community.
6. Landlessness is increasingly becoming endemic in India's rural belt, as over 56 percent of the rural population has no landholdings.
7. The lexicographic meaning of 'indebtedness' is the state (of a person, family or organization) of being under obligation (more often financial in nature).

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## **6.12 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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## UNIT –VII POVERTY, UNEMPLOYMENT

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### Structure

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Poverty
  - 7.3.1 Definition of Poverty
  - 7.3.2 Type of Poverty
  - 7.3.3 Rural Poverty
  - 7.3.4 Poverty Alleviation Programmes
- 7.4 Unemployment
  - 7.4.1 Definition of unemployment
  - 7.4.2 Types of Unemployment
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  - 7.4.5 Steps Taken by Government
- 7.5 Seasonal unemployment
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- 7.6 Illiteracy
- 7.7 Superstitions
- 7.8 Drinking water
  - 7.8.1 Water Resources and Utilisation
  - 7.8.2 Rural Water Supply
    - 7.8.2.1 Early Independence (1947-1969)
    - 7.8.2.2 Transition from Technology to Policy (1969-1989)
    - 7.8.2.3 Restructuring Phase (1989-1999)
    - 7.8.2.4 Consolidation Phase (2000 Onwards)
- 7.9 Housing
- 7.10 Health and sanitation
  - 7.10.1 Rural Health
    - 7.10.1.1 History of rural health
    - 7.10.1.2 National Rural Health Mission
  - 7.10.2 Rural Sanitation
    - 7.10.2.1 Monitoring and Evaluation
- 7.11 Bonded and Migrant labourers
  - 7.11.1 Origins and Causes of India's Bonded Labour Problem
  - 7.11.2 Legal Restrictions and Enforcement
- 7.12 Let Us Sum Up
- 7.13 Unit- End- Exercises
- 7.14 Answer to check your Progress
- 7.15 Suggested Readings

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### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

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This unit presents a sociological analysis of poverty, specifically focusing on rural poverty, type of poverty, poverty line, Poverty alleviation programme. The most frequent measure of unemployment is the

unemployment rate. The **Seasonal Unemployment** means the demand for a specific kind of work and workers change with the change in the season. Illiteracy rates in many third world countries are alarmingly high. High illiteracy rates in rural parts of India are an area of the Indian education system that cannot be overlooked. Superstition refers to belief that certain event or things will bring good or bad luck. Meeting the drinking water needs of such a large population can be a daunting task. Over the years there has been multiplicity of the rural housing programmes, the line of distinction between one and other being very thin. The Health is the fundamental human right. State has the responsibility for the health of its citizens. The Department of Health and Family Welfare, Our Country is striving for the attainment of health of its people through the wide network of the Government Health Care delivery system. It creates confusion and duplication at the level of implementation and monitoring. Bonded labor, which is characterized by a long-term relationship between employer and employee, is usually solidified through a loan.

In this unit you will learn poverty, Unemployment and Seasonal unemployment. You will study Illiteracy, Superstitions, Drinking water and housing. You will study about health and sanitation, Bonded and Migrant labourers elaborately.

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## 7.2 OBJECTIVES

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- gain the knowledge about Poverty; Unemployment
  - understand the Seasonal unemployment
  - Identify Illiteracy-Superstitions
  - gain the knowledge about Drinking water- housing
  - discuss the housing- health and sanitation
  - Identify Bonded and Migrant laborers
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## 7.3 POVERTY

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‘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.

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**.

### 7.3.1 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:**

- i. The amount of money required by a person to subsist.
- ii. The life below a minimum subsistence level and living standard prevalent at a given time, at a given place.
- iii. 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.

### 7.3.2 TYPE OF POVERTY

On the basis of **social, economical and political** aspects, there are different ways to identify the **type of Poverty**:

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.

### 7.3.3 RURAL POVERTY

The number of poor people in India, according to the country's Eleventh National Development Plan, amounts to more than 300 million. The country has been successful in reducing the proportion of poor people from about 55 per cent in 1973 to about 27 per cent in 2004.

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But almost one third of the country's population of more than 1.1 billion continues to live below the poverty line, and a large proportion of poor people live in rural areas. Poverty remains a chronic condition for almost 30 per cent of India's rural population. The incidence of rural poverty has declined somewhat over the past three decades as a result of rural to urban migration.

Poverty is deepest among members of scheduled castes and tribes in the country's rural areas. In 2005 these groups accounted for 80 percent of poor rural people, although their share in the total rural population is much smaller.

On the map of poverty in India, the poorest areas are in parts of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, Chhattisgarh and West Bengal.

Large numbers of India's poorest people live in the country's semi-arid tropical region. In this area shortages of water and recurrent droughts impede the transformation of agriculture that the Green Revolution has achieved elsewhere. There is also a high incidence of poverty in flood-prone areas such as those extending from eastern Uttar Pradesh to the Assam plains, and especially in northern Bihar.

Poverty affects tribal people in forest areas, where loss of entitlement to resources has made them even poorer. In coastal fishing community's people's living conditions are deteriorating because of environmental degradation, stock depletion and vulnerability to natural disasters.

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.

### **7.3.4 POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROGRAMMES**

#### **Strategy for the Tenth Five Year Plan**

The experience of the schemes during the 9th Five Year Plan, as outlined in the previous Chapters, is the foundation upon which the future policy towards rural Poverty Alleviation Programmes can be laid. While economic development of the country provides a lasting solution to the problem of poverty in rural areas, the target oriented intervention through different programmes to deal with the problem of poverty cannot be dispensed with immediately. Obviously self-employment Programmes would account for a major role in the government's effort for poverty alleviation in the country. If they succeed, it is obvious that they also provide a sustainable solution to the problem. The programmes therefore need to be strengthened during the tenth Five-Year Plan as well. But, keeping in view the size of the problem and the constraint of resources and regional variation in the nature of intervention required to deal with the problem, programmes for immediate relief in the form of wage employment cannot also be dispensed with. What is needed is that the focus of the programme. The Wage Employment Programme should be on

the areas of distress i.e. drought prone, desert, hilly, backward areas which suffer from seasonal migration of the labour force in search of wage employment elsewhere. In order to ensure that the Programme serves its purpose, it is necessary that districts should be identified which need the Programme most badly.

Similarly the programmes which help in creation of basic infrastructure at the village level provide houses to the shelter less and social security to the poorest of the poor have to be continued.

Agriculture, which is the major source of employment for rural India, has not been able to absorb increasing labour force. Strategy for storage of food-grains and to utilize the surplus buffer stock of food-grains for providing the employment opportunities to the poor has also to be evolved. The economic reform process in the country is in progress. The process should continue but the interest of the poor should have also to be protective. The self-employment Programme i.e. SGSY can cover about 30% of the poor (BPL families) in rural areas covering the five years' time period of the Tenth Plan which is in conformity with the strategy envisaged in the Programmes Guidelines. The balance of the employment need can very well be met from other central and State sector Programmes, besides, Agriculture and other non-farm activities in private sector.

The strategy for poverty alleviation to be adopted during the 10th Five-Year Plan should also take note of the fact that poverty is both a multi-dimensional and local problem. Implementation of the programmes on a uniform pattern all over the country does not make sense. It should be discontinued. There is a need for holistic livelihood assessment in each area vis-à-vis poor. Poverty alleviation measures require sectoral involvement of all schemes and line departments as well.

### Poverty Line

Another method by which poverty can be measured is through 'poverty line'. The poverty line is an imaginary line demarcating between those, who 'have' and 'have not' the most basic necessities of life.

#### **This can be seen in terms of the following three factors:**

- a. Per capita income or earnings per person per day. According to the World Bank, those who earn less than US \$1 per day or US dollars 365 per year fall below the poverty line.
- b. According to the Government of India, all those who earn less than per day fall below the poverty line. This translates into Rs.296 per month in the urban areas and Rs.276 per month in rural areas.
- c. Calorific intake—poverty line is determined by the prevailing standards of the minimum calorific intake necessary for health, efficiency, nurturing of children and social participation. The poverty line is also drawn on the basis of per capita, daily intake of 2,400 calories per adult in rural areas and 2,100 calories in urban areas.

#### **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 Poverty.
2. The word poverty comes from French word .....

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## 7.4 UNEMPLOYMENT

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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.

### 7.4.1 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**

### 7.4.2 TYPES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

➤ **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.

➤ **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.

➤ **Structural**

It occurs when the labor market is not able to provide jobs for everyone who wants to work. There is a mismatch between the skills of the unemployed workers and the skills needed for available jobs. It differs from frictional unemployment because it lasts longer.

➤ **Frictional**

The time period in between jobs when a worker is searching for work or transitioning from one job to another.

➤ **Hidden**

The unemployment of potential workers that is not taken into account in official unemployment statistics because of how the data is collected. For example, workers are only considered unemployed if they are looking for work so those without jobs who have stopped looking are no longer considered unemployed.

➤ **Long-term**

It is usually defined as unemployment lasting longer than one year.

➤ **Seasonal Unemployment:**

- It is an unemployment that occurs during certain seasons of the year.
- Agricultural labourers in India rarely have work throughout the year.

### 7.4.3 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.

### 7.4.4 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

### 7.4.5 STEPS TAKEN BY GOVERNMENT

- ✓ **Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)** was launched in 1980 to create full employment opportunities in rural areas.

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- ✓ **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 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 - 2**

**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– unemployment.

4. What is cyclical unemployment?

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## 7.5 SEASONAL UNEMPLOYMENT

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### 7.5.1 DEFINITION OF SEASONAL UNEMPLOYMENT

The **Seasonal Unemployment** means the demand for a specific kind of work and workers change with the change in the season. Simply, the period when the demand for the manpower as well as the capital stock reduces because of a decreased demand in the economy at a particular point in time in a year causes the seasonal unemployment.

Seasonal unemployment in agriculture is a normal condition in India. In 1993-94, gross irrigated area as a percentage of gross cropped area was only 36.0 percent. However, two or more crops are prepared on not more than 25 percent cultivable land. This implies that farmers cultivating approximately 75 per cent of the land remain involuntarily unemployed for 4 to 6 months, unless they find some temporary employment in this period. Since the percentage of the lucky ones who manage to get some work in the off-season is quite low, the incidence of seasonal unemployment in the agricultural sector is obviously very high.

**Seasonal Industries** - The seasonal character of the agriculture operations has resulted in an uneven distribution of labour power. It is therefore, necessary that such rural industries should be introduced as would adjust with seasonal feasting of the cultivators. There are particularly two periods when agricultural labour is completely out of work i.e. from middle of April to the middle of July (Asarh) when the crop is growing. At present the summer period of idleness is completely wasted, while during the later period there is wholesale migration from villages to the industrial areas and mining centres. The only way of checking this pendulous labour force and to stabilising agriculture is by introducing seasonal industrial which will not only absorb the surplus labour but will serve to increase the purchasing power of the rural masses.

### 7.5.2 CAUSES OF SEASONAL UNEMPLOYMENT

There are number of causes for increasing seasonal unemployment in agricultural and industrial sector in our country. These causes are as follows:

#### **Increase in Population**

Demographic pressure in the form of a steady and continued increase in the additions to the labour force has caused unemployment. With annual accretion of around 2.8 percent in job seekers, the situation is more than well on its way from grim to hopeless.

#### **Slow Development**

The rate of economic development in India has been extremely slow; it remained between 3 to 4 per cent per annum. In view of rapid population growth and consequent increase in labour force, this rate of development has been insufficient to reduce unemployment and poverty.

#### **Employment Planning**

Planning in India, in operation since 1951, has not contributed adequately to the solution of this problem. This is largely because of the lower priority accorded to the employment objective and the under rating of human resources.

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### **Poverty**

Poverty and unemployment are like Siamese twins. A person is poor because he is unemployed. He is unemployed because he is poor. Being poor, he does not possess resources to be gainfully employed. This is illustrated by the incidence of unemployment in India in terms of monthly per capita expenditure as revealed by the 32nd round of National Sample Survey. Persons in the lowest expenditure group per capita per month had unemployed rates of 22.4 percent in rural India and 29.2 percent in urban India.

### **Slow Agricultural Development**

Agriculture sector is also not well developed in India. There is low productivity in agriculture, for which many institutional and technical reasons, such as joint family system, heredity law, use of old methods etc. are responsible. This causes less availability of job opportunities and creates a problem of seasonal or disguised unemployment.

### **Agricultural Infrastructure**

Our five year plans have not done well in the spheres of irrigation, wasteland reclamation, soil conservation, and development of dairies, fisheries and poultry farming, flood control, drainage, anti-water logging, rural electrification and other construction activities which, in turn, could have provided extensive employment opportunities to all categories of workers including skilled and unskilled personnel.

### **Joint Family System**

With the breakdown of these joint families and emergence of nuclear families, i.e. husband, wife and their children, each adult male or even females look out for a job. The number of job seekers has thus increased which has added to the problem of unemployment.

### **Lack of Non-agricultural Sector**

The most important factor for rural unemployment in India is that the non-agriculture sector, in particular the modern industrial sector, which was to provide increasing avenue of employment, is growing at a very slow pace. In India, non-agricultural sector provides employment to an insignificant portion of population. For millions of persons born in rural districts, "there is no escape from an agricultural career."

### **Rural-Urban Migration**

Another factor that has contributed to the unemployment problem is the increasing migration of people from the rural to the urban areas. Our plans could not stop the migration of the rural population into cities by making rural areas more attractive and congenial by enabling them to earn a better living from land and encouraging the development of growth centres around villages.

### **Family as Employer**

In India, agriculture is characterised by the family operated farm. Family rather than the individual is the employment unit in agriculture in India and this fact has a great relevance in the emergence of disguised unemployment. Almost every member of the family is associated in a varying degree with the production on the farm, and the farm work by its very nature is such that the entire system and the technique of production adapt themselves to the abundance of farm workers. Besides, family acts as a pool into which all the earnings of members flow and from which each

individual gets a share according to his needs and not according to his contribution to family occupation, and that perhaps explains how, in spite of the disguised unemployment telling heavily upon the levels of income, members of the family continue to till the land.

### 7.5.3 RURAL EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

The Government has taken various measures to provide employment and reduce seasonal unemployment in rural and urban areas:

1. National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA)
2. Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana
3. National Food For Work Programme
4. Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana
5. Indira Awas Yojana
6. Swaranajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana
7. National Social Assistance Programme and Annapurna

#### Check your progress - 3

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 are the Rural Employment Schemes?

6. What is the meaning of **Seasonal Unemployment**?

### 7.6 ILLITERACY

Illiteracy Problems in Rural Indian Areas "We are bumbling along with this out modeled system of elementary education, which is a real shame." These are the words of Krishna Kumar, director of the Central Institute of Education in New Delhi, India. Unfortunately Kumar's views are shared with other educators concerning the state of India's deteriorating education system. Illiteracy rates in many third world countries are alarmingly high; nestled in the heart of Asia, India's education program is falling behind other nations. It is a country where the population will reach one billion people by the next century, while only one-third of them will be able to read. Due to various social and economic problems India's education program continues to be undercut. Of the biggest victims of the educational system are those living in rural areas. The attitudes of the children and teachers also affect the quality of the schools. Allocation of government funds and the conditions of the destitute rural schools contribute to the low quality of education by rural children. While there are many rural areas school systems which are operating in poor conditions there is one in particular whose schools outperform most other rural schools and also those located in wealthy areas of India. Consequently, Kerala, a rural state of India remains a puzzle to many educators. Its illiteracy rate does not follow the trend of most rural schools.

Many children living in rural areas receive a level of education which is very poor. Overall enrollment in primary and middle schools are very low. Fifty percent of children living in these areas leave school before the fifth grade. These children leave school for variety of reasons: some leave because of lack of interest; most leave so that they can work in the fields, where the hours are long and the pay is low. A large percent of the dropouts are females. Forced by their parents, most girls perform chores

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and tend the family at home. These are some of the reasons why sixty percent of all females in India are illiterate, a figure much higher than those of males. (UNESCO) As these children grow into adults, many are still illiterate by the age of forty. These uneducated adults are also reluctant to send their own children to school because of their failure in the education system. This in turn creates a problem for the next generation.

While the children living in rural areas continue to be deprived of a quality education, part of the reason why is due to their teachers. A large number of teachers refuse to teach in rural areas and those that do are usually underqualified. In recent years the number of qualified teachers has increased because of increased efforts by the government and private groups to improve the general education and professional training of teachers. (UNESCO). There is more of an emphasis on the training of rural teachers, whose educational backgrounds are generally not as sound as their urban counterparts. Those that refuse to teach in rural areas cite distance and lack of interest by students as problems. Many of the teachers also lack the enthusiasm to teach because of their meager salary - less than one hundred dollars per month. Another obstacle faced by the schools is that obtaining more teachers for rural schools is difficult because of state guidelines that approve of high student-to-teacher ratios.

While many rural schools search for the proper resources, the distribution of government funds is major hindrance to the educational system. According to a recent study done by the World Bank, thirty percent of the total educational funding goes toward higher educational institutions. This is an important issue because the numbers of students enrolled in these types of institutions represent such a small percent of India's students. Other examples of the government's plans to undermine rural education can be found in the Constitution of India. In the Constitution it stated that the primary education of rural area children was a low priority in budget outlays. (Watson)

Though rural children continue to be deprived of a formal education, the education system of Kerala, India is an exception. Located in the southern peninsula of the country, Kerala's illiteracy rates are lower than most other rural areas in India. (Wallach) Because of its immense population of twenty nine million and high unemployment rate, a large number of its inhabitants are forced to work outside of Kerala. Many of the people of Kerala who work in a different country send lots of donations back to Kerala. These people believe that it is responsibility of them to donate back to their hometown. It is these donations which have funded many of the programs that make Kerala stand out from other rural states. Coupled with the government and private donations the education system has been able to benefit. More schools are being built and more teachers are willing to work there. (Wallach) The unusually low illiteracy rate is attributed to the planned education programs. Although its economy is only growing slowly and unemployment rate is high, its illiteracy rates, mortality rates and life expectancy are comparable to richer regions of the country. Other rural areas can learn from Kerala so that its success can be duplicated. Receiving more private donations and government support is essential for those rural areas needing to improve the general lifestyle of its people.

A high illiteracy rate in rural parts of India is an area of the Indian education system that cannot be overlooked. Hampered by the government and by other factors the quality of education in rural districts has been quite poor. High dropout rates and low enrollment by the children have contributed to the large illiteracy rate. Kerala, a rural state of India boasts many areas of progress and serves as a model for other rural areas and many of the wealthier parts of India. Without drastic changes by the government and by its citizens, India is well on its way to becoming the world's most illiterate nation.

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#### **Check your progress - 4**

**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 are the reasons for high illiteracy rates?

8. Which state is a model for high literacy rate in India?

### **7.7 SUPERSTITIONS**

The term superstition is derived from the Latin superstition, meaning “to stand over in awe.” Superstition refers to belief that certain event or things will bring good or bad luck. Superstition has different meanings in different cultures. Pandit and Sanskrit scholars in India set some taboos or inhibitions of human behavior.

Many superstitions still rule the lives of the backward classes and tribal people. Most of us are superstitious The term superstition is derived from the Latin superstition, meaning “to stand over in awe.” Superstition refers to belief that certain event or things will bring good or bad luck. Superstition has different meanings in different cultures. Pandit and Sanskrit scholars in India set some taboos or inhibitions of human behavior.

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The term superstition is derived from the Latin superstition, meaning “to stand over in awe.” Superstition refers to belief that certain event or things will bring good or bad luck. Superstition has different meanings in different cultures. Pandit and Sanskrit scholars in India set some taboos or inhibitions of human behavior. Many superstitions still rule the lives of the backward classes and tribal people. Most of us are superstitious in some way or the other people are not able to overcome the traditional snag of the past. Superstition is simply nothing rather believing blindly in something without verification (Kalita, 2016) in some way or the other people are not able to overcome the traditional snag of the past.

Earlier superstitions were created as a way to deal with the ignorance and fear of the unknown things. Often, superstitions are born from casual coincidences. For example, if an athlete wears a particular pair of shoes on a day he performs particularly well, he may continue to wear the same pair of shoes in the belief that the shoes were responsible for the success. B.F. Skinner in his writing on Superstition in the Pigeon revealed that superstitions are not only human in nature rather available in other organisms as well (Skinner, 1948). Theories of modern superstition

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produce by Colin Campbell (1996) define the fact that continuing problem of humans and their culture superstition persists in modern industrial societies. This aspect shows disagreement about fading out of superstition in the face of rationalism and empiricisms.

For several centuries, various superstitious behaviours have dominated Indian way of living, but none has ever thought that how exactly these came into existence. The most of the researchers said that majority of youth is breaking these superstitions and taking initiatives to make people aware about its uselessness.

**Check your progress - 5**

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

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

9. What is meant by Superstition?

10. Give an example for Superstition.

## **7.8 DRINKING WATER**

Rural India has more than 700 million people residing in about 1.42 million habitations spread over 15 diverse ecological regions. Meeting the drinking water needs of such a large population can be a daunting task. The non-uniformity in level of awareness, socio-economic development, education, poverty, practices and rituals and water availability add to the complexity of the task. Despite an estimated total of Rs. 1,105 billion spent on providing safe drinking water since the First Five Year Plan was launched in 1951, lack of safe and secure drinking water continues to be a major hurdle and a national economic burden.

Around 37.7 million Indians are affected by waterborne diseases annually, 1.5 million children are estimated to die of diarrhea alone and 73 million working days are lost due to waterborne disease each year. The resulting economic burden is estimated at \$600 million a year.

While 'traditional diseases' such as diarrhea continue to take a heavy toll, 66 million Indians are at risk due to excess fluoride<sup>2</sup> and 10 million due to excess arsenic in groundwater. In all, 1, 95,813 habitations in the country are affected by poor water quality.<sup>3</sup> It is clear that the large investments have not yielded comparable improvements in health and other socio-economic indicators.

### **7.8.1 WATER RESOURCES AND UTILISATION**

- India has 16 per cent of the world's population and four per cent of its fresh water resources.
- Estimates indicate that surface and ground water availability is around 1,869 billion cubic meters (BCM). Of this, 40 per cent is not available for use due to geological and topographical reasons.
- Around 4,000 BCM of fresh water is available due to precipitation in the form of rain and snow, most of which returns to the seas via rivers.
- Ninety two per cent groundwater extracted is used in the agricultural sector, five and three per cent respectively for industrial and domestic sector.
- Eight nine per cent of surface water use is for agricultural sector and two per cent and nine per cent respectively are used by the industrial and domestic sector.

While on the one hand the pressures of development are changing the distribution of water in the country, access to adequate water has been cited as the primary factor responsible for limiting development. The average availability of water remains more or less fixed according to the natural hydrological cycle but the per capita availability reduces steadily due to an increasing population.

- In 1955, the per capita availability was 5,300 cubic metres (cu.m) per person per year, which came down to 2,200 cu. m in 1996.
- It is expected that by around 2020, India will be a 'water stressed' state with per capita availability declining to 1600 cu m/person/year.<sup>4</sup> A country is said to be water stressed when the per capita availability of water drops below 1700 cu. m/person/year.

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## 7.8.2 RURAL WATER SUPPLY

The provision of clean drinking water has been given priority in the Constitution of India, with Article 47 conferring the duty of providing clean drinking water and improving public health standards to the State. Rural water supply (RWS) programmes in India can be divided into several distinct phases

### 7.8.2.1 Early Independence (1947-1969)

**1949:** The Environment Hygiene Committee (1949) recommends the provision of safe water

**1949:** supply to cover 90 per cent of India's population in a timeframe of 40 years.

**1950:** The Constitution of India confers ownership of all water resources to the government,

specifying it as a state subject, giving citizens the right to potable water.

**1969:** National Rural Drinking Water Supply programme launched with technical support from **1969:** UNICEF and Rs.254.90 crore is spent during this phase, with 1.2 million bore wells being dug and 17,000 piped water supply schemes being provided.

### 7.8.2.2 Transition from Technology to Policy (1969-1989)

**1972-73:** Introduction of the Accelerated Rural Water Supply Programme (ARWSP) by the Government of India to assist states and union territories to accelerate the pace of coverage of drinking water supply.

**1981:** India as a party to the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (1981- **1981:** 1990) declaration sets up a national level Apex Committee to define policies to achieve the goal of providing safe water to all villages.

**1986:** The National Drinking Water Mission (NDWM) is formed.

**1987:** Drafting of the first National Water Policy by the Ministry of Water Resources.

### 7.8.2.3 Restructuring Phase (1989-1999)

**1991:** NDWM is renamed the Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Mission (RGNDWM).

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**1994:** The 73rd Constitutional Amendment assigns panchayat raj institutions (PRIs) the responsibility of providing drinking water.

**1999:** For ensuring sustainability of the systems, steps are initiated to institutionalise community **1999:** participation in the implementation of rural drinking water supply schemes through sector reform. Sector reform ushers in a paradigm shift from the 'Government-oriented supply-driven approach' to the 'People-oriented demand-responsive approach'. The role of the government is envisaged to change from that of service provider to facilitator. Under reform, 90 per cent of the infrastructure is funded by the government, with the community contributing 10 per cent of the remaining infrastructure cost and 100 per cent of operation and maintenance costs. Sector reforms projects were introduced in 67 districts across the country on pilot basis.

**1999:** Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) as a part of reform principles initiated in 1999 to ensure **1999:** sanitation facilities in rural areas with broader goal to eradicate the practice of open defecation. As part of the programme, a nominal subsidy in the form of incentive is given to rural poor households for construction of toilets. TSC gives strong emphasis on Information, Education and Communication, Capacity Building and Hygiene Education for effective behaviour change with involvement of PRIs, CBOs, and NGOs

**7.8.2.4 Consolidation Phase (2000 Onwards)**

**2002:** Nationwide scaling up of sector reform in the form of Swajaldhara.

**2002 2002:** The National Water Policy is revised, according priority to serving villages that did not have adequate sources of safe water and to improve the level of service for villages classified as only partially covered.

**2002:** India commits to the Millennium Development Goals to halve by 2015, from 1990 levels, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.

**2004:** All drinking water programmes are brought under the umbrella of the RGNDWM.

**2005:** The Government of India launches the Bharat Nirman Programme for overall development **2005:** of rural areas by strengthening housing, roads, electricity, telephone, irrigation and drinking water infrastructure. The target is to provide drinking water to 55,069 uncovered habitations; those affected by poor water quality and slipped back habitations based on 2003 survey, within five years.

**2007:** Pattern of funding under the Swajaldhara Scheme changes from the previous 90:10 central-community share to 50:50 centre-state shares. Community contribution is now optional.

The approach paper for the 11th Five Year Plan calls for a comprehensive approach which encompasses individual health care, public health, sanitation, clean drinking water, access to food and knowledge about hygiene and feeding practice. It also states the need to upscale more schemes related to community management of water reducing the maintenance burden and responsibility of the state. It is envisaged to provide clean drinking water for all by 2009 and ensure that there are no slip-backs by the end of the 11th Plan.

**Check your progress - 6****Notes: a) Write your answers in the space given below.****b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the unit.**

11. What are the diseases affected to human by water?

12. Write an expansion of RGNDWM

*Poverty, Unemployment***7.9 HOUSING**

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Over the years there has been multiplicity of the rural housing programmes, the line of distinction between one and other being very thin. This creates confusion and duplication at the level of implementation and monitoring. An important step required during the 10th Plan is to merge all the existing rural housing programmes into a single integrated programme to be implemented throughout the country on a uniform basis. A strategic shift is also required in the Rural Housing sector during 10th Plan period. It would require an enabling environment comprising policy framework which would politically, legally and institutionally support the strategic shift. The actions are required urgently in the following area:

- a. Establishment of institutional sustainability by clarifying and rationalizing the roles and responsibilities of various sectoral agencies; strengthening facilitation or implementation capacity of existing agencies or setting up of a new agency where necessary; supporting the decentralization process further by involving NGOs in a bigger way, setting up institutional mechanisms for the transfer of technologies, designs and materials on the continuous basis and achieving full participation of rural communities in sector decision making and project implementation.
- b. Establishment of financial viability and sustainability by implementing policies and actions which expand the outreach of housing finance in the rural areas offer a menu of financing options and achieve full cost recovery.
- c. Resources management to ensure adequate quantities and quality supply of building technologies materials and designs.

The Working Group in its final meeting also made the following suggestions regarding Rural Housing and NOAPS to be adopted during 10th Five-Year Plan.

- ❖ The supply driven programmes like Rural Housing, NOAPS, should be continued to improve the quality of life in rural areas. The demand driven programme like the JGSY (for infrastructure development as per felt needs locally) should be evolved from the PRIs. Similarly, the SGSY could encourage groups with occupational homogeneity for its success.
- ❖ Grant-based housing should be restricted to shelterless only.
- ❖ Though the credit-cum-subsidy scheme under the Rural Housing has not been able to make much headway and benefits are also provided to APL members, the scheme need to be continued.

*Self - Instructional Material*

**Check your progress - 7**

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

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

13. Name some programmes related to rural housing?

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**7.10 HEALTH AND SANITATION**

**7.10.1 RURAL HEALTH**

Health is the fundamental human right. State has the responsibility for the health of its citizens. The Department of Health and Family Welfare, Our Country is striving for the attainment of health of its people through the wide network of the Government Health Care delivery system. Health care is more than mere 'medical care'. It embraces a multitude of services provided to the individual or community by health personnel aiming at promotion, protection and restoration of the health of the people.

The Department of the Health & Family Welfare, India has made available integrated health services to the people of India through its Primary Health Care network spread across the state. The current focus is on providing healthcare in rural areas because of the large gap in service availability in these areas.

**7.10.1. 1 History of rural health**

On 2nd October 1952, a two tier rural health care system came into existence throughout India, and in all the states as well to fulfill these objectives. Under this system, one six bedded Primary Health Centre and four Sub Centres attached to it were established in each Community Development Block.

Following the World Health Summit at Alma Ata and declaration of the goal of 'Health For All (HFA) –2000 AD the concept of "Three Tier" health care system was framed. Being a signatory to HFA-2000, the three tier system was rolled out in India under the rural services with the Fifth Five Year Plan in 1978. This system was based on the concept of primary health care, defined as "essential Health Care made universally accessible to individuals and acceptable to them, through their full participation and at a cost the community and country can afford."

Under the Guidance of the Commissioner (Health), the Additional Director Rural Health organizes implements and monitors rural health care services with the help of Regional Deputy Directors and other Programme officers. CDHOs with the help of other health officers and staff look after all health activities in their respective districts of each and every state in India.

The three tier system following the Primary Health Care approach coupled with the various national health programmes, including Epidemic, Malaria, Blindness and Tuberculosis Control; Leprosy elimination; Polio and Yaws eradication; Reproductive and Child health & Family welfare; Health education, School Health Programme etc. deliver health services to the remotest areas of the each and every state.

The department is constantly working to promote and protect the health of the community through expansion of the health infrastructure, increased recruitment of health personnel, and integration of promotive, preventive, curative and rehabilitative health services

### 7.10.1.2 National Rural Health Mission

The National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) is a government scheme that aims at providing valuable healthcare services to rural households all over the country. It specially focuses on the 18 States of Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Jammu and Kashmir, Manipur, Mizoram, Meghalaya, Madhya Pradesh, Nagaland, Orissa, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tripura, Uttarkhand and Uttar Pradesh.

#### **The major objectives of the National Rural Health Mission are:**

Decrease the infant mortality rate and maternal mortality rate  
provide access to public health services for every citizen  
Prevent and control communicable and non-communicable diseases  
Control population as well as ensure gender and demographic balance  
Encourage a healthy lifestyle and alternative systems of medicine through AYUSH.

The mission envisages achieving its objective by strengthening Panchayat Raj Institutions and promoting access to improved healthcare through the Accredited Female Health Activist (ASHA). It also plans on strengthening existing Primary Health Centres, Community Health Centres and District Health Missions, in addition to making maximum use of Non-Governmental Organizations.

### 7.10.2 RURAL SANITATION

Rural Sanitation is a State subject. The efforts of the states are supplemented by the Central Government through technical and financial assistance under the Central Rural Sanitation Programme (CRSP).

The Programme was launched in 1986 with the objectives of improving the quality of life of rural people and providing privacy and dignity to women. The concept of sanitation was expanded in 1993 to include personal hygiene, home sanitation, safe water and disposal of garbage, human excreta and wastewater. The components of the programme included construction of individual sanitary toilets for household below poverty-line (BPL), conversion of dry latrines to water-pour flush toilets, construction of village sanitary complexes for women, setting up of sanitary marts and production centres, intensive campaign for creating awareness and health education, etc.

Keeping in view the experiences of the Central and state governments, NGOs and other implementing agencies and the recommendations of the Second National Seminar on Rural Sanitation, the strategy for the Ninth Five Year Plan was revised and the programme was restructured from 1 April 1999. The restructured programme moves away from the principle of state-wise allocation of funds, primarily based on poverty criteria, to a demand driven approach in a phased manner. Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) was introduced and the Allocation Based Programme was phased out by 31 March 2002. TSC is community-led and people-centred. There was a shift from a high subsidy to a low subsidy regime. The TSC approach emphasized awareness-building component and meets the demand through alternate delivery mechanism. School Sanitation has been introduced as a major component to encourage wider acceptance of sanitation among rural masses. The States/UTs are required to formulate project proposals under the TSC in order to claim Central government assistance.

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Under the TSC, so far 559 projects in 30 States/UTs have been sanctioned with the total project outlay of about Rs.6240.27 crore. The Central, State and Beneficiary/Panchayat contributions are about Rs.3675.38 crore, Rs.1424.09 crore and Rs.1140.80 crore respectively. The components sanctioned in the 559 projects are

Construction of 499 lakh individual household latrines	
656690	toilets for Schools
36098	Community Sanitary Complexes
199033	toilets for Balwadis/Anganwadis and
4030	Rural Sanitary Marts/Production Centres.

Besides, funds have been earmarked for start-up activities, Information, Education and Communication (IEC) and Administrative charges. The total numbers of household toilets constructed up to 2005-06 are 14,48,1807.

To add vigour to the implementation of TSC Government of India has separately launched an award scheme 'Nirmal Gram Puraskar'(NGP) for fully sanitised and open defecation free Gram Panchayats, block and districts. In the first year of its institution only 40 PRIs were awarded NGP on 24 February 2005. In the second year the number of awarded PRIs/Blocks and organisation have increased to 772. His Excellency, Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam, President of India, distributed the Awards on 23 March 2006.

#### **7.10.2.1 Monitoring and Evaluation**

The Ministry of Rural Development lays great emphasis on monitoring and evaluation of all rural development programmes in general and poverty alleviation and employment generation schemes in particular, being implemented in various States/UTs. It is well recognised that the success of the programmes largely depends on the effective delivery system and efficient implementation at the grass-roots level so that the programme benefits reach the rural poor in full measures. In order to ensure this, the Ministry has evolved a comprehensive multi-level and multi tool system of Monitoring and Evaluation for the implementation of its programmes. The Monitoring mechanism includes, inter-alia, the Performance Review Committee, Review meetings by the Minister of Rural Development and Ministers of State with the Chief Ministers/Ministers of Rural development and Officers of the States, the Area Officer Scheme, periodic progress reports, audit and utilisation certificates, video conferencing and field visits. The Ministry conducts quick evaluation/concurrent evaluation of all major programmes. An impact assessment study to assess the overall impact of programmes of village-level is also conducted in selected district. The Vigilance and Monitoring Committees at State and District Levels in all States/UTs monitor the implementation of Programmes and introduce greater transparency in the process. These Committees inter-alia include MPs/ MLAs representatives of Panchayat Raj Institutions and NGOs. The Members of Parliament both Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha have been assigned a Central role in the reconstituted V&M Committees and they have been nominated Chairman/Co-Chairman of the district level V&M Committees.

The Ministry has also taken initiatives to strengthen the monitoring mechanism and quality of implementation of programmes by introducing District Level Monitoring (DLM) System in 130 district of 27 States through external agencies which include monthly reporting of physical and financial performance, qualitative reporting about policy and implementation environments in the district and physical verification of the assets crated under various programmes of the Ministry. Similarly DLM of Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC) and Swajaldhara is implemented in 398 districts of the country w.e.f. 1 July 2005 This system aims at providing continuous, transparent and accountable monitoring inputs in reporting format with the objectives of reporting of the process and progress of the programmes covering different components of the programmes. It also aims at identification of gaps in the implementation at the village, block, district and state level. The monitoring system also elicits the stakeholders' views; assesses the institutional issues and document case studies and success stories on best practices, innovations and lesson learned.

In order to strengthen the monitoring mechanism, the Ministry has a panel of about 300 National Level Monitors comprising retired servicemen and Retired Civil Servants to monitor and furnish periodic reports to the Ministry on the implementation of programmes in selected districts including verifying facts of the cases and complaints if any, which may be referred to them.

The Union Government in recent years has given emphasis to e-governance in all possible areas. Accordingly, the Ministry of Rural Development has also initiated action with the state Governments and UTs to ensure that information and progress reports completed by Districts Rural Development Agencies (DRDAs) are sent through the electronic medium. About 400 (DRDAs) have started sending their reports through online. Efforts are being made in this direction to obtain online progress reports from all the remaining DRDAs.

**Check your progress - 8**

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

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

14. Write an expansion of CRSP.

15. Write an expansion of ASHA.

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**7.11 BONDED AND MIGRANT LABORERS**

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Bonded labor, which is characterized by a long-term relationship between employer and employee, is usually solidified through a loan, and is embedded intricately in India's socio-economic culture - a culture that is a product of class relations, a colonial history, and persistent poverty among many citizens. Also known as debt bondage, bonded labor is a specific form of forced labor in which compulsion into servitude is derived from debt. Categorized and examined in the scholarly literature as a type of forced labor, bonded labor entails constraints on the conditions and duration of work by an individual. Not all bonded labor is forced, but most forced labor practices, whether they involve children or adults, are of a bonded nature. Bonded labor is most prevalent in rural areas where the

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agricultural industry relies on contracted, often migrant laborers. However, urban areas also provide fertile ground for long-term bondage.

Characterized by a creditor-debtor relationship that a laborer often passes on to his family members, bonded labor is typically of an indefinite duration and involves illegal contractual stipulations. Contracts deny an individual the basic right to choose his or her employer, or to negotiate the terms of his or her contract. Bonded labor contracts are not purely economic; in India, they are reinforced by custom or coercion in many sectors such as the agricultural, silk, mining, match production, and brick kiln industries, among others.

Child laborers face major health and physical risks: they work long hours and are required to perform tasks for which they are physically and developmentally unprepared. Child labor is deeply entrenched as a common practice in many sectors and states, due in part to India's economic emphasis on exports in recent years. According to a current estimate, a quarter of Indian children ages six to fourteen—roughly two hundred million children—are working, and a third of the remaining seventy-five percent are bonded laborers (Soorya moorthy 1991). The largest single employer of children in India is the agricultural sector where an estimated twenty-five million children are employed; and the second largest employer of Indian children is the service sector where children work in hotels and as household maids. An additional five million Indian children are employed in other labor-intensive industries.

#### **7.11.1 Origins and Causes of India's Bonded Labor Problem**

Bonded labor stems from a variety of causes, which are highly debated in the literature: an ingrained legacy of caste-based discrimination, vast poverty and inequality, an inadequate education system, unjust social relations, and the government's unwillingness to alter the status quo all exemplify a few such causes. Additionally, India's colonial background and caste system have made it difficult to delineate the history of laborers' "unfreedom," as termed by several authors, and to understand legal and actual differentiations between slavery under British rule and debt bondage and child labor today.

There are many cultural reasons for the persistence of child labor in India. An expectation that children should contribute to the socioeconomic survival of the family and community, as well as the existence of large families, land scarcity, and inadequate enforcement of labor laws are contributing factors to this problem. In urban areas, following the migration of families to overpopulated cities, the disintegration of such families due to alcoholism and unemployment often results in a proliferation of children living on the street, becoming laborers, and entering into prostitution

#### **7.11.2 Legal Restrictions and Enforcement**

The domestic legal treatment of individual labor rights, which are clearly articulated but seldom enforced, reflects India's blurry history with slavery. Article 23 of the 1949 Constitution of India outlaws both the trafficking of human beings and forced labor, but the legislation defining and banning bonded labor was only approved by Parliament in 1976. The Bonded Labour System Abolition Act of 1976 stipulates that the monitoring of labor violations and their enforcement are responsibilities of

state governments. The Indian government has demonstrated a severe lack of will to implement this ban on bonded labor. Such pervasive non-enforcement may be attributed to several factors, including government apathy, caste bias, corruption, a lack of accountability, and inadequate enforcement personnel.

The Supreme Court of India has interpreted bonded labor as the payment of wages that are below the prevailing market wage or the legal minimum wage. As a response to complaints of human rights violations, the Court relies on Public Interest Law (PIL) whereby citizens are able to petition India's courts if they believe their rights, or the rights of their fellow citizens, are being denied. The Supreme Court's two major examinations of child labor in 1991 and 1997 resulted in PIL rulings that emphasized the role of poverty, and promoted children's education. However, the Court refused to ban child labor outright, citing its role as a judicial and not a legislative body.

The Indian government has not yet actively linked economic development to human rights violations at work. A recent government measure to raise the minimum wage for children exemplifies a lagging commitment to the eradication of child labor in particular, by essentially legitimizing children's work obligations and conditions. Nevertheless, the decision of the Supreme Court to establish a rehabilitation and welfare program for working children, in addition to the efforts of the National Human Rights Commission, have been instrumental in sensitizing policymakers to the serious problem of child labor.

Exploitation of children working in dangerous conditions not only results in constraints on a child's health and development, but also solidifies his or her fate as an unskilled, low-paid worker. A greater focus on female education would precipitate a decline in both fertility — seen as a self-reinforcing cause and effect of child labor—and in children's work participation.

The suggestion has also been posited that “learn and earn” policies, which combine work and school, may be feasible. For the most part, the government fails to enforce extant laws. Whether child labor should and can be completely outlawed and the ban enforced, or whether the economic system in India can realistically allow for all children to attend school, have remained at the crux of the debate for some time.

### Check your progress - 9

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

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

16. Write an expansion of PIL.

17. Who are called bonded labours?

### 7.12 LET US SUM UP

From this unit you have been studied the problem in rural area such as Poverty, Unemployment, Seasonal unemployment, Illiteracy, Superstitions, Drinking water, housing, health and sanitation, Bonded and Migrant labourers in a detail manner.

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### 7.13 UNIT- END- EXERCISES

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1. What is the meaning of unemployment?
2. Define Poverty.
3. What are the Causes of Seasonal Unemployment?
4. Explain Superstitions.
5. Write an essay about Health and sanitation.
6. Briefly explain the origin and causes of india's bonded labour problem.

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### 7.14 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. 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".
2. Poverté
3. "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**
4. 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.
5. National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA)  
SampoornaGrameenRozgarYojana
  - a. National Food For Work Programme
  - b. Pradhan Mantri Gram SadakYojan
  - c. Indira AwasYojana
  - d. Swaranajayanti Gram SwarozgarYojana
  - e. National Social Assistance Programme and Annapurna
6. The **Seasonal Unemployment** means the demand for a specific kind of work and workers change with the change in the season. Simply, the period when the demand for the manpower as well as the capital stock reduces because of a decreased demand in the economy at a particular point in time in a year causes the seasonal unemployment.
7. High illiteracy rates in rural parts of India are an area of the Indian education system that cannot be overlooked. Hampered by the government and by other factors the quality of education in rural districts has been quite poor. High dropout rates and low enrollment by the children have contributed to the large illiteracy rate.
8. Kerala
9. The term superstition is derived from the Latin superstition, meaning "to stand over in awe." Superstition refers to belief that certain event or things will bring good or bad luck

10. For example, if an athlete wears a particular pair of shoes on a day he performs particularly well, he may continue to wear the same pair of shoes in the belief that the shoes were responsible for the success.
11. waterborne diseases, diarrhea
12. Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Mission
13. NOAPS, SGSY
14. Central Rural Sanitation Programme
15. Accredited Female Health Activist
16. Public Interest Law
17. Bonded labor, which is characterized by a long-term relationship between employer and employee, is usually solidified through a loan, and is embedded intricately in India's socio-economic culture - a culture that is a product of class relations, a colonial history, and persistent poverty among many citizens.

*Poverty, Unemployment*

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### **7.15 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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1. T.W. Schultz. *Transforming Traditional Agriculture* (Yale University Press, 1964), pp. 67-50.
2. J.P. Bhattacharjee, "Underemployment among Indian Farmers" *Vijnana*, Volume 3, March 1961.
3. VISARIA, PRAVIN 1977 "Trends in Rural Unemployment in India: A Comment." *Economic and Political Weekly* 12 (29 January)
4. *8 Drinking Water and Sanitation Status in India*, WaterAid India, 2005
5. Gupta Akhilesh, Mall R.K., Singh Ranjeet, Rathore L. S., Singh R. S., *Water resources and climate change: An Indian Perspective*; *Current Science*, VOL. 90, NO. 12, June 2006

*Self - Instructional Material*

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## UNIT- VIII URBAN SOCIOLOGY

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### Structure

- 8.1 Introduction
  - 8.2 Objectives
  - 8.3 Urban sociology
    - 8.3.1 Meaning of urban sociology
    - 8.3.2 Definition of urban sociology
  - 8.4 Nature of urban sociology
  - 8.5 Scope of urban sociology
  - 8.6 Let us sum up
  - 8.7 Unit – end – exercises
  - 8.8 Answer to check your progress
  - 8.9 Suggested Readings
- 

### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

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In the 21<sup>st</sup> century half of the world's population lived in the urban areas. This rapid expansion of urbanism requires a comprehensive understanding of urban relevant phenomena and urban sociology attempts to focus on the urbanized social way of life and its impact on the surroundings, the suburbs in particular.

Sociology is the study of social reality. When we use the term urban sociology, it means the social reality amalgamates with urban social structures and organizations. Urban sociology is the study of social reality which includes ecological and cultural perspectives. It is the study of modern era where city and society are looked upon many aspects which incorporate economic, political and cultural units. It also comprises major dimensions of urban life.

In this unit the students will learn meaning, definition, nature and scope of urban sociology.

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### 8.2 OBJECTIVES

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After studying this unit, the students will be able to

- ✓ know the concept of urban sociology
  - ✓ understand the meaning and definition of urban sociology
  - ✓ acquire the knowledge about nature and scope of urban sociology
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### 8.3 URBAN SOCIOLOGY

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Urban sociology is the sociological study of the human interaction in metropolitan areas. It is a normative discipline of sociology seeking to study the structures, environmental processes, changes and problems of an urban area and by doing so provide inputs for urban planning and policy making. It is the sociological study of cities and their role in the development of society.

Urban sociology seeks to describe and interpret the causal connections between the constitutive elements of a city and the factors that

give rise to them. It helps to understand the complex as well as profound meaning of every urban reality, the territorial stabilization of social life, the culture and the origin and evolution of human settlements.

Urban sociology attempts to account for the interrelation of subcultures in urban areas, as well as the internal structures of segments of society. Like biological systems, urban subgroups are dependent on one another for healthy functioning and are also dynamic—that is, they flourish and decline based on political, economic, and social tides.

Like most areas of sociology, urban sociologists use statistical analysis, observation or ethnography, social theory, interviews, and other methods to study a range of topics, including migration, economic and demographic trends, as well as things like poverty, race relations, crime, sexuality, and many other phenomena that surface in dynamic cities.

After the Industrial Revolution sociologists such as Max Weber and Georg Simmel began to focus on the accelerating process of urbanization and the effects it had on feelings of social alienation and anonymity. Notably, Georg Simmel is widely considered to be the father of urban sociology for his contributions to the field in works such as *The Metropolis and Mental Life*, published in 1903.

### 8.3.1 MEANING OF URBAN SOCIOLOGY

The word urban has been defined in the Oxford Dictionary as “pertaining to town or city life”. It is derived from the Latin ‘Urals’ a term used by the Roman a city.

Urban sociology is the study of how urban settings shape human behaviour and how human behaviour shape urban settings.

Urban Sociology is “a science of city life.”

The dictionary meaning of ‘urban’ is ‘city’, which describes the city life. The following are some of the important definitions which clarify the meaning of urban life.

Urban Sociology is a keen, interesting and practical subject which deals with city life, specialization of the study of complex human situations, deals with city organization and disorganization, cultural changes, overall development of civilization, economic development, political and social changes. It is a place exactly different and antithetical with rural community. The urban family life is different from village family life, celebration of marriage; casteism, etc are losing their importance. Divorces are found as men and women enjoy more social and economic independence.

There are many job opportunities in urban community. Urban community attracts and pulls large number of rural people. Rural poverty pushes people and urban richness pulls them to settle down permanently in cities. So there is a conglomeration (assembly) of people in one particular place and space becomes costly, resulting into mushroom growth of slums. Modern cities are not away from slums, pipelines, and traffic jam, breakdown of machineries, strikes, hartal, alienation, loneliness, frustration and increasing number of social crimes and economic offences. The birth and growth of towns and cities in the modern world ultimately depends on the standard of living and application of science and technology to daily

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way of life, and missing traditions, morality, simplicity and humility in life. A village becomes a big village and big village into a town, a town into a taluka place, a district known as a big city, changed into metropolitan, mega-city, and cosmopolitan city. Within a period of ten-fifteen years, all modern world cities have grown abnormally. High population, land grabbing (snatching), infringement and encroachment, increasing number of crimes, lack of law and order, loose moral atmosphere, independence to men, women and children responsible to measure and understand the city of its size and development not only geographically, but also ethically, socially and aesthetically.

### 8.3.2 DEFINITION OF URBAN SOCIOLOGY

Jary and Jary (2000) - The study of social relationships and structures in the city.

According to Louis Mumford, urban society is “a melting pot of various cultures of the world due to railroad, industries and slums.”

Louis Wirth, an American Sociologist says that urban society is “a place designed gracefully with different zones with definite purposes.”

E.W.Burgess says that there is “industrialization, modernization, and establishment of bureaucracy, combined with business organizations, skyscrapers, theatres, hotels, abnormal growth of slums and surviving with numerous social problems.”

According to Prof. Quinn, urban community is “a non-agricultural community.”

E.Bergel defined “Urban Sociology deals with the impact of the city life on social actions, social relationships, social institutions and the type of civilization, derived from and based on urban mode of living.”

Max Weber, the German sociologist in his book ‘The City’, defined Urban Sociology” as a whole system characterized by complex order of social actions, social relations and social institutions. It has following features – a market, a fortification, a complicated legal system, including a court and an elected body of administration.”

According to **Flanagan (2010)**, ‘A cohesive sub-discipline within sociology, related in some systematic manner to a particular kind of social space, the urban arena.’

According to **Barker**, “Urban Sociology deals with the impact of the city life on social action, social relationship, social instruction and the types of civilization derived from and based on urban modes of living.”

#### 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 urban sociology?
2. Define urban sociology.

### 8.4 NATURE OF URBAN SOCIOLOGY

Urban sociology has its own characteristics and these are stated below

- ✓ Urban sociology is the sociological analysis of city and its life style.

- ✓ It concerns the dynamism of society stimulated by urbanization.
- ✓ It tends to identify the urban problems and implement possible remedies to solve them.
- ✓ It is a factual study of urban social living.
- ✓ It plays attention to the social relation among the city dwellers.
- ✓ It concerned with the geo-spatial cultural issues and comparative analysis of urban ecology.
- ✓ It studies the social relation which may harmonious or conflicting.
- ✓ It is the subtract area of general sociology.
- ✓ It is a social science.
- ✓ It is a theoretical as well as an applied science.
- ✓ It is a categorical science not a normative science.
- ✓ It is an abstract not a concrete science.
- ✓ It is a special not a general science.
- ✓ It is value free science.
- ✓ It is based on universal, authentic and valid scientific data.

Pitirim Sorokin and Zimmerman have suggested the following features which give us more meaning of urban community.

**1) Heterogeneity:** Urban community is a heterogeneous group, where people belong to different race, religion, language, caste and creed. For example, in a city like Mumbai, people from different states, of different cultural groups live and they are totally dissimilar. In London, Indians, Pakistanis and Bangla Deshis have their own colonies.

**2. Secondary relations:** The urban community is characterized by secondary relations People are indifferent towards one another. Face-to-face, friendly or intimate relations may not be observed among people.

**3. Voluntary Associations:** All people in city are doing nonagricultural jobs. They are necessarily members of many voluntary associations. According to standard of living, they form their own residential groups and needful institutions and associations.

**4. Social Mobility:** In urban society, social status is not traditional but based on the economic status, educational standard and talent. In other words, individual intelligence and talent brings progress and hereditary is not important.

**5. Individual Freedom:** In urban community, men and women have more independence. People are more individualistic in their attitudes. The city dweller is more selective in his choice and more individualistic in his preferences. He is guided by his own whims and fancies.

**6. Occupations:** All people are engaged in non-agricultural jobs, such as business, marketing, office, police, court, industry and factory, transport communication, hospitals and educational institutions, theatre, share market etc. So they are always far away from nature and simple life.

**7. Secondary Control:** In urban community individual behavior is not controlled by family, religion and neighborhood. It is controlled by secondary organizations, such as, government, police, court etc.

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**8. Lack of Community Feeling:** There is a lack of community feeling, feeling of oneness, unity and integrity of the family, neighborhood in the city. In urban community, people are busy in their individual achievements, so naturally they neglect feeling of oneness and unity with the city.

**9. Social Disorganization:** Urban community has number of institutions and associations. They are working independently. So there is always struggle, conflict and competition. Thus social disorganization is seen and felt.

**10. Unstable Family:** Family is no longer the economic, educational, protective, recreational and effective unit. Family has lost much of its control over its individual members. Many of the traditional functions of the family are transferred to the external agencies. It is said that the urban family is not firmly organized.

In the early period there are two major currents came to characterize urban sociology. The first came from the sociologists at the University of Chicago emphasizing the demographic and ecological structure of the city, the social disorganization and pathology of the urban normative order and the social psychology of urban existence. The second current has come to be called 'community studies'. It consists of broad-gauged ethnographic studies of the social structure of individual communities and the ways of life of the inhabitants.

The two orientations are divided into culturalists' approach and the structuralists' approach in the urban sociology. The culturalists emphasize on how urban life feels, how people react to living in urban areas and how the city life is organized. This approach tries to study and explore the culture, organizational and social psychological consequences of urban life. Louis Wirth's work belongs to this approach.

The structuralists' approach investigates the interplay between the political and economic forces, the growth, decline and changing spatial organization of urban space. They consider city as the physical embodiment of political and economic relationship. They argue that the city itself is an effect of more fundamental forces and cities are shaped by social powers that affect all aspects of human existence. Park, Burgess and McKenzie of the Chicago School belong to this approach.

Any study of urban sociology must include both the approaches.

Urban sociology is not a subject with distinct individuality but the combination of both the approaches.

**Check your progress - 2**

**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 two approaches in urban sociology?

2. Which approach Louis Wirth the sociologist belongs?

**8.5 SCOPE OF URBAN SOCIOLOGY**

The scope of urban sociology is very vast and multidimensional.

- It relies on the related sciences and borrows from history, economics, social psychology, public administration and social work.
- The subject matter of urban sociology is cities and their growth.
- It deals with problems like planning and development of cities, traffic regulations, public waterworks, social hygiene, sewerage works, housing, beggary, juvenile delinquency, crime and so on. Thus as urbanism is many-sided so is urban sociology.
- The scope of urban sociology becomes wider as it not only tries to study the urban setup and facts but also tries to give suggestions to solve problems arising out of dynamic nature of the society.
- Urban sociology focuses on the elements of the modern civilizations and also the dichotomy between the rural and the urban civilization many aspects include cities, communities etc.
- The main aim of urban sociology is to study the basic principles of the city life.

### Introductory Scope

- a) **Urban ecology** – it studies the facts of the urban environment. It also emphasizes on the study of population in the cities.
- b) **Urban morphology** – the study of social life of urban areas and that of urban organization is taken up.
- c) **Urban psychology** – it covers the behaviour and the mode of living of the people in urban areas.
- d) **Analytical scope** – analysing of urban sociology is another important field of study. Under the analytical scope, various concepts and important phases of urban life are developed and studied.

### Reformative Scope

Under this the problems of urbanism are studied. This includes some of the important issues such as the impact of urbanization on urban society leading to urban disorganization, urban planning and development.

Thus, the scope of urban sociology is much wider as it covers the whole spectrum of urban life and its changing environments.

**Gottdiener and Hutchison (2011)** stated that ‘In general, Urban Sociology is concerned about the everyday life in the suburban (suburban settlement space as well as in the city or urban settlement space). Yet, it has three addition dimensions-

1. Shift to a global perspective.
2. Attention to the political economy of pull factors (government policies including mortgage guarantees for lenders, tax deductions for homeowners, and the like) in urban and suburban development, and
3. Appreciate for the role of culture in metropolitan life and in the construction of the built environment.

According to **Marshall [1998]**, urban sociology is concerned with

1. Urbanization.

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2. Rapidly growing industrial cities.
3. Complex social relationships, and
4. Social structures.

According to **Simmel [1903]**, urban sociology is the impressionistic discussion of

1. Urban life-style and personality.
2. Urban social organization and culture.
3. Physical characteristics of cities.
4. Social characteristics of the inhabitants.

According to **Jary and Jary [2000]**, urban sociology is concerned with—

1. Urban dimension of society.
2. Forms of association and social life in urban environments.
3. Social order and organization in urban settings.
4. Role of urban development in social change.
5. The relationships between incidence of social problems, i.e. crime, alcoholism, and social cohesion,
6. Community studies and neighbourhood.
7. Study of housing.
8. Race and ethnic relationships.
9. Dynamics of zone transition.
10. Urban housing class, housing market and forms of tenure system.
11. Economic class interests.
12. Labour class and power.

**Azam and Ali [2005]** have classified the scope of urban sociology into five dimensions

A. **The social change perspectives**, includes---

- Morphology of cities.
- Population dynamics.
- Transformation of urban communities.
- Change in behavioural pattern of city-dwellers.
- Transformation of urban ways of living.
- Complex structural change.
- Centre for domestic and foreign activities.
- Centre for commercial and non-commercial activities, and
- Centre for housing, employment and education.

B. **The social organization perspectives**, includes—

- Individuals,
- Groups.
- Voluntary association.
- Bureaucracy, and
- Social institution

C. **The ecological perspective**, includes

- Population.

- Environment.
- Technology

**D. The social problem perspectives, includes—**

- Environmental pollution.
- Illness.
- Family fragmentation.
- Poverty.
- Unemployment.
- Drug addiction.
- Class and juvenile delinquency.
- Prostitution and trafficking and so on.

**E. The social policy perspectives, includes**

- Recognition and identification of the problems, and
- Ability to solve the identified problems.

**Check your progress - 3**

**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 main aim of studying urban sociology?
2. What is the scope of urban sociology according to Simmel?

## **8.6 LET US SUM UP**

Half of the world's population lived in the urban areas. This rapid expansion of urbanism requires a comprehensive understanding of urban relevant phenomena. Georg Simmel is widely considered to be the father of urban sociology. He contributes to the field in works such as *The Metropolis and Mental Life*, published in 1903. Urban sociology is the study of how urban settings shape human behaviour and how human behaviour shape urban settings. According to Jary and Jary (2000) urban sociology is "The study of social relationships and structures in the city." Urban sociology is the sociological analysis of city and its life style. It tends to identify the urban problems and implement possible remedies to solve them. Study of urban sociology has two approaches; they are culturalists' approach and structuralists' approach. The culturalists' emphasize on how urban life feels, how people react to living in urban areas and how the city life is organized. Louis Wirth's work belongs to this approach. The structuralists' approach investigates the interplay between the political and economic forces, the growth, decline and changing spatial organization of urban space. Park, Burgess and McKenzie of the Chicago School belong to this approach. Scope of urban sociology includes introductory scope (urban ecology, urban morphology, urban psychology, and analytical scope) and reformative scope. Thus, the scope of urban sociology is much wider as it covers the whole spectrum of urban life and its changing environments.

In this unit you have learnt meaning and definition of urban sociology. The two approaches culturalists' and structuralists' have been discussed. The scope of urban sociology was also discussed in detail.

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## 8.7 UNIT – END – EXERCISES

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1. What is meant by urban sociology?
2. Explain the nature of urban sociology.
3. Write the five dimensions in the scope of urban sociology given by Azam and Ali.

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## 8.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Georg Simmel
2. According to **Barker**, “Urban Sociology deals with the impact of the city life on social action, social relationship, social instruction and the types of civilization derived from and based on urban modes of living.”
3. Culturalists’ approach and Structuralists’ approach.
4. Culturalists’ approach
5. To study the basic principles of the city life.
6. The five dimensions are
  - ✓ The social change perspectives
  - ✓ The social organization perspectives
  - ✓ The ecological perspective
  - ✓ The social problem perspectives
  - ✓ The social policy perspectives

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## 8.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT – IX IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF URBAN SOCIOLOGY

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*Importance of the study of urban sociology*

## Structure

- 9.1 Introduction
  - 9.2 Objectives
  - 9.3 Importance of the study of urban sociology
  - 9.4 Urbanism as a way of life
    - 9.4.1 Definition of urbanism
    - 9.4.2 Characteristics of urbanism
    - 9.4.3 Louis Wirth: Urbanism as a way of life
    - 9.4.4 World Urbanism Day
  - 9.5 Factors of urbanisation
    - 9.5.1 Urbanisation
    - 9.5.2 Causes of urbanisation
    - 9.5.3 Effect of urbanisation
    - 9.5.4 Causes of urbanisation in India
  - 9.6 Let us sum up
  - 9.7 Unit – end – exercises
  - 9.8 Answer to check your progress
  - 9.9 Suggested Readings
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## 9.1 INTRODUCTION

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Curiosity and hierarchy of needs among human beings make them to come together to form society with capacity to become cities. They want to understand themselves and they study themselves as groups. They have the capacity to manipulate. Learning from urban sociology helps them to merchandising and politics. They need to get along with each other in spite of specific dislikes and preferences. They understand and plan for their lives. Urban sociology provides an analytical framework for understand these circumstances. Urbanism is a way of life which urban people lead different lives in different circumstances. Urbanisation is a process of change from a rural area to an urban area.

In this unit you will learn the importance of urban sociology, the concepts urbanism and urbanisation in detail.

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## 9.2 OBJECTIVES

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- To understand the importance of the study of urban sociology
  - To provide key insights in the term urbanism as a way of life
  - To discuss the factors of urbanisation
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## 9.3 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF URBAN SOCIOLOGY

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Urban sociology is the study of problems and policies in an urban area. The importance of the study of urban sociology is to understand the institutions and structures that make up a metropolitan area to work with policy makers to solve social problems in urban areas. The society focuses on urbanisation, they develop urban areas and therefore different social problems arise. A large portion of people are living in urban areas tend to

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be focused on how individualistic, independent, and unique. It leads to discrimination and lack of caring for others.

A study of urban sociology has relevance in the context of wider theoretical problems; it gives us understanding not only of the economic development but also of social change.

Urban studies deal with the transformation of a plethora of dimensions between urban and rural structures. These studies are important because it includes conventional social realities. It includes the transformation of city, town, and community from its elementary form to complete a new frame of outlook.

Urban studies also include the role of cities in the process of cultural change.

Urban sociology is a well-established subfield of sociology that seeks to study the structures, processes, changes and problems of urban areas and to subsequently provide input for planning and policymaking. In other words, it is the sociological study of cities and their role in the development of society.

**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. Write any two importance of the study of urban sociology.

**9.4 URBANISM AS A WAY OF LIFE**

The concept of urbanism denotes a way of life. The term represents the diffusion of urban culture and the evolution of urban society. It indicates a wide acquaintance with things and people. Such acquaintance imbues the city dwellers with the spirit of tolerance. The urban people learn how to lead different lives in different circumstances.

“Urbanism is not synonymous with city”. ‘City’ refers to an area distinguished principally by size, population, density and social diversity, whereas urbanism refers to a complex of social relations.

Sociologists working in the first half of the 20th century on theories of city life emphasised the alienating aspects of the urban environment or to put it otherwise the opposition between community and the city life. Louis Wirth was one of the first to lay stress on the social aspects of urbanism. He tried to discover the forms of social action and organisation that typically emerge in relatively permanent compact settlements of large numbers of heterogeneous individuals (Rao et al 1992).

According to the theory of urbanism Louis Wirth believed that the larger, the denser, and the more heterogeneous the population of an area, the more urbanised will be the life style of the people. Thus the principle elements of urbanisation according to him are the population size, population density and population heterogeneity. His view was that the city's heterogeneity, large size, high density; secular cosmopolitan atmosphere tended to be seen as contributing to people's alienation rather than affording an opportunity for richer life (Louis Wirth 1938). Louis Wirth analyses that the city as a permanent settlement of a human

population of high density and with a sufficiently high degree of heterogeneity results in the emergence of new culture characterised by the transition from primary to secondary relations, role segmentation, anonymity, isolation, instrumental relations, the absence of direct social control, the diversity and transience of social commitments, the loosening of family ties and individualistic competition. It is this socio-cultural context which is the ultimate explanation of the new forms of human behaviour.

Urbanism is a special concept which inherits within itself all the characters connected with urbanisation and the urban way of life. The concept was given its final shape by Louis Wirth. Urbanism is a category of relevant element terms. It is a developing concept as the urban life pattern itself, as it appears, is a developing and constantly changing phenomena.

His idea is that the social organisation of a large human settlement or urban area makes a life style based on primary relationship (seen in rural areas) very difficult. Typically urbanites meet one another in highly segmented roles. Their encounters tend frequently to be limited to situations, which involves specialised, limited aspects of the person's total spectrum of roles. It is this role fragmentation and limited integration among different roles, which causes a kind of alienation, which in turn is associated with a large number of social pathologies, such as crime, suicide, and mental illness that are brought about by a poorly integrated social structure.

The population density or the crowded physical space of the urban areas also affects both the frequency and quality of human interaction. Thus when he talks about the population density as the principal basis of urbanisation he actually means the social density or density of social interactions. The diverse nature of cities in terms of ethnicity, culture, social structure and general life style gives it the heterogeneous nature. This heterogeneous nature of urban centers account for the anomic quality of urban life. In addition to the city's diversity, the fragmentation of social relationships is compounded by the seeming connectedness of various facets of urban life. In urban areas where one resides, where one works and the kind of job one has, one's income, one's interests and one's allegiances are not well related either spatially or culturally. This heterogeneity, Wirth said, also resulted in people clustering into various ecologically segregated areas ethnic zhettos, poverty areas, and middle class neighborhoods (Wilson 1978).

Urbanism is the study of how inhabitants of urban areas, such as [towns](#) and [cities](#), interact with the [built environment](#). It is a direct component of disciplines such as [urban planning](#), which is the profession focusing on the physical design and management of urban structures and urban sociology which is the academic field the study of urban life and culture.

#### **9.4.1 DEFINITION OF URBANISM**

Urbanism is a cultural-social-economic phenomenon which traces interaction between the social and technological processes. – Mamoria C.B.

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Prof. Ram Ahuja says that urbanism is a way of life which is characterised by certain elements such as transiency (short-term relations), superficiality, (impersonal and formal relations with limited number of people,) anonymity (not knowing names and lacking Intimacy) and individualism (people giving more importance to one's vested interests).

Louis Wirth has mentioned four characteristics of urban system or urbanism – heterogeneity of population, specialisation of function, anonymity and impersonality and standardisation of behaviour.

#### **9.4.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF URBANISM**

- The diversity of social life (Normal and social role conflict)
- Rapid social and cultural change.
- Impersonality and lack of intimate communication.
- Materialism
- Individualism
- Mobility
- Increase In formal social control.

##### **1. The norm and social role conflicts**

The diversity of social life springs from the size, density and heterogeneity of the population, extreme specialization of the various occupations and class structures existing in the larger communities. These latter factors generally result in divergent group norms and values and conflicting social roles.

##### **2. Rapid social and cultural change**

Rapid social and cultural change also characterizes urban life. So there is decline in the significance of traditional and sacred things. The reduced size of the modern family is the result of rapid social and cultural change.

##### **3. Impersonality and lack of intimate communication**

There is superficiality and impersonality among the urbanities. Urban society is highly heterogeneous and specialised. So, the result is lack of intimate relationship. The urban people live close together but without emotional ties. Urban social relation takes place between strangers.

##### **4. Materialism**

Urban people give primary importance to material possessions. They live and are known for their status symbols, bank balances, assets, salaries, buildings with modern furnishings etc.

##### **5. Individualism**

In urban society people become more individualistic, self-centred, and selfish and so on. They give primary emphasis to their own interests and personal happiness; they develop the attitude towards competition, conflict in relation to economic goods and social position.

##### **6. Mobility**

Here in urban society there is greater mobility. People move from one job to another, from one locality to another. The residential mobility tends to weaken ties to the local community.

## 7. Increase in formal social controls

Social controls in urban society are more formal. Responsibility for controlling behaviour in cities is largely shifting to the police, the courts and other agencies of government to enforce the norms of certain groups. Cities vary in the extent or the degree to which they are characterised by urban qualities. Some cities have less norm and role conflicts, social change, mobility, individualism and impersonality than others.

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### 9.4.3 LOUIS WIRTH: URBANISM AS A WAY OF LIFE

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Wirth believed that urbanism was a particular way of life, and it impacted social relationships and personalities. Wirth believed that cities produced feelings of anonymity, individualism, transiency and superficiality.

The concept of “**Urbanism**” represents a way of life. It generally means the fusion and evolution urban culture and the society.

According to Louis Wirth, Urbanism is a way of life, is characterised by extensive conflicts of norms and values, increased social differentiation, higher levels of education and income, by impersonality of relationships and by increase in formal social controls.

More and more people were moving into cities, the condition of living in a city, was become the way of modern life. According to Wirth, *a city was defined by its population size and density.*

Wirth saw cities as promoting individualism, people in a city pursue their own interests he also saw anonymity as a defining feature of cities. Urban residents do not know each other well and there is a decline in the significance of traditional and sacred things.

The readers might get confused by his explanation about the urban cities in a negative way but the only thing he tries to convey is when the area of a place increases, population also increase so there is a difficulty in social life i.e. to get friendly affection each other. We may know each other but not in personal way, because urban cities prefer **individualism**.

### 9.4.4 WORLD URBANISM DAY

The international organisation for World Urbanism Day, also known as "World Town Planning Day", was founded in 1949 by the late Professor Carlos Maria della Paoleraof the [University of Buenos Aires](#), a graduate at the Institute d'urbanisme in Paris, to advance public and professional interest in planning. It is celebrated in more than 30 countries on four continents each November 8<sup>th</sup>. It is a special day to recognise and promote the role of planning in creating liveable communities.

World Urbanism Day presents an excellent opportunity to look at planning from a global perspective, an event which appeals to the conscience of citizens and public authorities in order to draw attention to the environmental impact resulting from the development of cities and territories.

**Check your progress - 2**

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

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

2. Who is the founder of world town planning day?
3. When is World urbanism day celebrated?
4. How Louis Wirth defines a city?
5. Define urbanism.

## **9.5 FACTORS OF URBANISATION**

The state of being or becoming a community with urban characteristics.

The process of change from a rural area to an urban area.

Urbanisation is a process whereby populations move from rural to urban area, enabling cities and towns to grow. It can also be termed as the progressive increase of the number of people living in towns and cities. It is highly influenced by the notion that cities and towns have achieved better economic, political and social mileages compared to the rural areas.

Accordingly, urbanisation is very common in developing and developed countries as more and more people have the tendency of moving closer to towns and cities to acquire “privileged” social and economic services as well as benefits. These include social and economic advantages such as better education, health care, sanitation, housing, business opportunities and transportation.

Majority of people move to cities and towns because they view rural areas as places with hardship and backward/primitive lifestyle. Therefore, as populations move to more developed areas (towns and cities) the immediate outcome is urbanisation. This normally contributes to the development of land for use in commercial properties, social and economic support institutions, transportation and residential buildings. Eventually, these activities raise several urbanisation issues.

### **9.5.1 URBANISATION**

Urbanisation means a breakdown of traditional social institutions, social norms, and values.

A population is considered as the chief feature of urbanization including the social features underlying it.

Urbanisation has become the talk of the hour. Growth of industries especially service sector had contributed to the growth of cities. As a result of industrialisation people have started moving towards the industrial areas in search of employment. This has resulted in the growth of towns and cities from tier 1 to tier 3.

Urbanisation denotes a diffusion of the influence of urban centres to a rural hinterland. Urbanisation can also be defined as a process or rate of concentration of population in a particular urban area.

According to Mitchell urbanisation is a process of becoming urban, moving to cities, changing from agriculture to other pursuits common to cities.

### 9.5.2 CAUSES OF URBANISATION

Various reasons have led to the growth of cities. They are as follows:

#### **i. Industrialization**

Industrialization is a major cause of urbanisation. It has expanded the employment opportunities. Rural people have migrated to cities on account of better employment opportunities.

#### **ii. Social factors**

Many social factors such as attraction of cities, better standard of living, better educational facilities, need for status also induce people to migrate to cities.

#### **iii. Employment opportunities**

In rural sector people have to depend mainly on agriculture for their livelihood. But Indian agriculture is depending on monsoon. In drought situations or natural calamities, rural people have to migrate to cities.

#### **iv. Modernization**

Urban areas are characterized by sophisticated technology better infrastructure, communication, medical facilities, etc. People feel that they can lead a comfortable life in cities and migrate to cities.

#### **v. Rural urban transformation**

It is an interesting aspect that not only cities are growing in number but rural community is adopting urban culture, no longer rural communities are retaining their unique rural culture. Rural people are following the material culture of urban people. Urban rural transformation can be observed in the following areas.

#### **Spread of education**

The literacy rate has increased among the rural people. They have become more modernized.

- Change in dress habits.
- Adoption of modern technology
- Enlightenment of women.
- Modern transport and communication. E.g.: Cell phones have become common even among rural people.
- Active involvement in politics.
- Growth of infrastructure like Banks, Post office.
- Increasing demand for sophisticated products like cosmetics etc.

Thus it can be noticed that there are significant changes in the life style of village people. Indian villages have adopted urban culture and urban style of living. However, all villages in India are not transformed. Only certain villages situated close to the cities have been transformed.

### 9.5.3 EFFECT OF URBANISATION

With a high rate of urbanisation significant changes have taken place. The effect of urbanisation can be summed up as follows:

#### **Positive effect:**

- Migration of rural people to urban areas.
- Employment opportunities in urban centres.
- Transport and communication facilities.
- Educational facilities.
- Increase in the standard of living.

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Urbanisation may yield positive effects if it takes place up to a desirable limit.

Extensive urbanisation or indiscriminate growth of cities may result in **negative effects**. They may be as follows:

**1. Problem of over population**

Concentration of population is a major problem of cities. It has resulted in accommodation problem, growth of slums etc.

**2. Disintegration of joint family**

Joint family can't be maintained in cities on account of high cost of living: People prefer to live in the nuclear type of families so that cost of living might come down.

**3. Cost of living**

High cost of living is a major problem of cities. In Metro cities like Mumbai, Bangalore etc. it is very difficult for lower income groups to maintain a decent standard of living.

**4. Increase in Crime rates**

Urban centres are known for high rate of crimes. Theft, Murder, Cheating, Pick pocketing, rape etc. are common in urban centres.

**5. Impersonal relations**

Urban centres are characterised by highly secondary relations. The concept of neighbourhood, community life are almost absent in cities. Urban life is highly monotonous. This may have an adverse psychological effect on individuals. People are often self-centred and they have no concern for the fellow human beings.

**6. Problem of Pollution**

In industrialized cities pollution is a major problem. It may be caused by industries or by excessive movement of vehicles.

**7. Stress**

Urban life is characterized by stress which may even strain family relations. In cities employment of women is almost inevitable to meet the increasing cost of living. Changing role of women in the family creates stress in the family which may result in divorce or strained relations.

**9.5.4 CAUSES OF URBANISATION IN INDIA**

Urbanisation has become a common feature of Indian society. Growth of industries has contributed to the growth of cities. As a result of industrialisation people have started moving towards the industrial areas in search of employment. This has resulted in the growth of towns and cities.

The main causes of urbanisation in India are:

- ✓ Expansion in government services, as a result of Second World War
- ✓ Migration of people from Pakistan after partition of India.
- ✓ The Industrial Revolution
- ✓ Eleventh five year plan that aimed at urbanisation for the economic development of India.
- ✓ Economic opportunities are just one reason people move into cities
- ✓ Infrastructure facilities in the urban areas
- ✓ Growth of private sector after 1990.

## Consequences of urbanisation

Rapid rise in urban population, in India, is leading to many problems like increasing slums, decrease in standard of living in urban areas, also causing environmental damage.

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### Check your progress - 3

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 are the causes of urbanisation?
7. What is the effect of stress in urbanisation?

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## 9.6 LET US SUM UP

Urban sociology is the study of problems and policies in an urban area. It includes the role of cities in the process of cultural change. Urbanism denotes a way of life. Louis Wirth has mentioned four characteristics of urban system or urbanism – heterogeneity of population, specialisation of function, anonymity and impersonality and standardisation of behaviour. According to Wirth, *a city was defined by its population size and density. He pointed when an area of a place increases, population also increase so there is a difficulty in social life.* The international organisation for World Urbanism Day was founded in 1949 by Professor Carlos Maria della Paolera of. It is celebrated in November 8<sup>th</sup>. It is a special day to recognise and promote the role of planning in creating liveable communities. According to Mitchell urbanisation is a process of becoming urban, moving to cities, changing from agriculture to other pursuits common to cities. The factors or causes of urbanisation are Industrialization Social factors Employment opportunities Modernization and Rural urban transformation.

In this unit why studying of urban sociology is important have been discussed. The term urbanism has been explained with the help of Louis Wirth's urbanism as a way of life concept. Urbanisation, its factors and urbanisation in India also discussed.

## 9.7 UNIT – END – EXERCISES

1. Importance of studying urban sociology. Comment on.
2. What do you mean by urbanism?
3. What are the characteristics of urbanism?
4. Define urbanisation.
5. Urbanisation in India. Explain.

## 9.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. To understand the institutions and structures that makes up a metropolitan area to work with policy makers to solve social problems in urban areas. Transformation of a plethora of dimensions between urban and rural structures.

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2. Professor Carlos Maria della Paolera
3. November 8<sup>th</sup>.
4. Urbanism is a cultural-social-economic phenomenon which traces interaction between the social and technological processes. – Mamoria C.B.
5. *A city was defined by its population size and density.*
6. Industrialization, Social factors, Employment opportunities, Modernization and Rural urban transformation
7. Urban life is characterized by stress which may even strain family relations. In cities employment of women is almost inevitable to meet the increasing cost of living. Changing role of women in the family creates stress in the family which may result in divorce or strained relations.

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### 9.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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# UNIT-X URBAN PLANNING

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## Structure

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Objectives
- 10.3 Urban planning
  - 10.3.1 Meaning of urban planning
  - 10.3.2 Definition of urban planning
  - 10.3.3 Role of Sociologist in urban Planning
  - 10.3.4 Role of urban planners
  - 10.3.5 New approach to urban planning
  - 10.3.6 Objectives of the National Urbanisation Policy
- 10.4 Definition of Urban locality and urban place
- 10.5 Urban Agglomeration and Other related terms
- 10.6 Let us sum up
- 10.7 Unit – end – exercises
- 10.8 Answer to check your progress
- 10.9 Suggested Readings

*Urban Planning*

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## 10.1 INTRODUCTION

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Well plan is half done. Planning is a continuous process of selecting and developing the best course of action to attain the objective. Urban planning is a process by which the use of land is controlled and its development is regulated in public interest. This type of planning involves the consideration of human activities in time and space, on the known facts about place, work and people. Urban planning consists of two components, physical planning and socioeconomic planning. Sociologist works with the urban planner leads to build comfortable urban areas. The terms urban area, agglomeration, city, town are defined by the country varied.

In this unit you will learn meaning, definition, approach related to urban planning and the role of sociologist and urban planner. You will know the terms related to urban such as locality, place, agglomeration etc.

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## 10.2 OBJECTIVES

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After studying this unit, you will be able to

- ✓ know the concept of urban planning
- ✓ understand the meaning and definition of urban planning
- ✓ explain the role of sociologist and urban planner in planning
- ✓ acquire the knowledge about various terms related to urban

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## 10.3 URBAN PLANNING

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### 10.3.1 MEANING OF URBAN PLANNING

Urban Planning is a technical and political process concerned with the development and use of land, protection and use of the environment, public welfare, and the design of the [urban environment](#), including air, water, and the infrastructure passing into and out of urban areas, such as transportation, communications and distribution networks.

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### 10.3.2 DEFINITION OF URBAN PLANNING

As Lewis Mumford defines:

“City planning involves the consideration of human activities in time and space, on the basis of the known facts about place, work and people. It involves the modification and relocation of various elements of the total environment for the purpose of increasing their services to the community, and it calls for the building of appropriate structure, dwellings, industrial plants, markets, water works, dams, bridges, villages, cities to house the activities of a community, to assist the performance of all its needful functions in a timely and orderly fashion.”

### 10.3.3 ROLE OF SOCIOLOGIST IN URBAN PLANNING

Urban planning consists of two components such as physical planning and socioeconomic planning.

**Physical planning** involves morphological aspects like land use, architecture, transportation and energy, whereas **socioeconomic component** involves social or human ecological processes, which have to be taken into consideration during urban planning.

A sociologist is a better-equipped person in understanding the human ecological processes like segregation, culture and social order.

As such, planning is a form of social action, different from sociology, which analyses the behaviour and society. Socioeconomic factors shape the morphological pattern of the city especially the urban areas of the developing countries like India. Urban areas in reality are socio-cultural units strongly influenced by ethnic, religious, linguistic and politico-historical factors. An urban sociologist can provide all the necessary knowledge in the process of urban planning.

The urban areas are not only the artefacts of buildings or structures but also are the agglomeration of human beings. Hence, social values, traditions and beliefs play an important role in exerting the influence on land use, especially the housing pattern. In other words, social and cultural processes are central to location processes, that is, shifting and sorting of people leaves a deep impact on the morphology or internal structure of the city.

Sociology and planning, both valuable to society, are different. Sociology provides scientific understanding of society while democratic planning utilizes community values through policy goals for social and physical development.

The value of planning to the society can be understood by the way it is called upon in modern times because complex urban area problems (involving crime, housing, taxes, transportation, health, utilities and welfare) cannot be adequately dealt with alone by either market mechanisms or the functional self-interest of party politics.

Sociologists play two major roles in urban planning.

1. They help in analysing and explaining the social reality dispassionately, objectively and truthfully. This is because they possess the technical know-how and methodological equipment to understand such a task. They are also capable of understanding and establishing in unmistakable terms the processes and mechanisms of the social reality of the urban centre.

2. They coordinate with the urban planner and administrator with logically sound and meaningful alternatives (ideas) for urban development.

Thus, to make the city really beautiful and also dynamic, the physical and social factors have to be integrated. A sociologist is a right person to integrate these two aspects.

#### 10.3.4 ROLE OF URBAN PLANNERS

An urban planner is a professional who works in the field of urban planning for the purpose of optimizing the effectiveness of a community's land use and infrastructure. They formulate plans for the development and management of urban and suburban areas, typically analyzing land use compatibility as well as economic, environmental and social trends. In developing any plan for a community (whether commercial, residential, agricultural, natural or recreational), urban planners must consider a wide array of issues including [sustainability](#), existing and potential [pollution](#), transport including potential [congestion](#), [crime](#), land values, economic development, social equity, zoning codes and other legislation.

The importance of the urban planner is increasing in the 21st century, as modern society begins to face issues of increased population growth, climate change and unsustainable development.

#### 10.3.5 NEW APPROACH TO URBAN PLANNING

The traditional approaches to master plans have many limitations which can be overcome and can be geared for development only if

- Its scope is wider than the city region.
- the elaboration of master plans for land use is to be effected within the context of regional development plan
- Its focus is on policy statements rather than on mapped relationships in terms of a full scale urban and regional development policy.
- Its process provides for different mixes of regulations (local, regional and national) and public investments in areas at different stages of urbanisation.
- Its operational content is a changing sequence of different sectors over functional and geographical units of space.
- Its coverage is wider enough to comprehend the development sequences of a system of geographical and spatial units (of villages, of towns, of cities, of regions, and of the nation as a whole).

#### 10.3.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE NATIONAL URBANISATION POLICY

- ❖ Convergence of inter-regional income and growth differentials i.e. controlling city growth in rich regions and expanding urban centres in lagging ones;
- ❖ Achieving national economic growth which has its implications in terms of structure and spacing of a hierarchy

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- as a whole to the importance of leading cities as generic forces of economic growth and diffusion of innovation;
- ❖ Gradual elimination of differential in life style in terms of productivity and welfare both in urban and rural areas providing the minimum levels of services for improving the quality of life.
  - ❖ Favour a pattern of urbanisation and economic development which offers wide range of alternative locations and encourages a balanced use of natural and human resources.
  - ❖ Equating the private and social cost of urban development since divergence between social and private costs leads to excessive growth of cities.

**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 urban planning?
2. What are the two components involved in urban planning?
3. Who is called an urban planner?

**10.4 DEFINITION OF URBAN LOCALITY AND URBAN PLACE**

For the Census of India 2011, the definition of urban area is a place having a minimum population of 5,000 of density 400 persons per square kilometre (1,000/sq mi) or higher, and 75% plus of the male working population employed in non-agricultural activities. Places administered by a municipal corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee are automatically considered urban areas.

It is one of the most crucial and instantaneous problems to decide „what is urban? “ How does it differ from its counterpart, i.e., rural? In everyday life we are aware that distinction between rural and urban depends upon their nature of work – the former being engaged in agricultural operations and the latter in non-agricultural activities. But it is a difficult task to transform the above stated meaning between the two different natures of settlements into accurate and scholarly terms. This is because of the fact that „an urban place“ has been defined differently by different scholars and agencies. Even the United Nations Demographic Year Book (UN, 1990) has given a wide scope of examples covering the different countries defining demographically. UNO defines a permanent settlement with a minimum population of 20,000 as an urban place. But several countries have their own minimum such as Botswana (5,000), Ethiopia (2,000), Argentina (2,000), Israel (2,000), Czechoslovakia (5,000), Iceland (200), Norway (200), Portugal (10,000), Japan (50,000), Australia (1,000), India (5,000), etc. But, the UN Demographic Year Book concludes: “There is no point in the gamut from large agglomerations to small clusters or scattered dwellings where urbanity disappears and rurality begins the division between urban and rural populations is essentially illogical.” A review of the problems of rural and urban centres as shown by the Census Reports of various countries identifies a few bases for estimate a place as urban.

These are:

1. A place selected by administrative status;
2. A minimum population;
3. A minimum population density; A concept of contiguity to include or exclude under suburban area or loosely spread settlement;
4. A percentage engaged in non-agricultural occupations; and
5. A practical character.

In case of our country (India), the census of 1981 has identified the following places as urban:

1. Centres having Municipality, City Board, Cantonment Board/Notified Town Area;
2. A minimum population of 5,000;
3. 75 per cent males engaged in non-agricultural activities;
4. A minimum population density of 400 persons per square km or 1,000 persons per square mile; and
5. Centres defined by urban amenities prescribed by the Director, Provincial Census.

Two important realities must be borne in mind before accepting the meaning of urban and rural. One is the fact that it is fairly impossible now to recognize a dividing line between the rural and urban – the two being merged to create a sort of dispersal and present a landscape which is neither purely agricultural nor engaged wholly in tertiary activities. Industrialization has brought into being a large number of settlements which are not certainly villages but are nucleated settlements of agricultural population. Another problem is about the concept of what is urban, which is not static and is subject to change with time as well as with space. The proportion of population engaged in agricultural activities is the most effective measure. But capitalization of agriculture in modern times and rural depopulation by commuting urban workers has prepared the standard of proportion irrelevant.

Land use in urban areas is usually classified into the following categories of uses: residential, industrial, commercial, transport, and open spaces (such as parks, stadia and water bodies). Of these, the use of land for residential purposes occupies the largest proportion of urban land—somewhere between 40 to 50 per cent. However, the distribution of land between the above uses is a function of city size, historicity, and city function (such as industrial, administrative and commercial). The intensity of use of urban land for residential purposes can be measured in terms of gross population density of the city, that is, population of the city upon area of the city—the city boundary defined as in municipality, municipal, corporation, nagar etc., and the population contained in it. Another variant of this could be residential density, that is, population of the city upon residential area. The intensity of use of residential land as well as commercial land is also influenced by land values—an expected positive relationship—the higher the land value, the higher the intensity of use of land. High income residents do occupy more land per capita, therefore such areas have lower population densities.

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## 10.5 URBAN AGGLOMERATION AND OTHER RELATED TERMS

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An *urban agglomeration* is a continuous *urban* spread constituting a town and its adjoining outgrowths (OGs), or two or more physically contiguous towns together with or without outgrowths of such towns.

Urban agglomerations, which is defined as geographic concentration of urban population and economic activities. This implies that urban agglomeration includes but not equal to urbanization. Urban India has been experiencing a steady increase in the share of its urban population, emergence of new cities or towns, sizeable contribution to the country's national income, reduction of poverty, increasing inequality, and lower level of inclusive growth. Urban population expansion is due to natural growth of population (accounted 59.4 percent in 1991-01); emergence of new cities (accounted 6.2 percent in 1991-01); rural to urban migration (accounted 21 percent in 1991-01); and reclassification of rural areas as urban (accounted 13 percent in 1991-01)

An Urban Agglomeration must consist of at least a statutory town and its total population (i.e. all the constituents put together) should not be less than 20,000 as per the 2001 Census. In varying local conditions, there were similar other combinations which have been treated as urban agglomerations satisfying the basic condition of contiguity.

An urban area or urban agglomeration is a human settlement with high population density and infrastructure of built environment. Urban areas are created through urbanization and are categorized by urban morphology as cities, towns, conurbations or suburbs.

An urban agglomeration is an extended city or town area comprising the built-up area of a central place and any suburbs linked by continuous urban area.

Sorokin and Zimmerman enumerate and characterises in which the urban world differs from the rural world. These are a) occupation b) environment c) size of community d) density of population e) heterogeneity f) social differentiation and stratification g) mobility and h) system of interactions. As occupation forms the main basis for other social activities, we call a city an agglomeration where people are engaged in other than agricultural occupations.

The Census of India 2011 also defined the term "urban agglomeration" as an integrated urban area consisting of a core town together with its "outgrowths" (contiguous suburbs).

### **OTHER RELATED TERMS**

a) City: Any urban area with a population of 100,000 or more is treated as city in the Indian Census.

b) Census Town: Any area which satisfies the following criteria is classified as Census Town (CT) for the purpose of Census:-

- i) a minimum population of 5,000.
- ii) at least 75 per cent of male working population in non-agricultural
- iii) a density of population of at least 400 persons per sq. km.

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### **Check your progress - 2**

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

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

4. How can Census of India 2011 define urban agglomeration?
5. Define city according to Indian Census.

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## **10.6 LET US SUM UP**

During urban planning physical planning involves morphological aspects, whereas socioeconomic component involves social or human ecological processes are considered. A sociologist is a better-equipped person in understanding the human ecological processes. An urban planner works in the field of urban planning for the purpose of optimizing the effectiveness of a community's land use and infrastructure. Traditional methods and its limitations lead to new approaches in urban planning.

In this unit you have learnt meaning and definition of urban planning. The two components physical and socioeconomic planning with role of sociologist in urban planning has been discussed. A new approach to urban planning and the objectives of National Urbanisation Policy has been discussed. The terms urban place, agglomeration also have been discussed.

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## **10.7 UNIT – END – EXERCISES**

1. Define urban planning.
2. Explain the role of sociologist in urban planning.
3. List down the objectives of National Urbanisation Policy.
4. Enumerate the criteria for classify census town.

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## **10.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. Urban Planning is a technical and political process concerned with the development and use of land, protection and use of the environment, public welfare, and the design of the [urban environment](#).
2. Urban planning consists of two components such as physical planning and socioeconomic planning.
3. An urban planner is a professional who works in the field of urban planning for the purpose of optimizing the effectiveness of a community's land use and infrastructure.
4. An integrated urban area consisting of a core town together with its "outgrowths" (contiguous suburbs).

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5. An urban area with a population of 100,000 or more is treated as city in the Indian Census.

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## 10.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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1. Spence, M., Aneez, P.C., Buckley, R. M., Urbanisation and Growth Commission on Urban Growth, 2009.
2. Cali, M. (2008), "Urbanisation, Inequality and Economic Growth: Evidence from Indian States and Towns, Background Note for the World Development Report 2009," June.
3. Planning Commission (2013), "Urban Development," Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012 to 2017): Economic Sectors, Vol. 2.
4. Bruegmann Robert, (2005), "Sprawl: A Compact History", The University Press, Chicago, pp 21 and 22.
5. Kashyap Shikha and Singh P R, "Impact Analysis of Urbanization Activities on Land Use: A Study of Ranchi Municipal Corporation"

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# UNIT-XI URBAN RENEWAL, PLANNING FOR NEW SETTLEMENTS

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## Structure

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Objectives
- 11.3 Urban renewal
  - 11.3.1 Meaning of Urban Renewal
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  - 11.3.3 Urban Renewal Area
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  - 11.3.7 Process of Urban Renewal
  - 11.3.8 Implementation of Urban Renewal
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  - 11.3.10 Problems of Urban Renewal
- 11.4 Planning for new settlements
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  - 11.5.5 Pace of Urbanisation
- 11.6 Let us sum up
- 11.7 Unit – end – exercises
- 11.8 Answer to check your progress
- 11.9 Suggested Readings

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## 11.1 INTRODUCTION

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Urbanisation has its own merits and demerits. Urbanisation can't be avoided. The renewal of urban is needed one now a day. The term urban renewal means rebirth or regeneration of a city or a part of it which has been plagued by the ills of urbanisation. The planning concept originated in England and America in 1930's. Urban renewal can affect the urban environment at many levels. The preservation of the city's identity, community, local culture and natural and built environments must be given special attention in the process of renewal. Urban and rural settlements differ in demographics, land area and usage, population density, transportation networks and economic dependencies. Measurement gives a clear idea about reality and helps in making effective future strategies. Measurement of the degree of urbanisation in a country like India is considered very important. Urbanisation in India has been relatively slow compared to many developing countries.

In this unit you will learn meaning and definition of urban renewal, objectives and goals of urban renewal, implementation process, benefits and problems in urban renewal. You will learn urban settlements, ways to measure urbanisation, degree of measuring urbanisation and pace of urbanisation also.

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## **11.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After studying this unit, you will be able to

- ✓ know the concept of urban renewal
  - ✓ understand the process related to urban renewal
  - ✓ differentiate urban settlement from rural
  - ✓ acquire the knowledge about urbanisation
  - ✓ describe the degree of measuring urbanisation in India
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## **11.3 URBAN RENEWAL**

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### **11.3.1 MEANING OF URBAN RENEWAL**

Local policies and strategies designed to deal with urban decline decay or transformation are termed as urban renewal. It is a comprehensive and integrated vision and action which leads to the resolution of urban problems and which seeks to bring about a lasting improvement in the economic, physical, social and environmental conditions of an area that has been subject to change.

The term urban renewal means rebirth or regeneration of a city or a part of it which has been plagued by the ills of urbanisation. The planning concept originated in England and America in 1930's.

Urban renewal is a program of land [redevelopment](#) often used to address urban decay in cities. Urban renewal is the clearing out of blighted areas in inner cities to [clear out slums](#) and create opportunities for higher class housing, businesses and more.

Urban renewal is a planning strategy that has been introduced to improve urban conditions, which may have been observed to deteriorate in quality and efficiency. It is also described as the aggregate of techniques which have been used for the treatment of urban problems in a physical basis.

### **11.3.2 DEFINITION OF URBAN RENEWAL**

Urban renewal refers to a set of plans and activities to upgrade neighbourhoods and suburbs that are in state of distress or decay. Urban renewal programs address the physical aspects of urban decay. Urban problems such as deteriorating housing, poor physical infrastructure (including water and sanitation services), and poor community services such as sports and recreational amenities are addressed through such programs.

Another definition of urban renewal was put by encyclopaedia Chicago to refer primarily to "the public efforts to revitalize aging and decaying inner cities and sub urban communities". In other words; it is a planned process of city regeneration through an integrated program of slum clearance or redevelopment, rehabilitation and conservation.

Urban renewal is described as a planned attempt to transform the urban environment through structured large-scale control of existing urban areas to enhance both the present and future operations of urban populace. It is also the deliberate physical redevelopment of decayed or deteriorated

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areas, improving the infrastructure and the removal of elements considered to affect the effectiveness and efficiency of the area.

### **11.3.3 URBAN RENEWAL AREA**

An urban neighbourhood or area which is improved and rehabilitated called urban renewal area. The renewal process can include demolishing old or run-down buildings, constructing new, up-to-date housing, or adding in features like a theatre or stadium. Urban renewal is often part of the gentrification process.

### **11.3.4 REASONS FOR URBAN RENEWAL**

- Urban Renewal works because it stimulates a cycle of private investment by removing the blighted conditions that act as a barrier to new development.
- There is an increase in population living in very unhealthy conditions.
- The number of aged building is increasing and residence at the risk of collapse buildings.
- There is widening gap in infrastructure between the populace and the environment.
- Improve the quality of life of residents in the urban areas.

### **11.3.5 OBJECTIVES OF URBAN RENEWAL**

The main objectives of urban renewal are –

- ❖ restructuring and re-planning designated target areas;
- ❖ designing more effective and environmentally-friendly local transport and road networks;
- ❖ rationalizing land uses;
- ❖ redeveloping dilapidated buildings into new buildings of modern standard and environmentally-friendly design;
- ❖ promoting the rehabilitation of buildings in need of repair;
- ❖ preserving buildings, sites and structures of historical, cultural or architectural interest;
- ❖ preserving as far as practicable local characteristics;
- ❖ preserving the social networks of the local community;
- ❖ providing purpose-built housing for groups with special needs, such as the elderly and the disabled;
- ❖ providing more open space and community/welfare facilities; and
- ❖ Enhancing the townscape with attractive landscape and urban design.

### **11.3.6 GOALS OF URBAN RENEWAL**

The goals of urban renewal are:

- to improve the built environment by replacing old, run-down or under-utilised urban areas with new developments which are properly planned and, where appropriate, provided with adequate transport and other infrastructure and community facilities;

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- to achieve better utilisation of land in the dilapidated urban areas to meet various development needs;
- to achieve better utilisation of land in the dilapidated urban areas to meet various development needs;
- To promote rehabilitation and preservation of buildings, and improvement of places of local, architectural, cultural or historical interest.

### **11.3.7 PROCESS OF URBAN RENEWAL**

Urban renewal requires a careful and adequate planning process that will ensure that all activities are done through proper and acceptable standards. The following process is involved in how urban renewal is carried out.

- ❖ Designation of the area to be improved to ensure quality criteria such as housing condition facilities, drainage problem etc,
- ❖ Investigation and study of the existing condition and characteristics of the designated Renewal areas.
- ❖ Preparation of physical development plans such as land use plan, road plan, community facility plan and future improvement program to the area.
- ❖ Establishment of relocation programme when the renewal will necessitate popular displacement.
- ❖ Programme implementation and evaluation.

### **11.3.8 IMPLEMENTATION OF URBAN RENEWAL**

Urban renewal can affect the urban environment at many levels. The preservation of the city's identity, community, local culture and natural and built environments must be given special attention in the process of renewal.

There is need to consider the following process during the implementation of urban renewal;

- ❖ Community sensitization.
- ❖ Constitution of the implementation body.
- ❖ Identification of sources of finance and mobilization of funds program implementation.
- ❖ Land acquisition
- ❖ Displacement and relocation
- ❖ Site preparation.
- ❖ Site improvement and facility location.
- ❖ Land allocation.

### **11.3.9 BENEFITS OF URBAN RENEWAL**

Urban renewal can generate a range of benefits

- ✓ better utilisation of existing and proposed infrastructure
- ✓ increased city productivity from the co-location of more intensive jobs and housing

- ✓ attracting visitors and additional expenditure
- ✓ new employment opportunities

### 11.3.10 PROBLEMS OF URBAN RENEWAL

These are the problems of urban renewal: housing, education, public health and a generally decent living environment, loss of biodiversity and green house, warming, desertification, degradation of agricultural land, air and water pollution, environmental decay, slums, insanitation, overcrowding etc.

#### 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 urban renewal?
2. Enumerate the benefits of urban renewal.
3. Write any four problems in urban renewal.

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### 11.4. PLANNING FOR NEW SETTLEMENTS

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#### Settlement

A settlement is a general term used in archaeology, geography, landscape history and other subjects for a permanent or temporary community in which people live, without being specific as to size, population or importance. A settlement can therefore range in size from small number of dwellings grouped together to the largest of cities with surrounding urbanised areas.

#### Urban settlements

Urban and rural settlements differ in demographics, land area and usage, population density, transportation networks and economic dependencies. These characteristics are the defining differences that geographers and city planners observe between rural and urban centres.

#### Demographics

Urban settlements contain a heterogeneous population consisting of different ages, cultures and ethnicities.

#### Land area and usage

Urban settlements are more expansive and contain a wide range of land uses. For instance, major metropolitan areas use density zoning to indicate different levels of development.

#### Population density

The U.S. Census Bureau defines urban settlements as areas with more than 50,000 people and at least 1,000 people per square mile; including contiguous census tracts or blocks with at least 500 people per square mile.

#### Transportation network

Urban settlements contain highway infrastructure as well as airports and light or heavy commuter rail.

#### Economy

Urban areas are dependent on a global economy of import and export.

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### Define urban settlements

Most governments define urban settlements based on one or a combination of criteria, including population size, population density, and social and economic factors, such as the proportion of the labour force engaged in non-agricultural activities; the administrative or political status of a locality, such as national, provincial, or district capitals, or census designations. (Hardoy et al., 2001)

### Check your progress - 2

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

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

4. What do you mean by settlement?
5. Define urban settlement.

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## 11.5 MEASURING URBANISATION

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### 11.5.1 MEASURES OF URBANISATION

“What gets measured gets managed.” ~ Peter F. Drucker

This truism succinctly relates to a fundamental concern in the field of urbanisation. It is, after all, another way of saying that measurement gives a clear idea about reality and helps in making effective future strategies.

There are two measures of the degree of urbanization of a population.

1. The first, urban population describes the percentage of the total population living in urban areas, as defined by the country.
2. The second measure, rate of urbanization, describes the projected average rate of change of the size of the urban population over the given period of time.

In India, the rate of urbanisation is 2.37% in the period of 2015-20 estimated by CIA World Fact book with estimates from 2018.

### IN INDIA

#### State Government Definition

Governor of the state declares by public notification an area as “urban” based on certain parameters, such as population of the area, the density of the population therein, the revenue generated for local administration, the percentage of employment in non-agricultural activities, the economic importance or such other factors.

#### National Government (census office) Definition:

- a) All administrative units that have been defined by statute (i.e., settlements declared based on state government definition).
- b) Administrative units satisfying the following three criteria:
  - ❖ A minimum population of 5,000 persons;

- ❖ 75 percent and above of the male main working population being engaged in non-agricultural pursuits; and
- ❖ A density of population of at least 400 persons per sq. km. (1,000 per sq. mile).

### **11.5.2 LEVEL OF MEASURING URBANISATION IN INDIA**

This is the official figure and the present level of urbanisation in India. National Government (census office): The census office has added 4.46 percent to the official figure of 26.69 percent. Thus, according to the census office, 31.15 percent of India's population lived in urban areas in 2011.

### **11.5.3 WAYS TO MEASURE URBANISATION**

It includes Population growth, Rural-urban migration, Push and Pull factors, Push factors, Pull factors.

#### **i. Population Growth**

Population growth is one of the main reasons to the urbanisation. Fertility rates are largely dependent on economic considerations. As economic wellbeing increases, the fertility level decreases. Security about the future and alternatives to family life in the cities are the main reasons for this decrease. Education level has similar effect as economic wellbeing to the fertility rates.

#### **ii. Rural-Urban Migration**

Migration is a form of geographical or spatial motion between one geographical unit and another. Internal migration consists of rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-urban and urban-rural migration. Migration is continues and repeated process rather than a single event. Because of these facts, it is difficult to measure and study. The time of migration also varies; it can be periodic, seasonal, or long-term migration.

Migration is the main reason for rapid growth of mega-cities. Migration has been going on over centuries and it is normal phenomenon. When considering urbanization rural-urban and urban-rural and rural-rural migrations are very important. Urban-urban migration means that people move from one city to another.

Many migrants are environmental refugees from badly depleted rural areas. In developing countries industrial growth in urban areas offers employment and trading opportunities for rural people which are faced with declining living standards. Now a day the urbanisation is increasingly occurring also without any significant opportunities for new migrants.

#### **iii. Push and Pull Factors**

People may move to the city because they are pushed by poverty from rural communities or they may be pulled by the attractions of city lives. Combination of these push and pull factors can also be on reason for moving to cities.

In many parts of the world rural population growth and shortage of arable land are the major problems. Even though the land holdings have

been quite big they are to be divided with several children and eventually, their children. These circumstances make migration the only opportunity to farming people. Things are made worse by environmental deterioration.

#### **iv. Push Factors**

The normal push factors to rural people are the circumstances that make their earning of living impossible, land deterioration, lack of adequate land, unequal land distribution, droughts, storms, floods, and clean water shortages.

These serious disadvantages make farming, the livelihood of rural people, hard and sometimes hopeless. Lack of modern resources, firewood shortages, religious conflicts, local economic declines, are also major reasons for moving to the urban areas.

#### **v. Pull Factors**

High industrial wages in urban areas are one of the biggest attractions for rural people. People will continue to migrate to cities as long as they expect urban wages to exceed their current rural wages. Employment opportunities, higher incomes, joining other rural refugees, freedom from oppressive lifestyle, access to better health care and education, are the “bright lights” for rural people.

One of the main reasons for people to move to the urban areas is that the situation in the rural areas is very difficult. With the income level they have it is not possible to survive. In the case even the low salaries in the urban areas are more attractive than non-existing salaries in the rural areas.

### **11.5.4 DEGREE OF URBANISATION IN INDIA**

Measurement of the degree of urbanisation in a country like India is considered very important. Various measures are being used for the purpose.

- ❖ As per the first simple method we observed that the total urban population in India in 1981 was a little less than one fourth of the total population in comparison to that of one-ninth in 1921 and one-sixth in 1951.
- ❖ The second method, i.e., the urban-rural growth differential (URGD) method also revealed that the growth rates of both rural and urban population are very close to each other at present.
- ❖ Third method showing the growth of urban population reveals that as the total population of the country rose by about three times since 1921 but the total urban population of the country increased by about six-times. Thus all the methods observed more or less same results.

If we compare degree of urbanisation in India with that of developed countries then we can find that India is lagging far behind the high-income countries. In 1985, the proportion of urban population to total

population was 92 per cent in U.K., 86 per cent in Australia, 76 per cent in Japan, and 74 per cent in U.S.A. as against only 25 per cent in India.

The degree or level of urbanisation is defined as relative number of people who live in urban areas. Percent urban  $[(U/P)*100]$  and percent rural  $[(R/P)*100]$  and urban-rural ratio  $[(U/R)*100]$  are used to measure degree of urbanisation. These are most commonly used for measuring degree of urbanisation. The ratio U/P has lower limit 0 and upper limit 1. The index is 0 for total population equal to rural population. When whole population is urban, this index is one. When 50 percent of the population is rural, it means that there is one urbanite for each rural person. The urban-rural ratio has a lower limit of zero and upper limit  $\infty$ . Theoretically upper

Limit will be infinite when there is no rural population (R=0) but this is impossible. From table 1 it is clear that percent urban has increased from 11% in 1901 to 28% in 2001, whereas percent rural has shown gradual decrease from 89% to 72% over a century. Urban rural ratio which is a simple index measuring number of urbanites for each rural person in an area 1 unit experiences an increasing trend during hundred years in the process of urbanisation in India. The urban-rural ratio for India in 2001 turns out to be around 38, meaning that against every 100 ruralites there are 38 urbanites in India in 2001. All these indices pin point that India is in the process of urbanisation (Sovani, 1966) and it is at the acceleration stage of urbanisation.

**Table - 1**

**Degree/Index of Urbanisation**

Census years	Percent urban	Percent rural	Urban –Rural Ratio (%)
1901	10.84	89.15	12.16
1911	10.29	89.71	11.47
1921	11.18	88.82	12.58
1931	11.99	88.01	13.63
1941	13.86	86.14	16.08
1951	17.29	82.71	20.91
1961	17.97	82.03	21.91
1971	18.24	81.76	22.31
1981	23.33	76.66	30.44
1991	25.72	74.28	34.63
2001	27.78	72.22	38.47

### 11.5.5 PACE OF URBANISATION

Urbanisation in India has been relatively slow compared to many developing countries. The percentage of annual exponential growth rate of urban population in India it grew at faster pace from the decade 1921-31 to until 1951. Thereafter it registered a sharp drop during the decade 1951-61. The decades 1961-71 and 1971-81 showed a significant improvement in the growth, which thereafter steadily dropped to the present level 2.7. The sharp drop in urban rate during 1951-61 was mainly due to declassification

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of a very large number of towns during that period. Rural growth has been fluctuating since 1901. The decline in rural population growth was within small range during 1981-91 and 1991-2001. During the process of urbanisation it is natural that  $rgup > rgtp > rgrp$ , where  $rgup$  = rate of growth of urban population,  $rgtp$  = rate of growth of total population,  $rgrp$  = rate of growth of rural population. This fact is supported in case of Indian urbanisation also since 1911.

Tempo of urbanisation refers to speed of urbanisation and is measured as change registered in the level or degree of urbanisation over the years. Tempo or speed of urbanisation is not uniform over the years. It shows a fluctuating trend over the years 1901-1981 and a declining trend during 1981-91, 1991-2001. Again it is required to mention tempo of urbanization measured as a per cent will tend toward zero as the urban population reaches the 100 percent level, since the urban and total population growth would become the same.

**Check your progress - 3**

**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 are the two measures for measuring urbanisation?

7. Enumerate the ways to measure urbanisation.

8. Give the abbreviations for the following. A)  $rgtp$  B)  $rgup$  C)  $rgrp$

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**11.6 LET US SUM UP**

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Urban renewal has been used by government improve the quality of life of the people but has faced many challenges. Urban renewal must not be done on a strictly system oriented basis but must have a human face, after all; it is for the people. Local policies and strategies designed to deal with urban decline decay or transformation are termed as urban renewal. These are the problems of urban renewal: housing, education, public health and a generally decent living environment, loss of biodiversity and green house, warming, desertification, degradation of agricultural land, air and water pollution, environmental decay, slums, insanitation, overcrowding etc. There are two measures of the degree of urbanization of a population. The first, urban population describes the percentage of the total population living in urban areas, as defined by the country. The second measure, rate of urbanization, describes the projected average rate of change of the size of the urban population over the given period of time. Ways to measure urbanisation includes Population growth, Rural-urban migration, Push and pull factors, Push factors, Pull factors.

In this unit you have learnt meaning and definition of urban renewal, the terms related to urban renewal. Urban settlements and its definition also discussed. Measures of urbanisation, ways to measuring urbanisation, degree of measuring urbanisation in India and pace of urbanisation were also discussed in detail.

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## 11.7 UNIT – END – EXERCISES

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1. Define urban renewal by encyclopaedia Chicago.
2. Explain the objectives of urban renewal.
3. While the implementation of urban renewal what will you consider?
4. In what ways urban and rural settlements differ?
5. Write the definition of urban by State Government in India.
6. Explain about the degree of urbanisation in India.
7. Discuss the ways to measure urbanisation.

*Urban Renewal,  
Planning for new  
Settlements*

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## 11.8 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Local policies and strategies designed to deal with urban decline decay or transformation are termed as urban renewal. The term urban renewal means rebirth or regeneration of a city or a part of it which has been plagued by the ills of urbanisation.

2. Benefits of urban renewal are as follows:

- better utilisation of existing and proposed infrastructure
- increased city productivity from the co-location of more intensive jobs and housing
- attracting visitors and additional expenditure
- new employment opportunities

3. Housing, education, public health and a generally decent living environment, loss of biodiversity and green house, warming, desertification, degradation of agricultural land, air and water pollution, environmental decay, slums, insanitation, overcrowding etc.

4. A settlement is a general term used in archaeology, geography, landscape history and other subjects for a permanent or temporary community in which people live, without being specific as to size, population or importance.

5. Urban settlements based on one or a combination of criteria, including population size, population density, and social and economic factors, such as the proportion of the labour force engaged in non-agricultural activities; the administrative or political status of a locality, such as national, provincial, or district capitals, or census designations. (Hardoy et al., 2001)

6. The first measure, urban population describes the percentage of the total population living in urban areas, as defined by the country. The second measure, rate of urbanization, describes the projected average rate of change of the size of the urban population over the given period of time.

7. Population growth, Rural-urban migration, Push and pull factors, Push factors, Pull factors.

8. A)  $rg_{tp}$  = rate of growth of total population, B)  $rg_{up}$  = rate of growth of urban population,

C)  $rg_{rp}$  = rate of growth of rural population

*Self - Instructional Material*

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## 11.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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## UNIT – XII

# TRENDS OF WORLD URBANIZATION

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*Trends of World  
Urbanization*

### Structure

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Objectives
- 12.3 Trends of world urbanisation
  - 12.3.1 Urbanisation
  - 12.3.2 Level of Urbanisation
  - 12.3.3 The Level of Urbanisation in the World
  - 12.3.4 Urban Population in the World
- 12.4 Growth of urban population in India
  - 12.4.1 Urban Growth in India
  - 12.4.2 Inter-State Variation in Urbanisation
  - 12.4.3 Urbanised States in India
  - 12.4.4 Component of Urban Growth
  - 12.4.5 Basic Feature and Pattern of India's Urbanisation
- 12.5 Let us sum up
- 12.6 Unit – end – exercises
- 12.7 Answer to check your progress
- 12.8 Suggested Readings

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### 12.1 INTRODUCTION

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Today, more than half of the world's population, 3.5 billion people, live in urban areas, and by 2030 this will rise to 60%. Over the next decades there will be significant changes in the size and distribution of the world's population. Urbanisation is a global trend reflecting the growing population of the world. The level of urbanisation is often defined in terms of proportion of urban population to total population. India's urbanisation level is still low, although urbanisation has gained some speed in the post-independence period.

In this unit you will learn the level of urbanisation and urban population. You will learn urban growth in India, its components, basic features and patterns of urbanisation in India also in detail.

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### 12.2 OBJECTIVES

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After studying this unit, you will be able to

- ✓ analyse the census reports on urban population
- ✓ understand the term urban growth
- ✓ differentiate the level of urbanisation among Indian states
- ✓ explain the components and pattern of urbanisation in India
- ✓ compare the annual growth of population

*Self - Instructional Material*

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## **12.3 TRENDS OF WORLD URBANISATION**

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### **12.3.1 URBANISATION**

Urbanisation refers to the population shift from rural areas to urban areas, the gradual increase in the proportion of people living in urban areas, and the ways in which each society adapts to this change.

**Urbanisation is measured by two ways:** **First**, level and growth of urban share of total population and its distribution by size classes of cities and towns. This is called demographic approach. **Second**, changes in number and growth of urban centres and an expansion of geographical boundaries of existing urban areas. This is called geographical approach.

Urbanisation is a global trend reflecting the growing population of the world. The urban populations of less-developed countries are currently increasing at a faster rate than those of more-developed countries. Urbanisation results from a natural increase in the population and rural to urban migration.

The urban population (UN, 1993) was estimated to be 2.96 billion in 2000 and 3.77 in 2010. It was estimated that nearly 50 million people are added to the world's urban population and about 35 million to the rural population each year. The share of world's population living in urban centres has increased from 39% in 1980 to 48% in 2000. The developed countries have higher urbanisation level (76% in 2000) compared with developing countries (40% in 2000). The urbanisation level has almost stabilized in developed countries. Africa and Asian countries are in the process of urbanisation.

### **12.3.2 LEVELS OF URBANISATION**

The level of urbanisation is often defined in terms of proportion of urban population to total population. This measure of urbanisation attaches great value to the human and social dimensions of urbanisation as well. There are, however, two more important measures of urbanisation. The first one is that the towns serve the rural people in terms of socio-economic change and the larger the rural people served by each town, on an average, the lower the level of urbanisation. Alternatively, when no rural people are left to be served by town urbanisation is taken to have reached its zenith. The second measure of urbanisation concerns that the distance the rural people have to cover to reach the nearest urban center, the greater the distance, lower the level of urbanisation. Because such a situation would mean urban centers are fewer in number and the distance between the urban centers is quite high. In a state with well-developed urban network people cover smaller distances to reach the urban centers. (Ramachandran, 1989).

### **12.3.3 THE LEVEL OF URBANISATION IN THE WORLD**

The level of urbanisation in the world India's urbanisation level is still low, although urbanisation has gained some speed in the post-independence period. From the 1990 data we can see that 42.7 per cent of world population was living in urban areas. There was wide gap in the

level of urbanisation between the more developed regions, which had 72.7 per cent of the population as urban population, and the less developed regions, with only 33.9 per cent of urban population. Among the continents Europe, Oceania and Latin America had a very high level of urbanisation with 73.1, 70.9 and 72.3 per cent of their population as urban population respectively. In contrast, Africa with 34.5 per cent of its population as urban population and Asia with only 29.9 per cent of its population as urban population were the least urbanised among the continents. Again, among the Asian regions Western Asia is more urbanised (with 58.2 per cent of its population living in urban areas) than Eastern Asia (29.4 per cent), South eastern Asia (29 per cent) and South Asia (27.8 per cent). Thus South Asia, of which India is a part, is one of the least urbanized regions of the world.

According to 1991 census only 25.72 per cent of India's population was living in urban areas, which again is less than the South Asian standard.

#### **12.3.4 URBAN POPULATION IN THE WORLD**

According to World Bank staff estimates based on the United Nations Population Division's World Urbanisation Prospects: 2018 Revision, The world's total population in 2018 is 4.196 billion. Urban Population growth (annual %) in 2018 is 1.936.

Today, more than half of the world's population, 3.5 billion people, live in urban areas, and by 2030 this will rise to 60%. Over the next decades there will be significant changes in the size and distribution of the world's population.

India is a part of the global trend towards increasing urbanisation in which more than half of world's population is living in cities towns. 31.16 per cent of India's population 377 million live in urban areas as per 2011 Census.

#### **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 the world's total population in 2018?
2. What is called demographic approach in urbanisation?

### **12.4 GROWTH OF URBAN POPULATION IN INDIA**

#### **12.4.1 URBAN GROWTH IN INDIA**

The annual growth rate of urban population in India has declined from 3.1 per cent during 1981-91 to 2.7 per cent during 1991-2001. The decade 1971-81 had recorded the highest annual growth rate of 3.8 per cent but the last two decades have recorded decelerating growth rates in India. The percentage of urban population has gone up from 23.73 in 1981 to 25.72 in 1991 and finally to 27.78 in 2001. The slow growth of urban population in India goes against popular notions of "urban explosion" and against the most expert predictions. The Planning Commission (1983), the Expert Committee for Population Projections for the Eighth Plan, and the UN Study of World Urbanisation Prospects (1995, 2001) had predicted 3 – 4.4 per cent annual growth of urban population in the 1980s and 1990s.

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The UN projection of 3.2 per cent growth during 2000-10 and 2.8 per cent during 2020-25 also seem to be unrealistic. Keeping in view that the growth rate of total population is expected to be less than 1 per cent according to UN projection it would require a very high rate of rural-urban migration to meet the projected level of urbanisation.

The natural growth rate of urban population has declined and the city bound migration of both male and female population also has decelerated over the years. A study in 1983 suggests that contribution of rural-urban migration to urbanisation declined over the decades and stood at 22.6 percent in the 1980s. During 1971-81 the percentage of intercensal migrants in urban areas declined from 18.5 to 16.9 and that of lifetime migrants (male) from 33.6 to 32.4. The share of lifetime interstate migrants came down from 11.2 per cent to 10.0 per cent. The 1991 Census also recorded further decline in urban-bound migration rate. In the 1981-91 decade the decadal, lifetime and interstate migration rates were 11.7, 26.0 and 8.0 respectively. The female migration to the urban areas, which takes place primarily due to social and cultural factors, also slowed down during the decade.

**Table - 1**  
**Number of towns and growth of urban population over census years**

Census Year	Number of Towns	% of urban to total population	Annual growth
1901	1827	10.84	-
1911	1915	10.29	0.03
1921	1949	11.18	0.79
1931	2072	11.99	1.75
1941	2250	13.86	2.77
1951	2843	17.29	3.47
1961	2365	17.97	2.34
1971	2590	19.91	3.21
1981	3378	23.34	3.83
1991	3768	25.72	3.09
2001	4368	27.78	2.73

Source: Census of respective years

Amitabh Kundu has identified four major reasons for the growth of urban population in India:

- (a) natural increase,
- (b) growth of new towns outside agglomerations,
- (c) merging of towns and jurisdictional changes in agglomerations, and
- (d) rural-urban migration.

Available data suggest that natural increase accounted for 61.3 per cent and 59.4 per cent of the total increase in urban population in 1971-81 and 1981-91 decades respectively. The 1991-2001 decade too experienced a decline in natural growth rate of urban population. The share of component (b) in the total addition to urban population has declined from 9.4 per cent in the 1980s to 6.2 percent in the 1990s. This indicates that the rate of urban growth outside the existing agglomerations and urbanized regions has slowed down over the decades. The third component, i.e., extension of municipal boundaries, merging of old towns or inclusion of new towns in the existing urban agglomerations, was considered a minor contributor to the growth of urban population in the 1960s, 1970s and

1980s. The number of towns merged with existing neighbouring towns was only 221 in 2001 and in 1991 the number was half of this. However, the share of this factor to the growth of urban population went up from 7.6 per cent in 1991 to 13.0 percent in 2001. The contribution of the fourth factor has been estimated to be 21 per cent in 1990s, which was marginally less than the figure for the previous decade. (Kundu, 2005).

#### Classification of towns by size and differential trends of urbanisation

On the basis of population size the Census of India has placed towns into six categories:

- Class I town – 1,00,000 or more
- Class II towns – From 50,000 to 99,999
- Class III towns – From 20,000 to 49,999
- Class IV towns – From 10,000 to 19,999
- Class V – From 5,000 to 9,999
- Class VI – Below 5,000

**Table - 2**

**Distribution of towns by category and census year**

Census Year	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	Class V	Class VI
1901	24	43	130	391	744	479
1911	23	40	135	364	707	485
1921	29	45	145	370	734	571
1931	35	56	183	434	800	509
1941	49	74	242	498	920	407
1951	76	91	327	608	1124	569
1961	102	129	437	719	711	172
1971	148	173	558	827	623	147
1981	218	270	743	1059	758	253
1991	300	345	947	1167	740	197
2001	393	401	1151	1344	888	191

Source: Census of India for respective years

Table 2 suggests that the number of large cities and medium towns (Class I to Class IV) has grown significantly over the decades while the number of smaller towns in Class V and Class VI has remained either stagnant or declined. The other trend is that growth in number of cities before independence was rather slow and the number started increasing at a faster rate in the post-independence period; the increase is particularly remarkable from 1951 census. Intensification of developmental activities in and around the large towns, investment in industrial production, increase of commerce, the increase in agricultural productivity and evolution of smaller towns into bigger ones explain the relatively faster urbanisation in

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the post-independence period. This also explains the reason behind the faster growth of larger cities and towns. Apart from rural-urban migration from smaller towns to bigger ones has contributed to the faster growth of larger towns. Migration of people from East and West Pakistan and from other neighbouring countries has also contributed to the faster urban growth in the post-independence period. India being relatively advanced economy it has drawn migrants from poverty infested Bangladesh and Nepal. The explosive demographic pressure in Bangladesh is continually ejecting a significant part of its labour force to India even in recent years.

**Table - 3**  
**Urban population in towns of different categories**

Census Year	Class I	Class II	Class III	Class IV	Class V	Class VI
1901	26.00	11.29	15.64	20.83	20.14	6.10
1911	27.48	10.51	16.4	19.73	19.31	1.57
1921	29.70	10.39	15.92	18.29	18.67	7.03
1931	31.20	11.65	16.8	18.00	17.14	5.21
1941	38.23	11.42	16.35	15.78	15.08	3.14
1951	44.63	9.96	15.72	13.63	12.97	3.09
1961	51.42	11.23	16.94	12.77	6.87	0.77
1971	57.24	10.92	16.01	10.94	4.45	0.44
1981	60.37	11.63	14.33	9.54	3.58	0.50
1991	65.20	10.95	13.19	7.77	2.60	0.29
2001	68.67	9.67	12.23	6.84	2.36	0.23

Source: Census of India for respective years

Data presented in Table 3 further substantiate the top-heavy trend of urbanisation. While the percentage share of total urban population Class I cities has grown substantially from 26 in 1901 to 68.67 in 2001 the population share of towns of all other categories has declined. The worst sufferers in the process are Class IV, V, and VI towns. The higher growth rate of Class I cities is due to expansion of area and immigration. The emergence of large satellite towns in close proximity and their subsequent integration into the city agglomeration has helped faster growth of Class I cities. Most importantly, the concentration of production and commercial activities, and development of infrastructure-base have attracted migrants of different economic classes from the far- flung places (Kundu, 2005).

During 1981-1991, the metropolitan cities (cities with more than one million populations) grew by 3.25 per cent per annum against 2.83 per

cent growth rate of other towns. During 1991-2001, however, the growth rate of the metropolitan towns has slowed down to 2.88 and for the common towns the rate has been 2.6 per cent. The share of population of the million plus cities was 26.4 per cent in 1981, which has gone up to 32.5 per cent in 1991 and to 37.8 per cent in 2001. The metropolitan cities have grown at a faster rate than class I cities as well as towns of other categories.

The growth rate of capital cities (state as well as national) is also high. During 1981-91 the growth rate of capital cities was at par with that of the million plus cities, the growth being 33.6 per cent in the decade. However, the percentage share of population of the capital cities to total urban population increased marginally from 25.7 in 1991 to 25.9 in 2001.

Thus despite the higher growth rate of the class I cities, metropolitan cities and capital cities it is not difficult to notice the slight decline in the growth rate of these cities in the last decade in particular. Fall in the government investment in the urban infrastructure, decline in the public sector, fall in the natural growth of population and dwindling migration could be some of the reasons that can explain the relative slump in the growth in the bigger cities in recent years.

#### **12.4.2 INTER-STATE VARIATION IN URBANISATION**

Since the forces of urbanisation are unequally distributed the level and pattern of urbanisation in the States and Union Territories of Indian federation vary widely. Following the 2001 Census it is observed that the States that are economically developed experience higher rate of urbanisation and account for a larger share of urban population. Thus six relatively developed states, namely, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, and West Bengal have together account for more than half the total urban population of the country. The percentage share of urban population of all these states is higher than the national average of 27.78, according to 2001 census. The share of urban population of less developed States with less per capita income is much less than the national average.

Following the findings of 2001 Census we can classify the Indian States and Union Territories into three groups depending upon the levels of urbanisation: Group A consisting of States and UTs with higher level of urbanisation (with an urban population higher than the national average of 27.72 per cent), Group B consisting of States and UTs with moderate level of urbanisation (more than 20 per cent but less than the national average), and Group C consisting of States and UTs with low level urbanisation (with less than 20 per cent urban population to total population of the State or UT).

##### **Group A**

Delhi (93.01), Goa (49.77), Gujarat (37.35), Haryana (29.00), Karnataka (33.98), Maharashtra (42.4), Mizoram (49.5), Punjab (33.95), Tamil Nadu (43.86), West Bengal (28.03), Andaman and Nicobre Islands (32.67), Chandigarh (89.78) Daman & Diu (36.26) Lakshadweep (44.47)

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and Pondicherry (66.57). The figures within the parenthesis indicate percentage share as urban population in the respective State or UT.

**Group B**

Arunachal Pradesh (20.41), Chhattisgarh (20.08), Jammu & Kashmir (24.88), Jharkhand (22.25), Kerala (25.97), Madhya Pradesh (26.67), Manipur (23.88), Rajasthan (23.38), Uttar Pradesh (20.78), Uttaranchal (25.59), and Dadra & Nagar Haveli (22.89).

**Group C**

Assam (12.72), Bihar (10.47), Himachal Pradesh (9.97), Meghalaya (19.63), Nagaland (17.74), Orissa (14.97), Sikkim (11.1) and Tripura (17.02).

With four of the seven North-East Indian States figuring in Group C, it may be said that this part of India is least urbanized. Two of the relatively economically backward East zone States namely Bihar and Orissa too are among the States with low level of urbanisation. Earlier, following the trend up to 1981, Ramachandran had observed that urbanisation is at a lower level in states of North-East and in the Ganga plains of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, and in Orissa. In general terms, he observed, 'western and southern India are relatively highly urbanized while eastern and northern India are least urbanized'. In recent years while some of the earlier trends continue it is not difficult to see that the north Indian states and even some of North-East states are experiencing urbanisation at a faster rate.

During the 1991-2001 decade the urban population in India has grown by 2.27 per cent annually. Among the states which have recorded a high growth rate (i.e., more than 3 per cent annually) in the last decade are Arunachal Pradesh (7.00 per cent), Assam (3.09 per cent), Chhattisgarh (3.09), Delhi (4.14), Goa (3.32), Haryana (4.11), Jammu & Kashmir (3.44), Meghalaya (3.16), Mizoram (3.27), Nagaland (5.27), Punjab (3.19), Sikkim (4.83), Tamil Nadu (3.56), Andaman & Nicobar Islands (4.40), Chandigarh (3.40), and Dadra & Nagar Haveli (14.59). There is none among the States that has recorded a negative growth. Among the UTs, however, Lakshadweep has recorded a negative growth of -0.77 per cent. It is noteworthy that some of the States with low level of urbanisation figure among the States which have been experiencing higher rate of urbanisation in recent years, while many of the States with higher level of urbanisation (i.e., many of the Group A States) are experiencing urban deceleration. Among the major States that have experienced very low rate of annual growth in the last decade are Andhra Pradesh (1.37), Kerala (0.74), Manipur (1.21) and West Bengal (1.84).

The trend however was different until 1991 of the post-independence period. The states like Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Punjab already had high concentration of urban centers and urban population but the rate of urban growth was either medium or low. On the other hand, the relatively backward States like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa registered higher growth rate despite the fact that these States had lower share of urban population. As an exception to this trend, economically advanced states like Haryana and Maharashtra had both higher rate of growth and higher share of urban population. Overall, the

trend until 1991 negates the positive correlation between economic development and urban growth. We have to look for other factors to explain this puzzle. Possibly, higher incidence of rural poverty, regular occurrence of natural disasters like drought and flood can also cause higher incidence of rural-urban migration and hence higher rate of urban growth. The post-independence dualism in the urbanisation pattern, according to Kundu (2005: 108), be partially be attributed to government investment in the district and taluka headquarters, programmes of urban industrial dispersal, and transfer of funds from the states to local bodies through a need based or what is popularly known as “a gap filling” approach’. The “lack of diversification in agrarian economy” in these backward States also, as Kundu suggests, has contributed to higher urban growth.

In the 1990s, with the economic liberalization gaining momentum, there has been significant investment of foreign and corporate capital and expansion of commercial activities in the economically advanced States. This precisely explains why the rate of urbanisation is high in Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Haryana, Maharashtra and Gujarat. In Karnataka and West Bengal the rate of urbanisation is relatively low among these highly urban states because a state, and particularly West Bengal, has been following a policy of urban dispersal. The introduction of land reforms, infrastructure development of small and medium sized towns, dispersal of production activities, introduction of panchayats have probably put a check on the rate of urbanisation and city-bound movement of population.

**Check your progress - 2**

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

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

3. Write down the four major reasons for the growth of urban population in India.

4. What are the six states together account for half the total population of India?

**12.4.3 URBANISED STATES IN INDIA**

Among all the States and Union territories, the National Capital Territory of Delhi and the Union territory of Chandigarh are most urbanized with 97.5 percent and 97.25 percent urban population respectively, followed by Daman and Diu (75.2 percent) and Puducherry (68.3 percent).

Among States, Goa is now the most urbanised State with 62.2 percent urban population, a significant increase since 2001 when urban population of Goa was 49.8%. Another significant instance of rapid urbanisation is that of Kerala, its urban population is now 47.7 per cent, while a decade ago it was just 25.9 percent. Among the North-Eastern States, Mizoram is most urbanised with 51.5 per cent urban population, though in terms of absolute contribution to total urban population in the country, Mizoram’s contribution is just 0.1 percent. Similarly Sikkim, which was just 11.0 urbanised a decade ago became almost 25 percent

urbanised in 2011. Among major states, Tamil Nadu continues to be the most urbanized state with 48.4 percent of the population living in urban areas followed now by Kerala (47.7 per cent) upstaging Maharashtra (45.2 percent).

The proportion of urban population continues to be the lowest in Himachal Pradesh with 10.0 per cent followed by Bihar with 11.3 percent, Assam (14.1 percent) and Orissa (16.7 percent).

In terms of absolute number of persons living in urban areas, Maharashtra continues to lead with 50.8 million persons which comprise 13.5 percent of the total urban population of the country. Uttar Pradesh accounts for about 44.4 million, followed by Tamil Nadu at 34.9 million.

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#### **12.4.4 COMPONENT OF URBAN GROWTH**

Urban growth (Bhagat, 1992) can be attributed to mainly three components 1) Natural increase, 2) Net migration, 3) Areal reclassification. These components have been estimated using residual method. Since separate information in wake of change in the area and population due to extension of municipal boundaries during the intercensal period is not available either for total or for migrant population it is difficult to estimate decadal migration to urban areas. Besides migration data for new and declassified towns are not available separately and so there is a possibility error in estimating contribution of migration in the share of urban growth. From table 4 it is evident that during 1971-81 about 41% of urban growth (estimated by Jain, RG 1991 Census) can be attributed to natural increase which reflects the role of demographic momentum, 36% due to net migration and municipal boundary changes and 19% due to reclassification of area. But urban growth due to natural increase has increased from 42% in 1971-81 to about 60% during 1981-91. Urban growth due to migration and changes in municipal boundaries has reduced from 39% in 1971-81 to 22% in 1981-91. But estimates (figures in parenthesis) by Pathak and Mehta for these components of urban growth reflect slightly different results (Pathak and Mehta, 1995). It is clear that urbanisation process in India is not mainly "migration lead" but a product of demographic explosion due to natural increase. People migrate to cities not due to urban pull but due to rural push. Poverty led migration (Sen and Ghosh, 1993) has induced very poor quality of urbanisation followed by misery, poverty, unemployment, exploitation, rapid growth of slum, inequalities, degradation in the quality of urban life.

**Table 4  
Components of Urban Growth**

Percent share	1971-81	1981-91
Natural increase	41.7 (45.1)	59.9 (58.7)
Net Migration + Changes in municipal boundaries	39.4 (36.1)	22.6 (23.7)
Areal reclassification	18.8 (18.8)	17.4 (17.5)

#### 12.4.5 BASIC FEATURE AND PATTERN OF INDIA'S URBANISATION

Basic feature of urbanisation in India can be highlighted as:

- ❖ Lopsided urbanisation induces growth of class I cities
- ❖ Urbanisation occurs without industrialization and strong economic base
- ❖ Urbanisation is mainly a product of demographic explosion and poverty induced rural - urban migration
- ❖ Rapid urbanisation leads to massive growth of slum followed by misery, poverty, unemployment, exploitation, inequalities, degradation in the quality of urban life
- ❖ Urbanisation occurs not due to urban pull but due to rural push.
- ❖ Poor quality of rural-urban migration leads to poor quality of urbanisation (Bhagat, 1992).
- ❖ Distress migration initiates urban decay

The pattern of urbanisation in India is characterized by continuous concentration of population and activities in large cities. Kingsley Davis used the term "over-urbanisation (Kingsley Davis and Golden, 1954) "where in urban misery and rural poverty exist side by side with the result that city can hardly be called dynamic" and where inefficient, unproductive informal sector (Kundu and Basu, 1998) becomes increasingly apparent. Another scholar (Breese, 1969) depicts urbanisation in India as pseudo urbanisation where in people arrives in cities not due to urban pull but due to rural push. Reza an Kundu (1978) talked of dysfunctional urbanisation and urban accretion which results in a concentration of population in a few large cities without a corresponding increase in their economic base. Urbanisation process is not mainly "migration lead" but a product of demographic explosion due to natural increase. Besides rural out migration (Premi, 1991) is directed towards class I cities. The big cities attained inordinately large population size leading to virtual collapse in the urban services and quality of life. Large cities are structurally weak and formal instead of being functional entities because of inadequate economic base. Globalisation, liberalization (Kundu and Gupta, 2000), privatization are addressing negative process for urbanisation in India. Under globalisation survival and existence of the poor are affected adversely. Liberalisation permits cheap import of goods which ultimately negatively affects rural economy, handicrafts, household industry on which rural poor survives. The benefits of liberalization (Despande and Despande, 1998) generally accrue to only those who acquire new skills. It is unlikely that common man and the poor will benefit from the liberalization. Privatisation causes retrenchment of workers. All these negative syndrome forces poverty induced migration (Mukherjee, 1993) of rural poor to urban informal sectors (Kundu, Lalitha and Arora (2001). Hence migration which is one of the components of urban growth occurs not due to urban pull but due to rural push.

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#### **Check your progress - 3**

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

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

5. Which is the most urbanised state in India?
6. What are the components of urban growth?

### **12.5 LET US SUM UP**

Urbanisation refers to the population shift from rural areas to urban areas, the gradual increase in the proportion of people living in urban areas, and the ways in which each society adapts to this change. The world's total population in 2018 is 4.196 billion. Urban Population growth (annual %) in 2018 is 1.936. On the basis of population size the Census of India has placed towns into six categories. Census of India classifies the Indian States and Union Territories into three groups depending upon the levels of urbanisation: Group A consisting of States and UTs with higher level of urbanisation (with an urban population higher than the national average of 27.72 per cent), Group B consisting of States and UTs with moderate level of urbanisation (more than 20 per cent but less than the national average), and Group C consisting of States and UTs with low level urbanisation (with less than 20 per cent urban population to total population of the State or UT). The introduction of land reforms, infrastructure development of small and medium sized towns, dispersal of production activities, introduction of panchayats have probably put a check on the rate of urbanisation and city-bound movement of population.

In this unit you have learnt the level of urbanisation and urban population. You have studied urban growth in India, its components, basic features and patterns of urbanisation in India also in detail.

### **12.6 UNIT – END – EXERCISES**

1. Briefly explain the level of urbanisation in the world.
2. Write about geographical approach in urbanisation.
3. Classify the towns according to Census of India.
4. Discuss the criteria for classify Indian States and Union Territories in to groups.
5. Describe the basic features of India's urbanisation.
6. Analyse the terms urban population and urban growth.

### **12.7 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. The world's total population in 2018 is 4.196 billion.
2. Level and growth of urban share of total population and its distribution by size classes of cities and towns. This is called demographic approach in urbanisation.
3. (a) natural increase, (b) growth of new towns outside agglomerations, (c) merging of towns and jurisdictional changes in agglomerations, and (d) rural-urban migration.
4. Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, and West Bengal.
5. Goa is the most urbanised state in India.
6. 1) Natural increase, 2) Net migration, 3) Areal reclassification.

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## **12.8 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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1. Kundu, Amitabh, 2005. 'Urbanization and Urban Governance: Search for a Perspective beyond Neo-Liberalism', in *Pachimbange Nagar Unnyoner Abhigyata*, Proceedings of the Seminar held at NBU on 5-6 February 2005: 101-124.
2. Ramachandran, R., 1989. *Urbanization and Urban System in India*, New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
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5. Sivaramakrishnan, K.C, Amitabh Kumdu and B. N. Singh, 2005, "Handbook of Urbanisation in India: An Analysis of Trends and Processes", Oxford University Press, New Delhi, 2005.

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## UNIT-XIII

# LOCATION OF CITIES – NATURE, CULTURE, FUNCTION

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### Structure

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Objectives
- 13.3 Location of cities
  - 13.3.1 Meaning of City
  - 13.3.2 Definition of City
  - 13.3.3 Classification of Cities
  - 13.3.4 Challenges of cities
- 13.4 Nature
  - 13.4.1 Nature of City
  - 13.4.2 Characteristics of City
- 13.5 Culture
  - 13.5.1 City culture
  - 13.5.2 Types of city culture
- 13.6 Function
  - 13.6.1 Main functions of a city
- 13.7 Migration
  - 13.7.1 Meaning of Migration
  - 13.7.2 Migration in India
  - 13.7.3 Types of Migration
  - 13.7.4 Causes of Migration
  - 13.7.5 Impact of Migration
  - 13.7.6 Migration Trends
  - 13.7.7 Advantages of Migration
  - 13.7.8 Disadvantages of Migration
- 13.8 Let us sum up
- 13.9 Unit – end – exercises
- 13.10 Answer to check your progress
- 13.11 Suggested Readings

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### 13.1 INTRODUCTION

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A city is a relatively large, dense, permanent, heterogeneous, and politically autonomous settlement whose population engages in a range of non agricultural occupations. City culture is aspects of life in a city that people enjoy and regard as valuable. Culture emerges over the history of a city as a result of the shared experiences of its residents. A city may have more than one culture. Once a city comes up, it acquires one or more of the functions depending on a number of factors. According to the Indian census, a migrant is one who is enumerated at a place other than his place of birth. Causes, types and impact of migration are explained.

In this unit you will learn meaning and definition of city, types, functions, nature of cities. You will learn city culture and its types, migration it's type, causes, impact, advantages and disadvantages also in detail.

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## 13.2 OBJECTIVES

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After going through the unit you will be able to;

- ✓ know city and its types
- ✓ understand the functions of cities
- ✓ discuss the city culture
- ✓ explain the concept of migration
- ✓ describe causes and impact of migration

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## 13.3 LOCATION OF CITIES

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### 13.3.1 MEANING OF CITY

A city is an area in which a large number of people live fairly close together. Cities usually have their own separate governments and systems for maintaining and providing utilities and transportation.

A city is a relatively large, dense, permanent, heterogeneous, and politically autonomous settlement whose population engages in a range of non agricultural occupations.

A city is basically a big city — the population is large in relation to the amount of land, since people often live in apartments or multi-family housing. The largest city in the world today is Shanghai, China.

### 13.3.2 DEFINITION OF CITY

Definitions of cities and their associated phenomena vary by time and place, and by population size, area, and function. The city is often defined in terms of administrative area, which may be larger than, smaller than, or equal to the area of relatively dense settlement that comprises what is otherwise known as the city proper. The suburb is a less dense but a permanent settlement that is located outside the city proper and contains populations that usually have social and economic ties to the city.

Cities reflect other areas with which they are linked and the civilizations of which they are a part. Cities are centres' of markets, governments, [religion](#), and [culture](#) (Weber, 1958). A community is a population sharing a physical environment and leading a common and interdependent life. The size, density, and heterogeneity of the urban community have been described as leading to "urbanism as a way of life," which includes organizational, attitudinal, and ecological components different from those of rural areas (Wirth 1938).

Mumford (1948) also mentions this fact in his article on *City: Forms and Functions* in International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, he writes "Although the city as a form of human settlement dates back to the beginnings of civilisation, it long escaped scholarly scrutiny; and its very definition is still under debate. Levi - Strauss's attack on the ambiguities of "totemism" would apply equally to the term "city" but with less justification, since the city has undergone many changes without losing its architectural and institutional continuity." has undergone many changes without losing its architectural and institutional continuity.

"A city is distinguished from other human settlements by its relatively great size, but also by its functions and its [special symbolic status](#), which may be conferred by a central authority. The term can also refer either to the physical streets and buildings of the city or to the

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collection of people who dwell there, and can be used in a general sense to mean urban rather than rural territory.

A way of life and meaning that unifies residents of a city with a sense of shared identity.

### **13.3.3 CLASSIFICATION OF CITIES**

Noel P Gist and L A Helbert have attempted on classifying cities on the basis of some broad criteria as under:

- i. Production centres
- ii. Centre of trade and commerce
- iii. Capitals and administrative centres
- iv. Health and recreation centres
- v. Religious and cultural centres
- vi. Diversified cities

### **13.3.4 CHALLENGES OF CITIES**

Cities are major contributors to climate change but they're also heavily vulnerable to it: they're affected by rising sea levels, more frequent and stronger storms and cyclones, and more frequent extremes in heat and cold. In many cities there's also a shortage of housing, pressure on healthcare systems, and issues with poverty and crime.

Cities in the developing world face the toughest challenges, and it is here that 95% of future urban growth is predicted to take place by 2050. These cities will experience great change but have the lowest levels of resources and institutional capabilities to deal with that change. Already, 828 million people live in slums and the number keeps rising (UN, 2015).

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## **13.4 NATURE**

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### **13.4.1 NATURE OF CITY**

An urban area (City) is characterized by heterogeneous crowded people and settlement where most of the people are engaged in non-agricultural activities like manufacturing, trade, commerce, and other services. F. Tonnies (1957) has used the term of *Gesellschaft* for urban characteristics of an area. It denoted large scale, impersonal, calculative and contractual relationship of the people in a society. Tonnies believed that most of the characteristics of rural areas got lost under the process of urbanization and industrialization and have given new form of social organization, behaviour and attitude. Simmel (1950) considered that every act of urban life is done with objectivity and rationality; here people are more calculative and rational in reactions to an activity as compared to traditionally simple rural people.

The basic characteristics of urban people (individuality, rationality secular, regimentation, impersonality, heterogeneity) are somehow affected by physical and social conditions of urban life. Urban and rural way of life is contradictory to each other. Urban life has their influence on rural areas, which is now in the process of change. These characteristics are defined by the term 'urbanism'.

### 13.4.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF CITY

The characteristics of urban areas are as follows:

- ✓ The urban areas have high density of population and are physically crowded but socially distant in nature. There is prevalence of nuclear type of family with small house hold size in urban areas. Person per room is often used as an important housing quality indicator measuring how crowded a house/room is? In urban areas there are more persons per room than in rural areas. The urban areas are also characterised by larger share of younger population due to immigration. Generally urban units are larger than the village. People are engaged in manufacturing, mechanical pursuits, trade and commerce, professions and other non-agricultural activities.
- ✓ An urban area has population of myriad caste, culture, ethnic groups, classes and religions. They are not all like, there are heterogeneous population as they differ in the sense of food habits, dressing style, and living conditions. Anonymity is the chief characteristics of an urban area. In urban areas there are more numerous contact and have wider area of interactions. An urban area shows the predominance of secondary, impersonal, relations that exist for short duration of time and man is remembered not by his name but by his numbers and addresses.
- ✓ Morphological characteristics of urban settlements include the structure of city, industrial and market areas, residential area, open areas, religious and cultural centres, parks, playground, down town, and the forested areas.
- ✓ There is scarcity of water in urban areas. Most of the urban people get water from a municipal/public or private companies. LPG is the one source of fuel for most of the urban households.
- ✓ In urban areas there is more social differentiation and stratification than the rural areas. These stratifications and differentiations are based on the occupational status, economy and skills of an individual. There may be slums of the poor amidst or along luxurious bungalows, towering apartments of the rich people.
- ✓ Mobility is an important aspect of urban areas; urbanity and mobility are positively correlated. Urban life is dynamic in nature and it runs with the speed of metro train. The city gives weight on rationality and the people revolve around status, wealth and material possession. The urban people frequently change their place of jobs for better salary and facilities. The urbanites are clock regulated and are controlled by the traffic lights. Regularity and punctuality are the characteristics of urban life.

#### 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 city?
2. Write two challenges faced by cities nowadays.

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## **13.5 CULTURE**

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### **13.5.1. CITY CULTURE**

Urban culture is the culture of cities. The defining theme is the presence of a great number of very different people in a very limited space most of them are strangers to each other.

City culture is aspects of life in a city that people enjoy and regard as valuable. Culture emerges over the history of a city as a result of the shared experiences of its residents. A city may have more than one culture.

### **13.5.2 TYPES OF CITY CULTURE**

#### **Language**

The language used by residents including any variations that are unique to a city. A cosmopolitan city typically has a great number of ethnic neighbourhoods where different languages thrive. It is also common for a city to have its own dialect of a dominant language.

#### **Norms**

Norms are informal understandings that guide behaviour such as norm of politeness. These are often specific to a culture and city.

#### **Symbols**

Iconic visual scenes and other symbols of a city's identity

#### **Legend and Myth**

Old stories that aren't true but nonetheless serve to bond people by giving them colourful narratives that are unique to a city.

#### **History**

Some cities have a long history of cultural development, political intrigue, natural disasters etc.

#### **Knowledge**

Local knowledge such as how to haggle with local vendors

#### **Architecture**

The architecture of a city including traditional, and modern

#### **Urban landscape**

The urban design of a city

#### **Products and services**

A city has unique products and services such as a city known for its food.

#### **Markets**

Markets and other commercial areas that have a stimulating atmosphere

#### **Public space**

Public place such as parks, malls, beaches, theatre are providing space for recreation, play, socializing and personal reflection.

#### **Sports**

Local sports teams that unify locals towards a common purpose.

#### **Festivals and events**

Local events such as a traditional festival or community event

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## 13.6 FUNCTION

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### 13.6.1 MAIN FUNCTIONS OF A CITY

Cities and villages differ from each other where their functions are concerned. Villages are mainly associated with production related to agricultural activities. The surplus is used by the villages in exchange for other commodities, which they themselves do not produce, from other villages or cities. The village, accessible to all others, generally becomes the focal point for exchange of commodities. This village generally develops into a city. Once a city comes up, it acquires one or more of the functions depending on a number of factors. The hierarchy of these functions is discussed below:

#### 1. Centre for Processing and Production

Processing is one of the most basic functions of a city and involves processing of agricultural products. The most easily accessible village generally becomes the processing centre. This may have been the reason for the emergence of the earliest cities.

It is a well-known fact that development of industries and industrial production has led to the emergence of most of the cities of the world. Even in the recent times, the process of industrialization is constructed as an important reason for the growth and expansion cities. We may associate the industrial revolution of the modern era not only with the industries, but also with the urban revolution. In India, we find many large cities which are characterized both as industrial and production centres. We can also further classify the production centres into a couple of sub-categories, such as: (i) primary production centres, and (ii) secondary production centres. In primary production centres raw materials or primary products for industries are obtained. As they are mainly the suppliers of raw materials, the inhabitants in these cities are directly or indirectly involved in the production of raw materials. The city of Nellore, Kolar and Baeilly are some examples in this regard. On the other hand, the secondary production centres are characterized by existence of final products. Most of the secondary production centres are very large in size which also increases day by day.

#### 2. Trade

After processing, the next level of cities is associated with trade. The cities act as the centres for exchange of processed items or manufactured goods between two or more places. These markets may operate on a daily or weekly basis. Weekly markets are a common feature throughout India. These centres may also specialise in one or more items such as fruits and vegetables, cattle and food-grains.

The medieval cities and cities were the centre of activities of trade and commerce. In these cities production was the secondary activity. Merchants and traders were organized into guilds which were acting as banks, apart from the distribution of goods and services. The public received regular interest from the guilds for having invested their money. The king also recognized the guild's function as ordinary courts dealing with customary laws. In the past also skilled workers were organized into factories. A systematic account of the state enterprises during the Mughal period has been presented by R.K. Mukherjee. Along with state enterprises, individual enterprises also existed during the period. However, it is also

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interesting to note that the respective state capitals also witnessed the growth of commercial centres in them because of the reason that the merchants needed the patronage of the king as well as the state so as to flourish. The merchants needed appropriate hinterland and availability of channels of their communication for their organization.

Political security was instrumental in the rise and fall of different commercial cities, cities and markets. The centres of commerce and trade were also dependent on the commodities available in the hinterland to a great extent. That apart, they also depended upon transport, trade and commerce in large cities and the discovery of new maritime trade routes. For example, Calicut became an important commercial centre only after the discovery of the new sea trade routes by Vasco-da-Gama. A typical example is Mumbai where trade and commerce activities superseded its activities as a production centre. However, the cities of Broach and Surat suffered a setback due to the growth and development of Bombay under the colonial rule. By and large, the cities have the connectivity of sea routes are important centres of trade and commerce. While the important ports of India, like Kozikode, Kochi, Tuticorin, Visakhapatnam, Kolkata, Kakinada and Chennai, are usually the centres of trade and commerce, it cannot always be generalized that the ports are always the centres of trade and commerce.

Cities are engaging in wholesale trade in agricultural products for the next high level in functional pattern of cities. Transport facility is a crucial factor in such cities. These cities generally fulfil processing functions also. Later, they may develop manufacturing and other services also. They are generally small in size and dispersed, often specialising in one commodity or the other.

### **3. Services like capitals and administration**

Administrative cities and cities occupy a central place in the emergence of the city with a long history. The Indian urban history is replete with the emergence and decline of urban centres with the rise and fall of different kingdoms. The example of Pataliputra, Vijaynagaram, Madurai, Golconda, may be cited as the administrative cities of the past, which are no more identified as the administrative centres of the present. However, it may be mentioned here that as cities are selected by the political regimes for the purpose of capital, the same city may be built several times by different dynasties several times. The cases of Delhi or Agra or Pataliputra may be cited in this regard. The administrative centre or the capital city is industrialisation and globalization; the capital cities were considered the most important cities of the world.

In cities, services like education, health, administration and communication, not adequately available in villages, are well- developed. Of all these functions, administration is the most important one. A city may be the headquarters of a panchayat union, a state cooperative or a district. Administrative cities also have law courts, police stations, government departments associated with developmental works, etc. Chandigarh is a good example of an administrative city.

### **4. Manufacturing and Mining**

Such activities give rise to large cities because manufacturing and mining activities generate large-scale employment and give rise to other

useful economic activities like trade, services, transport, ancillary industry etc. These activities attract large-scale migrations from adjoining regions. Jamshedpur came up around the Tata Iron and Steel Works while Raniganj and Kolar are examples of cities which have come up around mining activities.

### **5. Transport**

Transport is a basic necessity for all types of economic activities and for the evolution and further expansion of a city. Many of the cities, therefore, have come up around railway stations or port cities. Railway stations act as the centres for change from road to rail traffic and vice-versa and for purposes of transshipment, collection, sorting and despatch. Jolarpettai in south India is a good example of a city which has come up at a railway junction.

Similarly, the ports act as the centres for change from road or rail to sea traffic. Ports may also develop manufacturing and administrative functions. Kolkata, Mumbai, Chennai, Kandla, Paradip, etc., are examples of cities which have come up around ports. ‘

### **6. Pilgrimage/Tourism**

Religious sentiments dominate the Indians to such an extent that many cities have become famous and grown into big cities due to their importance as religious centres. Pilgrimage is an important activity associated with travelling and lodging. Thus, at such places transport and lodging facilities also come up. The cities adapt themselves to support a large floating population. We may cite the example of Kashi or Varanasi, Prayag or Allahabad in this regard. Because of their locations on the holy river, they have acquired religious prominence. That apart, as India is a multi-religious country, it contains at least one or two religious centres of each religion. For example, whereas Ajmer is place of pilgrimage for the Muslims, Amritsar is the religious capital for the Sikhs in India. In the like manner, Puri, Varanasi, Rameswaram, Haridwar, Ayodhya, Tirupati etc. are important holy places for the Hindus in India. Shirdi, abode the mystic saint Sai Baba attracts huge number of pilgrims from all religions. Bodhi Gaya is a famous pilgrimage for the Buddhists.

From the historical or cultural point of view some cities have also gained prominence. For example, Taj Mahal of Agra, Qutab Minar in Delhi, Gol Gumbaz of Bijapur victory tower at Chittorgarh, Shimla, Darjeeling, Udagamandalam (Ooty) made their locations famous. Similarly, whereas Pondicherry is famous for Sri Aurobindo Ashram, Nalanda and Taxila were the seats of old universities.

### **7. Health and recreation centres**

In India, we find a number of cities which are famous scenic beauty and healthy climatic conditions throughout the year. Such urban centres are generally located on the rivers or near the sea coast or on the hills. The hill cities and beach resorts are cool in summer and therefore the tourists rush towards them. Also Governmental initiatives are taken to make those tourist places more attractive. In Kerala, some tourists' centres also provide the tourists with health facilities. The inhabitants of these places mostly depend on tourism for their livelihood.

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### 8. Residential

Cities with residential functions often come up around big cities where land prices are lower, basic services are cheaper and fast transport links with the main city are available. Sonapat, Faridabad and Gaziabad are examples of such cities around Delhi. These cities have also developed manufacturing functions in recent times.

### 9. Diversified cities

There are some cities which may not exclusively perform a particular function; they may not fit into the types which we have discussed earlier. Therefore, the fundamental reason of their prominence may not be the same as in case of growth. For example some cities are now capitals .but at the time of their growth they were production centres or holy places or port cities. But in course of time, they have gained prominence in many respects.

Generally, a city has more than one function, but one or two of these dominate. The functions of a city depend on its location, its infrastructural facilities, and historical and economic factors. The dominant function may be identified on the basis of number of persons involved in that particular activity.

#### Check your progress - 2

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

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

3. List down any four items reflects urban culture.

4. Describe diversified cities.

## 13.7 MIGRATION

### 13.7.1 MEANING OF MIGRATION

The needs of human are met they continue to progress and the moment they feel an inadequacy and insecurity they search for it elsewhere. It requires them to leave his original place of existence, his birth land and it is called migration.

It is not a term. It's a process. The Latin term 'migrare' is considered and it means to move or shift. Tony Kushner says, "We can't just stop, we're not rock progress, migration, a motion is modernity. It's animate; it's what living things do. We desire. Even if all we desire for is stillness, it's still desire for."

Migration is accepting the change to change. It is politicized; there is no place for personal choice rather the last step that one might think of taking. It involves the movement and mobility of a settled population to another place as an alien with an intention to either temporarily or permanently settles there. It may be a place over long distances, over countries or within short distance, within country between regions. Migration could be one's own decision, or a decision influenced by other factors.

### 13.7.2 MIGRATION IN INDIA

It is only in recent decades that natural increase has played an increasing role in accounting for urban population growth. Traditionally cities grew by migration which is a geographical process, since death rates match birth rates or were greater than birth rates in the past. In the past, it was migration that contributed to urban growth. Migration is the movement of population from one geographical region to another. Migration is a multi-faceted concept which includes both in migration and immigration.

Immigration is in-migration, which means a population enters a region from another area. Emigration is out-migration, which means a population leaves an area. Net migration is the difference between immigration and emigration. Internal migration is movement within a nation's boundaries.

In India, migration from abroad has been most reliable, except in recent years when there has been a significant increase in the Muslim population due to migration from Pakistan, Bangladesh & Afghanistan. It is in fact the internal migration which has led to population distribution from east to west and north to south today even though the death rate has fallen substantially, the birth rates has not fallen that much. Hence growth does not depend on birth or death rates alone but on migration which is determined by a number of socio-economic factors. Migration constitutes the very foundation of urban process in India. According to the Indian census, a migrant is one who is enumerated at a place other than his place of birth.

### 13.7.3 TYPES OF MIGRATION

#### A. By political boundaries

- a) **Internal:** Migration within the same country, including crossing political boundaries, rural to urban and urban to suburban.
- b) **International:** Migration across country boundaries.

#### B. By movement patterns

- a) **Step migration:** Initiating from a small settlement and going to a larger settlement in the urban hierarchy over the years.
- b) **Circular migration:** Cyclical movement between origin and destination settlements, typically for employment. It includes seasonal migration (driven by seasonal peaks in labour demand) and return migration (one-time emigration and return after an extended stay outside the destination).
- c) **Chain migration:** Occurs after a small number of groups move to a host destination and are followed by others in the community.

#### C. By decision-making approach

- a) **Voluntary migration:**  
Based on a person's free will and initiative, which could involve weighing options and choices.

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b) **Involuntary migration:**

Reluctant/impelled/imposed: Not forced, but caused by unfavourable situations..

c) **Forced:** Involuntary migration due to environmental and political factors.

These include:

a) **Refugees:** Individuals who are unable to return home.

b) **Asylees:** Individuals undergoing legal procedures to qualify as refugees in a host country.

Internally displaced people (IDPs): Individuals who are forced to leave but do not cross any boundaries

### 13.7.4 CAUSES OF MIGRATION

#### A. Push factors

(Compel people to migrate)

##### a. Economic

- i. Unemployment
- ii. Rural poverty
- iii. Unsustainable livelihood

##### b. Socio political

- i. Political instability
- ii. Safety & security
- iii. Conflicts or threats
- iv. Slavery or bonded labour
- v. Inadequate/limited urban services & infrastructure

##### c. Ecological

- i. Climate change
- ii. Crop failure/food scarcity

#### B. Pull factors

(Attract people to migrate)

##### a. Economic

- i. Job opportunities
- ii. Wealth prospects
- iii. Industrial innovation
- iv. Specialized education

##### b. Socio political

- i. Family reunification
- ii. Freedom
- iii. Integration & social cohesion
- iv. Food security
- v. Affordable & accessible urban services

##### c. Ecological

- i. Abundance of natural resources
- ii. Favourable climate

### 13.7.5 IMPACT OF MIGRATION

#### A. Positive

##### a. Economic

- i. Cheap & surplus labour
- ii. Closes gaps in skills

- b. Social**
    - i. Multi-ethnic society & increased tolerance
    - ii. New services from country of origin
  - c. Political**
    - i. Push for inclusive policy making
    - ii. Integrated development
- B. Negative**
- a. Economic**
    - Increase in remittances leading to –
    - i. Native unemployment in case local consumption decreases
    - ii. Increased capital and risk constraints on local production with reduced investments
  - b. Social**
    - i. Urban services & social infrastructure under stress
    - ii. Xenophobia
    - iii. Cultural dilution
  - c. Political**
    - i. Stricter immigration norms

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### 13.7.6 MIGRATION TRENDS

#### 1. International Migration

The term international migration refers to the change of usual residence between one nation and the other. The overwhelming majority of such movers across the frontiers do not necessarily mean that they have decided to change their usual residence. Both international and internal migration involves a change of usual residence. Another interesting feature is that the recorded volume of international migration is much less than the undocumented/ unauthorised migration. This is because people cross the international boundaries in a clandestine way. Whatever the case may be, the net international immigration has always been an important component of the population change in the country of entry. It may be noted that as a result of emigration significant change in population composition is registered in the countries of departure. A policy statement of the United Nations suggests that international movements within an intended stay of more than one year be classified as international migration. Unfortunately, there is no uniformity among the nations on the definition of international migration. Many governments, including the government of the United States of America, collect data on immigration but not on emigration. All data on immigration published by governments refer to legal immigration only while data on illegal or undocumented immigration is not tabulated (Bergatta, 1992, p. 986-87). This gap in information is a serious drawback in any study of international migration.

#### 2. Trends of Migration in India

Trends of migration in India can be classified into two categories: *intrastate migrations and interstate migrations*. A few examples may be cited to show that the terminology used here may be confusing. When a family migrates from the Agra district of Uttar Pradesh to the neighbouring district of Bharatpur in Rajasthan, one has to describe it as *interstate*

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**migration**, even though distance covered is short. On the other hand, if a family or a single individual moves from Srikakulam district of Andhra Pradesh to Adilabad or Guntur in the same state, migration will be described as **intrastate**, although a long distance has been covered. It may, therefore, be concluded that distance is not a definitive criterion.

#### **a. Intrastate Migration**

Studies show that migrants in India do not generally cover long distances. They generally move within the state of their birth/origin. This type of migration is called intrastate. Estimates on the basis of census records show that people mostly move from one village to the other in the same state. There are about 200 million people who are normally on the move within the state. Within this group are included those who move from one village to the other. This category accounts for about 70 per cent of all migrants. On the other hand, only 9 per cent migrants move from small towns to cities. About 15 per cent of the intrastate migrants move from rural to urban areas, while 6 per cent move in the reverse direction, i.e., from urban to rural areas.

An interesting feature is that about 75 per cent of the total intrastate migrants are females. This shows that the bulk of the female migration in India is related to marriage. About 7 per cent of female migrants move from one urban centre to the other; about 12 per cent move from rural to urban areas.

Among the migrants, around 50 million consist of males. They move mainly in the rural to rural stream. This stream accounts for about one-sixth of the urban to urban category. About one-fourth is in the rural to urban and 8 percent in the urban to rural stream.

#### **b. Interstate Migration**

Census data on migration show that interstate movement is much less in India as compared to the intrastate migration. In all about 27 million migrants cross the state boundaries. Of these, a little less than one-third belong to the rural to rural stream; another one-third belong to the urban to urban stream and another one-third move from the rural to urban areas. Those who move from urban to rural areas account for 7 per cent of all migrants. Data also show that in the category of interstate migrants, some 15 million women are also included. About two-fifths of them move within the rural areas; about one-third are in the urban circuit, i.e., they move from one urban centre to the other; about one-fourth of this category move from urban places to villages.

### **13.7.7 ADVANTAGES OF MIGRATION**

The urban place gets cheap labour, and it helps to overcome the shortage of labour in factories and manufacturing departments including service sectors for jobs like peons and secretary, immigrants often agree to do unskilled jobs which do not require them to invest a lot of their brain and they also survive.

### **13.7.8 DISADVANTAGES OF MIGRATION**

There are language problems, racial and ethnic discrimination. The immigrant is better skilled than the permanent resident of the place then the job will be given to the immigrant.

#### **Check your progress - 3**

**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 called migration?
6. Enumerate the disadvantages of migration.

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### **13.8 LET US SUM UP**

A way of life and meaning that unifies residents of a city with a sense of shared identity. A city has functions such as processing, trade, services, pilgrimage and tourism. City culture varies city to city. It includes language, norms, symbols, festivals, events, products, landscape etc. A person moves from his birth place or origin to other for any purpose it is called migration. Causes of migration are push and pull factors including economic, socio political and ecological factors. Migration in cities has merits and demerits.

In this unit you have learnt meaning and definition of city, types, functions, nature of cities. City culture and its types, migration its type, causes, impact, advantages and disadvantages were discussed in detail.

### **13.9 UNIT – END – EXERCISES**

1. Define city.
2. How Noel P Gist and L A Helbert classify cities?
3. How language plays a vital role in urban culture?
4. Explain the main functions of a city.
5. Discuss migration in India.

### **13.10 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. A city is a relatively large, dense, permanent, heterogeneous, and politically autonomous settlement whose population engages in a range of non agricultural occupations.
2. Climate change, shortage of houses, pressure on healthcare systems, and issues with poverty and crime.
3. Norms, symbols, history and festivals.
4. There are some cities which may not exclusively perform a particular function; they may not fit into the types which we have discussed earlier. Therefore, the fundamental reason of their

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prominence may not be the same as in case of growth. For example some cities are now capitals .but at the time of their growth they were production centres or holy places or port cities. But in course of time, they have gained prominence in many respects.

5. The needs of human are met they continue to progress and the moment they feel an inadequacy and insecurity they search for it elsewhere. It requires them to leave his original place of existence, his birth land and it is called migration.
6. There are language problems, racial and ethnic discrimination. The immigrant is better skilled than the permanent resident of the place then the job will be given to the immigrant.

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### **13.11 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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# UNIT-XIV URBAN SOCIAL PROBLEMS

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## Structure

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- 14.2 Objectives
- 14.3 India – Urban social problems
  - 14.3.1 Urban social problems
  - 14.3.2 Definition of social problem
- 14.4 Crime
  - 14.4.1 Definition of Crime
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- 14.5 Juvenile Delinquency
  - 14.5.1 Definition of Juvenile Delinquency
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- 14.9 Poverty
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- 14.10 Unemployment
  - 14.10.1. Definition of Unemployment
  - 14.10.2. *Types of Unemployment*
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  - 14.10.5. Unemployment Rate of male and females in Urban
  - 14.10.6 Causes of Unemployment at Urban Areas in India
  - 14.10.7 Measures to Minimize Unemployment in India
- 14.11 Let us sum up
- 14.12 Unit – end – exercises
- 14.13 Answer to check your progress
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## 14.1 INTRODUCTION

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Although India is one of the less urbanized countries of the world with only 27.78 per cent of her population living in urban agglomerations/towns, this country is facing a serious crisis of urban growth at the present time. The process of industrialisation has added much to the phenomenal growth of cities. Due to the rapid industrialisation cities have grown in an unsystematic manner. Industrialisation and urbanisation have brought along with them many vices. Here we discuss seven serious social problems in urban area. Those are crime, juvenile delinquency, slums, housing problems, environmental problems poverty and unemployment.

In this unit you will learn urban social problems such as crime, juvenile delinquency, slums, housing problems, environmental problems poverty and unemployment problems in a detailed manner.

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## 14.2 OBJECTIVES

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After studying this unit, you will be able to

- ✓ know the concept of urban social problems
- ✓ understand the meaning and definition of urban social problems
- ✓ analyse the causes, solutions for social problems in urban

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## 14.3 INDIA – URBAN SOCIAL PROBLEMS

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### 14.3.1 URBAN SOCIAL PROBLEMS

When a particular social phenomenon or condition disturbs the social order and hinders smooth working of social institutions that comes to be identified as a social problem. At the initial phase such conditions are neglected since they do not have any serious adverse effects on the social system. But gradually, they get accumulated and begin to affect normal social life. Then such condition is recognised as a social problem. Once social problem takes roots and develops beyond the bounds of tolerance, there arises resentment against it and there is a demand for remedy in the interest of social harmony.

Although India is one of the less urbanized countries of the world with only 27.78 per cent of her population living in urban agglomerations/towns, this country is facing a serious crisis of urban growth at the present time. Whereas urbanisation has been an instrument of economic, social and political progress, it has led to serious social problems.

### 14.3.2 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL PROBLEM

A more precise, though broad, definition is given by E. Raab and G.J.Selznick. According to them, a social problem is “a problem in human relationship which seriously threatens society itself or impedes the important aspirations of many people.”

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## 14.4 CRIME

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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.

### 14.4.1 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”.

### 14.4.2 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.

### 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.

### 14.4.3 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.

#### 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.

#### 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 problem?
2. When was probation introduced in India?
3. Write the abbreviations for IPC, SLL.

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## 14.5 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

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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.

### 14.5.1 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.

### 14.5.2 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.
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.

### **14.5.3 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

### **14.5.4 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

#### **14.5.5 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.

##### **(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.

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#### **14.6 SLUMS**

A slum is a heavily populated urban informal settlement characterized by substandard housing and squalor. While slums differ in size and other characteristics from country to country, most lack reliable sanitation services, supply of clean water, reliable electricity, timely law enforcement and other basic services. Slum residences vary from shanty to poorly built, deteriorated buildings. In the 20th century, slums were predominantly found in urban regions of developing and undeveloped parts of the world, but also found in developed economies.

Slums form and grow in many different parts of the world, for many different reasons. Some causes include rapid rural-to-urban migration, economic stagnation and depression, high unemployment, poverty, informal economy, poor planning, politics, natural disasters and social conflicts. Strategies tried to reduce and transform slums in different countries, with varying degrees of success, include a combination of slum removal, slum relocation, slum upgrading, urban planning with city wide infrastructure development, and public housing projects.

### 14.6.1 NATURE OF SLUMS

Slums may be characterized as areas of substandard housing conditions within a city. A slum is always an area. The term housing conditions refers to actual living conditions rather than mere physical appearance of the area. The substandard is to be taken not in an objective or technological but rather in a relative social sense i.e. compared with the recognized standard at a given time in a specific country. The cave dwelling of prehistoric people, the dugouts etc. of pioneers are all substandard according to our notion, but they do not create slum conditions. Slum word has a long and a negative connotation. It has been almost an epithet, implying evil, strange and something to be shunned and avoided. It is being apparently derived from “slumber” as slum were once thought by majority to be unknown, back streets presumed to be sleepy and quite.

There is a disagreement over whether people make slums or slums make people. Are substandard housing conditions due to social standards behaviour of certain groups or vice- versa? The slum is a complex product of many products as it is true of many other social phenomena. But poverty is the foremost one, interplay of objective economic facts and subjective group standard. Low-incomes force people to live in slums. Slum residents are negligent and do not mind dirt. They have neither money nor time to their area clean or clean if themselves. Lack of basic infrastructure, like drains, drinking water, electricity and location gives the slums a very ungainly picture.

### 14.6.2 TYPES OF SLUMS

According to Bergel, there are three types of Slums –

1. Original Slum – An area which from the beginning consisted of unsuitable buildings, these sections are beyond recovery and need to be razed.
2. Converted slums – Houses earlier built according to the prevailing standards, but now vacated by the original dwellers and occupied by the lower income groups turn into slums as new occupants cannot maintain them e.g. in proper Mumbai earlier bungalows or big apartments are converted into one room chawls with common toilet facilities.
3. Slums developed due to transition – Once the area has become blighted, physical and social deterioration spreads rapidly. This kind of slum is characterized by having semipermanent structures, overnight accommodation of the destitute, cheap entertainment clubs and houses. It is populated by transients, tramps, vagrants, chronic alcoholics, beggars, homeless men and habitual criminals. Such slums need rehabilitation and not the demolition of building.

### 14.6.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SLUMS

Slums vary from one type to another, but certain general patterns of slums are universal. Although, the slum is generally characterized by inadequate housing, deficient facilities, overcrowding and congestions involve much more than these elements. Sociologically, it is a way of life, a sub culture with a set of norms and values, which is reflected in poor sanitation and health practices, deviant behavior and attributes of apathy and social isolations. People who live in slums are isolated from the

general power structure and are regarded as inferiors. Slum dwellers in turn harbor, suspicions of the outside world.

Some of the features of slums are:

### **1. Housing conditions**

In terms of the physical conditions and housing standards it is important to keep in mind the comparative nature of the definitions. A slum should be judged physically according to the general living standards of a country. Slums have commonly been defined as those portions of cities in which housing is crowded, neglected deteriorated and often obsolete. Many of the inadequate housing conditions can be attributed to poorly arranged structures, inadequate lighting and circulation, lack of sanitary facility, overcrowding and inadequate maintenance.

### **2. Overcrowding and congestion**

A slum may be an area which is overcrowded with buildings or a building over-crowded with people or both. Density does not always result in unfortunate social consequence, the issue is primarily one of overcrowding. Congestion is again a judgment about the physical condition of the building in terms of high density per block, acre or square mile. William. F. Whyte (1943) in his well-known sociological study, *Street Corner Society* situated in Boston's north end, stressed upon the importance of overcrowding as a criterion for measuring slum conditions. Some slum areas like in Delhi, have 40, 00,000 people per square mile.

### **3. Neighborhood facilities**

A poor slum is invariably associated with poor facilities and community services. Along with shabbiness and dilapidation, schools are of poor quality and other public facilities are often insufficient. Streets and sidewalks often go un-repaired and rubbish and garbage are infrequently collected adding to the undesirable environment. Shortage of water, electricity and sanitary facility are common in most of the slums.

### **4. Poor Sanitation and Health**

Slums are generally been dirty and unclean places which is defined largely in terms of the physical deterioration, stressing particularly unsanitary conditions and lack of sufficient facilities like water and latrines. These factors have resulted in high rates death and disease. These factors have always been typical of slum areas where overcrowding and presence of rats and other pest complicate the problem of health and sanitation. In slum areas of developing countries, the rate of disease, chronic illness and infant mortality are exceptionally high.

### **5. Deviant Behavior**

A high incidence of deviant behavior- crime, juvenile delinquency, prostitution, drunkenness, drug usage, mental disorder, suicide, ill legitimacy and family maladjustments have long been associated with slum living. It is a fact that vice may be found in slums but is by no means confined only to the slums. Due to the lack of money and power often slum dwellers are prove to be pressurized by the goons of upper classes to commit crime. It is a vicious cycle for the sum dwellers.

### **6. The Culture of the Slum- a way of life**

Slums differ widely with respect to the social organization of their Inhabitants. They range from the slums in which the inhabitants are strangers to one another, to the family slums in which there is a wide acquaintance between the inhabitants.

Slums inhabited by immigrant groups may have a firm social organization. Culture might be defined as system of symbols or meanings for the normative conduct of standards, having three distinct properties. It is transmittable, it is learned and it is shared. The slum has a culture of its own and this culture is the way of life. This way of life is passed from generation to generation with its own rationale, structure and defense mechanism, which provides the means to continue in spite of difficulties and deprivation. It is the habits, customs and behavior pattern people have learned and which they hold that move them to act in a particular way. Although, these cultural patterns are typical of the slum, from ethnic groups to ethnic groups, from own society to society to another.

### **7. Apathy and Social Isolation**

Every residential area within the modern city tends to be socially isolated from others, partly by choice and partly by location. The slum is especially so, as it is inhabited by the people of the lowest status. The chief link with rest of the community is their identification with labour market, but there may be an additional link through politics. A slum also has an image in the eyes of the larger community. There is a societal reaction to slum dwellers. The non-slum dweller often associates the physical appearance and difficult living conditions of the slums with belief in the “Natural inferiority” of those who live in slums. This reaction has important consequences in the social isolation of slum dwellers and their exclusion, from power and participation in urban society. The slum dwellers often lack an effective means of communication with the outside world. Because of apathy, lack of experience in communicating with outsiders and their own powerlessness to make their voice heard. William. F. Whyte (1943) stated that although the north end slum studied in his work on street corner society was a mysterious, dangerous and depressing place to an outsider, it provided an organized and familiar environment for those who lived in it.

### **14.6.4 FUNCTIONS OF THE SLUMS**

The slums have met various needs and have served several useful functions for the slum residents. The most common functions of the slums have been to provide housing for the lowest income groups and migrants in the city. The slums also serve as places where group living and association on the basis of villages, regions, tribes or ethnic or racial groups may develop. Whyte (1943) found an organized way of life in slums, which offered satisfaction to its residents. The slums also perform a function as a type of “School” to educate newcomers to the city. It gives them a place to become oriented upon arrival, to find first jobs and to learn the ways of city life. Another important function of the slum is that of offering a place of residence to those who prefer to live an anonymous life. It includes migratory workers, criminals, chronic alcoholic and workers in illegal enterprises.

### **14.6.5 APPROACHES TO THE SLUM PROBLEMS**

Some experts advocates the policy of slum clearance while others believe providing welfare services to slum dwellers. Still others stress providing greater economic opportunity for slum dwellers. All however have serious limitations as solutions either alone or together to the slum dwellers.

The traditional welfarist approaches advocate the policy of destroying the slums, tearing it down physically and redevelopment with subsidized housing. It is believed that providing welfare services to slum

dwellers is the best way to bring about changes in slum areas and to solve the slum problems.

Urban community development offers a new developmental approach to some of the problems of urban areas in general and of the slums in particular. It involves two fundamental ideas:- the development of effective community feeling within an urban context and the development of self-help and citizens participation, of individual initiative in seeking community integration and change.

The Marxist and Socialist approach to the problem of slums clearly points out that if only the land in urban areas is nationalized and removed from the orbit of market operation.

#### **14.6.6 URBANISATION AND SLUMS**

The Government of India Slum Area (Improvement and Clearance) Act of 1954 defines a slum as “any predominantly residential area, in which light or sanitary facilities or any combination of these factors are detrimental to the safety, health or morals”. According to NSS (National Sample Survey), “a slum is a compact settlement with a collection of poorly built tenements, mostly of temporary nature, crowded together, in unhygienic conditions, usually with inadequate sanitary and drinking water facilities. Such an area is considered as a Non-Notified Slum if at least 20 households live in that area. Notified Slums are those areas notified as Slums by Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) or development authorities. The vast majority of the city ward migrants belongs to the working class and finds it difficult to secure accommodation within their means. Therefore they squat on every open space available, nearby their work places and construct huts with cheap temporary building materials. In this way, slums grow in number and population. Total and slum population in India according to size/class of towns during 1991 showed that 41 percent of the total slum population was residing in million plus cities where 27 percent of the total population of India resided. However, cities with population between 0.5 – 1 million have only 9 percent of total slum population, where 20 percent of the total population was residing. Further, cities with population between 0.3 to 0.5 million had only 6 percent of total slum population where 19 percent of total population was residing. This shows that cities with population between 0.5 to 1 million and city with population between 0.3 to 0.5 million has very less percentage of slum population whereas million plus cities have more percentage of slum population. It reveals that the opportunity in the medium cities is less than that offered by the million cities.

#### **Check your progress - 2**

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

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

4. What is called delinquency?  
5. Enumerate some preventive programmes for Juvenile delinquency.

6. What is slum?

## **14.7 HOUSING PROBLEMS**

In India, the problem of housing is acute. There is a wide gap between the demand and supply of houses. This gap is responsible for growth of slums in cities where crores of people live in most unhygienic and unhealthy conditions.

### **14.7.1 ROLE OF HOUSING**

Housing is closely associated to the process of overall socio-economic development. It provides shelter and raises the quality of life. It generates conditions which are congenial to the achievement of social objectives such as health, sanitation and education. It provides employment opportunities to the rural and urban people. Moreover it helps to improve urban rural equality by narrowing down the difference in the standard of living. Thus housing performs multiple functions including many social needs of the household.

### **14.7.2 MAGNITUDE OF THE HOUSING PROBLEM**

- ❖ The magnitude of the problem of housing in India is quite wide. The problem has both quantitative and qualitative dimensions.
- ❖ Qualitatively speaking the state of housing in India is miserable.
- ❖ Quantitatively speaking, there is acute shortage of housing in urban areas in India. In 2000, there is shortage of 104 lakh houses in urban areas.

### **14.7.3 MEASURES TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM OF HOUSING IN INDIA**

- ❖ The Ministry of Urban Development and Ministry of Rural Development have the overall responsibility to build houses in urban and rural areas of the country.
- ❖ As housing is a State subject, the role of the Central Govt. is confined to policy making, laying down guidelines and assistance in the form of loans etc.
- ❖ The actual implementation of the housing schemes is the responsibility of the State Governments.

**The following are the measures taken by the Govt. to solve the problem of housing:**

#### **1 Institutional Finance for Housing**

To facilitate the construction of houses, several financial institutions have been established by the Govt. to provide housing finance. In the co-operating sector House building co-operative societies has been set up to provide housing finance. LIC was the only public financial institution to provide housing finance to the policy holders till 1970.

The Central Govt. instituted Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) which gives loans for housing to State Housing Boards, Municipal Corporations, and Development authorities. Housing Development Finance Corporation (HDFC) was established in the private

sector to provide housing finance in 1977. The RBI has been allocating yearly a specific amount to commercial Bank funds for housing finance since 1981. National Housing Bank (NHB) was established for housing finance in July 1988.

## **2. Research and Development**

Besides financial institutions, there are agencies who are engaged in research and development in the field of housing construction activities. These activities are improvement in the traditional construction materials and methods of construction, acceptance of new materials, providing information and technical help to other organisations and to individuals. These institutions are National Building Organisation (NBO) and Central Building Research Institute (CBRI).

## **3. State Housing Boards**

In various States, the State Housing Boards allocates plots and construct houses for people belonging to different income groups in urban areas. The allottees make payment on instalment basis at Government rates. The houses are built in groups and in a planned manner with all basic and civic amenities like water supply, sewerage, parks, shopping area and roads etc.

## **4. Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana (VAMBAY)**

This programme was launched on 2nd December 2001. The scheme is meant for urban slum dwellers below the poverty line that do not have adequate houses. For construction of dwelling units and community toilets in urban slums the Central Govt. provides 50 percent of the cost and the rest 50 percent is given by the State governments. Central Govt. has given Rs. 211.87 crore for the construction of 1.06 lakh dwelling units and 20817 toilets in urban slums.

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## **14.8 ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS**

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Localized environmental health problems such as inadequate household water and sanitation and indoor air pollution.

City-regional environmental problems such as ambient air pollution, inadequate waste management and pollution of rivers, lakes and coastal areas.

Extra-urban impacts of urban activities such as ecological disruption and resource depletion in a city's hinterland, and emissions of acid precursors and greenhouse gases.

Regional or global environmental burdens that arise from activities outside a city's boundaries, but which will affect people living in the city

### **14.8.1. ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS OF MODERN CITIES**

Urban environmental problems are mostly inadequate water supply, wastewater, solid waste, energy, loss of green and natural spaces, urban sprawl, pollution of soil, air, traffic, noise, etc. All these problems are particularly serious in developing countries and countries with economic transition, where there is a conflict between the short-term economic plan and the protection of the environment.

### **14.8.2. ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS OF URBAN AREA**

#### **1. Development of Slum**

The areas within the cities and towns (urban areas) without civic and basic amenities are called Slums. The slum settlement arises due to unflux of rural peoples into urban areas and shortage of housing facilities for them.

They construct their dwellings using rusted tins, empty tar barrels, tarpaulins, jute sacks etc. Although these areas become overcrowded, these lack civic amenities like light, water supply, drainage, roads, toilets and medical facilities. The areas of slum become centres of a number of environmental problems. Some important environmental problems may be outlined as follows:

- (i) These areas without proper water supply dispose their waste in an unplanned manner which pollutes air and water.
- (ii) The contamination of water causes diseases like typhoid, cholera, enteric fever and gastroenteritis.
- (iii) The unplanned waste dumping places and open defecation become the sites of the growth of a number of disease carriers like flies, mosquitoes etc. These cause health hazards not only in slum areas but also in other nearby places.

Thus, to avoid the above environmental problems, the slum areas should be developed by providing the civic amenities like light, water supply, drainage, toilet and medical facilities.

## **2. Management of solid waste**

Thickly populated urban area consumes large quantities of material and simultaneously releases a lot of solid wastes. The solid wastes include municipal wastes, industrial wastes, hazardous wastes etc. The solid waste production increases with an increase in population. When these solid wastes are dumped for a longer period of time, these produce foul smell and poisonous gases and become breeding ground's of vectors of different diseases.

The gases produced cause air pollution, surface run-off from the wastes cause water pollution and vectors cause different diseases. In order to avoid the above environmental problems, suitable methodology should be adopted to dispose the wastes scientifically or to recycle them or segregate organic, inorganic and recyclable wastes.

## **3. over exploitation of natural resources**

Due to high population density and expensive life style, the rate of consumption of natural resources (e.g. water, energy, fossil fuel, forest products etc.) is very high in urban areas. There is also misuse of natural resources whose immediate compensation becomes difficult. Few acute problems of urban areas are scarcity of drinking water especially the ground water, scarcity of forest products, power cut due to excessive use of electricity etc.

## **4. Non-availability of open space**

Due to unplanned urbanization and thick population density, urban areas are highly congested without open spaces for parks, play grounds and recreation centres. This results in non availability of free and clean air and space of playing and recreation.

## **5. Air pollution**

The air of urban areas get polluted due to a lot of anthropogenic activities, flying of large number of automobiles, industries etc. These activities release pollutants like carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, oxides of nitrogen, oxides of sulphur, hydrocarbons, vapours of organic compounds, particulates, and toxic metals etc. which are capable of inducing a number of health hazards.

### 6. Noise pollution

The noise produced from automobiles, vehicles, social functions, industries etc. cause noise pollution in urban areas which causes psychological and physical ailments.

### 7. Violation of urban planning rules

The unplanned urbanization leads to violation of rules laid down for establishing ideal urban settlements where one can lead healthy and comfortable life. The buildings constructed do not obey the prescribed floor space index or floor area ratio.

### 8. Water-logging and drainage

The migration of large number of poor and rural people without any civic sense, disposal of a large amount of solid waste, unplanned settlements etc. in urban areas cause water logging and drainage problem.

### 9. Traffic and floating population

The large migration of rural peoples in search of job to the urban areas causes serious traffic problem and environmental pollution of all kinds.

### 10. Unusual rise in temperature

The unplanned constructions of large buildings in urban areas absorb solar radiation and in the afternoon, these emit heat radiations increasing the climatic temperature.

### Check your progress - 3

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

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

7. Comment on – Role of housing.

8. Write about VAMBAY.

9. List down the urban environmental problems.

## 14.9. POVERTY

Poverty studies in India have concentrated on counting the number of units-usually households or individuals –falling below a certain level of consumption expenditure or income. Amartya Sen (1973) wrote, ‘The Indian poor may not be accustomed to receiving much help, but they are beginning to get used to being counted. The poor in this country have lately been lined up in all kinds of different ways and have subjected to several sophisticated head counts.’

### 14.9.1 POVERTY IN INDIA

Poverty is one of the most widespread socio-economic problems of India. It is, indeed, a common problem which is being faced with most of the underdeveloped and the developing countries of the world. It is not only socio-economic but even emotional, cultural and political in nature. The developments that have been taking place in this land for the past six

decades have not been able to wipe out poverty. Poverty has been the root cause of many of the problems.

#### **14.9.2 URBAN POVERTY IN INDIA**

The acceleration of structural changes and poverty analysis is that, the level of urban is more closely linked with overall indicators of economic development than with specific indicators related to industrialization or urbanization. Indeed, the close correlation with level of rural poverty indicates that the two cannot be viewed separately. Given relatively high labour mobility, this is not surprising. Increasing level of urban welfare naturally pulls in job aspirants from rural areas if conditions there are much worse. Conversely, rural prosperity has its reflection in relative urban prosperity through generation of urban activities resulting from demand stimulation. It is also of some significance that the variance in rural poverty is much higher than in urban poverty. Urban activities are essentially footloose- urban labour markets are probably more national in character than the rural labour markets. Moreover rural productivity is more clearly rooted in immovable assets –land and hence less prone to greater variance between states. The rate of change in the employment structure has lagged far behind that of output and value added. Manufacturing activities have indeed grown apace but not perhaps fast enough.

There is a clear evidence of an accelerating change in the employment structure also, contrary to the popular impression manufacturing employment and not the tertiary sector has been the fastest growing sector. There seems to have been a greater tendency of industrial dispersal up to the mid –1970 the subsequent. From the evidence it is difficult to argue that industrial dispersal had any significant effect on urban poverty removal- though the correlation of urban poverty and manufacture activity are generally in the right direction. The key regional pattern that emerges is really on east-west divide. The states with persistently high poverty level both rural and urban are Bihar, MP, Orissa, UP and Tamil Nadu. The advance states of West Bengal and Maharashtra are also exhibit high level of rural poverty. Thus the three traditionally advanced industrial states: West Bengal, Maharashtra, and Tamil Nadu all exhibits high levels of rural poverty. As a result their urban poverty levels are also not low as might have been expected. What is of great interest is that Haryana and Punjab are found to be the most successful in all spheres and this has been achieved without large-scale industrial investment. Yet the growth in manufacturing employment is among the highest in these states including employment in household industries, which is generally declining elsewhere. The level of urban poverty is lowest in these states as well, non-agricultural employment in both rural and urban areas.

Along with all these changes, urbanization also accelerated significantly in these states. So the key to removal of urban poverty is agricultural growth. It is difficult to sustain high growth rate in manufacturing activity and employment without the accompanying improvements in agricultural productivity. In deed the magnitude of non-agricultural employment growth that is needed for poverty removal can

only occur if there is adequate growth in agricultural productivity. The evidence from the older industrialized states is clear: poverty removal in these states is stymied by languishing hinterlands despite high levels of industrialization and urbanization. The effect of accelerated agricultural growth would be most felt in the generation of non-agricultural activities both in rural as well as in the small and medium towns whose primary function is the service of their hinterland.

Big cities are then indirectly affected through operation of the labour market and through enhanced demand for their products and services from the small and medium towns. The decay of the eastern region emerges as the most significant problem. The strategy of locating heavy industries in the eastern and central states has had little beneficial impact in terms of poverty removal. Vast areas in Bihar, MP, Orissa, UP, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka have very low productivity agricultural regions. Their levels of urbanization and industrialization are among the lowest in the world-along with some of the highest indices of poverty. Industrial dispersal in the absence of significant direct attack on agricultural productivity will do little to reduce urban or rural poverty in these areas. All the evidence suggests that the slow decrease in poverty in India has been caused by slow overall structural change. The fact that employment structure has changed much more slowly than that of value added suggest that the investment strategy has been wrong, being aimed at a dispersal of heavy and large industry rather than agriculture and light industries. A self-sustaining plan poverty removal in urban and rural areas can only be reached if the investment strategy is oriented toward a much more accelerated generation of non-agricultural employment.

### **14.9.3 DEFINITION OF POVERTY**

1. 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.”
2. Adam Smith: “A person ... is rich or poor according to the degree in which he can afford to enjoy the necessities, the conveniences and the amusements of life”.
3. Goddard: “Poverty is insufficient supply of those things which are requisite for an individual to maintain himself and those dependent upon him in his health and vigour”.

### **14.9.4 ABOSOLUTE POVERTY AND RELATIVE POVERTY**

#### **Absolute Poverty**

Right from the 19th century, some researchers are trying to fix some yardstick for measuring poverty in precise terms. Ideally speaking such a yardstick would help us establish a fixed level of poverty, known as “poverty line” below which poverty begins and above which it ends. Such

a yardstick is believed to be universal in character and would be applicable to all the societies. This concept of poverty is known as “Absolute poverty” Absolute poverty is often known as “subsistence poverty” for it is based on assessments of minimum subsistence requirements of basic “physical needs” such as food, clothing, shelter, health requirements etc. Some concepts of absolute poverty would even include the idea of “basic cultural needs”. This broadens the idea of basic human needs beyond the level of physical survival. Drewnowski and Scott include education, security, leisure and recreation in their category of “basic cultural needs”.

### **Relative Poverty**

#### NOTES

The difficulties involved in the application of the concept of “absolute poverty”, made some researchers to abandon the concept altogether. In place of absolute standards, they have developed the idea of relative standards that is; standards which are relative to particular time and place. In this way, the idea of absolute poverty has been replaced by the idea of relative poverty. “Relative poverty is measured in terms of judgements by members of a particular society of what is considered as reasonable and acceptable standard of living and styles of life according to the conventions of the day. Just as conventions change from time to time, and place to place, so will definitions of poverty.” in a rapidly changing world, definitions of poverty based on relative standard will be constantly changing. Hence, Peter Townsend has suggested that any definition of poverty must be “related to the needs and demands of a changing society”.

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## **14.10 UNEMPLOYMENT**

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.

### **14.10.1 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**

### **14.10.2 TYPES OF UNEMPLOYMENT**

- **Classical:** 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.
- **Cyclical:** 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.
- **Structural:** occurs when the labor market is not able to provide jobs for everyone who wants to work. There is a mismatch between the skills of the unemployed workers and the skills needed for

available jobs. It differs from frictional unemployment because it lasts longer.

- **Frictional:** the time period in between jobs when a worker is searching for work or transitioning from one job to another.
- **Hidden:** the unemployment of potential workers that is not taken into account in official unemployment statistics because of how the data is collected. For example, workers are only considered unemployed if they are looking for work so those without jobs who have stopped looking are no longer considered unemployed.
- **Long-term:** usually defined as unemployment lasting longer than one year.

### 14.10.3 URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT IN INDIA

Urban unemployment in India is estimated at 15 to 25 per cent of the labour force. This percentage is even higher among the educated people. It is estimated that about half of all educated urban unemployed are concentrated in four metropolitan cities (Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, and Chennai). Furthermore, although urban incomes are higher than the rural incomes, they are appallingly low in view of high cost of living in urban areas.

One of the major causes of urban unemployment is the large scale migration of people from rural to urban areas. Rural-urban migration has been continuing for a pretty long time but it has not always been as great a problem as it is today. The general poverty among the rural people pushes them out to urban areas to migrate in search of livelihood and in the hope of a better living.

But the growth of economic opportunities fails to keep pace with the quantum of immigration. The limited capacity of urban areas could not create enough employment opportunities and absorb the rapid growth of the urban labour force. Efforts made by the central and the state governments to create employment opportunities in rural areas and to check the large scale rural-urban migration have not met with much success.

### 14.10.4 UNEMPLOYMENT RATE IN URBAN

The latest Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) states that the unemployment rate (UR) in both rural and urban India is at its highest since 1972.

The unemployment rates among men and women in both rural and urban groups are also the highest ever. The increase in the UR is more than three times among rural men and more than double among rural women according to the usual status since 2011-12.

In urban areas, the UR among men is more than twice and has increased twice among women since 2011-12. It is to be noted that the UR between 1972 and 2012 was almost static or did not have many differences. Besides, the UR rose sharply among youth of ages between 15-29 years and those who got better education.

The measurement of unemployment is based on the usual status and Current Weekly status. The Usual Status approach to measuring

unemployment uses a reference period of 365 days i.e. one year preceding the date of the survey of the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) for measuring unemployment.

The Current Weekly Status (CWS) approach to measuring unemployment uses seven days preceding the date of survey as the reference period. A person is considered to be employed if he or she pursues any one or more gainful activities for at least one hour on any day of the reference week.

The Union Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation had constituted PLFS under the chairmanship of Amitabh Kundu. The data was collected by NSSO from July 2017 to June 2018. The survey was spread over 12,773 first-stage sampling units (7,014 villages and 5,759 urban blocks) covering 1, 02, 113 households (56,108 in rural areas and 46,005 in urban areas) and enumerating 4, 33, 339 persons (2, 46, 809 in rural areas and 1, 86, 530 in urban areas).

The unemployment rates in urban areas are higher than those in rural areas. In urban areas, the UR is 7.8 per cent according to the usual status. The overall unemployment rate is 6.1 per cent in India according to the usual status. According to CWS, the urban rate is 9.6 per cent. The overall unemployment rate is 8.9 per cent.

#### **14.10.5 UNEMPLOYMENT RATE OF MALE AND FEMALES IN URBAN**

In urban areas, the unemployment rates for females are higher than those for males.

The unemployment rate among youth between 15 and 29 years has risen sharply since 2011-12. Among rural males and females, the UR is almost three times since 2011-12, whereas among urban males and females, this rate is more than double.

The UR has also sharply increased among those who are more educated. Since 2011-12, the UR among rural males has increased by almost three times, from 1.7 per cent to 5.7 per cent. Those who have higher degree of education and those who are completely not-literate have witnessed almost the same level of unemployment.

Interestingly, unemployment among rural not-literate females has reduced and among urban females, the number of those who are literate up to primary-level jobs is the same as 2011-12.

#### **14.10.6. CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT AT URBAN AREAS IN INDIA**

Some of the Causes of Unemployment at Urban Areas are as follows:

According to Madan, the causes of unemployment can be divided into three categories, namely:

##### **(i) Personal factors**

Personal factors refer to the physical disability, weak mentality, accidents, defective education and training. Elliott and Merill have explained the following under the personal factors.

##### **a. Age factor**

The very young and old persons are at a disadvantage in securing employment due to inexperience and inefficiency, respectively.

**b. Vocational unfitness**

Many young people have no understanding of their own abilities or interests and have no particular task in mind when they have to get their training. Willingness to do anything may seem to indicate a worthy desire on the part of the person seeking work. Employers, on the other hand, may seek qualified and competent trained workers. Similarly, there may be more men trained in a particular profession than required. The demand is less than the supply and hence unemployment.

**c. Illness or physical disabilities**

A number of workers may be temporarily unemployed because of illness or physical disabilities. Illness may be caused due to conditions in the occupation and disabilities may arise due to accidents.

**(ii) Technological and economic factors**

Another important factor causing unemployment is disorganization in the economic structure and the dislocation in industries. Due to advancement in science and technology, a high specialization in the division of labour takes place. Due to this, able-bodied and capable men remain unemployed. The unemployment generated under this category is due to trade cycles, technological advancement, seasonal variations and lack of mobility among the labour force. Unemployment is a result of both technological changes and cyclical variations of business and trade, which are deeply connected with the production process.

**(iii) Mass migration**

Mass migration is an important cause for unemployment in urban areas. People migrate from rural areas in large groups when there is drought or when any other unfavourable conditions occur. A city or town can ill-afford to provide employment opportunities to all of the migrated people, thus, causing mass unemployment.

The problem of unemployment that exists in India is an outcome of several cumulative factors such as the British rule and its policies, the Zamindari system, which exploited the farmers, the policy of laissez faire and free trade, which hindered the progress of rapid industrialization, the rapid growth of population, the decay of small-scale and cottage industries, which led to a large-scale migration from rural to urban areas, and the low levels of investment that resulted in the slow expansion of the secondary and tertiary sectors.

**14.10.7. MEASURES TO MINIMIZE UNEMPLOYMENT IN INDIA**

It is disturbing as well as distressing to find that the standard of living of man is still below the desired level and unemployment is on the increase. In order to meet the problem of unemployment, the following measures are to be taken:

- a. According to Madan, the personal disabilities include illness, physical handicaps, old age and inexperience. The methods suggested to overcome these disabilities are socialized health services, adequate wage provisions to maintain health, vocational rehabilitation, vocational education and educational planning, workmen's

NOTES

- compensation and other social security schemes and new vocational opportunities.
- b. Planned development by accelerating industrialization, removing the deficiency of demand, stabilizing the rate of domestic investment and consumer demand can fight the problem of unemployment.
  - c. Creating more employment opportunities in the rural areas through intensive farming, greater irrigation facilities, extension of community projects, organization of co-operative farming, development of village industry and settlement of agricultural labourers on the reclaimed land. Emphasis should also be laid on the development of small-scale and cottage industries to relieve the pressure on land. These not only help in creating employment opportunities but also check the rate of migration from rural to urban areas.
    - i. According to Madan to eliminate seasonal unemployment, the manufacturers can take up the production of some other commodities in the slack season.
    - ii. Providing temporary work for those who have lost employment. In India, the surplus labour power can be utilized for various public works programmes, afforestation and expansion of cottage industries and so on.
    - iii. The present education system needs a thorough overall check to meet the changing pattern of demand not only through re-orientation but also by diversifying the courses in the field of commerce, trade, banking, insurance, technical and managerial personnel so that the adjustments of demand and labour in various occupations become easy.
    - iv. Development of small-scale and village industries can increase the rate of employment. For this, the government should guide the small-scale industries in financing and marketing.
    - v. Self-employment schemes for the unemployed youth have to be launched to enable them to start their own business or small-scale firm, which can also generate employment for many others.

**Check your progress - 4**

**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 known as poverty line?
- 11. What is the major cause of urban unemployment?
- 12. Write any two measures to minimize unemployment.

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## 14.11 LET US SUM UP

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Urbanisation has been an instrument of economic, social and political progress; it has led to serious social problems. Measures are taken to minimize the problems in urban area. Crime, juvenile delinquency, slums, housing problems, environmental problems, poverty and unemployment are in urban areas as social problems. This unit helps the learner to discuss, analyse the causes, preventive measures with available data.

In this unit you have learnt urban social problems such as crime, juvenile delinquency, slums, housing problems, environmental problems poverty and unemployment problems.

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## 14.12. UNIT – END – EXERCISES

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1. Define social problem.
2. How did Tappan define crime?
3. Write notes on Cyber crime.
4. Explain the characteristics of Juvenile Delinquency.
5. Describe the types of slums.
6. Briefly explain the approaches to the slum problems.
7. How can solve the problems of housing?
8. Explain environmental problem in urban..
9. Explain the absolute poverty and relative poverty
10. Explain the causes of unemployment at urban areas in India.

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## 14.13. ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. When a particular social phenomenon or condition disturbs the social order and hinders smooth working of social institutions that comes to be identified as a social problem.
2. In 1958
3. Indian Penal Code
4. Delinquency is a kind of abnormality. When an individual deviates from the course of normal social life, his behaviour is called “delinquency”.
5. Raising the income levels of poor families, Providing job opportunities to children,  
Establishing schools  
Improving job conditions  
Providing recreational facilities in neighbourhoods
6. A slum is a heavily populated urban informal settlement characterized by substandard housing and squalor
7. Housing is closely associated to the process of overall socio-economic development. It provides shelter and raises the quality of life. It generates conditions which are congenial to the achievement of social objectives such as health, sanitation and education. It provides employment opportunities to the rural and urban people. Moreover it helps to improve urban rural equality by narrowing down the difference in the standard of living. Thus housing

performs multiple functions including many social needs of the household.

8. This programme was launched on 2nd December 2001. The scheme is meant for urban slum dwellers below the poverty line that do not have adequate houses.
9. Water supply, wastewater, solid waste, energy, loss of green and natural spaces, urban sprawl, pollution of soil, air, traffic, noise, etc.
10. Researchers try to fix some yardstick for measuring poverty in precise terms; such a yardstick would help to establish a fixed level of poverty known as poverty line.
11. Large scale migration
12. A) To eliminate seasonal unemployment, the manufacturers can take up the production of some other commodities in the slack season.  
B) Self-employment schemes for the unemployed youth have to be launched to enable them to start their own business or small-scale firm, which can also generate employment for many others.

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#### 4.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

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6. Ramachandran, R., 1989. Urbanization and Urban Systems in India, OUP, Delhi.
7. Desai. A. R and S. Devadas Pillai. Eds. (1990). Slums and Urbanisation, Bombay. Popular Prakashan.
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**DISTANCE EDUCATION – CBCS – (2018 – 19 Academic  
Year Onwards)**

**Question Paper Pattern (ESE) – Theory**

**(UG/PG/P.G.Diploma Programmes)**

**Time: 3 Hours**

**Maximum: 75 Marks**

**Part – A**

**(10 x 2 = 20 Marks)**

**Answer all questions**

1. Define - Rural Sociology.
2. What is called peasant movement?
3. What is Mahalwari System?
4. Define – Caste.
5. What is the meaning of Seasonal Unemployment?
6. What is meant by urban sociology?
7. What are the functions of Dominant caste?
8. What is called demographic approach in urbanisation?
9. Define city.
10. Who are Juvenile Delinquents?

**Part – B**

**(5 x 5 =**

**25 Marks)**

**Answer all questions choosing either (a) or (b)**

11. a. Explain the Scope of Rural Sociology.  
(or)  
b. Enumerate the Rural Urban contrast
12. a. Explain the features of jajmani system  
(or)  
b. Explain the types of Unemployment.
13. a. Enumerate the ways to measure Urbanisation  
(or)  
b. Explain the impact of Green Revolution.
14. a. Explain the main functions of a city.  
(or)  
b. Describe the types of slums.
15. a. Describe the basic features of India's urbanisation.  
(or)  
b. List down the objectives of National Urbanization Policy.

**Part – C**

**(3 x 10 = 30 Marks)**

**(Answer any 3 out of 5 questions)**

16. Explain environmental problem in urban.
17. Discuss migration in India.
18. Discuss in detail about Agrarian Social Structure and Change
19. Write an essay about Health and sanitation.
20. Elucidate the Rural Development Programme

*Urban Social Problems*

NOTES

*Self - Instructional Material*